

LAND USE PLANNING IN BRITISH COLUMBIA: AN
EVALUATION OF THE LILLOOET LAND
AND RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PLAN

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ABSTRACT

Planners increasingly rely on collaborative planning models that engage stakeholders to develop plans through consensus-based negotiations. While support for using collaborative planning models is growing, evaluation of their effectiveness is in its infancy. This paper reports on a case study evaluation of an innovative collaborative planning process to prepare a strategic land use plan for a region in British Columbia, Canada using a multiple criteria evaluation method. The study reveals that the collaborative planning process generated important benefits including improved relationships and understanding even though it did not result in consensus agreement on a plan. The outcome also shows that that the plan did not result in consensus because there was a lack of trust and commitment to the process that was reinforced by development of separate coalitions that developed their own competing plans.. In addition, an unrealistic timeline was imposed that led to a final offer selection process that reinforced the differences among stakeholders.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Approval.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Aknowledgements.....	iv
Table of contents.....	v
Abbreviations.....	vii
List of figures.....	iv
List of tables.....	x
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1. Introduction.....	1
2. Introduction to research study.....	2
2.1 Components.....	2
Chapter 2: Land Use Planning.....	5
1. Land use planning.....	5
1.1 The rise of public involvement in land use planning.....	5
1.2 Alternative methods in land use planning.....	6
1.3 The emergence of collaborative planning.....	7
2. Collaborative planning: Key concepts, strengths and weaknesses	8
2.1 Advantages of CP.....	8
2.2 Limitations and barriers.....	8
3. Evaluating collaborative planning.....	9
3.1 The importance of CP evaluation and its challenges.....	9
3.2 Existing cases of collaborative planning.....	10
3.3 Design for evaluation criteria.....	14
3.4 Process criteria.....	15
3.5 Outcome criteria.....	18
4. Conclusion.....	20
Chapter 3: Land Use Planning in British Columbia: The Land and Resource Management Plans.....	21
1. Introduction.....	21
2. Evolution of Land Use Planning in British Columbia.....	21
3. Land and Resource Management Planning.....	25
3.1 General principles.....	27
3.2 LRMP planning process.....	28
3.3 Information and participation.....	28
3.4 Process steps.....	30
3.5 Expected outcomes.....	36
4. Status of LRMP in British Columbia.....	36
4.1 Summary of LRMP Processes in British Columbia.....	38
Chapter 4: The Lillooet Land and Resource Management Plan.....	39

1. Case study region.....	39
2. Process development.....	40
3. A description of the two plans.....	44
4. Failure to reach consensus.....	45
5. LLRMP Negotiations from 2001 until now.....	47
Chapter 5: Research results.....	51
1. Introduction.....	51
2. Participant Survey.....	51
3. Process criteria.....	53
3.1 Goals and objectives.....	53
3.2 Representation	53
3.3 Participation and commitment to the process.....	54
3.4 Process elaboration.....	54
3.5 Ground rules.....	54
3.6 Balance of power and resources (time, funding, and training).....	55
3.7 Principled negotiation and respect among participants.....	55
3.8 Accountability to public and organization represented.....	56
3.9 Flexible, adaptive, creative process.....	56
3.10 High quality information: production, access and communication.....	56
3.11 Time limits.....	57
3.12 Implementation and monitoring.....	57
3.13 Effective process management.....	57
3.14 Independent facilitation.....	57
4. Outcome criteria.....	58
4.1 Process perceived as successful.....	58
4.2 Superior to other planning methods.....	59
4.3 Creative and innovative.....	59
4.4 Knowledge, understanding, and negotiation skills.....	59
4.5 Building relationships and social capital.....	59
4.6 Information sharing.....	60
4.7 Public interest.....	60
4.8 Understanding and support of share decision making (SDM) approaches.....	60
4.9 Second-order effects.....	61
4.10 Agreement.....	61
4.11 Conflict reduced.....	61
5. Importance of key factors in achieving a successful process and outcomes.....	62
6. General participant feedback.....	64
6.1 Most significant achievements.....	64
6.2 Who benefited the most.....	64
6.3 Key strengths of the process.....	65
6.4 Key weaknesses of the process.....	66
6.5 Suggestions for improvement of the process.....	67
6.6. Strengths of the methods used in the process.....	68
6.7 Suggestions to improve methods used in the process.....	69
6.8 Barriers to process implementation.....	70

6.9 Advices to future participants in collaborative processes.....	71
Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations.....	74
1. Evaluation of the Lillooet LRMP outcome criteria.....	74
2. Evaluation of the Lillooet LRMP process criteria.....	75
3. Recommendations.....	77
4. Why the process was not successful: additional reasons.....	79
4.1 Final offer selection approach.....	79
4.2 Government pressure and its consequences.....	80
5. Limitations.....	80
6. Conclusion.....	81
References.....	83
Appendix 1: Process criteria responses presented as percentages.....	89
Appendix 2: Outcome criteria responses presented as percentages.....	92
Appendix 3: Results for the survey for part D and E of the questionnaire.....	95

ABBREVIATIONS

ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
B.C.	: British Columbia
CORE	Commission on Resources and Environment
CP	Collaborative Planning
CRB	Lillooet Community Resources Board
LRMP	Land and Resource Management Planning
LLRMP	Lillooet Land and Resource Management Planning
MoF	Ministry of Forests
MSRM	: Ministry of Sustainable Resource Management
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
SDM	Share Decision-Making
THLB	Timber Harvesting Land Base

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Model for methodology.....	4
Figure 3.1: LRMP in the provincial land use framework.....	26
Figure 3.2: LRMP representatives according to groups and interests.....	29
Figure 3.3: Summary of the preliminary organization of the planning process.....	32
Figure 3.4: Summary of the second phase of the planning process.....	35
Figure 3.5: Status of Strategic Land Use Planning in British Columbia, 2005.....	37
Figures 4.1 Map of the Lillooet LRMP.....	49
Figure 4.2 Map of the Lillooet LRMP.....	50
Figure 5.1: Frequency responses for most significant achievements observed through the process.....	64
Figure 5.2: Frequency responses for most significant achievements observed through the process.....	65
Figure 5.3: Most frequently reported participants who benefited the most from the process.....	67
Figure 5.4: Frequency of responses for key strengths of the process.....	68
Figure 5.5: Frequency of responses for key weaknesses of the process.....	69
Figure 5.6: Most frequent suggestions for process improvements.....	70
Figure 5.7: Frequency of responses for strengths of the methods used in the process.....	71
Figure 5.8: Frequency of suggestions for improvements to the process methods.....	72
Figure 5.9: Most frequent responses for barriers to process implementation.....	73

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Common challenges and weaknesses found in CP.....	9
Table 2.2: Process and outcome criteria in collaborative initiatives.....	12
Table 2.3: Evaluation criteria.....	15
Table 2.4: Process criteria (14) for evaluating CP processes and descriptions.....	16
Table 2.5: Outcome criteria (8) for evaluating CP processes and descriptions.....	19
Table 3.1: Mandate of the Commission on Resources and Environment.....	22
Table 3.2: Main components of the Land Use Strategy.....	23
Table 3.3: Characteristics of the Land Use Strategy.....	24
Table 3.4: General Principles for the LRMP.....	27
Table 3.5: Information.....	30
Table 3.6: Process steps.....	30
Table 4.1: List of participants to the LLRMP.....	40
Table 4.2: Comparison between the CC plan and the CRTC plan.....	44
Table 4.3: Chronology of the Lillooet LRMP.....	48
Table 5.1: Number of responses received and total number of representatives at the table by sector.....	51
Table 5.2: Importance of key factors and criteria in achieving a successful process based on participants' perceptions.....	62
Table 6.1: Outcome criteria.....	75
Table 6.2: Process criteria.....	76

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

Technocratic planning is a model of planning that relies on experts to make decisions. Technocratic planning, the dominant model of planning in the 1960s, was heavily criticized for its failure to adequately incorporate values of stakeholders into the decision-making process (Wondolleck and Yaffee 2000; Gunton and Day 2003). From the 1970s to the beginning of the 1990s, researchers progressively developed an alternative model termed collaborative planning (CP) that attempts to address the deficiencies of technocratic planning by including stakeholders in the decision-making process (Susskind and Cruikshank 1987; Fisher et al. 1991; Selin and Chavez 1995; Innes 1996). In essence, CP transfers decision making from policy makers and scientists to stakeholders (Gunton and Day 2003). CP increases information sharing, improves trust among participants, and develops creative ideas and options that include all stakeholders' interests (Frame et al. 2004; Gunton and Day 2003; Innes 1996; Innes and Booher 1999; Frame 2002).

In Canada, only the province of British Columbia has systematically implemented CP approaches in land and resources planning (Frame 2002). During the 1980s, decisions in land use planning on provincial Crown land were usually taken by the Ministry of Forests (MoF) without any meaningful public participation in the decision process (Frame 2002). Therefore, conflicts between different user groups and the government remained unresolved throughout the decade.

In 1992, the government of British Columbia, established the Commission on Resources and Environment (CORE) to increase public and stakeholder participation in land use decisions, and to increase the number of protected areas in the province (B.C. CORE 1993). The objective was to produce an agreement that would incorporate the broad public interest (B.C. CORE 1995a; B.C. CORE 1995b). CORE was an ambitious initiative set to achieve sustainable land use planning in B.C. through CP (William et al. 1998).

Concurrent with CORE, the B.C. government initiated land use plans at the subregional level. These plans were called Land and Resource Management Plans (LRMPs) and they were managed by government ministries following the same collaborative principles used for CORE plans (Day et al. 2003).

To date, strategic land use plans cover over 80 percent of British Columbia. Twenty-one land use plans have been completed and a further four land use plans are in progress (B.C. MAL 2006). This study evaluates one of the land use plans: the Lillooet LRMP. The Lillooet Region is chosen as a case study for several reasons. First, the planning process is relatively recent thereby allowing for easy contact with stakeholders. Second, the region has a long history of resource conflict that provides a challenging environment for testing the effectiveness of collaborative planning. Third, the Lillooet Region is one of the few land use planning processes that failed to reach a consensus, or near consensus outcome (Frame et al. 2004). The only other processes that failed to reach consensus or near consensus are the four plans that were managed under a different process by the Commission on Resources and Environment (CORE) at the beginning of the collaborative planning experiment in the early 1990s. Consequently, analysis of the Lillooet process provides an opportunity to assess a unique outcome that will help identify factors which contribute to success and failure in collaborative planning.

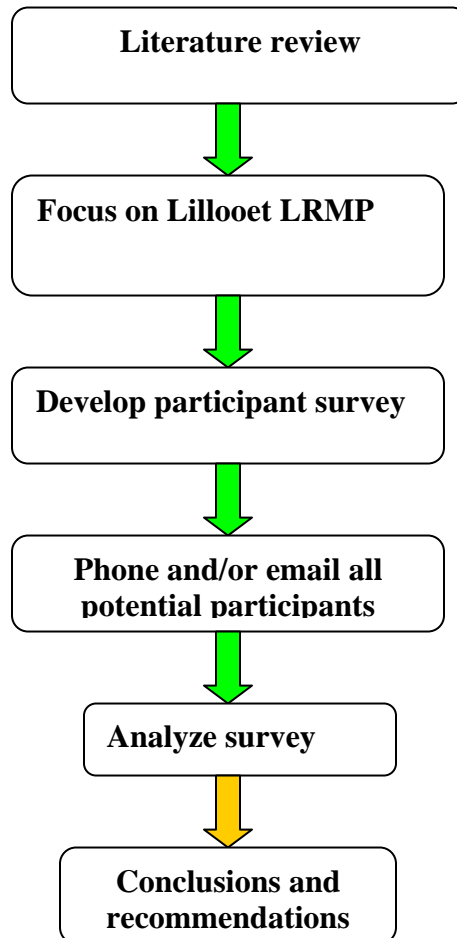
2. Introduction to the research study

2.1 Components

This research is divided in five parts. The first section covers the history of land use planning and the theory underlying CP. The second division deals with the evolution of land use planning in British Columbia. The history and the development of the Lillooet LRMP are presented in the third part. The fourth section evaluates the success of the Lillooet plan based on a survey of stakeholders involved in preparing the plan. The last chapter presents the study conclusions and the recommendations.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the success of CP in land use in British Columbia in terms of the strengths and weaknesses of this approach, and to make recommendations for future land use plans in the province based on the Lillooet LRMP experience. The study design is based on evaluation methods used in by Campbell and Floyd (1996), Innes and Booher (1999), Frame (2002), Frame et al. (2004). Figure 1.1 below describes the basic steps of the research methodology.

Figure 1.1: Study methodology



CHAPTER 2: LAND USE PLANNING

1. Land use planning

1.1 The rise of public involvement in land use planning

The dominant approach to planning prior to 1970 was the technocratic planning model, which was founded on experts making decisions based on scientific information (Wondolleck and Yaffee 2000; Gunton and Day 2003). However, starting in the 1960s, technocratic planning was challenged by an increasing number of conflicts between stakeholders over land use decisions. Demand for greater public participation in planning relegated scientific experts to a secondary role of providing analysis instead of making planning decisions (Gunton and Day 2003). Susskind et al. (2003: 40) describe this major shift in land and resource decision-making by noting that “. . . planners have become less concerned with the efficient allocation of land from a purely technical perspective and more concerned about fairness and the ways that land use allocations impact the quality of life for various groups.”

Since the 1960s, planners have tried to include socioeconomic, environmental, and political concerns in their negotiations over land use planning issues (Susskind et al. 2003). Critics of the former technocratic model emphasized different social and economic sectors that were largely ignored in the past. The public started to value tourism, recreational activities, cultural representations, wilderness, and protection (Wondolleck and Yaffee 2000). Slowly, land use planning shifted from resource extraction to global sustainability that includes economic, social, cultural, and ecological factors.

Beierle and Cayford (2003) identify three major reasons why increased public participation in land use decision processes is necessary in this planning environment. First, public values and preferences are diverse and can be better addressed through direct public involvement. Secondly, public input produces creative ideas, brings alternatives and solutions to achieve agreements, and improves the quality and durability of decisions.

Finally, public participation helps to build trust and respect among stakeholders through relevant and ongoing information sharing (Beirle and Cayford 2003).

1.2 Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR)

The increasing complexity of land use conflicts contributed to the development of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) (Crowfoot and Wondolleck 1990; Gunton and Day 2003). ADR is founded on the principle of stakeholders resolving conflicts by consensus based negotiation (Crowfoot and Wondolleck 1990). In ADR, “planners act as mediators to help stakeholders resolve conflicts in mutually constructive and beneficial ways” (Gunton and Day 2003: 7). Fisher et al. (1991) suggest four key points to negotiate successfully using ADR: separate the people from the problem; focus on interests, and not on positions; create inventive options for mutual gains; and use objective criteria to evaluate the success of the negotiation process. Finally, when parties involved in environmental disputes use alternative mechanisms such as negotiations, collaboration, and discussions, conflict and polarization can be greatly reduced and win-win consensus can replace win-loose situations (Koontz and Moore Johnson 2004).

ADR is increasingly integrated into environmental and land use planning programs involving private and public agencies, corporations, and nonprofit organizations and NGOs (Emerson et al. 2003). Advocates of ADR confirm that ADR seeks mutual gain rather than win-lose solutions or unsatisfying short-term compromises (Susskind and Cruikshank 1987; Gunton and Day 2003; Koontz and Moore Johnson 2004). Moreover, ADR allows adequate and broad public participation in environmental decisions and appears to produce more satisfactory and legitimate results at lower social and economic costs than lobbying, litigation processes, or technocratic planning (Emerson et al. 2003; Gunton and Day 2003). ADR is more likely to result in decisions that can be implemented because participants in a negotiation process are more likely to support consensus-based decisions (Gunton and Flynn 1992).

Although ADR has several significant advantages, it is not a panacea for all complex land use disputes and environmental conflicts (Gunton and Flynn 1992). For example, ADR does not always guarantee an equitable balance of power among all stakeholders (Manring 2004; Peterson et al. 2005). Furthermore, weaker groups may not be well represented and may have to deal with limited or insufficient resources such as financial and time constraints, training, experience, and negotiating skills (Gunton and Flynn 1992; Rutherford et al. 2005). A second potential drawback is that ADR is normally initiated to address existing disputes. Waiting for conflicts to emerge before initiating a multistakeholder negotiation process can reduce the effectiveness of mediation, especially when the problems at stake have worsened (Gunton and Flynn 1992). A third difficulty relates to the fact that an increased number of participants can also create greater organizational challenges (Koontz and Moore Johnson 2004). Hence, having a vast array of participants makes it more difficult to set long-term objectives, plan process steps and meetings, establish participants' roles and responsibilities, and achieve agreement.

1.3 The emergence of Collaborative Planning (CP)

During the 1980s, the public's perception of environment degradation and natural resources scarcity increased (Crowfoot and Wondolleck 1990). Henceforth, to capture social, cultural, economic, and ecological sustainability, more inclusive approaches to land use decisions were required (Frame 2002; Gunton and Day 2003). In the 1990s, CP emerged as the preferred model to resolve planning disputes in several countries (Gunton and Day 2003). CP acknowledges two crucial points: (1) that competing interests should be included in the planning process, and (2) that the outcome of such a process must address all these different interests by achieving an outcome acceptable to all participants (Gunton and Day 2003). Finally, the main difference between CP and more conventional participatory methods is that CP delegates the management of the planning process directly to stakeholders who participate in collaborative and continuous negotiations to reach acceptable consensus agreements (Gunton and Day 2003).

2. Collaborative Planning: Key Concepts, strengths and weaknesses

2.1 Advantages of CP

CP provides several advantages. First, CP increases the probability of achieving successful plan implementation because stakeholders are directly involved into the process and their interests, goals, and objectives are incorporated in the decision (Gunton and Day 2003). Consequently, stakeholders are more likely to support implementation. Secondly, the dynamic interaction of stakeholders is more likely to provide a plan that is in the public interest because more alternatives are generated and discussed and the plan is more likely to incorporate the public's values and objectives (Frame et al. 2004). The inclusion of sound scientific information in the process is guaranteed by the inclusion of experts as stakeholders in the process as well as support staff providing technical information (Gunton and Day 2003). Third, CP helps to build social capital, partnerships and trust among stakeholders, and improve participants' negotiating skills. Fourth, CP improves the legitimacy of land use decisions and decision-makers through a higher level of collaboration, communication, commitment, and information sharing (Weidmer 1998). Finally, even if consensus cannot be reached by stakeholders, CP can still improve the planning process by providing accurate information to all parties involved, better defining the scope of issues, insuring deeper understanding of other participants' perspectives, and exploring different potential creative solutions (Owen 98; Frame et al. 2004).

2.2 Limitations and barriers

Despite numerous advantages, CP also has potential limitations and barriers that may impede its performance (Crowfoot and Wondolleck 1990; Selin and Chavez 1995; Carr, Selin and Schett 1998; Susskind et al. 2000; Wondolleck and Yaffe 2000; Margerum 2002; Coglianesi 2003; Susskind et al. 2003; Gunton and Day 2003; Browning-Aiken et al. 2004; Frame et al. 2004; Peterson et al. 2005). Based on previous studies presented by Frame (2002), Gunton and Day (2003), and Peterson et al. (2005), table 2.1 presents a list of the common challenges and weaknesses inherent in CP.

Table 2.1: Common challenges and weaknesses found in CP

Issues relating to power sharing and decision making	Although CP represents the most collaborative process to resolve environmental disputes, power imbalances and hierarchical relationships among stakeholders can still occur and give more powerful groups an unfair advantage. Less powerful groups may simply withdraw from the process.
Lack of flexibility within the institutions	Individuals and institutions can be resilient to change due to an old and/or conservative approach.
Greater polarization among stakeholders	In a climate of mistrust, tensions, and miscommunication, polarization among participants can occur.
Quality of agreement reached	Consensus decision rules can lead parties to agree only on second-best or vague solutions when stakeholders cannot reach the best possible agreement.
Adequate public representation	Allowing a narrow array of stakeholders may fail to consider interests and issues considered pivotal by the general public. The problem is that small groups of stakeholders may not represent the interests of all the population.
Exclusion of scientific concerns	Relying on stakeholders that have minimal training in scientific principles may lead to exclusion of important scientific information in the decision process, thus resulting in poor decisions.

Source: Frame 2002, Gunton and Day 2003, and Peterson et al. 2005.

