

# Training Manual for Local Governance and Women Group Representatives

Module VI



*Transformative Role  
of Local Government  
Representatives*





# 1. INTRODUCTION



**D**evelopment of rural communities is a complex process. It is a process by which a rural community becomes responsible. It is a driving force aimed at improving living conditions of rural people. The process encourages the ownership from the local population of its socio-economic development, ensuring equitable access of women and men and a sustainable environment for future generations.

The process combines local, social and economic aspects. Local social development promotes quality and accessible social, health, education services, etc. and social infrastructure, such as drinking water networks, health centres and accessible schools. It encourages the development of local entrepreneurship including cooperatives and job creation, as well as access to services and infrastructure such as quality roads, markets, electricity and others, maintained and supported by environmental protection measures.

Within the framework of gender mainstreaming, gender issues in local governance represent targeted changes in terms of gender and local governance: namely, women's equitable representation, their active participation, their access to and control of resources, and effective policies. Women should have equitable access to:

- Services and infrastructure that meet their specific needs.
- Business development and job creation.

In this process women should be free to manage their incomes.

In order to achieve these aspects of development of rural communities, the field of local governance institutions (LGIs) has been undergoing accelerated transformation as part of the wider public sector reform in developing countries. The decentralisation of functions by governments to sub-national levels has created new challenges for sub-national structures requiring improved efficiency and effectiveness in the discharge of their functions.

The quality of services in rural areas has been on the decline. Thus, new challenges emerging from increasing poverty in rural areas require livelihood strategies that harness the decline in the quality of life. The challenge that LGIs have to address is: How can they strengthen and empower their local communities? Coming up with gender sensitive policies and programmes and the need to design strategies to deal with the problems of the marginalised and vulnerable people are some of the challenges facing local government institutions in rural areas.

In many local authorities, the need to continue to provide affordable services to a heterogeneous citizenry at affordable cost poses the greatest challenge.

The need for a sustainable local governance system in rural areas cannot be over-emphasised. This can only be guaranteed if there is sufficient throughput into the local governance institution system of a well-trained and skilled human resource.

The aim is to provide basic tools and techniques for building the capacity of local government representatives in planning the integrated rural development programme on the one hand and identifying strategies building institutional capacities of local government institutions in rural communities on the other.

## Objectives

- After completing this module you would be able to:
  - ▶ *Explain concepts of micro-enterprise development and microfinance institutions.*
  - ▶ *Describe how ICT can contribute to rural economic development.*
  - ▶ *Explain self-help group and its characteristics.*
  - ▶ *Describe the role of public and private sectors, NGOs and civil society organisations and strategies of working with them.*
  - ▶ *Explain the process of capacity assessment of LGRs.*
  - ▶ *Describe role and responsibilities of LGRs.*

## Contents

- Development of micro-enterprise.
- Role and type of financial institutions.
- Concept of microcredit and its use.
- Role of ICT in rural economic development.
- Role and functions of self-help groups.
- Role of public and private sector, NGOs and civil society organisations.
- Type of stakeholders and their role in rural development.
- Assessment of capacities of local governance institutions.
- Role, tasks and responsibilities of local governance representatives.

## 2. UNDERSTANDING MICROCREDIT AND MANAGING PERSONAL FINANCE

It is generally accepted that microfinance is a powerful economic development tool. Microfinance institutions (MFIs) deliver basic financial services to poor and low income people or micro-entrepreneurs, with little or no access to the formal financial system.

Micro-entrepreneurs or economically active poor, are business people who through microfinance take advantage of economic opportunities that otherwise would remain unmatched due to financial constraints. What makes microfinance different from other anti-poverty tools is the idea of improving the living conditions of the poor through their own efforts. Credit is given to support “micro-businesses”, allowing low-income people to respond to economic opportunities.

It is important to make clear the importance and at the same time the limits of microfinance. It is an economic development tool among many and alone it is not the definitive answer to poverty alleviation. Its effectiveness has been tested and demonstrated but it should be used in conjunction with other tools; the poorest of the poor, for instance, need other forms of support before being able to make use of loans. These limitations give the exact background in which microfinance should be placed as an extraordinary powerful instrument against a particular portion of poverty.

### 2.1 What is Microcredit?

A **microcredit** is a small credit given to a client by a bank or another institution.

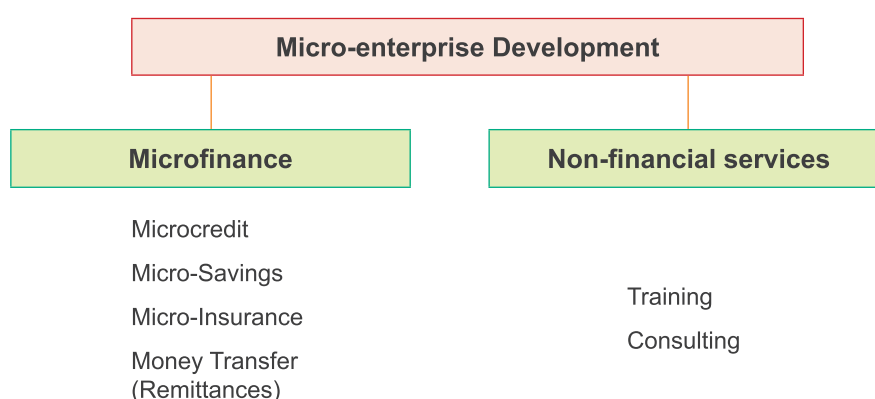
Microcredit can be offered, often without collateral, to an individual or through



group lending. Group lending is a mechanism that allows a number of individuals to obtain a loan through a group scheme. The incentive to repay is based on peer pressure; if one person in the group defaults, the other group members must make up the payment amount. Individual lending, in contrast, focuses on one client and does not require the formation of groups. Figure 6.1 shows the micro-enterprise development.

A **microfinance institution** (MFI) is then a financial institution which can be a non-profit organisation or a regulated financial institution or a commercial bank that provides microfinancial products and services to low-income clients or micro-entrepreneurs.

**Figure 6.1: Micro-enterprise Development**



*Source: Mareo Elia, Università Degli studi Di Torino, Scuola Di Amministrazione, School of Management.*

The purpose of these organisations is the provision of financial services to those who would otherwise be excluded from the formal financial system.

A **micro-enterprise** is a small-scale business in the informal sector. Micro-enterprises often employ less than 5 people. It can be based out of the home and are often the sole source of family income but can also act as a supplement to other forms of income. Examples of micro-enterprises include small retail kiosks, sewing workshops, carpentry shops and market stalls .

The two terms microcredit and microfinance are generally used interchangeably. But they are not the same. Microcredit is a part of the field of microfinance. Microcredit is the provision of credit services to low-income entrepreneurs, while microfinance includes:

- Credit.
- Savings.
- Additional financial services such as insurance and money transfer.

The poor need a different range of financial instruments to be able to build assets, stabilise consumption and protect themselves against risks (Box 6.1).

#### Box 6.1

##### **Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI)**

*Bank Rakyat Indonesia is the world's largest microfinance institution. It is a state owned commercial bank, and it only implements individual lending. Despite its success and the size of its operations, BRI is not well known as other MFIs around the world.*

*The approach used by BRI allowed the bank to successfully provide credit products, saving services and become self-sufficient. The bank also learned that interest rate is not the principal concern for borrowers and savers. They primarily need safe, convenient and flexible financial products provided on an on-going basis. For low income people, access to financial services is often the main constraint. The annual effective interest rate charged by the bank was slightly higher than 30% in 2003 and was in line with other sustainable microfinance institutions around the world.*

*Besides its successful loan product, called Kupedes, since 1986 BRI has*

*also provides Simpedes, a saving instrument designed to meet the needs of its clients. It does not require a minimum account balance and using the account numbers clients are entitled to participate in a lottery (there are prizes every six months). Thanks to effective features and good marketing efforts, BRI succeeded in mobilising savings from its clients and achieved extraordinary results of mobilising almost ten times the number of savings accounts compared to loan accounts and more than the double the amount of savings compared to loans outstanding.*

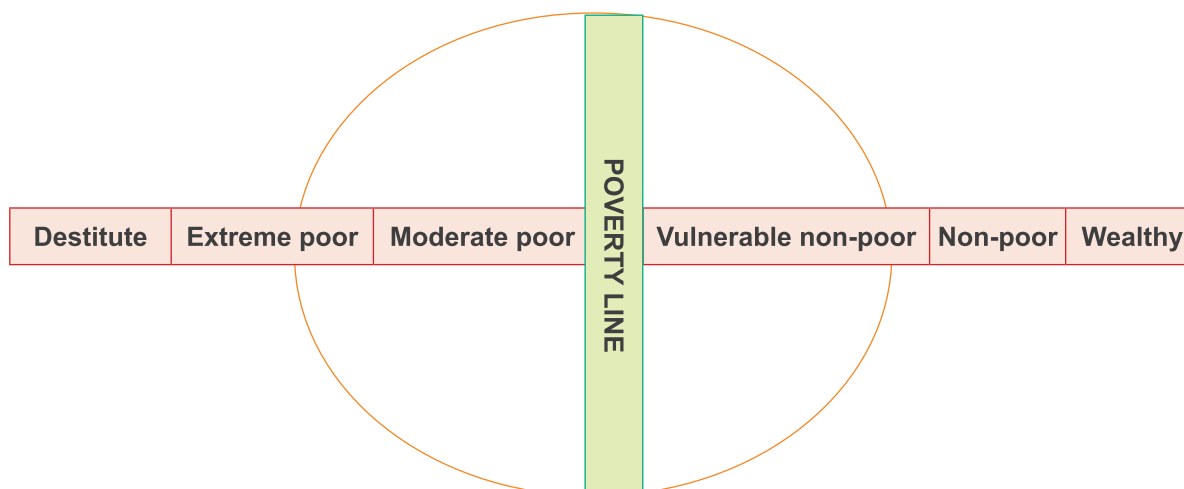
*Source: Marco Elia, Università Degli Studi Di Torino, Scuola Di Amministrazione Aziendale, School of Management.*

The clients of microfinance are the “economically active poor” or low-income persons that do not have access to formal financial institutions. The clients must have economic opportunities and entrepreneurial skills as the money they receive must not be used for consumption but for productive purposes. This is the reason why the poorest of the poor or the destitute, are generally excluded from the circle of microfinance and targeted by other development programmes. The most microfinance clients today are around the poverty line (Figure 6.2). The extreme poor are rarely reached by microfinance while the microfinancial services are not appropriate for the destitute and they are better targeted by other social programmes.

Poor people need credit to start and run businesses, saving services to avoid other risky forms of storing the money they have, insurance to protect against risks. The reasons of the high market gap between supply and demand for microfinance services are many but a special focus should be placed on:

- The failures of many governmental programmes.
- The regulations for imposing interest rates.
- The difficulties for commercial banks to enter the business of microfinance.

**Figure 6.2: Target Clients of Microfinance Institutions**



Source: CGAP

We have seen above the meanings, differences between microcredit and microfinance and how microcredit helps rural poor to establish their small enterprises.

We all need to save. The most basic purpose of saving is because you know that in the future, you will have to pay out lump sums for various reasons – sometimes you are faced with emergencies like illnesses; sometimes you may be faced with good opportunities to purchase land or gold or develop a business and sometimes you have to make large payments just as a part of life for your children's education or marriage.

For these very same reasons, we sometimes have to take loans. This is because we may not have saved or our savings are not enough to meet our needs.

Lastly, we all need investment in some form or the other. We would like to know that if we are not around, our family will be economically secure. We would also like to be assured that if anything were to happen to our home or other assets or crops, there would be some way in which we could be economically compensated. This is exactly what insurance does.

Now, to meet our saving, borrowing and insurance needs, we can turn to more traditional forms of financing – such as chit funds, money lenders, friends and



relatives, etc. Or we can look towards more formal financial services – such as banks and microfinance institutions – to meet these needs. Time and again, it has been shown that in most cases, we would be better off using formal financial services. They are safer, most convenient, adequately flexible and affordable.

However, quite often, we think twice about approaching formal financial services, simply because we have never used them in the past. We fear that they will have complicated procedures; we wonder if we will be able to understand how these work; we know that they are supposed to be safe but we worry that due to some technical reasons; we may be at the losing end and we have many more concerns.

The way to overcome these concerns is through financial literacy – which means understanding the system and its products. More importantly, we must overcome the block that we hold in our mind that these systems are something beyond our reach. After all, they have been created specifically for us, so they must be something that we can be comfortable with.

For a number of us, regularly saving money can be difficult. Sometimes our jobs are such that we do not earn regular amounts of income. As a result, what we earn is used to meet our regular and one-time needs and we believe that what is left is too little to be saved.

Sometimes, although we do save small amounts regularly, we do not have a safe place to keep the money. There are many examples of people who save by putting money into hiding places within their homes, bury it in the earth, roll it inside hollowed-out bamboo or keep it in clay piggy banks.

