- *Functional participation* – for example, participating in a group as part of a project because that will lead to training and other inputs that come with the project.

- *Interactive participation* – this is when people participate in joint analysis, planning and monitoring.

- *Self-mobilisation* – where people take the initiative themselves for change without need for external intervention.

1.3 SOME ISSUES IN PARTICIPATION

a. The need for participatory community institutions: There has been considerable participatory work in communities over the past few decades yet we still lack an adequate understanding of the way community-based organisations develop and how they can be strengthened. It appears that participatory practices would last if they are institutionalised in community structures and organisations. This is a challenge in most communities.

b. Balancing participation and achievement of results: There is need to balance the process and results. Participation is a process, often involving many people, ideas and options, nurturing understanding, involvement, commitment and action. The problem may not be so much that participation takes time, but may have more to do with the way people approach development. Projects often try to force the pace of development. Funding styles and pressures often lie behind forcing the pace too much.

c. The need for support organisations to walk their talk: Like anything that grows, participation will flourish in an environment that suits its growth. In an organisation, this means having an environment that promotes and celebrates participation as much as possible; an environment that innovates in the field of participation; and an environment that understands and sticks to the core principles of participation. The organisational culture of many development organisations limits creation of an enabling environment for participation.

d. Letting communities speak for themselves: The current thrust of participatory development is more towards building relationships within the community than between external agencies and local communities. However, it appears that there is need for participation that enables a community or its representatives to participate in external fora. It is becoming apparent that to be effective, the community needs strengthening in its ability to participate in external events which bring new challenges about how to choose, enable, and monitor its own representatives. This links with the rights-based approach to development that people talk of today.

e. Do we start with the problems or with the desired situation: The dominant approach to development has, until recently, been based on a needs-based approach. This means

that facilitators of development processes in communities use that community's needs as the starting point as opposed to an assets-based approach, where one starts with the assets that a community has. The assets-based approach concentrates on the positive since it focuses on what people have rather than what they do not have. Are people not more likely to become involved if they start from this more positive basis?

f. Monitoring participation: One of the major challenges facing the promotion of participation in development work is how to monitor it. Indicators of participation are not easy to come up with because participation is not easy to measure. How does one, in a practical way, compare the levels of participation at different stages and time? What tells us that there is more (or less) participation? One may look at aspects such as involvement in meetings, who is involved in decision-making, confidence levels, and numbers of people joining in. The important thing is to ensure that there is some monitoring of participation. There may be a temptation to ignore monitoring participation because it is difficult and yet it is useful because people can learn a lot about participation itself during the discussions on monitoring.

1.4 DEMYSTIFYING PARTICIPATORY APPROACH TERMINOLOGY

As part of the shift from Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) to Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), many new terms have appeared. That is how shifts often work. To make the shift, we need to find new ways of describing what we are shifting to in order to emphasise its newness. Participatory Technology Development (PTD), Participatory Impact Monitoring (PIM), Participatory Learning and Action (PLA); one could fill half a page with all the new terms. Some of them refer to a particular way of doing something while others are umbrella terms. Many of them are a good source of ideas. However, we now need to move beyond all these terms and understand what lies at the heart of participation. What is it really about? This will enable development workers to continue the momentum towards greater participation. Being deeply aware of the core principles of participation is the first step. One needs to keep re-making this first step.

## 1.5 INSTITUTIONALISING PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES AT ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL

a. Building organisations on participation principles: Participation must not be merely seen as an input into a project, but as an essential operational principle which should underpin all activities. Many problems in participation processes arise because field staff are not backed up by colleagues in their organisation. However, any strategy for change will need the commitment of top-level management, co-ordination, and communication both inside and outside the organisation. Change is likely to produce resistance, and it is easy to blame the community for problems which actually lie within the organisation itself. To accommodate people's full

participation, a development organisation or project has to be flexible to develop in accordance with local people's abilities and leave space for them to take more and more responsibility. This means limiting pre-determined project objectives.

b. Building the organisation's internal capacity to internalise participatory approaches:
This means:

- Staff must be trained to value local viewpoints instead of operating under the assumption that management alone has the 'right answer'.

- Facilitation skills: helping others think through what they want and to organise themselves to achieve it. A good facilitator is a "good listener".

- Build in opportunities for reflection and appraisal of every participation process and learn from past experiences.

