



Nonviolent Conflict Transformation

Training Manual
for a Training of Trainers Course

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By Ruth Mischnick PhD

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To the Reader

This *Manual* on Conflict transformation is the product of a process by a consortium of partner organisations. The goal was to identify, synthesise, complement, teach and enable conflict transformation for trainers from a European point of view. The project consisted of the conducting of training of trainers workshops and the *Manual*. The training of trainers workshops were conducted in Slovakia, Romania, Italy and Switzerland and Germany in the years 2005 and 2006. The whole project has been, and continues to be, an ambitious and challenging initiative with many different dimensions. We have learnt a great deal, but in an emerging and dynamic field there is always much more for us to learn and to improve.

It has been a challenge to try to capture the richness and diversity of approaches and opinions on training for conflict transformation in various geographical and institutional contexts and to present them in an accessible and succinct format. We believe that the *Manual* makes a useful and relevant contribution to practice. We welcome feedback on what is helpful in the *Manual* as well as what requires change or further elaboration. Working for better practice by its very nature is always work in progress, with no room for complacency.

All the organisations involved in managing this initiative were inspired by the wealth of good practice and innovative responses that are being applied often undocumented as well as by the energy and openness with which people and agencies talked about their experiences and on-going challenges. The desire for improved guidance and to share knowledge, methods, approaches and tools amongst practitioners was encouraging. This has enabled mutual capacity building, reflection, research and learning in the pursuit of better practice.

This *Manual* marks the beginning of a process, rather than the end. It is a contribution to an emerging field. It is also a snapshot in time; the field is developing extremely rapidly. Some elements of the *Manual* describe or synthesise current experience with particular issues in the field of teaching or applying education. Other components identify knowledge or understanding.

We will continue to research new, emerging areas and new geographic contexts, and will discuss and share our findings with you. Ultimately it will be up to practitioners and communities themselves to judge the utility and impact of this venture.

We are also grateful to our various donors for their engagement and support during the evolution of this initiative.

The Manual

The *Manual* provides different chapters with concepts and mirroring exercises that are crucial for understanding and applying conflict transformation. The *Manual* is based upon the comprehension of Diana Francis' conflict transformation theory and focuses upon transformation of social conflicts. The *Manual* purposely does not supply the reader with "fixed schedules". It is our true believe that every schedule would give the underlying message that reality can be copied. In that sense all the exercises function as suggestions that can be changes due to the chosen objective.

The last chapter of the *Manual* presents an essay written by Hagen Berndt. The essay gives an overview and deeper understanding of the roots of nonviolence, an idea that we are committed to.

The following persons contributed to the *Manual*:

Ueli Wildberger, Dirk Sprenger, Beatrix Schmelze, Ján Mihálik, Hagen Berndt, Peter Siebenhühner, Jochen Neumann, Mike Dobbie, Ruth Mischnick Ph.D. and Winnie the Pooh. With kind permission, some information was taken from the resource pack of International Alert. Some quotations mirror the experience of the website www.beyondintractability.com, also with kind permission.

The Manual was written and edited by Ruth Mischnick Ph.D.

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1

Chapter One:

Training Approach of a Training of Trainers in Nonviolent Conflict Transformation

INTRODUCTION

Training has an important role in the conflict transformation repertoire: It can sensitise for conflict causes and dynamics in the environment in which one works; and strengthen skills for dealing with conflict and the sensitivity for - intended and unintended - consequences of specific activities. Training local activists, training other trainers and training third-parties can, in addition, contribute to a supporting and strengthening people who work for a shift towards constructive conflict transformation, build networks of support and empowerment among such people who otherwise may work in isolation from each other, and spread sensitivity and skills to more strategically placed people, contributing to creating what is metaphorically referred to as critical mass.

Training for conflict transformation does hope to have an impact on the way in which conflicts are dealt with and transformed: between individuals and in societies in violent conflict. Training, after all, forms the backbone of one of conflict transformation's primary strategies: capacity-building.

Trainers

The trainer, if he is not an activist from the conflict context, will not directly influence the conflict situation during or after the training process. If one can link the trainer with conflict-transforming impacts, this can only be done indirectly through the participants: The trainer works with the participants and they, in turn, work in the conflict context or with other trainers who work in such contexts. The question, then, is how appropriate trainers can be chosen for a training process: trainers who will accomplish, jointly with the participants, that the participants transfer training results, and so have impacts.

A trainer needs field experience and not just knowledge from desk studies. If participants recognise that this person has working expertise in conflict-prone areas, they take him seriously, a necessary condition for every learning process. And they learn from his examples more than from theories. Often participants even take the trainer as a mirror for their behaviour and actions.

Trainer teams are good value. Working in teams indirectly shows participants that best results are obtained when different individuals work together. Teams shall be mixed (men/women, regional/international trainers, senior/junior trainers, etc.). This increases credibility and quality of the work.

The possibility for conflict transforming impacts is high if, during the training process, participants connect the training contents with their own situation – individually – and with their conflict context - regionally and socially. To create this connection is part of the trainer's job. How this connection is made depends highly upon the authenticity of the trainer and his skilfulness.

Participants

Trainees usually come from either one of three groups:

- People who engage in constructive, nonviolent conflict transformation, and

who come from or work in regions in which conflict is, or has been, fought out strongly. When considering training opportunities, this group of (local or international) “activists” generally looks for capacity-building which will prove useful in achieving a tangible transformation of violent conflict.

- People who aim to become trainers for conflict transformation themselves (either as a local trainer or a trainer working internationally). This group of “potential trainers” usually looks for both content-based and educational skills-training and “training on the/for the job”.
- People who – in a more indirect, yet connected sense – work in the environment of violent conflict. They include staff of national and international agencies, decision-makers, etc. This broad and heterogeneous group of “interested third parties” often takes to conflict transformation training in order to become more informed about, or sensitised for, conflict transformation work. Their expectations centre on conflict analysis and basic skills which may or may not be implemented in their day-to-day job.

In training we may work with groups, but first and foremost we work with the individual. What happens in the dynamic context of trainings regarding knowledge, skills and reflection takes place first within a participant. Only as a further step these individuals might have an influence on the group level or the level of society and politics in their conflict context. The big challenge in training therefore is how to work individually and impact socially.

One may want to contradict at this point because during a training process there is a lot going on within the group and some results are only possible because the setting is a group and not a private lesson. Seldom has one the “group in conflict”, i.e. all the conflict parties involved, assembled within one training course. Reality often is that you have one, maybe a few representatives of one party involved, the other participants coming from different conflict contexts. Or you work with a group representing only one side in the conflict.

Change agents: When the decision is made that training is indeed a piece of the strategic enigma, one of the next steps is to agree on the location and selection of possible participants. “Ideal” participants are those whose work during and after the training process might have a positive impact on the conflict situation the person lives in. What we look for are people who can bring changes to the conflict situation, so-called change agents. If possible, a group of actual or potential change agents from one conflict context should participate throughout the same training process. Such peer groups can give birth to ideas and approaches jointly during the process and support each other directly and morally.

There is another advantage of involving peer groups already during the training process. It is rare that one single person holds the key characteristics necessary for conflict transformation. Who is self-confident and self-reflective at the same time, who thinks in sharp and analytic ways and is simultaneously emotional and intuitive? Who is open for coaching or counselling and holds staying power? Who has lots of knowledge and is (still) open for new ideas and methods? Who comes from the conflict context and holds necessary insights, and at the same time is respected by the different groups involved? And, finally, who is patient and relaxed yet, if necessary, can push certain issues?

Challenges to be aware of before one even starts training

Challenge 1: Addressing Underlying Assumptions, Theories of Change and Values

Training will have some effect on the context, so at the outset of training workshops, it is important to be aware of assumptions and hypotheses that guide training and capacity-building, as they – consciously or unconsciously – influence their shape and effect. The most basic assumption is that training can further individual and social/political change that will create more peaceful and less violent societies (in terms of attitudes, behaviours and structures). The scope of such envisioned change can vary from small communities to cross-country relations. There is an implanted assumption, too, that there are conceptual and behavioural skills that indeed will improve the way communities and individuals deal with conflict – and that while conflict is an essential dimension of human relationship, violence is not. We assume that these skills can be taught and learned across cultures, and improved with reflection and practice. And we assume that the application of such skills by the right and/or by enough people will help create more peaceful relations.

On a different level, all trainees and trainers bring personal and societal values to the training setting that shape their expectations and interactions. Insiders and outsiders bring with them diverse and implicit assumptions, aspirations and values. If one is not aware of such underlying assumptions, the training process may run into unexpected resistance and difficulties. So everyone involved in a training process needs some time and space to examine their sets of values and assumptions and engage in thinking about how they might influence the training process – as well as the long-term purpose of conflict transformation.

Challenge 2: Rooting Training in Analysis and Long-term Strategic Vision

The foundations for good training results lie in a thorough initial analysis and strategy formulation that give preliminary answers to the questions of what is needed (in terms of skills and people) as well as what the objective of the training activity is. Regularly repeated analysis and strategy-building exercises should involve trainees, trainers and organisers and should focus on goal formulation and process planning. It should also be known that in some situations, initial analysis and strategy formulation might lead to an acknowledgement that conflict transformation training is not the appropriate way to engage, as other activities might be more important and efficient at that given point in time. This would also go some way to addressing the criticism that training workshops are often used as a 'default' option in conflict transformation.

Challenge 3: Overcoming the Selection Bias

There is not much comparative evidence published about specific experiences in working with groups other than the easily accessible or self-selected people who are interested anyway. In fact, a general criticism of conflict transformation

work has been that there is a tendency to work with like-minded and like-situated groups, often targeting the urban, well-educated, English-speaking, and, in situations of violent conflict, ‘converted’ parts of society. On the other hand, little is known, for example, about working with aggressive or formerly aggressive groups. Several factors are at play: For one, such groups are usually not predisposed to sign up for training workshops addressing conflict transformation with nonviolent means. At the same time, one of the values at the centre of nonviolent conflict transformation is to ascertain the shared humanity of those who have become used to seeing each other as enemies, so that approaching and working with more extremist groups does make sense. The necessity to integrate groups engaging in so-called ‘spoiler’ behaviour into peace processes to ensure their sustainability, for example, has gained many proponents over the years. Carefully balanced efforts should therefore be made to expand the remit of conflict transformation training to create spaces for encounter and debate among the whole range of forces that shape the course of the conflict – and its transformation.

Challenge 4: Providing On-going Support and Follow-up

On-going support (access to a network, coaching or supervision, on-going contact with the trainer team) and follow-up opportunities are crucial factors for successful training programs. If external trainers and agencies cannot be reasonably sure of providing these, their programs might do more harm than is usually acknowledged. Disappointed expectations, insufficient preparation and nurturing, a sense of futility or frustration can discredit not only a training event and its organisers, but also the concepts and ideas of conflict transformation it was designed to spread in the first place. Opportunities to reflect on the practice of what has been learned are most important in ensuring on-going engagement. This is particularly true for Training for Trainers workshops, as many trainees still experience a lack of “safe” opportunities to “practice” – both for the sake of their own development and for the sake of the (conflict) parties on whom they try their emerging skills. Here, mentoring and a form of apprenticeship are good value additions to training programs.

Challenge 5: Transfer from the Individual to the Social Level

In training, individual changes - of attitudes and behaviours - come first. Such change involves seeing things in a new way, un-learning old patterns and learning and testing new patterns of thought and behaviour. Yet conflict transformation training also aims to bridge the gap between individual, micro-level and social, meso- or macro-level change. Through processes of “multiplying” (enhanced by a careful choice of participants) and “networking” (enhanced by careful group composition and continuous follow-up), social change - of collective attitudes, behaviours and structures or processes - is meant to follow personal change.

As trainers, it is important that we reconcile our beliefs and our practices. Establishing practices begins with understanding that a dichotomy between beliefs and practices frequently exists. From this point, the trainer or training team should

reflect on the objectives of the project and how these objectives will be met by the training's components. We must also take into consideration when planning our training how the identity of the participants should affect the design, process, and outcome of the training.

Reflective practice is the process of exploring patterns, making adjustments during the training, or thinking about the training.

In conflict transformation, the reflection generally begins at the points of either practice or theory and is operationalised in three stages:

- Reflecting on who you are as an individual and what you bring to the intervention: the attitudes, values, and fears that affect your work;
- Thinking about situations you are likely to encounter and what theories, models, and concepts might apply; and
- Encountering surprises and being able to reflect in the moment (from a theoretical perspective) on what the trainer thinks is happening and developing a contingent response to deal with it.

Reflective practice, whether conceptualized as above or in some other way, is the generic skill that enables a trainer to anticipate and respond to ethical dilemmas.

We should seek transparency with regard to values, intentions, and goals, for both trainers and training participants.

- Reflection is required in a trainer's perceptions of both content and delivery: Is it ethical to intervene at all and, if so, what form should the intervention take and what level of responsibility for the outcome can I accept?
- We need to be aware of and engaged in the process of selecting the participants and determining the site and timing of the training. Inherent in this process is dealing with the ethical dilemmas of providing training to those who may use it for the wrong purposes.
- We need to track knowledge, skills, and abilities imparted in training to understand which are the most effective in promoting the conflict transformation process and which are less than useful or are being used for improper purposes.

Objectives of trainings

Formulated objectives, feedback loops, safe space and transfer to real life form cornerstones of each workshop. Since conflict transformation explicitly aims to address root causes of violent conflict, conflict analysis has a prominent role. Basic workshops should cover the whole set of potential conflict transformation activities. These activities can be grouped along different structuring principles: One such set of principles are the four steps of analysis, strategy, action and learning; another are the conflict phases of latent conflict, open conflict, settlement and conflict prevention together with the related skill-sets of awareness

raising/group formation and communication, preparation for and implementation of dialogue/negotiation/ mediation/reconciliation, and monitoring/reconstruction/ community (re-)building. Advanced workshops should focus on a great variety of different specialisations.

To bring training to reality - Workshop planning

Workshops require a lot of preparation. To make a training workshop as effective as possible, a trainer should know the participants, what participants expect, as well as more specific details about the training location, and the materials which you need to have available. Workshop planning can be divided into different stages:

- Preworkshop Planning
- Designing the Workshop
- Carrying out the Workshop
- Evaluating the Workshop
- Times in between

Pre-workshop planning

Pre-workshop planning helps ensure the training runs smoothly and gives trainers an opportunity to research participant expectations and then tailor the training to meet the specific needs and concerns of participants. There are several issues and tasks that need to be considered in this stage. Trainers need to:

- Identify the purpose and long-term aim of the workshop
- Identify participants
- A group of 15 to 20 people is usually optimal for training
- Gather information about the participants' needs, concerns, and hopes for the training – ask what transformation skills they want to practice or programming issues they have in common. You can do this by including a questionnaire with the registration form.
- Analyse the information that participants give to design your training, focusing both on concerns and the level they wish to work at. Adapt the training curriculum to reflect their expectations and context.
- Plan the workshop logistics – identify a place to hold the workshop, staff needed, and the length of time required. Try to avoid planning workshops on major holidays or at particularly busy times of the year for participants!

Designing the workshop

Once the trainer gathers and analyses the vision for the training and the participants' needs, concerns and hopes, the workshop can be designed to meet those needs. Some basic considerations for training design include:

- Giving participants an opportunity to get to know each other and feel comfortable within the group.
- Using several training methods to meet a variety of learning styles.

- Incorporating a common experience – or several, depending on the length of the workshop – that participants can draw on and link to their previous experiences.
- Common experiences provide something concrete that all the participants can relate to, and engage in energetic discussions about.
- Allowing time for participants to share information with each other, either during plenary or group work.
- Giving participants ample opportunity to reflect on their experience.
- Giving participants time to plan future action

Carrying out the workshop

The purpose of all the planning is to run an effective and fruitful workshop from which participants leave carrying new ideas for conflict transformation and how to train it. Following a relationship-centred and participatory model of training means that the training should focus on participants and elicit their knowledge, generate analysis, and plans for action. However, some general suggestions regarding the actual workshop are:

- Check on logistical details before the workshop starts. These details can range from snacks to the materials needed for exercises occurring that day, such as flip chart paper, newsprint, markers, or handouts.
- Know and follow your workshop plan, but be flexible in following it. Be prepared to make adjustments and changes to meet the group's needs as they emerge.

Evaluating the workshop

Workshops are learning experiences for participants and trainers. Giving participants an opportunity to evaluate the event allows them a chance to express their feelings and can be very valuable for the trainers, particularly if they are not defensive about getting feedback.

Evaluations can be conducted at the end of a short training, mid-way through a longer training and at the end, or daily, depending on your preferences and ability to gauge the group's level of engagement and learning.

Times in between several workshops

If the design of the training covers a series of workshops the intensity of learning experience can be deepened if the participants receive homework. Assignments can include readings as well as actions.

How to train

John Paul Lederach has articulated the distinction between approaches which impose (prescribe) knowledge of the trainers upon the trainees and approaches

which draw out (elicit) the common sense knowledge of the trainees in order to facilitate the creation of something new, that is appropriate .

The diagram contrasts pure prescriptive and pure elicitive approaches. As Lederach stresses, all training and intervention fall somewhere between the two extremes, and much of the efforts at the prescriptive end of the spectrum would be more empowering – helpful in long-term – if they had more elicitive orientation.

PRESCRIPTIVE	ELICITIVE
Training as transfer	Training as discovery and creation
Resource: Knowledge of trainer	Resource: within – setting knowledge
Training as content oriented: Master approach and technique	Training as process oriented: participate in model creation
Empowerment as learning new ways and strategies	Empowerment as validating/ building from context
Trainer as expert, model, facilitator	Trainer as catalyst and facilitator
Culture as technique	Culture as foundation and seed bed

From Preparing for Peace: Conflict Transformation across Cultures (1995)

The elicitive approach emphasizes helping individuals and groups uncover their conscious or unconscious knowledge gained from practical experience. The trainer acts as a facilitator or catalyst to help group members uncover knowledge they already have. There are five sequential elements in an elicitive training process: (1) discovery; (2) naming and categorizing; (3) evaluation; (4) adaptation and recreation; and (5) practical application. Both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses and, in fact, most effective training programs incorporate elements of each.

The following represent some lessons learned with regard to intercultural conflict transformation training:

- Trainers should develop a firm understanding of their own culture and biases.
- Trainers and participants must be prepared to be challenged.
- When ever possible, trainers should consult with prospective trainees on the design of the proposed training seminars.
- Trainers should develop a balance between prescriptive and elicitive approaches and should communicate with trainees about the approach being used.
- Trainers should utilize a range of interactive exercises that provide opportunities for trainees to experience conflict transformation as authentic as possible.
- Trainers should remain open to diverse ways of conceptualizing and practicing

conflict transformation.

- Trainers should help trainees develop “cultural maps” in the form of analytical frameworks and guidelines that can be used to interpret and develop creative responses to unforeseen situations and circumstances.
- Trainers should present open - ended models or frameworks that allow trainees to develop a range of possible culturally influenced conflict transformation responses.
- Trainers should develop culture-specific simulations and role-plays or elicit real problems directly from trainees.
- Trainers should allow plenty of time to let trainees practice skills and make their own experiences. Peers are also perfect to give feedback upon conductions.

In conducting the workshop, the role of the trainer working with an adult audience is less to teach than to structure a learning process for the participants. The choice of the prescriptive (or teaching) model or the elicitive (or learning) model should be based on a diagnosis of the needs and learning goals of the group. People tend to define their goals in terms of achieving better results, and their success is a function of their skills and behaviour. How people behave is not randomly determined, it is a function of how they think.

Conflict transformation training attempts to help people to change their behaviour in ways that improve their results. Helping them to think in ways that will produce the desired behaviour and, in turn, the desired results, does this. To be successful, it may be necessary to help people recognize the assumptions that cause them to think and act in a certain way, and to introduce them to a new set of assumptions and a new way of thinking.

Learning is a process consisting of three basic stages: (1) awareness of existing and alternative assumptions, thinking, and behaviours; (2) understanding, defined as the ability to appreciate and articulate concepts and a sense of how it feels to use them; and (3) competence in applying the concepts without conscious effort and going beyond them to generate new ideas.

Building a constructive training process involves being aware of how people learn and how they move from one stage of learning to the next. In general, there are five ways of assisting people to learn:

- Hearing - explaining a concept (for example, active listening);
- Seeing - providing a demonstration of the concept in action (for example, modelling the techniques of good active learning);
- Doing - providing an opportunity for participants to try out the concept on their own (for example, an active listening exercise or negotiation role play);
- Feeling - providing an opportunity to experience the impact of certain behaviours (for example, what it feels like not to be listened to);
- Reflecting - providing an opportunity for participants to step back and analyze their behaviour, the results it achieved, and the thinking and assumptions that led them to act as they did (for example, a review session after the role-play).

Building in a follow-up mechanism is essential to the success of a training. Successful follow-up begins in the preparation phase and the capabilities of the participants. As the instructor's ability to follow up is limited, the primary responsibility falls upon the participants.

Training success depends, in large measure, on what takes place before and after the actual event. Training is a change process. The jobs of trainers are easier if they see themselves as involved in the same change process as the people they are training. There is no better way to help others learn and change than to be involved in learning yourself.

With respect to this, a number of key elements generally enhance the effectiveness of training:

- In terms of participants, training key people seems more promising than indiscriminately training more people.
- Joint learning of those across the divide of conflict, who have similar tasks, or work in similar organisational environments, can be very powerful and should be employed more often.
- Cross-cultural education and training lay foundations for culturally sensitive and informed practice, i.e. mixed groups are generally "richer" (but can also be more challenging to accompany and train).
- It is necessary to think broadly about relevant skills (strategic planning, communication, curriculum development, group dynamics, etc.) and integrate them creatively into training for conflict transformation.
- Interactive/participatory/elicitive training methods are seen as more powerful (yet in some cultures and contexts they may be met with more resistance).
- Building trust, respect and relationships between trainees is necessary in order to lead to effective training, especially in contexts of violent conflict.
- Strategic embedding of training is absolutely necessary: training workshops that are not part of a broader vision at best remain inconsequential, at worst they can discredit the whole venture of nonviolent conflict transformation.

Conflict transformation and conflict transformation training are about processes, enabling the participants to better understand the process and how to effect positive change through it. There are certain core capabilities that are beneficial for everyone to understand (for example, active listening, cultural sensitivity, getting to the issues behind the positions). However, the best trainings are those that take into account the cultural back grounds of the participants, their preferred method of learning, and the difficulties they may face in trying to bring their newly acquired skills into their societal structure.

2

Chapter Two:

Understanding Conflict

INTRODUCTION

The core feature to conflict transformation is the conflict. In order to be able to transform such a phenomenon one has to have a deep understanding of what a conflict is and be capable to distinguish it from other conflict related issues.

The chapter introduces some basic ideas for thinking about conflict. The main topics discussed are:

- Understanding conflict
- Definitions of conflict
- Underlying causes of conflict
- Conflict and culture
- The difference between conflict and violence
- Conflict escalation

Understanding conflict

Conflict is an ambiguous concept that takes on different meanings for different groups and in different contexts. In particular, conflict tends to be understood and perceived as a negative phenomenon, sometimes even synonymous with violence. Within the framework of the Manual, a broader and more positive approach to understanding conflict has been adopted: it regards conflict as a natural multidimensional phenomenon that is typically indicative of change within society. In this sense, the issue of prevention will focus primarily on the prevention of de-constructive escalation.

Conflicts are a fact of life. It is not a surprise, even though we often are stuck with costs of conflict, that conflict also has benefits. There are substantial benefits to conflict or it would not be the outstanding characteristic of human relationships that it is. Conflict is often driven by a sense of grievance, be it scarcity, inequality, cultural or moral differences, or the distribution of power. Thereby, engaging in the conflict provides one means of addressing these concerns-either affirming a position of advantage or overcoming perceived shortcomings. Conflict is an indicator that the relationship between the ones involved cannot continue as it was before and it is the engine of social learning. Without conflict, attitudes, behaviour, and relationships stay the same, regardless of whether they are fair or not. Conflicts reveal issues. Whether they are dealt with constructively or destructively depend on how the conflict is handled.

To say that there are benefits to conflict is certainly not to say that motivations or consequences are gentle or just. Conflict profiteers gain from conflict by gaining money or power; but those profits are also widely viewed as illegitimate. Legitimate benefits of conflict accumulate to much wider groupings. While certainly not exhaustive, some of the most significant benefits of conflict are social, psychological, and material outcomes.

The collective benefits of conflict: Social interaction often begins through some form of conflict. Constructively handled conflict can lead to long-term peace and cooperation. Conflict often has significant benefits for group cohesion. It can help to construct group boundaries by helping individuals recognize their common interest. War, for example, has been described as the creator of the modern nation-state, at least in Europe. Conflict, thus, can offer stability and serve as a unifying force. In helping individuals to realize their common interest, conflict can go a long way in constructing identities. Facing a common opponent can create new bonds and associations amongst those that previously were unrelated. Identifying a common threat may allow individuals to not only realize a common interest but also to reaffirm a shared identity that may have a longer history. Conflict can also bring about needed social change and empower previously lower-powered groups. After all, if no one ever contested anything, many gross injustices would continue indefinitely.

The psychological benefits of conflict: Conflict can initiate a process through which individuals realize they have common interests and common opponents. As a result, individuals may come to see a strong stake in their side emerging triumphant. One's identity is important for maintaining self-esteem. Therefore, the more of one's identity that is tied up in the group, the more likely individuals are to struggle for it. The threat produced by conflict often results in stronger self-identities.

The material benefits of conflict: Conflict often has concrete material rewards in the form of land, treasure, and the like. It provides benefits in terms enhancing one's power. A number of examples also point to the tremendous economic benefits that are often realized from conflict.

Conflict is certainly to remain a fundamental challenge for mankind. The fact that it can produce benefits for individuals, groups, and nations leads to the conclusion that this is likely to continue. The challenge is to realize the benefits of conflict in such a way so as to minimize the many costs also associated with conflict.

Rarely conflicts are perceived and used as an opportunity to reach a higher degree of satisfaction in relationships. In life, we tend to experience conflict as something hurting, which we would like to stay away from, to neglect or to forget about. Often, for these reasons, we blame others for "disturbing the equilibrium" when they try to take care of their interests and needs. In other cases we utilize conflicts to confront others with our ideas, our own interests or we use our power to impose these on them. Conflict is experienced as a disruption in the natural flow of our relationships. Suddenly we feel ourselves more attentive to things we had taken for granted. No longer do we take things at face value. Instead, we spend time and energy interpreting and re-interpreting what things mean. Our communication becomes difficult. We find it harder to really hear what others are saying – unless of course, they agree with us. We cannot easily comprehend what the other person is up to.

EXERCISE: CONFLICTS AROUND US

Objectives:	<p>The exercise will make participants aware of conflicts that they are experiencing and how they are experiencing them.</p> <p>It helps to practice observation and analytical skills, especially to distinguish between conflict and the way conflict is carried out.</p> <p>It will generate concrete contextual material for further analysis.</p>
Time needed:	120 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart, flipchart paper, markers, pens for participants
Course of action:	<p>Each person is requested to think about social conflicts that meet the following criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the conflict has been experienced by the person as perpetrator, victim or observer, • s/he knows its details, • the person would like to have this conflict discussed in the group • the conflict involves more than two persons. <p>It is good if the conflict is still going on or not resolved to the satisfaction of this person. Role-play and analysis may provide new insight and understanding.</p> <p>The group then is divided into sub-groups of 4-5 persons each. These groups sit together and share their own conflict examples. One of these stories is chosen according to what participants consider interesting.</p> <p>Then a skid (role-play) is prepared that demonstrates the conflict, without playing potential solutions. This phase takes 20-40 minutes.</p> <p>People come together in the plenary and show their role-plays one by one. After each role-play, the observers express what they have seen, initially without correction by the actors. A discussion follows on which aspects of the conflict were relevant to understand it.</p>

	<p>Evaluation - in the discussion, the trainer takes care to support participants in distinguishing between their observations on the one side, and interpretation, assumptions and judgment. Different, also contradictory observations may contribute to a full understanding of what is happening.</p> <p>In the end the actors are asked about their intentions and feelings. Depending on the degree of emotional involvement, do not forget a thorough de-briefing of the actors. Ask the group not to speak of the actors using the names of the persons, but refer to the role: not “Person X did this or that ...”, but better “The person played by person X ...” or “The shop-keeper ...”.</p> <p>Emotions and perceptions play an important part in role-plays. Therefore, the feelings, intentions and view-points expressed by the actors are important contributions for developing empathy, i.e. allowing ourselves to be put into the shoes of conflicting parties that we usually do not understand well.</p> <p>Distinguish between the conflict and the way it is carried out, between the levels of issues, relationships and values.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The material of the role plays can be used for further analysis, but also for mediation and other conflict transformation exercises.</p> <p>Very often it is useful to already collect conflict examples in the plenary (short description of 1-3 sentences to get an idea), select the cases for group work and group participants around a specific case.</p>

Definitions of conflict

The conflict transformation approach understands conflict as multi-dimensional, social phenomena essential to social change. Below there two suggestions of a definition:

- Conflict is a struggle between two or more tendencies of action that are either contrary or in the same direction but mutually exclusive.

Usually conflicts are centred on an issue, a problem, a question, a theme: someone contests the ownership of a piece of land, existing rules are challenged, a service has been contracted and is not performed accordingly, etc. Very often the underlying problems concerning the relationship between the conflicting parties

– lack of trust, assumptions, no contact, etc. – are not understood and not made explicit. The relevance of relationship problems therefore is usually underestimated, especially in social conflicts, which seem just to turn around a specific issue. A third level of the reality of conflict is about values.

- Friedrich Glasl defines conflict more specifically as an interaction between agents -individuals, groups or organizations - where at least one agent perceives incompatibilities between his/her thinking/ideas/perceptions/and/or feelings and/or will and that of the other agent (or agents) and feels restricted by the other's action.

Here it becomes clear that not conflicts within a single personality (psychological conflicts, internal dilemmas, etc.) are of concern here, but conflicts where at least two or more persons are involved.

Conflicts occur on different social levels:

- Intra-personal conflict refers to conflicts occurring within a person. Though these conflicts may play into conflicts existing on other social levels, they are not the subject matter of conflict transformation work.
- Interpersonal conflict refers to conflicts occurring between individuals or small groups of people. This is the largest learning field on conflict.
- Intra-group conflict refers to those conflicts that happen within a particular group, whether it is a religious, ethnic, political or other type of identity group. It is important to be able to manage the conflicts within your own group, and be able to communicate with others within your group in order to build support for long-term peace processes. Here group dynamics add to the normal dynamics of inter-personal conflicts.
- Inter-group conflict refers to conflicts occurring between large organised social or identity groups. Conflicts between groups, like organisations, ethnic, religious, etc. groups.
- Inter-national, inter-state conflicts occur on a national or interstate level.

EXERCISE: OWN UNDERSTANDING OF CONFLICT

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of their own concepts of “conflict” and their attitudes towards conflicts. The exercise prepares a presentation of definitions of “conflict”.
Time needed:	45-60 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart, flipchart paper, markers with the beginnings of sentences, pens and paper for each participant.
Course of action:	The trainer explains the exercise.

	<p>Each participant is asked to work individually for about ten minutes to complete the following three sentences:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “A conflict is ...“ • “When I observe a conflict, I ...” • “When I am involved in a conflict, then I ...“ <p>If asked for a definition of conflict, the trainer explains that it is important to base the reflexion on our common understanding of conflict. A definition will be given later.</p> <p>Then the participants are asked to sit in groups of 3 – 5 persons and share their thoughts. They note common issues, questions, interesting findings that emerge from the discussion for reporting in the plenary. The groups work for about 20 minutes.</p> <p>Each group reports their observations in the plenary and a discussion follows.</p> <p>The trainer takes note of interesting remarks that he might want to take up in the following theoretical input. He points out the common idea of conflict as “negative” and the tension between conflict as painful event and conflict as an opportunity for development and constructive change.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The trainer may use this exercise as a participatory approach to the introduction of theory on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • definitions of conflict • functions of conflict in life and in society • classification of conflicts • reactions to conflict <p>S/he will understand the ideas that move the group and will become aware of points that require specific explanation.</p> <p>An additional part of the exercise could be to transfer the personal findings to conflict that can be classified as</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intra-group conflicts • Inter-group conflicts • Inter-national, inter-state conflicts <p>And to find similarities and differences within the different categories. They may highlight the cultural aspects of conflict as well.</p>

Underlying causes of conflicts

Discussions about conflict are very often limited to one or very few causes, which are qualified to be behind the issue. This is part of the dynamics of conflicts, which is likely to limit the perspectives of the ones involved. It is of importance to go deeper and understand the root causes of each conflict. Very often the importance of specific causes may change over the time that a conflict continues to exist. For example, psychological problems often do not play an important role in the beginning of social conflicts. But as soon as the conflict leaves its latent stage, they may increase in relevance.

Unmet human needs: Human needs are a powerful source of explanation of human behaviour and social interaction. All individuals have needs that they strive to satisfy, either by using the system or acting as a reformist or revolutionary. Given this condition, social systems must be responsive to individual needs, or be subject to instability and forced change. Human needs theorists argue that many intractable conflicts are caused by the lack of provision of fundamental human needs. These include basic needs for food, water, and shelter as well as more complex needs for safety, security, self-esteem, and personal fulfilment. These more complex needs centre on the capacity to exercise choice in all aspects of one's life and to have one's identity and cultural values accepted as legitimate. The need for both distributive justice and the ability to participate in civil society are also crucial. All of these needs are fundamental requirements for human development. Thus, while interests can be negotiated when they come into conflict, needs cannot.

Identity: Conflicts can be caused by feelings of threatened identity. Identities are constructed on the basis of various traits and experiences. Conflicts over identity arise when group members feel that their sense of self is threatened or denied legitimacy and respect. Because identity is integral to one's self-esteem and how one interprets the rest of the world, any threat to identity is likely to produce a strong response. Some identity conflicts are grounded in nationalism. Nationalism as an ideology affirms the existence of peoples or nations whose members share a common history and destiny. Nationalist sentiments often lead individuals to see their own group or nation as superior to other groups. This can also lead group members to denigrate or dominate other peoples and countries. Because any challenges to one's nation are regarded as a threat to one's very existence, nationalism can act as a cause of conflict. Finally, identity conflicts typically involve a history of colonialism, ethnocentrism, or racism and emerge out of a history of domination and perceived injustice. Colonization, in particular, often has serious socio-economic and moral implications that tend to persist. Where there is a severe imbalance of power, the more powerful party may exploit or abuse the less powerful party. Minority groups may be denied effective political participation or lack opportunities for cultural expression. If their identity is denied or simply unrecognized by the majority, these oppressed groups may recognize these power hierarchies as unjust and rebel against them. This leads to intractability.

Moral aspects: Conflicts over moral differences tend to be long lasting. The substantive issues are often a matter of rigidly held moral beliefs, based in fundamental assumptions that cannot be proven wrong. These fundamental moral, religious, and personal values are not easily changed, and people who adhere to a particular ideology may very well be unwilling to compromise their view. Such conflicts tend to result from a clash between differing views. One group's most fundamental and cherished assumptions about the best way to live may differ radically from the values held by another group. Parties may have different standards of rightness and goodness and give fundamentally different answers to serious moral questions. Because values and morals tend to be quite stable, people are often unwilling to negotiate with respect to these topics. Indeed, if the basic substantive issues of the conflict are deeply embedded in the participants' moral orders.

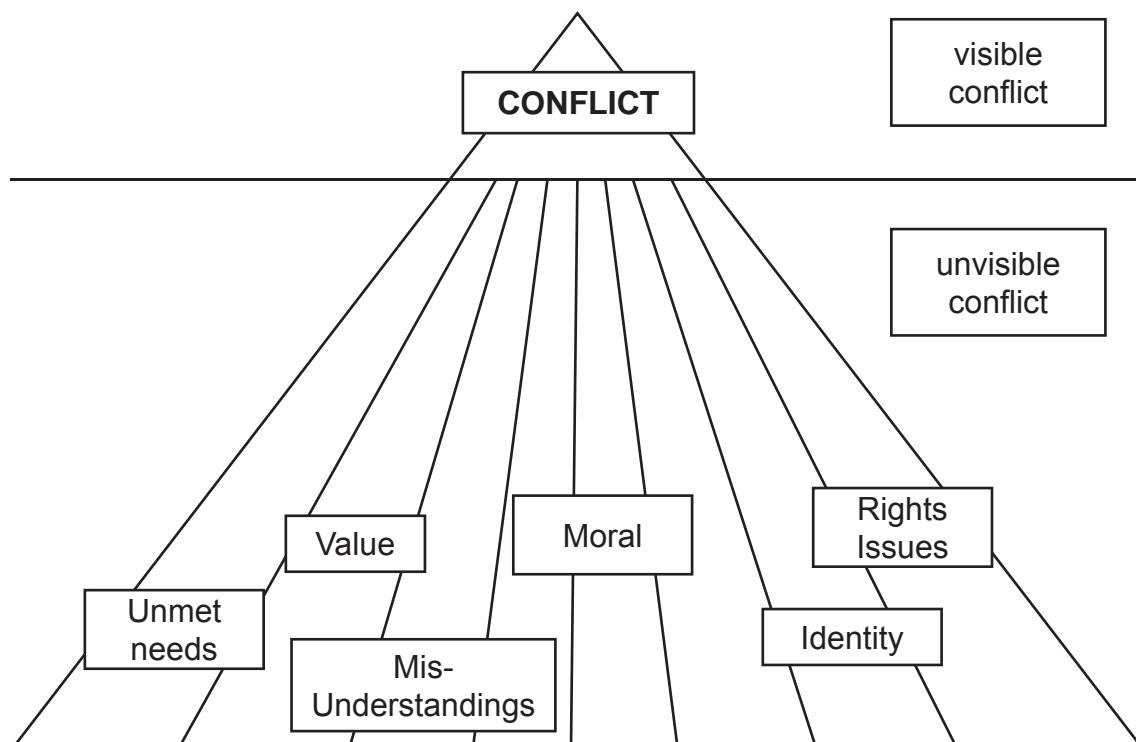
Those involved in moral conflict may even regard perpetuation of the conflict as virtuous or necessary. They may derive part of their identity from being warriors or opponents of their enemy and have a stake in the continuation of the conflict because it provides them with a highly desirable role. In addition, because struggles over values often involve claims to status and power, parties may have a great stake in neutralizing, injuring or eliminating their rivals. They may view any compromise about their most cherished values as a threat to their basic human needs and their sense of identity.