The problem with these methods of saving is that the money can be lost or stolen or just rot (in the case of notes) due to moisture. In addition, the value of your money will decline due to inflation. There are other risks too. People who are aware of your savings – like neighbours, children, alcoholic husbands, etc. may help themselves to the money that you have painstakingly collected.

When it comes to loans, traditionally rural people save money in either of the following three forms:

- The first is by **selling assets** that they already hold or expect to hold (like advance sale of crops).
- The second is by **pawning assets** that we own or expect to own. This method is similar to the first one, where we sell the asset but have the opportunity to buy it back within a pre-decided time frame. But when we do buy it back, we have to pay a hefty premium (a large amount of money over the amount we sold it for).
- Lastly, we turn to **money lenders** or borrow from friends and relatives. The problem with this form of borrowing is that we are charged an extremely high rate of interest by the former. In the case of the latter, we run the risk of spoiling relations with friends and relatives, if somehow we are unable to pay them back on time.

Banks, insurance companies and rural microfinance now offer a range of different products for people in the rural areas. These broadly include:

- **Loans** of different amounts and time frames: These loans are given for a range of activities such as agricultural and non-farm activities, asset-building and consumption.
- **Leasing** arrangements for assets: This enables us to make use of the assets that we need at reasonable rates of interest.
- **Savings** services of different types: These are designed to help us in a wide range of activities from saving small amounts from our household cash-flows every day to building up lump sum amounts to meet long-term goals.
- **Pension:** Various products are available to enable us to live an economically more comfortable life in our old age.
- **Insurance:** Various types of insurance help reduce risk and improve our financial strength during a crisis.

- **Remittance transfer services:** These help us to receive money from loved ones living far away without the fear that the money can get diverted or misused.

All we need to do is make the effort to learn about the options available to us and take a confident step towards using them.

### **Savings in Term Deposits**

When it comes to formal savings products, we all broadly look for the same features – simplicity and convenience (the product should be easy to understand and easy to use), safety (we should be confident that what we save should be returned to us) and to our advantage (have some benefits over the traditional methods of saving).

### **Savings at Post Offices**

Post office schemes are also called small savings schemes. These are designed to provide safe and attractive investment options to the public and at the same time to mobilise resources for the postal department.

### **Microfinance, Self-help Groups and Farmers Clubs**

Microfinance involves small self-help groups (SHGs) and Non-government Organisations (NGOs) coming together to provide credit and saving services to people who do not have access to the formal banking system. They undertake these activities more from the objective of bringing about development in areas which need it and less from any profit motive. These organisations are sometimes supported by large government bodies. Sometimes they are also supported by large trusts set up specifically to make funds available to people at the lowest levels of society.

Self-help groups, mutually aided cooperative societies, farmers clubs and microfinance institutions devise unusual means of savings such as group deposits

and accounts that accept very small, ad hoc amounts. For instance, they enable monthly or weekly savings at joint-liability group meetings. Here, the people who form the members of the group save from week to week (or month to month). This money is used for lending to people within the group when they require it. Sometimes, NGOs and government organisations also contribute to the kitty of such groups.

Such organisations try to help groups of people plan their entire personal finances with packages of measures, specifically designed for them. Some of them do not treat savings, loans and insurance as separate products but part of a financial solution for an individual.

### **Commercial Banks, Cooperative Banks, Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) and Local Area Banks (LABs)**

Some banks are set up in the rural areas with the special purpose of funding agricultural and other activities in rural areas. They give loans to small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans.

Their savings accounts and savings products are structured to meet the needs of their customers. They offer their customers the chance to save through regular savings accounts and term deposits.

### **Loan Products for Farmers, Women and Students**

Each person's borrowing needs are likely to be different. Women need longer term credit to build assets such as houses, to buy land and lease land, either under their own names or at least jointly. They also need credit to purchase "female assets" such as jewellery, or redeem them from moneylenders. They also need access to credit for investment in their small business ventures, which may not be farm related.

Agricultural workers and farmers need consumption loans to avoid turning to moneylenders in slack and "hungry" seasons. Farmers also need loans during the production season. If they can get loans from formal financial services, it



would help to free up significant amounts of money, which would otherwise go towards paying high interest rates to moneylenders for investment in production.

Lastly, households need loans to pay for children's education and to meet social obligations that are essential in maintaining social capital and the well-being of children, particularly daughters after marriage.

Banks and microfinance institutions offer loans for:

- Agriculture loans.
- Mortgage loans.
- Car loans.
- Education loans.
- Gold loans.
- Loans for purchase of land.
- Home loans.
- Personal loans.
- Business development loans.
- Government sponsored subsidy.

Authorised Business Correspondents (ABC), sometimes called Kiosk Banks, have been set up in rural areas to meet the needs of the local people. These offer agriculture and personal loans, amongst others. Microfinance Institutions, Self-Help Groups (SHGs) and Federations, Farmers Clubs, Mutually Aided Cooperative Societies, Cooperative Banks, Primary Agriculture Cooperative Societies (PACS) and Local Area Banks also offer loans to meet specific consumption, income-generation and business needs of people in rural areas. Most of them also offer government sponsored subsidies and low interest rate loans.

## 3. ICT FOR RURAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Rural people need access to information and communication to improve their lives, particularly in developing countries. Farmers, workers and entrepreneurs can use information and communication technology (ICT) to access market information, improve quality and productivity and strengthen business skills and employment opportunities.

How you can use ICT effectively to boost rural economic development?

### Boosting Productivity

For boosting the productivity you have to work closely with farmers and local farmer organisations available in areas such as:

- Innovative production.
- Food processing methods.
- Marketing skills.
- Production of organic fertilisers.
- Techniques for sustainable management of natural resources.

For this, use of video, photos and digital presentations is highly effective. The use of participatory multimedia is also effective for enhancing the impact of exchange between producers. The importance of locally produced content that is tailored to user needs cannot be over-emphasised. Farmers, especially illiterate farmers, understand and memorise new production and food processing techniques better if the information is visualised and provided in their own language or dialect.

For instance, with the camera you can show pictures of the evolution of test plots. You compare visual images. You can prepare films and present these videos during the training sessions. Once shown and practiced by the farmers, it will certainly result in an increase in grain production per acre of your community farmers. The visual approach also helps overcome problems relating to the comprehension of certain topics in a province for large majority illiterate producers.

### More Efficient Markets

By making informed decisions on where and when to sell, you can help your producers increase their income substantially. But in many countries farmers do not have access to price information (Box 6.2). For this, you have to focus on providing market information via radio, mobile services and the internet. You can also provide price information on community bulletin notice boards on weekly basis. You can organise training workshops for small scale farmers to use the information effectively to connect with buyers. An important innovation which you can promote is the development of voice-based responses, allowing illiterate particularly female farmers to use the service to contact and negotiate with potential buyers. This will increase their revenues through participation in the programme.

#### Box 6.2

##### Rural Tele-centres in Bolivia

*In Bolivia, several provincial tele-centres have been established from where the rural producers can obtain all kinds of information related to their businesses.*

*While access to market information supports awareness of producers, it does not guarantee better decision-making. Integrated use of different ICTs, including rural information centres, provides an even more powerful approach. In Bolivia, for example, a large-scale information system for*

### Box 6.2

*small-scale farmers provides crop price information from eight national markets and information about production techniques to over 300,000 producers, through a national daily radio broadcast. One thousand farmers are also subscribers to a mobile SMS service which provides price information. This is being expanded in 2012 to 10,000 users. Additional information services, such as weather alerts, are in the pipeline. Meanwhile, 15 provincial tele-centres have been established to provide 100 extension workers with access to online information to enable them to inform and train producer organisations to analyse and use online information at a local level.*

## Strengthening Skills

By helping to develop ICT skills, you can also support rural producers to improve their business skills. ICT-supported training in business skills has been shown to assist producers and traders in much more efficient, effective and more sustainable ways of doing business and to enhance their entrepreneurship. In Mali, for example, a women producer organisation - Coprokazan - has quadrupled its sales of shea butter from US\$ 29,000 in 2006 to US\$ 115,000 in 2010, through the use of their website.

Rural producers can use to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of certifying products, enabling producers to get better prices and enter new local or international markets. In Zambia, for instance, a farmers' organisation - OPPAZ - is using smartphones as a way to collect field data for organic certification and traceability. Over 10,000 organic farmers are participating in the programme which has seen a 30 per cent decrease in costs and a 20 per cent increase in membership of new producers, who are now able to afford the certification process.



In the highlands of Bolivia, quinoa is one of the few products that can be produced under the soil and climate conditions of the altiplano, and is a product with a high sales value. Without better information about land use, the region risks over exploitation and long-term depletion of production possibilities, affecting the income of thousands of families in Bolivia. The AUTAPO Foundation is helping producers use GPS devices to collect data to show the productivity of small-scale quinoa farmers, provide information about soil management and increase the chances for farmers to receive organic certification.

With right tools, people in developing countries can considerably improve their livelihoods and quality of life. Better access to information and communication technology is particularly vital in enabling them to achieve their goals.

### 3.1 Factors Affecting Technology Usage Among Farmers

There are several factors responsible for an effective use of technology in rural areas (Table 6.1). Factors such as

- Level of education
- Negative perceptions
- Lack of capital
- Small land areas
- Ineffective infrastructure facilities
- Limited capacity of extension workers
- Knowledge level of extension workers
- Methods of organisation and management of extension programmes
- Local geographical and topographical conditions

are the main drivers that led to low technology adoption. Technology adoption demands a great deal of land preparation, a high rate of seed germination, proper seed soaking and incubation, and maintenance of water after sowing (see Box 6.1).

**Table 6.1:** Summary of Factors Affecting Technology Adoption by Farmers

Factor	Ranking	Note
Factors Related to Household Condition		
1.Education	1	Educated farmers prefer to experience the benefits of new technologies and are better able to acquire the technical knowledge and information.
2.Farmers' perception	1	Farmers who prefer to rely on traditional ways of farming as usage of technology may raise their concern with regard to losses of yield on things that they are less compatible with.
3.Capital/poverty	1	Expensive technologies tools. More capital is also needed for certified seeds and new rice varieties.
4.Age	2	Young farmers prefer to use technology rather than "veteran" farmers.
5.Ethnicity	2	The minority of people are poor and have part-time jobs in off-farm activities; they have inadequate time to learn the innovations.
6.Gender	3	Women are less exposed to technologies which resulted disagreements with their spouse on usage of technologies.
7.Land size	4	Those with small farms place less interests on new technologies. Smaller farm lands require less advanced technologies compared to commercialised farms.
8.Family labour	4	Inadequate family labour minimises the usage of new technology resulted from less interest on agriculture among younger generation.
Factors outside Household Conditions		
9.Training	1	Trainings should be provided to all farmers despite of their geographic locations.
10.Extension personnel, methods and knowledge of extension staff	1	<p>Inadequate numbers and other commitments of the extension staff will impinge the rate of technology adoption.</p> <p>Extension staffs' capacity to convince farmers to use technology is low.</p> <p>Unsuitable selection in term of training sites. There is a need to strengthen manpower and equipment for extension.</p>

Factor	Ranking	Note
11. Infrastructures and ecosystem	1	There is higher technology adoption in irrigated areas than in rain-fed areas. There is a need for the construction of infrastructural aspects such as roads and irrigation systems.
12. Information	2	Information systems are available. Information provided must fit the abilities and interests of farmers so as to attract their attention.
13. Site of training organisation	2	Location of trainings should be near to the farmers' settlement.
14. Associations	2	Extension clubs, farmers' associations, women's associations and tight cooperation of "FATS" (farmers, administrators, traders, and scientists) should play their roles to embolden farmers in adopting technologies in their farming routine.
15. Market price	3	Good price on the market will motivate farmers to produce more whereby attempts to achieve such aim can be realised by using technologies.
16. Neighbours	4	Farmers usually imitate each other.
17. Advertisement and marketing	3	Doubtlessly, advertisement via traditional mass media such as television and radio are highlighted as the most effective way to embolden farming community to use technologies in their farming routine as these two media tools are considered as the most reliable and trusted information sources.
18. Clinics	5	The availability of clinics in the village or commune increases health awareness in farmers, which gears towards the usage of technologies.