- Effective participation is more about approach and attitudes than using participatory techniques. Techniques can only help to identify people's concerns, options and priorities, and to draw out possible solutions. Techniques should not be seen as 'quick fixes' but as part of a long-term programme. Techniques should be handled with flexibility and be adapted to the specific context, environment and phases in the process. Use them in an innovative and creative way.
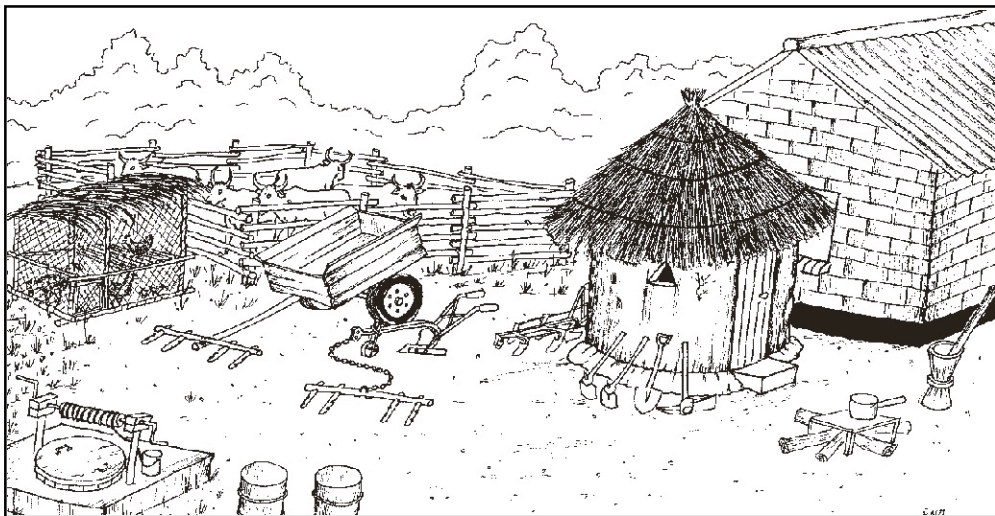
It helps to start with what people have (physical assets).

c. Consider the local context: It is critical that initiatives to promote participatory development understand and examine the political and cultural context in which participation is to occur. Participation does not take place in a vacuum. Its development and progress will be influenced by a variety of factors. Therefore, time should be made available at the

beginning of any participatory project to identify and analyse the factors which could influence the process. In this respect a stakeholder analysis is a useful initial step.

1.6 INSTITUTIONALISING PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

Once communities have seen the success of their own activities and action plans, they will develop more and more confidence, as well as trust and commitment to the process. The more communities evolve, the more they will start realising that they also need support and coalitions with other development stakeholders to access outside resources and expertise. The building of sustainable and accessible community organisations becomes very important for the community in order for it to establish links with a whole range of service providers which can help to achieve its objectives. Capacity building in negotiation, support to network development and building linkages will become high priorities as communities develop. Organised communities go through recognisable stages. These are:

- Forming: coming together and deciding on concerns, and alternatives to improve the lives of community members.

- Storming: coming to terms with differences of view, perceptions, and visions of different groups in the community.

- Norming: agreeing on objectives, priorities, procedures and ways of relating to each other.

- Performing: getting on with the work without having to spend a lot of time and energy deciding what needs to be done and how it should be done.

CHAPTER 2:

STREAMS OF PARTICIPATION AND THEIR ENABLERS

John Wilson and Mutizwa Mukute

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Although there is a lot of participatory practice in African tradition, it has not been documented much in the context of participatory approaches. The traditional "dare" of the "Shona" people of Zimbabwe was a place where the chief consulted his/her people and made decisions with them on matters of concern to the community. Among the Tswana people of Botswana, the "kgotla" served the same purpose. It is a challenge for every development facilitator to understand the participatory streams that run through the communities that they work with and to build on them.

There are several streams of thought and approaches that fed into participatory thinking and practice. Participatory development practice came about because people were unhappy with being told what to do by outsiders who had little appreciation of the local realities. The top-down solutions were failing to bring about the desired changes within the communities that were meant to benefit. The major contributions came from the fields of education, sociology and applied sciences.

The traditional "dare" of the "Shona" people of Zimbabwe was a place where the chief consulted his/her people and made decisions with them on matters of concern to the community.

2.2 EVOLUTION OF PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

a. Banking Approach: In the 1960s Paolo Freire of Latin America questioned the idea of knowledge transfer in education. He discouraged what he called the "banking" approach in which you "pour" knowledge into someone as if they were blank. He instead called for, an approach in which the development of knowledge is based on, and grows out of, peoples' own reality. He called it "conscientisation". Paolo Freire's work revolutionised adult education. It sowed the seeds for the participatory approaches by shifting the emphasis from a one-way transfer of knowledge to one in which knowledge sharing moves in all directions. His work emphasised empowerment.

b. Agro-ecosystem Analysis: Agro-ecosystem analysis, which was developed in the 1970s, is an umbrella term for a number of participatory tools such as informal mapping, transects, and scoring and ranking. It grew out of a systems way of thinking. In this way of thinking you look at and consider the whole system. Relationships become a very important consideration. Rather than just looking at individual parts, what matters more are the relationships between those parts. Agro-ecosystem analysis recognises the complex nature of communities and their relationship to each other and to the land, for example. It also views each situation as being unique.

c. Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA): This approach was developed in the early 1980s. The emphasis of RRA is to assist outsiders to understand rural people and their situations better and more quickly. The aim is to assist outsiders to make better decisions about their dealings with local people. It is essentially about the relationship between external agents and local people and not so much about the level and quality of participation amongst local people themselves.

d. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): During the 1990s a shift from Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) to Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) took place. This led to external people playing more and more of a facilitator's role. The emphasis in PRA is on participation within a community or other social grouping for the benefit of that local community and for the sake of empowerment. It is about ensuring maximum involvement of all actors in a given situation. These actors may be women or men, rich or poor, educated or not, and with low or high status. They may come from a particular community, or they may be a mixed group of people that come from the community and further afield. PRA arose in response to the dissatisfaction with biases in rural development, especially the anti-poverty bias. It also emerged in response to the ineffective results generated from questionnaires and surveys.

e. Applied Anthropology: Whereas social anthropology is concerned with just understanding the way things are, applied anthropology seeks to make use of such understanding to bring about desired change in a community. The main contribution of applied anthropology is to

highlight the importance of local knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and perspectives when assessing the situation and planning for transformation. Techniques that are associated with applied anthropology include focus group discussions, unhurried observations and informal interviews.

f. Field research on farming systems: The primary contribution of this approach was the recognition of farmers as capable of taking part in research and experimentation. This is a different way of looking at farmers since research has traditionally been associated with those who were formally schooled. Experience in working with this approach resulted in a better appreciation of farmers' capacity to conduct their own analyses and experiments, and of the complexity of the farming systems of small farmers.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING YOURSELF IN ORDER TO PARTICIPATE

a. Self-observation: As we participate in development work, we need to not only observe others but observe ourselves as well. This is where a good amount of learning and improvement can occur. One important thing to point out is that self-observation does not mean self-judgment. When you observe yourself expressing frustration, you do not judge whether that frustration is right or wrong, you just observe it. Or, when you are facilitating a group session and one member is dominating and you are having difficulty managing this, you feel irritated. With self-observation you notice that irritation – perhaps in your tone of voice or in your body movements, or both. The observer in you notices this disappointment.

b. Self-awareness: Self-awareness is the way in which you can gradually and steadily improve your ability to use participatory methods. The challenge in becoming skilled in participation is to improve the way in which you use these tools. At various stages in this guide, the importance of attitude is emphasised; that it matters more than the tools; that it is what lies behind successful work in participation. Self-awareness is concerned with understanding the way you feel and why you feel that way. This then helps us relate effectively with other people through relationship management.

c. Response-ability: Self-awareness improves one's ability to respond appropriately to different situations. This is why it links closely with improving one's ability to participate, as a facilitator or participant. Every situation where people are working together on something is unique and a lot depends on how one responds. This may be the response at the moment or response over a period of time. The more people can manage their response, the more likely they are to contribute positively to participation. Your attitude and response are the critical assets in participatory development.

2.4 DATA COLLECTION IN PARTICIPATION

a. Listening: Listening facilitates clear communication and helps to create an environment of mutual understanding. Hearing becomes listening only when you pay attention to what is said, and follow it very closely. You listen so that you:

•   show your support and help the other person(s) relax;

•   show you are accepting them and open to them;

•   enable each other to speak and be heard;

•   are able to ask questions to clarify certain issues;

•   check assumptions;

•   clear up mis-perceptions or mis-conceptions;

•   find the key points or issues;

•   provide the silence necessary to encourage speech; and

•   know when to bring to closure and when to test for agreements.

Look at the other person: You can be a better listener when you look at the other person. Your eyes pick up the non-verbal signals that all people send out when they are speaking. By looking at the speaker, your eyes will also complete the eye contact that speakers try to make.

Show that you are listening and interested by asking questions and giving feedback.

Respond to the speaker: When you have established eye contact with your speaker, you must then *react to the speaker* by sending out non-verbal signals. For example your facial expressions may change, and give the range of emotions that indicate whether you are following what the speaker is saying or not.

Listen to the ideas: Effective listening obliges you to react to the ideas presented, rather than the person. You can then move to asking questions, instead of giving your opinion on the information being presented. It is an effective listening skill to use your mouth as a moving receptor of information rather than a broadcaster.

Engage the speaker by looking for opportunities to subtly mirror his/her cues: Do not mimic, but do look for ways to be meaningful. For example, if he/she speaks slowly, try to match his/her pace.

Try to listen for what is not being said: What could be missing that you might expect to hear in the circumstances?

Observe how things are said: The emotions and attitudes behind the words may be more important than what is actually said. Look beyond the mere words the speaker uses. Remember that much information is displayed in voice intonation and body language.