3. Evaluating Collaborative Planning Processes

3.1 The importance of CP evaluation and its challenges

CP evaluation can help identify strengths and weaknesses of collaborative initiatives, and assess the quality of the process using specific process and outcome criteria (Moote, McClaran, and Chickering 1997; Frame et al. 2004). Before asserting that CP is a better way of resolving environmental and land use disputes, comprehensive empirical evaluations of numerous case studies where CP has been used are required. Moreover, the evaluation process must go beyond simple classification of a CP initiative as a success or a failure. The evaluation process is also an attempt to continuously improve collaborative approaches (Bingham et al. 2003).

Evaluating CP processes can be a challenging task for several reasons. First, it is not possible to observe and compare a collaborative initiative and a noncollaborative initiative in a control group environment where all other variables are held constant (Gunton and Day 2003). Secondly, each environmental and land use dispute is unique in terms of issues at stake, stakeholders' groups, and organizational structures (Connick and Innes 2003). Consequently, it is impossible to isolate the affects of CP on planning outcomes. In addition, it can be difficult to determine where and when the process starts and ends, and which positive and negative outcomes resulted from it (Frame et al. 2004). Thirdly, collaborative processes are lengthy, usually taking several years to complete, with no guarantee that a consensus based agreement will be reached at the end of the negotiations (Gunton and Day 2003; Frame et al. 2004). Therefore, evaluation of collaborative processes must be long-term to be accurate (Bingham et al. 2003; Connick and Innes 2003).

3.2 Existing cases of collaborative planning

An increasing body of literature on collaborative approaches in environmental and land use planning is progressively emerging. Nonetheless, there is still no common evaluation methodology for CP. Published evaluations include surveys or interviews, direct observation, and document analysis to assess participation and success of the process (Moote et al. 1997; Frame 2002; Browning-Aiken et al. 2004; Rutherford et al. 2005). Some of the most important CP evaluation cases are summarized in this section.

Moote et al. (1997) present the case of an environmental dispute that occurred in 1992 in the San Pedro River River in southern Arizona. The conflict emerged when a planning agency tried to acquire riparian lands along the river without consulting the local communities. Citizens from the region “claimed that the planning process for the local resource management plan had not given them adequate input to the acquisition decision and threatened a lawsuit to force the agency to address their concerns” (Moote et al. 1997: 881). In response, the agency decided to adopt a more participatory approach by

including four democratic rules: decision making by consensus, participant commitment to the process, participation of all interested parties, and expressing interests and needs, not positions. Despite a tangible attempt to include broad stakeholders' involvement in the planning process, consensus was not reached. The authors draw two lessons from this case study. First, providing public forums does not in itself ensure that decisions will be acceptable to all participants. Second, a lack of communication and information sharing added to a lack of organizational structure (schedule, meetings, participants' roles and responsibilities, etc.) can hinder negotiation processes (Moote et al. 1997).

In another study, Selin et al. (2000) evaluate thirty collaborative processes initiated by the United States Forest Service. Mailed surveys were sent to active participants in each process ($N = 647$) to assess stakeholders' perception of process and outcome achievement for collaborative initiatives. According to the authors, the most important outcome criteria cited by the respondents are enhanced resource sharing, better communication, reduced polarization, better interagency coordination, and achieving initial goals.

Hawkes (1996) presents an evaluation of one of the first successful comanagement agreements in Canada: the Gwaii Haanas Agreement. The dispute was over the fact that the federal government and the Council of the Haida Nation have both claimed jurisdiction over the archipelago since the early nineties (Hawkes 1996). Finally, in 1993 an agreement between both parties was reached to share responsibility and comanagement over resources in the region. The overall assessment indicates that most of the evaluative criteria (ecological and cultural values, shared quality information, adaptability and responsiveness of the process, clear process rules, and stakeholders' roles and responsibilities) were met through the negotiation process (Hawkes 1996). The main flaws are unclear time limits and absence of feedback mechanism if the parties fail to reach a mutually acceptable solution.

Connick and Innes (2003) document the evaluation of three cases of water policy making in California using process and outcome criteria for collaborative initiatives. These

criteria are summarized in the table 2.2 below (Connick and Innes 2003: 180-181). After collecting results from interviews with active participants, the authors note that most of the criteria were successfully met in the three California case studies.

Table 2.2: Process and outcome criteria in collaborative initiatives

<p>Process criteria</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Representation of all relevant interests · Process driven by a practical purpose · Process encourages challenges to assumptions and to develop creativity · Participants learn and interact · Integration of high-quality information · Search for consensus decision making after all issues, interests, and alternatives have been expressed
<p>Outcome criteria</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Building of social and political capital · End of stalemate · Development of high-quality agreements · Innovation and learning beyond the original positions held by stakeholders · Adaptive institutions and practices

Source: adapted from Connick and Innes 2003

Mascarenhas and Scarce (2004) completed a comprehensive study of forest land process evaluations in B.C. Focusing on the theory underlying consensus-based decision making, in-depth interviews were conducted with respondents from B.C. that were previously involved in planning processes or land-use issues. The study identifies three key criteria to achieve successful consensus-based decision making. These are: adequate representation of all relevant interests, effective information sharing, and consensus decision making (Mascarenhas and Scarce 2004).

Schuett et al. (2001) assess participants' attitudes about CP. A questionnaire was sent to 647 active participants in 30 collaborative initiatives (Schuett et al. 2001). The results show that key factors to achieving successful process outcome include clear and specific

purposes, ground rules, and representation from all affected parties. Other factors such as adequate preparatory work, sufficient time allocated for negotiations, realistic agendas, continuous exchange of quality information, development of social capital and trust among parties, and adequate financial and technical resources are also identified as crucial features.

Frame et al. (2004) evaluate 19 collaborative processes in British Columbia. Process and outcome criteria were developed and tested using a comprehensive survey. These authors find that in most case studies an agreement is reached (15 of 19; 79%) and full consensus is obtained in 12 tables (63%). Moreover, 62% of the respondents are satisfied with the outcome and perceive the overall process as successful (Frame et al. 2004). The authors also observe that 69% of the respondents consider that the outcome of the process serve the public interest. Support for CP is very high: 96% of stakeholders state that they are fully committed to the process and 88% are convinced that CP is the best way to meet their objectives (Frame et al. 2004). However, improvement on time limits, social capital, power balance, accountability, and access to resources and to high-quality information need to be addressed in future collaborative processes (Frame et al. 2004).

Lafon et al. (2004) study the impact of active and passive participation through CP on stakeholders' knowledge about black bears and wildlife management. The authors mailed a questionnaire to all participants ($N=683$) and they conducted interviews with active participants ($N=15$) at the end of the process. Based on their survey and interview results, they report an important increase in knowledge concerning black bears and their management, a higher tolerance and a better understanding of other people's opinions, and improved relationships among participants (Lafon et al. 2004). These facts are more obvious among active participants. Passive participants increased their knowledge about black bear issues, but they did not feel that all interest groups should be incorporated in a collaborative process in order to gain greater input in decision making (Lafon et al. 2004).

Koontz and Moore Johnson (2004) evaluate the quality of collaborative initiatives involving watershed groups in the state of Ohio. They conducted surveys and focus group interviews with most of the watershed groups in the state, to identify the most common and important results obtained at the end of the process. The authors underline “the development and maintenance of the group, education and outreach, increase political awareness, networking, plan development, and policy change” as significant accomplishments (Lafon et al. 2004:191).

Finally, Rutherford et al. (2005) present a study of the Eastern Scotian Shelf Integrated Management (ESSIM) project where federal, provincial, and municipal agencies, aboriginal and coastal communities, and ocean industry stakeholders are competing for ocean space marine resources. The ESSIM initiative is a CP process with multistakeholder and government engagement (Rutherford et al. 2005). Although this integrated ocean management initiative is still under development, the authors identify several key elements to make the ESSIM initiative effective and durable. These include “a clear statement of purpose, shared vision and goals, principles and approaches enshrined in a clear plan, environmental, social and cultural, economic, and institutional sustainability, and ongoing monitoring” (Rutherford et al. 2005:81-82).

3.3 Design for evaluation criteria

The development of a common set of criteria to evaluate the performance and success of collaborative initiatives is emerging in the literature (Moote et al. 1997; Schuett et al. 2001; Todd 2001; Frame 2002; Margerum 2002; Connick and Innes 2003; Albert et al. 2003, Gunton and Day 2003; Frame et al. 2004). According to Gunton and Day (2003) there are four key evaluation criteria (table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Evaluation criteria

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Reaching acceptable agreements for all involved and affected parties2. Quality and durability of the collaborative process3. Stakeholders' overall satisfaction with the collaborative process and the outcome4. Building of social capital, improved relationships, development of negotiation skills, and increased knowledge |
|---|

Source: Gunton and Day 2003

The evaluative framework proposed in the present study is based on a literature review of CP evaluation completed by Frame (2002). Outcome and process criteria defined by Frame (2002) are included in the framework. These criteria can serve as a guide to design future CP processes. This framework was used and tested by Frame (2002) and Frame et al. (2004) in assessing land use planning in British Columbia. The same approach is used for the present research concerning the Lillooet LRMP.

3.4 Process criteria

Process criteria are defined in various ways. Moote et al. (1997) design process evaluation criteria to assess public participation in collaborative planning criteria based on efficiency, representation and access, information exchange and learning, continuity of participation, and decision-making authority. Innes and Booher (1999) present similar evaluative process criteria, with an emphasis on purposes, goals and tasks, developing creative ideas, and consensus aspects of the collaborative process. Margerum (2002) investigates the importance of political, technical, and financial support of the process to facilitate negotiations. Finally, Frame (2002) presents a comprehensive list of process criteria, based on previous evaluative frameworks (table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Process Criteria for Evaluating the LLRMP Process

Criteria and Descriptions	
1. Purpose and Incentives: A process is driven by a shared purpose and provides incentives to participate, and to work towards consensus.	The process is driven by a purpose and goals that are practical, and shared by the group. Parties believe that a consensus process, in contrast to traditional ones, offers the best opportunity for addressing the issues. To value a consensus process above all others requires an informed understanding of consensus processes and a realistic view of available alternatives or their BATNA (best alternative to a negotiated agreement). Participants share a sense of urgency with respect to settling the dispute and this urgency provides incentive to participate and reach agreement.
2. Inclusive Representation: All parties with a significant interest in the issues and outcomes are involved throughout a process.	Representation includes: parties affected by or who have an interest in any agreement reached, those parties needed to successfully implement an agreement or who could undermine one if they are not involved in the process (particularly nonactivist, nonaligned members of the public), and appropriate government authorities. Those members representing similar interests form a caucus or coalition in order to maintain a manageable number of participants in the process. There are clear provisions to add parties to the process as appropriate.
3. Voluntary Participation: Affected or interested parties participate voluntarily and are committed to the process.	All parties are supportive of the process and committed to invest the time and resources necessary to make it work. Participants remain free to pursue other avenues if the consensus process does not address their interests; the possible departure of any key participant presses all parties to ensure that the process fairly incorporates all interests.
4. Self Design: The parties involved work together to design a process to suit the individual needs of that process and its participants.	A process is self-organizing, and allows participants to customize ground rules, objectives, tasks, working groups, and discussion topics to meet the circumstances and needs of the specific situation. All parties have an equal opportunity to participate in designing a process. An impartial person may suggest options for process design, but ultimate control over the mandate, agenda, and issues comes from participants themselves.
5. Clear Ground Rules: As a process is initiated, a comprehensive procedural framework is established including clear terms of reference and ground rules.	Clear terms of reference and ground rules are to be established including: scope and mandate; participant roles, responsibilities, and authority, including process management roles and responsibilities; code of conduct; definition of “consensus”; a dispute settlement process; use of subgroups; clear media and public outreach policy; and a “fallback mechanism”. It is important to allow for adaptation and flexibility.
6. Equal Opportunity and Resources: A process provides for equal and balanced opportunity for effective participation of all parties.	All parties are able to participate effectively in a consensus process. To promote an open, fair, and equitable process where power is balanced among participants, consideration is given to the provision of: training on consensus processes and negotiating skills, adequate and fair access to all relevant information and expertise, and resources for all participants to participate meaningfully.

<p>7. Principled Negotiation and Respect: A process operates according to the conditions of principled negotiation including mutual respect, trust, and understanding.</p>
<p>Participants demonstrate acceptance of, understanding of, and respect for the legitimacy, diverse values, interests, and knowledge of the parties involved in the consensus process. Active, respectful dialogue provides the opportunity for all participants to better understand one another's diverse interests and knowledge, fosters trust and openness, and allows participants to move beyond bargaining over positions to explore their underlying interests and needs.</p>
<p>8. Accountability: The process and its participants are accountable to the broader public, to their constituents, and to the process itself.</p>
<p>Participants are accountable to the process that they have agreed to establish. Participants representing groups or organizations maintain communication with, are empowered by, and speak effectively for the interests they represent. The public is kept informed on the development and outcome of the process, and mechanisms are in place to ensure that interests of the broader public are represented in a process and its final agreement.</p>
<p>9. Flexible, Adaptive, Creative: Flexibility is designed into the process to allow for adaptation and creativity in problem solving.</p>
<p>The process is designed to be flexible. Feedback is continually incorporated into the process such that it can evolve as the parties become more familiar with the issues, the process, and each other, and to accommodate changing circumstances. The process addresses problems in new and different ways by fostering an open, flexible, comprehensive, and integrated problem-solving environment that allows for creative thinking and adaptive management.</p>
<p>10. High-Quality Information: A process incorporates high-quality information into decision-making.</p>
<p>A process provides participants with sufficient, appropriate, accurate, and timely information, along with the expertise and tools to incorporate it into decision making.</p>
<p>11. Time Limits: Realistic milestones and deadlines are established and managed throughout a process.</p>
<p>Clear and reasonable time limits for work completion and results reporting are established. It is apparent that unless parties reach an agreement, someone else will impose a decision. Milestones are established throughout a process to focus and energize the parties, marshal key resources, and mark progress towards consensus. Milestones provide participants with positive feedback that the process is working. Sufficient flexibility, however, is necessary to embrace shifts or changes in timing.</p>
<p>12. Implementation and Monitoring: A process and final agreement include clear commitments to implementation and monitoring.</p>
<p>A process fosters a sense of responsibility, ownership, and commitment to implement the outcome. A final agreement includes a commitment and plan for implementing the outcome of the process, including mechanisms to monitor implementation and deal with problems that may arise.</p>
<p>13. Effective Process Management: A process is coordinated and managed effectively and in a neutral manner.</p>

While participants themselves may perform process management duties, a neutral process staff is helpful in ensuring effective process management while minimizing participant burnout. A process is managed effectively by providing: a project/process plan and managing its execution; skilled coordination and communication; information management; appropriate meeting facilities; records of meetings, decisions, and action items; and support to ensure participants receive the resources required to participate effectively. An independent and neutral process staff can be used to conduct prenegotiation assessment to gather information, identify potential participants, and determine if a SDM process is appropriate.

14. Independent Facilitation: A process uses an independent, trained facilitator throughout the process.

A trained, independent facilitator acceptable to all parties is used throughout the process to assist the parties in reaching an agreement. The facilitator helps parties feel comfortable and respected, understand and communicate underlying interests, and balance power by ensuring equal opportunity for participants to voice their needs and concerns. The facilitator demonstrates neutrality on issues and with parties, communicative competence, general knowledge, and a basic understanding of the issues. In some instances there may be overlap between this criterion and effective process management criterion depending on the specific approach taken in different processes and the roles of process managers, staff, and facilitators.

Source: McGee 2006: 33-35

3.5 Outcome criteria

Eight outcome criteria based on Innes and Booher (1999a); Innes and Booher (1999b) and Frame (2002) are developed to evaluate the LRMP process (see table 2.5 below). It is not necessary to achieve all the outcome criteria. Clearly, producing more positive outcomes is better than only achieving a few. However, in any individual case, some specific outcome criteria may be of greater importance than others (Innes and Booher 1999b).

Table 2.5: Outcome criteria (11) for evaluating CP processes and descriptions

Outcome criteria and description
1. Perceived as Successful
Stakeholders perceive a process as successful. Participants are satisfied with the outcomes of a process and view their involvement as a positive experience.
2. Agreement
A process reaches a high-quality agreement that meets the interests of, and is acceptable to, all stakeholders. An agreement is implementable, feasible, stable, flexible, and adaptive. Where consensus agreement is not reached, the outcome of a process ends stalemate and allows parties to move forward without a formal agreement.
3. Conflict Reduced
A process and its outcomes reduce conflict over the issues it addresses.
4. Superior to Other Methods
A process is superior to other planning or decision methods in terms of costs and benefits. Costs include time and resources for process support and management, and participation for all parties. Benefits include the positive outcomes of the process.
5. Creative and Innovative
A process produces creative ideas for action. Innovative ideas are tested and learned from. Ideas that are not successfully implemented can provide opportunities for learning and growth and help change ways of thinking that led to a conflict.
6. Knowledge, Understanding, and Skills
Stakeholders gain knowledge, understanding, and skills by participating in a process. Stakeholders understand more about the issues and other stakeholders' interests and viewpoints. Stakeholders gain new or improved skills by participating in a process, such as communication, negotiation, consensus building, data analysis, or decision-making skills.
7. Relationships and Social Capital
A process creates new personal and working relationships, and social capital among participants. A process develops a network of relationships among diverse parties that allows for continued information exchange, understanding, cooperation, and trust.
8. Information
Through joint fact-finding the process produces improved data, information, and analyses (such as facts, inventories, models, forecasts, histories, or analytical tools) that stakeholders understand and accept as accurate. The information is shared by others beyond the immediate group and is useful to participants and others for purposes outside of a process.
9. Second-Order Effects

A process has second-order effects that include changes in behaviours and actions, spin-off partnerships, umbrella groups, collaborative activities, new practices, or new institutions. Participants work together on issues or projects outside of the process.

10. Public Interest

Outcomes are regarded as just and serve the common good or public interest and not just those of participants in the process.

11. Understanding and Support of SDM

A process results in increased understanding of SDM approaches and participants support the future use of SDM approaches. In the future, participants are more likely to make fewer unilateral decisions where collaboration could be more effective. A positive experience with SDM encourages a new generation of people with skills and interest in SDM processes.

Source: McGee 2006: 37-38

4. Conclusion

The literature reviewed in this chapter confirms that CP has strengths and weaknesses and achievement of success is contingent on meeting key management criteria. Although there is a growing body of research evaluating CP., there is a consensus among analysts that more evaluative research is required. Based on the literature, an evaluative framework is outlined to evaluate the case study of the Lillooet LRMP.

CHAPTER 3: LAND USE PLANNING IN BRITISH COLUMBIA: LAND AND RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PLANS

1. Introduction

British Columbia possesses a rich natural capital distributed in many different climatic zones (B.C. 2001). The province is blessed with vast and extraordinary resources. However, pressures on land and resources from competing interest groups (forestry, mining, tourism, agriculture, parks and recreation, conservation, and human development) have significantly increased over the last three decades (B.C. 2001). Increasing conflicts, coupled with the failure of the traditional scientific planning approach, led the province to adopt an innovative method to resource management based on CP (Frame 2002).

This chapter describes the evolution of land use planning in British Columbia. It then describes the general principles of strategic land use planning and its policy framework, including steps in the process, information exchange, stakeholder participation, and expected outcomes. Finally, it presents a discussion on the status of the LRMP process in the province.

2. Evolution of land use planning in British Columbia: the need for change

Technocratic land use planning where experts make decisions based on scientific information often fails to incorporate the public interest and can create an environment of mistrust, miscommunication, and misunderstanding (Wondolleck 1988; Penrose et al. 1998; Frame 2002). During the 1980s, following important shifts in environmental, resources and land use planning, it became evident that technocratic planning techniques that were used in B.C. were not representing adequately the complexity of environmental and land use conflicts, thus often leaving stakeholder groups unsatisfied with the proposed outcomes (Penrose et al. 1998).

Government efforts to reduce and manage the escalation of land use disputes were ineffective due to a lack of coordination between government ministries and limited public input (Owen 1998; Frame 2002). The publication of the Brundtland report had a strong influence in B.C. According to CORE, “The (Bruntland) report articulated many of the concerns being raised in land use debates in B.C. and contributed to the public demands that the government act more forcefully to develop cooperative arrangements involving the public in land-use decisions affecting their communities” (B.C. CORE 1995b: 17).