*Note: In ranking, 1 indicates the most important.*

*Source: Truong.*

### Box 6.3

#### The SOUNONG Search Engine for Farmer Organisations China

*A good example of how ICT enhances farmer organisations' access to knowledge comes from a project in China (the Construction and Popularisation of Agriculture Info-Service System), where a priority is to make*

*modern ICTs accessible and useful for farmers. The project, introduced in Anhui Province, has three main features: an Internet portal, information assistants, and information dissemination models. It targets specialised farmers' cooperatives, a primary force for agricultural development in China. The project is funded by the World Bank and implemented by the Hefei Institute of Physical Sciences of the Chinese Academy of Sciences.*

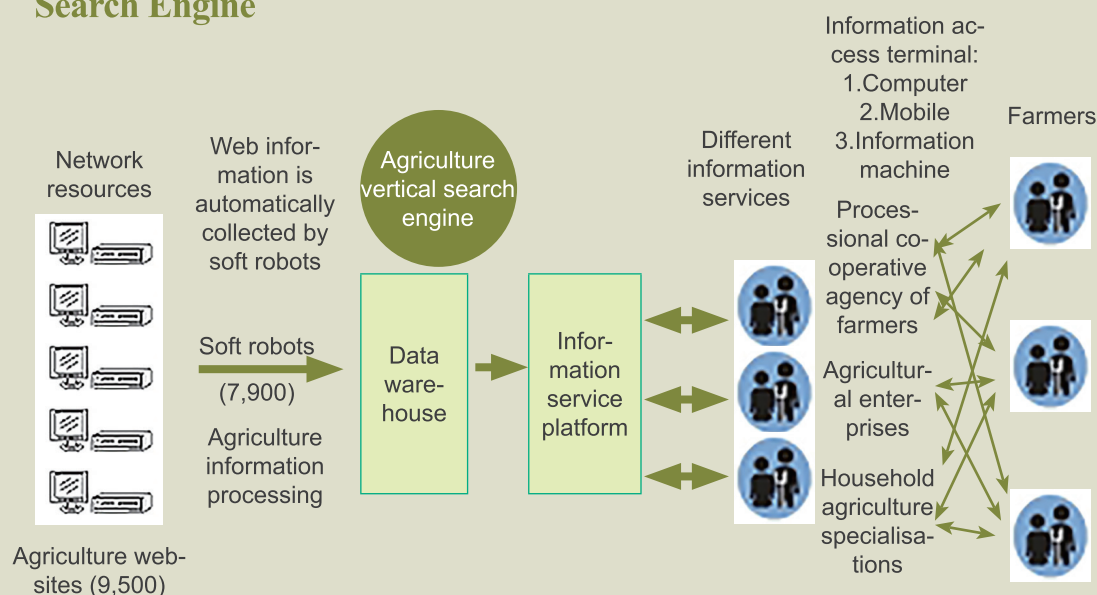
*The Institute of Intelligent Machines developed an Internet search engine called SOUNONG to aggregate information from the Internet and provide it to farmers' cooperatives in a meaningful manner (see figure below). SOUNONG coordinates with China's governmental agricultural websites which maintain high user rates and have more authority to promote information. This multilateral collaboration has helped raise the visibility of SOUNONG and its activities and also prevents overlap.*

*SOUNONG monitors over 7,000 websites per day, including nearly all of China's agricultural data. These sites contain information on prices of wholesale farm products, prices in 9,000+ markets, and prices for 20,000 types of agricultural products. Information is also retrieved from a number of databases, including those on the climate, crop species, and pest and disease diagnostics. Electronically generating a short list of agricultural information from this array of websites reduces the time spent collecting it manually. In 2009, 1,276 households were using the site; by 2010, that figure had almost doubled.*

*Once the website was launched, project leaders selected 38 farmer organisations to act as partners. The organisations were well established and had good management, which suggested that it may be critical for farmer groups to meet certain criteria to become involved in ICT for agricultural development.*

A total of 76 information assistants, who were responsible for collecting information and disseminating it, as well as 541 farmer households, were trained to use computers to search, browse, download, and disseminate information through the Internet. As the project grew, over 1,000 members of cooperatives received ICT training.

### Conceptual Technological Framework for the SOUNONG Search Engine



Source: Adapted from SOUNONG 2010, Institute of Intelligent Machines

Members of farmer organisations can access information from the SOUNONG site through computers, mobile phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs), and PDAs plus mobile phones. Depending on network connections, regional characteristics, and farm conditions, farmers can select the appropriate option for their local network capacities and skills level. All provide low-cost, easy access to the SOUNONG site. For members who may not have access to computers, mobile phones, or PDAs, cooperatives can also print information and recommend actions.

Surveys found the mobile phone option to be popular because of its timeliness and convenience. The mobile phone option was consumer friendly – farmers had both “push” and “pull” options. The computer option was

*also popular because users could browse for and select specific information. Network coverage was not a problem in rural Anhui Province, but the Internet remained more expensive than mobile phones and required users to become adept at identifying irrelevant or misleading information.*

*Taihi Jinqiao extended sales of their local chicken breeds to poultry markets like Nanchang and Wuhan by using the SOUNONG website. Smaller cooperatives producing pork have used SOUNONG to reach major markets like Shanghai.*

*SOUNONG attracted additional cooperatives, entrepreneurs, and farmer households and led to the development of more specialised services for farmer organisations. Websites were developed to provide information for specific producer organisations; for example, the Agriculture Committee in Anhui Province formed an Anhui Farmers' Specified Cooperative website (<http://www.ahhzs.com>). The Taihi County Government gave Y 24,000 to the Jinqiao Cooperative to generate an online platform enabling more discussion and real-time information sharing between members.*

*The Anhui Fengyuan Agriculture Science and Technology Co. Ltd. was selected to monitor and evaluate the project and its development over time. The company continuously examines the practicality, effectiveness, degree of user satisfaction and public welfare (the four main indicators) of the Construction and Popularization of Agriculture Info-Service System. A key lesson is that farmers require training to use the information they access appropriately. Those involved in the project note the challenges associated with introducing ideas and technologies that have major learning curves for users.*

*Source: SOUNONG 2010, Institute of Intelligent Machines.*



### Box 6.3 (cont.)

#### Development and Use of Information Technology in Agriculture Republic of Korea

*By: Weon-Sik Hahn Rural Development Administration, Republic of Korea*

##### Type I: The Current Status of Informatisation of Agriculture

*Infomatisation of agriculture and rural areas is relatively slow while Informatisation of other industrial sectors makes rapid progress with recent advancements in Information and Communication Technology (ICT).*

*Increase of digital divide between urban and rural area has become a limiting factor for improving the competitiveness of agriculture:*

- PC dissemination: total 54%, rural area 27%
- Internet utilisation: total 53%, rural area 8%
- Informatisation index: total 100%, rural area 84%

*Effective combining of Biotechnology (BT) and Information Technology (IT) is needed to achieve knowledge- and information-intensive agriculture.*

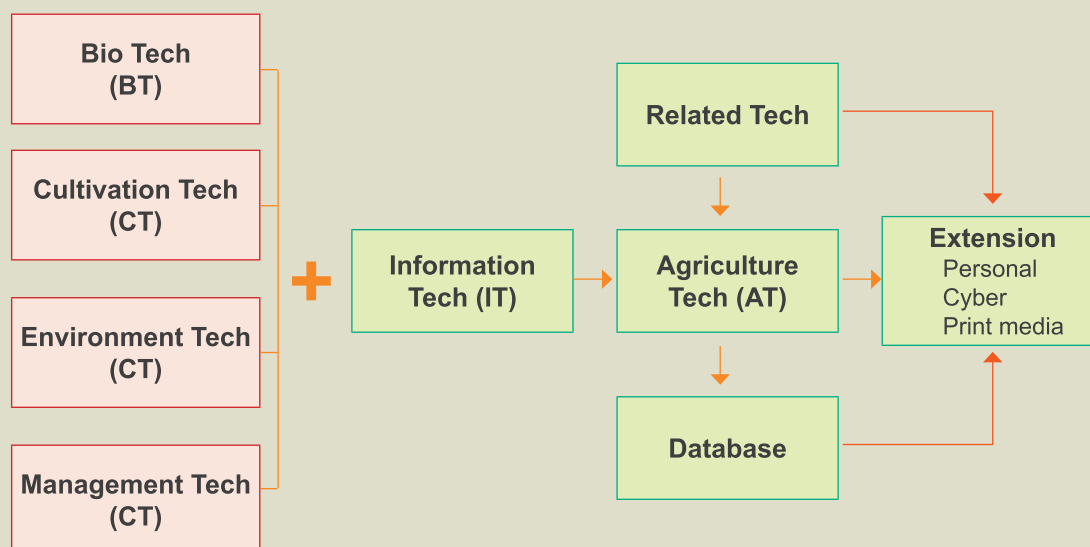
*IT in marketing and food processing industry will play an important role in enhancing value-added agricultural production.*

*Mitigate digital divide and improve the competitiveness of agriculture using information- and knowledge-based techniques responsive to the information age in the 21st century.*

## Type II: Directions for Development

- 1) *Combination of BT and IT.*
- 2) *Introduction of precision agriculture through Informatisation of cultivation and animal breeding technique.*
- 3) *Utilisation of IT for agricultural environment management.*
- 4) *Promotion of informatisation in farm management and marketing for high value-added agricultural production.*
- 5) *Cyber dissemination of technology to improve farmer's management technology level.*

## Systematic Diagram of Informatisation of Agricultural Technology



## Type III: Major Utilisation of Information Technology in Agriculture

- 1) **Combination of BT and IT**

*Establish the foundation of Biotechnology: bio-informatics database*

- Rice genome database, Chinese cabbage genome database, base sequence information, etc.
- Genetic map database: 1,763 maps
- Automatic updating system of genome data from GenBank database (NCBI): 14 million cases

*Build up gene resource database and internet service*

*Improve the efficiency of crop breeding by introducing the Crop Breeding Management System*

- Parent information, cross combination information database
- Automation of crop breeding process: the electronic field note, the regional adaptability trial

*Management system, and the pedigree retrieval system*

- Establishment of the information sharing system among the crop breeding institutes including crop experiment stations

*Construction of information infrastructure for BT research and development*

- Cooperation with international biology information centre
- Facilitate database construction for crop genome information

*Hosting of mirror site of genome database for international cooperation*

*Utilisation of the biological resource information database system*

- Develop the genetic analysis service system

*Analysis of gene and protein structure, DNA chip, and metabolism*

- Integrative operation of the biological resource database and the application development projects

*Genetic resource classification and gene search system for exploring useful genes*

*Analysis of gene structure and functionality based on agro-biological genome database*

*Develop an image processing system for DNA chip and base variation analysis technique*

*Establishment of the national genetic resource management network*

- Expansion of the genetic resource database: characteristics of cultivars and plants for vegetative propagation
- Agricultural genetic resource management network including universities and research institutes (regional agricultural administrations)

**2) Introduction of Precision Agriculture through Informatisation of Cultivation and Animal Breeding Technology**

*Networking of agricultural production facilities*

- Greenhouse environment measurement and control network
- Target crops: cucumber, tomato
- Real-time remote environmental monitoring and alarm system

*Remote management of grain storage facility for high quality of agricultural products*

*Remote environmental monitoring system via the Internet*

*Real-time monitoring and analysis of temperature variation in the storage facility*

*Livestock individual information database and analysis system*

- Dairy cattle individual information database and individual recognition system: 200,000 cases
- Korean native cattle management using electronic ear tagging system

*Establishment of agricultural facility automation*

- Yield forecasting system using agricultural facility environment database
- Remote control and measurement system for agricultural facility

*Greenhouse environment control system using mobile communication technology*

*Collection and distribution of crop growth stage information and pest information using GPS (Global Positioning System)*

*Develop a device for portable information service*

- Automation of post-harvest management for improving quality of agricultural products

*Environment management system for horticultural products*

*Optimal environment maintenance and automatic management system*

- Introduction of precision agriculture using newly developed high technology

*Chloroplast analysis technique for diagnosis of plant nutrient status, optimal fertilisation recommendation*

*Productivity management of cultivation lot with GPS*

*Site-specific crop productivity management system*

### **3) Utilisation of IT for Agricultural Environment Management**

*The agricultural soil environment information database and web service*

- Detailed soil map database (1:5,000): 11,290 scripts (68% of total amount)
- Geographic Information System soil information web service: 29 counties

*National agro-meteorological network: 61 counties (Agricultural Technology Centre)*

- Agro-meteorological information database: from 1965 to 2002

*Application service using meteorological database (e.g. heating load calculator, drought index calculator, etc.)*

- Local meteorological information for alpine area: Pougchang county

*Meteorological information for horticulture in alpine areas*

*Insect resource database and web service*

- Insect ecological information, feeding information database: 2,500 items
- Promote public understanding of the usability of insects in the industry

#### *Pest sample management database*

- Pest sample (330,000 samples) management system

#### *Utilisation of agricultural soil and meteorological information*

- Strengthen connectivity among the constructed database and standardisation of the interface

#### *GIS base integrated presentation system*

#### *Automation of agricultural environment monitoring*

- Soil characteristic measurement by using remote sensing technology
- Site-specific environment measurement by an agricultural machine with GPS devices
- Field data collection with mobile communication device (e.g. disease, pest information)

#### *Develop a decision support system based on the environmental database*

#### *Optimal land use planning, pest control, and optimal crop management*

#### *Pest forecasting information network*

- Develop the pest infestation simulation model
- Migratory pest pathway trace system



#### **4) Promotion of Informatisation in Farm Management and Marketing for High Value-added Agricultural Production**

##### *Benchmarking system for farm management diagnosis and evaluation*

- Farm diagnosis database of 50 crops (e.g. rice, hot pepper, apple tree, etc.): 68,000 farms
- Comparison of the management technology applied among farms

##### *Develop and disseminate agricultural software for farm management*

- Internet farm management software for seven crops (fruit tree, dairy farming, etc.)
- Farm management and accounting software for six crops (rice, peach tree, etc.)