Engage with the speaker: Show that you are listening and interested by asking questions and feeding back, reframing and summarising. However, be careful not to interrupt the speaker's flow particularly in the early stages.

b. Observation: Observation techniques can be direct (informal observation) or participatory (participant observation). Direct observation usually involves the intensive and systematic capturing of visual phenomena and processes within the community surroundings. Results of direct observation should be cross-checked with key informants to verify their accuracy as part of triangulation. Direct observations must be as discreet as possible and help to avoid problems such as farmer recall and the need to interpret verbal responses. However, direct observation can be constrained by logistical problems such as transport and small sample sizes.

Transect walks use the skills of observation to record data on the ecological, social and economic aspects of the environment. Detailed observation is better achieved by staying with the community over lengthy periods of time of even up to three months. It provides a deeper understanding of the socio-cultural situation of the community. It is very important to take notes every evening, recording the results of all discussions, observations and impressions of the day.

c. Semi-structured Interviews: The interviews are carried out based on a checklist of issues that need to be covered. The interviewer is open-minded and watches out for emerging issues and questions from the interviews. This is generally more effective when the checklist of items is developed by or with the people themselves. Timelines and historical trends can be drawn from semi-structured interviews carried out with the community elders of a village.

d. Group work: People may be organised into groups to discuss and answer questions that will bring out information that may be needed. Group activities can be used to cross-check information that emerged from observations, interviews and the literature. Seasonal patterns and trends, community needs and aspirations, social relationships and other information are effectively gathered through group work.

e. Literature review: Another important source of information is background information on the area in question. This may be found in minutes of group meetings, government files and NGO project reports. It may also be found in personal diaries as well as formal and informal publications. The credibility of information tends to increase when various sources are used. This use of various sources is a form of triangulation.

2.5 INFORMATION ANALYSIS IN PARTICIPATION

When information is collected, the next stage is to analyse it for consistency, credibility, patterns, trends, clarity, planning purposes and action. Information analysis can be done by a number of individuals separately, by a number of groups separately, or together in a large group.

Analysis entails re-organising information to make it meaningful. It can help with explaining why things are the way they are, how they are related, and the implications of the information. Analysis does not take things for granted. A framework is often essential in order to facilitate the analysis. This may be in the form of questions or subsections.

The special feature of participatory analysis is that it involves the people whose situation is being explored. Another unique aspect is that the analysis is done in order to make a difference in the way people live. It is not just academic, but is intended to effect social transformation.

CHAPTER 3:

PROCESS OF PARTICIPATION

Mutizwa Mukute and John Wilson

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Participation as a development process: Participation is a process which requires a lot of creativity and flexibility to ensure that it is lively and interesting for the participants. It is a complex process with few universal truths, approaches or methodologies. It takes time, resources, understanding and perseverance. More importantly, the end result should be a development process which is not exclusively in the hands of development professionals, but which is owned by local people and their representatives, and also builds on their ideas, skills and knowledge.

In designing participatory processes one should make a distinction between participation as a means or as an end.

Participation as a means: participation is seen as a process whereby local people cooperate or collaborate among themselves, or with externally introduced development programmes or projects. In this way, participation becomes the means whereby such initiatives can be implemented more effectively. This approach is widespread and essentially promotes participation as a means of ensuring the successful outcome of the activities undertaken.

Participation as an end: participation is seen as a goal within itself. This goal can be expressed as the empowering of people to acquire the skills, knowledge and experiences that enable them to take part in addressing their own interests, needs and aspirations.

3.2 VISIONING

a. Meaning of visioning: People define how they would like their future to be. They describe the values they want upheld, and the economic, ecological and social capital they would like to have. The vision is therefore a desired kind of life by an individual or a given group of people living together. People may share stories of exceptional accomplishments of the community and deliberate upon the aspects of their history that they most value and want to enhance in the future.

At organisational level: The toughest problems in participation processes often arise because organisations promoting participation are not really clear about (i) what they want to achieve from the participation process, (ii) the level of participation they want to reach, and (iii) the role and responsibilities the organisation will take up in the process. Such problems develop because of inadequate preparation within the promoting organisation. As a result, when community interest is engaged, the organisation cannot deliver on its promises. Therefore, there is a need for a shared vision, a clear purpose and commitment at organisational level. In order to achieve this vision, it is a good idea to apply participation techniques in your own organisation so as to define the purpose of the participatory process.

An important step that accompanies participatory processes with a community is to establish the interface with the community and the external agent. "Is an external facilitator needed in this process?" In a lot of cases in rural or urban poor communities an external facilitator can act as a catalyst to set in motion a process of empowering communities to make their own choices and decisions for a better future. However, the role of the facilitator has to be clearly defined so as to avoid confusion during the process. In participatory processes, facilitators are often 'enablers' who help people to think, analyse, make choices and organise themselves.