Following the publication of the Brundtland report, the B.C. government decided to develop more collaborative initiatives to support public involvement and improve stakeholders’ representation in land use and environmental disputes (B.C. CORE 1995a; B.C. CORE 1995b). In 1992, the government established the Commission on Resources and Environment (CORE) to give to the public and stakeholders a greater role in land use and environmental planning (B.C. 2001). The mandate of CORE is summarized in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Mandate of the Commission on Resources and Environment

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Develop a land use strategy for the management of land, resources, and the environment.2. Facilitate the development and implementation of regional planning processes, collaborative and community based processes, and a system for resolving land use disputes and environmental issues in B.C.3. Ensure effective resource and environmental management by facilitating coordination between government ministries and agencies and encouraging participation of Aboriginal communities.4. Incorporate social/cultural, economic, and environmental interests in land use planning through collaborative work with all parties (aboriginal communities, government agencies and ministries, local associations, etc).

Source: B.C. CORE 1993

In 1994, a land use strategy was developed by CORE. The strategy was designed to develop a sustainable future for the province, improve stakeholders’ participation, and

develop an effective dispute resolution approach. The main components of the strategy are summarized in the table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Main components of the Land Use Strategy

Process orientation	Provide direction on principles, policies, and land use goals and objectives that determine social, economic, and environmental sustainability.
Participants' integration	Facilitate integration of all affected and interested parties and incorporate all public interests and issues in the process.
Government coordination	Improve coordination and collaboration among different levels of government ministries and agencies to develop a comprehensive and collaborative decision-making process.
Monitoring	Monitor the performance of the planning process to ensure fairness, effectiveness, decision-makers' accountability, and to make the necessary changes when needed (adaptive and flexible management).
Dispute resolution	Encourage public participation in land use and resource and environmental planning.

Source: B.C. CORE 1994a; B.C. CORE 1994b

The CORE strategy provided stakeholders with the opportunity to participate voluntarily and directly in the planning process. The objective was to incorporate the broad public interest into decision-making over land, resource, and environmental issues (Frame 2002; B.C. CORE 1995b). The characteristics of the strategic planning process are summarized in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3: Characteristics of the Land Use Strategy

Direction-setting	Establish vision, goals, objectives for a particular area, and identify solutions for achieving these goals and objectives.
Inclusiveness	Support inclusion and understanding of all interests among affected groups.
Comprehensive (holistic approach)	Integrate and balance social, cultural, institutional, economic, environmental objectives.
Importance of issues	Focus on key issues and most appropriate (acceptable) solutions to these issues.
Flexibility and adaptability	Can readjust quickly and make necessary changes to reach consensus based agreement and ensure adequate monitoring.

Source: B.C. CORE 1994a

The new CP model was used for the first time to develop regional planning processes for the most controversial and disputed areas throughout the province. These include: Vancouver Island, Cariboo-Chilcotin, and Kootenay Regions (Frame 2002; Day et al. 2003).

Despite the eventual adoption of strategic regional land use plans for Vancouver Island, Cariboo-Chilcotin, and Kootenay Regions, consensus agreement had not been reached. Penrose et al. (1998) identified several weaknesses that hindered the negotiations: formation of coalitions (industry versus conservation groups, local groups versus outsiders), lack of resources and policy support from the provincial government, insufficient and inadequate training, lack of preparation and information, unclear terms of reference provided by government, failure to address issues in a comprehensive and integrative way, lack of creative solutions, and miscommunication and mistrust among participants (Penrose et al. 1998).

In 1996, the numerous difficulties led to the end of the CORE. Nonetheless, CORE experiences in the Cariboo-Chilcotin region provided some constructive lessons for strategic land use planning (Williams et al. 1998). For example, if full agreement cannot be reached, efforts of participants can still inform, influence, and improve the decision-making process by identifying problems, discussing possible alternatives, and building good working relationships among participants (Owen 1998).

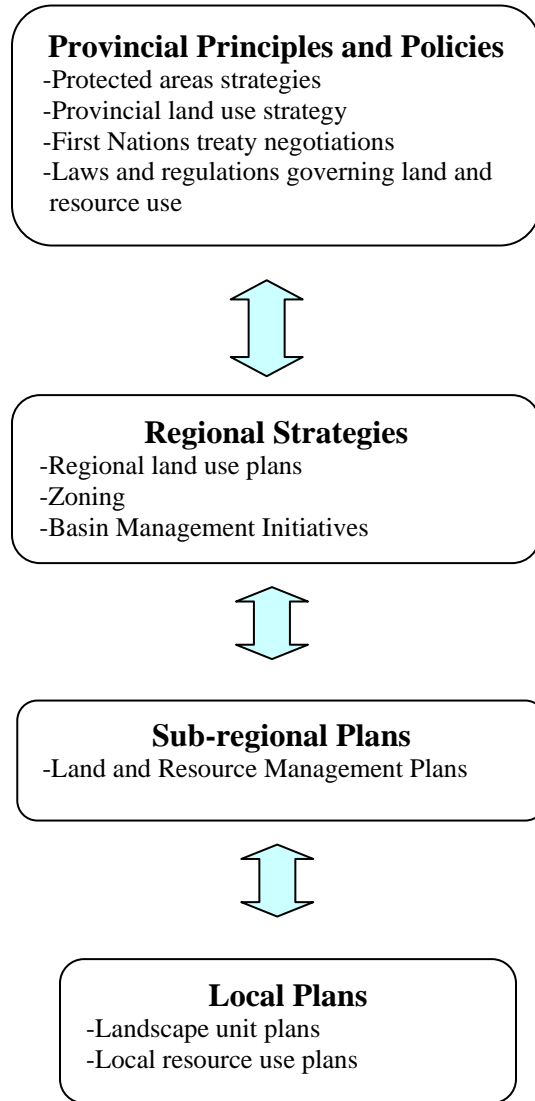
Thus, there was a common understanding that the CORE principles were crucial in dispute resolution. Based on this experience, the B.C. government expanded a concurrent land use planning process managed by government ministries: the LRMP (Frame 2002; Day et al. 2003).

3. Land and resource management planning

The province of British Columbia defined LRMP planning as an integrated, subregional, process based on consensus building (B.C. IRPC 1993). When consensus over land use is reached by the stakeholders, a strategic plan is produced by the table members for approval by government representatives.

The LRMPs help to establish goals, objectives, and strategies for land use and resource management (B.C. IRPC 1993). According to Frame (2002), these plans constitute a form of integrative planning at the subregional level that addresses social, economic, and ecological values simultaneously. Figure 3.1 shows the place of LRMP in the provincial land use framework.

Figure 3.1: LRMP in the provincial land use framework



Source : B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002

3.1 General principles

General principles guiding the LRMP process are summarized in table 3.4. Key principles include open public participation, participation of all stakeholders' interests, participation of cabinet, ministries, and aboriginal people, and consensus based decision-making (B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002).

Table 3.4: General Principles for the LRMP

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. LRMP is guided by provincial policies and collaboratively approved regional plans.2. Land and Resource Management Plans provide direction for more detailed resource planning by government ministries and agencies, local government, and also the private sector.3. All resource values are considered in the LRMP process to ensure that land use and resource management decisions are based on a comprehensive assessment of resource and environmental values.4. Public participation is required in each LRMP. The general public, aboriginal people and government agencies negotiate an agreement on the goals, objectives and methods of public participation at the beginning of each LRMP project.5. Aboriginal people are encouraged to actively and directly participate in LRMP to ensure that decisions are sensitive to their interests, and also to make sure that the LRMP process is consistent with the recognition of aboriginal title and rights.6. LRMP is based on resource sustainability and integrated resource management, which means that final agreements must meet economic, environmental, social, and institutional long-term objectives.7. The objective is to reach consensus on final decisions and make acceptable recommendations for all parties.8. LRMP projects are prepared within the constraints of available information, funding, training, human resources, and time. These parameters must be considered in the initial phase of each collaborative initiative.9. The goal of the LRMP process is to present a recommended consensus agreement to the B.C. government. If a consensus agreement is not possible, decision makers must be presented with options for land and resource management.
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10. Plans must be flexible and adaptive.

Source: B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002

3.2 LRMP planning process

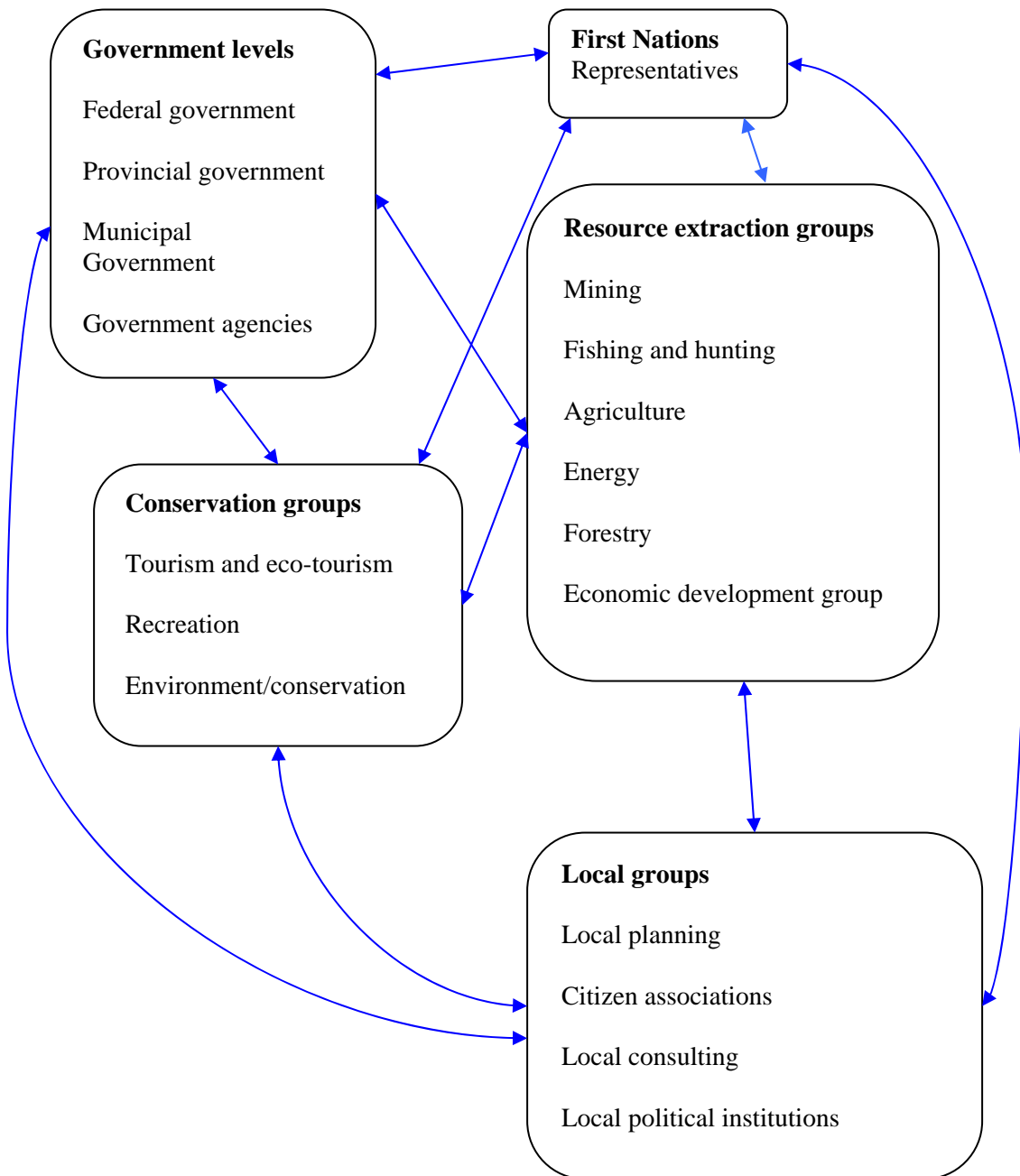
LRMP provides management direction for all Crown land including provincial forest areas (B.C. 1996). The LRMP boundaries are delimited by geographic features, socioeconomic considerations, and administrative areas. Plans generally cover an area varying between 15 000 and 25 000 square kilometers and are flexible to suit the characteristics and needs of each project, particularly in less developed and populated areas in the province (B.C. 1996).

3.3 Information and participation

The success of the LRMP process depends heavily on the quality and availability of shared information among participants. Moreover, all parties with a key interest in the planning process must be invited to participate on the planning process (B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002). Public participation objectives change according to the project. Public participation is required at all stages in the process.

Additionally, participating groups identify a person to the “planning table” to represent them during negotiations (Brown 1996; B.C. 1996). Representatives must reflect the complexity of all resource interests for a specific area. Typical participants in an LRMP process are presented below in figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: LRMP representatives according to groups and interests



Source: adapted from Frame 2002

Information processes related to LRMPs are discussed in table 3.5 below. The arrows in figure 3.2 indicate that all stakeholders exchange information on an ongoing basis and work in a collaborative manner in an effort to achieve consensus-based agreement. All

interest groups participate actively in the process and their goals, objectives, and interests are taken into account and understood by all table members.

Table 3.5: Information

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LRMP relies heavily on available information. Information deficiencies can be a reason for postponing an LRMP project. Prior to commencing an LRMP, government agencies should identify critical information deficiencies and conduct appropriate inventories. • The interagency planning team co-ordinates all analyses to ensure efficiency and quality control, and to manage information gaps. • Local knowledge is an important information resource in LRMP and participants should take steps to use this information. • Participants should review information issues. They should reach an agreement based on information management within the resource, time, and financial limitations of the project.

Source: B.C. 1996

3.4 Process steps

LRMP processes are intended to be completed over several years. The process steps and their planning products are described in table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6: Process steps

PROCESS STEPS	PLANNING PRODUCTS
<p>1. Preliminary organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set regional priorities • Identify agency commitments • Appoint and train interagency planning team • Contact public stakeholders • Identify preliminary issues and planning area 	<p>Agreement to make plan</p>

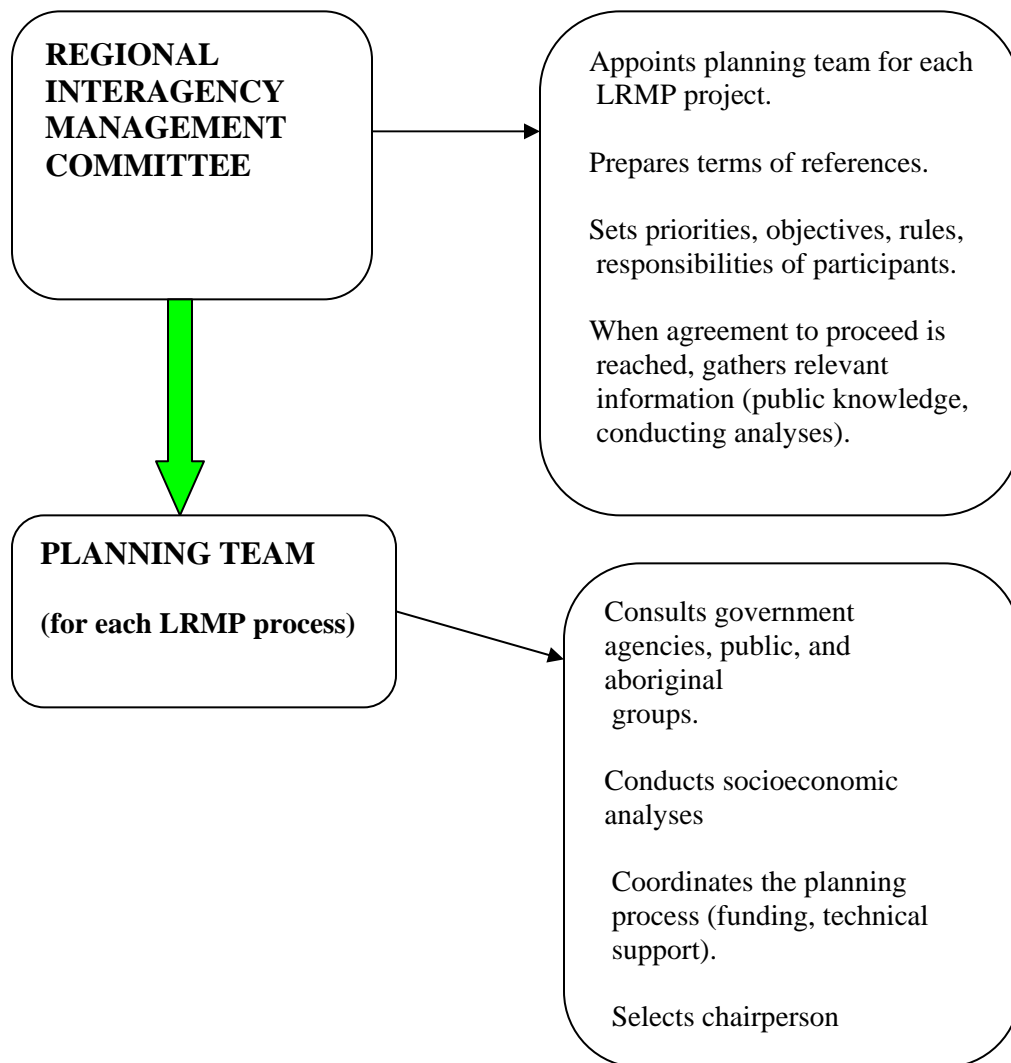
<p>2. Information assembly and analysis</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe issues and links to other processes • Assemble resource inventories • Conduct resource analysis 	<p>Resource information reports Analytical reports Recommendations</p>
<p>3. Plan development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Define resources unit boundaries • Develop management objectives and strategies • Identify management scenarios • Analyze and assess impacts of scenarios 	<p>Land use zones Management strategies Alternatives for testing</p>
<p>4. Building an agreement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strive for consensus on management direction or agree on a range of options 	<p>Consensus report or option report</p>
<p>5. Approval</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submit consensus report or options report for approval • Prepare final plans based on approval 	<p>Final plan</p>
<p>6. Implementation</p>	
<p>7. Monitoring and review</p>	<p>Monitoring report, research reports</p>
<p>8. Amendment</p>	<p>Amended plan</p>

Source: B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002

The preliminary organization of the planning process focuses on establishing the regional interagency management committee to appoint the planning team for each LRMP project (B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002). The planning team, which is drawn from provincial agencies, and potentially federal, local, and First Nations representatives, must coordinate the planning process, including funding and technical support (Frame 2002). At this point, a chairperson is selected to run the meetings in an effective manner.

The planning team consults agencies, public, and aboriginal groups to initiate discussions about their expected participation in the process (B.C. 1996). It is then recommended that participants in the planning table receive adequate training on negotiation techniques provided by government (B.C. CORE 1993). When stakeholders agree to participate to the LRMP process, terms of reference are established by the management committee to set the priorities and objectives, and the roles and responsibilities of the table members (Frame 2002). This preliminary organization is summarized in figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Summary of the preliminary organization of the planning process



Source: adapted from B.C. IRPC 1993; Frame 2002

The second phase involves additional information analysis. Local knowledge should be identified and used by participants (B.C. 1996). Moreover, socioeconomic analysis is undertaken by the technical planning team to assist stakeholders in developing the land use plan.