##### *Support farmer's homepage and electronic commerce of agricultural product*

##### *Efficient agricultural extension service using Information Technology (national crop allocation map, consulting information system)*

- GIS regional agricultural production analysis and crop allocation system (Jeonbuk province)

##### *Wholesale price analysis system for decision support on planting and shipping time of agricultural products*

- Price fluctuation analysis for 50 major crops of garlic, hot pepper, apple, etc.
- Utilised as an educational material for farmers

##### *Informatisation of farm management and marketing*

- Group consulting through a network system among consulting organisations

*Consultant and farm management prescription information database*

*History card management*

*Farm management benchmarking network service*

- Innovation of farm management by farm decision support system

*Internet farm management software*

- Support electronic commerce for farmers' group

*Encourage demonstration farm using information technology in farm management*

*Develop information network for base positions of agricultural product shipping*

- Construct agricultural product marketing information system

*Develop an integrated information system for producer (farmers' group for a specific crop), customer, company and extension workers*

*Operate agricultural product marketing centre supporting production, selection and packing to fit the needs of customers.*

## **5) Cyber Dissemination of Technology to Improve Farmers' Management Technology Level**

*Cyber technology dissemination using remote farm consulting system*

- Filed consulting with portable camera, wireless communication device

*Expansion of the system and promotion of the utilisation of the system*

- Expand to 70 sites until 2004
- Specialisation and systemise the roles of the institutes concerned

*Rural Development Administration: introduction of newly developed technology, state-of-the-art and foreign technology*

*Regional extension institutes: consult on region specific technology*

- Use of the Internet conference system for night time education programmes

*Cyber farm management course (cyber farmers college)*

- Advanced courses for management and cultivation technology for farm managers

*Construct infrastructure for regional education programme of information technology*

- Education centre in the counties
- Support demonstration farm using information technology

*Efficient agricultural technology dissemination*

- Operate e-mailing system for technology dissemination

*13,548 farmers, 8,804 extension workers*

*Provide information to individuals and groups*

- Pilot project management system: 54 projects, 3,500 demonstration farms

### Type IV: Effect and Conclusion

*Introduce information technology into agricultural technology development in order to improve efficiency of agriculture R&D*

*Construct database based on the research results of the research institutes for efficient agricultural technology dissemination*

*Satisfy clients' needs for agricultural technology through convenient consultation system via the Internet*

*Establish research and knowledge management system to support efficient R&D*

*Improve farmers' ability to use IT through various education programmes responsive to the information age of the 21st century*

*Source: KEDI, Republic of Korea*

## 4. STRENGTHENING COLLECTIVE SELF-HELP CAPACITIES

Besides the cooperatives and other forms of organisations, there is yet another form of enterprise which is organised voluntarily by the members themselves to meet a variety of their needs. The Self-help Groups [SHGs] are such organisations which are formed, nourished and managed by the members themselves. As local government representatives our role is to support these self-help groups.

### 4.1 What is a Self-help Group?

The SHGs are people's voluntary and informal institutions organised to achieve the objectives of rural development and to get community participation in rural development programmes. These are similar to traditional group activities

in all communities. It is a new form of movement which aims at reducing the incidence of poverty through the provision of easy credit. In case of self-movement, thrift and credit are the entry points of activity. Microfinance or provision of financial services to low-income households, have come to be accepted in policy implementation as the most efficacious intervention to alleviate poverty, enhance agricultural production and develop local leadership.

A **self-help** group is an informal organisation of not less than 10 and not more than 20 people from the poorer section of the village society, organised, owned, operated and controlled by the members in a democratic manner, based on solidarity, reciprocity, common interest and resource pooling. A self-help group is a social design in which people participate by making themselves socially and economically accountable to each other.

This SHG is a method of organising the poor people and the marginalised to come together to solve their individual problems. The SHG is recognised by the government and does not require any formal registration. The purpose of the SHG is to build the functional capacity of its members in the field of employment and income-generation activities.

Several NGOs have organised SHGs of men and women in rural areas. The basic thinking behind the creation of these SHGs has been to emancipate rural populace from the vicious exploitation of private moneylenders and landlords. These SHGs can play an important role in attaining the objective of economic development through community participation.

The SHGs of 10-20 persons from the economically homogeneous strata aim to:

- Regularly save money from earnings.
- Collectively agree to contribute to a common fund.
- Meet their emergency needs.
- Take democratic decisions.
- Resolve conflicts through discussions in open forum.
- Provide surety-free loans at market driven rates to members.

## SHGs as Microfinance Institutions

The idea of microfinance is based on the philosophy of organising poorest of the poor into self-help groups and makes them realise the very basic theory of survival. Prof. Muhammad Yunus of Bangladesh initiated it and the success achieved by Grameen Bank in Bangladesh gave a new impetus to microcredit for socio-economic empowerment of rural poor in the developing countries.

SHG also serves as a uniting factor for the people. In the SHG, people get together informally to express their social and economic problems. These problems can be used as the means to find out their possible solutions. A clever moderator can help the members to identify the basic reasons for the origin of problems. Since the members get together to discuss their difficulties, the SHG becomes a forum to unite them and make them realise the importance of getting together without any external pressure, fear or favour.

## Advantages of Financing through SHGs

An economically poor individual gains strength as part of a group. Besides, financing through SHGs reduces transaction costs for both lenders and borrowers, while lenders have to handle only a single SHG account instead of a large number of small-sized individual accounts. Borrowers, as part of an SHG, cut down expenses on travel (to and from the bank branch and other places) for completing paper work and on the loss of workdays in canvassing for loans.

## Objectives of SHGs

The self-help group is a voluntary association of those people who are in need of small funds to establish or to promote their small enterprise. The self-help groups have been conceived in the form of savings and credit groups, joint farming groups, social forestry groups, horticulture groups, traders' groups and the like with emphasis on thrift-cum-credit.

Self-help group (SHG) is a self-managed institution of 10-20 members, based on common interest and affinity for socio-economic improvement of its members. People bound by mutual trust, respect and affection who support one another and amongst whom exploitative relationships do not exist, form these affinity groups.

The main objective of the self-help group is to provide economic opportunities to the economically disadvantaged groups to establish and gradually improve their entrepreneurial ambitions through regular and small savings to improve their socio-economic status by organising and participating in their own voluntary and democratic association.

It should be clearly understood that the SHG is a small organisation of small people with small objectives. It goes to demonstrate that small efforts can be translated into bigger power. It has a magical strength.

### THE MAGIC STRENGTH OF VOLUNTARY AND COOPERATIVE ACTION

$$1+1=02=11$$

NUMERICAL STRENGTH + MUTUAL TRUST = SHG

It is 1+1, which is equal to 2, but it also can be 11 when people get together, work together and perform their activities in unison with a common objective. “Unity of Action”, “Unity of Purpose” and “Mutual Benefit” are the cornerstones of SHGs.

SHGs can achieve the following goals:

- Institutional development at the grassroots level.
- Economic independence to the poor, especially women.
- Generation of mutual trust and cooperation.
- Localised planning and participative decision-making.
- Financial discipline.
- Inculcate the habit of savings.
- Leadership development.
- Economic self-reliance and social solidarity.



Following are the advantages of self-help groups:

- Low transaction cost.
- Effectiveness in supervision.
- Easy credit delivery to the poor.
- Minimum procedures.
- Better recycling of funds.

The largest membership of SHGs is from rural women.

The organisation of SHGs is a two-pronged activity: (i) members themselves get together to form their SHGs; and (ii) the promoters and implementers of any development programme encourage formation of such groups in order to achieve their own objectives.

### **Need for Self-help Groups**

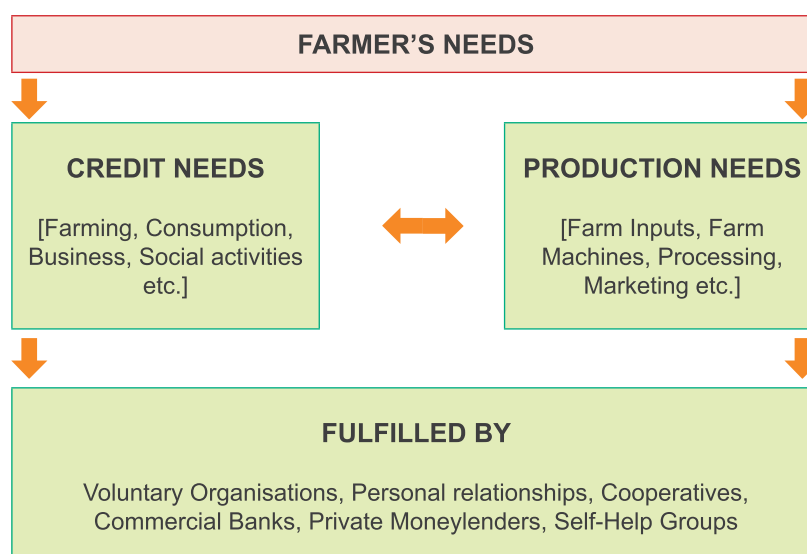
Farmers require institutions which can help meet their requirements – farming or non-farming. To have such needs fulfilled, they approach the institutions and individuals which are closest to them. These generally are the cooperatives and the moneylenders. They can even approach their relatives and friends to borrow some money to purchase their requirements from the market, or even from the cooperative society.

SHGs are, however, such institutions where members with their own collective small savings try to help the group members. Usually these people individually have no access to formal banking system. Moneylenders exploit them in the hours of their needs. To overcome both these situations there is a felt-need to create SHGs. Members with their collective resource take up some income-generating activities which will bring additional income to their household. SHGs become powerful tools for poverty alleviation and social cohesion at the grass-roots level.

## How the Needs are Met?

Farmers need credit to cover some of their personal requirements. The credit should be available in time and without much botheration. Farmers need to have knowledge to complete much of formalities, like writing out applications, offering collaterals and witnesses.

**Figure 6.3:** Needs of Farmers and How They are Fulfilled



In the case of small farmers or traders, the credit needs are also small. The essence of the requirement is that such a credit is needed quickly. It has now been found that self-help groups are the institutions of choice so far as microfinance is concerned. The SHGs do not deal in long-term or medium-term finance.

The self-help groups' programmes are modest and truly need-based. Because the help comes spontaneously, the members are keen to maintain a high level of trust in their own groups (Figure 6.4).

Such groups also come handy to project promoters because of two reasons: Promoters feel comfortable to deal with non-governmental institutions which are self-promoted, self-propelling and democratically-managed; and members feel

Figure 6.4: Self-Help Group and Its Characteristics



confident that the funds employed by the promoters are for their own benefit. There are no bureaucratic hurdles. The decision-making is fast, and members are accountable to themselves.

The impact of the working of self-help groups is real and truly contributory to the general social and economic welfare of the local communities.

### Functions of Self-help Groups

In order to achieve the main objective, the SHGs undertake various activities. These activities are:

- **Savings**, howsoever small they may be, should be made in order to mobilise financial resource. The idea is to generate the habit of saving from whatever income is earned in the household.
- **Loaning and repayment in smaller quantities**: As a microfinance institution the SHG should be able to provide credit to the members. It is also expected that the members return the money borrowed in time, in full, and with interest so that other members also benefit.
- **Maintaining books of account and records** is the most crucial aspect of management of the SHG as well as of confidence building among the members. The SHG has to ensure that all accounts and the books

of account are up-to-date and maintained to ensure transparency and accuracy. Good accounts reflect the goodwill of the organisation and ensure its credibility. Properly kept records are not only of reference value but also useful in future planning and decision-making.

- **Member-oriented action programmes** are conceived and implemented which are recommended and demanded by the members. Most of these programmes are social and economic and even cultural.

Programmes can be educational, additional income-generation, off-farm activities, labour-intensive activities, watershed-related and public works construction activities, harnessing water resources for drinking and irrigation, health, education, vocational training etc. Development programmes can be directed at women, youth or farmers.