Issues of Justice: Because the desire for justice is one that people tend to be unwilling to compromise, assertions of injustice often lead to intractable conflicts as well. An individual's sense of justice is connected to the norms, rights, and entitlements that are thought to underlie decent human treatment. If there is a perceived discrepancy between what a person obtains, what she wants, and what she believes she is entitled to; she may come to believe she is being deprived of the benefits she deserves. This can occur when either a Course of action or outcome is viewed as unfair. When people believe that they have been treated unfairly, they may try to „get even“ or challenge those who have treated them unjustly. Indeed, a sense of injustice often motivates aggression or retaliation. Individuals may come to view violence as the only way to address the injustice they have suffered and ensure that their fundamental needs are met. This is especially likely if no Course of actions are in place to correct the oppressive social structures or bring about retributive or restorative justice. However, the powerful often respond by attempting to quell the disturbance and maintain the status quo. This can lead to ongoing conflict.

Rights: Rights-based grievances likewise contribute to intractability. A dispute begins when one person or group makes a claim or demand on another who rejects it. One way to resolve disputes is to rely on some independent standard of perceived legitimacy or fairness. However, if both groups advance their claim as a „right“, moderate positions become less likely and it becomes difficult to compromise or reach consensus. Rights talk can foreclose „further communication with those whose points of view differ from our own“. This is in part because people

treat rights-based arguments as „trump cards“ that neutralize all other positions. A tendency towards absolute formulations in rights talk promotes unrealistic expectations and increases the likelihood of conflict. It also ignores social costs and the rights of others, and inhibits dialogue that might lead to the discovery of common ground or compromise. People’s assumptions that they are entitled to certain rights can also result in self-centeredness. Transforming something into a right gives bearers of the supposed right the ability to demand its realization from those who have a „duty“ to realize it. When parties do not balance their rights claims against the rights of others, their conflict is likely to become intractable.

High-Stakes Distributional Issues: Conflicts surrounding who gets what and how much they get also tend to be intractable. The items to be distributed include tangible resources such as money, land, or better jobs, as well as intangible resources such as social status. If there are plenty of resources available, then everyone simply takes what they need and no conflict develops. However, when there is not enough of a given resource to satisfy everyone’s needs or wants, and no more can be found or created, the conflict becomes a „win-lose“ situation. The more one party gets, the less the other party gets (or the more he or she „loses“). When the item in question is very important or valuable, these conflicts tend to become very intractable.



Conflict and culture

Cultures are embedded in every conflict because conflicts arise in human relationships. Cultures affect the ways we name, frame, blame, and attempt to tame

conflicts. Whether a conflict exists at all is a cultural question. Labelling some of our interactions as conflicts and analysing them into smaller component parts is a distinctly Western approach that may obscure other aspects of relationships. Culture is always a factor in conflict, whether it plays a central role or influences it subtly and gently. For any conflict that touches us where it matters, where we make meaning and hold our identities, there is always a cultural component. Conflicts between teenagers and parents are shaped by generational culture, and conflicts between spouses or partners are influenced by gender culture. In organizations, conflicts arising from different disciplinary cultures escalate tensions between co-workers, creating strained or inaccurate communication and stressed relationships. Culture permeates conflict no matter what - sometimes pushing forth with intensity, other times quietly snaking along, hardly announcing its presence until surprised people nearly stumble on it.

Culture is inextricable from conflict, though it does not cause it. When differences surface in families, organizations, or communities, culture is always present, shaping perceptions, attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes. When the cultural groups we belong to are a large majority in our community or nation, we are less likely to be aware of the content of the messages they send us. Cultures shared by dominant groups often seem to be „natural,“ „normal“ - „the way things are done.“ We only notice the effect of cultures that are different from our own, attending to behaviours that we label exotic or strange.

Since culture is like an iceberg - largely submerged - it is important to include it in our analyses and interventions. Icebergs unacknowledged can be dangerous, and it is impossible to make choices about them if we don't know their size or place.

Conflict and violence are different things

Even though, violence is very often an expression of conflict, a way of carrying out conflicts. Violence in conflicts exists:

- as instrument of repression by a more powerful conflict party wishing to force their interests on others,
- as instrument for the articulation of interests by the weaker conflict parties, especially if they do not know other ways,
- when conflict parties fail to find other means of carrying out conflicts,
- in connection with an escalation of the conflict dynamics,
- as reproach towards the other party in order to legitimise one's own position.
- Violence consists of actions words, attitudes, structures or systems that cause physical, psychological, social or environmental damage and/or prevent people from reaching their full human potential.

In consequence of this understanding of the phenomenon Johan Galtung concluded that violence happens to human beings and between human beings. That they are limited in the satisfaction of their basic human needs (survival needs,

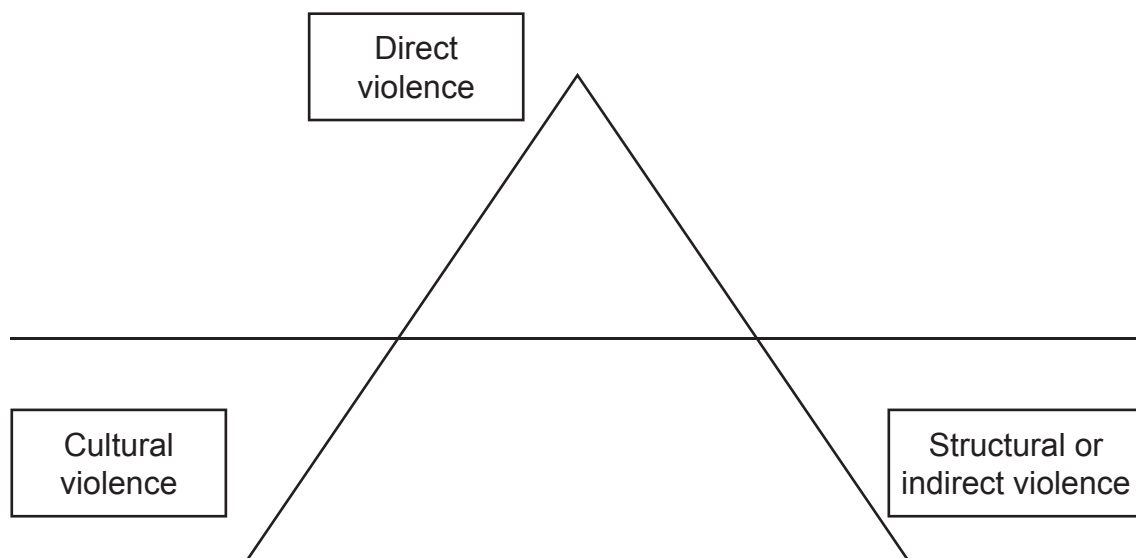
well-being needs, identity and meaning needs, freedom needs). That under the influence of violence human beings experience a distance between their actual possibilities and those that might be possible, or they are stopped from increasing their needs satisfaction. Violence may lay a hand on body and/or soul and it is connected to avoidable (man made) influences.

Different dimensions of violence

We think of violence first as behaviour. Physical attacks, beating, killing torture are examples. Wars and civil riots are very visible manifestations of this. In recent years the understanding of violence has deepened to include less obvious forms of violence that can be equally damaging and perhaps more difficult to address. It was found unhelpful to draw a line between killing with a gun and killing through deprivation of food or other essentials of life. There are many systems and structures that operate in a way simply not taking into account the needs of others or purposely inflicting suffering.

Structural or indirect violence is the form of violence where perpetrators are not so easily identifiable because a whole network of structures and responsibilities is involved. There are perhaps sometimes even no persons who intend to exert this violence. This happens in the cases of industrial pollution, laws that marginalize sections of the population, etc.

Galtung adds a third form of violence - cultural violence. By cultural violence we mean those aspects of culture that can be used to justify or legitimise direct or structural violence. It is important to stress that there are no "violent cultures", but that Galtung talks of aspects of culture that may be found in any culture: stars, crosses and crescents, flags, anthems, military parades, inflammatory speeches, war provoking posters that are used to build the ground for other forms of violence; but also language, science, a social discourse, paradigms of thought can influence humans that way.



There is another deeper layer to the understanding of violence. This relates to less visible, mental processes: the feelings, attitudes and values that people hold. These are not violent themselves but can become easily the sources of violence, or at least allow violent behaviour and violent structures to operate. Hate, fear, mistrust are feelings that can allow us to classify people as inferior, or superior, in terms of categories such as race, gender, religion, ethnicity, mental ability, political ideology.

These feelings may cause some groups of people become intolerant of anyone who is different from themselves in any or all of these categories. From there, with the appropriate misinformation, it is a relatively small step for them to begin seeing people in other groups as less than human, and thus to participate in, or justify from sidelines, inhuman action against them.

In the above figure the three elements (behaviour, context, and attitude) are interconnected. An action aimed at reducing violent behaviour, crucial as it is needs to be complemented by actions directed at both context and attitudes if real or peace is to be achieved. Action on all three dimensions is needed to promote peace.

The wider understanding of violence is helpful because, it shows that violent behaviour and war are, only a small part of what makes up conflict and indicates the interconnectedness of these three dimensions. An intervention in one area has an effect in the others. Violence prompts us to identify those who organise and profit from it and it points to crucial entry points of conflict transformation.

Exercise: Forms of Violence

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of different forms of violence. It will widen their perspective and make them realise that physical violence is not its only feature.
Time needed:	30 minutes
Materials:	<p>Photo series upon different kinds of violence.</p> <p>For this exercise the trainer has to prepare some time in advance. S/he has to collect photos from newspapers and journals that may be connected to “violence”. Make sure to collect photos that relate to different forms of violence: personal, structural, cultural, physical, psychological, verbal, etc.</p> <p>Paste these photos to pieces of cardboard so that they can be handled easily.</p>
Course of action:	The trainer spreads a set of photos on a table (or on the floor).

	<p>Each person is requested to choose one photo card that shows a form of violence that appeals to him/her (own experience, curiosity, interest).</p> <p>Then the group sits in a circle and everybody explains the violence that s/he sees on the photo. A discussion follows that brings to the awareness that conflict and violence are not the same and has been distinguished.</p> <p>After having classified the different features of violence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • direct • structural • cultural <p>the participants are asked to bring in examples from their experience regarding the different forms of violence.</p> <p>A discussion may follow in which examples from the plenary are debated.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The photo card exercise can be developed to stimulate discussion also on other topics (like nonviolence, conflict, discrimination, etc.).</p> <p>As an option, the trainer may show a documentary film in order to stimulate a discussion upon violence and its different features. For example:</p> <p>Mahatma Gandhi : Film : MAHATMA - Life of Gandhi, 1869-1948 , The Gandhi National Memorial Fund, on the web: www.gandhiserve.org</p>

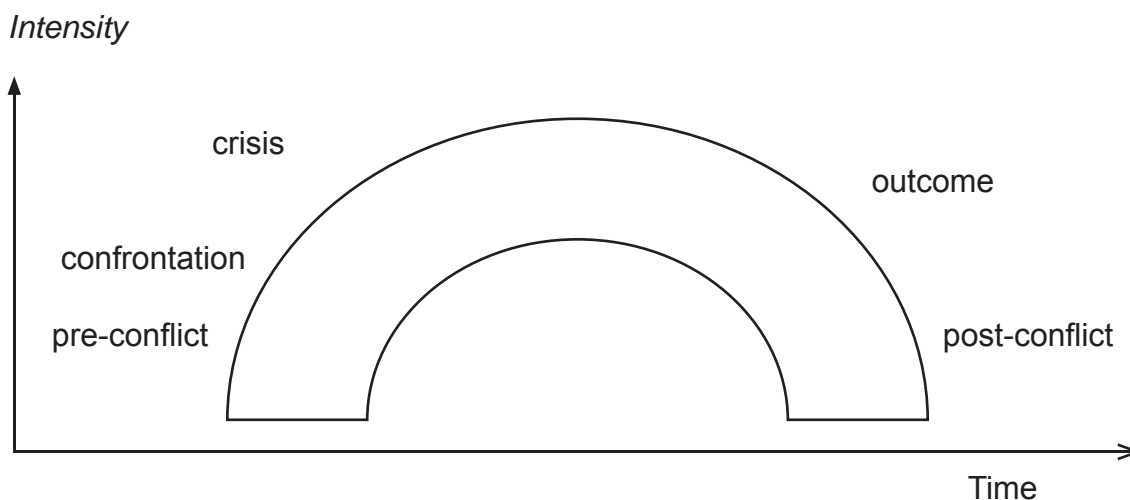
Dynamics of conflicts

Conflict dynamics can be described as the resulting interaction between the conflict profile, the actors, and causes. Understanding conflict dynamics will help identifying windows of opportunity, in particular through the use of scenario building, which aims to assess different possible interventions and think through appropriate responses.

It has become common to differentiate a series of phases of a conflict. Different authors name and describe these stages differently, but most include, at a minimum:

- pre-conflict
- confrontation
- crisis
- outcome
- post-conflict

These phases are frequently shown on a diagram that looks something like this, although the progress from one stage to the next is not smooth and conflicts may repeat stages several times or getting the process is getting stuck.



The potential for conflict exists whenever people have different needs, values, or interests. This is the pre-conflict stage. But the conflict is hidden and not on the agenda. There may be tensions in relationships between the parties and/or a desire to avoid contact with each other at that stage.

The conflict may not become apparent until a „triggering event“ leads to the emergence of the obvious conflict and confrontation may happen. Each side may be gathering its resources and perhaps finding allies with the expectation of increasing confrontation and violence.

Crisis describes the peak of the conflict, when the tension or violence is most intense. Normal communication between the sides has probably ceased.

Outcome: Escalation, however, cannot continue indefinitely. One way or the other the crisis will lead to an outcome. One side may defeat the other. One party might surrender or give in to demands of the other party. The parties may agree to negotiations, either with or without the support of a third party. In any case, at this stage the levels of tension, confrontation and violence decrease somewhat with the possibility of a settlement.

Post-conflict: Finally, the situation is resolved in a way that leads to an ending of any violent confrontation, to a decrease of tensions and to more normal relationships between parties. However, if the issues and problems arising from their

incompatible goals have not been adequately addressed, this stage could eventually lead back into another pre-conflict situation.

The model is idealized. Actual conflicts usually do not follow a linear path. Rather, they evolve in fits and starts, alternatively experiencing progress and setbacks toward resolution. The lack of linear progress helps to give the conflict a sense of intractability. Escalation may resume after temporary stalemate or negotiation. Escalation and de-escalation may alternate. Negotiations may take place in the absence of a stalemate. However, the model still useful, because most conflicts pass through similar stages at least once in their history.

Delineating different stages is also useful in efforts to transform conflict. By recognizing the different dynamics occurring at each stage of a conflict, one can appreciate that the strategies and tactics for participants and interveners differ depending on the phase of the conflict.

Escalation of conflict

Escalation refers to an increase in the intensity of a conflict and in the severity of tactics used in pursuing it. It is driven by changes within each of the parties, new patterns of interaction between them, and the involvement of new parties in the struggle. When conflicts escalate, more people tend to become involved. Parties begin to make bigger and stronger threats and impose harsher negative sanctions. Violence may start, or if violence has already occurred it may become more severe and/or widespread as the number of participants involved in the conflict increases, and a greater proportion of a state's citizens actively engage in fighting.

Under certain circumstances, escalation is the rational thing to do. If a party has overwhelming power over its opponent, it makes sense to use this power to overcome the opponent's resistance. Parties might also intentionally escalate the conflict in order to pressure the other side, involve third parties, or rally more people to their cause. In many cases, this sort of tactical escalation can have positive effects and help move parties toward a mutually beneficial relationship.

However, a great deal of conflict escalation is inadvertent, and occurs without the parties having fully considered the implications of their actions. Sometimes this is a result of perceived crises and time pressures that compel the parties to act before they have considered alternative courses of action or have a full understanding of the situation. The use of force and threats, if regarded as too extreme, can ultimately backfire and provoke retaliation. It is in these cases that conflicts have the potential to spiral out of control and have terribly damaging effects. Destructively waged conflicts typically involve great losses for one or more of the contending parties, and tend to persist for a long time.

To avoid these negative consequences, a better understanding of the dynamics of escalation is needed.

EXERCISE: ESCALATION OF CONFLICTS

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of the dynamics of conflict escalation and serve as fabric for the following theoretical discussion.
Time needed:	40 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart, flipchart paper, markers, cards
Course of action:	<p>The trainer asks the group to name a few typical disputes in everyday life. These are listed on a flipchart.</p> <p>The trainer together with the group chooses quickly a number of interpersonal and intra-group conflicts that seem to be interesting and possible to play in skids by 3-5 persons.</p> <p>The participants are divided into sub-groups of 3-5 persons according to selected dispute topic and told to quickly (5 minutes) develop a small skid demonstrating the case. These skids are shown in the plenary. The group observes and the trainers guide a discussion on factors that led to a development of the conflict. These factors are listed.</p> <p>In those cases where the conflicts are not very escalated, the trainer asks one of the spectators to take the place of an actor and play the role in a way that would lead the conflict situation become a step more tense. The group discusses what s/he did to create this tension. This is listed as well.</p> <p>The exercise functions as a warm-up for the topic.</p>
Remarks:	If the escalating factors are listed on cards, they later could be used to illustrate Glasl's nine steps of escalation (see exercise below).

Conditions that encourage conflicts

Some conflict escalation is driven by incompatible goals. It is observed that destructive social and inter-personal conflicts always begin with the emergence of contentious goals of two adversaries. If the parties do not see a possibility of finding a mutually beneficial solution, and one believes that it has the power to substantially alter the aspirations of the other, it may try to intimidate the other side into submission. As the adversaries begin to pursue their incompatible goals, they may issue threats or otherwise attempt to coerce the opposing side into giving them what they want. Each side typically believes that the other is driven by power and will increase its coercive behaviour unless it is prevented from doing so by greater coercion. But if one party is harmed or threatened by another, it is more likely to respond with hostility. The greater number of issues in contention and the more intense the sense of grievance, the more fuel there is to encourage escalation.

In many instances, the parties view each other as having relatively high aspirations or regard the issues under dispute as ones that cannot be compromised. For example, matters regarded by adversaries as being integral to their personal or collective identities are more prone to conflict escalation. When faced with groups that exhibit radically different attitudes, values, and behaviours, parties may feel criticized, demeaned, or threatened. Threats to identity tend to arouse feelings of anger and fear, which can in turn fuel conflict escalation. Similarly, moral conflicts often lead to conflict escalation because the opponent is viewed as wrong in principle and not merely on the wrong side of some specific issue. Disputes involving ideological or moral issues tend to attract more parties and to be resistant to compromise.

Past grievances, feelings of injustice, and a high level of frustration may also provoke escalation. Hostility-driven escalation is typically caused by grievances or a sense of injustice, and may ultimately be rooted in events of the distant past. One party feels that it has been treated unfairly by its opponent, and angrily blames its opponent for the suffering it has endured. Deprivation, inequitable treatment, and pain and suffering thereby lead to a desire to punish or injure the other. If there are no „norms of redress“ in place, the aggrieved party may feel compelled to strike back in response to this perceived provocation. However, their feelings of rage and frustration may lead them to overreact. And if their actions are seen as overly severe and exceed the normative expectations of the other side, these actions may provoke outrage and easily intensify the struggle.

Often, hostility-driven conflicts tend to escalate for trivial reasons, and also become unnecessarily violent. Once victims have made exaggerated assessments of the severity of the harm they have experienced, they are likely to seek revenge. Their unreceptive actions often simply lead to further injustice, which grants victim status to the original wrongdoer. This not only generates new conflict issues, but also provokes fresh feelings of anger and injustice. Both parties may come to

view revenge as an end in itself.

The driving mechanisms of conflict escalation can be described as follows:

1

- **Snowballing of contentious issues:**

More and more issues are thrown into the disagreement; infection of issues.

And simultaneously

- **Increasing simplification**

In taking up the opposing party's issues ("X clearly cares about one thing only").

2

- **Widening of the arena:**

More and more people are drawn into the argument; the circle of involvement is extended; the interests of many people/groups are collectivized and mixed up.

And simultaneously

- **Increasing personification**

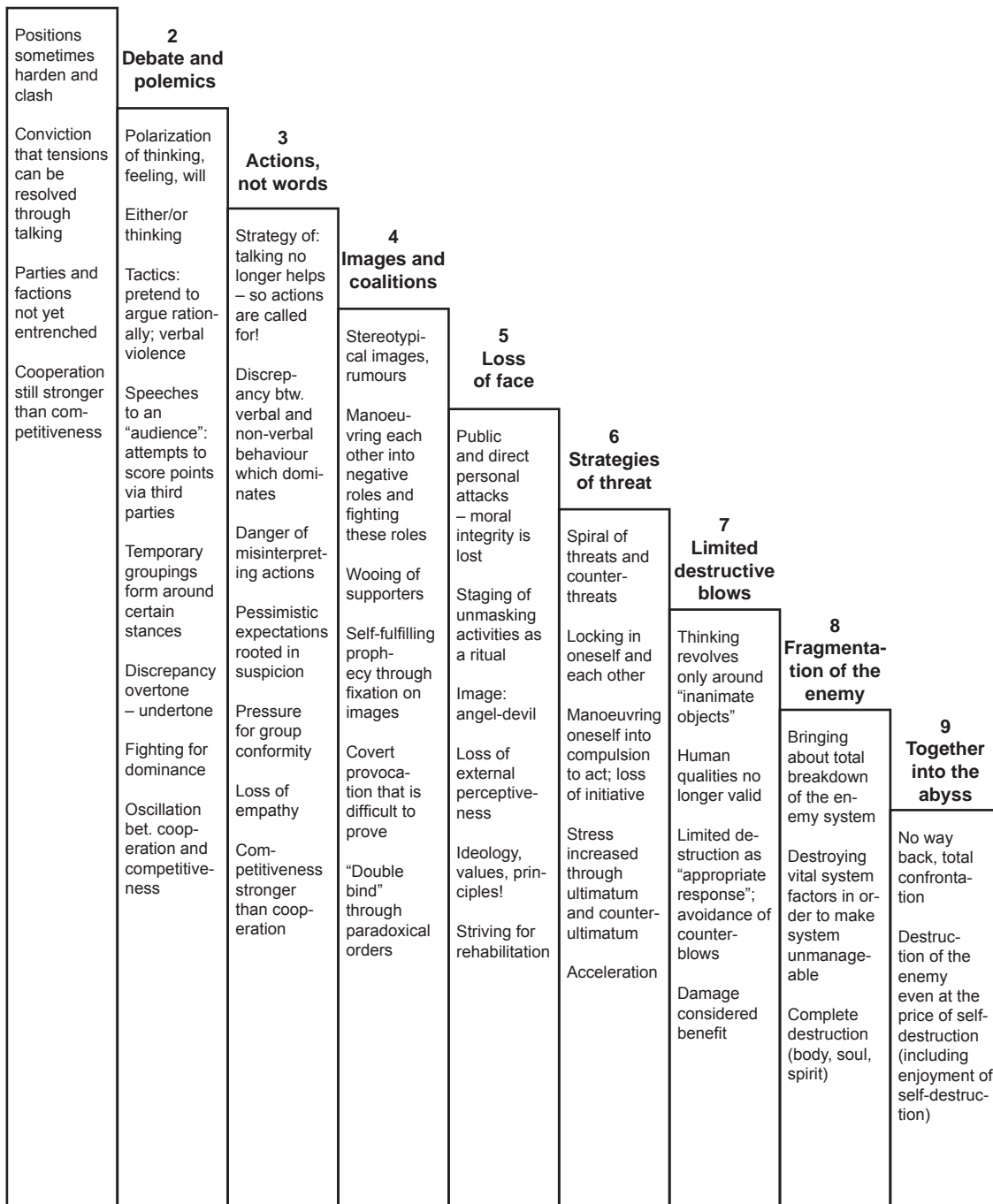
("X is the cause of all evil", "Get rid of X!").

It is important to be aware of the different levels of escalation because awareness in a given situation might enable to become active in a constructive way. Awareness will also display the dangers of certain behaviour or action taken, when we ourselves are involved in conflict.

Escalation Model by Glasl

History of human societies as well as everyday experience of inter-personal conflicts show that driving forces of conflict are very strong and may pull us strongly towards destruction. Therefore the growing intensity of a conflict in the following table is shown as a path downwards.

**1
Hardening**



The Nine Levels of Escalation
(According to F.Glasl: Confronting conflict 1999, p.104-105)

On the basis of many years of scientific, educational and practical experience, Friedrich Glasl has arrived at nine „typical“ stages of conflict escalation. These are helpful for a better understanding and analysis of conflicts, as well as for finding ways out of conflict dynamics.

EXERCISE: ANALYSING ESCALATION

Objectives:	By this exercise the participants will apply the theory of the escalation of conflicts to concrete cases. They will practise observing the different levels of conflict and relate them to the local context.
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart, flipchart paper, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer collects cases of social conflict experienced by at least one participant. They are characterised by one sentence/ a few key words and listed on a flipchart.</p> <p>Together with the group s/he chooses some which are of interest to the group and which are escalated well enough to demonstrate several levels of escalation.</p> <p>Then s/he divides the group into sub-groups around each case. Make sure to include the participant who knows the case well. This person serves as a resource person and explains the conflict case to his/her small group. Then the group identifies the highest level of escalation that this conflict has reached.</p> <p>Then they discuss what had happened on each level of escalation and what made the tension rise. This is noted on flipchart paper according to the levels of escalation.</p> <p>The groups report their findings in the plenary. The trainer facilitates a discussion. Lack of clarity concerning the theory (or contradictions to theory) are noted down to be discussed at the end.</p>
Remarks:	On the basis of the case studies, the trainer/group may discover typical patterns for their society/community that they need to pay attention to when working in reality.

According to the introduced model, escalation results from a vicious circle of action and reaction. Because each reaction is more severe and intense than the action that precedes it, each retaliation or defensive action in the spiral provides a new issue.

Conflict dynamics can be either retaliatory or defence. In a retaliatory dynamic, each party punishes the other for actions it finds hurtful. Retaliation may be in response to events of the distant past, or to the opponent's most recent atrocious acts. These events lead one party to blame the other for harm suffered, and to desire punishment. Central to this desire for retaliation are feelings of anger and the perceived need to „teach“ the other a lesson. In addition, it is common for one party to miscalculate the likely reaction of the other, and inadvertently commit acts that result in further escalation. For example, one side may try to intimidate its opponent, and instead provoke a harsh counteraction.

Level 1 (win-win) (Both parties to the conflict can still win at the first level)

Stage 1: Tension

Conflicts begin with tension, e.g. occasional differences of opinion. This is common and is not perceived as the start of a conflict. If a conflict nonetheless occurs, the opinions become more fundamental. The conflict might have causes that lie deeper.

Stage 2: Debate

From this point the parties in the conflict consider strategies with which to convince the other person. Differences of opinion lead to a dispute. Each tries to put the other under pressure.

Stage 3: Action not words

The parties increase the pressure on each other to make their view prevail. The conversation might be broken off. No more communication takes place and the conflict quickly becomes more intense.

Level 2 (win-lose) (On the second level one party loses while the other wins)

Stage 4: coalitions

The conflict intensifies if the parties look for support from others. Because they feel they are in the right, it is alright to denounce the opponent. The point is now not the matter in question, but winning the conflict so that the opponent loses.

Stage 5: Loss of face

The object is to destroy the identity of the other party by all kinds of accusations or similar. There is a complete loss of trust. Losing face means losing moral credibility.

Stage 6: Threat strategies

The parties try to establish complete control of the situation with threats. They

try to project their own power. The threat might be a demand (to hand over valuables) which is reinforced with a sanction („otherwise I’ll stab you!“) and backed up by its potential realisation (showing the knife). In this case the proportions decide the credibility of the threat.

Level 3 (lose-lose) (Both parties lose at the third level)

Stage 7: Limited destruction

Here the opponent is to be seriously harmed with every trick in the book. The opponent is no longer seen as a human being. Sustaining limited damage of one’s own is already seen as a victory if his damage is greater.

Stage 8: Disintegration

The opponent is to be destroyed utterly.

Stage 9: Together into the abyss

From this point one’s own destruction is accepted, provided the opponent is beaten.

EXERCISE: INDICATORS FOR ESCALATION

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of the indicators for different levels of escalation.
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart, flipchart paper, markers, cards
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the exercise. A large matrix with one column per level of escalation is attached to the wall or to a pin board.</p> <p>Then s/he divides the group into sub-groups of 4-5 persons. Each group is requested to identify indicators for the different levels of escalation on the basis of their own society (community). Each indicator is written on a card and attached/pinned below the title of the escalation level that it belongs to. This can be done while discussing in the group so that the group is aware of what other groups have worked out. As this is a collective process, indicators that have been identified already do not have to be repeated if they are found by two groups. If findings contradict each other, both options are written down and attached.</p>

	<p>After about 30-40 minutes the trainer calls the participants back into the plenary. S/he reads out the indicators resulting from the group work, column per column (i.e. level by level).</p> <p>S/he seeks to clarify where needed. Similar points are summarized. Contradictions are identified and marked for further discussion. This may happen after all group work results have been read out.</p>
Remarks:	<p>Request the participants to be as concrete and clear as possible. Only indicators that can be observed will be helpful. In the past participants have mentioned: spreading of rumours, absence of certain groups from the market, visibility of divisive symbols, etc.</p> <p>To bring the discussion to a broader understanding of the context the following core questions could be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are structural causes of conflict? Illegitimate government, lack of political participation, lack of equal economic and social opportunities, inequitable access to natural resources, poor governance. • What issues can be considered as proximate causes of conflict? Uncontrolled security sector, light weapons proliferation, human rights abuses, destabilising role of neighbouring countries. • What triggers can contribute to the outbreak / further escalation of conflict? Elections, arrest / assassination of key leader or political figure, drought, sudden collapse of local currency, military coup, rapid change in unemployment, flood, increased price/scarcity of basic commodities, capital flight. • What new factors contribute to prolonging conflict dynamics? Radicalisation of conflict parties, establishment of paramilitaries, development of a war economy, increased human rights violations, weapons availability, and development of a culture of fear. • What factors can contribute to peace? Communication channels between opposing parties, demobilisation process, reform programmes, civil society commitment to peace, anti-discrimination policies.

3

Chapter Three: Conflict Analysis

INTRODUCTION

The following section introduces some of the essential thoughts regarding conflict analysis and combines them with mirroring exercises.

Conflict analysis is the systematic study of the profile, causes, actors, and dynamics of conflict. It helps to gain a better understanding of the context in which conflict transformers work and supports to refine their role in that context.

Conflict analysis can be carried out at various levels - local, regional, national - and seeks to establish the linkages between these levels. Identifying the appropriate focus for the conflict analysis is crucial: the issues and dynamics at the national level may be different from those at the grassroots. But while linking the level of conflict analysis - community, district, region or national - with the level of intervention, it is also important to establish systematic linkages with other inter-related levels of conflict dynamics. All of these different levels impact on each other.

Conflict transformation needs:

- understanding of the context
- understanding the interaction between the intervention and the context
- acting upon the understanding of this interaction, in order to avoid not wanted impacts and maximise positive impacts.

Conflict analysis is thus a central component of conflict transformation, as it provides the foundation to of an understanding of the interaction between the intervention and the context. This applies to all forms of intervention.

In other words, conflict analysis will help:

- to define new interventions
- to monitor the interaction between the context and the intervention
- to measure the interaction of the interventions and the conflict dynamics in which they are situated.

Elements of conflict analysis

This section introduces the key elements of conflict analysis as they emerge from the various conflict analysis tools documented below. To be aware of the following helps: Conflict dynamics are simply too complex and volatile for any single conflict analysis process to do them justice. Nevertheless, the findings can be the basis of action, even though some aspects may remain unclear. When question marks occur this is usually an indicator for crucial points.

The common key features of conflict analysis are the conflict profile, actors, causes and dynamics.

A conflict profile provides a brief characterisation of the context within which the intervention will be situated:

What is the political, economic, and socio-cultural context? - Physical geography, population make-up, recent history, political and economic structure, social composition, environment, geo-strategic position.

What are emergent political, economic, ecological, and social issues? - Elections, reform processes, decentralisation, new infrastructure, disruption of social networks, mistrust, return of refugees and internally displaced persons –IDPs -, military and civilian deaths, presence of armed forces, mined areas.

What specific conflict prone/affected areas can be situated within this context? - Areas of influence of specific actors, frontlines around the location of natural resources, important infrastructure and lines of communication, pockets of socially marginalised or excluded populations.

Is there a history of conflict? - Critical events, mediation efforts, external intervention.

In order to understand a given context it is fundamental to identify potential and existing conflict causes, as well as possible factors contributing to constructiveness. Conflict causes can be defined as those factors which contribute to people's grievances; and can be further described as:

- structural causes - pervasive factors that have become built into the policies, structures and fabric of a society and may create the pre-conditions for violent conflict
- proximate causes - factors contributing to a climate conducive to violent conflict or its further escalation, sometimes apparently symptomatic of a deeper problem
- triggers - single key acts, events, or their anticipation that will set off or escalate violent conflict.

Protracted conflicts also tend to generate new causes - weapons circulation, war economy, culture of violence-, which help to prolong them further.

Causes

As the main causes and factors contributing to conflict and to peace are identified, it is important to acknowledge that conflicts are multi-dimensional and multi-causal phenomena, that there is no single cause of conflict. It is also essential to establish linkages and synergies between causes and factors, in order to identify potential areas for intervention and further prioritise them.

Key questions regarding this are:

What are structural causes of conflict? - Illegitimate government, lack of political participation, lack of equal economic and social opportunities, inequitable access to natural resources, poor governance.

What issues can be considered as proximate causes of conflict? - Uncontrolled security sector, light weapons proliferation, human rights abuses, destabilising role of neighbouring countries, role of diasporas.

What triggers can contribute to the outbreak / further escalation of conflict? - Elections, arrest/assassination of key leader or political figure, drought, sudden collapse of local currency, military coup, rapid change in unemployment, flood, increased price/scarcity of basic commodities, capital flight.

What new factors contribute to prolonging conflict dynamics? - Radicalisation of conflict parties, establishment of paramilitaries, development of a war economy, increased human rights violations, weapons availability, development of a culture of fear.

What factors can contribute to peace? - Communication channels between opposing parties, demobilisation process, reform programmes, civil society commitment to peace, anti-discrimination policies.

Actors

People are central when thinking about conflict analysis. Actors are individuals, groups and institutions contributing to conflict or being affected by it in a positive or negative manner, as well as those engaged in dealing with conflict. Actors differ as to their goals and interests, their positions, capacities to realise their interests, and relationships with other actors.

- Interests: the underlying motivations of the actors (concerns, goals, hopes and fears).
- Goals: the strategies that actors use to pursue their interests.
- Positions: the solution presented by actors on key and emerging issues in a given context, irrespective of the interests and goals of others.
- Capacities: the actors' potential to affect the context, positively or negatively. Potential can be defined in terms of resources, access, social networks and constituencies, other support and alliances, etc.
- Relationships: the interactions between actors at various levels, and their perception of these interactions.

Some approaches distinguish actors according to the level at which they are active (grassroots, middle level, top level). In particular, conflict transformation theory attaches great importance to middle level leaders, as they may assume a catalytic role through their linkages both to the top and the grassroots. In any

case, it is important to consider the relationships between actors/groups at various levels and how they affect the conflict dynamics.

Particular attention should be paid to profiteers, i.e. specific groups with an interest in the maintenance of the negative status quo. If not adequately addressed within the framework of strategies, they may become an obstacle to constructive initiatives.

Similarly, it is important to identify existing capacities for peace, in order to further define entry points to address causes of violent conflict. Capacities for peace typically refer to institutions, organisations, mechanisms and Course of actions in a society for dealing with conflict and differences of interest. In particular, such actors need to be assessed in relation to their capacity for conflict management, their legitimacy, the likelihood of their engagement, and the possible roles they can adopt.

Key questions regarding this are:

Who are the main actors? - National government, security sector (military, police), local (military) leaders and armed groups, private sector/business (local, national, trans-national), donor agencies and foreign embassies, multilateral organisations, regional organisations, religious or political networks (local, national, global), independent mediators, civil society (local, national, international), peace groups, trade unions, political parties, neighbouring states, traditional authorities, refugees/IDPs, all children, women and men living in a given context.

What are their main interests, goals, positions, capacities, and relationships? - Religious values, political ideologies, need for land, interest in political participation, economic resources, constituencies, access to information, political ties, global networks.

What capacities for peace can be identified? - Civil society, informal approaches to conflict resolution, traditional authorities, political institutions (head of state, parliament), judiciary, regional (i.g. African Union, IGAD, ASEAN) and multilateral bodies (International Court of Justice).