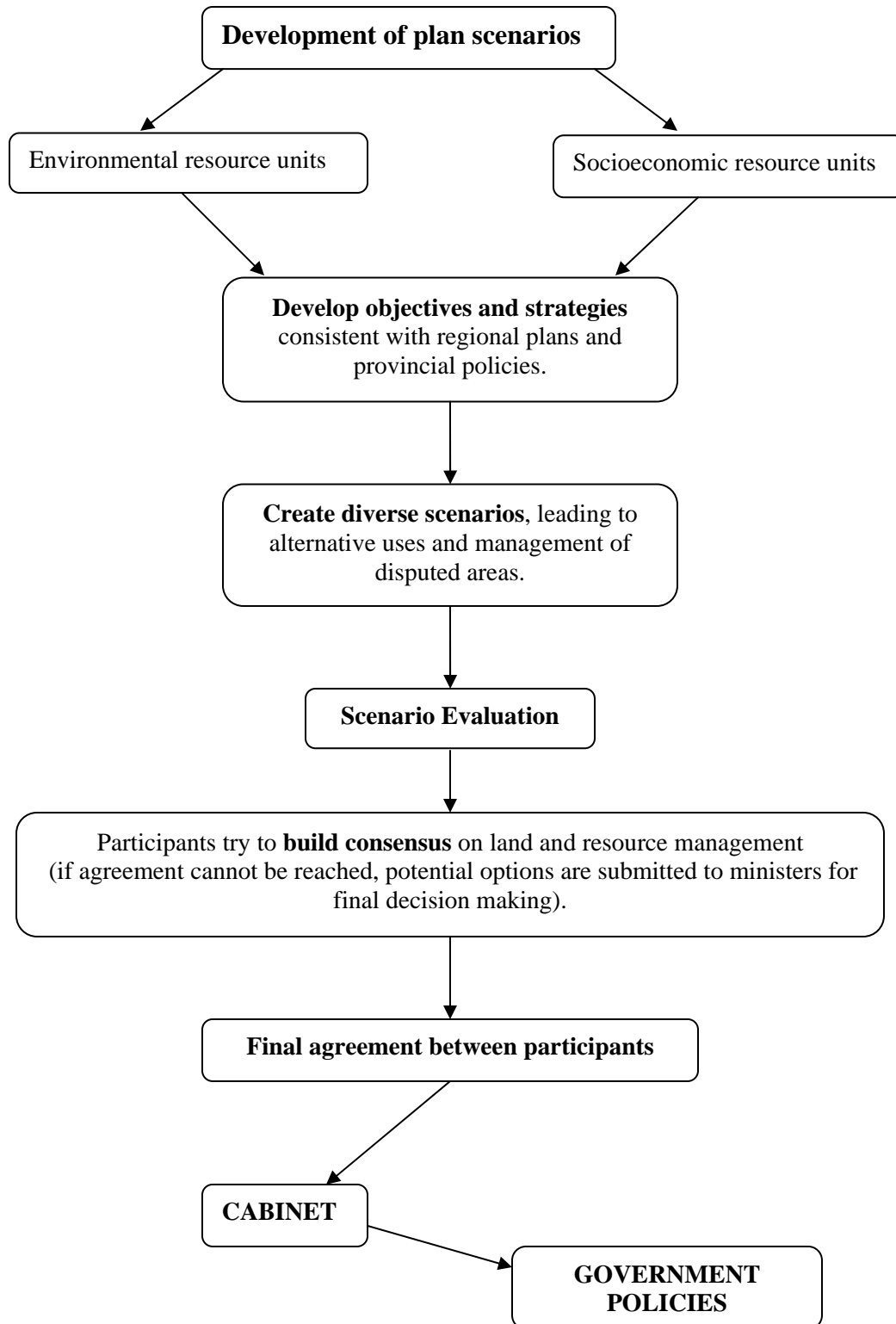
The development of plan scenarios divides the planning area into resource units based on environmental and socioeconomic characteristics (B.C. CORE 1993). This phase provides participants with the opportunity to reach consensus over compatible and disputed resource uses. For each resource unit and also for the overall planning area, resource management objectives and strategies that are consistent with regional plans and provincial policies are determined (B.C. CORE 1993; Frame 2002). Strategies and objectives developed by participants for resource units may create several scenarios to focus on alternative uses and management of disputed areas (Frame 2002).

Participants evaluate the different scenarios based on environmental, economic, and social considerations (B.C. 1996). Following evaluation, stakeholders try to build consensus on a management plan. To build consensus, participants identify areas of general agreement, and then try to negotiate on areas of disagreement (Frame 2002). The consensus plan must include components of previous scenarios to explain how consensus was developed, before approval by the Cabinet. If consensus cannot be reached, participants prepare a report with all the possible options and present it to cabinet for final decision (Frame 2002).

When a land use plan is accepted by Cabinet, it becomes government policy. Resource managers of agencies with the legislative mandate for the programs guided by a LRMP are responsible for implementing the plan (B.C. 1996). More detailed resource plans may be integrated into an approved LRMP. Furthermore, some land use issues may not be considered as provincial jurisdiction, requiring the agreement of federal, regional, or local governments (Haddock 2001; Frame 2002).

Every year, agencies involved in the process must prepare a monitoring report that assesses progress in implementing the LRMP for the interagency committee (B.C. CORE 1993). This report includes a review of approved programs and a summary of plans and initiatives complying with the LRMP. The monitoring report also includes areas of nonconformance, public comments, and related issues (Frame 2002). Finally, the LRMP must undergo a major review within eight years after approval of the plan (B.C. 1996). Public participation and agencies are required to propose and coordinate amendments of the Land and Resource Management Plan, if necessary. At the end, only Cabinet can approve the amendments (B.C. 1996; Frame 2002). A summary of the LRMP process is provided in figure 3.4 below.

Figure 3.4: Summary of the second phase of the planning process



Source: adapted from B.C. CORE 1993; B.C. 1996; Frame 2002

3.5 Expected outcomes

The final outcome of the LRMP process is an approved plan providing general guidelines for the management of resources (B.C. 1996; Frame 2002). Plans usually vary according to their specific areas and jurisdictions (Brown 1996). Strategic land use products should include description of the biophysical and socioeconomic characteristics of the area being planned, goals and objectives for the management of lands and resources, proposed land allocation, identification of environmental, social, and economic issues (problems and opportunities), and implementation and monitoring measures (Brown 1996; Frame 2002). In order to address the specific interests of all stakeholders, land use zones are divided in different categories, such as protected areas, integrated resource management zones, special management zones, and agriculture/settlement zones. Following the organization of the land use plan, an evaluation of plan impacts and a socioeconomic and environmental strategy is presented to assess the long- and short-term impacts on communities, land and resources, and also to find solutions to reduce these impacts (Haddock 2001; Frame 2002). In addition, the LRMP process educates local residents and involved agencies about their land and resources and also promotes long-term public participation in sustainable resource management (B.C. 1996).

4. Status of LRMP in British Columbia

The status of Land and Resource Management Planning in the province is presented (geographically) in figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: Status of Strategic Land Use Planning in British Columbia, 2006



Strategic Land Use Plans Approved:	80%
* Regional Plans Completed:	21%
* LRMPs Completed and Approved:	59%
LRMPs Underway:	5%

Source: B.C. ILMB 2006

4.1 Summary of LRMP Processes in British Columbia

Over the last decade, LRMP has continuously evolved and played a central role in sustainable resource management (Frame 2002). Planning methods are changing, reflecting the complexity of social and economic values expressed by diverse stakeholders. Following the implementation of LRMPs, protected areas have doubled, increasing from 6% to over 12% in British Columbia (B.C. 2001; Frame 2002). Land use designation under LRMP has taken into account the social, economic, and ecological needs and demands of communities. The inclusion of a broad range of interests increases communication and social capital among parties involved in the process. LRMPs facilitate collection and sharing of relevant information before and during the negotiation process between the public, stakeholder groups, agencies, and various levels of government (Frame 2002).

CHAPTER 4: THE LILLOOET LAND AND RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PLAN

1. Case Study Region

The region chosen for the detailed case study is the Lillooet Region in the interior of British Columbia. The Lillooet Region is chosen as a case study for several reasons. First, the planning process is relatively recent, allowing for easy contact with stakeholders. Second, the region has a long history of resource conflicts that provides a challenging environment for testing the effectiveness of collaborative planning. Third, the Lillooet Region is one of the few land use planning processes that failed to reach a consensus, or near consensus, outcome (Frame et al. 2004). The only other processes that failed to do so are the four plans that were managed under a different process by the Commission on Resources and Environment (CORE) at the beginning of the collaborative planning experiment in the early 1990s. Consequently, analysis of the Lillooet process provides an opportunity to assess a unique outcome that will help identify factors which contribute to success and failure in collaborative planning.

The Lillooet Region is about 1.1-million hectares and straddles the boundary between wet Coastal Mountains and dry Interior Plateau. The region is rugged with a relief exceeding 2,800 meters between the highest point—Skilhist Mountain (2,944 meters asl)—and its lowest point—Lytton (140 meters). One-third of the region is above the tree line and half is forested. The study area is dissected by several major rivers including the Fraser and Thompson. About 96% of the area is Crown land administered by the province, with the remaining 4% equally divided between Indian reserves and private land (B.C. MRSM 2004a; B.C. MSRM 2004b).

The region has a population of 6,500 residents, half of whom have First Nations ancestors. The largest population centers are: Lillooet (2,700) and Lytton (334). By percent of total employment, the main economic sectors in the region are: government (38%), forestry (19%), tourism (15%), agriculture (12%), and mining (2%) (B.C. MSRM

2004a). The major planning issues in the region are allocation and management of Crown land among competing sectors and jurisdictional control and ownership of land between First Nations and the provincial government.

2. Process development

The decision to commence the Lillooet planning process was announced by the provincial government in November 1995 and a planning table comprised of thirty-four members representing government, resource extraction, environment and recreation, and other stakeholders was formed to prepare a plan. There were also four professional support staff, a facilitator, and ten alternate members chosen to represent their constituency group if the primary representative was unavailable to attend. Although the process included a First Nations advisory group and one of twenty-eight First Nations band attended planning table meetings, First Nations did not participate in the process as members of the planning table. The mining sector withdrew from the Lillooet land use plan in 1999, two years before the completion of the plan (Waterer 2001; Mou 2003). The mining industry felt that they could not achieve their goals and objectives going through collaborative approaches. Thus, the Lillooet plan was developed without one of the main regional parties.

The final planning table composition included local and outside interests or sectors, government representatives, and process support staff (see table 4.1 below).

Table 4.1: List of participants to the LLRMP

Name	Group/Organization
Santokh Attwal	IWA Canada
Phil Belliveau	B.C. Environment – Ministry of Environment, Lands & Parks
Brad Bennett	Ainsworth Lumber Co Ltd.
Kevan Bracewell	(alternate) Commercial Backcountry Tourism
Jim Britton	Ministry of Energy and Mines
Jack Carradice	B.C. Wildlife Federation
John Cartwright	(alternate) B.C. Wildlife Federation
John Courchesne	Lillooet District Community Resources Board

Karl Delling	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
Greg Dixon	J.S. Jones Timber Ltd.
Sue Duxbury	(alternate) Four Wheel Drive Association of B.C.
John Edgar	Four Wheel Drive Association of B.C.
Rob Gowan	Ministry of Small Business, Tourism & Culture
Mike Hanry	B.C. Parks – Ministry of Environment, Lands & Parks
Dawna Harden	(alternate) Ministry of Forests
Jim Hesse	Forest Renewal B.C. – Thompson-Okanagan Region
Earl Holley	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
Dave Horne	Ministry of Forests
Linda Hume	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
Michael Kennedy	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
John Leighton	Federation of Cottage Owners
Jay MacArthur	Federation of B.C. Mountain Clubs
Bruce Madu	(alternate) Ministry of Energy and Mines
Sheila McLean	Squamish-Lillooet Regional District
Barry Menhinick	(alternate) South Chilcotin Wilderness Society
Desiree Mou	(alternate) Outdoor Recreation Council of B.C.
Tom Nichols	Sierra Club of B.C.
Mike Nikkel	Lillooet District Community Resources Board (Chair)
Russ Oakley	Squamish-Lillooet Regional District & Director of Electoral Area A
Chris O'Connor	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
Andre Panteleyev	Subsurface Resources Representative
Dennis Perry	South Chilcotin Wilderness Society
Jacque Rasmussen	Ministry of Forests (Range)
Jim Richardson	Ministry of Transportation & Highways
Bill Spencer	Lillooet District Community Resources Board (Vice-Chair)
Graham Strachan	Ministry of Agriculture & Food
Don Sturgess	(alternate) Federation of Cottage Owners
Kevin Taylor	Squamish-Lillooet Regional District, Mayor of Lillooet
Bill Wareham	(alternate) Sierra Club of B.C.
Sylvia Waterer	Commercial Backcountry Tourism
Dean Watts	Fisheries & Oceans Canada
Betty Weaver	Lillooet District Community Resources Board
Norma Wilson	Outdoor Recreation Council of B.C.
Brian Wood	(alternate) Federation of B.C. Mountain Clubs

Support staff

Name	Group/Organization
Marc Imus	Process Coordinator, Land Use Coordination Office
Susan Omelchuk	Chair - Data Management Team, Ministry of Forests
Bruce Walter	Process Coordinator, Ministry of Forests
Phil Whitfield	Program Manager, Inter-Agency Management Committee

Source: B.C. ILMB 2001

In the beginning of 1997, the B.C. government asked the members of the Community Resource Board and all other interested parties from different sectors to join the first LRMP meeting and determine how to proceed (Mou 2003). At the end of the meeting, tensions between groups representing different sectors became apparent, and some parties chose to withdraw from the negotiation process. The remaining participants attended regular meetings from March to June of the same year and also received training in ‘interested-based negotiation’ and ‘consensus decision-making’ (Mou 2003). By June 1997, the participants accepted a terms of reference produced by the CRB that would give the general directions and expected outcomes of the negotiation process. The LRMP table decided to adopt a “phase approach” with phase 1 to develop recommendations on the main land use management issues, and phase 2 to finalize management decisions and establish strategies to implement the plan (B.C. MSRM 2004a). The table members met every month for one day and a half to two days over the next four years (B.C. 1997; Mou 2003). Finally, in October 2000, the B.C. government gave a March 2001 completion deadline to the stakeholders involved in the LRMP to complete the first phase of the plan. March 2002 was the deadline established for the second phase.

Although terms of reference had been accepted by the initial LRMP table, polarization between participant groups started to emerge through summer 1998 when a subset of the table, a group of local people calling themselves the ‘Whole Earth Group’, came up with their own land use proposal (Mou 2003). At the same time a conservation and recreation group proposed their sector plan to the table as well. The Whole Earth Group suggested a different approach to planning, by trusting all participants and by considering all participants’ interests on the same level. A few months later, a timber proposal was

presented by a third group representing this resource sector. All participants then decided to work toward a single plan, incorporating elements of the three proposals with a new focus on protected areas. During the following months, the table continued to hold meetings to work on different scenarios that would satisfy all participants. The different parties were far from reaching a consensus and this situation led two CRB members (from the conservation sector) to resign from the LLRMP (Mou 2003). Differences between the conservation and the industry sectors became more apparent.

In October 2000, the B.C. government gave a March 2001 completion deadline to the planning table to complete the first phase of the plan. In an effort to meet the deadline, the planning table tried to develop a plan acceptable to all stakeholders through intensive negotiating sessions using a two-phase approach. Phase one was to develop recommendations on the main land use management issues; phase two was to finalize management decisions and establish strategies to implement the plan (B.C. MSRM 2004a). Two different plans were established during these sessions: one from the resource extraction group and one from the conservation/recreation group. One week before the deadline, stakeholders agreed that consensus on one plan was not possible (Mou 2003).

This impasse led the stakeholders to accept a “final offer selection” process. This process meant that each of the two groups would propose its final plan to the B.C. government in the form of an offer (Mou 2003). Consequently, the Lillooet LRMP table submitted two separate land use scenarios to the B.C. government. The first scenario was proposed by the coalition of Lillooet communities (CC) and the second by the conservation, recreation, tourism, and community group (CRTC). Both plans were similar at the end when they were submitted to the provincial government. The main differences were on the percentage of land deferrals and the percentage of timber harvesting land base (THLB) and protected areas.

3. A description of the two plans

The two plans had a similar structure, including a summary of the main objectives, strategies and motivations, maps, and some background information on the Lillooet area. Protected areas, resource management zones, deferral areas (areas where development cannot take place until detailed planning is proposed), and provincial strategies were considered the main elements of each plan (Mou 2003). Mou (2003) provides a useful table (see table 4.1 below) indicating the differences between the CC plan and the CRTC plan.

Table 4.2: Comparison between the CC plan and the CRTC plan

		Communities Coalition Plan (CC)	Conservation, Recreation, Tourism, Community Plan (CRTC)
ZONES			
Protected Areas	New Protected Areas: (% Plan Area)	5.7%	8.8%
	(% THLB)	4.3%	7.3%
	Total Protected Areas, including existing. (% Plan Area)	15.6%	18.8%
Resource Management Zones	Number of zones: % Plan Area:	10 zones 38.3%	11 zones 38.9%
Deferral Areas	Category 1 (Short-term)	6 areas – 2.6%	3 areas – 1.8%
	Category 2 (Longer-term) % Plan Area	3 areas – 2.2%	2 areas – 1.3%
	Total Deferral Area (% Plan Area)	4.8%	3.1%
Other Deferrals	First Nations Deferral	-	1 area – 0.2%
Other Zones	Community Forest Tenure	3 areas proposed	-

	Areas		
STRATEGIES			
	Grizzly Bear	8000 ha (2.7% THLB)	8000 ha (2.7% THLB)
	Riparian Forest Cover	3000 ha (1.0% THLB)	4000 ha (1.35% THLB)
	Mule Deer Winter Range	6000 ha (2.0% THLB)	6000 ha (2.0% THLB)
	Spotted Owls	1000 ha (0.3% THLB)	1000 ha (0.35% THLB)
	Totals	18000 ha (6% THLB)	19000 ha (6.4% THLB)

Source: Mou 2003

From the beginning of the negotiations, it was clear the amount of land designated as protected areas (parks and ecological reserves) would constitute a sensitive issue between the two groups (Mou 2003). The difference between the two plans in proposed protected areas is small. In fact, the main contentious issue resides in the land designation of the South Chilcotin Mountains area, also known as Spruce Lake. Based on the CRTC plan, the core protected area in Spruce Lake reaches 6.3% compared to 3.8% for the CC plan. Additionally, the CRTC plan includes a protected buffer zone adjacent to the core protected area, and the CC plan allows long-term industrial development in the adjacent zone. Concerning the deferral areas, the CC plan proposes six areas and the CRTC plan includes three areas. The main difference resides in the fact that the CRTC plan supports long-term deferral areas and the CC plan favors short-term deferral areas in order to facilitate industrial development in these areas (Mou 2003). The CRTC plan is not opposed to resource extraction activities; it simply defers development until specific and structured planning is established for managing the area. Another crucial difference is based on the fact that only the CRTC plan suggests a First Nation Deferral. Hence, for one specific area, the plan included a 10-year period to the B.C. government and the First Nations to resolve their issues (Mou 2003). The CC plan does not include a First Nations Deferral, but it proposes three areas for forest communities.

According to Enemark and Robinson (2001), the CC plan and CRTC plan have different impacts on the resource extraction industry. As described by Mou (2003): “The forest industry faces a minimum 14.5% THLB reduction with the CRTC plan and a maximum 10.8% THLB reduction with the CC plan. Mining has access to 81.2% of the plan area

with the CRTC plan, while it has access to 84.4% with the CC plan. In terms of jobs, the CC plan will place a maximum of 2% of the plan area employment at risk in thirty years, compared with the CRTC plan which places 4% of the overall plan area employment at risk by that time.” (Mou 2003: 58).

4. Failure to reach consensus

The richness of the natural resources in the region led conservationists and resource and land developers to increase their understanding of each other. Although deadlines were established, extensions were granted most of the time. Some improvement was made but consensus was never reached. It seemed that a full land use plan was not achievable. There were clear divisions between local and outside interest groups. They had divergent views over the issue of protected areas. Furthermore, the rural-urban dichotomy in the Lillooet area generated tension between rural and urban cultures (Mou 2003). Rural communities favored small scale and community development; urban group favored large scale expansive development.

In addition, the fact that First Nations did not actively participate in the process (until 2001), and that the mining industry withdrew from the process, weakened the inclusiveness of stakeholders’ representation. Understandably, the outcome did not include the interests and values of these two important groups (Mou 2003).

In April 2001, the government approved the CRTC plan. However, following the 2001 provincial elections, the new Liberal government cancelled the previous New Democratic Party government land use decision concerning the Lillooet Region. The original plan created 14 protected areas, brought certainty for resource-based industries and supported economic diversification (Waterer 2001). The strength of this plan was that it was part of a consensus among table members who spent more than five years negotiating. The government decision to override the first land use decision was highly criticized by participants and the general public. The decision was quite surprising due to the enormous amount of resources and time invested in the LLRMP by participants.

5. LLRMP Negotiations from 2001 until now

The government decision to override the first land use decision was based on the fact that the decision had been taken just before the provincial elections and that the new government should not be bound by this decision (Dogwood initiative 2004).