- **Liaison and linkages with financial institutions** (FIs), Government Organisations (GOs) and other agencies: The SHG considers developing relationship with the financial institutions e.g., cooperative bank or the rural branch of a commercial bank, or others, and also relationship with the governmental organisations and other development agencies.
- **Training and capacity building activities:** SHGs need constant support, assistance, guidance and advice from the promoters and other development agencies. They need constant monitoring, training and education support in order to help them improve their working capacities and capabilities. The members might need some exposure and interaction. They might also need some equipment and technology support. SHGs need to continue improve their capacities.
- **Income-generating activities of SHGs:** These can be the following:
  - ▶ *Agriculture-related (seed multiplication, bee-keeping, nursery raising etc.).*
  - ▶ *Small retail businesses/General Store.*
  - ▶ *Brick-making.*
  - ▶ *Livestock development (animal husbandry, butchery, poultry, pig-gery etc.).*
  - ▶ *Cattle-feed sales.*

- ▶ *Bicycle repair shop.*
- ▶ *Milk procurement and processing.*
- ▶ *Clay-pot making.*
- ▶ *Leaf/paper plate making.*
- ▶ *Flour-mill and grain shop.*
- ▶ *Carpentry, blacksmith, welding.*
- ▶ *Garment shop (tailoring, embroidery, and knitting).*
- ▶ *Raw-sugar making.*
- ▶ *Beauty salon.*
- ▶ *Fruit/vegetable preservation and processing.*
- ▶ *Motor winding etc.*

Self-help groups do not thrive and prosper only on one or two activities. They need to expand the range of their activities by incorporating new methods and techniques to produce new products. Diversification of business and up-scaling of activities with the support of SHG association and cooperative society can further add to the income of members.

Self-help groups, as members of SHG association, can create more services and products not only for members themselves but also for the market. Associations, being legal entities, are fully empowered to transact business with raw material suppliers and end-product consumers and traders.

### **Credit Management in SHGs**

The poor relate more easily to SHGs than to banks. One of the important functions of SHGs is credit management.

- The groups foster thrift and promote savings.
- Groups contribute a part of their savings earned through group action. This strengthens the value of group action.
- Groups mobilise capital through savings, from interest at rates decided by the group; and from banks and cooperatives.
- The groups interlink with other groups with similar functions.

## Characteristics of SHGs

The guiding principles for formation of SHGs, among others, are:

- Mutual trust and mutual support.
- Every individual is equal and responsible.
- Every individual is committed to the cause of the group.
- Decisions are based on the principle of consensus.

SHG elements are:

- Bottom-up approach.
- Homogeneous membership.
- Self-management.
- Need-based activities.

The SHGs have a four-fold character:

- A moneylender (providing quick and hassle-free loans).
- A development bank providing production and investment credit without any documentation and security/surety.
- Acooperative (full participatory approach without government interference).
- An independent autonomous institution.

## 5.

# LINKING PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR ASSOCIATIONS, NGOS AND CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS

The community participatory process is a process which involves as many as possible of those who are affected by or have an interest in any project, initiative, intervention, or effort in relation to integrated rural development. We believe strongly that, in most cases, involving all of these stakeholder – public and private associations, NGOs and civil society organisations (CSOs) such as community learning centres (CLCs), rural cooperatives, formal, non-formal and informal education institutions, etc. – leads to a better process, greater community support and a better understanding of the community context. In order to conduct a participatory process and gain all the advantages it brings, you have to figure out:

- Who the stakeholders are?
- Which of them need to be involved at what level?
- What issues they may bring with them?

## Understanding Stakeholders

**Stakeholders** are those who may be affected by or have an effect on an effort.

More simply, it includes those people or groups who:

- Possess a stake or interest in, or;
- Are affected by management of the natural resource or issue with which we are concerned.

The term stakeholder can be used for individuals, communities, social groups



or organisations to represent the diverse interests, differing social dynamics and relationships of power and influence around an issue. In examining who the stakeholders in an issue are, it is important to look more closely into large stakeholder categories such as “community” or “NGO”, where there may be smaller groups of people with diverse interests.

You may classify and characterise stakeholders in the following way.

**Primary stakeholders** are the ones with a direct, significant and specific interest in a given area or a set of natural resources. These people are most directly affected by the issue, as well as any activities to deal with the issue. It is probably be important to directly involve these people in decisions related to the project. Some examples of primary stakeholders include men and women fishers, reef harvesters, people who are drinking or using contaminated water, etc.

**Secondary stakeholders** do not use the resource or depend on the resource directly. Yet these people do indirectly use the products or services from the resource; also their actions may have an impact on the resource. Some of these stakeholders may be very influential and important to resolving the resource problem, and it may be important to consult them or make them aware of project activities. Examples of secondary stakeholders include fish sellers and overseas families.

**Key stakeholders** or key organisations, include organisations with direct responsibility for managing activities affecting the resources or dealing with the primary or secondary stakeholders. The important key stakeholders are government agencies, informal or community organisations (e.g. women’s groups, religious organisations, local environment committees, etc.), universities and colleges, and non-government organisations.

The most important reason for identifying and understanding stakeholders is that it allows you to recruit them as part of the effort. A participatory effort that involves representation of as many stakeholders as possible has a number of important advantages:

- It puts more ideas on the table than would be the case if the development and implementation of the effort were confined to a single organisation or to a small group of like-minded people.
- It includes varied perspectives from all sectors and elements of the community affected, thus giving a clearer picture of the community context and potential pitfalls and assets.
- It gains buy-in and support for the effort from all stakeholders by making them an integral part of its development, planning, implementation, and evaluation. It becomes their effort, and they do their best to make it work.
- It is fair to everyone. All stakeholders can have a say in the development of an effort that may seriously affect them.
- It saves you from being blindsided by concerns you did not know about. If everyone has a seat at the table, concerns can be aired and resolved before they become stumbling blocks. Even if they cannot be resolved, they would not come as surprises that derail the effort just when you thought everything was going well.
- It strengthens your position if there is opposition. Having all stakeholders on board makes a huge difference in terms of political and moral clout.
- It creates bridging social capital for the community. Social capital helps develop acquaintances, friendships, family ties, favours and obligations that can be used to cement relationships and strengthen community. Bridging social capital is the most valuable aspect.
- It increases the credibility of your organisation. Involving and attending to the concerns of all stakeholders establishes your organisation as fair, ethical, and transparent, and makes it more likely that others will work with you in other circumstances.
- It increases the chances for success of your effort. For all of the above reasons, identifying stakeholders and responding to their concerns make it far more likely that your effort will have both the community support it needs and the appropriate focus to be effective.

## 5.1 What is Participation?

Because of different meanings of participation, it is useful to reflect on the different ways in which stakeholders are currently participating in various kinds of projects (Table 6.2). This ranges from “passive” participation, where people are merely told what is going to happen to self-mobilisation, where people themselves are initiating the action.

**Table 6.2:** Typology of Participation

Type of Participation	Characteristics of Each Type
Passive Participation	People are told what is going to happen or has already happened. This involves a one-sided announcement by project managers, without listening to people’s responses. The information being shared is “owned” by external professionals.
Participation in Information	People participate by answering the questions of external experts and project designers. People do not have an influence on what comes out of the project, as information and ideas are not shared and there is no checking with stakeholders about the accuracy of information.
Participation by Consultation	People are consulted, and external people listen to views. The problems and solutions are designed by external stakeholders, who may change these in the light of people’s responses. Such consultation does not give local stakeholders any share in decision-making, as professionals are not required to take on board their perspectives.
Participation for Material Incentives	People contribute resources, for example labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentives. For example, farmers in agricultural research may provide their fields to test a crop, but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of learning. It is very common to see this type of participation, but people have no stake in carrying on activities when the project ends.
Functional Participation	Stakeholders are involved after major decisions have been made rather than early in the project cycle. People form groups to meet project objectives that have been developed by external stakeholders, or sometimes an externally initiated body may be set up to coordinate the efforts of local people.

Type of Participation	Characteristics of Each Type
Interactive Participation	Stakeholders jointly analyse the problems, formulate action plans, and work to set up new local institutions or strengthen existing ones with a lead role in decision-making. Interactive participation often has a strong learning component and involves working with different kinds of knowledge to pick up on different perspectives.
Self-mobilisation	People take the initiative to change systems or practices. They may develop contacts with external institutions to get resources and technical advice, but retain control over how resources are used. Self-initiated programmes may sustain rather than challenge local inequities in wealth and power.

*Source: (Pretty et al., 1995)*

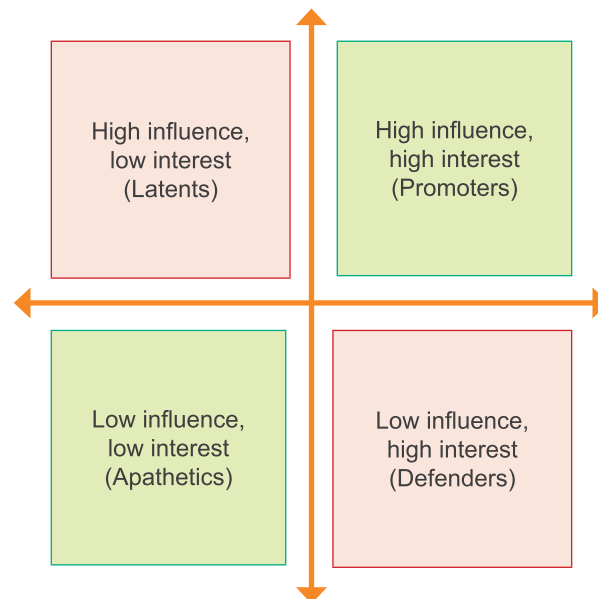
As representative of local government and facilitators, it is important to stop and consider what kind of participation you are aiming for in the project, and the constraints and opportunities to achieve this.

It is important to think about the social, cultural, economic, political and logistical situation when planning who should be involved, when, and in what way.

### **Stakeholder Analysis/Stakeholder Mapping**

Let us suppose that you have identified all the stakeholders, and that you understand each of their concerns. Now what? They all have to understand what you want to do, you have to respond to their concerns in some way – at least by acknowledging them, whether you can satisfy them or not – and you have to find a way to move forward with as much support from stakeholders as you can muster.

**Figure 6.5: Stakeholders Mapping**



Stakeholder analysis (stakeholder mapping – Figure 6.5) is a way of determining who among stakeholders can have the most positive or negative influence on an effort, who is likely to be most affected by the effort and how you should work with stakeholders with different levels of interest and influence. Most methods of stakeholder analysis or mapping divide stakeholders into four groups, each occupying one space in a four-space grid:

The purpose of this kind of diagram is to help you understand what kind of influence each stakeholder has on your organisation and/or the process and potential success of the effort.

That knowledge in turn can help you decide how to manage stakeholders – how to marshal the help of those that support you, how to involve those who could be helpful, and how to convert – or at least neutralise – those who may start out feeling negative.

The most important stakeholders to the success of your effort are in the upper right section of the grid, and those least important are in the lower left.

- **Promoter** has both great interest in the effort and the power to help make it successful (or to derail it).
- **Defender** has a vested interest and can voice their support in the community, but have little actual power to influence the effort in any way.
- **Latent** has no particular interest or involvement in the effort, but have the power to influence it greatly if they become interested.
- **Apathetic** has little interest and little power, and may not even know the effort exists.

In the following section, we provide some important stakeholders with their active involvement in the community development.

## 5.2 Knowing Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs)

A **non-governmental organisation** (NGO) is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group which is organised at a local, national or international level.

Task-oriented and driven by people with a common interest, NGOs perform a variety of service and humanitarian functions, bring citizen concerns to governments, advocate and monitor policies and encourage political participation through provision of information.

**Civil Society Organisations** (CSOs) are defined as organised civil society and can come in many forms, some informal and some as formal entities such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), Community-based Organisations (CBOs), Faith-based Organisations (FBOs), among many others.

This is when a group of individuals come together for a common purpose to fulfil a particular mandate driven by need.

### Types of Non-governmental Organisations

NGO types can be understood by their orientation and level of cooperation.

## NGO Type by Level of Orientation

- Charitable orientation often involves a top-down paternalistic effort with little participation by the “beneficiaries”. It includes NGOs with activities directed toward meeting the needs of the poor.
- Service orientation includes NGOs with activities such as the provision of health, family planning or education services in which the programme is designed by the NGO and people are expected to participate in its implementation and in receiving the service.
- Participatory orientation is characterised by self-help projects where local people are involved particularly in the implementation of a project by contributing cash, tools, land, materials, labour, etc. In the classical community development project, participation begins with the need definition and continues into the planning and implementation stages.
- Empowering orientation aims to help poor people develop a clearer understanding of the social, political and economic factors affecting their lives, and to strengthen their awareness of their own potential power to control their lives. There is maximum involvement of the beneficiaries with NGOs acting as facilitators.

## NGO Type by Level of Cooperation

- **Community-based organisations** (CBOs) arise out of people’s own initiatives. They can be responsible for raising the consciousness of the urban poor, helping them to understand their rights in accessing needed services and providing such services.
- **Citywide organisations** include organisations such as chambers of commerce and industry, coalitions of business, ethnic or educational groups and associations of community organisations.
- **National NGOs** include national organisations such as the Red Cross, YMCAs/YWCAs, professional associations, etc. Some have state and city branches and assist local NGOs.
- **International NGOs** range from secular agencies such as ReddaBarna



and Save the Children organisations, OXFAM, CARE, Ford Foundation, Aga Khan Foundation and Rockefeller Foundation to religiously motivated groups. They can be responsible for funding local NGOs, institutions and projects and implementing projects.