What actors can be identified as spoilers? Why? - Groups benefiting from war economy (combatants, arms/drug dealers, smugglers).

Dynamics

Scenarios basically provide an assessment of what may happen next in a given context according to a specific timeframe, building on the analysis of conflict profile, causes and actors. It is good practice to prepare three scenarios:

- best case scenario - describing the optimal outcome of the current context
- middle case or status quo scenario - describing the continued evolution of cur-

- rent trends
- worst case scenario –describing the worst possible outcome

If history is the key to understanding conflict dynamics, it may be relevant to use the timeline to identify its main phases. Try to explain key events and assess their consequences. Temporal patterns may be important in understanding the conflict dynamics. Undertaking this exercise with different actors and groups can bring out contrasting perspectives.

Key questions for an analyses of conflict dynamics:

What are current conflict trends?- Escalation or de-escalation, changes in important framework conditions.

What are windows of opportunity? - Are there positive developments? What factors support them? How can they be strengthened?

What scenarios can be developed from the analysis of the conflict profile, causes and actors? - Best case, middle case and worst case scenarios.

Who conducts the analysis?

Conflict analysis can be undertaken for various purposes. The purpose will determine the specific process and will help to determine who should conduct the analysis. For example, if the purpose is to promote a participatory and transformative process within a community, the community should play a vital role. If the purpose is to develop a strategy for engagement in a given context, it may be that an internal team from within the organisation developing the strategy should lead the process. Some elements of the analysis may be highly sensitive, and thus may need to be confidential.

In any case, it is important to get the right mix of skills and backgrounds, which can be summarised as follows:

- good conflict analysis skills
- good knowledge of the context and related history
- sensitivity to the local context
- local language skills
- sufficient status/credibility to see through recommendations
- representation of different perspectives within the context under consideration
- moderation skills, team work, possibly counselling
- facilitation skills.

The quality and relevance of the analysis mainly depends on the people involved. These include the person or team conducting the analysis, on the one hand, and

other conflict actors, on the other. Conflict analysis consists of eliciting the views of the different groups and placing them into a larger analytical framework.

Every conflict analysis is highly political, and bias is a constant concern. It may be difficult to be objective, as personal sympathies develop and make it difficult to maintain an unbiased approach. It may therefore be more productive to spell out one's own position and preconceptions and be clear about the conditions and restrictions under which the conflict analysis takes place.

Collecting information for conflict analysis

It is important to gather information from as wide a range of sources as possible and to listen to many different actors, in order to broaden the understanding of the context and to include a wide range of perspective.

Various techniques can be used to gather these perspectives, from surveys and interviews to group discussion and stakeholder consultations. In contexts where groups cannot openly and directly discuss conflict, it may be useful to consider having separate meetings. Meetings and interviews must be conducted in a language in which participants can confidently express their views.

Selecting the appropriate framework for conflict analysis

When planning to use a specific framework to support conflict analysis, it is worth considering its purpose, strengths and weaknesses. The main value of tools are lying in guiding the systematic search for information and providing a framework for analysing it, thus prompting critical questions and offering new perspectives.

Conflict mapping – Relationships of actors

Mapping is a technique used to represent a conflict graphically, placing the parties in relation, both to the problem and to each other. When people with different viewpoints map their situation together, they learn about each other's experiences and perceptions.

What it is:

A visual technique for showing the relationships between parties in conflict.

Purpose:

- To understand the situation better
- To see more clearly the relationships between parties
- To clarify where power lies
- To check the balance of one's own activity or contacts
- To see where allies or potential allies are
- To identify openings for intervention or action
- To evaluate what has been done already

When to use it:

Early in a process, along with other analytical tools

Later, to identify possible entry points for action or to help process of strategy building

Variations:

Geographical maps showing the areas and parties involved

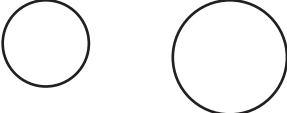
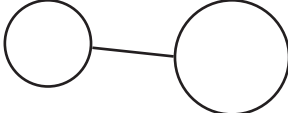
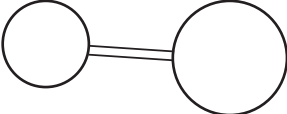
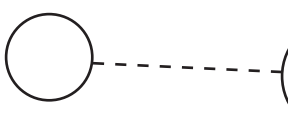




Mapping of issues

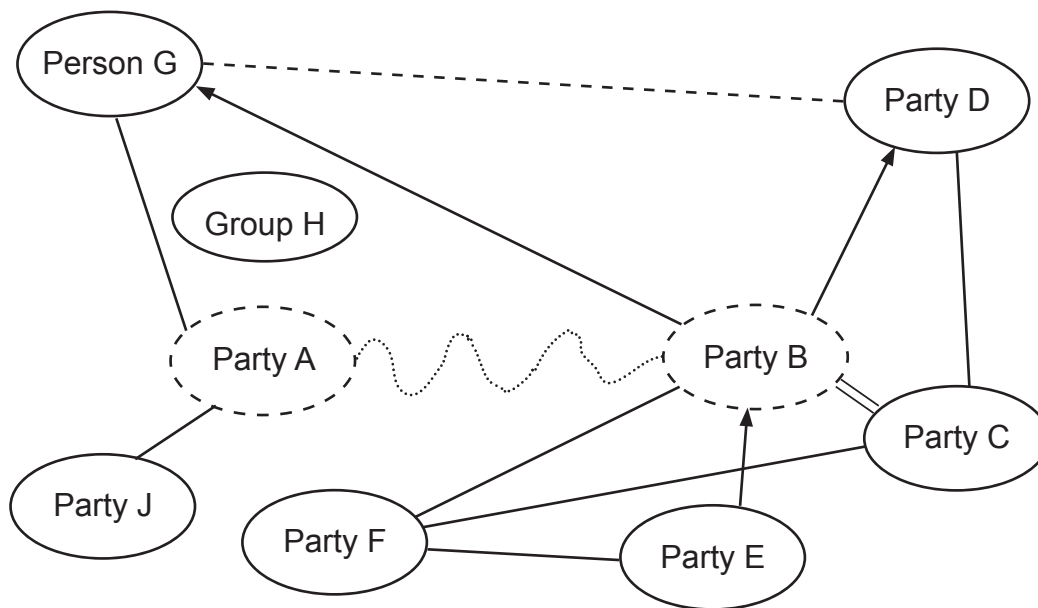
Mapping of power alignments

As a human sculpture to bring out feelings and relationships

How to conduct:

Decide what you want to map, when and from what point of view. Choose a particular moment in a specific situation. (It is often useful to do several maps of the same situation from a variety of viewpoints.)

 <p>The circles symbolize the different actors. The size of the circle symbolizes each actor's power in relation to the issue of the conflict.</p>	 <p>A solid line symbolizes a close relationship A solid line symbolizes a close relationship</p>
 <p>A double line symbolizes an alliance. A double line symbolizes an alliance.</p>	 <p>A dotted line symbolizes a weak relationship</p>
 <p>Zigzags symbolize conflict.</p>	 <p>A flash symbolizes that the conflict is violent.</p>
 <p>An arrow symbolizes the domination of one actor over another.</p>	 <p>A triangle symbolizes actors who are not directly involved and who might contribute constructively to the transformation of the conflict</p>



EXERCISE: ACTORS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS

Objectives:	The exercise will introduce participants to an instrument of analysis that will make them understand better a specific conflict, especially its actors and their relationship.
Time needed:	Presentation of instrument: 30 minutes Group work and discussion in plenary: 60 minutes
Materials:	Flip-charts, cards and pens for each group of 4-6 participants
Course of action:	The trainer explains objectives and Course of action of exercise in the plenary. Visualisation is necessary.
	<p>The trainer points out that the actors should be written into the symbols and that one actor (group or person) has one symbol. Very often groups in a conflict have to be sub-divided (if sections of the group behave differently, have specific roles) or actors can be clustered (if they are doing, saying, wanting the same and no changes in this are expected for the future).</p> <p>Participants are divided into groups around one conflict each that at least one person knows well. (The analysis of the previous exercise can be made use of).</p>

	<p>The participants analyse the conflict according to the attached diagrams. This is visualised on a large flip-chart. Often a specific point in the history of a conflict has to be chosen before setting out to analyse, because relationships between actors shift in the course of the conflict.</p> <p>The results of the group work are presented and discussed in the plenary.</p> <p>The trainer encourages not to limit to the obvious actors, but to dig deeper, enlarge the perspective and identify a maximum of relevant persons. This permits later to better select persons that might play a constructive role in the conflict. At one stage, however, the number of actors has to be limited to those of real importance in order to generate a visualisation that is readable and helpful.</p> <p>If there are dramatic changes in the course of the conflict, two visualisations may demonstrate the changes.</p> <p>Questions that cannot be answered are noted as points to consider in further analysis.</p> <p>The trainer points out the advantages of team work to analyse a conflict: different hypotheses and perceptions are tested; blind spots in the perception are avoided. If appropriate, the dynamics in the small groups/teams can be evaluated</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The visualisation is meant to clarify and therefore should be kept readable (as complex as necessary – as simple as possible). However, this should not lead to neglect information or to confirm blind spots in the perception.</p> <p>To deepen discussion trainer may refer to related key questions.</p>

Mapping needs/interest and fears

To focus on needs, interest and fears can help to free those in conflict from fixed positions in relation to it and to focus instead on the interests, which will need to be addressed in any future agreement. In addition, listing needs, interests and fears often reveals the multiplicity of those interests and the need for several, or many, ingredients to be included in that agreement.

What it is:

A way of analysing what different parties to a conflict are saying.

Purpose:

To move beyond the public position of each party and understand each party's interests and needs.

To find common ground between groups that can become the basis for further discussions.

When to use it:

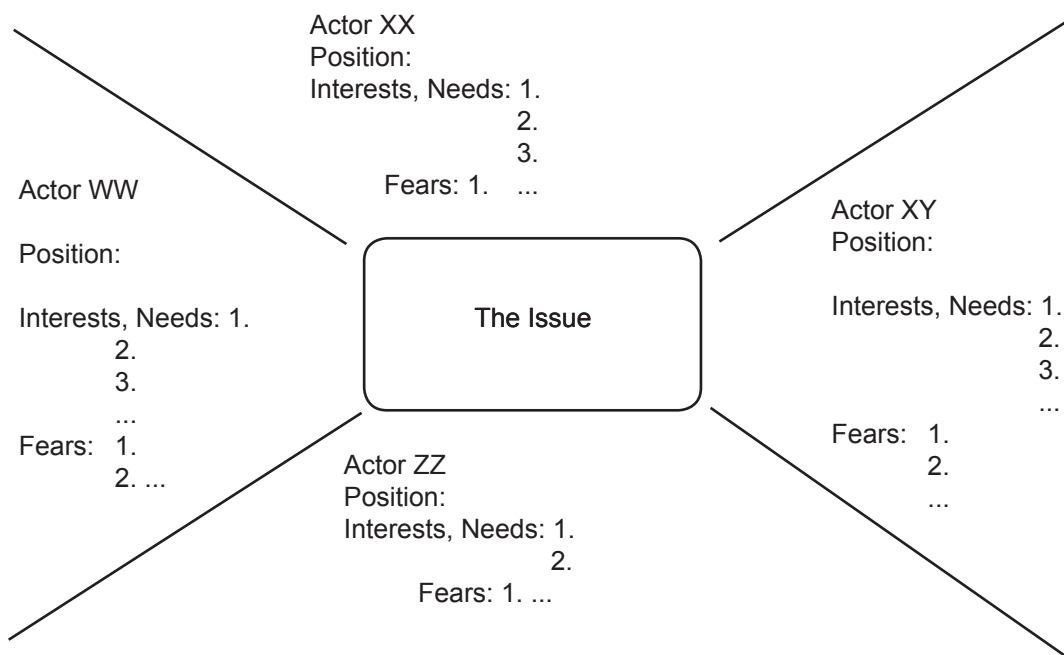
As part of analysis to understand the dynamics of a conflict situation.

In preparation for facilitation dialogue between groups in a conflict.

As part of a mediation or negotiation process.

How to conduct:

- *Positions* are formal, official and very often public. They are what the person says, demands. They contain an understanding of the situation, the outcome of the conflict and the role the conflicting party plays in it. Very often they contain a value as a justification or legitimization.
- *Values* are basic qualities, which are held to be very important and may be used to justify positions. They can be cultural norms, laws or ethical principles.
- *Issues* are what the parties say that the conflict is about. They are specific and concrete. Very often factual problems are less important than relationship problems, though conflicts are usually framed in factual terms.
- *Interests* are what conflicting parties really want, what are the motivations underlying their position. They may be expressed, but often they are also concealed. Very often there are several interests touched for each actor involved in a conflict. As interests are not essential human needs, they are negotiable and their relative importance may change with time.
- *Needs* are the fundamental, essential requirements for human survival. They relate to security, identity, community and vitality of human life. They are not negotiable, but they may be satisfied in different ways. They are usually unstated or disguised.



EXERCISE: MAPPING POSITIONS, INTERESTS AND NEEDS

Objectives	The exercise will familiarize participants to an instrument of analysis that will make them understand better a specific conflict, especially its actors, their positions, interests and needs.
Time needed	90 minutes
Materials	Large flip-chart papers and colour pens/markers per group
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the purpose and structure of the instrument of analysis to the group. Then s/he demonstrates the instrument using a simple example.</p> <p>After that s/he divides the group into sub-groups to analyse specific conflict cases. Each case has to be known well to at least one participant in the sub-group who will serve as a resource person to the other group members. The same cases as in the exercise on mapping “actors and their relationships” may be used.</p>

	<p>First the issue is defined in words that could be accepted by each conflicting party. This allows taking a shared perspective and seeing the issue as a problem that needs to be tackled by all persons involved. It moves away from seeing the person as the problem. The issue has to be defined in concrete and specific terms. The conflict which is analysed at this point is not seen as an example for a general situation, but is understood as an individual problem.</p> <p>Then all actors are identified and grouped around the issue that they take a perspective on. For each actor the position is noted down in a direct speech statement that they express/could express. Then their interests and needs are listed. Usually there is more than one! Often the fears give better access to understanding their needs and interests.</p> <p>Important: be clear about the issue, include all relevant actors and understand a maximum of points on the motivational side (Interests, needs, fears). These have to be dealt with when setting out to resolve the conflict.</p> <p>Looking at interests, needs and fears, suggestions can be developed for inclusive solutions that are options for a settlement of the conflict. Inclusive solutions are those that have the potential to cover the needs and interests of the parties to the conflict.</p>
<p>Remarks</p>	<p>This method can be used by mediators/conflict transformers in order to analyse a conflict while they are trying to be helpful. It can also be used in a conflict resolution process with either or all parties present in order to develop a common understanding and empathy. It may help to develop empathy between conflicting parties. They will reach a common understanding about the motivations underlying a conflict.</p> <p>To deepen discussion trainer may refer to related key questions.</p>

Pillars or inverted triangle – developed by Jean and Hildegaard Goss-Mayr adapted by Hagen Berndt

This approach to analyse a conflict is based on the premise that some situations are not really stable, but are held up by a range of factors or forces. If we can identify the factors and try ways to remove them or minimise their effect on the situation, we will be able to topple a negative situation and make way for a positive one.

What it is:

A graphic illustration of elements or forces that holding up an unstable situation.

Purpose:

To understand how structures are sustained.

To identify factors that are maintaining an undesirable situation.

To consider ways to weaken or remove these negative factors, or perhaps to change them to more positive forces.

When to use it:

When it is not clear what forces are maintaining an unstable situation.

When a situation seems to be stuck in a kind of structural

Variations:

Draw the changes that have already happened, and what would sustain the future that is hoped for.

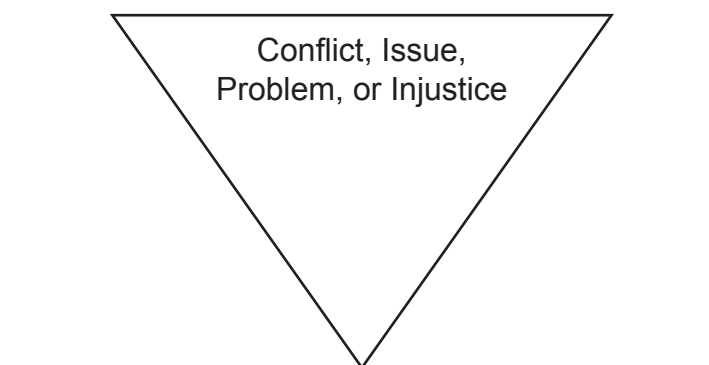
How to conduct:

Identify the unstable situation (conflict, injustice) and show this as an inverted triangle standing on one point.

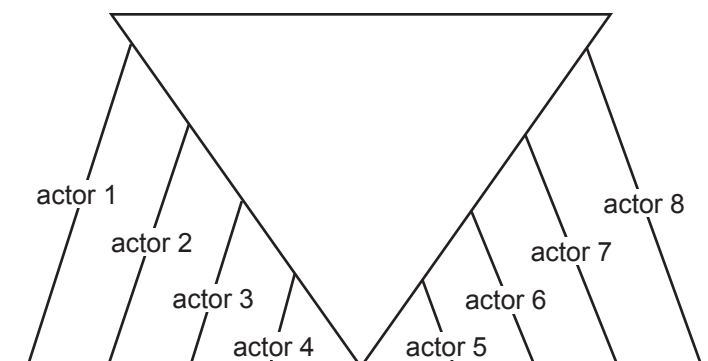
Identify the actors that drive the forces seeming to maintain this situation. Show them as supporting pillars.

Consider how each of the pillars might be weakened or removed.

Defining the Conflict



Identifying the Actors



Assessing the Involvement

Actor	How does s/he contribute to the problem?	What are his/her reasons to prevent change?
XX		
YY		
ZZ		
...		

EXERCISE: MAPPING PROBLEM, ACTORS AND THEIR INVOLVEMENT (“INVERTED TRIANGLE”)

Objectives:	The exercise will allow participants to practise an instrument for analysing conflict. This instrument will help to understand better a specific conflict, especially the involvement of the actors with the issue. It will allow them to see their own responsibility and find points of leverage for strategy development.
Time needed:	90 - 120 minutes
Materials:	Large flip-chart papers and colour pens/markers per group

Course of action:

The trainer explains the objectives and the structure of the method before sub-groups are formed around conflicts that need to be analysed.

The first step is to define the conflict well, the problem or injustice. If we are a conflicting party, this can well be done from our subjective point of view. But the definition should be concrete and specific; it should cover the conflict well.

Then this conflict is represented by an equal sided triangle standing on its tip (see diagram 1, below). This symbolises that conflicts tend to create unstable situations as one or more parties want to change this situation. This step (defining the conflict) usually takes most of the time and is crucial for a team, an organisation or the group. Without a shared understanding action is likely not to bring about the desired results.

In a next step all the actors are included into the diagram as pillars to the triangle symbolising that the continuing existence of the conflict or injustice depends on persons, groups, institutions (see diagram 2, below). Without them the unstable triangle would fall and the conflict would cease to exist, it would be resolved.

Relevant actors are not only persons or groups that are playing an active role in the conflict, being for or against. Some actors also support the continuing existence of this problem by remaining silent or inactive though they have influence, responsibility or leverage on the situation. Also certain of the weaker parties to the conflict have a responsibility: they may feel not empowered, lack analysis, group coherence or have not spent sufficient effort on becoming active. It is important to include them into the diagram.

Also the analyser himself/herself (or his/her group, in situation) has to be included, identifying in which way s/he or it has a responsibility, could play a more active part! This is also true in very oppressive situations (asymmetric conflicts) as even the oppressed can take steps toward change. Often there is a resistance to see oneself as a support to injustice or to the continuation of a conflict. The trainer has to make clear that the analyser obviously has little chance to change the conflict dynamics if s/he continues to act as up to now. (To find ways to influence the conflict is actually the reason for analysing it).

	<p>In a next step, a table or matrix is developed by describing for each actor included into the diagram why s/he has these motivations and why s/he is acting like this (see below, diagram 3). How is s/he supporting the injustice/the problem? What are vested interests? What are other reasons that prevent change?</p> <p>The group work is presented in the plenary and discussed.</p> <p>The trainer emphasises not to take just two-sided perspective. From the visualised analysis, the points of entry become visible: which actors can be influenced so that their support (symbolically - their pillar to the unstable triangle) can be removed? Initially, it is not necessary to begin with the most powerful actors; there are sufficient actors that can be reached. Dialogue plays an important role. If that is not sufficient (very often in asymmetric conflicts where the power holders have little interest to go for change), other instruments of conflict transformation have to be used to confront and/or to bring about a meaningful dialogue.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>This instrument is often used in asymmetric conflicts. It plays an important role to develop a democratically responsible attitude. It moves the perspective away from a just two sided view towards a more differentiated understanding of the situation.</p> <p>To deepen discussion trainer may refer to related key questions.</p>

EXERCISE: DISCUSSION - THE USE OF ANALYSIS FOR STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

Analysis is useful to determine entry points into the conflict situation in order to effect change. It may also be useful to assess one's own actions:

- Does our own behaviour increase tension or (unconsciously) contribute to conflict escalation?
- In which way can we support those forces that work for peace?

It is helpful to begin this thinking by looking at the general conflict situation, from the perspective of the impact that this conflict has on different aspects of life in society. Especially in the case of protracted social and political conflict, and when violence has happened, several areas of life have been negatively affected by the conflict. Willingly or unwillingly, while working in this situation we relate to these areas. Our behaviour and our decisions make a difference

in the context.

Therefore strategies, on the general level as well as specific decisions have to take account of the conflict situation. An analysis in this regard will help to re-assess our actions and to re-direct our efforts.

The ABC Triangle

The situation-attitude-behavior model provides yet another way to frame party issues. Attitude, which is predominately shaped by culture, affects behavior, and that in turn affects a situation.

In a conflict situation, issues arise between parties, and their behaviors are the means for settling those issues and achieving their goals. This model serves as a reminder that party issues and behaviors are ultimately determined by party attitudes. This then allows issues to be reframed in various contexts of culture, such as ethnicity, gender, or socio-economic class, and contributes to an appropriate analysis of the conflict situation. Oftentimes, party objectives can be classified as diametric opposites. Two simple formats exist for this classification. The first format is simply win-win or win-lose. Parties that seek to gain at the expense of others are engaged in a win-lose conflict; whereas parties that are seeking collaboration are pursuing a win-win outcome. The second format consists of status-quo maintaining and status-quo changing. A party whose objective is to wrest political control from another party is engaged in status-quo changing. The party that wishes to uphold political control is demonstrating status-quo maintaining. Determining party issues and objectives oftentimes requires “reading between the lines.” When parties voice their issues and goals, they may not necessarily be completely forthright. When this occurs, the parties are encoding their words with implicit messages. In order to determine these messages and understand exactly what the parties are implying, an intervener must essentially decode the parties’ messages. In order to accurately decode these messages, an intervener must have an in-depth understanding of the conflict’s context as well as extensive knowledge of the parties. Only an intervener that is intensely familiar with a conflict and its parties is able to accurately decode these messages and reframe them as issues and goals.

As parties’ issues are identified, additional information can be gathered by locating the issues in one or more of the conflict levels. As mentioned in the section Conflict Context, the four levels are individual, societal, international, and global/ecological. This process of level identification assists in determining the complexity of the issue, and hence informing the intervention design.

What is it:

An analysis of factors to attitude, behaviour and context for each of the parties.

Purpose:

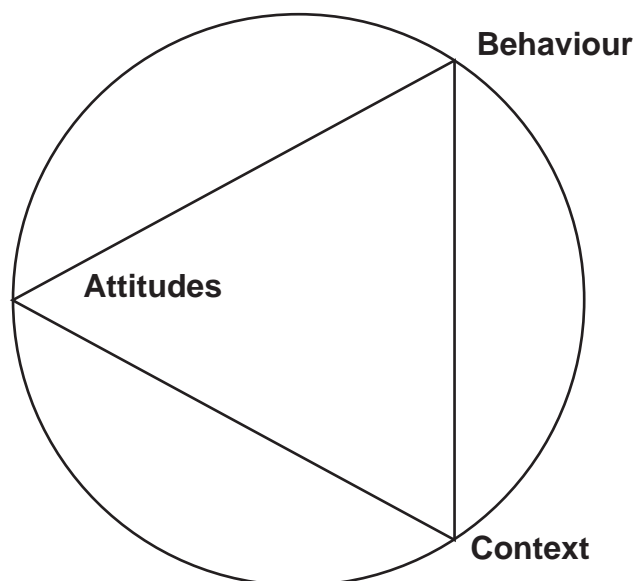
- To identify these three sets of factors for each of the major parties.
- To analyse how these influence each other.
- To relate these to the needs and fears of each party
- To identify a starting point for intervention in the situation.

When to use it:

- Early in the process to gain a greater insight into what motivates the different parties.
- Later to identify what factors might be addressed by an intervention.
- To reveal how a change in one aspect might affect another

Variations:

- After listing issues of each of the three components, indicate a key need or fear of that party in the middle of the triangle.



How to conduct:

- Draw up a separate ABC Triangle for each of the major parties in the conflict situation. On each triangle, list the key issues related to attitude, behaviour and context from the viewpoint of that party. Indicate for each party what is thought their most important needs and/or fears. Comparison of the triangle with noticing similarities and differences will round up the process.

EXERCISE: CONFLICT ANALYSIS – ABC TRIANGLE

Objectives:	The exercise will allow participants to practise another instrument for analysing social and political conflicts. This instrument will make them aware of the different factors that have effects on each other and influence the dynamics of a conflict.
Time needed:	60 minutes
Materials:	Flipcharts, moderation cards, markers, pins, pin-boards
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the purpose and structure of the instrument of analysis to the group.</p> <p>The trainer elicits a case from the participants. After that s/he divides the group into sub-groups to analyse the conflict cases.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The participants are asked to draw a separate ABC Triangle for each major parties of the conflict situation. • On each triangle, they list the key issues related to attitude, behaviour and context from the viewpoint of that party. (If parties are participating in this analysis, they should make a triangle from their own perspective.) • The participants are asked to indicate for each party what they think are their most important needs and/or fears in their middle of their own triangle. • After that step, a comparison of the triangles takes place. Differences and similarities are noted and discussed.
Remarks:	--

Trend analysis – third party’s behaviour

Analysis is useful to determine entry points into the conflict situation in order to effect change. It may also be useful to assess third party actions. Does third side’s behaviour increase tension or contribute to conflict escalation? And in which way can we support those forces that work for peace?

What it is:

A matrix that indicates trends of impacts of different factors plotted along with action

Purpose:

To indicate fields of impact

To stimulate discussion about causes and effects

To elicit re-assessment of actions and re-direction of effort of third party's action

To adjust project planning

When to use:

With a team who need to decide about which actions (of planning) are useful to continue project without doing harm.

How to use the tool:

Starting point of this analysis is a case of conflict. Important areas are identified where the failure (or lack of progress) of nonviolent conflict transformation is most felt. This could be: justice, security, economic development, political process, education, trade, etc. These areas of interest are entered into a matrix as in diagram below. Then indicators are identified for all areas of conflict impact and entered into the next column of the matrix. The development of these situations and determines in which direction developments may take place in near future.

- ↑ for an increase of the problem
- ↓ for a decrease of the problem
- → for a continuation on the same level

This trend is entered into the matrix. The factors that do or might increase tension as well as that do or might increase capacities for peace are identified and included into the matrix as well.

It is helpful to begin this thinking by looking at the general conflict situation, from the perspective of the impact that this conflict has on different aspects of life in society. Especially in the case of protracted social and political conflict, and when violence has happened, several areas of life have been negatively affected by the conflict. Willingly or unwillingly, while working in this situation third parties relate to these areas. The behaviour and decisions make a difference in the context.

Therefore strategies, on the general level as well as specific decisions have to take account of the conflict situation. An analysis in this regard will help to re-assess our actions and to re-direct efforts.

- Which of these factors have been taken into account by strategies of the third party? Which have so far been neglected?
- Where does it make sense to adjust planning? What difference would changes in strategies make?
- Which are possibilities of the third party to influence the dynamics?
- In which areas is it possible to use other capacities to strengthen peace factors and weaken factors increasing tension?

Areas of conflict impact	Indicators	Trend	Factors increasing tension	Factors increasing capacities for peace
Security	- Criminality - No-go areas - curfews	↑	- Police loyal to only one political party - Media exaggerate single cases	International attention
Economic development	Stop of project activities	→
Education	- Many teachers in exile	→

From: Manuela Leonhardt. *Conflict Analysis for Project Planning and Management: A practical guideline*. GTZ: Eschborn 2001, pp.72-73.

EXERCISE: CONFLICT ANALYSIS - TREND ANALYSIS

Objectives:	The exercise will allow participants to practise another instrument for analysing social and political conflicts. This instrument will make them aware of the factors that influence the dynamics of a conflict.
Time needed:	120 minutes
Materials:	Flipcharts and markers. Or moderation cards, markers, pins, pin-boards
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the structure of the method. Then s/he collects cases of social and political conflicts that are known to the group. Subsequently sub-groups are formed each around one conflict situation.</p> <p>Each group defines the conflict that they want to discuss.</p> <p>In a next step, the important areas are identified where the failure (or lack of progress) of nonviolent conflict resolution is most felt. This could be: justice, security, economic development, political process, education, trade, etc. These areas of interest are entered into a matrix as in diagram 4 (see below).</p>

	<p>Then indicators are identified for all areas of conflict impact and entered into the next column of the matrix. The group discusses the development of these situations and determines in which direction developments may take place in near future:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↑ for an increase of the problem • ↓ for a decrease of the problem • → for a continuation on the same level <p>This trend is entered into the matrix.</p> <p>The factors that do or might increase tension as well as that do or might increase capacities for peace are identified and included into the matrix as well.</p> <p>The results from the work of the sub-groups are presented to the plenary and discussed. The following questions that the trainer can use to help the group using this instrument:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which of these factors have been taken into account by your strategies? Which have so far been neglected? • Where do you want to adjust your planning? What difference would changes in your strategies make? • Which are your possibilities to influence the dynamics? In which areas do you want to use other capacities to strengthen peace factors and weaken factors increasing tension?
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>This instrument does not serve to predict the development of a conflict, but makes the broad consequences of the specific conflict more obvious.</p>

4

Chapter Four:

Framework for Conflict Transformation

INTRODUCTION

The chapter begins by suggesting a basic glossary of important terms around conflict transformation. Then it unfolds crucial principles of conflict transformations. It offers a framework for conflict transformation and provides different approaches in order to start building strategies in the field of conflict transformation. The closure is done by introducing different types of conflict transformation.

Basic glossary

Practitioners and scientists in the field of conflict studies often use key terms in loose and opposing ways, mirroring the reality that concepts have not been clearly defined. To encourage coherent use and understanding of these terms, the following definitions are introduced.

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. It applies to actions on all levels and tracks. One component is Crisis Management, which is active from the beginning of high tension to the cessation of violent conflict and crisis situations.

Conflict Prevention (or Crisis Prevention) - Activities undertaken in particularly vulnerable places and times over the short term to medium term that seek to identify situations that could produce violent conflict, to reduce manifest tensions, to prevent existing tensions from escalating into violence and to remove sources of danger before violence results. It may include Confidence-Building and Security-Building Measures, Early Warning, Preventive Peace Keeping; mainly used to refer to activities occurring before the outbreak of open 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 which enables them to end a violent conflict but which does not necessarily fundamentally alter the underlying causes of the conflict.

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.

Peacebuilding - A generic term to cover all activities intended to encourage and promote peaceful relations and overcoming violence. A long-term process that seeks to positively alter structural contradictions, improve relations between the conflict parties and encourage overall constructive changes in attitudes. It may also refer to activities connected with economic development, social justice, reconciliation, empowerment of disadvantaged/strategic groups and humanitarian support.

(Quoted: from Berghof-Handbook for Conflict Transformation)

Conflict transformation – principles for an approach to change

A transformational approach begins with two essentials: a positive orientation toward conflict, and a willingness to engage in the conflict in an effort to generate constructive change. While conflict often produces long-standing cycles of harm, pain and destruction, the key to transformation is the capacity to envision conflict as having the potential for constructive change. Conflict is a natural part of relationships. While relationships are sometimes calm and predictable, at other times events and circumstances generate tensions and instability. A transformational view seeks to understand how these particular episodes are embedded in the greater pattern of human relationships. Change is understood both at the level of immediate issues and the broader patterns of interaction. 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.

Conflict transformation begins with a central goal:

- To build constructive change out of the energy created by conflict.

By focusing this energy on the underlying relationships and social structures, constructive changes can be brought about. The key here is to move conflict away from destructive processes and toward constructive ones. The primary task of conflict transformation is not to find quick solutions to immediate problems, but rather to generate creative mechanism that can simultaneously address surface issues and change underlying social structures and relationship patterns.

Transformation must be able to respond to life's challenges, needs, and realities. 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 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 this sense, peace is a process-structure, an occurrence that is simultaneously dynamic, adaptive, and changing. In essence, rather than seeing peace as a static “end-state” conflict transformation views peace as a continuously evolving and developing quality of relationship. It is defined by intentional efforts to address the natural rise of human conflict through nonviolent approaches that address issues and increase understanding, equality, and respect in relationships.

The concerns about violence and justice suggest that we need to develop capacities to engage in change processes at the interpersonal, inter-group, and social-structural levels. One set of capacities points toward direct interaction between people or groups. The other set underscores the need to see, pursue, and create change in our ways of organizing social structures, from families, to complex establishment, to structures at the global level.

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.

Even though the concepts that make up the various components of conflict transformation have become more obvious. We now are going to move from the concept of transformation to the practice of transformation. We must therefore establish an operative frame of reference for thinking about and developing the design of transformational approaches.

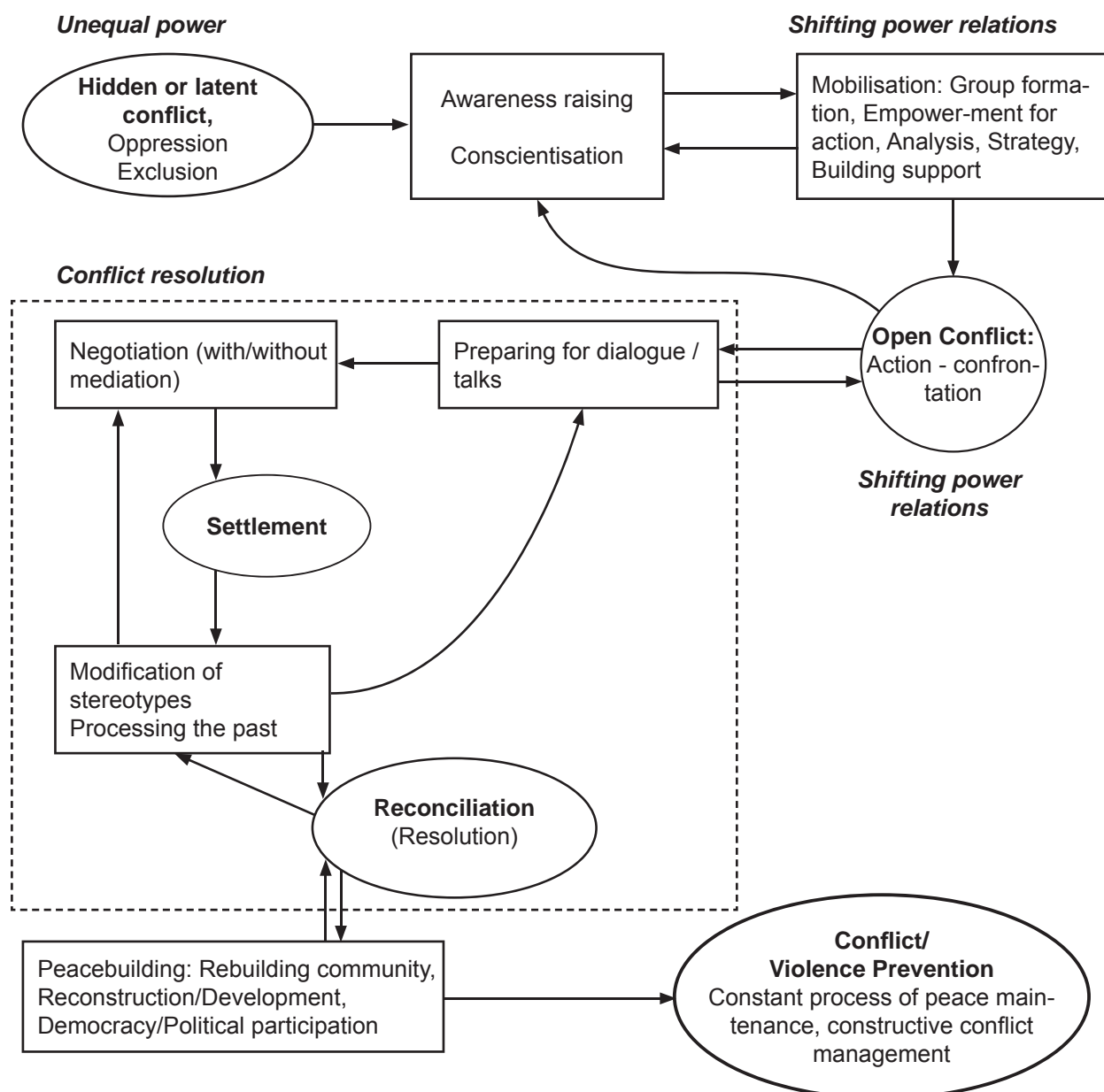
Stages and Processes in Conflict Transformation – Diana Francis

Since intractable conflicts are usually quite complex, developing a “framework” helps us to develop a purpose and direction. Without it, especially in the arena of intractable conflict, we can easily find ourselves responding to a myriad of issues without a clear understanding of what our responses add up to. We can solve lots of problems without necessarily creating any significant constructive social change at a deeper level.