Furthermore, the government did not accept the decision because consultation processes with First Nations were not included in the previous LLRMP negotiations. Based on the actual legal Canadian context, Aboriginal rights and title continue to exist in the province (St'am'imc Chiefs Council 2004a). Thus, the government said it would complete a new land use draft plan with First Nations consultation to fulfill its legal obligations and also to develop a plan that balances all interests (Dogwood initiative 2004)..

At the time the government was still developing a new land use plan for Lillooet, the St'am'imc Nation, whose territories cover most of the Lillooet area, released their own draft land use plan (St'am'imc Chiefs Council 2004a; St'am'imc Chiefs Council 2004b) to open the door to government-to-government negotiations between the St'am'imc Land and Resource Authority (accountable to the St'am'imc Chiefs Council) and the province. The draft land use plan presented the *'St'am'imc Vision and Principles through a St'am'imc ecosystem-based planning process'* ((St'am'imc Chiefs Council 2004a). The main land designations were: water protection areas, cultural protection areas, natural habitat protection areas, environmentally sensitive areas, community economic development, and restoration areas (St'am'imc Chiefs Council 2004c).

In July 2004, the provincial government completed its review of the previous LLRMP, and released a new draft plan for discussion with First Nations and stakeholders (B.C. MSRM 2004a). The review of the LLRMP took three years to complete. However, soon after the new land use plan for Lillooet was released, the St'am'imc Chiefs Council said that it would not support the government and community land use plan. Some decisions about land use in the reviewed plan were viewed as 'not consistent' with the draft land use plan submitted by the St'am'imc Chiefs Council to the provincial government (Dogwood Initiative July 27, 2004); St'am'imc Chiefs Council July 30,

2004). Currently (March 2007), negotiations between the province and the St'am'imc Nation are still underway. In conclusion, the Lillooet LRMP started over a decade ago and today, the process is still far from reaching consensus. It is not clear when the negotiations will end. The stages in the planning process are summarized in table 4.3. The following chapter presents a discussion on the results from the survey distributed to the LLRMP participants.

Table 4.3: Chronology of the Lillooet LRMP

The B.C. NDP government announces Lillooet LRMP process.	November 1995
Lillooet LRMP commences.	June 1996
Provincial government gave March 2001 as a completion deadline for the first phase of the Lillooet LRMP and March 2002 for the second phase.	October 2000
Participants failed to reach consensus after more than four years of negotiations on a single plan. They submitted two plans to the provincial government.	March 2001
Provincial NDP government approves the second scenario (from conservation, recreation, and tourism and community group).	April 2001
New Liberal provincial government announced its intention to override the previous government land use decision and requests Ministry of Sustainable Resource Management to complete the LRMP.	November 2001
Provincial government releases draft LRMP for consultation with First Nations and announces that there are issues, including consultation with First Nations, that must be resolved prior to a final Cabinet decision.	July 2004
Provincial government signs protocol with First Nations to commence government-to-government negotiations on land use planning and other matters in Lillooet Region.	June 2004 to present (February 2007)

Figure 4.1: Map of the Lillooet LRMP (see next page)

LILLOOET LRMP - Plan Area



	Lakes
	Parks and Ecological Reserves
	Roads-Major
	Roads-Minor
	Railways
	Rivers

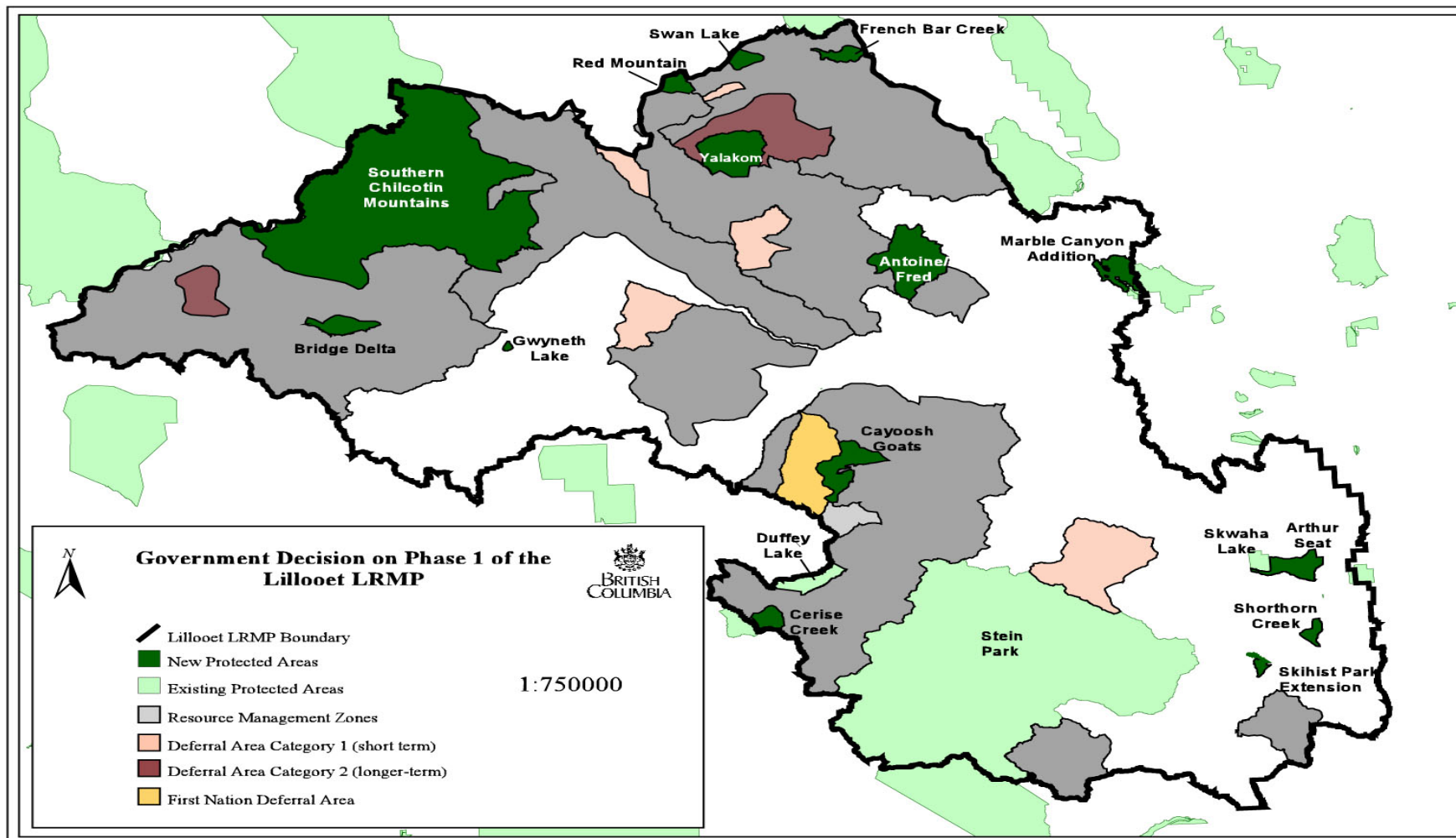
Area of Detail

- Communities
- First Nations Communities

Map Prepared by MGE, Central Interior Region, GIS Section, October 1998
 Digital Base Mapping - NTS - 1:250,000
 DATA SOURCES: Parks - LUCR 1:250,000 Map Scale 1:100,000



Figure 4.2: Map of the Lillooet LRMP



CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

1. Introduction

The Lillooet LRMP process is evaluated in this chapter using a survey technique. A summary of the survey results for both process and outcome criteria are presented. In the first section, results from the closed questions are discussed. In the second section, main findings from the open questions are reviewed. For the closed questions, the criteria are grouped in different sections. A brief description of the evaluated criteria is introduced within a short paragraph at the beginning of each section. The main results are then presented and interpreted in the following paragraph. The main results from the open questions are summarized in a table at the end of the section.

2. Participant Survey

A participant survey was mailed, emailed, or faxed to 33 of 48 possible LRMP participants by March 23th, 2005. The 15 remaining people could not be reached or located. For this research 16 questionnaires were completed and returned (33% response rate). The numbers of responses received by each sector is presented in table 5.1 below. Due to the relatively low response rate, the survey may not effectively represent the perception of all participants concerning the process. Furthermore, First Nations did not participate in the LLRMP and were not surveyed.

Table 5.1: Number of responses received and total number of representatives at the table by sector

Sector	Number of responses received	Total number of representatives at the table
Federal government	1	1
Provincial government	2	10
Local government	2	12
Tourism	1	2
Recreation	3	6
Conservation and environment.	3	7
Land development (housing)	1	2

Community economic development	1	1
Small business forestry	0	3
Process support staff	2	4
Total	16	48

The survey that was used is presented in appendix 3. The survey was divided in five parts: A, B, C, D, and E. The first three sections were closed questions with a four-point Likert scale using the following categories: strongly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, strongly disagree. Participants could also choose ‘not applicable’. For the last part (D), a four-point Likert scale was used based on the following categories: very important, important, somewhat important, not important.

The percentage was calculated by response category for each question. Responses marked as not applicable were excluded from the calculations. The overall score for each process and outcome criterion was calculated by taking the average of the percentages for all the questions under the criterion. Responses of participants who strongly agreed and somewhat agreed were combined to show the percentage agreement. Open-ended questions were included in part E of the survey. Similar responses in part E were grouped in specific categories based on a coding system. Results were then interpreted based on the frequency of responses.

3. Process criteria

3.1 Purpose and incentives

A process is driven by a shared purpose and provides incentives to participate, and to work towards consensus.

According to the survey, 94% of the participants became involved in the Lillooet LRMP process because they felt it was the best way to achieve their goals. Furthermore, all the participants had clear goals in mind at the beginning of the process. Most respondents (94%) knew the B.C. government would intervene if consensus agreement was not reached. This possible intervention by the B.C. government was a strong incentive for the stakeholders to negotiate and not let the government make final decisions on future land uses. All respondents agreed that the issues at stake were important and needed timely solution and that the LRMP process was a good approach to tackle these issues. A majority of participants (63%) felt that they collectively agreed upon clear goals and objectives for the process. The survey reveals that stakeholders' interests and values were better addressed by the LRMP process than alternative processes.

3.2 Inclusive representation

All parties with a significant interest in the issues and outcomes are involved throughout a process.

Over 80% of participants agreed that appropriate interests or values were represented in the process. The process was successful in term of stakeholders' representation, but some interests and values seemed to be missing. In fact, several respondents clearly stated that some groups were not represented at the negotiation table. Most respondents agreed (87%) that all relevant agencies were adequately represented.

3.3 Voluntary participation

Affected or interested parties participate voluntarily and are committed to the process.

According to the survey, 63% of respondents stated that they were fully committed to making the process work. However, 56% felt that some other participants were not fully committed.

3.4 Self design

The parties involved work together to design a process to suit the individual needs of that process and its participants.

Based on the survey, all the participants were involved in the design (such as terms of reference, ground rules, roles and responsibilities, rules of procedure) of the process. Respondents agreed (94%) that they were also able to influence the process on an ongoing basis.

3.5 Clear ground rules

As a process is initiated, a comprehensive procedural framework is established including clear terms of reference and ground rules.

Most participants (81%) believed that participant roles were clearly defined. Additionally, 75% of all participants agreed that the procedural rules were clearly defined at the beginning of the process.

3.6 Equal opportunity and resources

A process provides for equal and balanced opportunity for effective participation of all parties.

The majority of respondents (82%) agreed that they received sufficient training to participate in an effective manner in the process. Furthermore, 63% felt that they had received sufficient funding to participate in the process. However, only 56% of respondents felt that their participation contributed to making a difference in the outcomes of the LRMP process. Also, more than 60% did not feel that all interests represented had equal influence at the LRMP table. When asked if the process contributed to reduce power imbalances among participants, only 56% agreed. In summary, most participants thought that they received an adequate training prior to the negotiation process, but close to one-half of all the participants did not feel that all the interests represented had equal influence on the outcome.

3.7 Principled negotiation and respect

A process operates according to the conditions of principled negotiation including mutual respect, trust, and understanding.

According to the survey, most participants (94%) agreed that the process encouraged open communication concerning participants' interests. Seventy-two percent thought that all participants demonstrated a clear understanding of the different stakeholders' interests. Most of the respondents stated that the process generated trust among participants (69%) and fostered team work (75%). Finally, when the participants were asked if the process was hindered by a lack of communication and negotiation skills, 44% agreed. In summary, the process successfully generated trust, and fostered team work, but suffered from lack of open communication about stakeholders' interests and development of negotiation skills among table members.

3.8 Accountability

The process and its participants are accountable to the broader public, to their constituents, and to the process itself.

Although 76% of participants agreed that the process had an effective strategy for communicating with the broader public, only one-half of participants perceived that the process was effective in representing the interests of the broader public. One-half of participants were able to communicate effectively with their constituency and only 38% of respondents felt that the process ensured that they were accountable to their constituencies. Finally, 81% agreed that their group provided them with clear direction throughout the process.

3.9 Flexible, adaptive, creative

Flexibility is designed into the process to allow for adaptation and creativity in problem solving.

The majority of respondents (82%) agreed that the process was flexible enough to be adaptive to new information or changing circumstances. Moreover, 82% agreed that participants were given the opportunity to periodically assess the process and make adjustments as needed.

3.10 High quality information:

A process incorporates high-quality information into decision-making.

Most of participants (75%) agreed that the process provided adequate high-quality information for effective decision-making and 69% agreed that high-quality information was helpful to identify protected areas. Moreover, 94% thought that mapping resource values was a useful technique for evaluating land use options, compared to only 50% who thought that multiple accounts evaluation was effective.

3.11 Time limits

Realistic milestones and deadlines are established and managed throughout a process.

Only 32 % of participants agreed that time allotted to the process was realistic. This result is a clear indication that the process took a lot more time than the 18-24 month guideline set by the B.C. government. In fact, the Lillooet LRMP participants spent over 51 months working on the process. In addition, most participants (75%) agreed that the process presented a detailed project plan including clear milestones and only 37% agreed that deadlines set during the process were helpful in moving the process along. The results indicate that only a minority of participants found deadlines useful in advancing through the process, and also that time allotted to the process was adequate.

3.12 Implementation and monitoring

A process and final agreement include clear commitments to implementation and monitoring.

Only 25% of respondents agreed that, at the end of process, the table participants shared a strong commitment to plan implementation. Also, only 19% agreed that the table developed a clear strategy for plan implementation. According to these survey results, not all stakeholders shared a strong commitment to implementation and the strategy for plan implementation could have been improved.

3.13 Effective process management

A process is coordinated and managed effectively and in a neutral manner.

Only 19% of respondents agreed that the process was hindered by a lack of structure. Most of respondents (75%) agreed that process staff was skilled in running meetings. However, only 56% believed that the staff acted in a neutral and unbiased manner and 69% agreed that the agency responsible for managing the process acted in a neutral and unbiased manner. The results indicate that while participants are satisfied with the management of the process, there is room for improvement concerning the neutrality of the support staff and the agency responsible for managing the process.

3.14 Independent facilitation

A process uses an independent, trained facilitator throughout the process.

Most of respondents (81%) agreed that the presence of an independent facilitator/mediator improved process effectiveness, and 75% agreed that the facilitator acted in an unbiased manner. The results indicate that the facilitation was not biased and that its presence improved the effectiveness of the process.

4. Outcome criteria

4.1 Perceived as successful

Stakeholders perceive a process as successful. Participants are satisfied with the outcomes of a process and view their involvement as a positive experience.

Only 24% of participants were satisfied with the outcome of the process and only 31% agreed that the process was a success. However, 63% agreed that the process was a positive experience. Based on the survey results, it is clear that the stakeholders were not satisfied with the outcomes of the process.

4.2 Superior to other methods

A process is superior to other planning or decision methods in terms of costs and benefits. Costs include time and resources for process support and management, and participation for all parties. Benefits include the positive outcomes of the process.

Most of participants (75%) agreed that the LRMP was the best way of developing a land use plan. However, only 37% agreed that the interests of their organization had been better accommodated through the LRMP process. These results show that participants did not have strong alternatives to the LRMP.

4.3 Creative and innovative

A process produces creative ideas for action. Innovative ideas are tested and learned from. Ideas that are not successfully implemented can provide opportunities for learning and growth and help change ways of thinking that led to a conflict.

A clear majority (88%) of participants agreed that the planning process produced creative ideas for actions.

4.4 Knowledge, understanding, and skills

Stakeholders gain knowledge, understanding, and skills by participating in a process. Stakeholders understand more about the issues and other stakeholders' interests and viewpoints. Stakeholders gain new or improved skills by participating in a process, such as communication, negotiation, consensus building, data analysis, or decision-making skills.

Most of participants (94%) agreed that the process provided them with a good understanding of the interests of other participants. As a result of the process, all participants (100%) had a better understanding of their region, and most of them (82%) had also a better understanding of how government works with respect to land and resource management. Finally, 94% gained or improved their skills as a result of their involvement in the process.

4.5 Relationships and social capital

A process creates new personal and working relationships, and social capital among participants. A process develops a network of relationships among diverse parties that allows for continued information exchange, understanding, cooperation, and trust.

A majority of respondents (63%) felt that the relationships among table members improved over the course of the process. As a result of the LRMP process, 75% agreed that they had better working relationships with other parties in land use planning, and 94% agreed that contacts acquired through their participation were useful to them and/or their organization.

4.6 Information

Through joint fact-finding the process produces improved data, information, and analyses (such as facts, inventories, models, forecasts, histories, or analytical tools) that stakeholders understand and accept as accurate. The information is shared by others beyond the immediate group and is useful to participants and others for purposes outside of a process.

Most of participants agreed (76%) that information acquired through their participation in the LRMP process was useful to them and/or their organization. Moreover, 81% had used information generated

through the LRMP process for purposes outside of the process. However, only 56% agreed that information generated by the LRMP had been understood and accepted by all participants. Thus, relevant information was produced during the process and used by most of the stakeholders, but there was some disagreement over the interpretation of the information.

4.7 Public interest

Outcomes are regarded as just and serve the common good or public interest and not just those of participants in the process.

A small majority of participants (56%) agreed that the outcomes of the LRMP process served the common or public interest.

4.8 Understanding and support of SDM

A process results in increased understanding of SDM approaches and participants support the future use of SDM approaches. In the future, participants are more likely to make fewer unilateral decisions where collaboration could be more effective. A positive experience with SDM encourages a new generation of people with skills and interest in SDM processes.

Almost all participants (94%) agreed that the government should involve the public in land and resource use decision and 69% agreed that consensus based processes are an effective way of making land and resource use decision, and agreed that they would get involved in a similar process again. This result indicates that the majority of participants are positive about the LRMP process and its outcomes.

4.9 Second-order effects

A process has second-order effects that include changes in behaviours and actions, spin-off partnerships, umbrella groups, collaborative activities, new practices, or new institutions. Participants work together on issues or projects outside of the process.

A majority of participants (69%) agreed that changes in behaviours and actions occurred as a result of the process and 44% mentioned that they were aware of spin-off partnerships or collaborative activities or new organizations that arose as a result of the process.

4.10 Agreement

A process reaches a high-quality agreement that meets the interests of, and is acceptable to, all stakeholders. An agreement is implementable, feasible, stable, flexible, and adaptive. Where consensus agreement is not reached, the outcome of a process ends stalemate and allows parties to move forward without a formal agreement.

Only 32% of participants thought that the resulting plan addressed the needs, concerns, and values of the group they represented. This result clearly shows that participants were not satisfied with the process outcome.

4.11 Conflict reduced

A process and its outcomes reduce conflict over the issues it addresses.

Only 31% of participants agreed that as a result of the LRMP process, conflict over land use in the area has decreased. This result shows that most respondents felt that the outcome of the process did not reduce conflict over participants' values and interests.