At community level: It helps for the community to be ready and willing to work in a participatory way. This means there must already be a level of mutual trust before engaging with a community.

b. The value of a vision: *"There is a land in us which leads our dreams from within"* is a popular verse from Amuri Said, a Tunisian poet, indicating that everybody has a vision of how society should or could be like in the future.

This future should be based on a vision so that decisions can be made towards this vision. Everybody has an idea on the quality of life they would like to have; every community has values that it considers important. Visioning can help to make these values more explicit and mark the way forward for the future.

> *"Would you tell me please which way I ought to go from here?"*
> *"That depends a good deal on where you want to get to," said the cat.*
> *"I don't much care where" said Alice*
> *"Then it does not matter which way you go", said the cat*
>
> *From Alice in Wonderland – Lewis Carroll*

c. How to do community visioning: Developing a community vision can proceed as follows:

•   Community works in groups which can be age-or gender-related or mixed and decides what it would like to be;

•   Groups imagine a community where problems are completely solved and draw a picture of what community they would like. The use of colours, shapes, words and images makes it livelier;

•   Different groups present their pictures and explain what they present. The key words, and value-related words and statements are captured (e.g. all women, safe neighbourhood); and

•   The whole group studies the words and statements and jointly constructs a vision statement that reflects the contributions from all groups.

3.3   COMMUNITY APPRAISAL

a. Meaning of Appraisal: To appraise is to assess something, to attach value and meaning to it. In development work appraisal is made up of two main parts, data gathering and data analysis. Participatory appraisals are done in order to understand a situation and to take the necessary action to improve that situation. There are different approaches to community appraisal. They include the problem-solving approach and the appreciative approach.

To realise your dream, you have to know where you are now. An empowering participation process needs to consider the actual situation of a community through an exploration and appraisal of concerns, potentials of the community itself, and forces that impact on them. Looking at one's own situation and analysing it is often called "internal analysis", while looking at the outside environment which has an impact on the community is called "external analysis".
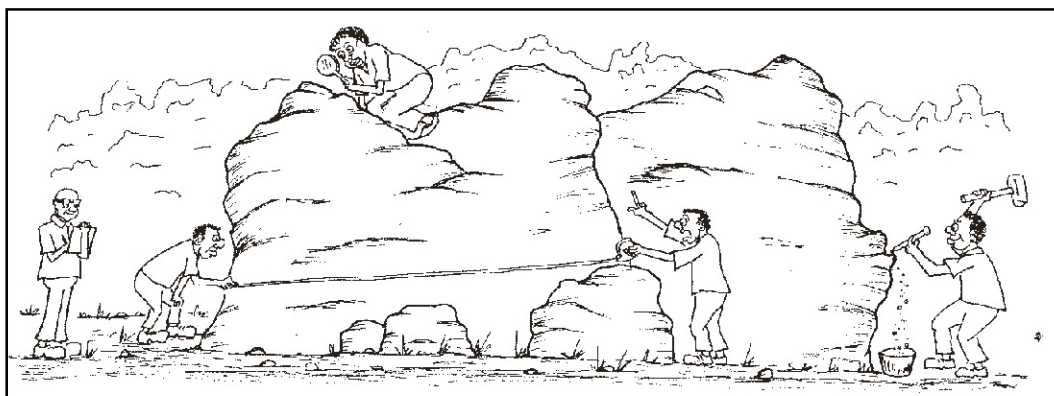
To appraise is to assess something, to attach value and meaning to it.

To ensure rigour in participatory appraisal, it is advisable to:

- make sure that you live long enough with the people to appreciate them and their contexts;

- triangulate by techniques, sources and investigators;

- establish and analyse differences;

- involve peers in checking and enquiring processes; and

- think of descriptions of complex realities as they are encountered by different people.

b. Problem solving approach: The more conventional 'problem-solving' approach traditionally involves identification of key problems and analysis of the causes of the problems. It is a technical response that focuses on breaking down the situation into components, analysing them, identifying trouble spots, fixing them, and building up the system to its original state. The result of this approach is that the changes occur in a linear process that assumes we can repair communities in the way we can repair a car or a computer. If the problems are fixed, the community will be empowered.

c. Appreciative Approach: A 'positive approach' to community appraisal looks for those things in a community that are healthy, creative and supportive to change. It recognises values and affirms past and present strengths, successes and potentials. Appreciative enquiry is a method that seeks out the 'best of what is" so as to help ignite the collective imagination of "what might be". It is based on asking questions that strengthen the capacity to anticipate and heighten the positive potential of community members. Appreciative enquiry encourages people to recount memories of successes, discover what is common to these accounts, and to commit themselves to create more of what has worked and that is positive.

At the heart of appreciative enquiry is the appreciative interview. It can be conducted as a focus group process for community self-appraisal. The facilitator encourages dialogue between people to help draw examples, stories and metaphors.

Box 2: Sample interview questions for an appreciative enquiry

- I wonder if you can share stories about a time when you were proud to be a member of your community? What was it that made the community perform so well and that made you proud of being a member?