Diana Francis has developed a diagram that describes the stages and processes that will usually need to be passed through, if a situation of oppression, with extreme imbalance of power, is to be transformed into one of genuine peace. The stages are not in themselves static.

The diagram – shown below - describes the different stages of the conflict (oval shapes) and the processes (rectangular shapes) that can be used to transform

the conflict. Though the diagram 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 (acknowledge with inverted arrows). 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.



Establishing/maintaining healthy power relations

Stages and Processes in Conflict Transformation according to Diana Francis
(Compare: Diana Francis. *People, Peace and Power: Conflict Transformation in Action*. London 2002, pp. 49ff.)

The diagram begins with a situation in which the oppression or exclusion is so complete that the conflict is hidden or latent, the oppressed group remaining passive in the face of extreme injustice or structural violence. They may remain passive 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 “conscientisation”. This process will, if it generates sufficient determination, lead to the formation of groups committed to change. The commitment to conflict transformation implies non-violent options to violent actions.

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 non-violently. 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. Even if the confrontation takes the form of armed conflict, eventually a road back to dialog has to be found. 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 grouped together and described as conflict resolution, in which communications are somewhat restored and settlements reached. 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 can help – for instance in the form of mediation – both in preparing the parties for negotiation and in negotiating 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 these are in place, 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 peace-building, 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.

EXERCISE: WORKING WITH STAGES AND PROCESSES

Objectives:	The exercise will allow participants to discover stages and processes in social conflicts that they know. It will make them aware of their own priorities and access to the conflict and relate this to other approaches by other actors.
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Large flipchart, paper (alternatively moderation cards and pin boards) and markers.
Course of action:	<p>The trainer has explained the input on the transformation of conflicts, including the “stages and processes” diagram developed by Diana Francis.</p> <p>S/he refers also to the glossary in order to clarify used terms.</p> <p>Then s/he collects examples of social conflicts that the group knows, in the plenary. Each conflict is characterised by one sentence and noted on a flipchart. Those conflicts are highlighted that the group feels concerned about.</p> <p>Groups are formed around one conflict case each. Each group discusses the conflict to get a shared understanding. Then the group relates the case to the diagram along the following questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which stages has the conflict passed through? • Which stage is the conflict actually in? (Are there perhaps different segments of the conflict (sub-conflicts) in different stages?) • Which actors are working on which processes and on which levels of the conflict? • Where would each of you/your organization place yourselves? Where could you be efficient? • How do you relate to other actors? Are there perhaps also actors who are not constructively working on the conflict, i.e. not working for transformation? <p>The group draws its analysis into the diagram and presents it to the plenary.</p>

	<p>The trainer facilitates the discussion on the group presentations. Helpful questions could be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you see other conflicts playing into this situation? How do they influence the dynamics? • Which divisions do you see within the constituency of (the group of people following) each conflict party? • What are the reasons for your own choice of action? (access, values, resources, etc.) • How did you take account of power imbalances? <p>In the end the main insights are summarized by the trainer (use visualisation methods).</p>
Remarks:	--

The Pyramid – Conflict transformation on different levels of society

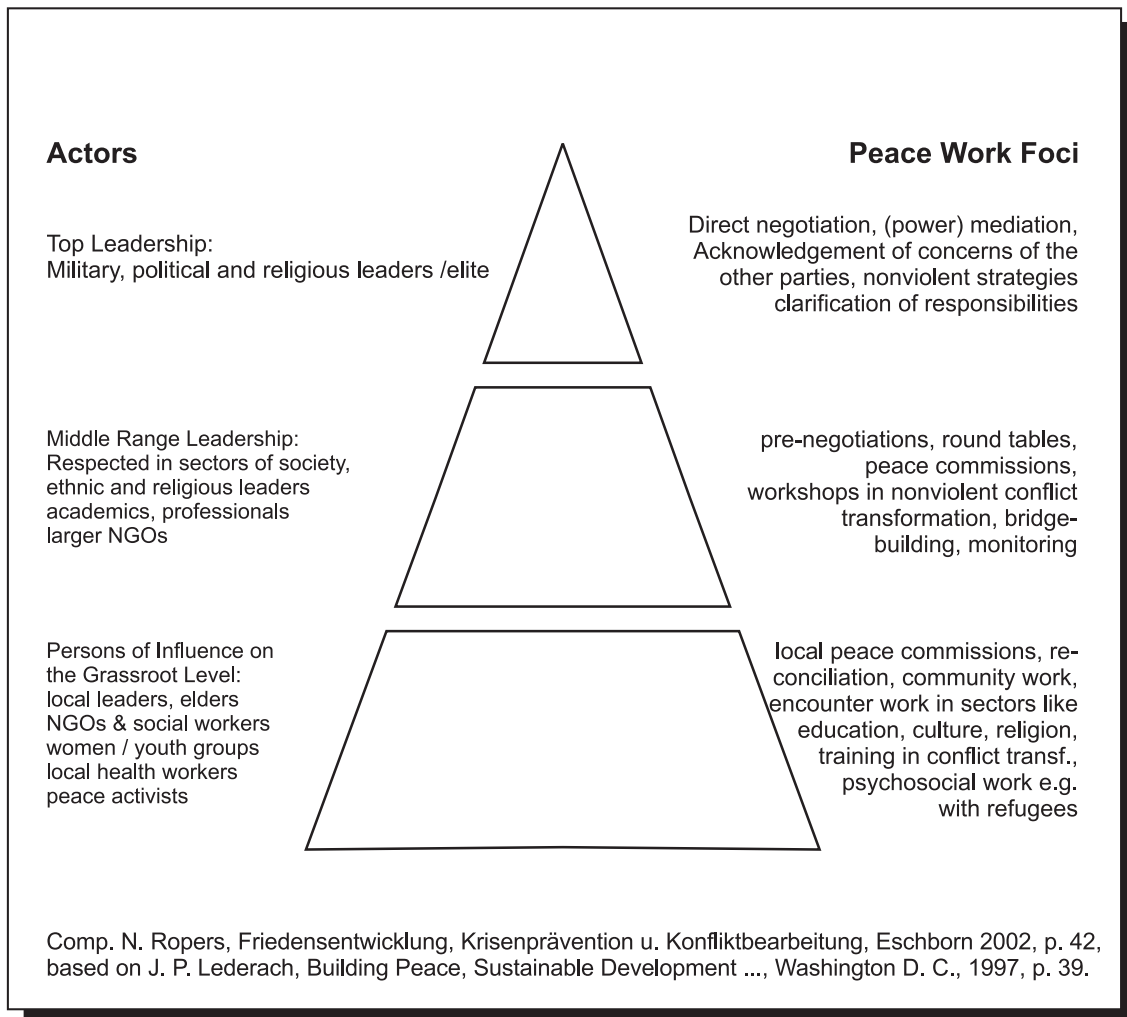
John Paul Lederach has developed an approach, more focused on understanding the actors involved in a conflict. He provides an actor analysis that distinguishing between levels of leadership in conflict areas, differentiating top-from mid-range from grassroots leaders. He suggests analysing possible or existing peace actors within the same matrix, and then presents corresponding intervention strategies. This type of mapping is particular useful for external intervening actors as it opens their view for internal peace actors.

Top Leadership

On this level we find the national leaders belonging to government, military or opposition. They are characterised by their significant, sometimes exclusive power position. This is of advantage for peace negotiations. However, their extremely high visibility also only allows them little flexibility in negotiations without danger of losing their face and consequently their constituency.

Middle range leaders

Here we find leaders of national importance and much visibility who have access to both, the powerful at the top as well as the basis at the grassroots. Their power does not derive from publicity, but from relationships. Often these relationships extend beyond the range of the constituencies of each singular conflict party. Lederach attributes the maximum significance to the mid-level, because it is linked with both the top leadership level and the grassroots level.



Grass root leadership

On the grass root level we find leaders of local importance. These actors are very close to the everyday reality of the conflict. They are often immediately touched by the consequences of the conflict, for example in respect to security, resources to cover basic needs, etc. Local communities are often divorced by hostility and hatred. Here the conflict is directly experienced. Local grass root leaders live and work in direct contact with the population and therefore understand their situation and perspective well. On the other hand their general perspective and their decision-making capacities are limited.

All three levels of leadership in society are essential for conflict transformation and need to be integrated into transformation strategies. For each leadership level different sets of instruments and methods have to be used. Generally, three different strategic consequences can be derived from this analysis.

Activities at the top level could be:

- Act as intermediaries between parties –before and during conflict
- International advocacy in situations of violent conflict for cease-fire,

- peacekeeping or other political measures –before, during and after
- Give input into high-level negotiations –before, during and after
- Inter-religious and inter-ethnic dialogue –before, during and after

Activities at the middle level could be actions in parallel with the formal processes of communication and negotiation that are designed to open up dialogue and understanding between parties in conflict and encourage new thinking about future relationships after the conflict. As such, they can inform and contribute to thinking and initiatives at the formal level.

- Conduct conflict resolution and problem solving workshops –before, during and after violent conflict
- Reconciliation work, including peace commissions –before, during and after the conflict
- Act as intermediaries between parties –before and during the conflict
- Media and communications work –before, during and after the conflict
- Support networks of people interested in peace –before, during and after the conflict
- Inter-religious and inter-ethnic dialogue –before, during and after the conflict
- Conflict resolution and prejudice reduction training –before, during and after the conflict

Activities at the grassroots level could be encouraging interactions and understanding between formerly hostile local communities, awareness raising and empowerment within those communities and, as such, development cooperation, humanitarian assistance and post-conflict rehabilitation can play an important role at grassroots level.

- Work on conflict resolution and prejudice reduction –before, during and after violent conflict
- Human rights education –before, during and after
- Non-violent advocacy and advocacy training –before, during and after
- Psycho-social and post-war trauma support work – during and after
- Reconciliation work, including local peace commissions –before and after
- Rebuild the physical infrastructure –after
- Enhance or rebuild economic and agricultural economic base –before and after
- De-mobilise and reintegrate soldiers –during and after
- Integrate displaced populations and refugees –during and after
- Peace education for children and youth –before, during and after
- Emergency assistance –during and immediately after
- Support or network with other local peacebuilding organisations –before, during and after
- Inter-religious and inter-ethnic dialogue –before, during and after

This is a strategy for seeking change across conflict lines that explicitly supports processes that link social spaces that demonstrate a capacity for both vertical

and horizontal capacity building. By integrating both vertical and horizontal capacities, it is more likely to change social conflicts.

EXERCISE: APPLICATION OF CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION PYRAMID

Objectives:	<p>Participants practise the use of Lederach's conflict transformation pyramid as an analytical instrument.</p> <p>This instrument will help to identify decision-makers and key figures at the various levels of the conflict, examine one's own work or strategy to determine whether it includes the greatest possible number of levels, identify appropriate strategies in order to influence the various levels, and identify potential partners for cooperation at the various levels.</p>
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart paper, moderation cards, pins and pinboards, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the objectives of this exercise and the purposes of the instrument.</p> <p>The Conflict Transformation Pyramid as analytical instrument assists in the:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identification of decision-makers and key figures at the various levels of the conflict • examination of one's own work or strategy to determine whether it includes the greatest possible number of levels • identification of appropriate strategies in order to influence the various levels • identification of potential partners for cooperation at the various levels <p>The trainer leads a discussion on a chosen conflict case from within the group (for example using one of the examples from the previous presentation). S/he visualises the discussion, summarizes, etc. by using the structure of the Lederach pyramid.</p> <p>For the purposes of analysis with Lederach's pyramid, the most important actors at each level must be identified. The relationships and conflicts between these actors and with actors at other levels can also be shown, for example by help of lines, arrows, broken lines, zigzag lines.</p>

	<p>The following could be steps guiding the discussion:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the levels at which the conflict is taking place • Enter important organisations, institutions and individuals at each level • Discuss the relationships between actors within as well as between the levels • Enter your own organisation at the relevant level, take stock of the existing relationships between the organisation and the other levels and identify relationships that still need to be established • Identify the methods and techniques used at each level • Discuss which contributions you/your organisation will be able to make, which techniques you are able to introduce <p>If there are participants from different organisations present in the group, this discussion might produce fruitful insights into where cooperation or concerted action could be helpful for conflict transformation.</p> <p>In the end the trainer summarizes the findings.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>It may also be useful to describe each party to the conflict with a pyramid of its own and to compare these with each other, using this basis for working out further relationships and cross-links.</p> <p>The trainer may also refer to “key questions” of conflict analysis in order to elicit information from participants and to highlight the crucial points.</p> <p>Optional, this exercise can be conducted in small groups with individual cases from the beginning on.</p>

Types of conflict transformation

Conflict transformation can be seen as a catalyst to processes. Nevertheless, it can aim towards different social categories. The following classifications give an overview.

Context transformations refer to changes in the context of conflict that may radically alter each party’s perception of the conflict situation, as well as their motives. The impact of the end of the Cold War on regional conflicts is a remarkable example.

Structural transformations refer to changes in the basic structure of the conflict, that is to set of actors, their issues, incompatible goals and relationships, or to the

society, economy or state within which the conflict is embedded. Asymmetric conflicts cannot be transformed, for instance, without changing the unbalanced and contested relationships that lie at their roots. While such changes will take place only gradually, internal and external actors can support them along the way. For example, Black Consciousness 'movement raised awareness of the power of the poor people in the townships in South Africa, and the Anti-Apartheid Movement helped to press the case for dis-investment by foreign-owned businesses well before the end of the apartheid regime.

Actor transformations include decisions on the part of actors to change their goals or alter their general approach to conflict. This would include decisions to seek peace or to initiate a peace process. They also include changes of leadership, often crucial to the securing of transformation in conflicts. Also included are changes in the situation of the public constituencies and supporters of the respective political leaders. This opens a number of lines for specific conflict transformation work, as those who work within a party to bring about change in that party 's position often prove to be crucial actors in the peace process, and may have more influence than external level I and level II actors.

Issue transformations concern the reformulations of positions that parties take on key issues at the heart of the conflict as well as the way in which parties reframe those positions in order to reach compromises or resolutions. A good example of an issue transformation was the decision by the Unionist Party in Northern Ireland to accept a de-linking of the decommissioning issue from the question of the convocation of the Northern Ireland Assembly. Making 'progress' on issues in conflict is often tortuously slow and painfully subject to reversals, and of course what counts as progress is itself contentious.

Personal changes of heart or mind within individual leaders or small groups with decision-making power at critical moments may be crucial. Some external interveners try to reach these leaders and bring about this personal change directly. Conciliatory gestures by leaders, which express personal changes, would play an important role in this context. These five types of transformation can be readily related to the levels of conflict causation or prevention identified above. Context transformations usually occur within the global or regional setting. Structural transformations usually happen at the state/society level. Actor and issue transformations take place at the conflict party and elite levels. Personal transformations demand competencies on the individual level.

The transformation types can also be connected to the different parts of conflict formation. Context, structural and issue transformations all affect the context and contradictions at the heart of the conflict. Actor and personal transformations particularly affect attitudes and memory, behaviour and relationships. These in turn, of course, are interrelated.

Finally, these different types of transformation further relate to the phases of conflicts and the timing of intervention. Context and structural changes tend to take place over a longer time scale, and affect the setting of the conflict; the other types of transformations occur more rapidly and sequentially, as part of the dynamics of the conflict. The sequencing of changes varies with each peace process depending on the logic of the situation. Only in the very simplest conflicts is

conflict transformation likely to be a rapid or immediate process.

EXERCISE - DISCUSSION: TPYPES OF CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION AND CONSEQUENSES

Objectives:	The unit will make participants realise the different types of conflict transformation. They will become conscious of the personal experiences that they hav already made or about to make in their work of conflict transformation	
Time needed:	90 minutes	
Materials:	Pin board, visualisation material, e.g. moderation cards and markers	
Course of action:	The unit starts with the introduction of the different types of conflict transformation.	
	Types of conflict transformation	
	Types	Examples
	Context Transformation	change in the international or regional environment
	Structure Transformation	change from asymmetric to symmetric relations change in power structures changes of markets of violence
	Actor Transformation	changes of leadership changes of goals intra-party change change in party 's constituencies changing actors
	Issue Transformation	transcendence of contested issues constructive compromise changing issues de-linking or re-linking issues
Personal Transformation	changes of perspective changes of heart changes of will gestures of conciliation	

	<p>Strategies have to take the interdependencies between levels into account.</p> <p>In conflict transformation many forms of complex interdependence need to be considered. Ethnic, regional, religious conflict situations involve a large and intricate web of parties and factors. Thus transformation of protracted social or political conflict has to happen at different levels of society, therefore also involving a wide range of different actors. They can very efficiently work together.</p> <p>The trainer elicits the experience of the participants. The trainer may use buzz-groups.</p> <p>The complexity of conflict transformation raises personal questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do I position myself in regard to the complexity of the conflict? • Where do I develop strength from to deal with setbacks, frustrations, little progress over long periods? • Which processes do I want to encourage, which do I find unjust? <p>The trainer collects questions and issues like these from within the group. The dilemmas are identified and discussed.</p>
Remarks:	--

5

Chapter Five:

Designing Interventions

INTRODUCTION

A variety of reflections and principles that should be taken into account when designing actions that relate to conflict transformation. Operating from a genuine commitment for peace conflict transformation increases the chance that the intervention will lessen harm and, eventually, facilitates effective processes that will lead to constructive conflict transformation. Nevertheless, some principles should be taken into consideration before action takes place.

This chapter introduces some standards.

Making choices and designing conflict transformation

Roles of actors

Most of those working on conflict are likely insiders, people working on their own situation.

This is frequently abandoned by institutions and persons involved in conflict transformation work. Conflicting parties from an early stage have to assume the main responsibility for the processes needed to turn difficult situations to more constructive futures. Outside intervention is not automatically welcome. Where do interveners from outside derive the right from to join other persons' affairs; are there good reasons to become involved with conflicts if you are not party to the conflict? Outsiders should not intervene if the conflict and any solution is the joint property of the conflict parties, if they are not able to understand the uniqueness of the conflict or enter with just their own agendas.

However, outsiders do often play a crucial and positive role. Without external individual and organisations, that are willing to offer resources and expertise, many initiatives cannot be implemented effectively. Outsiders may intervene if they are

- asked to do so
- if the conflict parties are unable to transform the conflict so as to avoid violence or keep the violence under control
- or if conflict parties are unable to handle post-violence reconstruction

The key for outsiders is to see their primary role as enhancing the effectiveness of insiders, ensuring at stages that the insiders are the primary vehicles for change.

The choice of action depends on many different factors ranging from own capacities and values or beliefs to access to resources or to the conflict parties themselves. Each role again contains a variety of techniques that can be utilised. Which technique is selected by the conflict transformer depends largely on his/her analysis and assessment of situation and his/her expectations concerning the results of the action.

Diana Francis suggests the following feature.

I. Initial Stage of Conflict (from latent conflict till group formation and strategy development)	
Partisan Roles of <i>Conflict Parties</i>	activist, educator of own group, advocate for own group with other power holders and opposition groups, bridge builder (networking), establisher of support by potential contacts
Semi-partisan Roles of <i>Conflict Parties</i>	Bridge builder (across „frontiers“), public educator
Partisan Roles of <i>Third Parties</i>	Agent of conscientisation, resource (finances, information), activist in solidarity, builder of solidarity, advocate with opposition
Non-partisan (all-partisan) Roles of <i>Third Parties</i>	Bridge builder, public educator, human rights observer, monitor

II. Confrontation Stage of Conflict (open conflict)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roles similar to Initial Stage • Relative relevance of individual Roles may change, confrontative Roles gain importance

III. Conflict Resolution Stage of Conflict (preparation of dialogue, negotiation, until conflict settlement)	
Partisan Roles of <i>Conflict Parties</i>	Advocate, engager in pre-negotiation dialogue, negotiator
Semi-partisan Roles of <i>Conflict Parties</i>	Bridge builder for dialogue, advocate for resolution, solidarity builder, activist for resolution, supporter/participant in processes of cooperative problem solving
Partisan Roles of <i>Third Parties</i>	(These Roles are no more important in this stage because the conflict parties themselves have to take responsibility for their own future)
Non-partisan (all-partisan) Roles of <i>Third Parties</i>	advocate for conflict resolution, supporter of processes, mediator, bridge builder, observer, facilitator of reconciliation processes

IV. Construction Stage of Conflict (after conflict settlement, after end to violence)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roles similar to Resolution Stage • Relative relevance of individual Roles may change, cooperative Roles gain importance

The semi-partisan roles of conflict parties is unique. Generally speaking, conflict parties are partisans per definition. However, some actors within this social or political group may adopt an approach that focuses on the process instead of taking on the issue. These roles are called “semi-partisan”.

EXERCISE: DEFINING PERSONAL ROLES IN CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION

Objectives:	<p>The unit will make participants conscious about issues they need to be clear about in order to understand which constructive roles they should take on as conflict transformers wishing to connect to a specific conflict.</p> <p>They learn to apply the theory on stages and roles to concrete conflict situations.</p>
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart paper, coloured markers
Course of action:	<p>In the plenary, the trainer collects cases of social and political conflicts that are known in the group, and visualizes them. Pairs are formed according to cases of interest.</p> <p>The trainer highlights the difference between the terms partisan and nonpartisan/all-partisan (according to Diana Francis). A prepared flipchart with a template is very helpful.</p> <p>A questionnaire is distributed and each trainee receives a copy:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px;"> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Which aspect of the overall situation do I wish to address? What scale or level of the conflict? Is it national or local? Is it political, social, organisational or domestic? 2. What stage has this particular conflict reached? 3. What form should my involvement take? Will it be direct or indirect? Will 'peace' be my named purpose, or a secondary effect or something else, such as economic help, education or relief? Will I be an educator, or take direct action? 4. What type of role should I undertake: partisan, semi-partisan or non-partisan? Am I an insider or an outsider to the conflict? Can I best play the role of advocate, bridge-builder or mediator? 5. At what level should I work? With what kind of people? At the grass-roots level, the middle level – people with some influence – or at the top level of leadership? </div>

	<p>Some considerations for answering these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The needs of the situation. • The person's own motivation, conviction, values. • The person's own skills, capacities, resources and influence. • The person's own relationship to the conflict (for example interests) <p>Each participant reflects individually by assistance of the questionnaire on his/her own constructive role that s/he would like to take on in the conflict discussed. The results of this reflection are discussed with the partner of the pairs. The conversation among them may include challenging the choices that the participants have made.</p> <p>The results of the pairs are reported in the plenary as well as important insights from the discussion.</p> <p>The trainer may need to explain where ever the theory on constructive roles in conflict transformation proves to have not been explained clearly enough.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The trainer may point out the importance of a well-considered choice before intervening in a conflict. Someone who does not know him-/herself cannot be of much help for others. On the contrary, s/he might confuse the situation even more due to lack of own clarity. Therefore, feedback on the choice of action made by a conflict transformer is a valuable tool among colleagues, as practised in this exercise.</p> <p>Regarding to the size of the group, sub-groups (of interest) may be gathered.</p>

Criteria and Mandate

From the very beginning actors should clearly understand their role in the process of conflict transformation. Additionally, interveners should know what kind of criteria they should relate their action to. The US peace scientist Paul Wehr proposed a set of criteria for conflict intervention:

- *Accessibility:* Does one have sufficient credibility to enter the conflict?
- *Tractability:* Does the conflict offer some hope of achievement given the intervener's time, energy, skills and funds?
- *Divisibility:* Can one intervene in only one issue or segment that might be more

manageable?

- *Timing:* Is it too early or too late? Are the parties “suffering enough” to welcome intervention? Or, has it gone too far already?
- *Alternatives:* Is non-intervention riskier than intervention in terms of the well-being of the conflict parties and others?

Before practitioners attempt to develop conflict transformation strategies, they would be well advised to take a closer look at the underlying vision supporting the stated wishes and needs to intervene. When intervening actors lack a clear picture of their own motives, they usually run the risk that their intervention will be determined by the market of suppliers, rather than by the demand side or real needs of the region in conflict. Interveners need to be clear and transparent about their own mandate.

The mandate may include information about:

- Which constructive role s/he does take on?
- Which period of time s/he will be involved?
- Where does s/he take the right to intervene from (request by one party or all parties, appointment by law, generally accepted standards like human rights, etc.)?
- Which will be the issue or segment of the conflict that s/he will focus on?
- Other information relating to role, methods, relationship

EXERCISE: CRITERIA FOR INTERVENTIONS

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of different interventions, the mandate of the interveners and their credibility with the conflict parties.										
Time needed:	45 minutes										
Materials:	Moderation cards, markers, pins and pinboards										
Course of action:	<p>The trainer provides the participants with handouts concerning the mandate and the roots of credibility of interveners. After given time to the reading questions regarding clarification are answered.</p> <p>The trainer then prepares following feature on the pin board:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="466 1787 1364 1910"> <thead> <tr> <th>conflict</th> <th>interveners</th> <th>mandate</th> <th>credibility</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			conflict	interveners	mandate	credibility				
conflict	interveners	mandate	credibility								

	<p>An example is given (e.g. conflict between a community and a landlord about territory – intervention by institution – mandated by request from the parties to mediate/arbitrate – credibility through proved competence).</p> <p>Then s/he collects from the group different concrete examples for nonviolent intervention in conflicts (the scale may be from interpersonal to the international). In each case the interveners is named. Then the following questions are discussed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which mandate did the interveners have? Where did s/he derive it from? • How would you assess his/her credibility with the different conflict parties? <p>The points are visualised. The trainer may form buzz groups in order to stimulate discussion.</p> <p>In the end the main difficulties and findings are summarized.</p>
Remarks:	<p>The exercise may be an opportunity to discuss the following points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In what kind of situations is it better not to intervene at all? • Has credibility to be established before the intervention? • How to maintain credibility during the intervention? • Which principles of conflict transformation play a crucial part? <p>Intervening actors must turn their visions into operational and achievable goals that can then form the basis for the development of effective intervention strategies. Goals are best clarified through analysing an intervening actor 's/institution 's capacities and limits, values and interests, as applied to the relevant problems and needs for conflict transformation. While goals must be clear, the strategies employed to reach these goals can vary and have most likely to be adapted or modified during the process of conflict transformation.</p>

Developing options for interventions

Conflicts are not inherently intractable. There is a multitude of ways for conflict partisans as well as outsiders to prevent, limit, or transform conflicts. No single approach works for all scenarios; certain policies are effective in some circumstances, but not in others.

Efforts to mitigate and transform a conflict are not always successful; indeed they are risky and sometimes even counterproductive. And though caution in the face of such risks is advisable, a fearful and tentative approach may itself contribute to the failure of an intervention. Certainly, good judgment and good planning is required in executing any of the policies discussed here. Thus, a solid understanding of the particularities of the case, along with a careful mapping of all the options available, helps one to determine which policies and actions, and in what combinations, will be the most effective.

Option identification is an essential step in the process of resolving any conflict, including seemingly intractable situations. In a conflict resolution scenario, once all parties to the conflict have identified the issues under contention, they should systematically list ALL options that they see available to them for advancing their interests. The parties should include options they would not normally choose, as these could turn out to be compatible with those of an opposing party. Option identification is essential through all phases of a conflict. For example, at the beginning of a conflict, parties must decide whether to engage or disengage. If they decide to engage, they must then decide their strategic and tactical options and what their goals are.

Some conflicts require outside intervention in order to be constructively transformed or resolved. This intervention can take many forms, and be either formal or informal. Perhaps the best-known form of intervention is mediation, in which a neutral third party (who may be an individual, a panel, an organization, or even a country) will try to help the disputing parties work out their differences in a mutually acceptable way. Unlike arbitrators or judges, mediators have no power to impose a settlement or resolution. Rather, they help the parties to clarify their interests and needs, and their alternatives, in an effort to find a negotiated solution. Usually finding such a solution is extremely time-consuming and difficult--if it were easy; the conflict would not be intractable. For those conflicts that have resisted resolution for many months or even years, many interrelated issues must be discussed and resolved, often among a large number of parties. For this reason, the successful mediation of conflicts, while possible, is a significant challenge.

Other intervention processes include:

- Conflict Assessment - in which an outside party comes in at the request of one or all of the parties to assess the situation, and make a recommendation about the best way to proceed.
- Facilitation - in which an outside person comes in to help improve communication between the parties, help them examine and solve problems, and help them make decisions.
- Education - in which one or both parties are taught new or improved conflict assessment, communication, negotiation, or conflict management skills,
- Dialogue - in which a facilitator sits down with the parties to discuss the issues in dispute in a constructive and non-confrontational way. Although the approaches used vary considerably, most dialogue facilitators focus on creating

safe spaces for in depth inquiry. The goal is usually increasing mutual understanding, not finding an ultimate solution.

- Consensus Building - in which many parties work together with a mediator and/or facilitator to reach a mutually agreeable solution to complex, multi-party disputes.
- Problem-Solving Workshops - an informal „track two“ process in which disputants sit down with conflict scholars to identify the underlying issues and needs involved in their conflict and use an analytical approach to finding potential solutions.
- Arbitration - in which a neutral party listens to the arguments of all sides, and makes a binding decision resolving the conflict,
- Adjudication - in which a dispute is submitted to a court of law for binding resolution.
- Witnesses - in which people enter the scene of the conflict and simply watch and report on what happens. This can call attention to gross injustice or human rights violations, making it more costly to engage in such behaviour.
- Peacekeepers, who position themselves between the fighting parties to keep them physically apart.
- Peacebuilders, who come into a conflict, usually after violent hostilities have ceased, to try to help the parties rebuild their lives and their relationships. The ultimate goal is reconciliation and a normalization of relationships.

EXERCISE: ROLE PLAY - DEVELOPING OPTIONS FOR INTERVENTIONS IN A CONFLICT

Objectives:	The exercise will allow participants to practise developing options for intervention and applying the theory on stages and roles. They also conduct communication skills.
Time needed:	3 hours
Materials:	Flipcharts, markers, moderation cards, pin boards, (optional: news paper articles)
Course of action:	<p>The trainer provides the participants with the setting that describes the background of the conflict scenario. The background information also is handed out to the participants.</p> <p>Roles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A representative of the transitional government of ATONIA, Mr. John Chrebra • Mr. Hessa Nistrow, member of opposition • “General Longago” also former local commander • Ms Helana Nistrow, Commentator of the station ATONIA TV • Consultancy teams • Observers

The chosen local characters prepare themselves individually to play their roles.

Four pairs are clustered. They are functioning as consultant teams that are supposed to suggest interventions later on.

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

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. As there are four teams, they can talk to one actor each at the same time.

Each consultant team in meets in turns each actor independently:

- Explain your role and background
- Listen to the actors and elicit the information that is needed
- Evaluate the information in order to make suggestions for interventions
- Go back to the local actors each and suggest the options of that you find appropriate in this case, explain your reasons
- After finishing, set up a short description for the plenary pointing out what went well, what was difficult and what are options for intervention to support constructive nonviolent conflict transformation.

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

The plenary listens to these reports. The trainer summarizes the learning concerning the interviewing experience. Visualisation is used.

Then the plenary revises the different options proposed for intervention and develops a strategy for nonviolent transformation of the conflict situation.

Remarks:

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

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.

SCENARIO OF ROLE PLAY: ATONIA

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.

Role A: Mr Vice President John Chrebra

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.

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 protégés 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.

Role B: Opposition in parliament – SEBA Representative: Mr. Nistrow

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 criticized 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.

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 chairman of the of the opposition party from his fathers reputation. He is proud of his close connection to the police force. He is considered a hardliner within his party. To get to most influence as possible even if he has publicly said he hoped for a fair and thorough future.

Group C: NEGAS - Representative: "General" Longago

The paramilitary group, called the NEGAS, 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 NEGAS are also members of the parliament, more or less known and publicly recognised.

Lately, the NEGAS have a growing autonomy and are responsible for most of the human right violations that are spread all over the country. „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 joint the NEGAS when his brother disappeared.

It is believed that he owes this appointment to personal ties with the minister.

Civil Society – Representative: Ms Helana Nistrow, Commentator of the station ATONIA TV

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

6

Chapter Six:

Intervention through Action

INTRODUCTION

The chapter describes the roots of conflict transformation: the nonviolence approach to conflict. It introduces a number of possible actions to influence conflict directly. Chosen from a wide range of possibilities, these actions are practical and within the scope of everybody committed to building peace and justice. The categories and suggested actions covered are:

- Identifying and reducing prejudice
- Awareness-raising and Mobilisation for change
 - Lobbying
 - Campaigning
 - Nonviolent direct action
- Prevention
 - Prevention conflict from escalating into violence
- Maintaining a Presence
 - Unarmed protection
 - Monitoring and observing
- Confidence building

Nonviolence as an approach to conflict intervention

Nonviolence is a powerful and effective approach to social change, which seeks to transform society using means consistent with the ends of a fair, just and peaceful world. The strategy and tactics of nonviolence have been used to topple dictators, end colonial rule, win workers' rights, end segregation, protect the environment and resist war and the nuclear arms race. It has been successful across a wide range of cultures and political regimes, and allows the participation of the broadest spectrum of society. Nonviolence works from the notion that power is gained through co-operation and consent, and that we each have the freedom to co-operate with, or to withdraw co-operation from the institutions, which govern us. It recognises the humanity of the oppressor, and through principled action, opposes the wrong without offering violence to the doer of the wrong.

The justifications for nonviolence are both principled and pragmatic:

- Nonviolence, unlike militaristic methods, allows most everyone to participate: women and men, elderly, youth and even children - people from all traditional levels of strength and weakness.
- Nonviolence is based on timeless national, cultural, human and religious values and principles - such as love, understanding, forgiveness, caring, compassion, justice, democracy, equality, security and preservation.
- Nonviolence appeals to these values and principles held by people and nations.
- Nonviolence is less threatening to ordinary citizens.
- In nonviolence, the means are consistent with the ends - they are the ends in

the making.

- Nonviolence has the capacity to reduce the effectiveness of state and police violence - the powerholders' ultimate weapon - and to turn it to the movement's advantage.
- A clear policy of nonviolence makes it difficult for agent provocateurs to disrupt or discredit movements by promoting internal violence, hostility, dissention, dishonesty and confusion.

Nonviolence does not mean remaining passive in the presence of injustice, or withdrawing from conflict. A commitment to nonviolence requires the courage to confront injustice and to embrace the conflict that erupts when widely held values are violated by those with vested interests.

Identifying and reducing prejudice

Analysis of conflict will often highlight negative attitudes and images that conflicting parties have about each other. If these are not acknowledged and addressed they can lead to discriminatory behaviour by each party towards the other and to increased tension and animosity between them. The relevant dimensions of conflict dynamics are:

- Prejudice - an opinion formed in advance about something, someone or a group, without good reason or sufficient reason or sufficient knowledge or experience.
- Stereotype - a generalised image created when prejudice towards a particular group is so simplified that one sees all the members of that group possessing certain traits.
- Discrimination - usually negative behaviour that results from prejudice and stereotypes against a particular group or groups. To discriminate socially is to make a distinction between people on the basis of class or category without regard to individual merit.

In ethnically and politically divided societies, such negative attitudes may be passed down from one generation to the other and be perpetual by political and cultural leaders and institutions.

Initiatives aimed at helping both individuals and organisations to identify their prejudices and to find ways of reducing these at an early stage can prevent a conflict from escalating into greater polarisation and possible violence.

EXERCISE: PREJUDICE REDUCTION AS AN ACTION

Objectives:

The exercise will allow participants to become clearer about their own prejudices. They contemplate about prejudice reduction as an action and figure out entry points for practising it.

Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Large flip-chart papers and colour pens/markers per group
Course of action:	<p>The trainer gives explanation about prejudice, stereotypes and discrimination.</p> <p>Then the trainer hands out the following questionnaire. The participants answer them silently. Responding to the subsequent questions helps to focus on ones own prejudices:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. At what age did you first discover that there were different groups in your society? 2. What did people in your family and community tell you about these other groups? And your own group? 3. List the groups – social, political, ethic, religious, etc – that you instinctively like, and list those you dislike. What conclusions can you draw? 4. Do you ever feel angry with your own group? Because of the way it treats another group? 5. Do your responses here give you any insights into prejudices you might have against other groups? How does it make you feel? 6. Would you like to change these attitudes? Have you already tried? How? <p>A further step is to examine what underlies the prejudice and discrimination that have been detected and observed. The trainer elicits examples from participants who are willing to disguise their thoughts and results. The succeeding questions are applied to the cases.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there individuals, organizations, institutions and structures that induce and sustain prejudice? • What can be done to address these challenges? <p>A discussion possibly will follow. The trainer may wish to concentrate on raising awareness, or find ways engage the participants to challenge the detected prejudice more openly.</p>
Remarks:	It is important to remember that this can be a very uncomfortable process for people to go through. The trainer should be aware of encountering emotions, and should proceed with great care.

It can be very useful to look for examples of discrimination in the society:

- Do people have the same chances of employment, regardless of their membership of a particular group or their gender?
- Do they have equal access to justice through the courts?
- When you identify clear cases of unequal treatment, are there was you can publish them?
- Can you find allies to raise questions in places where relevant decisions are made?