5. Importance of key factors in achieving successful process and outcomes

According to participants, several factors listed in table 5.1 can explain why the Lillooet LRMP did not reach a consensus.. First, the majority of participants (74%) thought that stakeholders were not fully committed to the process because there were better ways for them to meet their objectives. Nonetheless, on an individual basis, all participants felt that they were committed to make the process work. Second, 53% of participants indicated that there was no clearly defined consequence or alternative if consensus was not reached. In reality, this result reveals that participants were aware that the provincial government would intervene if they could not reach a consensus, but they did not know how the government would intervene and what type of intervention would be taken. Third, most participants (94%) believed that the process was not successful because of a persistent feeling of mistrust between table participants. Forth, almost half of respondents (47%) felt that the general time limits of the process (including the deadline for reaching the final agreement) were not realistic. The fact that the Lillooet LRMP started in 1995 seems to indicate that the participants had plenty of time to develop a final land use plan based on consensus. However, Lillooet constitutes a highly disputed

area and during the late nineties and the years after, negotiations moved very slowly. Participants also felt pressured by the government's imposition of a six month deadline in October 2000 to complete the process because of the approaching provincial election in 2001. Finally, 80% of respondents explained that differences between stakeholders (interests and values) were too great to reach a consensus. Interestingly, most LRMPs have reached successful outcomes based on consensus decision making, with also having to deal with important differences in interests and values among stakeholders.

Table 5.2: Importance of key factors and criteria in achieving a successful process based on participants' perceptions

<i>Based on your experience of having participated in a consensus based shared decision-making process, why do you think the Lillooet LRMP did not reach a consensus?</i>	very important	important	somewhat important	not important	don't know
1. Not all stakeholders' interests were represented	13%	33%	27%	27%	0%
2. Stakeholders were not committed to the process because there were better ways for them to meet their objectives	47%	27%	20%	0%	7%
3. Purpose and objectives were not clearly defined	20%	13%	27%	40%	0%
4. There was no clearly defined consequence or alternative outcome if consensus was not reached	20%	33%	13%	33%	0%
5. The issues were not a priority for some participants, thus weakening the incentive to reach agreement	20%	27%	13%	40%	0%
6. Mistrust between participants	47%	47%	7%	0%	0%
7. Unclear rules of procedure	13%	13%	20%	53%	0%
8. Lack of adequate and high quality information and insufficient information sharing	7%	33%	20%	40%	0%
9. Differences between stakeholders (interests and values) were too great	53%	27%	13%	7%	0%
10. Participants did <i>not</i> have equal opportunity & resources (skills, resources, money, support)	20%	20%	40%	20%	0%
11. Process management difficulties (including process coordinator/staff)	20%	20%	27%	33%	0%
12. Unrealistic timetable (including deadline for reaching agreement)	27%	20%	33%	20%	0%
13. Stakeholder groups did <i>not</i> have a clear understanding of their own and other stakeholders' interests	0%	40%	13%	40%	7%
14. Lack of accountability of representatives to their constituencies	0%	33%	33%	33%	0%

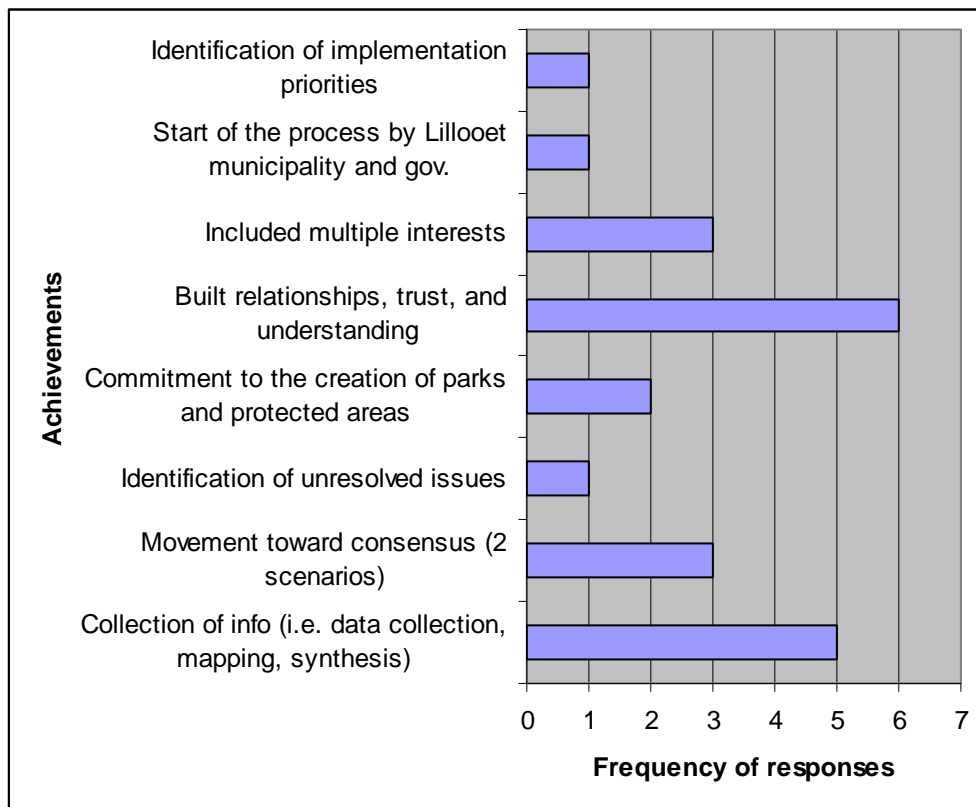
15. Lack of accountability and insufficient openness of process to the public	0%	13%	47%	40%	0%
16. Process design was <i>not</i> flexible and <i>not</i> adaptive	0%	20%	20%	60%	0%

6. General participant feedback

6.1 Most significant achievements

Participants expressed their opinion on a number of important achievements of the LRMP process. Answers describing significant process achievements are summarized in the graph down below (figure 5.1). The two main findings are that participants felt that the process helped them in building relationships, trust, and understanding among them, and in collecting relevant information (data collection, mapping, synthesis).

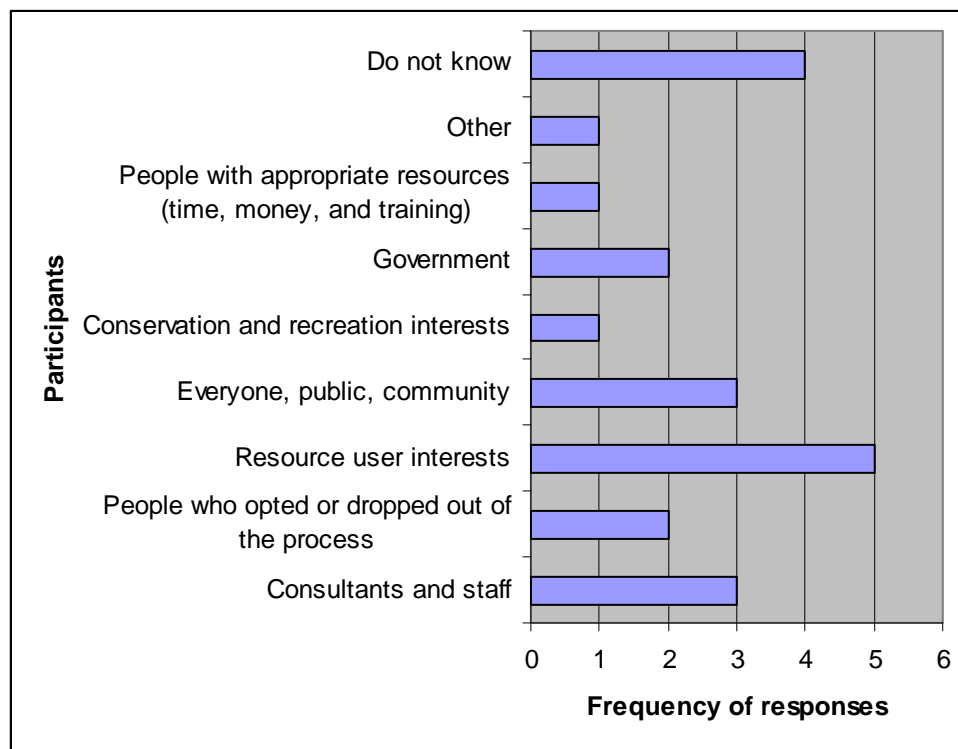
Figure 5.1: Frequency responses for most significant achievements observed through the process



6.2 Who benefited the most?

The most common answer to ‘*who benefited the most*’ was resource user interests. Interestingly, a significant number of respondents did not know who benefited the most from the process. Only three participants indicated that everyone including the public and the community benefited the most from the process outcomes. The results presented in the figure 5.2 suggest that the outcomes of the process may not have been a good compromise between competing interests.

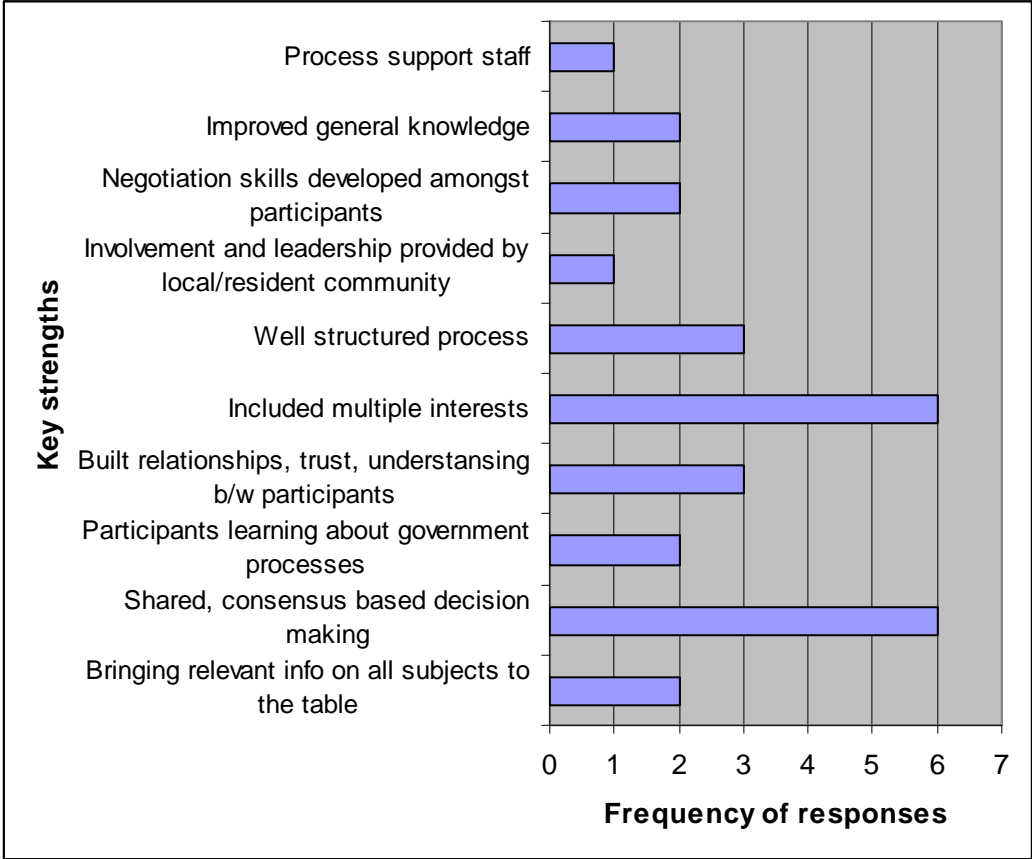
Figure 5.2: Most frequently reported participants who benefited the most from the process



6.3 Key strengths of the process

According to the results presented in the figure 5.3, the main strengths of the process were that it included multiple interests and shared consensus decision making. Process structure (including support staff and facilitation) and building relationship and trust were also important advantages.

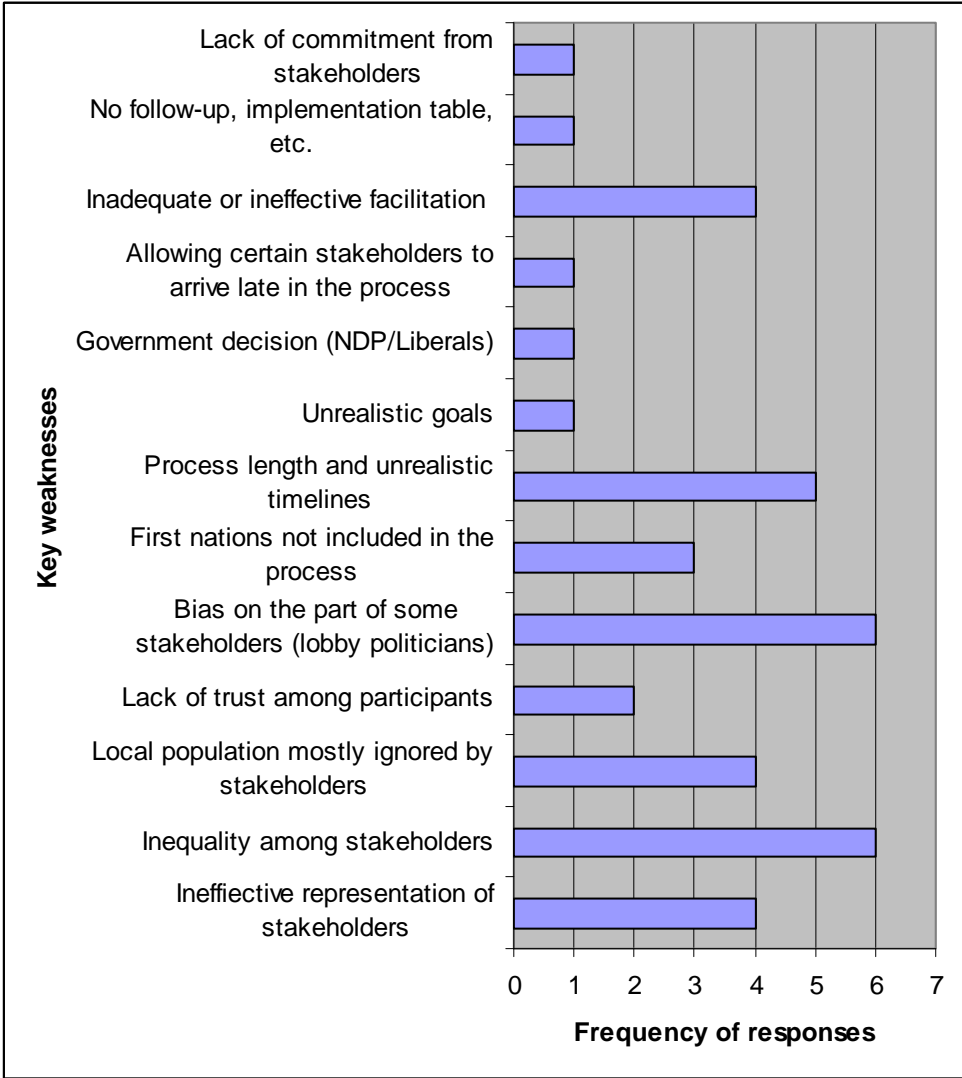
Figure 5.3: Frequency of responses for key strengths of the process



6.4 Key weaknesses of the process

The main weaknesses enumerated by participants were: bias on the part of some stakeholders, inequality among stakeholders in terms of resources and negotiation skills, process length and unrealistic timelines, inadequate facilitation, ineffective stakeholder representation, lack of local population representation into the process, and absence of First Nations in the process (figure 5.4).

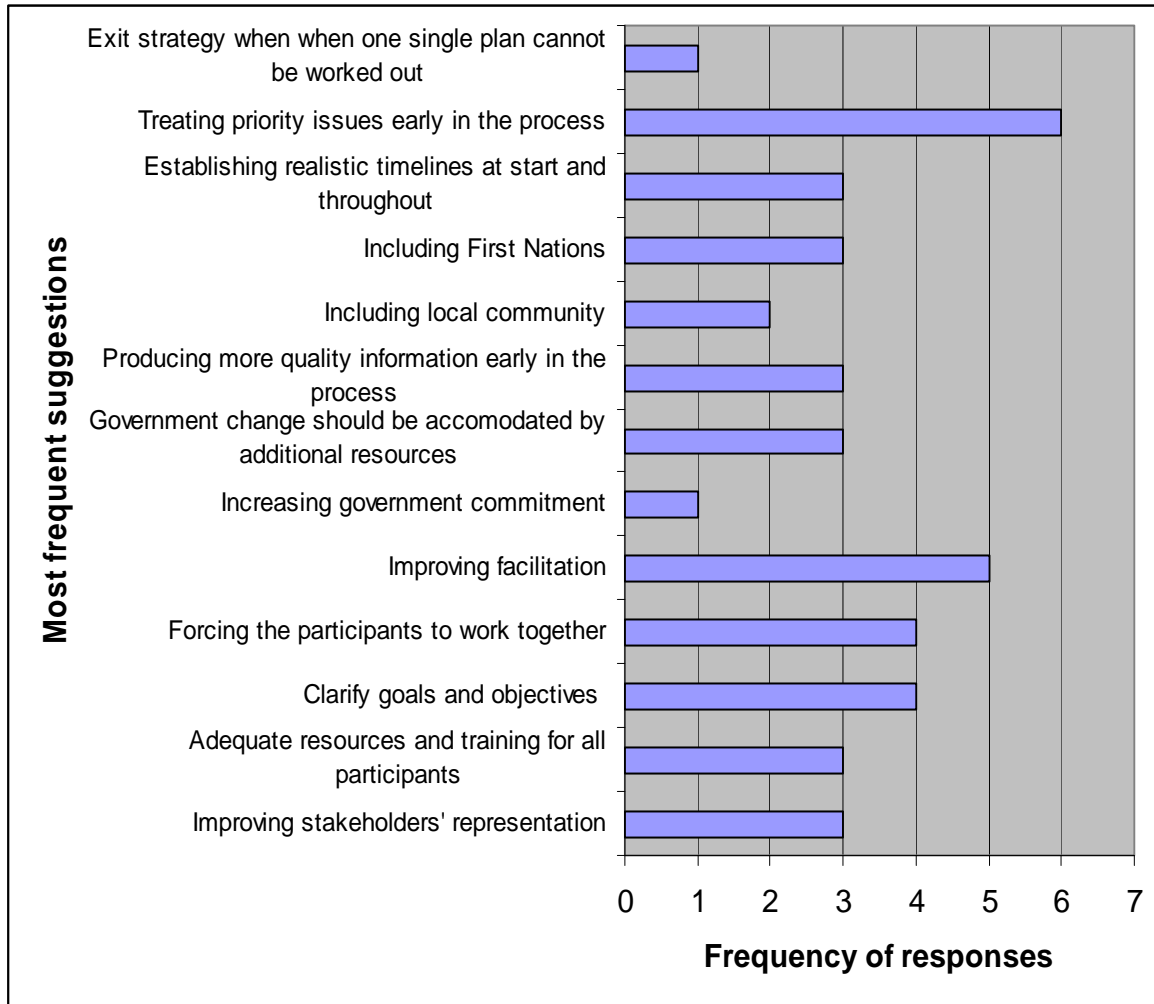
Figure 5.4: Frequency of responses for key weaknesses of the process



6.5 Suggestions for improvement of the process

In order to improve the process, respondents suggested that priority issues should be treated early in the process. They also proposed improved facilitation, requiring participants to work together, and better clarification of goals and objectives (figure 5.5). The fact that respondents provided a very broad range of suggestions for process improvement indicates that there is no consensus on process deficiencies.

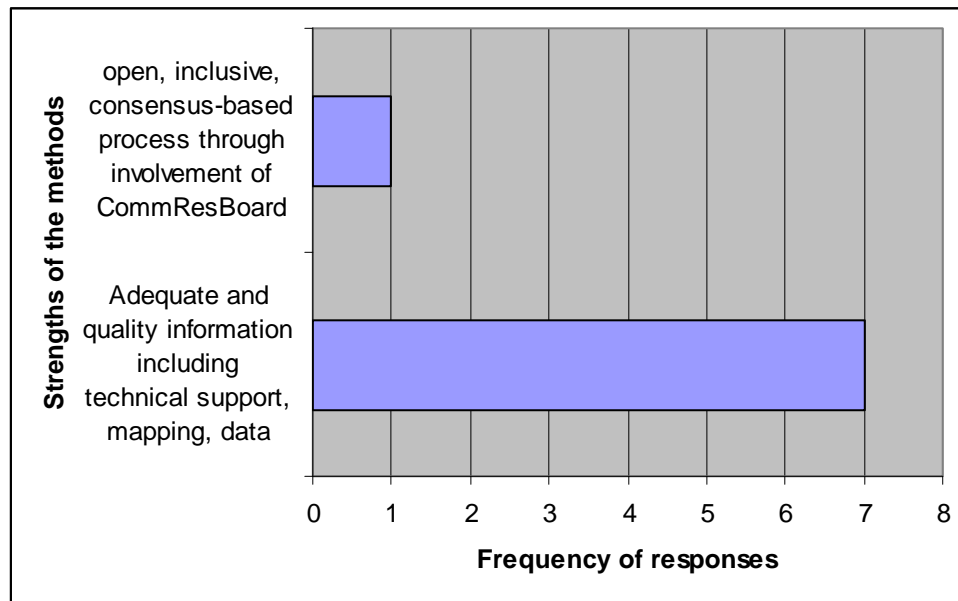
Figure 5.5: Most frequent suggestions for process improvements



6.6. Strengths of the methods used in the process

Concerning strengths of the method used in the process, participants were mostly satisfied with the quality and adequacy of information, including technical support, mapping, and data collection (figure 5.6). Half of the respondents did not provide an answer to this open question.