- Who was involved? Why did it work? What were you doing? What were other people doing?

- What do you most value about your community and its members? What do you think are the main factors that give life to your community?

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d. Some tools used in community appraisal: Participatory appraisal tools are the subject of many books on participatory development. The tools are so many that people often get confused about which ones to pick under which circumstances. An understanding of the purpose of each tool can help one choose and use the right tool for the right purpose.

Relatively simple tools such as semi-structured interviews, mapping, seasonal callers, social maps, mobility maps, transect walks, seasonal calendars, daily routine diagrams, venn diagrams, flow chart and scanning can be used. Other tools such as SWOT analysis, STEEP analysis, Livelihood Asset Analysis, Stakeholder and Stakeless analysis, Gender analysis, Capacity and Vulnerability analysis, Weak Link analysis, Cost-Benefit analysis and Citizen's jury are less understood and are therefore briefly described in the following section.

SWOT Analysis: SWOT analysis looks at the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. It is done from a particular perspective: it could be that of a department, a community or an NGO. The strengths and weaknesses are internal. The threats and opportunities are external factors. The idea is to then look at how to optimise the opportunities and minimise the threats.

STEEP Analysis: This focuses on the social, technological, ecological, economic and political (including the legal) state of the community. Put together, this constitutes the context in which the community lives. The ecological dimension covers questions of the bio-physical environment, its quality, quantity and ability to support the interests and needs of a community. Questions of power, access and ownership may come up as one does social analysis. The political questions include questions of power, equity, access, relationships between different groups of people, including between men and women.

Livelihood Asset Analysis: STEEP Analysis is closely related to Livelihood Asset Analysis which refers to what the people have collectively and individually, and the potential to improve their livelihoods. The assets may be soft or hard. The main asset groupings are human, social, infrastructural, financial and natural. Again, the question of who owns the assets and who has right to use them is important to understand in order to come up with effective strategies. Gender analysis becomes an important and cross-cutting tool.

Stakeholder Analysis: This tool is about identifying the different actors in a given situation, the roles they play and how they are related to one another. Basically, each stakeholder has a stake, an interest in what goes on. Some of the interests will naturally clash and one of the reasons for doing a stakeholder analysis is to understand this so that solutions are cognisant of the clashes.

Gender Analysis: This is concerned with taking into account the different and often complementary needs and priorities of both women and men. The roles of men and women

tend to vary over space and time, e.g the roles of Sotho women are different from those of Nyanja, Tswana or Herero women. It is grounded in liberation, transformation and empowerment thinking and has become an integral part of participatory methodologies. Gender analysis is also built on the idea of cooperation between men and women and on the knowledge that gender roles are a social construct.

Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis is based on three main assumptions:

• No one develops anyone else. People develop themselves.

• Development is a process whereby vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities increased.

• Relief projects are not neutral in their developmental impact.

The analysis may build on the strengths and threats in the SWOT analysis. Vulnerability analysis helps one establish the shocks that the community gets exposed to and how communities respond to them. These include droughts, floods and diseases; the seasonality of production, health and nutrition, price movements and employment levels, the trends in terms of governance, access to resources, structural changes and resource availability. In this scenario, the gender dimension of equity and equality should be analysed. The importance of understanding how people are prepared and able to handle difficulties may have a bearing on how they may relate with a natural resource such as a wetland.

Weak Link Analysis: The most typical manner in which this method may be used in natural resources management is to look at whether the weakest link lies in there being limited solar energy, or limited plants to convert the solar energy, water and nutrients into consumable substances; or no animals to eat the plants or no market to consume the animals. Once the weak link is known, then it can be addressed.

Cost-Benefit Analysis: This is an important tool in determining what the intervention could bring to the people and can quickly tell you that you are not about to address the key question of equity.

Citizen's jury: It is likely that in STEEP Analysis, some of the issues raised will be of a policy nature. One way of addressing a policy issue in a participatory manner is to use a citizen's jury. This jury is made up of people who are randomly selected. It may be wise to ensure that the jury represents a wide cross-section of the community. The other way is to top up the randomly selected citizens because in participatory methodologies, selection is often purposeful as opposed to random.