When researching NGOs' model in rural education and development, you may find several programmes which have been successfully implemented by both national and international NGOs. These models are strategies which NGOs use to plan and implement their projects with a large positive impact. The models that you will observe may be characterised as follows:

- Incorporating the community in planning and implementing projects.
- Forming partnerships with local civil society and government.
- Adopting innovative approaches to provide services.
- Building up the capacity of the community and local institutions.

These models are not limited to education, but can be deployed in every type of the programme.

### **Community Focus and Ownership**

You will notice a large number of successful projects are designed around the specific needs of the community. This requires doing assessments and talking with the community when planning a programme.

Each community faces different obstacles, and designing programmes around these unique needs makes programmes more effective and efficient. The specialised design attracts greater involvement and support from the community.

Involving the community in the planning and decision-making of programmes strengthens the relationship between NGOs, the communities and projects. Community members feel more ownership and responsibility for the projects, and are more likely to be invested in a project's success and effectiveness. Com-

munity involvement can also help with funding and staffing of programmes, and increase the likelihood of a successful handover from NGOs to the community (Table 6.3).

## Partnerships

You will also notice that successful NGOs strongly believe in and create partnerships with other civil society organisations, international institutions and/or the government. International NGOs cooperate and partner with local civil society to effectively plan and implement programmes and share information, best practices and funding mechanisms in order to develop the best programmes possible. NGOs work on several occasions with the government to design and implement programmes, often operating their programmes in alignment with

**Table 6.3:** Range of NGOs' Activities

Community health promotion and education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Contraception and family planning education</li> <li>• General hygiene</li> <li>• Waste disposal</li> <li>• Water usage</li> <li>• Vaccinations</li> <li>• Youth counselling services</li> </ul>
Emerging health crises	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• HIV/AIDS education and support</li> <li>• Hepatitis B education</li> <li>• Drug addiction recovery</li> </ul>
Community social problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Juvenile crimes</li> <li>• Runaway girls</li> <li>• Street children</li> <li>• Prostitution</li> </ul>
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sustainable water and energy consumption</li> <li>• Keeping mountains and forests clean</li> </ul>
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Micro-enterprises and micro-loans</li> <li>• Skill training</li> <li>• Product promotion and distribution (Bazars etc.)</li> <li>• Cooperative creation</li> <li>• Financial consulting</li> <li>• Career services and job assistance</li> </ul>

Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School construction</li> <li>• Infrastructure construction</li> <li>• Cultural centre construction and operation</li> <li>• Agriculture and aquaculture expert assistance</li> </ul>
Women's issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's and children's rights</li> <li>• Battered women assistance centres</li> <li>• Group therapy for sexually abused women</li> <li>• Counselling hotlines (telephone-based services)</li> <li>• Legal assistance to women</li> <li>• Literacy drives</li> </ul>

the education goals and priorities outlined by the government. Partnerships, whether with civil society or the government, help spread the planning, managing, and funding burdens of programming. Overall, partnerships make programmes more effective and efficient.

### **Innovative Approaches to Providing Services**

Successful projects go beyond the traditional models of delivering aid and services. NGOs conduct programmes outside the formal institutions or conventional formats. This allows NGOs to reach a broader range of participants, and have a larger impact. Successful programmes provide services in interesting, interactive or unique ways. NGOs are generally flexible and willing to change or supplement their programming when necessary. One large area of recent innovation is the integration of technology.

### **Capacity Building**

In order to run effective projects, NGOs help build the infrastructure and capacity of governments, institutions and communities to support these projects. Capacity building is done in many forms, including institutional, physical or intellectual, depending on the needs of the community. Sometimes this means increasing physical infrastructure – building roads, buildings, telecommunication, etc.

Other projects focus on building intellectual capacity; passing on new knowledge, technology and skills to community members. Still others focus on building the institutional capacity of governments, institutions and other civil society groups to take on and administer the services NGOs are providing.

Countries must develop their infrastructure in order to provide the services NGOs are currently providing to their citizens in the future. Successful NGOs focus on building capacity in order to implement programmes efficiently and enhance communities' ability to provide services by themselves in the future.

The largest areas of NGOs programmes focus on:

- Building education infrastructure.
- Female education.
- Education of at-risk or under-represented children.
- Community involvement.
- Non-formal education and technology.

Many of the programmes cross cutter through these categories as well.

### **Building Education Infrastructure**

Many NGOs focus on building up the education infrastructure of rural communities. Many communities require building basic physical infrastructure – classrooms, toilets, play grounds – to create a safe learning environment for students, as well as increasing skills of teachers and parents to provide education lessons. For example, Mission International Rescue (MIR) works to increase the Dominican Republic's education infrastructure in regards to middle and high school students. Targeting areas of poor enrolment, MIR has created two schools to serve the ages of 5th-12th grades. Both schools, one is boys' and the other girls', provide a comprehensive secondary education culminating in vocational training in the last two years of school. The mix of general education with vocation skills prepares students to become effective members of society.

NGOs are also focusing on increasing the effectiveness of teachers and parents in providing education. In Turkey, ACEV is implementing programmes that focus on building the capacity of parents and teachers to provide education to pre-school children. The Pre-school Parent Child Education Programme (PPCEP) works to strengthen the existing curriculum in government run pre-schools, and to support cooperation between parents and schools. The programme develops literacy and mathematics curriculum for teachers and parents to implement simultaneously at school and at home. ACEV's programmes directly strengthen the education skills of parents and teachers – building the capacity of the local Turkish community to conduct successful education programmes.

In Guinea, World Education (WE) is also working on building the education capacity. Working with rural communities, World Education works to strengthen the local civil society's ability to provide literacy programming with Community Action for Education and Literacy Project (ACEB). The ACEB works in underserved areas implementing literacy and basic education programmes to children who would otherwise go without education.

### **Education of Girls and Women**

A large number of programmes give priority for creating better mechanisms for education, yet there are also programmes specifically targeting the disadvantaged and marginalised population groups. One of the largest under-represented groups is girls and women, often left out of education for cultural or socio-economic reasons.

To combat this, NGOs are running culturally sensitive female programmes. World Education (WE) is working, for instance, in Mali to run a girl's and women's literacy programme. In Mali, many families do not want their daughters attending school with males. The programme run by WE is exclusively for girls where teaching is done by women teachers. Similarly, in Afghanistan MADRE is partnering with local Afghan organisations and building and refurbishing schools.

### **At-risk and Under-represented Children**

Rural Reconstruction Network (RRN) works in poor rural areas of Nepal to increase the access of marginalised and vulnerable children to education. The programme works with local educators to provide better school management and strengthen the curriculum and skills of teachers. RRN is also working with local civil society and local government to increase access to education for the underserved by paying school fees, and implementing non-formal schooling. These efforts have increased the enrolment and retention rates of students.

### **Community Learning Centres (CLCs)**

Getting the entire community involved in education, instead of just the students, is vital to the success of many programmes. Support of the entire community for a project helps increase its effectiveness. Communities should be empowered and take ownership over the education of their youth. Also, incorporating the community provides insights into how to tailor the programming for the unique educational needs of every area.

Providing education resources for the entire community to access greatly enhances community ownership and participation in education. In rural areas of the Punjab region of Pakistan, BUNYAD is implementing community-based projects with their Community Learning Centres (CLCs). The CLCs allow all members of a given community to increase their literacy skills through access to reading and writing materials and by providing diverse locally tailored organising skills particularly targeting girls and women, dropouts, street children and child labourers.

Likewise, the International Institute of Rural Reconstruction (IIRR) is also tailoring its programmes to the specific needs of the community with its Pastoralist Education Programme in Ethiopia and Kenya.



## Non-formal Education

Engaging communities in new ways, many NGOs are implementing projects that either incorporate non-tradition teaching methods or operate outside the normal school settings. These types of non-formal child friendly education programmes are increasingly being utilised to reach under-represented communities. NGOs have realised that you must go to the people if they are not coming to school.

Dhaka Ahsania Mission (DAM) in Bangladesh focuses on creating child friendly learning environments. DAM's UNIQUE project in Bangladesh targets disadvantaged children from poor and rural areas. UNIQUE is a flexible and interactive multi-grade teaching and learning approach for students aged 6-12, which incorporates flexibility of class timing and assessments, and integrate ethnic, cultural and geographical sensitivities into its curriculum. Teachers teach more than one grade at a time, allowing individuals to be placed in different level groups according to their competency for different subjects. UNIQUE's ability to adapt to each learner, contributes to greater success for the student.

World Vision (WV) is also working to promote child friendly programming. In Indonesia, their Creating Learning Communities for Children project aims to improve the quality of learning and teaching in primary schools. WV has partnered with local communities and the Ministry of Education to conduct teacher training and construct new lessons. The centres also incorporate community involvement by developing partnerships with various groups to help manage the running and budget of the schools. Their programme focuses on active, joyful and effective learning incorporating new child friendly methods. Teachers are trained in the use of games, group discussions, problem solving, creating reading corners, promoting creative writing, conducting experiments, classroom management and diversified assessment mechanisms.

There are hundreds of similar successful initiatives undertaken by the national and international NGOs. While the programmes and projects NGOs are implementing are unique and successful, there are still apparent gaps and problems.

The largest gaps is lack of programming regarding secondary education in rural areas, programmes for disabled students and marginalised population etc. These gaps in programming leave large groups of society out of education.

### **Assessing the Capacities of Local Governance Institutions**

**Local Governance** is the way how power and authority are exerted locally and how development actions are decided.

Local governance must be democratic and include citizens from various categories. Local governance promotes:

- Women's and men's active participation in planning, implementing and budgeting processes.
- Citizen influence.
- Dialogue on policies,
- Social accountability.
- Equitable representation within local decision-making entities.

In this module we will focus on three types of institutions of LGIs:

- Public.
- Private.
- Civic

Local governance institutions play a crucial role in the development of rural communities. They:

- Connect households to local resources and collective action.
- Determine flows of external support to different social groups.
- Link local population to national interventions.



People live in communities. But the real importance of “living in community” is that people, and groups of people, develop the ways and means to care for each other, to nurture the talents and leadership that enhance the quality of community life and to tackle the problems that threaten the community and the opportunities that can help it.

When LGIs help people to do these things, communities become healthy; when they do not, communities deteriorate. LGIs that have the ways and means to undertake challenges demonstrate “capacity.”

LGIs without capacity really are not institutions in any meaningful sense, but generally give way to negative conditions like apathy, poverty or ineptitude.

So what is LGIs’ capacity?

**LGIs’ capacity** is the combined influence of commitment, resources and skills of LGIs that can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems and opportunities.

### **How is LGIs’ Capacity Built?**

LGIs vary tremendously in capacity. Some are capable of performing their tasks effectively while others are not. Capacity is gained in degrees, sometimes slowly, other times rapidly. All LGIs, even those that seem the most ineffective in rural communities, have the capacity in some measure and, we believe, are capable of developing more. They can increase their ability to build community, to grow with opportunities, and to confront threats to the community’s health and vitality.

There are three essential ingredients of LGIs capacity:

- Commitment;
- Resources; and
- Skills.

**Commitment** refers to the community wide will to act, based on a shared awareness of problems, opportunities and workable solutions. For example, effort, will, initiative and leadership are needed to involve and educate community members, help shape opinion and galvanise commitment to act.

**Resources** refer to financial, natural and human assets and the means to deploy them intelligently and fairly. It also includes having the information or guidelines that will ensure the best use of these resources – shape ways for deploying these resources effectively and meaningfully.

**Skills** include all the talents and expertise of individuals and organisations that can be used to address problems, seize opportunities and to add strength to existing and emerging institutions – a sustained effort that builds up positive qualities of the community life that enable a community to address its problems and recognise and act on its opportunities.

The range of LGIs comprises the following:

- Local Government.
- Civil Society Organisations (CSOs).
- Community Based Organisations (CBOs).
- Local People.

Effective local governance is brought about by a set of:

- Institutions.
- Mechanisms.
- Processes.

It is through these that citizens and groups can articulate their interests and needs, mediate their differences and exercise their rights and obligations at the local level. It involves:

- Effective citizen participation.
- Transparent flow of information.
- Functioning accountability mechanisms.

Capacity development as applied to local bodies ensures that such institutions are able to function effectively as institutions of self-governance. For this the interventions of capacity development can be at three levels:

- Individual.
- Institutional.
- Societal.

You as one of the elected representatives (ERs) at the village level (local level) usually represent a cluster of rural people. In some ways, you are the first and most direct representative body of local self-governance. You belong to the autonomous and basic democratic nature of LGI as a collective decision-making body. You are the one who is responsible for taking most of the significant interventions focusing and preparing this collective identity. Such interventions are aimed at developing a common perspective and intellectual appreciation.