Awareness and mobilisation for change

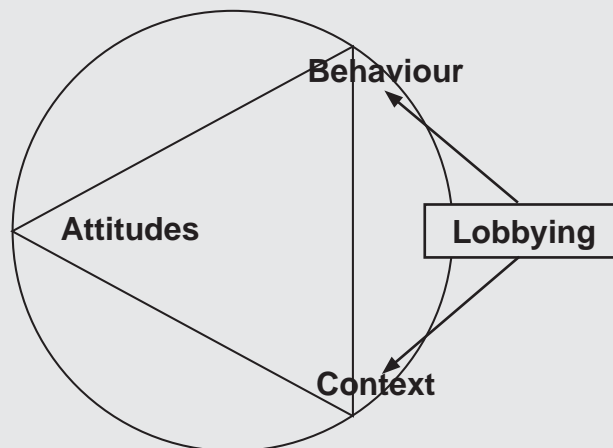
When dealing with a conflict that arises from structural violence, oppression or injustice, direct intervention may not be the most effective way to bring about the change that is needed. Awareness about the situation, mobilisation of allies and coalition building may bring pressure on those who have the decision-making power.

Lobbying: involves direct approaches to decision-makers and those who have access to them. It is sometime done privately so as to make it easier for those with decision-making power to change their mind without losing face.

Campaigning: is a broader action. It aims primarily at creating a climate amongst the wider public that will encourage or force decision-makers to change their politics. It will often include lobbying, reinforced by public pressure. Campaigns can be very focused and practical. Normally, a campaign addresses attitudes and opinions.

EXERCISE: GIVING GUIDELINES FOR LOBBYING AND CAMPAIGNING

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of some basic guidelines for lobbying and campaigning.
Time needed:	60 minutes
Materials:	Moderation cards, markers, pins and pinboards
Course of action:	The trainer prepares the triangle below on the pin board:



Normally a campaign addresses attitudes and opinions, whereas lobbying often aims to change the context and thus after behaviour. The figure uses the ABC Triangle to illustrate the likely focus of both these actions in a conflict situation.

The trainer elicits an example from the group. Then the following questions are raised and talked about in the plenary:

- Be very clear about what changes you want to take place.
- Is it possible to build a small group of people committed to this? Individual efforts are likely to be less effective.
- Identify individuals and groups who you think are at least open-minded on this issue and possibly supportive.
- Do your research thoroughly, so that the arguments and evidence is strong, and the outcome of the proposal is clear?
- Try to ensure that there are no obvious losers, especially among those taking relevant decisions.
- Take time and build a strategy.
- Try to ensure that information favourable to your aims circulate amongst those you want to influence, using media if appropriate.
- Decide on the length of time you will work on the issue, and then assess the impact rather than beginning an indefinite effort which may run down in a demoralizing way.

The points are visualised. The trainer may form buzz groups in order to stimulate discussion. In the end the main challenges and findings are summarized.

Remarks:

This is a very good exercise to promote homework for the participants. The homework could be a process where the trainees themselves accompany or start lobbying or advocacy in their environment.

Nonviolent direct action

If parties, or at least one, in conflict feel that they are not being heard or cannot elicit a response, there are ways of taking the dialogue to public in order to raise people's awareness and build support. There are different features of non-violent direct actions.

Protest expresses relatively overt reaction to events or situations: sometimes in favour, though more often opposed. Protesters may organize a protest as a way of publicly and forcefully making their opinions heard in an attempt to influence public opinion or government policy. Self-expression can, in theory, in practice or in appearance, be restricted by governmental policy, economic circumstances, religious orthodoxy, social structures, or media monopoly.

Non-cooperation in this context is a refusal to participate in some process, structure or activity that is perceived to be unjust or violent. Boycotts, refusing to leave (land), to refuse to work in circumstances of injustice, military tax refusal, conscientious objection to military service. Non-cooperation is about exerting pressure by cutting relationships and refusing to fulfil certain roles in order to achieve a certain goal.

A related type of non-violent direct action is what Gandhi called a "constructive programme". It involves opting out of an unjust or violent system and building alternative institutions, e.g. setting own civic structures.

Civil disobedience encompasses the active refusal to obey certain laws, demands and commands of a government or of an occupying power without resorting to physical violence. It could be said that it is compassion in the form a respectful disagreement. Civil disobedience has been used in nonviolent resistance movements in India (Gandhi's social welfare campaigns and campaigns to speed up independence from the British Empire), in South Africa in the fight against apartheid, and in the American Civil Rights Movement.

The following section introduces a framework that helps to plan complex nonviolent actions - social movements: The Movement Action Plan developed by Bill Moyer provides activists with a practical, how-to-do-it analytic tool for organizing social movements that are focused on national and international issues, such as nuclear energy and weapons, civil and human rights, democracy and freedom, apartheid, or ecological responsibility. MAP describes eight stages through which social movements normally progress over a period of years and decades. For each state, MAP describes the role of the public, powerholders, and the movement. It provides organizers with a map of the long road of successful movements, which helps them guiding their movement along the way.

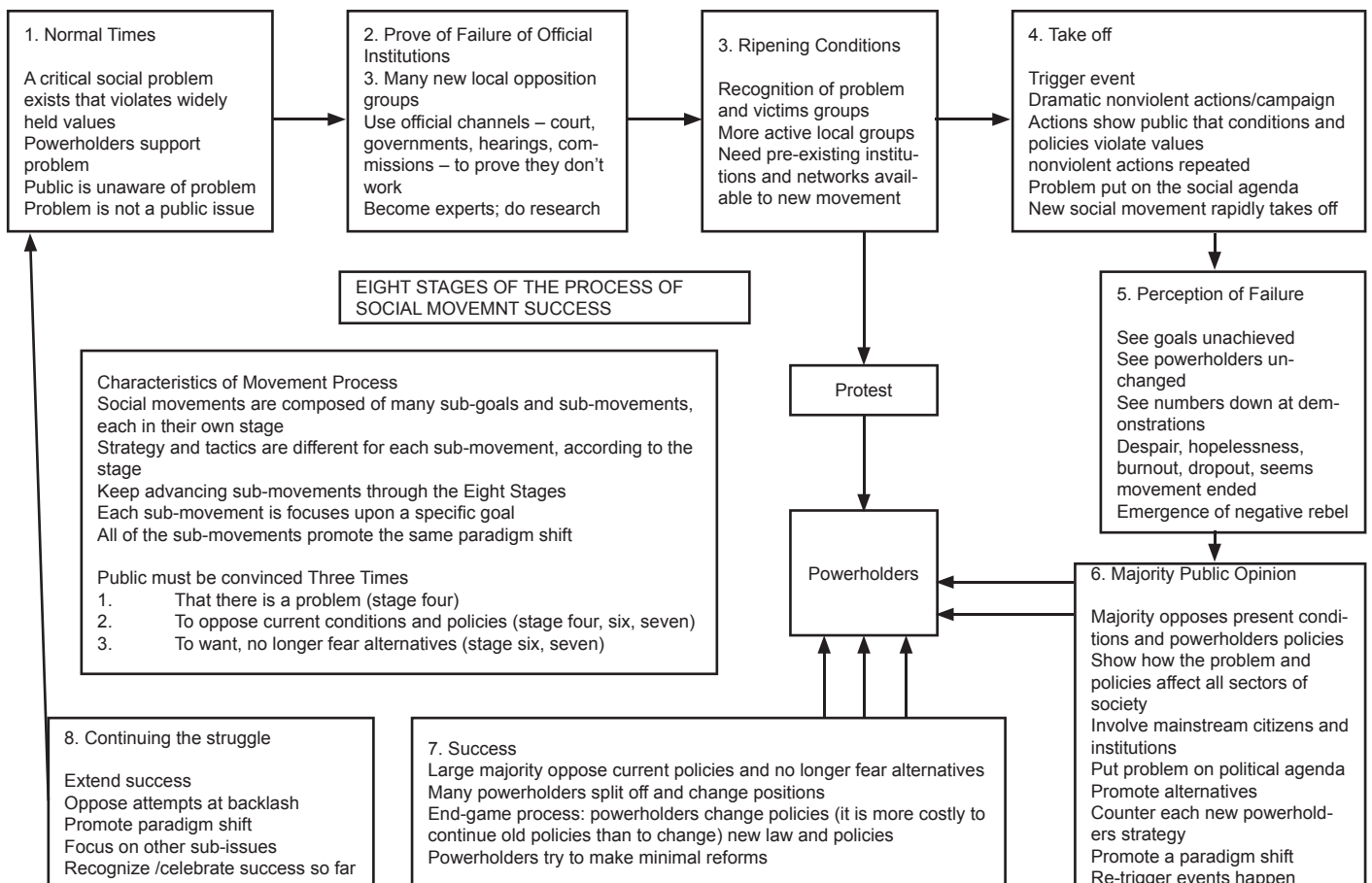
Most social movements are not just in one stage. Movements usually have many demands for policy changes, and their efforts for each demand are in a specific

stage. For each of the movement's major demands or goals, MAP enables activists to evaluate the movement and identify which stage it is in; identify successes already achieved; develop effective strategies, tactics, and programs; establish short and long-term goals; and avoid common pitfalls.

Social movements do not fit neatly into MAP's eight stages or move through them in a linear way. Social movements are more dynamic. Movements have a number of different demands, and the effort for each demand is in a different MAP stage. When movements achieve one demand, they focus on achieving other demands that are at earlier stages.

Finally, MAP is only a theoretical model, built from past experience. Real-life social will neither fit exactly nor move through the stages linearly, smoothly, or precisely in the manner outlined. The purpose of MAP is to give activists hope and empowerment, increase the effectiveness of social movements, and reduce the discouragement that often contributes to individual burnout, dropout, and the winding down of social movements.

Social movements derive their power from an upset, impassioned, and motivated populace set into motion. This happens when people recognize that their strongly felt beliefs, values, and interests are unjustly violated, and the population is provided with hope that change can happen and a means for them to act.



Bill Moyer bases his framework upon the idea that civil people in society have or take different roles.

In the citizens role, activists

- Advocate and demonstrate a widely held vision of the democratic good society
- Give the movement legitimacy in the eyes of ordinary citizens
- Enable the movement to withstand effort by powerholders to discredit it
- Reduce the potential for violent attitudes and action within the movement

In the rebel role, activists

- Put issues on society's social agenda through dramatic, non-violent actions
- Put issues on the political agenda
- Show how institutions and official powerholders violate public trust by causing and perpetuating critical social problems
- Force society to face its problems
- Represent society's democratic and moral vanguard
- Promote democracy

In the change agents role, activists

- Promote citizen-based democracy
- Support the involvement of large numbers of people in the process of addressing a specific social problem
- Redefine the problem
- Promote a new social and political majority consensus favouring positive solutions
- Promote democratic principles and human values in an open system
- Develop the majority movement
- Support the development of coalitions
- Counter the actions of the powerholders
- Move the society from reform to social change by promoting a paradigm shift

In the reformers role, activists

- Transmit movement analyses and goals to powerholders institutions and individuals
- Perform parliamentary and legal efforts – lobbying, referenda
- Work to create and expand new laws and policies
- Act as watchdogs to ensure the new laws and policies are actually funded and carried out
- Mobilise movement opposition to conservative backlash effort
- Nurture and support grass roots activists

The different roles are highly important each at various times for different conduction of action.

EXERCISE: NONVIOLENT DIRECT ACTION

Objectives:

Participants practise the use of Bill Moyers Movement Action Plan (MAP) as an analytical instrument. This instrument will help to identify the stage of a social movement and key figures in the sense of different roles, examine one's own work or strategy, identify appropriate strategies in order to influence the social movement, and identify potential partners for cooperation at the various stages.

Time needed:	120 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart paper, moderation cards, pins and pinboards, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the objectives of this exercise and the purposes of the instrument. The trainer also describes the four possible roles of activists, see below. (It is very useful to prepare the figure and the details of the roles upon a large board or flip chart in advance).</p> <p>The trainer leads a discussion on a chosen conflict case from within the group. S/he visualises the discussion, summarizes, etc. by using the structure of Bill Moyer's MAP.</p> <p>The following could be steps guiding the discussion:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the stage the social movement has come to • Identify important organisations, institutions and individuals at each stage • Enter your own organisation/you as individual at the relevant stage(s) • Identify the different roles and techniques used at each stage • Discuss which contributions you/your organisation will be able to make, which techniques you are able to introduce <p>If there are participants from different organisations present in the group, this discussion might produce fruitful insights into where cooperation or concerted action could be helpful for conflict transformation.</p> <p>In the end the trainer summarizes the conclusions.</p>
Remarks:	<p>Alternatively the exercise can be conducted in sub-groups of interest, in which the participants evaluate different examples. Afterwards a plenary presentation and discussion will follow.</p> <p>It may also be useful to describe and discuss what the barriers were to playing the (four) roles effectively. Difficulties in social movement are common and need to be recognised in order to proceed the process of the social movement.</p> <p>If there cannot be a case elicited from the group, the trainer should be prepared to give an example.</p>

Preventing conflict from escalating into violence

Intervention is meant as a direct conscious action towards a conflict in order to bring change for the better. What makes a conflict escalate from hostility into violence? Is it possible to predict? If such change seems likely, is there anything that would forestall this escalation?

The experience is that conflict, if properly handled, can be a positive power for change. In the stages of confrontation, outcome and post-conflict, it is more difficult to do preventive work due to the experiences of the people involved. When they find themselves involved in the process of trying to change their ways of relating to each other and deciding whether or not they can trust each other, a simple incident can easily be seen as proof that trust is not possible.

Prevention of escalation into violence is a useful strategy with limited aims. It is not an end in itself and should happen within a broader context. It requires a contextual analysis and understanding of the elements of the very conflict, the parties, actors, forces. The patterns and stages of the particular conflict need to be identified as well as the indicators of the different stages; the available mechanisms, structures as well as new ones needed to address the particular issue. A process is required that allows planning and designing actions to suit the situations that incorporate creative thinking of new ways to do things.

- It is possible to develop indicators that enable to track how a conflict is intensifying or reduces destructive forces. Glasl has developed a scale of nine steps for escalation phenomena. In addition, the following list names some more indicators that might vary according to the specific situation.
- Lack of representation: people want to be represented by those they themselves select. If there is a group that lacks acceptable representation, any attempt to implement decision affecting that group can easily make the conflict worse.
- Social and political tension: distrust and uneasiness among groups in the situation may manifest itself in a variety of behaviours that indicate that one group is feeling ill-at-ease or aggrieved.
- An apparent lack of confidence in existing structures for justice or security demonstrated by a reluctance to make use of these structures and a preference for private “justice”, such as vengeance.
- Repeated expression of grievance by the same group, which seem not to be heard or addressed.
- The presence of actors, which are not in the communication with the rest of the society, whether they exclude themselves or are excluded.
- Increase in incidents of public conflict, increase in violent incidents, increase in cases of harassment

Some common mechanisms for preventing violence

Good preventive strategies weave traditional and modern strands together. Successful initiatives use a variety of mechanisms, which might include:

- Forming a group of people from across the lines of division, which could include, e.g. representatives of all the ethnic or clan groups, local government, security forces, clergy, and community leaders.
- Sending trustees as emissaries.
- Inviting trustees to intervene, with the aim of providing space for dialogue.
- The use of ritual in order to draw people together by emphasising shared values and visions.
- The use of respected existing structures or groups, either as they are or modified for conflict transformation.
- Careful use of publicity to highlight the need for urgent action.

Some guidelines for preventing conflicts escalation into violence

A specific structure, mechanism or action is unlikely to work outside its own context. However, there are patterns which suggest some of the functions that need to be taken into account when designing a strategy to fit new circumstances.

- Some common examples of the factors to be considered are given below. They need not be done by one actor, but must be addressed somehow.
- Investigating incidents to clarify who is involved and what actually happened.
- Controlling rumours to correct misunderstandings and malicious reports.
- Facilitating dialogue with people on each side and shuttling between opposing sides.
- Demonstrating solidarity, by visiting and listening to people on all sides of the conflict – specifically, visiting those who have suffered and those who are accused.
- Building confidence and trust between opposing sides.
- Encouraging reconciliation: bringing opponents together with the aim of acknowledging past wrongs and building up long-term relationships.
- Asking sides to make pledges that such incidents will not recur.
- Asking sides to offer reparation, restitution, compensation: as a commitment to behavioural change, as well as repayment of loss.
- Healing: physical, emotional, psychological, and spiritual.
- Altering structures and systems, so that the same problem will not recur.
- Successful initiatives also invent new processes and structures to address particular problems, such as the development of regional mechanisms. Creativity is essential, in thinking of possible problem areas as well as solutions.

EXERCISE: PREVENTING CONFLICT FROM ESCALATION

Objectives: The exercise will make participants aware of strategies applied to reduce violence in a given situation.

Time needed: 180 minutes

Materials: Moderation cards, pins and pin boards

<p>Course of action:</p>	<p>The trainer starts with an introduction to violence and the possible ways to encounter violence in a non-violent way.</p>
	<p>Many instruments of conflict transformation relate to stages of the conflict when negotiation or at least some sort of dialogue is possible. This is not always the case. In the last decade several experiences of nonviolent techniques to intervene in violent conflict situation (highly escalated conflict) have been researched and evaluated. Here are some ideas for general steps to follow when intervening in an escalated violent conflict.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of the conflict • Understanding the pattern of escalation (e.g. steps of escalation by Glasl) • Understanding and identifying indicators of escalation (specific to society and conflict) • Identifying existing mechanisms of violence prevention or violence control, how to use them and their limits • Clarifying own role (capacities, motivations, concern, interests) of intervener • Planning appropriate action with objective of reaching a constructive process in mind (not necessarily a solution!) • Creative thinking of new ways. <p>It is important to understand the character of violence. (This could be a good time for the reminder of personal, structural and cultural violence according to Galtung). Here the following aspects should be analysed and discussed in detail and in depth:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Violence is a symptom of conflict (specifically, what is the conflict that generates the violence and how) • Violence is a way to handle conflict (why do conflict parties resort to violence? What are their alternatives?) • Violence is a non-constructive method (so why is it applied anyway?) • Violence is an escalating element (how does violence escalate the specific conflict? In whose interest?) <p>Further, the trainer introduces a case study of a violent conflict (for example the Dagestan minority conflict, see below).</p> <p>Then the participant go through the following series of group discussions (in large groups divide into sub-group for step one) and role plays:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Discussing proposals for strategies to counter violence, based on analysis of the case study.

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Role playing meeting with actors like local protagonists, understanding their motivations, fears, interests. 3. Defining the role of possible interveners. 4. Role playing the facilitation of a local agreement (facilitators, police chief, party leaders and party representatives). 5. Evaluation of role play, discussion of results achieved and further possibilities. <p>In the evaluation the trainer may discuss frequent problems that conflict workers face in facilitating meetings of this kind. Frequent challenges are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being focused on informations and “truth”: what has happened really? Who has done what? Who is right? Instead: look at options, future! • Being focused on facts: going for the technical side. Instead: look at the relationship side! • Being focused on solutions: wanting to propose, wanting to push the opponents to something. Instead: Focus on processes!
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>To go into deeper discussion after the role play the following introduction of techniques might be useful. The tools are meant to help developing creativity.</p> <p>Control violence (short term, limited effect):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “embarrassing witnesses” (eminent persons/organisations) • national/international presence and accompaniment • informal consultation (listening, shuttle) • local emergency hotlines • human chains to interpose • rumour verification • public prayer meetings • respected persons’ statements • peace walks through affected areas • fasts, e.g. relay fasts (not: hunger strike) • permanent mass presence <p>Several of these methods work because they minimise the gain and maximise the disadvantages of using violence in the eyes of a perpetrator – they increase the natural barrier before the use of violence. Others re-enforce publicly norms and values that stand against violence. Again other methods mentioned are physical solutions or they create an atmosphere that is favourable to approaches not using violence.</p>

Prevent the (new) emergence of violence (medium term approach):

- Negotiating code of conduct (high level)
- Negotiating local agreements (creating of peace zones, demonstrating that the impossible is possible)
- Monitoring conduct and agreements
- Developing public pressure (nonviolent campaigns, civil disobedience)
- Local peace commissions
- Fact finding missions and verification teams
- Reparation of past damage
- Informal consultation by 3rd parties (moving towards dialogue)
- International networking and awareness
- Problem-solving workshops with actors from among medium range leadership
- Lobbying

Often it is not possible to completely assess the effect that any method might have. Even in the face of potential failure efforts have to be made and action has to be taken. Evaluation and adaptation of strategies are crucial. However, the moderating role of constant peace activity in a specific area cannot be underestimated, even though it may be difficult to assess the cause-effect relationship. This is due to the fact that reduction of violence or even the prevention of violence escalation is generally a non-event (on the contrary, existing violence is very visible).

Working to change patterns of violence (long term, addressing the root causes):

- Creating public political awareness and participation
- Training political leadership on all levels
- Involving media and creating a constructive role for them in the conflict
- Police reform
- Police training on human rights, conflict related issues
- Consumer boycott
- Involving the business community
- Grassroots training in order to provide alternatives to violence in conflicts

CASE STUDY: PREVENTING VIOLENCE IN DAGESTAN

In Dagestan the Chechen minority is unpopular with many amongst the majority population. For

historical reasons they are often unfairly scapegoated for many problems in Dagestan. During 1999, as tension rose, 20 houses belonging to Chechens in one village were burned. At the same time a leaflet was widely circulated in Dagestan urging the population to attack and kill Chechens whenever they could find them. A local NGO saw the signs of a wave of violence against Chechens, with a likely violent response from the Chechens. They tried, without success, to get government action to stop this. The NGO was a member of the UNHCR-sponsored working group on conflict management and prevention for the former Soviet Union whose members are NGOs from the whole region. The NGO asked representatives of the working group to write urgently to the government of Dagestan. In the letter they said: "We support the Federal Government of Russia in their actions against Chechens in Russia, in view of recent terrorist activities in Moscow. However, we are also aware of the unjustified violence against Chechens in your country. We have seen a leaflet that threatens the destruction of their whole population. If you allow this to go ahead the whole world will know, and condemn you for allowing it."

Some members of the working group refused to sign the letter as they thought it was too favourable to the actions of the Federal Government who were at the moment planning to invade Chechnya.

The day after receiving the letter a minister of the Dagestan government appeared on television. He said the government had not been aware of the leaflet until now, nor of the seriousness of the violence. He condemned violence against Chechens and said the government was totally opposed to it.

As a result the rising tide of violence stopped, at least temporarily.

The Dagestan NGO immediately contacted the committee for youth affairs. Together they organised a team of volunteers, consisting of different communities and ethnic groups. The volunteers brought materials to the village where the houses had been burned. They rebuilt the roofs and replaced windows.

From: Working on conflict – Skills and Strategies for Action, Zed Books, London, 2000

Maintaining a presence

Working in the field of conflict transformation can include danger for the ones involved if it is an area of tension. One useful contribution that an outsider on occasion can make is to provide a degree of protection for local activists and peace and human rights workers by coming to live alongside them in order to accompany them in their work and other aspects of their lives. This is a non-interventionist way of taking action. The outsiders do not attempt to influence the situation directly with their own agenda. By their presence they aim to create some safe space for local activists or local organisations to do their work.

Principal considerations

This is clearly a sensitive area of work and needs careful planning in advance.

The considerations below should be heard in mind:

- The context is crucial. It is likely to be effective where the governments or forces have a level of international recognition and therefore are wary of damaging their reputation.

- It is important to have up-to-date knowledge of the area where the escorts will be sent.
- Maturity of the one who will escort is required.
- Special designed training is needed before moving into the area.
- Escorts need to be provided with a code of conduct tailored to the needs of the specific context.
- Escorts must be done in the fullest collaboration and consultation with the individual activists or organisation, who/which is being escorted.
- Back-up mechanisms are vital in the case things do not go the way they were supposed to go. There needs to be a competent base system that can react rapidly and more widely.

As with all interventions, unarmed protection is appropriate only in specific circumstances. If it is not a useful strategy, there may be others in order to protect the ones that are threatened.

EXERCISE: MAINTAINING A PRESENCE, UNARMED ESCORTING

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants practise unarmed protection. They will become aware of the complexity of the task.
Time needed:	24 hours
Materials:	--
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the exercise. The emphasis is on the seriousness and on the time aspect; there is no interruption of the exercise during the whole length of time.</p> <p>The group is divided into pairs. If there is an uneven number of participants, the trainer may suggest that there is one group with three members.</p> <p>The members of the pairs decide who will be the one that is in charge of maintaining a presence. The other person functions as the individual that needs accompaniment.</p> <p>The following principle considerations might be discussed in advance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What should be guaranteed? Life, health, free movement? • How are the objections to be aimed at? • What happens during the night? <p>After 24 hours the exercise is evaluated. The trainer visualises the essentials of the learning process.</p>

	A discussion about the principles of unarmed escorting follows.
Remarks:	<p>The trainer has not to provide critical issues along the way. The exercise is very delicate itself.</p> <p>This unit takes place alongside other ones. The challenge for the trainees is to concentrate upon the task during a whole day and night while being occupied with other things as well. The conclusion could be that maintaining a presence is a full time job.</p>

Monitoring and observing

Monitoring and observing are actions taken by people concerned about a conflict in order to keep themselves and others informed about how the situation changes. These monitors keep track of events in a tense situation and report their observations to a central body, or possibly to the press. This technique is most often used either in the stage of confrontation, where emotions are running high but it is still possible to express grievances publicly, as an aid to reducing tension. Monitoring can help prevent the escalation of violence by showing those who might use force that they will be seen and perhaps held accountable for their actions. Additionally, by exhibiting concern and interest over the situation, monitors can contribute to building a climate in which change can happen.

It is important to refer to a code of conduct, the following standards should be considered:

Accuracy Checklist:

- Distinguish between first and second hand sources.
- Always use reputable sources, and wherever possible use first hand information.
- Cultivate an extensive network of sources that can be called upon to give expert first hand information on issues or events, particularly in other ethnic/language groups.
- When reporting crime, try to get the suspects' side as well.
- Ensure names of people and places are spelt accurately.
- Take steps to correct any errors that have been made.
- Avoid providing death tolls when verification is difficult.

Balance Checklist:

- Avoid becoming a cheerleader for one side.

- Establish the different viewpoints and ensure they are presented respectfully and accurately.
- Bear in mind the context in which these views exist. Are some views held by an extreme majority?
- Rather than paraphrase other people's points of view, where possible, quote them directly.
- Ask yourself whether the story, as it is written, would harm or aggravate religious, racial or ethnic sensitivities.
- Be careful not to create a false balance – balance does not mean equal merit to all sides.
- Remember you are reporting for the whole community, not just your ethnic group.

Ethnicity Checklist:

- Avoid reference to a person's ethnicity, race or religion.
- If it is necessary to refer to a person's ethnicity, race or religion confirm these details with the person to ensure accuracy.
- Where other news sources unnecessarily treat ethnicity as a cause, educate readers on the real causes and point out that ethnicity was not a factor.
- Understanding your own biases is vital and should be kept in mind when preparing or selecting news reports.
- Using images is a useful way of avoiding descriptions that might cause offence.
- Ask sources how they would like you to describe them – in terms of their race, religion and ethnicity for example.

Context Checklist:

- Research the history of the conflict.
- Avoid focusing on individual acts of violence and try to paint the broader picture.
- Examine what each party has to lose or gain.
- Provide the perspective of the common people who are affected.
- To be available to all parties being monitored.
- Not to work for the advancement of a particular political party or state structure.
- To promote peace and end violence.
- To report truthfully and accurately on situations.
- To be committed to nonviolent action methods and monitoring.
- To act confidently, calmly and diplomatically.
- To display sensitivity and empathy for particular vulnerability of victims of violence.
- To respect the need for confidentiality.
- To display no party preference in words, clothing, badges or songs.
- To respect the role of, and refer to, other structures, that exist to deal with conflict resolution/mediation.
- To cooperate with other monitors if necessary.

EXERCISE: MONITORING

Objectives:	Participants practise the principles of monitoring on a real case study. They invent a strategy for monitoring in a given situation.
Time needed:	180 minutes
Materials:	Flipchart paper, moderation cards, pins and pinboards, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the objectives of this exercise and the purposes of the instrument.</p> <p>The code of conduct is not communicated before the exercise. The participants receive the first part of case study below and are given time to read.</p> <p>The group is divided into fours.</p> <p>Each sup-group will function as counsellor-team. They discuss among each other and make suggestions for an appropriate monitoring process of the given case.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What should be monitored? • Who should be monitored? • Who should monitor? <p>The results are presented in the plenary. The different approaches are discussed. In the end the trainer summarizes the conclusions. The code of conduct is revealed. A deeper discussion may follow. The trainer finally hands out the second part of the case study.</p>
Remarks:	--

CASE STUDY: MONITORING

First Part

Why would a newspaper gloat at the death and destruction of the Boxing Day Tsunami? The day after the disaster, one Sri Lankan paper carried a story that boasted the headline “Huge Damage to Tigers – 1200 Sea Tigers Perish”.

The story gleefully reported the impact of the waves on military camps in areas of eastern and northern Sri Lanka controlled by the Liberation Tamil Tigers of Eelam (a February 2002 cease-fire

agreement has halted two decades of war).

The story appeared within hours of 31,000 Sri Lankans being killed and 443,000 made homeless. Not only was the story repugnant, it was likely wrong. The Tigers claimed only six of its personnel had been killed in the tsunami. While the truth is not known, and certainly wasn't sought in the reporting, inflammatory stories like this demonstrate the gulf between partisan propaganda and credible journalism.

As the country tries to rebuild from the civil war and the tsunami's destruction, misleading and sensationalist reporting hampers these efforts. And despite the cease-fire, ethnic, political and religious chauvinism still results in death.

On April 29, Sivaram Dharmaratnam, 46, a senior editorial board member of Tamilnet.com was found shot dead in Colombo, hours after unidentified men had abducted him from a restaurant. On August 12, journalist Relangi Selvarajah and her husband were killed by unknown gunmen in a daylight attack. Relangi worked for the government-owned Sri Lanka Broadcasting Corporation (SLBC). Two weeks later, the security guard at Tamil newspaper Sudaroli's printing press was killed when grenades were hurled at the door of the building. Journalist Iliya Abdulla, proofreader Kamalanathan and a visitor were injured.

In just one week during the election campaign for a new national president, there were three attacks on journalists. While two incidents were assaults on TV crews covering political rallies, a more bizarre act was the alleged assault on the news director of the SLBC by its chairman's own security guards, following a heated debate over SLBC's coverage of the campaign. According to the Free Media Movement, SLBC's news director ensured coverage favoured the ruling party's presidential candidate.

Bias isn't confined to election campaigns. Monitoring of Sri Lanka's media shows that more than half of all newspaper stories cite only one source and both Sinhala and Tamil press are highly selective in the sources they use.

Second Part

Sri Lanka's journalists know the score. According to a survey conducted in mid-2004 for the International Federation of Journalists' (IFJ) research report *On The Road To Peace*, 87 per cent of Sri Lanka's journalists believe the country's media fails to provide accurate, balanced and fair information. Four out of five journalists believe the media is biased to one ethnic group or are not accurate or reliable. A lack of journalist training is part of the problem. 80 per cent of journalists don't believe what sources tell them, complaining that they know their journalists are aware of their professional code of ethics, barely 11 per cent have a copy of the code and less than five per cent have ever received ethics training.

Slowly though, Sri Lankan journalists are working for change. In November, five leading journalist associations, including those representing Tamil and Muslim journalists, came together to sign a media charter committing their members to developing a democratic and pluralist media culture and to protect their professional rights. The charter includes a two-year action timetable. The charter notes that responsibility for ethical conduct rests with media professionals "who should be responsible for drawing up codes of ethical conduct and who should establish credible and accountable systems of self-regulation".

However, the existing code of conduct is currently under review by a panel that includes only one journalist. The media charter also demands legal guarantees for freedom of expression, press freedom and freedom of association. It seeks the creation of an independent media complaints commission, freedom of information laws, and a single national body for journalists. The charter also wants editorial independence protected by agreements with state and private media. The journalist associations' commitment is not isolated. Coincidentally, a public campaign for

public service values in Sri Lankan media has begun, aimed at uncoupling state-owned media from direct political control and improving the quality of journalism. And a prize program has been initiated to promote journalistic excellence.

In addition to the public appeal, in-house training programs are underway for Sri Lankan journalists. I spent three months in Sri Lanka as part of the Myer Foundation's Asia-Alliance program, conducting workshops for journalists. The training uses Australian examples to demonstrate practical solutions to the issues confronting Sri Lankan journalists, including the Media Alliance's code of ethics and model charter of editorial independence, The Sydney Morning Herald's rules on sources and accuracy, and the Australian Broadcasting Corporation's code of practice. Other examples included the 2003 Colombo Declaration on public broadcasting values, The Seattle Times diversity checklist for journalists and editors, and The New York Times corrections policy and handbook of ethical journalism values and practices. The Ravaya independent newspaper has just concluded five months of training that resulted in it adopting a charter of editorial independence, a house code of ethics, corrections policy and guidelines for investigative reporting, and a checklist to ensure diversity of sources, balance and fairness. The IFJ is conducting additional training as part of UNESCO's campaign to promote public service media and the European Commission's Towards Public Service Media project. The training introduces public service media values to encourage quality ethical reporting, editorial independence, and to ensure media is responsive to community needs. (From: Mike Dobbie/Myer Foundation)

Confidence building

Following a period of intense conflict it is difficult for members of opposing groups to trust each other. They have learned to fear and distrust each other. They will, in fact, be more distrustful to each other than of strangers. It will be a very long time before each side can be convinced that the attitude of the other has changed. Confidence building as action: The incremental approach is important in simultaneously limiting risk and allowing something new to be built. It depends largely on the parties to the conflict making step-to-step moves towards each other. Outsiders often help with this, but it is a clearly a long-term, comprehensive project.

In planning and carrying out confidence building work, the following questions might be considered:

- Level: at what level of conflict does confidence-building need to take place? Higher political level or community and grass roots level. (You may refer to the "Multi-level-triangle".)
- Target groups: what attitudes and behaviour do you hope to change as a result of the action?
- Challenges: what are the difficulties that are likely to be faced? How will the parties perceive this? How different are their perceptions? What are their needs? What are their fears?
- Perception of the intervener: How is the intervener perceived by the different sides? Is there enough trust or are others more privileged to intervene?
- Advantages: What people and processes are likely to be allies in helping to build mutual confidence?
- Risks: What risks should be taken care of?
- Making a start: What is the first step? When? How?

EXERCISE: CONFIDENCE BUILDING

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of the potential of confidence building as an action. It will help to establish conscious strategies.
Time needed:	60 minutes
Materials:	Flip-chart, flip chart paper, markers
Course of action:	<p>In the first step the trainer facilitates a brainstorming on possible areas where confidence building would make sense in order to transform a conflict. The trainer may refer back to the framework of Diana Francis.</p> <p>In a second step a real case from the participants is elicited. If there is more than one case the trainer may divide the groups in sub-groups of interest.</p> <p>In a third step, the trainer presents the following questionnaire. In planning and carrying out confidence building work, the following questions might to be considered:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level: at what level of conflict does confidence-building need to take place? Higher political level or community and grass roots level. (You may refer to the “Multi-level-triangle”.) • Target groups: what attitudes and behaviour do you hope to change as a result of the action? • Challenges: what are the difficulties that are likely to be faced? How will the parties perceive this? How different are their perceptions? What are their needs? What are their fears? • Perception of the intervener: How is the intervener perceived by the different sides? Is there enough trust or are others more privileged to intervene? • Advantages: What people and processes are likely to be allies in helping to build mutual confidence? • Risks: What risks should be taken care of? • Making a start: What is the first step? When? How? <p>The groups try to answer the questions for a particular case they choose.</p> <p>The essential results and findings are presented in the plenary and open questions will be answered.</p>
Remarks:	--

7

Chapter Seven:

Moving towards Dialog – Enabling Settlement

INTRODUCTION

This section introduces several interventions that are meant to move the process of conflict towards a constructive dialog. The goal is ultimately to reach a mutual settlement.

Communication

Interpersonal communication is one of the fundamental underpinnings of society. We can define communication as the transfer – sending and receiving – of messages. Communication channels can be understood simply as the modes or pathways through which two parties might communicate. As population grows and technology evolves accordingly, these channels of communication change as well. Unfortunately, however, just because communication seems to be so easy does not mean that it is done, or that the result is an increase in understanding.

Every message consists of four elements. Schulz von Thun describes the anatomy of a message as follows.

- **Factual Level:** Every message contains some form of information, a portrayal of facts from the point of view of the sender.
- **Self-revelation:** 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:** 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:** 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.

PRIMING EXERCISE: PRACTISING THE ANATOMY OF A MESSAGE

Objectives:	Participants train to recognize the anatomy of a message in communication situations. The participants become aware of the different levels of a message.
Time needed:	45 minutes exercise in small groups, 10 minutes for sharing experiences in the plenary

Materials:	-
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the anatomy of a message. Every message consists of four elements simultaneously as was developed by Schulz von Thun.</p> <p>Content – Factual Level: Every message contains some form of information, i.e. a portrayal of facts from the point of view of the sender.</p> <p>Self-revelation: 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 self-disclosure.</p> <p>Relationship: 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.</p> <p>Appeal: 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. A message of which the sender himself/herself is not even aware. Self-revelation therefore encompasses intentional self-portrayal as well as unintentional</p> <p>If necessary the trainer demonstrates how the exercise should be carried out with a volunteer.</p> <p>The Participants are divided into groups of fours. Two of these conduct the exercise while the other two observe.</p> <p>The active pair of discussion partners agrees on a topic for a casual conversation, for example: family or village affairs, office matters, etc.</p> <p>Partner A (sender) begins to tell a story related to the subject, partner B (receiver) reacts by giving comments:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - on the factual level (3 minutes) - on the self-revelation level (3 minutes) - on the relationship level (3 Minutes) - on appeals (3 minutes)

	<p>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.</p> <p>The participants swap their roles. The observers now carry out the exercise while the former players observe.</p> <p>Participants share their experience in the plenary, commenting on</p> <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
Remarks:	--

Communication in Conflict

Often, during a conflict, there is very little communication between the parties involved and there is also little sharing of information, intents, and beliefs. Prior to a conflict reaching that point, however, the parties might find themselves in a period of increased tensions. There are two possible reactions to this situation. On the one hand, we might see actors increase communication in an attempt to prevent the outbreak of hostility. On the other hand, communication channels between actors may degrade during the crisis, increasing the likelihood of further escalation and possibly violence. If actors ignore available channels of communication, withhold information, or use increasingly divisive forms of communication, communication channels will tend to break down. In either case - when communication increases or when communication decreases during a crisis - once hostility becomes entrenched, channels of communication will degrade quickly.