The jury meets for 2-4 days depending on the complexity of the matter. Two or so moderators work with the jury (12-20) so that it considers the matter from many angles. A Steering Committee decides on what information should be made available to the jurors so that it is not too little or

too much. Another important role of the Steering Committee is to choose witnesses from different interest groups. The value of the citizen's jury is the "lay input" into policy and planning. An important feature of the citizen's jury is going through rituals of precision as encountered in courts i.e. emphasis on procedures, the separation of the jury from the witnesses, the interrogation of witnesses, use of expert evidence, the process of decision-making about verdict, and making judgment. Citizen juries have been used in the UK, at the World Summit for Sustainable Development in Johannesburg and other countries in Europe. A question that was addressed by a jury in Cardiff, UK was: *"What conditions should be fulfilled before genetic therapy for people susceptible to common diseases becomes available on the National Health Service?"*

e. Participatory Planning: Planning is all about translating a vision into practice by creating short and long-term goals that will achieve the vision. The first step in making the vision a reality is to set clear goals. To do this, we need to look at a certain date in the future and agree upon the situation that we hope to have reached by that time. Goals are long-range destinations that are possible to achieve. Often communities set goals that are very ambitious and not immediately attainable. Force Field Analysis can help communities to set more realistic goals by analysing forces that help reach the goal and those which are likely to hinder it. The second step is to set objectives or definite stages on the road towards each goal.

Action planning involves determining the activities to be carried out, the resources required, the timing as well as the responsibilities. In the action plan, the objectives of the community are operationalised. It is important to get consensus and compromise within the community when making decisions on what to do and how to do it.

The community action plan is a result of a process of awareness creation with regards to the community's needs and self-help potential to solve their problems. It is important for communities to come up with their own activities without interference from the facilitator. All the facilitator should do is emphasise sustainability and use of local resources to ensure ownership by the community. The facilitator can also help the community refine their action plans by asking them whether their plans are realistic, manageable, sustainable and also which preconditions are necessary for the implementation plan to be successful.

f. Implementation of Community Plans: The success of the implementation of a community action plan depends to a large extent on how well the available human resources are organised. Everyone is equally important regardless of his/her strengths and weaknesses. All diverse 'energies' have to be pulled together to create synergy and ensure that the community succeeds.

In order to achieve what is planned, people will often have to work together in groups, not independently but co-operatively. There needs to be good coordination within the community. Community members themselves have to define what kind of groups or structures should take up

a particular responsibility. When existing groups are not found suitable for managing the programme, a participatory approach should be used to develop new management /coordination structures. It is important to know that not everyone in the community should have an equal stake and different levels of involvement are needed for different levels of commitment. Not everyone needs to be involved in every issue, at every level and at every stage. Therefore, a village committee could be a suitable organisation to coordinate the activities.
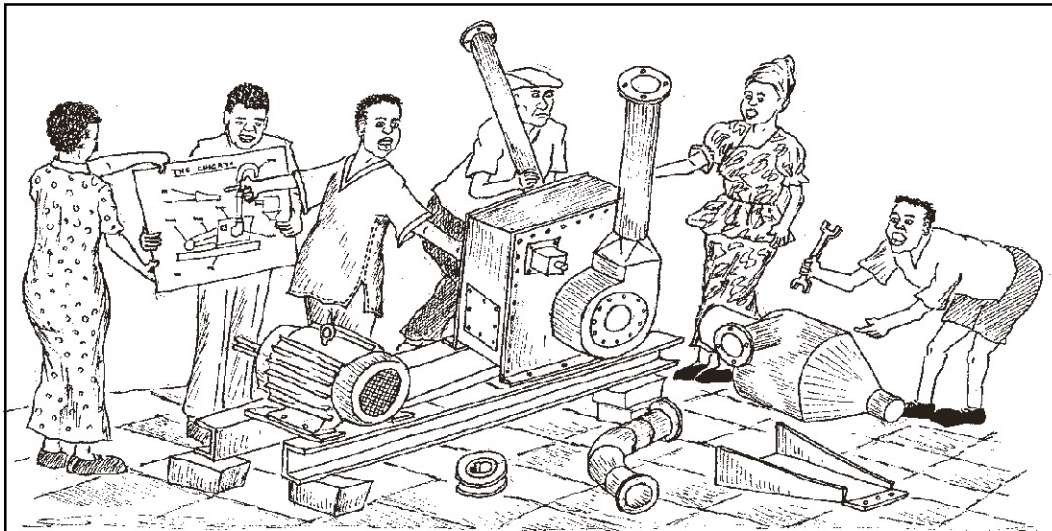
Participation is seen as a process whereby local people cooperate or collaborate among themselves, or with externally introduced development programmes or projects.

Trust and open communication are very important for a community to work together as a team so as to avoid conflicts or problems.   Mis-communication can easily happen when too many people are involved, too much information is available, ideas are complicated, and perceptions are different.