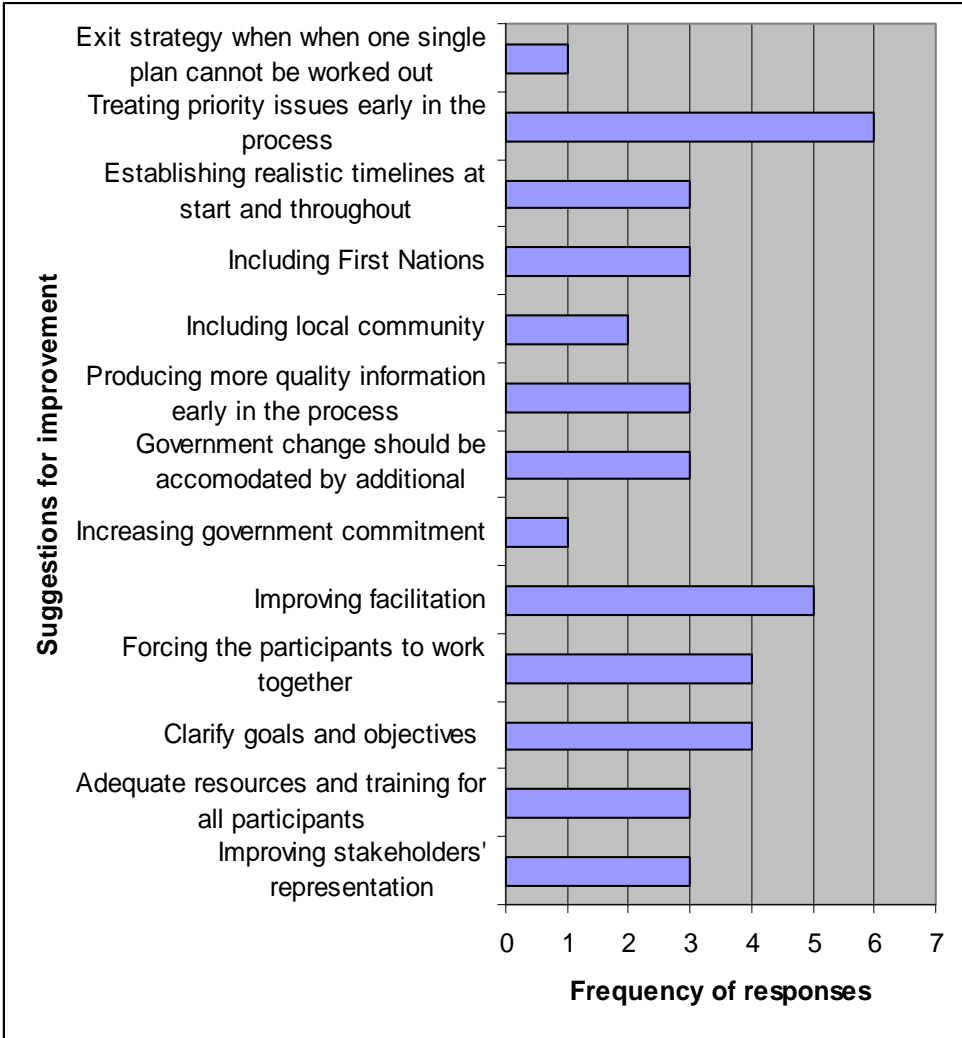
Figure 5.6: Frequency of responses for strengths of the methods used in the process



6.7 Suggestions to improve methods used in the process

Participants expressed their suggestions to improved methods used in the process. According to the results, the most common suggestions were: to reconsider the use of multiple accounts valuation in the process because this method seemed imprecise to make land use decisions, to improve stakeholder representation, to not rely too much on resource value mapping, and to improve the participants' understanding of the local and economic realities (figure 5.7).

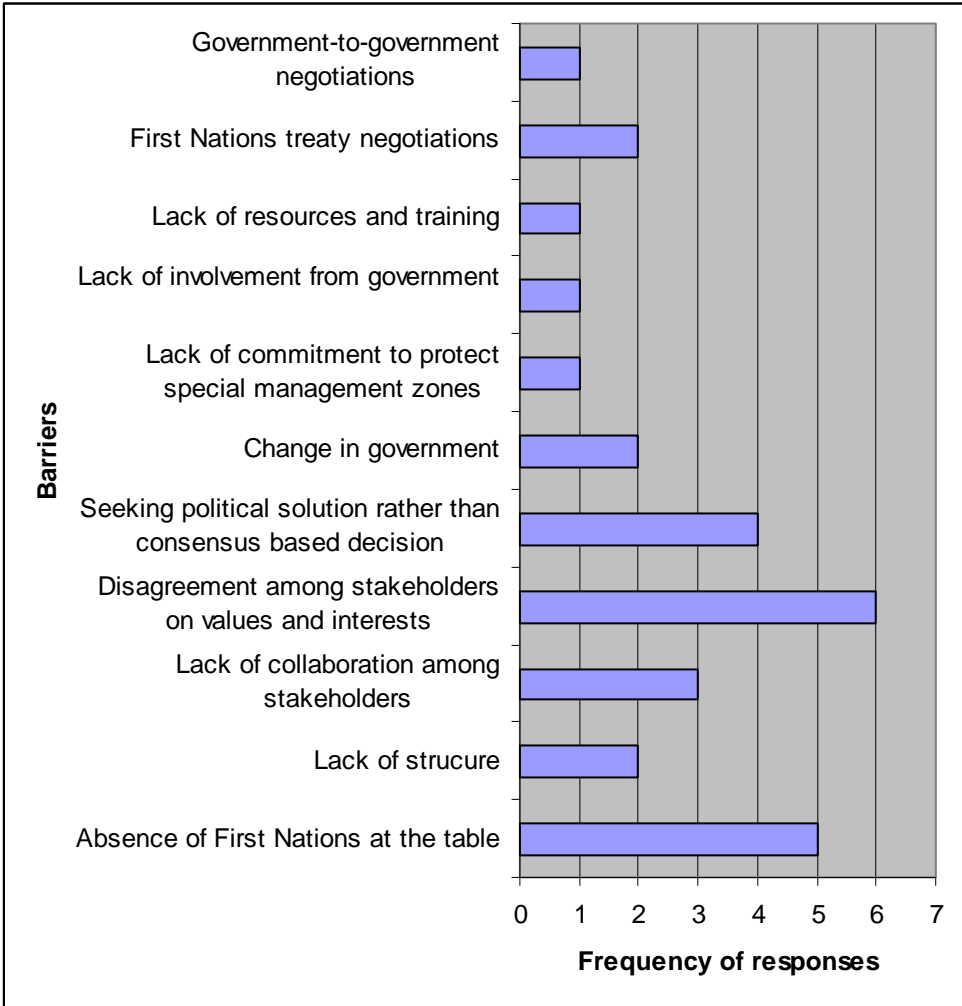
Figure 5.7: Frequency of suggestions for improvements to the process methods



6.8 Barriers to process implementation

The main barriers to process implementation were based on the disagreement among stakeholders on values and interests, the search for a political solution rather than a consensus-based decision, the absence of First Nations at the negotiation table, and the lack of collaboration among stakeholders (figure 5.8).

Figure 5.8: Most frequent responses for barriers to process implementation

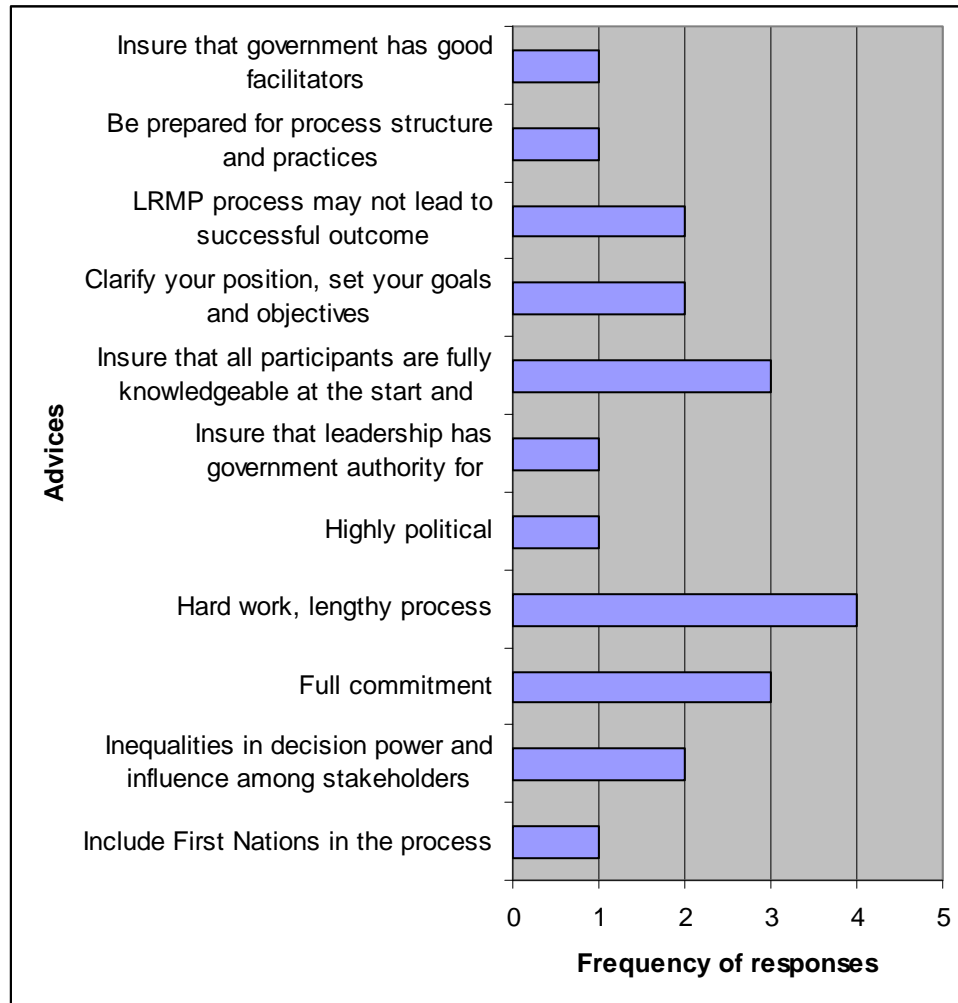


6.9 Advices to future participants in collaborative processes

The most frequent advice from respondents to future participants in collaborative processes is having a clear understanding about the length and hard work required, ensuring full commitment from stakeholders and ensuring that all participants are fully knowledgeable at the start and through the

process. Moreover, respondents mentioned that the process may not always lead to a successful outcome and that the inequalities among participants could be a concern. Participants should also clarify their position and set their goals and objectives right from the start of the process (figure 5.9).

Figure 5.9: Most frequent responses for advice to improve the process



CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study had four main components: presenting a comprehensive and concise literature review of collaborative planning, reviewing land and resource management plan initiatives in British Columbia, developing a research methodology, and evaluating the success of the Lillooet LRMP from a participant's perspective. The final component of this research presents conclusions and recommendations from the LLRMP case study.

1. Evaluation of the LLRMP Outcome criteria

The LLRMP outcomes were unsatisfactory in several respects. First, although participants agreed on a process for selecting a plan based on final offer selection, they did not reach agreement on a final plan. Further, the decision of the planning table was subsequently overturned by the government due, in part, to opposition from some stakeholders unsatisfied with the process. Second, as shown in summary table 6.1 below, only 40% of respondents perceived the LLRMP as a successful process. Based on this result, many respondents felt that the resulting plan did not address the needs, concerns, and values of their constituency. However, some important outcome criteria including improved knowledge, skills and relationships (92%), and creative and innovative ideas (88%) were met during the process. Also, even though the LLRMP was not perceived as a success by the table, most of the respondents (56%) believed that CP was superior to alternative ways of developing a land use plan to meet the interests of their organization. It is also useful to note that support of the superiority of CP may be much higher than the 57% agreement indicates. The 57% agreement on the superiority of CP to alternative methods is based on the average for two questions that had very different levels of agreement: (1) The LRMP process was the best way of developing an land use plan (75% agreement), and (2) my organization's interests have been better accommodated through the LRMP process than they would have been through other means (37% agreement). Therefore, the results are somewhat anomalous. There is strong agreement with CP as the best way of developing plans and a low agreement that the process was the best way of meeting their interests. This low agreement on the second question likely reflects a frustration with the outcomes of the process, not with the CP.

Table 6.1 Outcome criteria

Outcome criteria	Percentage of agreement (average by criterion) *
1. Knowledge, Understanding, and Skills	92%
2. Creative and Innovative	88%
3. Understanding and Support of (SDM)	77%
4. Information Relationships and Social Capital	77%
5. Information	71%
6. Superior to Other Planning Methods	56%
7. Public Interest	56%
8. Second-Order Effects	56%
9. Perceived as successful	40%
10. Agreement	32%
11. Conflict reduced	31%

* The percent agreement for each criterion is based on the average agreement for all questions under each criterion. See appendix 2 for detailed responses by criterion.

2. Evaluation of the LLRMP process criteria

Overall, the Lillooet LRMP met many of the process evaluation criteria. As shown in table 6.2 below, ten process criteria met by the table really stood out: clear goals and objectives, adequate representation, flexible and adaptive process, clear ground rules, independent facilitation, participation and commitment to the process, process elaboration, high quality information, accountability, and principled negotiation. The one process criterion that was clearly not met was commitment to implementation and monitoring (22%). This reflects the failure of the government to implement the plan generated by the table based on the final offer selection process. Other process

criterion with low agreement are timelines (48%) and effective process management (55%). The key deficiency with timelines was that time limits were considered realistic by only 32% of respondents.

Table 6.2: Process criteria

Process criteria	Percentage of agreement (average by criterion) *
1. Self Design: The parties involved work together to design a process to suit the individual needs of that process and its participants.	97%
2. Purpose and Incentives: A process is driven by a shared purpose and provides incentives to participate, and to work towards consensus.	89%
3. Inclusive Representation: All parties with a significant interest in the issues and outcomes are involved throughout a process.	85%
4. Flexible, Adaptive, Creative: Flexibility is designed into the process to allow for adaptation and creativity in problem solving.	82%
5. Independent Facilitation: A process uses an independent, trained facilitator throughout the process.	78%
6. Clear Ground Rules: As a process is initiated, a comprehensive procedural framework is established including clear terms of reference and ground rules.	78%
7. Principled Negotiation and Respect: A process operates according to the conditions of principled negotiation including mutual respect, trust, and understanding.	71%
8. High-Quality Information: A process incorporates high-quality information into decision-making.	60%
9. Accountability: The process and its participants are accountable to the broader public, to their constituents, and to the process itself.	60%
10. Equal Opportunity and Resources: A process provides for equal and balanced opportunity for effective participation of all parties.	59%
11. Effective Process Management: A process is coordinated and managed effectively and in a neutral manner.	55%
12. Voluntary Participation: Affected or interested parties participate voluntarily and are committed to the process.	54%

13. Time Limits: Realistic milestones and deadlines are established and managed throughout a process.	48%
14. Implementation and Monitoring: A process and final agreement include clear commitments to implementation and monitoring.	22%

*The percent agreement for each criterion is based on the average agreement for all questions under each criterion. See appendix 1 for detailed responses by criterion.

3. Recommendations

1. *Ensure that information is well received by all participants*

Based on the results found in table 6.1, 70% of respondents agreed that the process generated high quality information. However, only 56% of respondents agreed that information generated by the LRMP had been understood and accepted by all participants. Thus, relevant information was produced during the process and used by most of the stakeholders, but there was some disagreement over the interpretation of the information. Therefore, it is likely that more effort should be made to ensure that information is commonly understood and adequately interpreted by all participants.

2. *Ensure that participants' interests are met in the outcomes of the process*

Only 40% of respondents agreed that the process was successful. Agreement with some of the specific questions under this criterion was even lower. For example, only 32% of respondents perceived that the resulting plan addressed the needs, concerns, and values of their organization, and only 31% thought that conflict over land use in the disputed area had decreased following the process. Interestingly, a larger proportion of respondents (56%) agreed that the process met the interests of the public. Therefore, low agreement with the process meeting individual stakeholder's interests may in part be a result of the inevitable compromises that must be made in negotiation and may exaggerate the weaknesses of the process. Nonetheless, based on the survey results, it is clear that the stakeholders were not satisfied with the outcomes of the process. Participants and process managers should make sure that interests of all parties are included in all the steps of the negotiation process.

3. *Neutrality of Staff*

A small majority of participants (55%) believed that there was effective process management. One of the principle concerns of respondents was with the neutrality of staff. . While most respondents (75%) also agreed that the facilitator acted in a neutral manner, nearly half of participants

(44%) believed that staff neutrality was a concern. This neutrality issue needs to be addressed by using neutral and interdisciplinary agencies not closely tied to one specific natural resource when managing stakeholder processes.

5. Establish adequate process time length to reach consensus

Setting clear deadlines can be helpful in moving the process along. However, most participants agreed that time allotted to the process was not realistic. To meet time deadlines, the process used a final offer selection instead of waiting for consensus. Time limits should be realistic and should be regularly reviewed by participants to give them more flexibility to achieve consensus.

6. Implementation and Monitoring

A large majority of respondents found that, at the end of the process, the table participants did not share a strong commitment to plan implementation and that the process did not produce a strategy for implementation. The low agreement with this criterion reflects in part the decision of the government to not implement the plan generated by the stakeholders at the table. It also indicates a lack of commitment on the part of the stakeholders to implement the agreement they had concluded and to develop an implementation strategy. Hence, more efforts are necessary to ensure full commitment from participants throughout the process to develop an implementation strategy and stronger support for the outcome.

7. Involvement of all stakeholders

Two key stakeholder groups were not fully engaged in the table: mining and First Nations. Mining withdrew from the table and First Nations were not fully engaged in table deliberations until 2001. The lack of involvement of these two key stakeholders weakened support for the proposed plan approved in 2001 and contributed to the rejection of the plan by the new provincial government. All key stakeholders need to be involved in the final consensus process to ensure that the plan is acceptable.

8. Inequalities among stakeholders

There were obvious inequalities (time, financial and human resource, power of influence) among table members. Based on the survey results presented in table 6.2, it is not clear that power imbalances had a strong influence on the failure to reach a positive outcome based on consensus

agreement. Nonetheless, some inequalities (such as time and financial and human resources) can be reduced by providing greater funding assistance and technical support for participants who are volunteering at the table.

4. Why the process was not successful: additional reasons

4.1 Final offer selection approach

The Lillooet LRMP is a very interesting process to study because it is one of the rare LRMP cases that did not reach consensus and also the only LRMP case in which a final offer selection approach was used. The respondents identified three key reasons why the process failed to reach agreement: mistrust among stakeholders, differences in interests and values, and lack of commitment of stakeholders to the process. The reason that stakeholders were unable to build trust and overcome their differences is unclear. However, one factor is that the table formed separate coalitions that worked independently to develop competing proposals. This competition was aggravated by the final offer selection process that forced a choice between competing plans instead of waiting for the table to reach consensus.

The advantage of final offer selection is that it can achieve an agreement when consensus appears unlikely. Final offer selection also has the potential to narrow the existing differences between stakeholders because stakeholders have an incentive to moderate their position to increase the likelihood that their proposal will be selected. This is why stakeholders generally tend to close the gap between their expectations. Thus, the losers are more likely to accept the final outcome since it might not be too far from their own plan.