The first general feature is the tendency for each side to misunderstand the words and actions of the other. People from incommensurate traditions may have trouble communicating because they rely on different systems of meaning, norms of communication, and behavioural expectations. One possibility is that the participants use the same vocabulary but define and use these key terms differently. Further misunderstanding and erroneous perceptions may arise because groups often perceive, define, and deal with conflict in different ways. Because of differing cultural frames, many of the words used to describe appropriate behaviour during conflict do not reflect the same content from one culture to another.

Another general feature is the hostility characteristic of the relationship and the communication between the ones involved. While sophisticated rhetoric consists

of exchanging reasons in a quest to form shared beliefs, the patterns of communication in moral conflicts consist primarily in personal attacks, denunciations, and curses. Slogans and chants replace arguments intended to persuade and inform, and the discourse between the parties many statements about what is wrong with the other group. Thus, opportunities for opposing groups to converse intelligibly and reason together are diminished. When one group is denounced, its members are likely to become defensive, which can contribute to more negative emotions and behaviour.

Negative Stereotyping: Discourse often involves sweeping generalizations about the other. People conflicts tend to invidiously categorize and denounce the personalities, intelligence, and social manners of those with whom they disagree. For example, disputants may attribute the „strange“ behaviour of foreigners to undesirable character traits, such as moral depravity or lack of intelligence, rather than realizing that their seemingly inappropriate acts are simply a matter of cultural difference.

Transformative skills of interactions of third-siders

The idea of „transformation“ implies that facilitators bring an agenda to situations of conflict. What is that agenda and how is it promoted? Facilitators can meet this agenda with responds that fall into two categories:

- by assisting empowerment - supporting the persons involved in conflict to more fully achieve their own potential as human beings; and
- by fostering „right relationships“ - relationships characterized by recognition of the other, fairness, respect, mutuality and accountability.

In very simple terms, they encourage parties to pay attention to the needs of both the self and the other. Transformation takes place when people are able both to empower the self and build right relationships with others.

What makes facilitator responses transformative? At stake is a crucial skill for facilitation: the ability to relate to others in empowering ways. Unless parties experience facilitators as empowering, they seldom give more than superficial access to their views, their networks, and decision-making processes. To empower means:

- to strengthen people’s sense of self
- to increase their confidence that they are taken seriously by others as beings with a history, an identity worthy of respect and needs that must be addressed
- to treat them in ways that honour and support their own resources for making decisions and pursuing solutions to their problems

In order to empower parties in this way, facilitators need not agree with parties or approve of their actions. We need only make it clear through our eyes, body posture, and tone of voice that we are eager to understand the situation as they understand it, that we will not reject them for their and that we recognise in them

significant resources of their own for responding to the conflict-at-hand. Listening well is an important skill to communicate this understanding and attitude. Three particular listening skills are widely used by facilitators: paraphrasing, summarizing and reframing.

Empathic listening

Empathic listening is a way of listening and responding to another person that improves mutual understanding and trust. It is an essential skill for third parties and disputants alike, as it enables the listener to receive and accurately interpret the speaker's message, and then provide an appropriate response. The response is an integral part of the listening process and can be critical to the success of a negotiation or mediation. Among its benefits, empathic listening

- builds trust and respect,
- enables the disputants to release their emotions,
- reduces tensions,
- encourages the surfacing of information, and
- creates a safe environment that is conducive to collaborative problem solving.

Though useful for everyone involved in a conflict, the ability and willingness to listen with empathy is often what sets the mediator apart from others involved in the conflict.

EXERCISE: LISTENING

Objectives:	The participants exercise active listening as a communication.
Time needed:	60 min
Materials:	none
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the meaning of listening in a transformative process. Communication can cause conflicts, but also is a necessity of striving for conflict transformation. We all think that we listen well, but most of us are actually very bad listeners, and just because of this we pass on misinformation.</p> <p>The below mentioned attitudes are helpful in order to listen empathically. The trainer introduces them to the group.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be attentive. Be interested. Be alert and not distracted. Create a positive atmosphere through nonverbal behaviour. • Be a sounding board -allow the speaker to bounce ideas and feelings off you while assuming a non-judgemental, non-critical manner.

- Don't ask a lot of questions.
- Act like a mirror -- reflect back what you think the speaker is saying and feeling.
- Don't discount the speaker's feelings by using stock phrases like „It's not that bad“.
- Don't let the speaker „hook“ you. This can happen if you get angry or upset, allow yourself to get involved in an argument, or pass judgment on the other person.
- Indicate you are listening by Providing brief, noncommittal acknowledging responses, e.g., „Mmmh,“ „I see.“
- Giving nonverbal acknowledgements, e.g., head nodding, facial expressions matching the speaker, open and relaxed body expression, eye contact.

The group is divided into pairs. One person functions as listener, the other as an observer.

Send the participants out of the room and let them find any third person. The listener will ask a introduction question to that person. Let the volunteer speak for a minute while the listener listens without interruption. Then the listener can summarise, ask for clarification and should then report back to the volunteer person.

The listener and the observer should after a while find another volunteer and repeat the process with swapped roles.

After the second interval the two give each other feedback.

Remarks:

This exercise seems to be so simple. Listening is often neglected. No fancy tool can substitute it.

The ability to listen with empathy may be the most important attribute of interveners who succeed in gaining the trust and cooperation of parties to intractable conflicts and other disputes with high emotional content. Among its other advantages, empathic listening has empowering qualities. Providing an opportunity for people to talk through their problem may clarify their thinking as well as provide a necessary emotional release.

If there are no people outside the training venue that can possibly be interviewed, divide the participants into groups of three. Ask one to be the speaker and another to be the listener. A third person should be the observer. Conduct the Course

of action as described among these three. The roles shall be swapped after a time of about 10 min until everybody has had a turn at being listener, speaker, and observer.

The exercise can be conducted as well with the focus upon paraphrasing and/or summarizing.

Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is a powerful tool in facilitation work for a number of reasons:

- it communicates understanding to others;
- a good paraphrase often brings further, more reflective responses from others, as in the example above –it moves the conversation to deeper levels;
- it slows down the conversation between the parties and creates a buffer between their statements;
- it can be used to ,launder 'vicious or insulting statements so they are less inflammatory to the other party, if present, while retaining the essential points that were made.

To paraphrase is to repeat back in your own words what you understand someone else to be saying: this means keeping the focus of the paraphrase 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.

A small percentage of people seem to prefer not to be paraphrased: careful observation of the reaction of those who are paraphrased will help to react accordingly.

Summarising

Paraphrasing is a moment-by-moment skill that restates what the listener has just understood an individual to say. 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.

Reframing Conflict

A critical question is how parties understand or frame the conflict, the other party, and the issues separating them. If, for example, one or both parties understand opponents as evil opponents determined to destroy them, they will frame the con-

conflict as a battle for survival requiring warlike responses. If they view the conflict as a battle for disputed land, they will bargain over every square centimetre of territory. If the parties frame the conflict differently, the possibilities for fresh and cooperative responses increase. Thus, facilitators commonly seek to reframe the conflict in ways that assist a resolution.

It should be apparent that reframing does not mean a facilitator instructs the parties as to what the real issues are. Rather, the facilitator works with things identified by the parties, and asks questions that direct their attention to dimensions not previously noticed or explored. By inviting a fresh look at the needs or goals of all parties, their underlying interests and intentions, reframing seeks to assist parties in seeing problems in perspectives that suggest new possibilities for joint resolution.

The mentioned communication skills that are not normally described as transformative. When and how do they become transformative? They are transformative if they both empower the respective parties and encourage them to build right relationships with others. Although good listening skills are an important tool in empowering the parties, they become fully transformative only to the extent that they assist both in empowerment and relationship-building. Listening well to each party in separate sessions takes a step towards transformation because it is empowering. It reveals its potential when each party is also assisted in hearing and taking seriously the perspectives of the other party. This might be accomplished by listening to both in joint sessions, or by thoughtfully presenting the concerns of the other party to each side. The technique of pointing out commonalities can be understood as particularly transformative because in one move it simultaneously empowers each side and strengthens the relationship. Reframing tries to find the perceptions of each side in a way that also takes into account the perceptions and needs of the other side as well. By defining key components of transformation, we can more easily recognise what is required and which of the many tools we should choose to achieve transformation.

EXERCISE: CONSTRUCTIVE DIALOG SKILLS

Objectives:	The participants train a series of communication techniques with increasing degrees of difficulty and complexity to apply the elements of a constructive dialog.
Time needed:	1 – 2 hours
Materials:	Flipchart and flipchart paper, markers
Course of action:	Trainer and participants agree on a topic for the discussion. The trainer explains the task on a flipchart. In the beginning only the first element is visualised. After each round of training a new element (a – f) is added.

	<p>Training steps: The facilitator states the topic and asks for contributions and</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) The facilitator paraphrases each statement b) The facilitator lets three participants speak and then summarises their statements c) Structuring: The facilitator lets three participants speak, summarises their statements and comments on the relation of the statements to one another d) Steering: The facilitator lets three participants speak, summarises their statements, comments and then makes a suggestion on how to continue the discussion e) The facilitator visualises the most important aspects of the discussion <p>The participants take turns in playing the role of the facilitator/discussion leader on level a). After 3-4 repeated statements, another participant will be facilitator.</p> <p>When 3-4 participants have trained on level a), the trainer introduces the next level b) and gives again 3-4 participants the opportunity to train on this level.</p> <p>Step by step more levels (c-f) are added.</p> <p>Evaluation of the exercise takes place.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The trainer should point out that this is a very effective preparatory exercise for a “real” discussion. The main task is to master all the elements of discussion leading individually and then combine them in a more realistic setting.</p> <p>Each facilitator should be given an opportunity to comment on his/her performance before other give their feedback.</p> <p>All participants should have equal opportunities to train. It is important that trainees have a sense of achievement. If participants have difficulties with this exercise, they should go on with it until they feel comfortable with each step.</p> <p>Before going to step d), the trainer can visualise the arguments that have come up during the discussion in the form of a mind map. This will help participants to understand the necessity to steer by asking lead questions.</p>

Processes

Facilitation would be relatively easy if it were purely a matter of employing skills to assist parties in conflict to communicate. Unfortunately, things are not that simple. Group conflicts take place in a context of large forces and patterns. These

usually add to the conflict arising in the first place and they impact strongly on the potential of its transformation. One cannot separate personal transformation from structural transformation, nor can we rely on skilfully facilitated dialogue unaided to achieve transformation.

An inevitable reality of group conflict is the competition for power and resources. How can facilitators work towards transformation in the face of these realities? To answer, one must recognise that, to a substantial extent, facilitation in group conflicts involves decision-making: that is, assisting parties to make decisions about the distribution of power and resources.

Of course, other crucial dynamics, such as the need for identity, are also at stake in these conflicts. But it is decision-making that requires answers to key questions of process and thus provides opportunity for influence on matters of long-lasting consequence. Who makes decisions, i.e., who is involved and in what ways? What mechanisms are used for deciding? What information and criteria are considered? Few parties devote conscious attention to these questions; they just do it in the way they learned from predecessors and role models. Part of the task of transformative facilitators is to make these choices explicit: by enabling parties to recognise the necessary choices and their implications, facilitators increase the possibility that parties will select decision-making processes that foster human development.

People in conflict quarrel about issues, such as land, access to resources, and power. On the surface, facilitators' work appears to be assisting parties in discussing these issues and finding solutions. But the most important contribution lies at a deeper level. The way in which people go about discussing these issues - the process - has far-reaching implications for the parties, for their long-term relationships, and the structures of society around them. As facilitators, we should aim at a transformative impact in conflict by actively and openly seeking to influence the process in which parties in conflict engage each other in decision-making. We are impartial in our commitment to the well-being of all, but this does not mean we are 'neutral'. Commitment to development request us to wilfully advocate processes that empower participants and promote right relationships.

In the process of handling conflicts it is important to be on the outlook for ways of expanding the possibilities for dialogue amongst the parties involved. In the case of protracted conflicts, dialogues between disputing groups will often be structured as a series of dialogue events, sometimes extending over a period of many months or even years. Several models help to conceptualise constructive developments for such a series of events. One of these focuses especially on the character of the relationship between the parties and the success of the joint efforts as the key characteristics, thus interpreting progress as a process of relationship building, problem solving and collaborative action:

- Contact and confidence building;
- Empathy for the other side;
- Joint analysis of conflict issues;

- Explorative problem solving;
- Joint activities in the possibility that the dialogue might feed into official negotiations or pre-negotiations

Dialog is often abandoned too early as emotions rise, and forceful strategies begin to be employed:

- Facilitation of dialogue is a skill that can be useful during the stage of confrontation, before the situation has polarised to the point of crisis. It enables people to share their own views and listen to differing views about political or social concern. There are various situations in which it makes sense to encourage and facilitate political and/or social dialogue.
- Within an existing group, whose members have been hesitant to share their views on a difficult social or political subject with each other.
- Between different groups, when they meet, sometimes to explicitly share their views on a political or social topic.
- When a political figure or a prominent political critic meets with a group, perhaps expecting that they will not agree with his or her views.
- When political figures with conflicting viewpoints are asked to speak in front of an audience, in a public forum.
- In a private meeting between opposing figures, facilitated by a more neutral person.

Any effort to encourage conflicting groups to enter into dialogue needs to ensure that it does not increase tension. The following guidelines are meant preventing this.

I. Listening stage

1. Clarify your own role (concern, motivations, capacities, limits, interests)
2. Establish your credibility (what is your basis, experience, status, reputation?)
3. Build relationship to all sides.
4. Allow for being tested (includes the need to develop a consistent policy for impartiality, truth, confidentiality and discretion).
5. Listen carefully, assist in exploration of the issues (e.g. application of non-directive dialogue techniques).
6. Cultivate an open mind and beware of own biases; listen to interests and fears.

II. Persuasion stage

1. Clarify misunderstandings and perceptions of the others.
2. Look at and discuss the consequences of the present situation (including for the actor him-/herself, the others and the general population).
3. Ask about what they have tried already (as ways out of the situation) and how this has worked.

4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of doing nothing?
5. Discuss what are the worst things that may happen if they moved to dialogue.
6. What can be done to prevent these fears from becoming true? (Is there a – process related - responsibility that the mediator could take on?)
7. What do they really want to happen and how to get there?
8. Discuss other options and their relative advantages; address fears.
9. Let the parties decide.

The tamplet below gives an overview over the tasks that need to be taken into account when facilitating a meeting that has a certain conflict made as topic. Getting beyond party position is more likely to lead to cooperation and non-adver-

	1 Planning	2 Definition	3 Collecting Ideas	4 Evaluation	5 Negotiation	6 Decision
Objectives	To agree on a process acceptable to all the actors	To clarify the problem to be discussed and resolved	To make a long list of the possible options	To examine the strengths and weaknesses of each option	To choose and formulate a proposal acceptable to all	To agree on a plan of action
Activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the themes • Identify the objectives • Describe the steps in the process • Plan for logistics • Agree on the decision making process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify and define the problem • Decide on the agenda 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make a list of options • Brainstorming • Group work • Consult external groups and people (experts, specialists) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify criteria • Identify the strong and weak points of each option • Anticipate the impact of each option 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss and test each option • Choose the most favourable options • Clarify all interests and needs • Win-Win solutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reach a consensus • Final decision • Divide responsibilities
Facilitator's Role	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyse the problem • Establish ground rules • Pose questions to clarify the objectives • Clarify the stages of facilitation and role of the facilitator • Prepare visuals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insist that the problem be clear • Assure participation by every one • Provide a written agenda • Remaining/ Outstanding questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insist that evaluation not done prematurely • Encourage a diversity of ideas • Visualize • Inform participants about time • Observance of ground rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluate the options one-by-one (be insistent!) • Compare the options as part of a review • Paraphrase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarize participants' contributions without any judgment • Propose a vote on the options (straw poll to assess tendencies not to decide) • Identify the areas of agreement • Take minority opinions into account • Meet separately with those with contradictory positions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take care that the decision respects minority opinions • Clarify the details of the plan of action (who will do what, when and how) • Document the results

arial discussion that is focused on the issue, rather than strategies for winning. Open-ended questions may allow participants to suggest future actions or new possibilities in an attempt to meet everyone's need.

EXERCISE: CONFLICT MEETING FACILITATION

Objectives:	The exercise will allow members of the group to practise conflict meeting facilitation. It will highlight the challenges that a facilitator goes through while supporting a process.
Time needed:	120 minutes
Materials:	Flip chart, paper, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains the exercise. The group chooses a conflict case with various actors. The case can be a fictional one as well as a real one.</p> <p>The roles of actors in the conflict are distributed in the group so that most participants get a role. Two participants function as facilitators. The facilitators are not going to hear about the detailed roles, but the conflict itself.</p> <p>After sufficient time of preparation (the actors may invent their role or learn how to act) the group assembles in the plenary. 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.</p> <p>The facilitator team enters a discussion with the actors from the conflict prepared. The team is encouraged to use the steps and processes described in theory input. The rest of the group remains outside the role play and should not intervene, no matter what happens.</p> <p>After adequate time, the role play is evaluated.</p> <p>In the end the trainer summarises and visualises the learning from the exercise.</p> <p>Typical problems that are faced by facilitators are: discussion moving off track - raised voices - interrupting - somebody talks long and uninterrupted - high emotions - offences.</p> <p>The timing for guidance from the side of the facilitator is an essential task.</p> <p>Continuation of self-determined process:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parties exchanging new information

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parties seem to accept emotional level of discussion • Parties are hearing and responding to each other • The subject seems to be important to the participants (even if it seems to irrelevant to facilitator) • Parties are approaching an emotional turning point • Everyone seems to come to his/her own right <p>Active facilitation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Someone seems to be intimidated • Parties are repeating themselves • Parties are getting increasingly polarised and rigid in their positions • Accusations seem to be aimed at hurting, not at expressing or discussing • Parties are side-tracked onto unhelpful topics • Some people are not listening • Parties are not able to stop personal attacks
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The exercise can be executed by inviting people to the training venue with a real case/conflict, who are willing to share their conflicting case or participants may visit people at their place. Then the evaluation takes place without the volunteers from outside.</p> <p>In case the participants do not come up with a suggestion for the role play, the ATONIA conflict can be used.</p>

Negotiation



In simplest terms, negotiation is a discussion between two or more disputants who are trying to work out a solution to their problem. This interpersonal or inter-group process can occur at a personal level, as well as at a corporate or international (diplomatic) level.

The Harvard Negotiation Project of the Harvard Law School examined the question what the outcome of a successful negotiation should be. Win-win, win-lose,

and lose-lose are game theory terms that refer to the possible outcomes of a dispute involving two sides, and more importantly, how each side perceives their outcome relative to their standing before the issue takes place. Win-win outcomes occur when each side of a conflict feels they have won. Since both sides benefit from such a scenario, any resolutions to the conflict are likely to be accepted voluntarily. Fischer/Ury promoted this outcome, and made it to a base of their considerations regarding negotiations. The process of integrative bargaining aims to achieve, through cooperation, win-win outcomes. Other outcomes are: Win-lose situations result when only one side perceives the outcome as positive. Thus, win-lose outcomes are less likely to be accepted voluntarily. Distributive bargaining processes, based on a principle of competition between participants, tend to end in win-lose outcomes. Lose-lose means that all parties end up being worse off. In such situations, lose-lose outcomes can be preferable to win-lose outcomes because the distribution is at least considered to be fair.

In the decision whether to use “soft” or “hard” positional bargaining Fisher/Ury came up with the following answer: one should not use it at all. Instead they developed an alternative approach called “principled negotiation”. This concept is based on four basic points:

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

This model of negotiation has some limitation. First, this is a culturally specific model of negotiation. Second, this model does not deal with power issues or power imbalance.

PRIMING EXERCISE: IDENTIFYING INTERESTS

Objectives:	Participants learn to differentiate between positions, justifications and legitimate interests and needs
Time needed:	45 minutes
Materials:	Pin board, cards and markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer gives an input on positions and interests.</p> <p>The participants are divided into groups of 3-4 people. The groups are given statements reflecting an extreme position. Their task is to identify the underlying interests and to write them on cards.</p> <p>The requested task is as follows: Please discuss the topics, exchange your experiences and prepare a visualised presentation.</p> <p>Starting from the positional statement please</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • list all arguments that could be brought forward to defend that statement • classify the arguments by differentiating between <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - legitimate interests and needs - vested interests - mere justifications of the positional statement. <p>The participants present the results of their group work.</p>
Remarks:	Instead of presenting the results of the group work on cards, a

role play can be conducted, in which conflicting parties begin by giving their viewpoints and stating their position. The Task of the mediator is to have the parties explain their position and to find out about underlying interests, needs etc.

Examples for positional statements (used in the seminar):

- “Women should have equal opportunities for promotion”
- “Women are not fit to take a leading position”
- “The land of the tea plantation belongs originally to the rural people” (villagers)
- “The plantation company has a legal title on the land” (estate owners)

Phases of negotiation

Negotiation is a process for establishing and building relationships, through which participants jointly try to reach agreement on issues of individual or mutual concern. In the negotiating process, participants commonly -

- establish contact with each other directly, by written words or symbols, or through an intermediary;
- create at least a minimally positive professional relationship;
- identify topics to be addressed and determine how discussions will be conducted;
- transmit both substantive information and messages about the type and strength of feelings;
- communicate about their desires, positions, or demands and possible needs and interests;
- generate options and assess their viability;
- seek to influence each other to obtain advantage or satisfaction ;
- create Course of actions and rituals for gaining final approval for agreements; and
- develop ways to implement, monitor, and ensure compliance with understandings that have been reached.

As a process, negotiation has several distinct phases.

Phase 1: Preparation

Certain issues should be thought about before entering the discussion.

- Analysis of conflict situation
- Gathering of information, as necessary
- Identifying needs interests of own side and other side(s).
- Consideration of preferred options for the outcome of negotiation as well as the Best Alternative To an Negotiated Agreement (BATNA).
- Making contact with other side(s) and agreement on a venue and process for

the negotiations, including ground rules, issues to be discussed.

Phase 2: Interaction

Negotiation is a process of communication in which the parties aim to „send a message“ to the other side and influence each other. Thus, power in negotiation lies in the ability to favourably affect someone else's decision. Some assume that because threats of physical force exert influence, the ability to make such threats is the essence of negotiating power. But making threats is a costly and dangerous way of trying to exert influence.

Phase 2 includes the following core steps:

- Sharing of the different perspectives on the situation.
- Agreement of a definition of the issue(s).
- Generating options for addressing the issue.
- Evaluation and prioritisation of different options according to the needs and interests of all sides.
- Selection, and possibly combination, the best options for meeting the needs and interests of all involved.

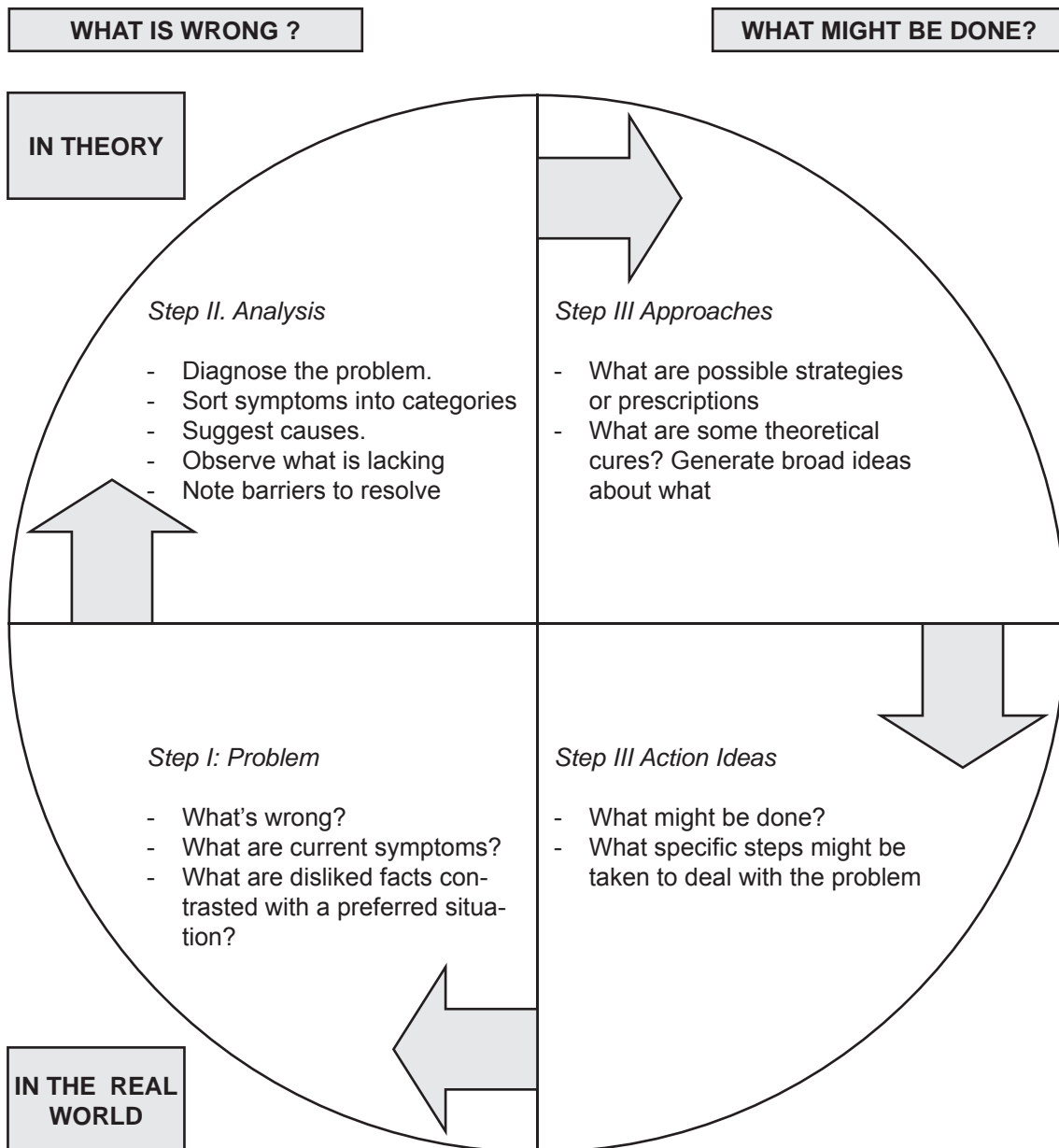
Phase 3: Closure

The aim is for a negotiation process in which all parties are committed to achieving a settlement that can meet the legitimate needs of all sides. This does not mean that they need to give in to demands of the other side, but does require a willingness to consider and combine options creatively in the desire to find a solution. If negotiators are representing a larger group, they then must come with a clear mandate from their respective constituencies and a clear process for reporting back and maintaining accountability.

- Agreement on the best option or combination.
- Development of an action plan for each party.
- Plan for a review of the agreement.

Options for mutual gain

The following circle chart provides an easy way to use one good idea to generate others. One can start thinking about a general problem(Step I), then proceed with the descriptive analysis (Step II), and then look for prescriptions (Step III) and come up with specific and feasible suggestions for action (Step IV). One can, however, start at every point. From one useful action idea one can go back and try to identify the general approach. This might lead to alternative action ideas. One can go even one step further back and look which diagnosis is implicitly contained in the action plan and from there forward again.



In most negotiations there are four major obstacles that inhibit the inventing of a number of different options:

1. **Premature judgement:** People tend to think too much of the drawbacks of any new idea. Especially under pressure the critical sense is sharpened. But judgement hinders imagination. In a brainstorming session it is better to invent and formulate even wild ideas. They can be assessed later.
2. **Searching for the single answer:** People often see their job as narrowing down the gap between positions, not broadening the options available. Since the end product of negotiation is a single agreement, they fear that free-floating discussion will only delay and confuse the process. But it is better to select from a large number of possible options.
3. **Assumption of a fixed pie:** If the situation is seen as demanding an either-or-decision then one does not bother for more options.

4. **Thinking that “Solving their problem is their problem”.** Each side tend to think only of their own immediate interests. Short-sighted self-concern leads to one-sided solutions! For an agreement that meets one’s own self-interest one should develop a solution that also appeals to the self interest of the other side.

Looking for mutual gain is the key to agreements with which all sides can identify. Mutual gain can be best achieved if the negotiation parties look for shared interests. There are three point one should remember about shared interests:

- Shared interests lie latent in every negotiation. They may not be immediately obvious, but they can be found. Shared interests may exist regarding the factual side, the substance of an agreement. They may also exist regarding the relationship: opportunities for co-operation in the future. Maybe the common denominator is that both sides would be worse off with no agreement.
- Shared interests are opportunities. To be of use, one has to make something out of them. They should be made explicit and formulated as common goals.
- Stressing shared interests can make the negotiation smoother and more amicable.

In a conflict or a negotiation situation there will always remain differences, which cannot be swept under the rug. The negotiation about these differing interests often results in a contest of will: who can be more stubborn, who is likely to give in? A constant battle for dominance threatens the relationship. This usually does not result in a wise agreement and even if one side wins, there may be unsuspected costs of that win in other areas and the may be quite high.

PRIMING EXERCISE: OPTIONS FOR MUTUAL GAIN

Objectives:	Trainees learn to apply different instruments to generate a large number of ideas for the solution of a conflict. Trainees realise that the creativity tools help to go beyond conventional ideas and fixed viewpoint to include new and innovative ideas.
Time needed:	90 minutes
Materials:	Handouts with the description of the instruments; all suitable visualisation material, incl. flipchart, pin board, OHP, computer presentation
Course of action:	The trainer gives an input on the nature of creative thinking. Creative thinking is located more in the right hemisphere of the brain. The trainer stresses that in order to come up with creative ideas, the analytical and critical “censor” in the mind should be switched off for the time being, to allow unconven-

tional and even seemingly “crazy” ideas to be expressed.

To demonstrate the nature of creative thinking the trainer can give some simple problems whose solution demands to overcome conventional barriers.

Several groups are formed, which are given one of the following instruments to a given problem:

- Brainstorming
- Using Analogies

A - Brainstorming

What are the ground rules for Brainstorming!

Active participation by all team members. Everyone expresses his or her ideas, even if they seem silly or far out.

! No discussion—criticisms, compliments, or other comments—during the brainstorm.

! Build on ideas generated by other team members.

! All ideas written exactly as presented and displayed where everyone can see them.

! Set a time limit.

! Clarify ideas. After the brainstorm, go over the list to make sure that all team members understand the ideas. Remember that you are only clarifying the ideas, not making judgments about them.

! Combine ideas. See whether two or more ideas that appear to be the same can be combined.

How is a Brainstorming session conducted?

The recommended sequence for conducting Brainstorming and

some suggestions for conducting the session effectively are provided below:

! Review the rules for Brainstorming. Describe how this session will be conducted by going over the points below.

! Set a time limit for Brainstorming, assign a timekeeper and data recorder, and start the clock. Brainstorming should be a rapid generation of ideas, so do it quickly; 5-15 minutes works well. If the time limit has expired and ideas are still being generated, you can extend the time limit at five-minute intervals.

! State the topic to be brainstormed in the form of a question. Write it down and post it where everyone can refer to it. Ensure that everyone understands it.

B - Analogies

Forming analogies can be a source of inspiration. By comparing two subjects, one can get ideas for the solution of a problem:

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct analogies are those taken from nature, engineering, and science, i.e. from those areas where problems are solved objectively and concretely. For example modern aircrafts are modelled following the streamlined form of fishes, for example sharks. But analogies can be taken also from different fields. Studying the historical battles can yield ideas for a modern marketing strategy. • Personal analogies demand a strong personal identification with the chosen object, for example: how would I feel as a rose, as a bird, as a planet? • Symbolic analogies contrast to apparently unrelated and contradictory concepts, for example “friendly conflict” or “hard working holiday”. <p>The groups apply the instrument to an issue/problem. The process is moderated by a third person.</p> <p>The groups present and discuss the results of the group work in the plenary.</p>
<p>Remarks:</p>	<p>The evaluation of each exercise should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a discussion about the usefulness of the given instruments and about any difficulties that were encountered. • a discussion of the results generated with the help of the tool, if these are not mere examples but have some bearing to the topic of the seminar/workshop. <p>To leave analytical and conventional ways of thinking in favour of creative and unconventional thinking is sometimes not easy. Participants tend to use some tools for creative thinking in an uncreative way: for example analogies are chosen with an eye to solutions the participants have already in mind, instead of letting the imagination run free and come up with really new ideas. This should be spotted and commented on by the trainer.</p>

Cultural Approaches to Negotiation

It must be emphasised that there is no one right approach to negotiations. There are only effective and less effective approaches, and these vary according to many contextual factors. As negotiators understand that their counterparts may be seeing things very differently, they will be less likely to make negative judgments and more likely to make progress in negotiations.

- Time orientations: Two different orientations to time exist across the world: monochronic and polychronic. *Monochronic* approaches to time are linear, se-

quential and involve focusing on one thing at a time. *Polychronic* orientations to time involve simultaneous occurrences of many things and the involvement of many people. The time it takes to complete an interaction is elastic, and more important than any schedule. *Polychronic* orientations to time involve simultaneous occurrences of many things and the involvement of many people.

- Space orientations: *Space* orientations differ across cultures. They have to do with territory, divisions between private and public, comfortable personal distance, comfort or lack of comfort with physical touch and contact, and expectations about where and how contact will take place. There are large differences in spatial preferences according to gender, age, generation, socio-economic class, and context. These differences vary by group, but should be considered in any exploration of space as a variable in negotiations.
- Nonverbal communication: Closely related to notions of space is nonverbal communication.
- Power distance: The idea of *power distance* tries to describe the degree of deference and acceptance of unequal power between people. Cultures where there is a comfort with high *power distance* are those where some people are considered superior to others because of their social status, gender, race, age, education, birth, personal achievements, family background or other factors. Cultures with low power distance tend to assume equality among people, and focus more on earned status than ascribed status and for legitimate purposes.
- Uncertainty avoidance: Another category has to do with the way national cultures relate to uncertainty and ambiguity, and therefore, how well they may adapt to change. It may be difficult for outsider negotiators to establish relationships of confidence and trust with members of these national cultures.
- Masculinity-Femininity: The terms *masculinity* and *femininity* are used to refer to the degree to which a culture values assertiveness or nurturing and social support. The terms also refer to the degree to which socially prescribed roles operate for men and women. Negotiators may find it useful to consider the way gender roles play out in the cultural contexts of their negotiating partners.

It is important to remember that there is as much diversity within a culture as between cultures. A state-of-the-art intercultural negotiation training focuses on (1) building increased individual and group awareness of cultural similarities and differences; (2) expanding general and specific cultural knowledge; (3) deepening understanding of how relationships across cultures are established and built; (4) learning various negotiation Course of actions and appropriate skills; and (5) appreciating structural impacts on the negotiating process.

EXERCISE: ROLE PLAY - NEGOTIATING

Objectives:

The participants reveal, experience and observe communication patterns and strategies in face-to-face conflict meetings, the interrelation of the factual and the relationship issues in conflicts and the influence of roles on working relationships and communication. The necessity of being able to deliver uncomfortable messages.

Time needed:	120 min
Materials:	Hand outs for two different roles of the role play.
Course of action:	<p>The trainer introduces negotiation, including the four principles of negotiation to trainees. S/he explains the purpose of the role play. The participants are divided in small groups of threes. Two players and one observer. The actors have 20 minutes to acquaint themselves with their particular role and to decide on their objectives and strategies for the meeting. The observers are given clear instructions on the aspects they should focus on while watching the role plays.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Define the situation • Describe the outcome • How were ideas generated • Identify needs • Where alternatives been discussed • Was the BATNA clear on each side? <p>Then, the role play is conducted. The time is limited to about 20 minutes.</p> <p>Debriefing of the active role players and feedback by the observers takes place. A detailed evaluation and discussion may follow.</p> <p>After finishing the performance, the actors are asked to describe how they experienced the meeting: How do they feel after the meeting? To which degree have they achieved their objectives? How do they feel about their partner?</p> <p>The observers are asked to give their general impression of the role play. The trainer asks specific lead question to assess various communication patterns, negotiation strategies and specific aspects of the underlying conflict. The answers are visualized on a flipchart paper.</p> <p>The trainer may give additional theoretical input on relevant aspects. S/he asks for several negotiation outcomes from the group. What kind of outcome did they reach? Ask those who used the principles of negotiation and those that did not, how the negotiations progressed. Did anyone establish a BATNA? How did culture play a role in negotiations? What are different cultural variations in negotiating techniques?</p>
Remarks:	--

ROLE PLAY SCENARIO: CONFLICT ABOUT TRAINING

ROLE FOR SUSAN

You are the Provincial Health Officer on Esmeralda, the main island of the province. The overall objective of the project is to provide affordable health services to an area that has been neglected for a long time.