For the development of your community, you together with other local actors need to be empowered and capacitated to improve your situation, either through direct action or indirectly through voice mechanisms. This can be promoted by, and in turn promotes institutions for good local governance; thereby contributing to greater accountability, transparency and efficiency in decision-making. It, in turn, generates a favourable ground for you for planning, better policy making and implementation. This calls for your capacity enhancement to build mechanisms for empowering women. (Box 6.4):

#### Box 6.4

##### **Empowering Woman Farmers: China**

*In China, local self-government refers to county level administration. The LGs have the authority to establish their own laws for the development of the community. They also have the power to allocate financial and human resources for education. They are primarily responsible for implementing national policy and monitoring the universal 9-year compulsory education programme and eradication of illiteracy.*

*A prefecture is an administrative region and consists of a cluster of communes. This example of functional literacy programme from Zhangye prefecture in the western province of Gansu demonstrates the role the LG has been playing in promoting educational activities for the improvement of the socioeconomic status of its community members.*

*Zhangye prefecture is primarily agro-based and women account for 76 per cent of the total labour force. Since 1994, the prefecture administration has been coordinating several integrated rural development programmes and activities. Primary and secondary schools within the prefecture have been mobilised to provide literacy and income-generation programmes for women. For this specific purpose, six specialised secondary schools have been identified for moderating the curricula, ensuring enrolment and retention in literacy and continuing education programmes. These centres are also providing relevant and need-based hands-on training to cater to the educational needs of the community.*

*Formal vocational training centres have been set up for providing pre-service programmes to secondary school leavers. In addition to grassroots initiatives, such as community-based income generating courses, technical associations meetings and operation of non-formal training institutions, the LG has mobilised 95 per cent participation of the total community households in various continuing education activities. More than 300,000 farmers are covered annually under these programmes.*

*Nearly 200,000 farmers have acquired mastery over one or two organising skills and more than 90 per cent households now have at least one expert in such skills. Women farmers are becoming increasingly enterprising. As such, a large number of women farmers have been empowered and their income has increased substantially.*

*Source: Ministry of Education, Government of China.*

#### **Box 6.4 (cont.)**

##### **Influencing LGRs: India**

*During the literacy campaign of Dakshina Kannada district of Karnataka state, a large number of LGs did not show much interest. They kept themselves away from the campaign. Subsequently, the district education offices organised several orientation camps for motivating and involving LGs in the literacy campaign. One of the important features of these camps was the sensitisation and face-to-face dialogues with LG representatives.*

*During these camps, LG representatives were told how they could exploit the campaign to work directly with the community. They were also told that such meetings were equally important for building community confidence and faith and for their re-election as community representatives. This argument had a serious influence on them and many of them took up the campaign seriously. For motivating the community members, LGRs organised the following activities:*

- Environment building.
- Identification of volunteer, facilitators and teachers.
- Motivation building.
- Training.

Supervision and monitoring of literacy centres.

Learners' motivation.

Direct contact with learners.

*All LGs earmarked and kept reserves of funds for providing additional facilities related to literacy programmes. They included:*

Lighting.

Additional exercise-books.

Additional pencils, pens and slates.

Blackboards.

Several Mandal Panchayats (sub-district local governance) awarded prizes and medals for the best LGRs.

*Source: National Literacy Mission, Government of India.*

#### Box 6.4 (cont.)

##### **A Community Rises: Thailand**

*In every dry season, people of NakonNayok province, Ban Na district and Kao Perm sub-district were victims of severe drought. During the dry season, they were unemployed, undernourished and their health status was very poor. With the help of the functional literacy programme organised by LSGs in these areas, several group discussions were organised for solving the drought situation. The community found the solution in KhaoNoi River, which used to get inundated during the monsoon season.*

*The community agreed to contribute voluntary labour and material support to construct a small reservoir for protecting themselves from the vagaries of floods on the one hand and for irrigating their fields on the other. The LSG prepared the plan and with the commitment and involvement of villagers succeeded in constructing the reservoir in less than*

three months. The representative of the LSG negotiated with government officials and sought a financial contribution of Baht 274,900 for the reservoir. In addition to free labour, each community member donated 75 Baht from their lunches. The reservoir covers an area of 1,500 acres and can store water for meeting the community needs for one year. More than 96 families are benefiting from the reservoir.

Also, the LSG has been helping the community in organising several non-formal and continuing education programmes. It has integrated income-generating courses such as fruits and vegetable plantation, mushroom growing, fish raising and other small scale entrepreneurial and vocational skills development into literacy programmes. The villagers are highly satisfied and happy and now enjoy a better standard of life.

*Source: Non-Formal Education Department, Ministry of Education, Thailand.*

#### Box 6.4 (cont.)

##### **Building LGIS Capacities – PAGOR’s Design Phase: Malawi**

An initial analysis was carried out during PAGOR’s design phase. It focused on the capacities of different groups of people involved in local governance: leaders of decentralised entities (elected representatives and staff), members of civil society organisations and members of the private sector. This analysis included citizens’ capacities, of both women and men.

Capacity building needs were identified based on the skills necessary for each group to fulfil its roles and duties within the context of policies, programmes, and laws structuring the decentralisation and related issues.

An analysis of tools, mechanisms, procedures and systems already present in both Districts was based on key documents, meetings, and consul-



*tations with stakeholders. Meetings were organised for staff and elected representatives in five Sectors per District. Hence, it was possible to have precise understanding of the needs. Concerning the private sector, a summary of needs analysis was made based on a sample of businesses operating in both Districts. With regard to CSOs, the analysis focused particularly on their capacities to be active in civic participation.*

*The needs analysis highlighted the importance of inter-relationships among various stakeholders. At the time, there was no common planning, which led to overlapping activities in the same areas, while other areas were barely covered. This assessment contributed to the initial design of capacity building approaches and of the core training approach. It involved grouping various types of stakeholders for training whose roles were complementary and interdependent, for example members of the Mediation Committees and members of Land Committees were trained together, allowing them to interact.*

*Source: Vision 2020, EDPRS, Decentralisation and Community Development Policies, February, 2011, Government of Malawi.*

The intervention for developing your capacity and the capacity of your LGIs should also look at seriously the needs to address the question of enhancing your and LGIs' material base. This is needed to make you and LGIs financially autonomous and sustainable entities. Capacity enhancement interventions in this area are particularly focused on mobilising local resources from the villages.

The most significant intervention in your capacity enhancement should be on developing individual leadership of each of the elected representatives (ERs). This is particularly relevant for women ERs and the ERs of backward classes. Since these newly elected leaders will be experiencing political participation in



a public space for the first time in their life; they will certainly require capacity enhancements in several ways. Therefore, capacity development interventions aimed at individual empowerment of new leaders has been a fundamental challenge in LGIs.

Given the different tiers of LGIs, bottom-up and top-down (vertical linkages) across them also need strengthening. One of the most significant areas of strengthening is to enable horizontal linkages between different tiers of local bodies and commensurate tiers of local administration.

Sensitisation and attitudinal changes are also major areas of capacity development of LGIs for political leadership at all levels. With the exception of few LGIs and LG representatives, the political culture in most political parties and among active and elected politicians is one of disregard and neglect for your activities and motivations to take responsibility for local level development.

The orientation and attitudinal change for government functionaries at all levels has also been a major challenge in working with responsive and accountable bureaucracy. A primary vehicle for bringing this about is through civil service training institutions at the district level. This may imply improving pedagogy and quality of facilitators in such government civil service training institutions.

Another area of capacity enhancement for government functionaries has to do with specific skills that they may need to work with the LGIs. For example, in the system of top-down development interventions, the lowest level government officials have no skills in planning and monitoring, since all of these processes have been centralised. They need to learn skills in promoting micro plans (including budgeting) as well as social audit and community monitoring of the implementation of these plans.

To summarise, capacity building of LG representatives and LGIs involves improving people's knowledge, skills and attitudes. It also involves improving institutional mechanisms, tools and procedures.

Capacity building results are based on the improvement of individual skills (knowledge application) and enhanced efficiency of structures and organisations which translate into sustainable practice changes.

Capacity building within local governance takes place in a national environment that provides a policy and legal framework that pertains to decentralisation and gender mainstreaming.

In local governance, the changes to perform are linked to:

- Delivery of community services meeting women's and men's needs.
- Mainstreaming gender into planning and participatory evaluation.
- Efficient and transparent management.
- Consultation among stakeholders of both genders.
- Civic engagement and participation, inclusiveness of various social categories and equity between women and men.

### **5.3 Role, Tasks and Responsibilities of Local Governance Representatives**

A properly conceived, thought-out and planned community development programme initiated by you will have lasting impact if it has social acceptability as well as community involvement and participation.

Your responsibility thus lies in motivating people, mobilising community support and using their services effectively and optimally.

You will meet with greater success if you concentrate as much as possible on the participation of girls and women, ethnic minorities, socially marginalised and disadvantaged population groups. Similarly, you should also mobilise several agencies and individuals in your community for financial and material contributions.

While doing so, you should always ensure a constant monitoring of programmes and take necessary corrective measures, whenever required, for the successful implementation of your programmes. This requires regular interaction and dialogue with elderly and influential people of your community.

You have several important responsibilities.

- Conducting meetings.
- Preparing minutes.
- Sharing information with the community at large.
- Securing participation and contribution of the people.
- Developing participatory micro plans, procedures and systems.
- Effective implementation and monitoring of these plans.
- Securing and mobilising resources.
- Maintaining transparent systems of financial management etc.

**Figure 6.6:** Role of Local Government Representative



Some of the core responsibilities are listed in Figure 6.6 and Table 6.4. You are not simply a locally elected political leader but looked at by the community as a planner, decision-maker, manager, motivator, resource mobiliser, monitor and evaluator. Let us see your responsibilities in each of these specific areas.

**Table 6.4: LGRs' Responsibilities and Tasks**

Responsibility as	Tasks to be performed
Planner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Setting the goals and objectives by identifying the needs of the community from the information collected through the survey.</li> <li>● Designing detailed organisational structure, methods and resources to achieve the stated goals.</li> </ul>
Decision-Maker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Choosing from among the array of promising alternatives those solutions which seem to best meet the requirements set for the achievement of goals and objectives.</li> </ul>
Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Giving others vision and the opportunity to perform their jobs effectively.</li> <li>● Accepting personal accountability for achieving established measurable results.</li> </ul>
Motivator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Sensitising people about the importance of community development.</li> <li>● Persuading them for active involvement and participation in community programmes.</li> </ul>
Community Mobiliser	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Exploring all kinds of possibilities for physical, human, and material and financial resources locally, nationally, and if possible, internationally for development programmes.</li> </ul>
Monitor and Evaluator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Checking a programme regularly to find out how far it is implementing according to initial plan.</li> <li>● Providing profiles of activities at the implementation level.</li> <li>● Building a self-healing corrective feedback system and a built-in audit plan for assessing terminal results.</li> </ul>

## Planner

First of all, you are a planner. Thus, your community expects from you systematic planning and implementation of development programmes and activities and adequate resource allocation for these activities.

All local governments hold meetings for planning in which resources are also allocated for different activities. For instance, you could hold a meeting to build a bridge to cross the river or construct a road. Your responsibility is to see that community development remains a priority issue in all such meetings.

As a planner, you should always try to plan your activity in such a way that the available facilities in all forms become available to all. Special programmes and activities should be designed for meeting the needs of socially marginalised and disadvantaged groups such as girls and women, ethnic minorities and tribes, and for those living in hard-to-reach areas.

## Motivator

Here is a role in which you can really demonstrate your interest, commitment and involvement with the community. People often come to seek your advice and guidance. They listen to your wisdom. You also have the strong support of the majority of people who have elected you as the leader of the community. Your task is, therefore, to harness the maximum potential of these people for the promotion of basic education.

It is also important for you to set an example of excellence and keep updating your knowledge and skills. As the motivator, you will be required to perform the following important tasks:

- Persuade and convince non-literates to enrol in literacy classes.
- Recognise and appreciate the efforts of volunteers, teachers and elders for their contributions to their community development.
- Encourage and organise meetings and visits for sharing each other's experience.
- Encourage all kinds of contributions and resources from the community.
- Organise different kinds of extra-curricular activities such as dramas, puppet shows, and religious fetes for sustaining the community's motivation and interest in developmental activities.

## Community Mobiliser

This is the area where you have to play a critical and determinant role. For instance, you have to ensure regular meetings, discussions with and involvement of as many people as possible. Some of the ways in which you can involve the community are by:

- Establishing important committees for certain special activities such as those for girls' and women's education.
- Undertaking environment building and extra-curricular activities such as cultural programmes, religious festivals, literacy walks, door-to-door contact programme, etc.
- Including community development as an agenda in general public meetings and rallies.
- Organising weekly/monthly general meetings with community members.

### Resource Mobiliser

Every LSG has different kinds of material, physical, human and financial resources at its disposal for the successful implementation of its development programmes. You may use these resources for the development of your community. While doing so, you would certainly like to involve other sectors engaged in development activities in your area.