CHAPTER 4:

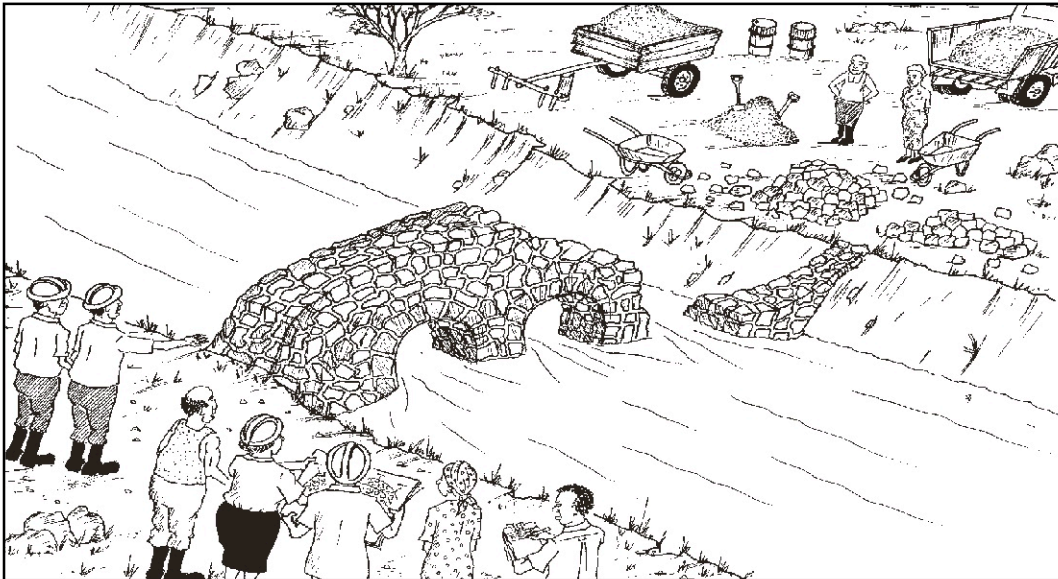# PARTICIPATORY MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Rita Kestier

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

Monitoring Implementation: Monitoring means keeping regular records of group decisions, actions and finances, and checking that actions are taking place according to plans. It helps to determine if activities are on track and can suggest ways to adjust or change plans if necessary. The community needs to decide for itself what it will monitor so as to help them in the implementation of the activities, and to determine if their lives are improving from the project/activity they are jointly undertaking.

Monitoring does not *per se* have to be formal. The main thing is to sit together regularly and reflect on the changes which occur as time progresses. These might be small changes. However, the important element is that the communities regard the change to be important.

4.2 PARTICIPATORY IMPACT MONITORING

The tool of "participatory impact monitoring" (PIM) can be used as a process to learn from experience and to help motivate and empower people to reflect on their successes and work positively together.

VECO introduced Partcipatory Impact Monitoring (PIM) which resulted in the involvement of farmers, project staff and support service organisations in defining and monitoring the impact they expected from their joint activities.

Case study: Use of Participatory Impact Monitoring in a project in Donzwe area – Mudzi communal lands, Zimbabwe

What reality counts – PIM in VECO: *VECO is a Belgian development NGO working in marginalised communities in Africa, Latin America and Asia. Its strategic focus is to reinforce the technical, organisational and negotiation capacities of marginalised groups and their allies in civil society. VECO Zimbabwe implements this strategic focus by giving technical, methodological and organisational support to grassroots farmer groups and local NGOs.*

Until 1997, VECO monitored the impact of its projects/programs using conventional methods. However, there was always a feeling of uneasiness with the indicators as they did not contain elements of empowerment, which is the main aim of the organisation. To overcome this dissatisfaction, VECO introduced Participatory Impact Monitoring (PIM), which resulted in the involvement of farmers, project staff and support service organisations in defining and monitoring the impact they expect from their joint activities.

PIM process in Donzwe

Initiating the PIM process – creating awareness of the need for impact monitoring: *Donzwe Village is situated in Mudzi communal area and comprises six kraals. Since 1998, the communities have been working with VECO to construct a dam to provide water for livestock for over 300 households. The participation of villagers in the construction was facilitated through an elected dam committee with representatives from all the six kraals. This committee also monitored logistical and technical issues during construction, in cooperation with the contractor and Mudzi ADP staff.*

VECO initiated a PIM process to enhance the ability of communities to monitor their own fears and expectations of the new dam, and to assess the positive and negative impacts of the dam on their livelihoods . The process started with a series of awareness meetings in each kraal. All villagers reflected on the impact they expected the dam to have on their livelihoods at three levels: personal/household, group/village level and the wider community.

Each kraal set-up a monitoring committee, met monthly to discuss monitoring findings (especially at the beginning of the process), and proposed appropriate actions to maximise use of the dam. The monitoring findings and action proposals from each village were brought to the dam committee that organised joint actions where necessary.

Implementing PIM – monitoring fears and expectations *Project staff then facilitated village-specific monitoring processes and helped villagers to (i) concretise their fears/expectations, (ii) work out indicators and (iii) define a monitoring format with clear responsibilities and timing. Special care was given to take into account gender-specific fears/expectations during the monitoring.*

Siltation was perceived as a major threat while villagers expected a dip-tank to be built, gardens to be designed and more water to be available for cattle now that it would be available nearby. Women also feared that crocodiles might eat their children.