You like your work and you work hard to make the project a success. A lot of planning, organizing and co-ordination and leadership skills are required to run the Provincial Health Office and, in addition to that, you have a large number of official and informal functions to attend in order to keep good relations with politicians, stakeholders and donors. You are very happy that the current Governor of the Province is not only your immediate senior in policy matters but also a very good friend.

The health sector is supported by a number of donors with which you also have to co-operate. One of the resident advisors sent by a Development Agency is John GRANDISON, whose organization is supporting a number of hospitals and the human resource development activities. He is not an easy man to work with and at this moment in time you are totally fed up with him.

His predecessor was a very mild and soft-spoken gentleman, with whom it was easy to come to terms with. John is certainly more intelligent and, like yourself, he is a very hard worker. In his first month in the country you had a very favourable impression of him and you overlooked some of his rough edges and told yourself that he would adapt to his new environment once he learned more about your culture. Well, he has not ... Only yesterday you had evidence that he lacks intercultural sensitivity.

You have taken great efforts to develop a sound training program, you have invested in training of trainers and now have a small but competent training staff. The training is well accepted by the medical staff at all levels and you get enthusiastic feedback from participants. The whole training concept is successful but this is not recognized by Mr. John Grandison.

He is not so much interested in the training approach and the contents, he is only interested in decreasing the cost of training and making it more cost-effective. For good reasons you have centralized training here in the provincial capital. Here you have a good venue with all the facilities and secure electric supply. For the participants from the small islands and rural areas it is an incentive to come to the city once in a while and away from their families and household duties they can concentrate on the training and socialise in the evenings. The trainers live here and can use their free time better. You have invested a lot in them and can't afford to lose them in one of the frequent accidents of the typhoon season which is likely if they have to travel a lot to the islands.

John who insists on decentralisation of training refuses to be convinced by these arguments. He is only looking at the fund utilization and gets very impatient if he has to wait for a day or two to get the accounting sheets for the last series of courses. He is more than meticulous and fusses over every little detail, calculating every cookie that the participants get with their tea. You have had many a heated discussion with him but yesterday he crowned it all by saying: "Too much of our tax payer's money ends up in the bellies of your participants". He does not understand that in your culture it is expected that drinks and snacks are offered to every guest as well as participants and he cannot see that informal activities like a karaoke evening are integral parts of good training.

After this last row in which he made clear that he didn't trust you, you were very angry. If he behaves like that in today's meeting, you are determined and even decided to talk with the

Governor to have him withdrawn from the project.

Consider the following:

- the atmosphere you wish to create/maintain
- your objectives (what you must, intend, or would like to achieve)
- style of negotiation (your opening bid, step down position, BATNA, etc)

ROLE FOR JOHN, RESIDENT ADVISOR

Since seven month you are resident advisor to a Provincial Health Project on Esmeralda, the main island of the province. The overall objective of the project is to provide affordable health services to an area that has been neglected for a long time. Your direct counterpart is Susan FELICIANO, the Provincial Health Officer (PHO), a lady with which you have a lot of difficulties. Susan can be fairly said to be a workaholic who has never learned to delegate and she is a dominating person which holds all her staff in awe. Even for you it is not easy to make her listen to your suggestions, let alone to accept one of your ideas.

The Development Agency which send you here supports the human resource development activities as well as a number of district hospitals. You were specially briefed to have a sharp eye on fund utilization. Your predecessor - a mild and soft-spoken gentleman near retirement – was much too shy of Susan and so she had no difficulty to have everything her own way. That way, for a lot of money very little actual training was carried out.

You firmly believe that there could be many more training courses if the financial management was better and the money was spend more wisely. First of all, Susan had centralised the training which means that all the participants have to travel to the provincial capital where they have to be accommodated and fed. A lot of the budget is thus spending for travel costs, hotels or hostels and food. It would be much cheaper if the seminars were decentralised, because then only the travel costs of the trainers would have to be paid. In addition to that, more participants could attend the training without stripping the hospitals and health stations of their staff. As far as you are concerned, training on the spot, near to your actual work place can be much more practice oriented, efficient and effective.

All this Susan refuses to see. She defends every detail of her own training concept and is not even prepared to economize on the side-costs. You were shocked when you saw how much is spend on snacks for the tea breaks, to say nothing of these horrible karaoke evenings without which no seminar seems to be complete. But when you made a yoke that too much of the development funds – after all tax payer's money, isn't it? – disappears in the bellies of the participants, she got really furious.

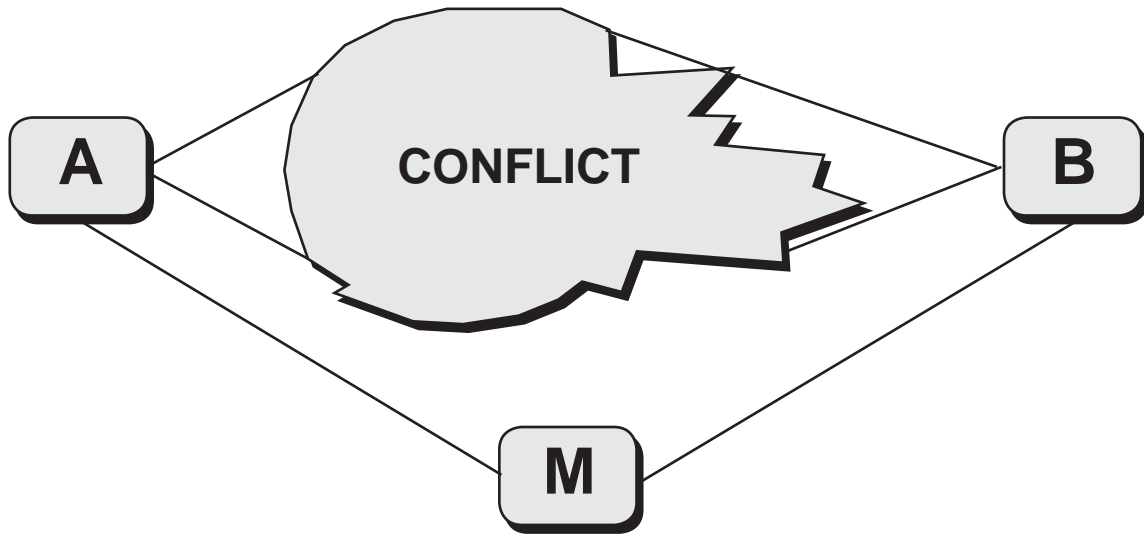
With this remark you gave her a good pretext not to discuss the reports you are waiting for since weeks. You had agreed with her that the reports and accounts of each training should get to you not later than one week after the training. But they come irregular and are notoriously incomplete. Just to give one example: the ancillary costs of the training are calculated per participant. But if of invited 30 participants only 20 show up you are never told what happened to the money that was saved. This should be re-allocated to fund additional courses, but it seems to disappear you don't know where.

Even if yesterday's meeting with Susan was far from agreeable, you have to meet her again today and try to clear these questions.

Consider the following:

- the atmosphere you wish to create/maintain
- your objectives (what you must, intend, or would like to achieve)
- style of negotiation (your opening bid, step down position, BATNA, etc)

Mediation



Mediation is an assisted negotiation. It is a structured process where an impartial third party without decision-making authority assists others in conflicts to negotiate a mutually acceptable agreement.

Unlike arbitration, where the intermediary listens to the arguments of both sides and makes a decision for the disputants, a mediator assists the parties to develop a solution themselves. Although mediators sometimes provide ideas, suggestions, or even formal proposals for settlement, the mediator is primarily a „process person,“ helping the parties define the agenda, identify and reframe the issues, communicate more effectively, find areas of common ground, negotiate fairly, and hopefully, reach an agreement. A successful mediation effort has an outcome that is accepted and owned by the parties themselves. The aim of the mediation process is to make active participants out of affected groups or persons. The involved groups should actively look for a consensus that satisfies their justified interests and needs. With their consent to participate in the mediation process, they abstain – at least for the time being – from looking for other ways conflict reaction. Instead of trying to get their way by means of fight or battle, strike, legal proceeding, orders etc., they get together and try to improve their relationships, achieve mutual understanding for their issues and concerns. In this way they avoid further polarisation and form a common ground for further discussions and negotiations.

The result of a successful mediation is an agreement, which is affirmed by all involved parties. This agreement should also clarify the means and ways of achieving the stated objectives.

Areas of application

Mediation is widely used in all sorts of disputes, ranging from divorces to civil lawsuits to very complex public policy problems to international conflicts. Many disputes that have not responded to an initial attempt at negotiation can still be

settled through mediation. Even when conflicts are seemingly intractable, they sometimes yield to mediation. Mediation is of particular importance in long-running, deep-rooted conflicts, as this type of conflict is rarely resolved without such outside assistance. Even if the full range of grievances cannot be resolved, mediation is often useful for dealing with particular limited aspects of the wider conflict.

Mediation skills can be employed in all of the following contexts:

- When asked to be done by individuals
- prior to conflict through preventive diplomacy;
- during a conflict through peacemaking activities;
- after a conflict to promote implementation modalities and agreements
- during peacebuilding efforts to consolidate peace and lay the foundation for sustainable development.

While the final outcome has to be agreed to by the parties, being a mediator entails a much greater responsibility and involvement in the outcome of the conflict.

Although a mediator cannot force an outcome, the process is very often effective. The key is the ability of the mediator to create a more productive discussion than the parties could have had by themselves. To do this, mediators help the parties determine facts; they show empathy and impartiality with the parties; and they help the parties generate new ideas. Mediators also exercise political skill and use persuasion to get people to soften hard-line positions. Often, though not always, they have a lot of background knowledge of the issues and type of dispute. Though many mediators are highly trained and experienced, not all are professionals, and they come from many different walks of life.

While many mediators pride themselves on their neutrality, some observers believe that it is impossible any human being to be truly neutral. Others have concluded that even biased mediators can be useful, as long as the bias is not hidden from any party and parties have an opportunity to protect themselves against its effects. International mediations are often of this type, because an effective international mediator is often a foreign minister or president of an influential country, even though everyone understands that the mediator's country has interests of its own. President Carter's mediation between Egypt and Israel is an example.

Conditions

There are certain conditions, which have to be met for the mediation approach to make sense:

- It is difficult or impossible to solve the problem in direct discussion or negotiation between the parties involved.
- Efforts to solve the problem or conflict have resulted in an impasse.

- All parties that are interested in the problem or issue participate.
- Participation is on a voluntary basis and can be ended at every time.
- The parties involved in the conflict are interested to keep up their relationship.
- All parties are interested in a solution reached in mutual consensus.
- The participants are convinced that a solution reached through mediation and negotiation will be better than one reached without negotiation.
- The issues are not a basic value-orientation, basic rights or a yes-/no-decision.
- All participants have equal access to information.
- There are no grave differences in the power status.
- There is enough time to develop a joint solution.
- The parties involved have a minimum ability to express themselves and self-assertion. They are not misused or oppressed.

Mediators' skills

Mediators must employ certain skill sets in order to be effective. Such skills, although they build on attributes found in greater abundance in some people than in others, are not wholly intuitive.

Mediators must understand conceptually what the barriers are to resolving conflict through unassisted negotiations if they are to work toward overcoming them. Once they have that understanding, they must also acquire the skills needed for overcoming those barriers and for assisting the parties to a conflict in reaching an agreement that meets their interests and, ideally, creates joint gains. Certain core skills and attributes of mediators can be identified:

- Conflict analysis and situational awareness;
- Listening actively;
- Gathering information through open-ended questions;
- Emphasizing without patronizing;
- Providing effective feedback;
- Dealing with emotional issues and difficult people; and
- Analyzing alternatives, creating multiple options, and maintaining momentum.

A model for a five-step mediation process

Mediation is a structured approach to conflict handling, in which all parties try to find a solution in mutual agreement. Several interested parties involved in or affected by the conflict exchange their views and try to achieve agreement on further strategies, co-operation or decisions on important issues. All groups that are involved in or affected by the conflict can participate in the process. Participation is strictly on a voluntary basis and can be cancelled by the party at any time.

Step 1 – Introduction

Step 2 – Identify Issues and set Agenda

- Step 3 – Explore Issues
- Step 4 – Generate Solutions
- Step 5 – Reach Agreement

Step 1 – Introduction

<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set the parties ease • Create a safe environment • Earn parties' trust • Model communication • Clarify process • Alert parties that they will be responsible for the content 	<p>Key Actions in a Western society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stand, shake hands, seat parties • Explain process fully • Explain confidentiality • Explain guidelines and reasons • Explain role of mediator • Explain role of parties • Ask for questions • Confirm authority for process • Invite opening statements and restate
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Step 2 – Identify Issues and set Agenda

<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw out parties' perception • Be alert to parties' feelings • Identify issues, interests, positions • Establish parties priorities on issues 	<p>Key Actions in a Western society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask open ended questions to draw out story in parties' own words and order • Ask clarifying questions to flesh out story • Accept parties' categories • Eliminate issues which cannot be resolved in mediation • Accept parties' emotions as natural • Be on alert on cues to interests and positions • Use mediators caucus to identify issues and sort into manageable
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Step 3 – Explore Issues

<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine parties' interests • Encourage parties to look toward future • Build will to settle • Eliminate extreme positions 	<p>Key Actions in a Western society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Probe for interests beneath positions • Use hypotheticals to test responses to offers, ideas • Get parties to think of how they would like things in the futures • Reframe issues in most positive way possible • Share positives
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Step 4 – Generate Solutions

<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generate options for mutual gain • Make room for movement 	<p>Key Actions in a Western society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Act as agent of reality • Use hypotheticals • Brainstorm with parties individually or collectively to see how they would like to see things in the future • Tentatively test a variety of options • Build upon agreement
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Step 5 – Reach Agreement

<p>Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop final terms of agreement • Put terms into writing • Ask parties to approve final written form • Get parties to sign agreement 	<p>Key Actions in a Western society</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ascertain with each party that their priority issues have been addressed • Work during mediator's caucuses to perfect the written form of the agreement in positive, neutral, clear realistic terms • Read agreement to parties • Let each party read and sign written form • Mediators sign • Give signed copy to each party
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EXERCISE: PHASES OF MEDIATION PROCESS

<p>Objectives:</p>	<p>The participants train to conduct, experience and observe the different phases of a mediation process and the challenges of each stage of a mediation in a role play.</p>
<p>Time needed:</p>	<p>120 min per phase plus evaluation</p>
<p>Materials:</p>	<p>Copies of the stages of mediation and mediation role play handouts, flip charts, markers</p>
<p>Course of action:</p>	<p>Introduce exercise and process of mediation, its different stages. (Good to be prepared on a flip chart or board.)</p> <p>Distribute role-play. Divide group into fours and have one person play the role of mediator, and the other two play the roles of the parties. One person functions as an observer. Allow 30-40 minutes for groups to role-play mediation in the different phases.</p>

After each phase, sub-group feedback, re-convenience and debriefing take places. The observers have the crucial role to function as a corrective medium for impression.

Questions for the parties:

- What did it feel like to be a party in the conflict?
- Did you reach agreement?
- How helpful was the mediator in assisting you in reaching an agreement?
- What would have made the mediator more effective?
- What, specifically, did the mediator do that changed the atmosphere of the mediation or moved you as parties to reach agreement?
- What could the mediator have done differently?
- What are the qualities of a good mediator?

Questions for the mediators:

- How did it feel to play the role of mediator?
- Were you comfortable or uncomfortable in the role? Why or why not?
- What was easiest about the role?
- What was hardest?
- Would you mediate differently if you had been mediating between family members?
- How were you able to use your own natural strengths in the mediation?
- What do you think did not go well? What do you wish you had tried?
- Other questions include:
- Has anyone ever played the role of mediator in real life? Informally or formally?
- What kinds of cultural variations might exist with mediation? Can you describe your own culture's process of mediation?

After discussing the main points to each stage the trainer sends the fours off to play the next phase. The group may change roles among themselves in different stages. This deepens the understanding.

The main findings are visualised. Does and don'ts are specified.

At some point questions about the communication skills of a mediator may come up.

In communicating effectively, many conflict communication experts emphasise the importance of particular communica-

tion skills. These skills are particularly useful for individuals intervening in conflict, like mediators. These third party communication skills include: reframing, restating, and active listening.

Reframing. Reframing involves giving an alternative interpretation of issues or behaviour. In conflict, parties often engage in communication patterns that escalate a conflict, like trading accusations, or not listening to the other side. By reframing, the mediator validates the speaker's experience but opens the door for alternative interpretations of the content. Changing the frame makes room for different perceptions and interpretations of issues and behaviour. For example, a mediator might reframe an action like "forming coalitions against me" to "she must really feel powerless if she finds it necessary to gather the support of others."

Restating. This is similar to reframing, except it involves restating what one party says in language that is less accusatory. The person restating does not add anything to the statement, but simply paraphrases the speaker. For example, one party might claim "she is lazy. She never helps me with the difficult tasks of running an organisation." A mediator might rephrase this statement in the mediation: "Running an organisation is difficult and takes a lot of work." A follow-up question that reframes the content might be whether the speaker feels overwhelmed with the amount of work involved in running an organisation. When restating, the third party should check with the speaker to make sure the paraphrase is accurate.

Active listening. Using active listening demonstrates to the speaker that you, as a listener, are really hearing what the speaker is saying. You communicate this by reflecting the feelings of the listener, restating the content of the speaker's comments, asking open-ended questions, and generally communicating empathy with the speaker. Empathy communicates that the listener really understands the speaker's point of view. When overused, active listening can be irritating, and it is difficult to do in cross-cultural situations where perceptions and interpretations of content and underlying emotions in conversation are culturally influenced. Good mediators in a western context make use of good communication skills like restating, reframing, asking open questions, or active listening to change communication patterns and assist parties in reaching a mutually acceptable agreement.

Remarks:

The participants may choose to play conflicts they know about or are even involved in. Then, the trainer gives time to participants to write the plot and the characters that are involved in the conflict before starting to play.

This alternative is able to give deep insights into conflicts, because of the personal involvement and the changing of the roles.

ROLE PLAY: MEDIATION

Role for Mrs. Handerson

You are responsible for conflict transformation within Sisas' national program. One of your most effective programs is run in partnership with a local community-based organisation (NGO). Other Sisas organisations in the region have approached you about piloting similar programs in their countries. However, this NGO has recently experienced some turmoil – the former director stole a large sum of money from the organisation (a good portion of which came from Sisas) and was fired for fraud and misconduct. Your superintendent has spoken with you about continuing to work with this organisation as she values the partnership, but has left the decision up to you. Your superintendent did instruct you to ask about options for reimbursing or somehow accounting for the stolen money, and suggestions for how to ensure that this does not happen again. Apparently your superintendent has received pressure from the funding agency about this money.

You have heard that the new Director of your partner NGO is very sceptical of your joint program and has talked about dissolving your partnership. At your first official meeting last week, you had planned to raise two issues: his/her plans for the program and the issue of the stolen money. You raised the issue of the stolen money, but the Director of the NGO was inflamed and stormed out of the office before you could even talk about the future of the program.

You are at a loss – the director of the NGO has not returned any of your phone calls over the past week and you are ready to give up on the organisation and the program, much to your dismay. You have decided, as a last option, to approach a respected person in your community about mediating this conflict.

Role for Mr. Samson

You have recently been appointed Director of your organisation, a local community-based organisation (NGO). The previous director was fired for fraud (stealing money) and misconduct. You have been involved in this organisation for many years and are extremely committed to its goals and mission. However, you, together with several other leaders in the organisation, were initially very sceptical when Sisas approached your organisation to be a partner in their programming several years ago.

Nevertheless, the organisation got involved with peacebuilding, and apparently a large portion of the stolen money was from Sisas for programming.

In talking with members of your organisation to get a sense of their concerns and vision for the organisation over the past month you have become convinced of the value of the programming. Several of the other leaders remain sceptical of peacebuilding and are pressuring you to dissolve the partnership with Sisas, especially after the events of last week.

You are just settling in to your position, and have only recently begun to meet with partner organisations and funders. Last week, you met with the Sisas staff member in charge of peacebuilding. What a disaster! She demanded repayment of the stolen money (which your organisation doesn't have), and you never got to discuss any of the programs or talk about vision for your partnership. You were so offended and angry that you stormed out of the meeting. You feel like the Sisas staff person doesn't think you are capable to lead your organisation.

To complicate matters, a family member suddenly took ill right after the meeting, and you have been out of the office. You haven't been able to return any of the Sisas person's calls. You are wondering if it would be a good idea to approach a respected person in your community about mediating this conflict.

The introduced model of a mediation process is culturally rooted in Western countries, as the key actions show. Mediation may have many different faces in different cultures and needs different key actions in different contexts. It will be called mediation as long as:

- The participation for parties is voluntary
- The mediator functions as a person that is responsible for the process
- The parties' have full decision-making authority

Creating safe space

Having noted a number of obstacles to good interpersonal and inter-group communication, it is now time to look at ways in which these obstacles can be countered in order to provide an atmosphere of safe places, one that encourages open and honest dialogue.

Interpersonal and inter-group communication does not have to take place in defensive climates, but can certainly occur in supportive climates as well. Supportive climates include situations which encourage descriptive speech in which the listener perceives requests for information as genuine; problem-oriented atmospheres which stress the importance of finding mutual solutions to conflict, rather than trying to persuade the other to change their viewpoints and beliefs; spontaneous communication, which is devoid of deception; empathy for the feelings of the other and the giving of respect and legitimacy for the other's opinion, even if the two parties are not in agreement with one another; an atmosphere of equality; and an atmosphere that encourages provisionalism, the idea that issues are open for debate, and that different and new ideas and suggestions can be considered.

How can a supportive climate for communication between present/former enemies or for individuals who have undergone severe social trauma be created and sustained? While there are no recipes for the creation of such safe places, there are some ground rules and basic guidelines that can often help interpersonal and inter-group communication overcome the obstacles noted above. The suggestions offered here are based on the ideas and work of researchers and practitioners coming from various disciplines and fields of expertise.

To begin with, a safe place for communication cannot be created and sustained if the participants have been coerced into taking part in the interpersonal or group dialogue. This means that planners, facilitators/mediators of such interactions must be open and honest with potential participants about the aims of the encounter and the use of the materials that will result from such encounters, making sure that each individual is there of his/her own volition and that he/she agrees to future use of the content of the meetings. Once the encounter begins, this atmosphere of openness and honesty must continue; if the participants feel that they are being manipulated, then they will either drop out of the group or keep a very close watch on what they say or how they respond to others.

This point brings us to the issue of asymmetry. While a group or interpersonal encounter cannot do away with the asymmetric relationships that may be characteristic of the relationships „on the outside,“ group facilitators or mediators can assure that the relationships within the group context or between the partners in conflict are egalitarian. This means that no one partner/participant has more rights than others and that all are granted equal respect.

Safe places in communication also tend to be created and sustained when the ground rules of the encounter are clearly set forth and agreed upon at the first meeting. Rules such as no interrupting, giving every participant equal opportunities to speak yet not pressuring individuals to speak who do not yet feel comfortable doing so, ending with a round in which each participant in the interaction is asked to make some comment about the meeting, and refraining from judgmental and caustic responses are commonly used techniques. It is important not just to clearly state the ground rules and acquire group consensus to abide by them at the first meeting, but to reiterate them and reinforce them from time to time in subsequent encounters.

Helping people to become empathic listeners has been found to be an additional important skill for interpersonal and inter-group communication between former/present adversaries. This, perhaps, is the most important yet most difficult skill to teach/acquire, since individuals are often busy thinking about their response or what they want to say when it will be their turn, making them inattentive to the speaker. Furthermore, if the speaker is talking about issues and experiences that the listener(s) are uncomfortable with, either because they feel they are being blamed and/or because the content and style of communication is emotionally difficult to handle, empathic listening is all the more difficult. It should not be expected that empathic listening will be achieved overnight or that all participants will master this kind of listening; this is an ongoing dynamic process that is characterized by ups and downs.

If facilitators/mediators wish to create safe places for communication, then they should be aware that this takes time. Therefore, „one-shot“ encounters are doomed to failure. If safe places for communication are truly to be created and sustained, then there is a need to plan for a series of meetings, with the option for extending the original schedule, whenever possible. In addition, it is important that each meeting be long enough to accommodate the participants, especially

those who may have difficulty in opening up or need time before they can begin talking about their past experiences or speaking in a group.

As a final point (in this non-exhaustive list of ground rules and Course of actions that has been found to enhance safe places within communication), we will note the importance of learning how to deal with silences within the group. Just as verbal communications are part of every interpersonal and inter-group communication, so are non-verbal behaviours and silences. Silences tend to occur when people are afraid of opening up an issue for discussion or when they are thinking over what has been said or gathering their thoughts together before they begin speaking. Therefore, in order to help participants feel comfortable in the setting, facilitator or mediators should learn to respect these silences and not „jump in“ with words in an attempt to put people at ease. It is only if and when extremely long silences become the norm (an extreme rarity), that the facilitator or mediator will need to figure out, with the participants, why people are unable to share their thoughts, ideas, and feelings with the others.

EXERCISE: MEDIATION WORKSHOP SIMULATION

Objectives:	The exercise will make participants aware of the possibilities of how to transfer the ideas of individual mediation to group mediation. Participants will undergo high emotions while conducting the role play, this will deepen the understanding of mediation and increase the skillfulness of trainees.
Time needed:	120 min
Materials:	Handout of role play, chairs, pin board, moderation cards, markers
Course of action:	<p>The trainer introduces the exercise. This is a good time to repeat the different phases of a mediation process.</p> <p>The trainees are divided in groups of threes. The participants are provided with the scenario through handouts.</p> <p>Each group has 30 min to prepare the introduction phase of the workshop. They function as the requested trainers.</p> <p>The groups take turns in conducting the first phase of the workshop. Each group has 10 min to conduct. The other trainees are representing the local people from Indonesia. The chairs are set in a way that they face each other.</p> <p>The trainers make sure that there are less Christians than Muslims.</p> <p>After 10 min the next team will conduct without any break.</p> <p>Trainees may change chairs from one side to the other after each conduction.</p>

	<p>The trainer notes the main key situations and alternatives on cards during the conductions.</p> <p>The evaluation starts with a debriefing of all participants.</p> <p>The alternatives are put on a board and are the starting point for a discussion. Each alternative is evaluated by the trainees who played the locals.</p>
Remarks:	<p>The simulation lives from high emotions. The trainer should make sure, that there is no break in between the intervals.</p> <p>One key finding might be to start a workshop under this condition with a ritual that both groups share. To provide safe place is another aspect of high importance.</p>

SIMULATION SCENARIO: WORKSHOP IN INDONESIA

Since one year you are a Civil Peace Worker in Indonesia. You function as a lecturer at a Christian University in Yogyakarta (Jawa) and you are a member of the peace institute of the university. Very often you are requested by conflict parties in order to help to mediate or teach mediation between conflict parties all over the archipel. You work together with local staff of the university when doing so. Your main focus is upon writing curricula for trainings in mediation and conflict transformation.

This time, in May 2002, you and your colleagues are asked to mediatate in Poso. It is the second workshop with the same participants.

Poso is the main port and transportation hub for the northeastern coast of Central Sulawesi, Indonesia. Heavily damaged in sporadic ethnic/religious conflict over several years in the late 1990s and early 2000s, the town is currently almost exclusively controlled by Muslim forces (Tentena, a Christian stronghold that many Christian former Poso residents fled to during fighting). The conflict triggered by social issues left its line between the religious borders. No Christian is living in Poso these days, many were torchured and killed. The number of Christian internally displaced persons (refugees) is estimated at around one hundred thirthy thousand. Also, Muslims were killed in the violent clashes. The issues were even broadcasted to Europe.

The situation right now: No Christians in town, still bombings targeting Christian buildings, institutions.

Two NGOs, a Christian and a Muslime one, have requested you. Two month before you conducted a workshop with the same participants, all males, all persons with influence upon the grassroot level, e.g. village leaders. Fiveteen Christians, fiveteen Muslims. They are expected to attend the workshop. The workshop is supposed to happen in Poso with the same participants as two month before. The one before was conducted in the town Palu, a neutral place two hundred kilometers away from the actual conflict area.

The timeline for this workshop says five working days. You came with two colleagues from university and the workshop is supposed to start, it shall focus upon mediation skills. All participants from the Muslime side are attending. No Christian arrived in Poso so far. The organisatons call the

person in charge in order to get information. The official response is that there is no transportation available, the need for work was more pressing than coming to the workshop. But it is more than clear: Extreme fear and anxiety are involved. After several phone calls five Christian participants travel to Poso and arrive at late afternoon.

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Chapter Eight:

Reconciliation

INTRODUCTION

Reconciliation can be understood as an intervention into a conflict circle. Referring to the comprehension of Diana Francis it definitely is.

Reconciliation is a process as well as a goal. Stimulated by post-dictatorship processes in Latin America, and more recently in South Africa, there is an increasing attention given to post-violence processes and social recovery. The overall process of social healing is often referred to as reconciliation. The process of recovery can begin once an agreement has been reached between the parties, which meets the needs of all concerned, at both, the practical and the psychological level. Integral to the agreement will be provision for its implementation. Reconciliation requires at least:

- Physical safety, for example removing people from the site of conflict, inter-positioning personnel between warring parties, protective presence, monitoring
- Social safety, and a context in which there is acceptance for the expression of the emotions occasioned by trauma and the opportunity to talk about what had happened in order to try and make sense of it
- The means of discovering, as far as possible, how or why particular events occurred, and the rediscovery of relative identities, with a degree of confidence which can allow for the admission of imperfections and diversity, together with an acknowledgement of interdependence and a return to the acceptance of risk implied by trust
- The possibility of restoring relationships, predicated on the success of restorative negotiations, that is, negotiations focused on needs rather than on blame and leading towards restorative justice – apology and forgiveness may well have a role to play, but cannot be demanded, especially by well-meaning outsiders.

The list of ingredients for reconciliation is necessarily given sequentially, but in practice the processes outlined are ones, which feed each other. While those engaged in conflict transformation understand that reconciliation is an extremely important process, we are still in the process of learning how to assist create personal and social spaces for reconciliation.

Reconciliation does not come easily. It requires persistence and takes time. Reconciliation is based on respect for common humanity. The full disclosure of truth and an understanding why violations took place is essential. Equally important is the readiness to accept responsibility for past human right violations. Reconciliation does not wipe away the past: it is motivated by a form of memory that stress the need to remember without debilitating pain, bitterness, revenge, fear or guilt. It understands the vital importance of learning from redressing past violations for the sake of shared present and future. Reconciliation does involve a minimum willingness to co-exist and work for the peaceful handling of continuing differences. It requires a commitment, especially by those who have benefited and continue to benefit from past discrimination, to the transformation of unjust inequalities and dehumanising poverty.

EXERCISE: HOW CAN RECONCILIATION LOOK LIKE

Objectives:	The participants illustrate and discuss the process of reconciliation using dramatic storytelling to raise deep questions of what underpins reconciliation. Sharing personal experiences intensifies the understanding of reconciliation.
Time needed:	120 min
Materials:	--
Course of action:	<p>The trainer divides participants into groups of about three to fours.</p> <p>Ask participants to come up with a sculpture, or frozen picture that captures reconciliation for them.</p> <p>Once groups have developed a sculpture of reconciliation they reconcile together as a large group.</p> <p>Ask each group to show their sculpture to the others.</p> <p>Ask participants viewing the sculpture what they see.</p> <p>Ask the group showing their sculpture to explain any additional elements that the viewers may have missed.</p> <p>After the groups have sat back down, engage in a discussion of the various elements of reconciliation. Some possible questions to ask are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What did the sculptures have in common? • What differences were there? • What steps do you think are necessary for reconciliation? <p>Additional elements to bring into the discussion are any religious and cultural differences that emerge within the group. The participants explore the differences in approaches to reconciliation. These can help clarify different understandings of reconciliation amongst participants or present them with new challenges.</p> <p>In a second step, the participants relating reconciliation to personal experience of conflict; therefore, the participants choose a partner they trust. They reflect both upon a personal conflict each and try to share the following questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What caused the pain? • Where was your pain situated? • What was done to acknowledge/address this pain? • Where is it localised now? • What would you wish how it should be addressed in future?

Remarks:	<p>This process is a very personal one. Therefore, just if the participants like, they may share essentials in the plenary, not the whole stories.</p> <p>The essentials can be visualised. They may function as good material to compare individual experiences and those upon a broader society level. The trainer may use them after the next exercise.</p>
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Lederach's framework

There is no standard definition that all scholars and practitioners rely on. However, almost everyone acknowledges that it includes at least four critical components identified by John Paul Lederach - truth, justice, mercy, and peace. Lederach's use of the term „mercy“ suggests that the ideas behind reconciliation have religious roots. In recent years, reconciliation has also become an important matter for people who approach conflict transformation also from a secular perspective. For them, the need for reconciliation grows out of the pragmatic, political realities of any conflict transformation process. It is the way in which each society chooses to bring together the concepts of truth, justice, mercy, and peace in the aftermath of violence



Because, all situations of conflict aftermath are unique, each with their own complexities, the way towards reconciliation will also be unique. Often the concepts of Truth, Mercy, Justice and Peace are understood differently.

<p>Truth</p> <p>Following the process of deliberations before and during the life of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission in South Africa, participants broke the concept of truth down into four notions.</p> <p>Factual or forensic truth: the familiar legal or scientific notion of bringing to light factual, corroborated evidence, of obtaining accurate information through reliable objective procedures.</p>	<p>Justice</p> <p>Justice that focuses on the healing of the social relationships and attempts to build the type of society that reflects the values of those who suffered. Social justice requires a deep look of the injustice of the past, those committed during times of violence, but also that lie at the root. This often requires extensive physical and social reconstruction.</p>
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<p>Personal and narrative truth: By telling their stories, both victims and perpetrators gave meaning to the multi-layered experiences of the issue. These personal truths were communicated to the broader public by media.</p> <p>Social truth: While narrative truth was central to the work of the Commission, especially to the hearings of the Human Rights Violations Committee, it was in its search for social truth that the closest connection between the Commission's process and its goal was to be found. Social truth, the truth of experience is established through interaction, discussion and debate.</p> <p>Healing and restorative truth: The kind of truth that places facts and what they mean within the context of human relationships – amongst citizens and among the state and its citizens.</p> <p>(Quoted from: The Final Report of the Truth and reconciliation Commission South Africa, 1998)</p>	
<p>Mercy</p> <p>Mercy includes the concept of forgiveness, but is more than that. It is the ability of people who have been affected by violence to cultivate a respect for their common humanity and agree that it is possible to co-exist. It is important for people to recognise that it is possible for them to agree on a shared vision of the future – despite the anger, fear, guilt and suspicion engendered by the past. It is mostly a contentious process that evokes tremendous emotion.</p>	<p>Peace</p> <p>Peace is a concept denoting the absence of hostilities. It includes the well-being of the citizens as well as security and respect.</p>

People engaged with the process of conflict transformation use a number of techniques to try to foster reconciliation. There is at least one common denominator to all these approaches to reconciliation. They all are designed to lead individual men and women to change the way they think about their historical adversaries. As a result, reconciliation occurs one person at a time and is normally a long and painstaking process.

EXERCISE: TRUTH, JUSTICE, PEACE, MERCY

<p>Objectives:</p>	<p>Engaging participants in a deep discussion of the paradoxes of reconciliation by personifying key terms and concepts. This exercise assists raising some of the dilemmas involved. Additionally the participants sharpen awareness of parallels between personal and social reconciliation.</p>
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Time needed:	90 min
Materials:	Four sheets of paper, each with one of the exercise words written on it (truth, justice, peace, mercy)
Course of action:	<p>The trainer explains that these four terms are drawn from a Biblical passage that discusses the reconciliation of Israel with God (Psalm 85, verse 10). The passage highlights that reconciliation is the place where justice and peace meet, and where truth and mercy kiss (terms may vary depending on translation).</p> <p>Trainer asks participants to volunteer to personify one of the four terms. The four papers can also be put in the four corners of the room. Give them a minute or two to think about which term they would like to personify.</p> <p>Participants are asked to move to one of four groups, each representing one of the terms. The division may be uneven, but that is OK provided there are at least two people in each group. Each of the groups the piece of paper with their word on it to help groups get organised, and to identify their representative later in the exercise.</p> <p>The groups have 15 to 20 minutes to discuss what they mean by truth, justice, peace or mercy and come to a common understanding. Also, ask them to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify which of the other three terms each person fears most; • Identify which of the other three terms each person is closest to, or would most like to work with; • Be prepared to place the terms in relation to each other (e.g. which stands first, which stands together, etc.) <p>Groups may need a little help to begin their brainstorming. Ask the spokesperson of each group for each of the terms to come forward and sit on a panel of four and introduce themselves. For example: "I am Justice, and I require ..."</p> <p>Then the trainer asks each of the representatives to answer the questions identified above:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which of the other terms do you most fear? • Which of the other terms would you most like to work with? • How do you see the four words relating? <p>Ask if any of the audience members have additional questions for any of the representatives.</p>

	The exercise will bring up many points that are discussed throughout.
Remarks:	Personifying the terms helps raise the complexity of the issues. One critique of the field of conflict transformation is that it lends itself to rhetoric and people making impassioned speeches for justice and peace. This exercise helps raise some of the dilemmas involved that aren't usually addressed in those passionate speeches.

Dilemmas of Reconciliation

Reconciliation is a process that involves many layers of meaning, recovering lost spaces and addressing the dimensions identified above. Often people are afraid of reconciliation, because they are afraid they will lose their rightful claim as victims of great injustice, or that they will be asked to forget the act that caused them pain, or lose the hurt that has become so familiar and even comforting. To get beyond these fears, and contemplate reconciliation, we need to first examine some of the dilemmas that reconciliation poses for us.