In the Lillooet LRMP process, final offer selection resulted in two plan proposals that were relatively similar. However, even though table members agreed with the final offer selection approach, the process did not bring the table members together. The losers were clearly unsatisfied with the final outcome. The use of this approach reinforced the already existing division among the industry group and the conservation group. The main idea underlining collaborative planning is that stakeholders meet all together on a regular basis to reach consensus agreement at the end. Hence, the final offer

approach is contrary to the principles of CP. Instead of using the final offer selection process, the table should have been allowed more time to try to reach a consensus decision.

4.2 Government pressure and its consequences

A second reason explaining the process failure can be attributed to government pressure. By April 2000, almost 5 years after the beginning of the process, the provincial government started to pressure the table members and strongly suggested a 5 month deadline to develop a plan based on consensus. A possible reason explaining this pressure and unrealistic deadline is that the provincial government was facing an election in June 2001 and wanted to make a decision on the LLRMP before. The result is that LLRMP participants felt pressured and decided to seek a consensus agreement through off-table meetings and mediation. This decision did not help the interest groups (development and conservation) to negotiate in a collaborative manner. Instead, the groups continued to develop their plans separately through mediation. Meanwhile, the CRB members were not satisfied with the direction taken in the two different proposals and they decided to work on their own plan, a plan that would better address the interests of the community. Hence, the table was divided in three groups and three possible proposals. Finally, when the table met again on March 9th and 10th 2001, the participants did not have a complete, clear and detailed land use plan in hand. Nonetheless, they quickly recognized that the gap between their interests had not been significantly reduced and also that reaching consensus on a single land use plan was very unlikely. At this time, the final offer selection process was proposed by the mediator and accepted by the table.

5. Limitations

It is a difficult task to compare different land use issues due to the fact that each experience is complex and presents a unique reality. Therefore, it is not possible to draw general conclusions concerning the success of collaborative planning approaches simply based on the results presented in a case study of one LRMP. However, this study on the Lillooet LRMP can be added to the existing REM database that includes previous analyses of LRMP processes. Another limitation is shown by

the relatively low response rate (33%) for the survey. A higher number of respondents would have brought more accuracy and legitimacy to the survey results.

6. Conclusion

Shared decision making initiatives are very useful to reach successful outcomes over land use and also to reduce conflicts in disputed areas. In British Columbia, LRMPs are unique collaborative processes that have contributed to a new and more sustainable way of managing public resources. LRMPs incorporate social, environmental, and economic values. This approach in land use planning ensures effective and inclusive stakeholder representation, thus increasing the legitimacy of the outcomes. LRMPs are a flexible and innovative process. Participants are looking at creative solutions to address their key issues and to adapt the process to changing circumstances. Confrontational approaches and conflicts can be reduced because participants understand better other participants' interests and values.

On the other hand, collaborative approaches are not always effective. For example, based on the survey results, the Lillooet LRMP showed that the approach had important weaknesses. In fact, most respondents were not satisfied with the final outcome of the process and did not consider the initiative as a successful process. In this case, conflict over land use in Lillooet has not significantly decreased.

Finally, this research only covered the land use plan for the Lillooet area, which was a highly disputed area. Consensus is not always possible, especially in cases such as Lillooet, where value and interest differences are so fundamental and distinct. In this case, providing an adequate training and ensuring sufficient resources to all participants to participate effectively in the process could make consensus more likely. Even though this process was not a very successful collaborative initiative, most other land use plans in British Columbia have reached successful outcomes. Additionally, participants do not perceive the LLRMP as a complete failure: they gained and developed negotiation skills and identified critical issues in the region that needed to be addressed. The information collected during the process had also help decision-makers. In the end, most participants concluded

that collaborative planning was the best way of developing a land use plan even though the outcome in this case was not satisfactory.

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Appendix 1

Process Criteria responses presented as percentages

PROCESS CRITERIA: RESPONSES PRESENTED AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
Purpose and incentives					
A.1. I became involved in the process because I/my organization felt it was the best way to achieve our goals/ with respect to land use planning.	63%	31%	0%	6%	0%
A.2. I had clear goals in mind when I first became involved in the LRMP process.	69%	31%	0%	0%	0%
B.4. The process participants collectively identified and agreed upon clear goals and objectives.	19%	44%	31%	6%	0%
B.23. The issues we were dealing with in the LRMP process were significant problems requiring timely resolution.	69%	31%	0%	0%	0%
B.7. Stakeholders had a clear understanding that if no consensus was reached, the provincial government would make the decisions.	56%	31%	6%	6%	0%
Inclusive representation					
B.1. All appropriate interests or values were represented in the process.	19%	63%	6%	13%	0%
B.3. All government agencies that needed to be involved were adequately represented.	31%	56%	6%	6%	0%
Voluntary participation and commitment					
A.3. I was fully committed to making the process work.	19%	44%	31%	6%	0%
B.3. All participants were committed to making the process work.	6%	38%	25%	31%	0%
Self-design					
A.4. I was involved in the design of the LRMP process (i.e. ground rules, roles, procedures).	69%	31%	0%	0%	0%
A.5. On an ongoing basis, I was able to influence the process used in the LRMP.	69%	25%	0%	6%	0%
Clear ground rules					
B.5. Participant roles were clearly defined.	25%	56%	19%	0%	0%

PROCESS CRITERIA: RESPONSES PRESENTED AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
B.6. The procedural ground rules were clearly defined.	50%	25%	25%	0%	0%
Equal opportunity and resources					
A.6. I had or received sufficient training to participate effectively.	44%	38%	13%	0%	6%
A.7. I had or received sufficient funding to participate effectively.	25%	38%	19%	13%	6%
B.8. All interests/perspectives had equal influence at the LRMP table.	13%	25%	31%	31%	0%
B.9. The process reduced power imbalances among participants.	6%	50%	31%	13%	0%
A.8. My participation made a difference in the outcomes of the LRMP process.	25%	31%	31%	6%	6%
Principled negotiation and respect					
B.10. The process encouraged open communication about participants' interests.	44%	50%	0%	6%	0%
B.11. All participants demonstrated a clear understanding of the different stakeholder interests around the table.	13%	59%	25%	13%	0%
B.13. The process generated trust among participants.	6%	63%	19%	13%	0%
B.14. The process fostered teamwork.	6%	69%	13%	13%	0%
B.12. The process was hindered by a lack of communication and negotiation skills.	6%	38%	38%	19%	0%
Accountability					
A.9. Due to constraints of the process, I was unable to effectively communicate with and gain support from my constituency.	13%	13%	25%	25%	25%
A.10. The process helped to ensure I was accountable to the constituency I was representing.	0%	38%	31%	6%	25%
A.11. The organization/sector/group I represented provided me with clear direction throughout the process.	31%	50%	6%	6%	6%
B.15. Generally, the representatives at the table were accountable to their constituencies.	19%	69%	13%	0%	0%
B.16. The process had an effective strategy for	13%	63%	19%	6%	0%

PROCESS CRITERIA: RESPONSES PRESENTED AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
communicating with the broader public.					
B.17. The process was effective in representing the interests of the broader public.	6%	44%	44%	6%	0%
Flexible and adaptive					
B.18. The process was flexible enough to be adaptive to new information or changing circumstances.	13%	69%	19%	0%	0%
B.19. Participants were given the opportunity to periodically assess the process and make adjustments as needed.	13%	69%	19%	0%	0%
High-quality information					
B.30. The process lacked adequate high quality information for effective decision-making.	13%	13%	56%	19%	0%
B.32. The process was well prepared with the information needed to accommodate protected areas within the LRMP.	13%	56%	19%	13%	0%
B.33. The overlay of resource values on maps was a useful technique for evaluating land use options.	38%	56%	6%	0%	0%
B.34. The multiple accounts method was a useful way of evaluating land use options.	19%	31%	7%	1%	0%
Time limits					
B.22. The time allotted to the process was realistic.	13%	19%	19%	59%	0%
B.20. The process had a detailed project plan (for the negotiation process) including clear milestones.	25%	50%	19%	6%	0%
B.21. Deadlines during the process were helpful in moving the process along.	6%	31%	38%	25%	0%
Implementation and monitoring					
B.36. At the end of the process, the table participants shared a strong commitment to plan implementation.	0%	25%	19%	50%	6%
B.35. The table developed a clear strategy for plan implementation.	0%	19%	38%	31%	13%
Effective process management					
B.24. The process was hindered by lack of sufficient structure	6%	13%	69%	13%	0%
B.25. Process staff acted in a neutral and unbiased manner.	31%	25%	25%	19%	0%

PROCESS CRITERIA: RESPONSES PRESENTED AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
B.26. The agency responsible for managing the LRMP process acted in a neutral and unbiased manner.	25%	44%	25%	6%	0%
B.27. Process staff (including facilitator(s) if used) were skilled in running meetings.	31%	44%	19%	6%	0%
Independent facilitation					
B.28. The presence of an independent facilitator/mediator improved process effectiveness.	50%	31%	13%	6%	0%
B.29. The independent facilitator/mediator acted in an unbiased manner.	44%	31%	19%	6%	0%
12% guide for protected areas					
B.31. The setting of the provincial guide of 12% Protected Areas was helpful to reaching consensus.	0%	13%	38%	50%	0%

Appendix 2

Outcome criteria with results as percentages

OUTCOME CRITERIA: RESPONSES AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
Perceived as successful					
C.1. The LRMP process I participated in was a success.	6%	25%	31%	38%	0%
C.2. The LRMP process was a positive experience.	19%	44%	19%	19%	0%
C.3. I am satisfied with the outcome of the process.	6%	19%	38%	38%	0%
Agreement					
C.4. The resulting plan addressed the needs, concerns, and values, of the group I represented.	13%	19%	31%	25%	13%
Conflict reduced					
C.5. As a result of the LRMP process, conflict over land use in the area has decreased.	6%	25%	38%	25%	6%
Superior to other methods					

OUTCOME CRITERIA: RESPONSES AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
C.6. The LRMP process was the best way of developing a land use plan.	25%	50%	6%	13%	6%
C.7 I/my organizations' interests have been accommodated better through the LRMP process than they would have been through other means.	6%	31%	38%	13%	13%
Creative and innovative					
C.8. The planning process produced creative ideas for action.	25%	63%	6%	6%	0%
Knowledge, understanding, and skills					
C.9. As a result of the process, I have a good understanding of the interests of other participants.	50%	44%	0%	6%	0%
C.10. As a result of the process, I now have a better understanding of how government works with respect to land and resource management.	38%	44%	19%	0%	0%
C.11. As a result of the process, I have a better understanding of my region.	38%	63%	0%	0%	0%
C.12. I gained new or improved skills as a result of my involvement in the process.	44%	50%	0%	6%	0%
Relationships and social capital					
C.13. The relationships among table members improved over the course of the process.	19%	44%	25%	13%	0%
C.14. I have better working relationships with other parties involved in land use planning as a result of the LRMP process.	25%	50%	25%	0%	0%
C.15. Contacts I acquired through my participation in the LRMP process are useful to me and/or my sector/organization.	38%	56%	6%	0%	0%
Information					
C.16. The LRMP process produced information that has been understood and accepted by all participants.	25%	31%	44%	0%	0%
C.17. Information acquired through my participation in the LRMP process is useful to me and/or my sector/organization.	13%	63%	19%	6%	0%

OUTCOME CRITERIA: RESPONSES AS PERCENTAGES	strongly agree	some- what agree	some- what disagree	strongly disagree	not applicable
C.18. I have used information generated through the LRMP process for purposes outside of the process.	31%	50%	0%	13%	6%
Second-order effects					
C.19. I have seen changes in behaviors and actions as a result of the process.	13%	56%	31%	0%	0%
C.20. I am aware of spin-off partnerships or collaborative activities or new organizations that arose as a result of the process.	6%	38%	44%	6%	6%
Public interest					
C.21. I believe the outcome of the LRMP process served the common good or public interest.	25%	31%	31%	13%	0%
Understanding and support of SDM approaches					
C.22. I believe that consensus based processes are an effective way of making land and resource use decisions.	44%	25%	25%	6%	0%
C.23. The government should involve the public in land and resource use decisions.	63%	31%	6%	0%	0%
C.24. Knowing what I know now I would get involved in a process similar to the LRMP again.	31%	38%	6%	25%	0%

Appendix 3

Results for the survey for PART D and E of the questionnaire

PART D: COLLABORATIVE PROCESSES IN GENERAL (15 respondents)

<i>Based on your experience of having participated in a consensus based shared decision-making process, how important is each of the following factors in achieving a successful process and outcome?</i>	very important	important	somewhat important	not important	don't know
1. Inclusive representation of all relevant stakeholder/interest groups	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%
2. Voluntary participation (all participants are free to leave at any time or pursue other avenues if agreement not reached)	13%	63%	13%	6%	6%
3. Commitment of stakeholders to the process because it was the best way of meeting objectives	63%	38%	0%	0%	0%
4. Clearly defined purpose and objectives	63%	38%	0%	0%	0%
5. Consensus requirement	50%	25%	25%	0%	0%
6. Clearly defined consequence or alternative outcome if consensus not reached (e.g. knowing the provincial government would make the decisions if no consensus reached)	69%	25%	0%	6%	0%
7. Urgency of issues addressed in the process providing incentive to reach agreement	31%	56%	13%	0%	0%
8. Process designed by participants	31%	44%	19%	6%	0%
9. Clear rules of procedure	50%	31%	19%	0%	0%
10. Participants having equal opportunity & resources (skills, resources, money, support)	31%	56%	6%	6%	0%
11. Mutual respect and trust in the negotiation process	81%	19%	0%	0%	0%
12. Effective process management (including process coordinator/staff)	81%	19%	0%	0%	0%
13. Timetable (including deadline for reaching agreement)	63%	31%	6%	0%	0%
14. Use of an independent facilitator or mediator	50%	38%	13%	0%	0%
15. Stakeholder groups having a clear understanding of their own and other stakeholders' interests	69%	31%	0%	0%	0%
16. Accountability of representatives to their constituencies	56%	38%	6%	0%	0%
17. Accountability and openness of process to the public	63%	31%	6%	0%	0%
18. Access to high quality information	63%	31%	6%	0%	0%
19. Process design that is flexible and adaptive	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%
20. Commitment to a plan for implementation & monitoring	63%	38%	0%	0%	0%

21. Other?: _____					
22. Other?: _____					
23. Other?: _____					

<i>Based on your experience of having participated in a consensus based shared decision-making process, why do you think the Lillooet LRMP did not reach a consensus?</i>	very important	important	somewhat important	not important	don't know
1. Not all stakeholders' interests were represented	13%	33%	27%	27%	0%
2. Stakeholders were not committed to the process because there were better ways for them to meet their objectives	47%	27%	20%	0%	7%
3. Purpose and objectives were not clearly defined	20%	13%	27%	40%	0%
4. There was no clearly defined consequence or alternative outcome if consensus was not reached	20%	33%	13%	33%	0%
5. The issues were not a priority for some participants, thus weakening the incentive to reach agreement	20%	27%	13%	40%	0%
6. Mistrust between participants	47%	47%	7%	0%	0%
7. Unclear rules of procedure	13%	13%	20%	53%	0%
8. Lack of adequate and high quality information and insufficient information sharing	7%	33%	20%	40%	0%
9. Differences between stakeholders (interests and values) were too great	53%	27%	13%	7%	0%
10. Participants did <i>not</i> have equal opportunity & resources (skills, resources, money, support)	20%	20%	40%	20%	0%
11. Process management difficulties (including process coordinator/staff)	20%	20%	27%	33%	0%
12. Unrealistic timetable (including deadline for reaching agreement)	27%	20%	33%	20%	0%
13. Stakeholder groups did <i>not</i> have a clear understanding of their own and other stakeholders' interests	0%	40%	13%	40%	7%
14. Lack of accountability of representatives to their constituencies	0%	33%	33%	33%	0%
15. Lack of accountability and insufficient openness of process to the public	0%	13%	47%	40%	0%
16. Process design was <i>not</i> flexible and <i>not</i> adaptive	0%	20%	20%	60%	0%
17. Other?: _____					
18. Other?: _____					
19. Other?: _____					

PART E: ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS

1. *What were the most significant achievements of the planning process?*

Most significant achievements	Frequency of response
Collection of info (i.e. data collection, mapping, synthesis)	5
Movement toward consensus (2 scenarios)	3
Identification of unresolved issues	1
Commitment to the creation of parks and protected areas	2
Built relationships, trust, and understanding	6
Included multiple interests	3
Start of the process by Lillooet municipality and government	1
Identification of implementation priorities	1

2. *What were the key strengths of the process?*

Key strengths of the process	Frequency of response
Bringing relevant info on all subjects to the table	2
Shared, consensus based decision making	6
Participants learning about government processes	2
Built relationships, trust, understanding between participants	3
Included multiple interests	6
Well structured process	3
Involvement and leadership provided by local/resident community	1
Negotiation skills developed amongst participants	2
Improved general knowledge	2
Process support staff	1

3. *What were the key weaknesses of the process?*

Key weaknesses of the process	Frequency of response
Ineffective representation of stakeholders	4
Inequality among stakeholders	6
Local population mostly ignored by stakeholders	4
Lack of trust among participants	2
Bias on the part of some stakeholders (lobby politicians)	6
First nations not included in the process	3
Process length and unrealistic timelines	5
Unrealistic goals	1
Government decision (NDP/Liberals)	1
Allowing certain stakeholders to arrive late in the process	1
Inadequate or ineffective facilitation	4
No follow-up, implementation table, etc.	1
Lack of commitment from stakeholders	1

4. *Our planning process could have been more effective by making the following changes:*

Suggestions for improvement of the process	Frequency of response
Improving stakeholders' representation	3
Adequate resources and training for all participants	3
Clarify goals and objectives	4
Forcing the participants to work together	4
Improving facilitation	5
Increasing government commitment	1
Government change should be accommodated by additional resources	3
Producing more quality information early in the process	3
Including local community	2
Including First Nations	3
Establishing realistic timelines at start and throughout	3
Treating priority issues early in the process	6
Exit strategy when when one single plan cannot be worked out	1

5. Please comment on the **strengths** and/or **weaknesses** of the methods used in the land use planning process such as resource value mapping or multiple accounts evaluation, and identify potential improvements that could be made.

Strengths of the methods used in the process	Frequency of response
Adequate and quality information including technical support, mapping, data	7
open, inclusive, consensus-based process through involvement of the Community Resource Board	1

Suggestions to improve methods used in the process	Frequency of response
Improving participants' understanding of the local and economic realities	2
Real compensation for the amount of time spent individually in process	1
Providing adequate, relevant info right from the start of the process	1
Multiple accounts valuation seemed imprecise to make decisions	4
More use of a GIS manager and technical team	1
Intrinsic assets need to be better addressed	1
Using a different planning approach to include areas of high biodiversity	1
Resource value mapping was overly touted	2
Improving stakeholders' representation	2

6. *What barriers do you perceive might block implementation of the LRMP?*

Barriers to process implementation	Frequency of response
Absence of First Nations at the table	5
Lack of structure	2
Lack of collaboration among stakeholders	3
Disagreement among stakeholders on values and interests	6
Seeking political solution rather than consensus based decision	4
Change in government	2
Lack of commitment to protect special management zones	1
Lack of involvement from government	1
Lack of resources and training	1
First Nations treaty negotiations	2
Government-to-government negotiations	1

7. *Who benefited most from the outcomes of the process?*

Who benefited the most from the outcome	Frequency of response
Consultants and staff	3
People who opted or dropped out of the process	2
Resource user interests	5
Everyone, public, community	3
Conservation and recreation interests	1
Government	2
People with appropriate resources (time, money, and training)	1
Other	1
Do not know	4

8. *What advice would you give to someone who was thinking of participating in a future LRMP process?*

Advices	Frequency of response
Include First Nations in the process	1
Inequalities in decision power and influence among stakeholders	2
Full commitment	3
Hard work, lengthy process	4
Highly political	1
Insure that leadership has government authority for implementation	1
Insure that all participants are fully knowledgeable at the start and through the process	3
Clarify your position, set your goals and objectives	2
LRMP process may not lead to successful outcome	2
Be prepared for process structure and practices	1
Insure that government has good facilitators	1

9. *Would you like to make any additional comments?*

Additional comments	Frequency of response
LRMP process can be a rewarding experience professionally and personally	1
LRMP is based on power inequalities among the participants	1
Insatisfaction about the process outcome	1
Lack of local involvement	1
LRMP is an effective way of setting out land use disputes	1