Fast or slow?

In public, political processes, reconciliation is often portrayed as a process that a country must go through immediately, in order to move into a new future. However, this approach contradicts much of the research and practice on individual healing and reconciliation.

Personal reconciliation is a very slow process. The stories and memories need to be given time to be told. Reconciliation involves a fundamental repair to human lives, especially to the lives of those who have suffered. That repair takes time – time that can make the ones involved feel insecure, but necessary time nonetheless for beginning a new life. When working with trauma or supporting a reconciliation process, taking a long-term view is critical. Reconciliation is a very long process that needs to be supported throughout.

A social or personal process?

Reconciliation for some is a public process, such as that in South Africa, but a very personal process to others. Most people engaged in conflict transformation build on the idea that it is a very personal process; it is not something that can be managed by a larger social body although changes in physical space can help create personal space. It comes from the heart of the victim and the victimiser, and has to be “discovered” there first. Reconciliation is a way of believing or seeing the relationship rather than a way of doing things. Political processes of reconciliation run the risk of watering down the concept of personal reconciliation

by adding a deadline for the process, as well as potentially co-opting the term as a label for a process that actually does not change the structural realities that produced violations in the first place.

Forgiving means reconciled?

Forgiveness is a different process from reconciliation, although it is very related. There are different interpretations of the relationship between the two concepts. For some, forgiveness means the survivor was able to let go of the resentment. It does not mean that the relationship is reconciled or back to “normal.” In this case, forgiveness comes before reconciliation. For others, the process is the reverse: reconciliation comes before forgiveness. Cultural and religious contexts are very important in shaping this relationship.

Remembering or forgetting?

For some, forgetting is important in order to move forward, and for others, remembering is critical. A common assumption exists that remembering is essential for true forgiveness. Denial is a common response to great injustice, and often survivors are told to “forgive and forget,” which undermines their ability to tell their story and in doing so regain their human dignity. Supporters must learn to stay through the pain and encourage survivors as they learn to live with memories of their experience. It is also important for offenders to remember in order to recover their own human dignity by taking responsibility for their actions and recognising the effect they had on the victims.

Forgiving means accepting?

Frequently a dilemma of reconciliation is seen as accepting, and thus negating, an injustice when it should be named. However, naming the offence as harmful and unacceptable is a crucial part of forgiveness and reconciliation. It is important for survivors to acknowledge their injury before they can let go of the resentment they feel because of the injury. How the injury is acknowledged can be very different across cultures, as a comparison of traditional rituals and the western legal system indicate.

EXERCISE: DISCUSSION ABOUT ENTRY POINTS FOR RECONCILIATION

Objectives:	Participants discuss the possible entry points of reconciliation. Comparison of personal and social viewpoints of reconciliation. Participants develop own framework for reconciliation.
Time needed:	Video length plus 90 min
Materials:	Video, DVD, for example:

	<p>Gacaca: Living Together Again in Rwanda? (Video : 55 min.) [2002] V.CASS. VHS 8154; Shake Hands with the Devil: the Journey of Roméo Dallaire (DVD : 91 min.) [2005] DVD 5120</p>
Course of action:	<p>The trainer provides the participants with two different videos referring to reconciliation.</p> <p>The trainees discuss the different entry points for reconciliation processes.</p> <p>The trainer may refer to the conclusions of the previous exercise and compare individual and social reconciliation processes.</p>
Remarks:	<p>In addition, the trainer can ask participant to develop an own framework for a reconciliation process. This would be conducted in sub-groups, presented in plenary, compared and discussed.</p>

9

Chapter Nine:

Aid and Conflict

INTRODUCTION

Aid and emergency relief are often provided with the best motives. However, there are always unintended consequences. Agencies believing their work to be neutral, even outside the conflict, may well influence without realising it. Humanitarian assistance is at risk of becoming an instrument of war at the local level through the manipulation of aid resources by warlords, at the global level through its instrumentalisation for partisan political interests. In some particularly complex situations, external interventions are limited to humanitarian assistance. In the absence of concurrent sustained development or peacebuilding interventions, the potentially negative impact of such humanitarian assistance is far greater as heightening the need for conflict sensitivity.

Transfer of resources

When external resources are introduced into an area of conflict, they can change the balance of power. This happens most directly through theft, when agencies provide new resources, which are then stolen, taxed or diverted by conflicting parties to feed their own troops. Additionally, there are more indirect ways.

- Increasing resources for war – when aid agencies needs, and specifically those of the supporters are freed up to support the fighting forces. The narrowing of responsibility can lead to commanders redefining their roles as exclusively military, with the result that, when the fighting is over, they have little knowledge of, or sense of responsibility for, civilian affairs.
- Adding to the influence – when warring faction control the passage of aid, it gives them power and legitimacy as providers for the people move to another area, and weaken opposition groups by keeping resources from them.
- Destroying markets – the temporary provision of new resources distorts local economies, making it more difficult to a peacetime economy. If high wages are paid to local staff, then existing organisations and wage structures are undermined and expectations rose. Imported resources damage local markets for food and other items, and housing rents become so high as to be beyond the reach of most local people.
- Reinforcing tensions – External resources tend to fuel existing suspicion and rivalry, offering a source of greater power to those leaders who gain control over them. Where the poorest groups are targeted, inter-group rivalry can especially severe.

Hidden messages

While the intended message of aid is one of compassion and solidarity, the unintended messages often contribute to conflict.

- Acceptance of the terms of war – Negotiating access to civilians and hiring armed guards are examples of behaviour that demonstrates an acceptance of

weapons, both as a prime and legitimate source of power and as satisfactory means of deciding who should receive assistance and how.

- Giving legitimacy to warlords – When agencies negotiate with the leaders of factions, they give them recognition and legitimacy. They demonstrate that they accept these people as having the right to exercise power in the area.
- Undermining peacetime values – Wide differences in the standard of living of expatriate and local staff and discrimination between them in terms of security (evaluation for whom) show that contrasting values are placed on the well-being of local and international staff.
- Demonstrating impunity – Expatriates who use scarce resources such as vehicles and fuel for their own private purposes give local people the impression that it is acceptable to use aid intended for other's for own benefit. This mirrors how local warlords may use resources for themselves or their supporters.
- Promoting intolerance – inter-agency rivalry suggests that there is no need to cooperate with those we do not like and that it is acceptable to be intolerant of differences.
- Publicity can increase hostility – pictures and stories of brutality and suffering by one or both sides are used to raise funds internationally. In the conflict itself this can reinforce the demonstration of one side by the other.

Many humanitarian agencies are increasingly aware of the risks of their interventions exacerbating conflict and some have been developing methodologies and mechanisms for addressing this:

- Assistance in a situation of violent conflict becomes part and parcel of that conflict
- The context of conflict is always characterized by two types of factors/two realities:
 - Dividers and sources of tension
 - Connectors and local capacities for peace
- Assistance interacts with both types of factors in a positive or in a negative way
- Transfer of resources through assistance constitutes one way by which assistance impacts on conflict
- Implicit ethical messages are another set of mechanisms through which assistance interacts with conflict

Experience has shown that there are always options!

Discovering and enhancing new capacities for peace

As long as agencies – both local and international – ignore existing resources for peace- and justice related activity, they lose a great opportunity and risk severely worsening the situation.

In every conflict there are people who have become involved simply because they could see no way out. They remain silent and accept what is done in their name because to resist would demand too high price. The compelling sense of group identity in an “ethnic” conflict, is born primarily of fear, and overwhelms other sentiments such as morality and friendship with members of the “opponent” group. People in this position contribute a latent source of new capacities for peace.

More evident are some existing institutions and systems. Those used by the hostile parties, such as health, education and electricity supplies, embody a common interest and may have the potential for engaging parties in informal communication. Traditional conflict-resolving institutions, such as elders and customary courts, could also become involved.

Aid can, when used imaginatively, provide opportunities to strengthen and support new and existing capacities for peace, without drastic changes being made to the programs themselves.

Among the less obvious ways of doing this, are:

- Space – aid can provides a place where people can act in “no-war” ways, and where they can engage with people on the opposing sides in joint initiatives. In doing this agencies can encourage people to keep alive, and perhaps work for, the hope of a shared future.
- Voice – agencies can provide a forum where peace and cooperation can be discussed and even take the initiative in making peace or conflict resolution the subject of meetings and workshops.
- Incentives – agencies can use their financial and other resources and their access to the wider world and to the media, to encourage actions and the expression of views that work towards peace. This can include a clear policy to counter war-related misinformation.

It is important not to overstate the significance of aid, and NGOs, more generally, either in encouraging or reducing armed conflict. However it is important to ensure that programs are not making violent situations worse.

EXERCISE: MAPPING THE IMPACT OF AID ON CONFLICT

Objectives:	To expose participants to the possible categories for understanding dividers, sources of tension and war capacities in conflict situations. To emphasize the fact that factors that connect people and local capacities for peace exist in every conflict situation; to expose participants to the possible categories for understanding connectors and factors promoting peace. To enable participants to apply steps of a framework to their own circumstances and, thus, to understand them better.
Time needed:	3 hours

Materials:	Visualisation material, flip chart, marker
Course of action:	<p>This session involves a brief lecture that describes and illustrates the patterns by which assistance affects conflict. When this has been done, participants may divide into small groups and discuss their own experiences, examining the ways that they have seen assistance programs interact with conflict. These discussions will increase the participants' "ownership" of the ideas as they use their own experience to illustrate the patterns identified through the local capacities of peace.</p> <p>The following analysis introduces a tool to map the impact of aid and development programs on conflict. It builds on Mary Anderson's ideas to explore the impact of an agency's program on conflict. Impact mapping is a method for identifying opportunities for peace-building and a way to analyse the impact of programs on conflict situations. It is a tool for policy-making to reduce unintended negative impact. It is primarily intended for groups that are working in conflict areas but not yet a conflict itself. It considers the forces for peace or violence in a specific situation and analyses the links to programs.</p> <p>The participants are going to analyse their own programs individually or they choose mutually one from the group. The conduction with the second option takes place in the plenary.</p> <p>The procedure of mapping the impact on factors on violent conflict will be conducted as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Precise identification of the situation that should be analysed • Summarising of the main aspects of the program, eventually in three categories: physical resources, capacity building and advocacy • Reference to the ABC Triangle with the meaning of the different aspects of Context, Attitudes and Behaviour • Draw the triangle with the category in the middle. Surround the triangle with three circles • Considerations of the forces for (violent) conflict by referring them to the different aspects and write them accordingly to the aspects into the different circles • Considerations of the links between the different aspects <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In what way are forces being supported unintentionally? Contributions to an economic system that allows the conflict to continue? 2. Fuelling tensions by supporting one group?

3. Unconscious reinforcing attitudes of superiority, jealousy?
4. Encouraging behaviour that devalues the opinion of other?

Lines are drawn where the program is supporting these forces either directly or through hidden messages.

In what ways is the program undermining the forces supporting (violent) conflict?

- Reduction of power of groups who benefit from (violent) conflict?
- Active trust building?
- Promoting alternative forms of behaviour?

The second step is to identify existing factors that favour peace and the examination of the current and potential impact of the program. The process as described above is repeated:

- Reference to the diagram of the ABC Triangle.
 1. The Context includes two subheadings: “groups” and “system”: System could include processes that link people and are participatory and empowering or traditional systems for managing conflicts. Groups could include organisations that are broadly contributing to peace-building.
 2. Under attitudes are summarised trust, mutual understanding and lack of prejudice. Specification, who holds these attitudes, is necessary.
 3. Behaviour includes actions that are inclusive of hostile groups and build cooperation, and those that are explicitly building peace (mediation, media initiatives).
- Description of the main aspects of the program and reference to actual diagram
- Consideration of the links between program and the forces for peace and justice. In what ways are the forces supported?
- Lines are drawn to illustrate the connections in order to delineate both direct and indirect/hidden connections. Additional words may be added.
- In what ways could these links be supported further on through existing or new action?
- In what ways does the program unintentionally undermine any of these local capacities of peace? Indication through jagged lines.
- Can anything be done about it?

	After the analysis follows a discussion. The essentials of this discussion may be visualised on a separate flip chart.
Remarks:	<p>The trainer should caution the group against “easy” identification of dividers and connectors or peace capacities. One must always look, in context, for who is being connected and who is being divided and how this is occurring in order to do this analysis accurately. If people within one group are being effectively “connected” in order to oppose other groups with greater strength, it would be a mistake to identify this connection as one that is promoting inter-group harmony.</p> <p>If the participants are not in a situation of humanitarian aid the trainer may provide them with a case study.</p>

CASE STUDY: ASSISTING DISPLACED PEOPLE FROM BAHR EL GHAZAL IN SOUTHERN SUDAN

Sudan has been the site of an intense civil war for over forty years. Though the entire country has been affected by the conflict, open fighting has been concentrated in the South.

The war in Sudan has been characterized as a conflict between the Muslim North and the Christian and animist South, with the government in the North attempting to impose its culture and system on the people in the South. However, recent shifts in the alliances of fighters from one side to the other call this characterization into question. In addition, divisions among fighters in the South have often led to battles with resultant inter ethnic tensions between Southern groups.

There are many tribal/ethnic groups in Southern Sudan. Although there have always been some inter group disputes, relations among them have varied from cordial (involving frequent inter marriage and agreements among chiefs) to tense (characterized by cattle raids and intermittent fighting). The years of war have put additional strains on traditional patterns, sometimes forcing new alliances and sometimes erupting into new clashes. All areas of the South have suffered economically.

In May 1998, between 800 and 2000 Dinka people from various parts of Bahr el Ghazal walked south to Nadiangere in Yambio County in search of food. Due to fighting and two years of drought, Bahr el Ghazal was experiencing a pre famine situation while food security in Yambio was relatively stable. Throughout 1998, international humanitarian assistance had focused on the Bahr el Ghazal region but had not been sufficient so there had been some hunger related deaths.

The migration of Dinka into Yambio was very unusual. The Dinka are a Nilotic tribe whereas the vast majority of people in Yambio are Zande (a Bantu tribe).

Three or four other smaller tribes constitute the rest of the population of Yambio. The Dinka are agro pastoralists and the Zande are agriculturalists. Because Yambio country is infested with tsetse fly, the Dinka cannot bring their cattle into the area.

The Dinka and Zande also differ culturally. For example, the Dinka have a strong sharing tradition that allows anyone who needs something to take it. When someone arrives hungry in a Dinka household, he or she may always eat from the family pot of food. When they migrated, Dinka often continued their sharing tradition, taking things that they needed even though other groups did not accept this tradition.

Dinka and Zande traditionally engaged in trade, exchanging Dinka meat for Zande grain or for cash. Some other contacts between the groups were violent. The last visit of the Dinka into Yambio had occurred in 1987/88 and was accompanied by raids and fighting.

Some of the Dinka cited reasons other than the famine conditions for their migration, including: 1) that though food was available in Bahr el Ghazal, its distribution was poorly organized; 2) that the food that was available was being sold by authorities; or 3) that authorities had given instructions that they should move south.

Some members of the local Zande community did not believe the migrants' explanations for their arrival and suspected, instead, that they were Dinka soldiers in disguise, or they were criminals or some other kind of outcasts. Some Zande were anxious, also, because they believed that the Dinka were capable of witchcraft, especially for rainmaking. This challenged their strong Christian beliefs. One local resident suspected that the Dinka had begun to eat their own children during the long walk to Yambio.

In spite of everything, the Dinka who arrived in Yambio in dire need were received by the local peoples with hospitality. They shared food, space, shelter and cooking facilities with the new arrivals. They explained this saying, „They are human beings who need to survive just like us.“

One local chief remembered his own ancestor's displacement that had brought them to Yambio years ago. There was a general sense among the Yambio groups that they shared the Dinka's uncertainty, food insecurity and displacement as a result of the war (though at a different level).

Some local people hired Dinka men and women to do agricultural work, paying them either with food or money. When they worked together, both men and women seemed to connect easily across groups. However, Dinka chiefs made no direct attempt to interact with local chiefs. Dinkas who were Christians attended Sunday services in local churches despite the language barrier between the groups.

The influx of Dinka into Yambio County put a strain on food security and on potable water in the region. The displaced Dinka also lacked most essential household items, seeds and tools.

Though they sympathized with the Dinkas' plight, local people and their authorities did not want them to settle in their area.

NGOs made a rapid assessment of the situation in Yambio. They found 25 moderately or severely malnourished Dinka children in need of supplementary feeding and medical assistance and identified food assistance as being urgently needed by the whole Dinka group.

Although the NGOs felt that it would be best for the Dinka to return to their homes, they refused to do so even when promised assistance at their place of origin.

The NGOs were unsure how long to continue to provide assistance to the displaced Dinkas in Yambio County. The local community was advising them to supply seeds and tools to Dinkas as well as food so that they could reestablish their own food security. If they planted crops, it would take two months until the Dinka could realize their first harvest. The local community also wanted to receive non food aid if such was distributed to the displaced Dinka.

Faced with the desire of local people that the Dinka should leave and with the Dinka refusal to return to Barh el Ghazal, NGOs considered relocating the Dinkas to Menze, a scarcely populated area 18 km to the north of Nadiangere. The people of Menze objected to this, but their chief seemed willing to welcome the Dinka.

As the NGOs were considering their options, word came of another influx of displaced Dinka moving from Bahr el Ghazal into the Menze area. (Quoted from T-o-T Manual Do no harm/Mary Anderson with kind permission)

10

Chapter Ten:

Nonviolence, Satyagraha and Conflict Transformation

A SHORT CRITICAL HISTORY OF THOUGHT AND ACTION

Jesus Christ according to some human rights workers in southern Chad is „the first nonviolent activist“. Their association’s by-laws stated this surprising idea in the 1990ies. Earlier on, M.K. Gandhi used to employ a terminology derived from ancient Hindu philosophy to explain his thinking to his co-citizens. Monks of the Japanese Nipponzan sect which is active in peace and justice struggles all over the world refer to the teaching of the Buddha, more than 2500 years old. All of them probably were very much aware that they were in the process of re-defining history in order to meet their objectives, more specifically in order to justify dissident forms of action that challenge the distribution of power in a social or political conflict.

It is, however, only after the rise of a bourgeois middle class in the 18th and 19th centuries as a new socio-political force between clergy, nobility, artisans and peasants that modern thinking about the role of citizens in the state could develop. The debate between Rousseau and Locke around the socially responsible and the liberal visions of state mark the emergence of these aspirations. The American liberation struggle and the French revolution are the two archetypes of modern struggles, though both of them definitely were most of the time not fought nonviolently.

However, soon after these blood-drenched experiences other forms of action were discovered that presented more effective and acceptable tools to the bourgeois middle-class in their campaign to control the power or at least influence the course of decisions. These unarmed struggles using persuasion and public pressure or threatening with the denial of cooperation became the most important instruments for change in modern societies as Bill Moyer shows in his publications: Without these struggles none of today’s achievements like the acceptance of human rights standards, universal suffrage, suffrage for women, environmental laws, etc., would be part of our legal systems.

This excursion into history shows that M.K.Gandhi who is usually most closely associated with nonviolent thought and action has not been its inventor. Gandhi’s experiments with appropriate responses to social and political injustice were very much influenced by experiences and discussions in England where he spent decisive years of his biography and by his reading of North American writers.

The most famous predecessor of struggles led by Gandhi in South Africa and in India was the Abolition Movement, the struggle to end slavery in Europe and North America. This had been the first large international human rights movement in human history pulling together secular oriented and spiritually motivated - very often protestant - activists. Especially Quakers and members of the other so-called peace churches remained firm on their principles in spite of their not being conform with laws and social norms. Hiding escaped slaves and boycotting of taxes were among their forms of action: breaches of law as ways of showing civil disobedience. The US-American Henry Thoreau who preferred to go to jail to

obeying an unjust law, was one of these 19th century activists and a writer who inspired Gandhi a few decades later.

Another arena became the successor to this movement and one of the first struggles taking up the colonial issue which until then had not been in question as most of the wealth it produced ran into the pockets of exactly that class that voiced concerns so loudly. The solidarity movement with the Congolese people who were oppressed by the Belgian King Leopold II as part of a private royal enterprise resembling in many aspects modern transnational corporations. Widespread genocide, extra-judicial killing, torture and forced displacement were part of this system that began to be challenged by the end of the 19th and in the beginning of the 20th century, just a few years before Gandhi arrived in South Africa and developed his concept of Satyagraha, „persisting in, holding firm to, the truth“. The journalist and lobbyist E.D. Morel coordinated a movement that organised resistance against the extreme effects of colonialism in Congo, a movement that linked protest in Congo itself to its supporters in Belgium, the USA, Sweden, Switzerland, Germany, France and England. Several of the persons active in this struggle paid their commitment with their careers, their good reputation or even with their lives. Significantly, at that time neither Gandhi in South Africa nor Morel in Belgium challenged the colonial system as such: too strong was the belief that the empire was capable of reform, too committing were the interests involved in keeping up colonialism.

M.K.Gandhi began his career as a change activist by being thrown out of a train and by thus being given the chance to reflect on his life for as long as a night at the South African station of Pietermaritzburg. Although he had bought a valid train ticket, was a lawyer with a degree from London and member of the bar association, he was not permitted to stay in a coach reserved for „whites only“. He challenged this fact and suffered from the consequences of his insistence. Henceforth, this became the essence of Gandhis „experiments with truth“, Satyagraha: remaining firm on principles recognised as true, in spite of potential personal disadvantages, being ready to accept suffering in a conflict and refraining from imparting suffering to others. As no-one before him and only few afterwards, Gandhi was able to develop Satyagraha into a form of action that was understood by members of other social classes and that could mobilise the masses in India.

Sticking to his principles, to a truth that he set out to discover, this was Gandhi's way and his most important message. He practised his idea to an extent that often surprised even friends and family members. When a nonviolent mass protest in some parts of India turned violent and police stations were burnt down, Gandhi called off the campaign immediately, against the will of Nehru and other important leaders of the Indian independence struggle: the means always had to conform with the aims. Gandhi's strongest message to India's colonisers was the so-called salt march to Dandi, a small coastal village in southern Gujarat where on his arrival in 1930 he produced a few grains of salt in contravention to colonial laws that monopolised salt production in the hands of the government. This symbolic action – by itself completely insignificant – highlighted the injustice of foreign rule

over India and most probably was the turning point in British imperialism as later historians observed.

Satyagraha as protest, non-cooperation with injustice and civil disobedience had another side for Gandhi: the constructive programme, building on alternative visions today while struggling against oppressive realities. In the Indian context this meant to share the simple lives of the poverty stricken masses, become self-reliant in production, reduce consumption and develop „ashram“ communities that would include persons belonging to different religions, castes and classes. The lawyer who a few years before had ironed his English suits turned into a „naked fakir“ as a contemporary journalist wrote about Gandhi. After Dandi, Sevagram, another village in the geographic heart of India, became the center of his activities and whoever wanted his advice had to consult him there. That this happened with much regularity showed the power of Gandhi's approach.

Satyagraha fascinated the international public, especially after the political disasters in Europe that had caused World War II. Soon the research done by Richard Gregg and Gene Sharp tried to outline the way that Gandhi's Satyagraha worked. Sharp was followed by Theodor Ebert in Germany and Jacques Semelin in France. All of them wanted to show how citizens can develop effective political power beyond constitutional means in order to confront injustice. After the experience with fascism in Germany and other countries these researchers were suspicious of charismatic leadership as a source of influence. Gandhi's work provided them with ample material to explore the potential for change that lies in taking over responsibility by citizens and their associations. They did not understand political power as an asset belonging to certain influential personalities only, but as a property owned by those who are concerned. They may hand over their power, or a part of it, to others – and they can withdraw their power from them again. Semelin showed how effective this was even against totalitarian systems like Nazi Germany. Gregg called this principle the „power of nonviolence“.

From now on, „active nonviolence“ became the key word for forms of action that were based on the idea of Satyagraha. Gandhi had perceived a close interrelation between ahimsa (non-injury) and Satyagraha. But already the War Resisters International (WRI) and the Fellowship of Reconciliation (IFOR), both international networks of peace organisations founded shortly after World War I, had referred to nonviolence as a principle beside peace and reconciliation – the latter term rarely being critically explored.

In the 1960ies the Norwegian peace researcher Johan Galtung, he himself in his young years impressed by the German occupation of Norway, published his thought about „violence“ as being a more comprehensive phenomenon than just physical violence involving a perpetrator and a victim. He linked violence to basic human needs and coined the term „structural violence“ . Thus Galtung provided the theoretical basis for reconciling peaceful means with struggle for justice. Hence „active nonviolence“ offered in the western debate a more convenient approach than Satyagraha: Gandhi's thinking often appeared to western activists too

strongly based on moral statements that they would not want to follow. „Active nonviolence“ inspired especially the life work of the Austrian IFOR-activist Hildegard Goss-Mayr and her French husband Jean Goss, a survivor of German concentration camps. Both gave significant inputs into Christian faith based peace and justice movements in Latin America and in the Philippines.

In Latin America it was the social question that had given birth to different militant movements, often supported by a leftist theology of liberation. Impoverished rural populations rose up against land holders and occupied land. These nonviolent struggles deeply influenced Hildegard Goss-Mayr's thinking who earlier on had helped in the foundation of the organisation Servicio Paz y Justicia (SERPAJ). She later described these experiences of the fight for liberation as a „gift of the poor to the rich“. The poor called on the inhabitants of the rich countries to accept this gift: becoming aware that a system based on economic growth and increased prosperity for a minority in the world was responsible for the domination of dictatorships, oppression and terrorism in dependent societies and needed to be changed fundamentally. According to her changes had to happen on the social as well as on the individual level.

Nobel Peace Price winner Adolfo Pérez Esquivel, coordinator of SERPAJ over many years, imprisoned and tortured by Latin American military dictators, criticised Latin America's liberation theology and European peace activists alike. He felt that the Christian Left had not sufficiently explored the effectiveness of non-violent means of struggle for justice that would include changes in the daily life of those involved in struggles. On the other hand European activists according to him were focussing too much on individual social issues and struggles, but not putting the whole social structure in question. He argued that „nonviolence is not passivity or conformism. It is spirit and method. It is prophetic spirit, because it condemns any split in the fellowship of brothers and sisters and declares that this fellowship can be restored only through love. And it is method – an organised series of breaches in the civil order, aimed at disrupting the system which is responsible for the injustice all around us.“

The US-American civil rights activist and Baptist pastor Martin Luther King Jr. was deeply influenced by Gandhi and yet re-interpreted Gandhi's experience into the context of the struggle against segregation laws in the USA as well as later, again US war policy, especially in Vietnam: „Peace is not when there are no tensions but when justice rules. Today, when in Montgomery the oppressed are rising and beginning to concern themselves with a lasting positive peace, this tension is necessary. That is also what Jesus meant with saying, 'I have not come to bring peace, but the sword.' „

For King who wanted to make „God's love which works in human hearts“ work, the following aspects formed the basis of active nonviolence:

- Nonviolent resistance is not a method for cowards – it does not mean passivity in the face of injustice.

- Nonviolence does not destroy or humiliate the opponent.
- Nonviolence is an attack on the powers of evil, not on people who do evil.
- Nonviolence includes the readiness to endure humiliation without taking revenge and without hitting back.
- One must not be drawn into violence either outwardly or inwardly.
- Active nonviolence emerges from the conviction that the universe is on the side of justice.

In the USA the theologian Thomas Merton demanded even more: „Anyone who offers nonviolent resistance must in reality dissociate himself from his own immediate interests and those of any particular group. He must devote himself to the defense of truth and justice and above all the defense of men and women. He does not simply want to get the upper hand or demonstrate that he is right and his opponents wrong, or to move them to fall in line so that they do what is required of them.“ Merton influenced a whole generation of activists like the brothers Daniel and Philip Berrigan as well as Carl Kibat. These people spent many years of their lives in US prisons because they led so called plow-share actions – according to the biblical „swords to plow-shares“: they broke into arms factories, destroyed nuclear war heads or made military strategy plans illegible by pouring blood over them.

In the Islamic tradition, submission to the will of an indivisible God is the basis of the reflection on civil disobedience and non-collaboration with injustice. Islamic Sufis (mystics) since the Middle Ages tried to „polish the mirror of Truth“, Truth being one of the names of God. They practiced a permanent process of critical questioning of their words, thoughts and actions – an approach that resembles very much Gandhi’s Satyagraha. Already in the 1930ies the Pathan Abdul Ghaffar Khan lead a nonviolent movement against colonial occupation in the northwestern provinces of British India. For some time they were able to liberate a zone around the town Peshawar (today in Pakistan). Abdul Ghaffar Khan, was called „Frontier - Gandhi“, however motivated his action from Quran and other Islamic sources.

The South African maulana Farid Esack – member of the national gender commission after the fall of the Apartheid system - refers to similar sources when he says that believers have the duty to confront those who are supporting injustice. In this line the Iraqian writer Khalid Kishtainy, exiled in London, calls for a „Muslim civil jihad“ that would „attempt to remove all injustices, corruption and depotism in the Islamic world without having to kill or destroy“. He, like the Thai Muslim Chaiwat Satha-Anand point out that jihad – often wrongly translated as „Holy War“ – in its most general meaning designates an effort or a struggle for righteousness and truth. Being derived from the Arabic root j-h-d, „making a serious effort, struggling“, jihad needs to be accompanied by a constant search of oneself, a process of self-purification. They and others argue that in modern times the concept jihad can not be used to justify violence.

The European peace movements of the 1980ies for the first time since the end of

World War II transgressed as a global movement the „iron curtain“ that separated the capitalist from the communist world. On both sides the movements studied Gandhi's and King's experiences, often with different emphasis, but always resulting in creative action. Likewise the anti-nuclear movements as in the German Wendland region (the „Gorleben conflict“) stimulated the further development of training methods for nonviolent direct action that had been initiated already in Gandhi's ashrams and in King's churches.

Initially as an independent line of history, in North America the methods of conflict management and mediation were developed, most famously by the Harvard Negotiation Project („Getting to Yes“). Discovering that some simple processes underlying conflicts between human beings can be turned around and used constructively to negotiate the interests involved in conflicts, the Harvard school popularised the mediation method that began to fascinate other than only dissident groups. Now it was interests, not needs like in Johan Galtung's thinking (Transcend method), that formed the basis of an approach to conflict.

Nonviolent activism and mainstream mediation, both of these worlds were not meeting much in the beginning, but then they did: activist-researchers like Diana Francis, John Paul Lederach or Norbert Ropers – some of whom earlier on had discovered mediation as an interesting approach – demanded new thinking about conflict. From their own experience they knew that conflict very often does not follow text books, realities being more complex and needing the insights from all these fields. Francis for example critically asked about the meaning of „win-win solutions“ in civil wars where genocides had occurred.

The more comprehensive approach that integrated much of the thinking done on conflict now is called Conflict Transformation: „... different processes and approaches that are needed to address conflict constructively in different contexts and at different levels, in the short term and the long term, including engagement in conflict as well as its management and resolution“ (Diana Francis). This provided the ground for a stronger social and institutional mainstreaming of working on conflict as it can be observed in several European countries where state actors or coalitions of state and civil society implement civilian based peace services.

However, the inspiration that Gandhi's Satyagraha radiates seems to be unbroken even after one century has passed since the incident in Pietermaritzburg. For example in southern Rwanda an initiative named Association Modest et Innocent (AMI) after two of their deceased founder members coined the term „La bonne puissance“ (the good power / force). These people are developing a concept and a practice of confronting genocide, justification of war and social marginalisation – and had to face repression by state authorities as well as pressure from the churches they belong to.

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Local Capacity Training (Basic Training and Training for Trainers)

- African Center for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD), South Africa: www.accord.org.za
- Association for Conflict Resolution (formerly SPIDR), USA: www.acrnet.org
- Austrian Study Center for Peace and Conflict Resolution (ASPR), Stadtschlaining, Austria: www.aspr.ac.at
- CDR Associates, USA: www.mediate.org
- Centre for Conflict Resolution (CCR), South Africa: <http://ccrweb.ccr.uct.ac.za>
- Centre for Training and Networking in Nonviolent Action (Bildungs- und Begegnungsstätte für gewaltfreie Aktion) KURVE WUSTROW e.V., Germany: www.kurviewustrow.org

Centre for Nonviolent Action, Sarajevo/Belgrade, BiH/Serbia: www.nenasilje.org
 Clingendael – Netherlands Institute of International Relations, NL: www.clingendael.nl
 Coverdale, worldwide: www.coverdale.com
 Creative Associates, USA: www.caii.com
 Educators for Social Responsibility, Cambridge, USA: www.esrnational.org
 Institute for Integrative Conflict Transformation and Peacebuilding (IICP), Austria: www.iicp.at
 Institute for Multi-track Diplomacy (IMTD), Washington, DC, USA: www.imtd.org
 International Alert, UK: www.international-alert.org
 InWEnt – Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung (Capacity Building International, Germany): www.inwent.org, especially the Global Campus at <http://www.gc21.de/ibt/GC21/opengc21/ibt/index.html>
 LEAP Confronting Conflict, UK: www.leaplinx.com
 Partners for Democratic Change, USA: www.partnersglobal.org
 Peace Action Training and Research Institute of Romania (PATRIR): www.patrir.ro
 Mercy Corps' Conflict Management Group, USA: www.cmgroup.org
 Nairobi Peace Initiative, Kenya: npi@africaonline.co.ke (contact)
 Nonviolent Peaceforce: www.nonviolentpeaceforce.org
 Public Conversations Project, USA: www.publicconversations.org
 Responding to Conflict, UK: www.respond.org
 Search for Common Ground, USA: www.sfcg.org
 and its European Center for Common Ground: www.sfcg.org/eccg.htm
 Transcend, USA: www.transcend.org
 Training for Change, Philadelphia, PE (USA): www.trainingforchange.org
 Vienna Conflict Management Partners, Austria: www.viennapartners.com
 West African Network for Peace-building (WANEP): www.wanep.org (contact: wanep@wanep.org)

Information Resources: Platforms, Networks and Research Centres

Alliance for Conflict Transformation (ACT), USA (membership network): <http://conflicttransformation.org>
 Associations and Resources for Conflict Management Skills (ACRA): www.peacetraining.org
 Berghof Research Center for Constructive Conflict Management, Berlin, Germany: www.berghof-center.org, with its Berghof Handbook for Conflict Transformation: www.berghof-handbook.net
 Berghof Foundation for Peace Support, Berlin, Germany: www.berghof-peace-support.org
 Coexistence Initiative, New York, USA: www.coexistence.net
 Collaborative for Development Action (CDA), Cambridge, USA – Reflecting on Peace Practice (RPP) and Local Capacities for Peace / “Do no harm” projects: www.cdainc.com
 Committee for Conflict Transformation Support (CCTS), formerly the Coordinating Committee for Conflict Resolution Training in Europe (CCCRTE) (1995-1997), UK: www.c-r.org/ccts
 Conciliation Resources (including the publication Accord Series), UK: www.c-r.org

Conflict, Development and Peace Network (CODEP), UK: www.codep.org.uk
 Conflict Resolution Consortium, University of Colorado at Boulder, USA: www.conflict.colorado.edu, including CR Info: www.crinfor.org
 Beyond Intractability: www.beyondintractability.org
 Conflict Resolution Network Canada: www.crnnetwork.ca (includes directories)
 European Center for Conflict Prevention, NL: www.conflict-prevention.net (includes directories; an updated version is available on CD-Rom and accessible on the web through www.gppac.net. Go to website, choose Network Directory (searchable by organisation's name, keyword (e.g. "training") and region/country)
 European Peace Liaison Office (EPLO), Brussels: www.eplo.org
 Plattform Zivile Konfliktbearbeitung, Germany: www.konfliktbearbeitung.de
 Peacemakers Trust, Canada: www.peacemakers.ca/education/educationlinks.html
 Peaceworkers, UK (now part of International Alert): www.peaceworkers.org.uk
 Reliefweb – Training Inventory: www.reliefweb.int/training/

Trainer-Pools

Action for Conflict Transformation Network (ACTION), established by Responding to Conflict in 2000, UK: www.action-global.org or www.respond.org
 BOND, UK: www.bond.org.uk/lte/index.htm (members network, focus on organisational development)
 Coexistence Initiative, New York, USA: www.coexistence.net
 Committee for Conflict Transformation Support (CCTS), formerly the Coordinating Committee for Conflict Resolution Training in Europe (CCCRTE) (1995-1997), UK: www.c.-r.org/ccts
 Conflict, Development and Peace Network (CODEP), UK: www.codep.org.uk
 Conflict Resolution Network, Australia: www.crnhq.org
 Conflict Resolution Network, Canada: www.crnnetwork.ca
 German agencies with expert pools for evaluation and possibly training: www.ifa.de/zivik; www.bmz.de; www.zif-berlin.org
 German trainer collective for non-violence training: www.tk-windrose.de (German only!)
 German trainer collective for nonviolent action and creative conflict resolution: <http://chdilg.gmxhome.de/> (German only!)
 Hague Development Collective, NL: www.thdc.nl
 International NGO Training and Research Centre (INTRAC), UK: www.intrac.org with (online) bulletin ONTRAC

Contact list:

This manual on conflict transformation is the product of a process by a consortium of partner organisations. In order to find out more about their programmes or to get in contact:

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Email: pdcs@pdcs.sk
www.pdcs.sk

Civilian Defence Research Centre

Via della Cellulosa, 112; 00166 Roma, Italy
Email: roma@pacedifesa.org
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International Fellowship of Reconciliation (IFOR)

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