For seeking their cooperation and participation, you should always try to emphasise the following:

- Coordination: bringing people and organisations together for smoother functioning.
- Convergence: developing inter-sectoral linkages on certain critical issues.
- Integration: involving people and organisations totally in development activities.

The ultimate objective of all government departments and agencies is to ensure the development of your area. In planning your programmes and activities, you should always try to see that the limited resources are used optimally and productively. In other words, for the benefit of your community you should try to avoid wastage and misuse of resources.

## Decision-maker

You will notice that on several occasions programmes cannot be started or are delayed mainly due to the inability of LSGs to take timely decisions. You should, therefore, take decisions at the proper stage and time. However, before taking any decision, it is important for you to follow a democratic and participatory approach, i.e. involve all the concerned people. Only then will your decision have the strong support of other members of the community.

The involvement of several people will also help you to implement your decision. You should always keep in mind that any decision taken by a group of people will certainly be better than the one taken by an independent individual.

Another important reason why decisions are not quickly implemented is that there is a lot of paperwork at various levels of administration. This involves considerable delays. Taking a decision at the appropriate time should be an important consideration. Often decisions are delayed because no one wants to take the responsibility of the decision being right or wrong. While taking a decision, you should always ensure that your decision is:

- Firm, time-bound and result oriented.
- Based on democratic participation and involvement of local people.
- Based on strong political commitment.
- Based within the framework of current rules and regulations.
- Free from any biased feeling with regard to caste, religion, etc.

## Monitor and Evaluator

The overall aim of monitoring a programme or activity is to ensure that the programme or activity is operational and implemented according to the plan (Refer to Module VIII). Your task is to ensure presence of all factors and availability of necessary resources in the field that lead to success of the programme.

Similarly, for evaluating a programme, you have to develop a systematic process of collecting and analysing data in order to determine whether and to what



degree objectives have been or are being achieved. The main task at hand is to assess whether non-formal education programmes have some process of monitoring and evaluation. Is the monitoring and evaluation conducted by an outside agency? What are the results so far? Are these being fed back into the programme to improve the content and delivery?

In brief, local government should consist of a well-defined structure. For instance, in India, this structure consists of districts that develop plans and manage activities, blocks that implement these plans and villages that implement village level plans. In Tanzania, these are called districts, wards, and villages and in Indonesia districts, sub-districts, and villages.

## 5.4 Advocacy

As local government representatives one of our important roles is to do advocacy at all levels.

**Advocacy** is about influencing those in power so that certain objectives are achieved. Advocacy can play an important role in engendering rural livelihood policy through skills development of rural people. We need to know the rationale, as well as tools and techniques, for policy advocacy in the field of promoting sustainable and integrated rural development.

Policymakers, such as government officials and board members of organisations, have to make many decisions about all kinds of subjects such as: What is going to be the speed limit in our country? What is going to be the tax rate on petroleum? Can we expand our market? How can rural women be empowered and get management positions? How can poor migrant workers from rural areas in developing countries have access to microfinancing to start a small business?

To make good decisions, policymakers rely on the information they either collect themselves from newspapers, scientific articles, etc. or that is provided for them by others. This provides individuals and organisations with the opportunity to influence the outcome of decisions by presenting the policymaker with in-



formation relevant to the subject on which a decision is to be made. This can be either directly, such as in a letter, or indirectly, for example by opening a debate on the subject in the media.

## What is Advocacy?

**Advocacy** is an approach that aims to change aspects of the current situation by influencing people with the power to make decisions. Advocacy is about influencing people, communities, policy, institutional structures, etc. in order to achieve a certain goal - a certain change.

Advocacy is putting a problem on the agenda, providing a solution to that problem and building support for acting on both the problem and the solution.

A common misconception about advocacy is that the term is used interchangeably with lobbying. Lobbying involves direct communication with policymakers in order to encourage them to formulate or amend policies and legislation.

Advocacy aims at changing policies, attitudes, power relations, social relations and institutional functioning. Advocacy is not only aimed at policymakers but also at other stakeholders.

Advocacy describes a method or approach which is used to:

- Change policies and practices.
- Reform institutions.
- Alter power relations.
- Change attitudes and behaviours.
- Give project work a broader impact.

## Why Use Advocacy?

People active in advocacy can assume various responsibilities with respect to the cause they pursue. Usually an advocate is trying to improve the situation for

a group of people or to strengthen their abilities to defend their interests.

Advocacy is used to:

- Achieve widespread, sustainable change.
- Create a bigger impact than is possible with grassroots programmes alone.
- Make programme impacts more sustainable.
- Defend communities and programmes from adverse policy changes.
- To strengthen civil society and expand democratic space by:
  - ▶ *Encouraging consultation and the participation of citizens in all levels of policy-making*
  - ▶ *Building and strengthening cooperation between NGOs and other civil groups*
  - ▶ *Establishing through interactions with decision-makers the legitimacy and credibility of civil groups*

### Appropriate Issues for Advocacy

The scope of issues that needs to be addressed is broad. Organisations and individuals have to at some point make pragmatic choices about which issues to take up as part of an advocacy strategy. Taking on too many issues simultaneously can overstretch your resources, and can result in diluting your message and so not achieving your objective.

Some topics might not be right for an advocacy strategy, for example, they might be too controversial. So, when is an issue appropriate for advocacy? An appropriate issue for advocacy should:

Be based on the community needs, so people are likely to benefit from your actions.

- Be feasible within your limitations and those of your organisation.
- Be affordable and achievable with the resources at your disposal.

- Not have a negative history, as this will make it more difficult to achieve.
- Be easy to understood by the public, as at some stage you will need to explain the issue to them.
- Mobilise key stakeholders to support your cause.

## Visioning Key Issues

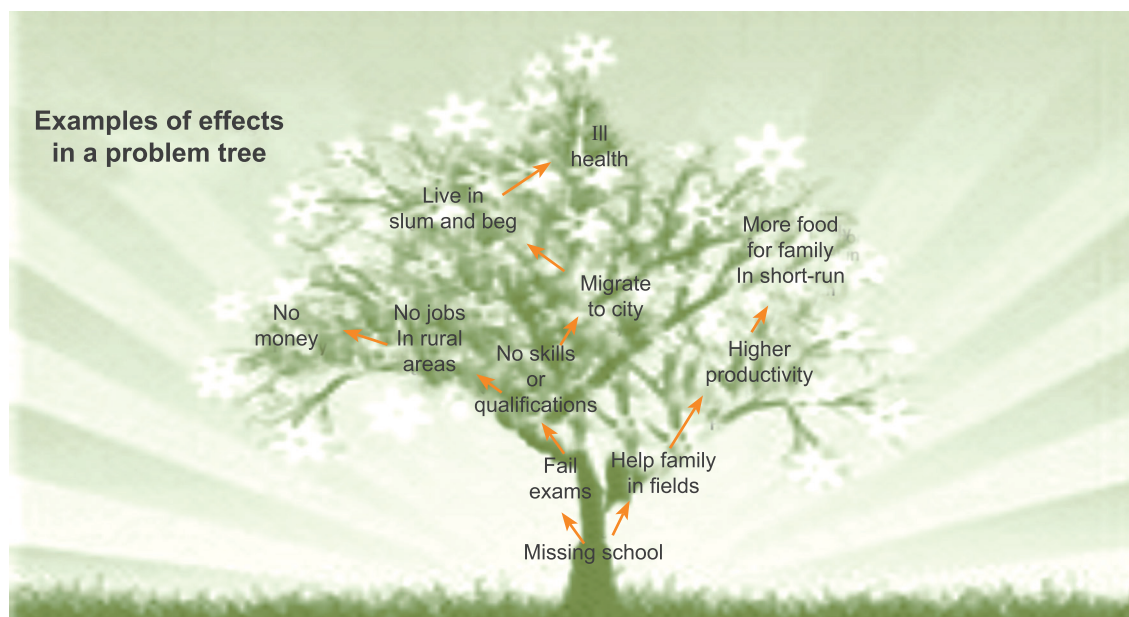
- What is your long-term vision for your community?
- What do you want your community to be like?
- What specific features would act as indicators for your ideal community?
- What needs to change for this to be achieved?
- What are the obstacles that stop this happening?
- What are you trying to achieve with your work?
- What contribution does this make to your overall vision?
- What else is there that you could/should do?

## Identifying a Problem – the Problem Tree

There are several ways of identifying a problem and an issue. We propose here the simplest technique – “the but why technique” for this purpose (see Figure 6.6 and Figure 6.7).

For example, if you say that people in poor communities do not have access to clean drinking water, you might ask yourself “but why”? Once you come up with an answer to that question, probe the answer with another “but why” question, until you reach the root of the problem and the root cause.

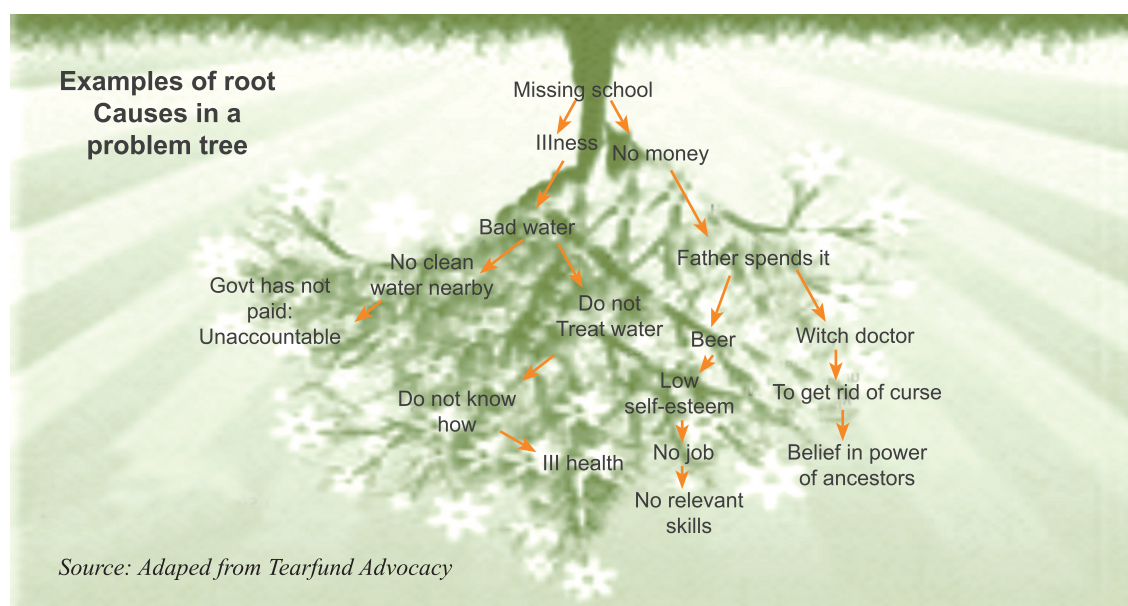
Figure 6.6: Examples of Effects in a Problem Tree



The whole exercise of the problem tree (cause and effects) is best done on a long piece of paper on the wall – so that participants can see all the causes and effects and possible interventions at the same time.

At each “but why” there are a variety of answers that can be given and if the “why” exercise is repeated for the same problem a number of times, you will be able to identify many of the roots of the problem. A simple example is given below.

Figure 6.7: Examples of Root Cause in a Problem Tree



### Example 6.1

The immediate problem:

#### **Children Are Not Going to School**

*Ask why?*

They keep falling ill.

Possible response: provide medicines.

*Ask why?*

They drink bad water.

Possible response: dig a well.

*Ask why?*

The well is too far from the school.

Possible response: put in a pipe.

*Ask why?*

The local government said it would dig a new well last year but it has not.

Possible response: dig a well or lobby local government to provide the well.

*Ask why?*

Central government has not released the funds they promised.

Possible response: dig a well/put in a pipe or lobby central government to release the funds.

*Ask why?*

The bilateral donors have not released the pledged aid funds.

Possible response: dig a well/put in a pipe or lobby bilateral donors.

Many causes and solutions may apply to your problem, so it is up to you to find the ones that seem most important and that your organisation has the capacity to work with.

The “But why” analysis by itself does not lead automatically to the area you should choose for your work but it does highlight the different causes of the problem and the different paths you may take to solve it.

### **The Advocacy Campaigning**

An advocacy campaign publicly promotes an agenda, involving platforms where a wide audience can hear the advocate’s message. Campaigning creates and mobilises the public around the advocacy issue, change perceptions, and build support to influence decision-makers and stakeholders.

### **Setting Campaign Goals and Objectives**

Your campaign should set a broad goal from which more specific objectives can be developed. Your campaign goal is like your vision; it describes what you hope to accomplish in the long term. It is vital that your goal bears a clear vision of exactly what you want to achieve. Campaigns can have different goals for different timelines. When developing your campaign strategy, it is important to consider different goals that you hope to win over a period of time. You may want to develop some short-term goals that are steps toward your long-term goals. Short-term goals are not always necessary but may prove to be useful in big issue campaigns since they help sustain organisations when people see small victories along the way.

### **Building Alliances and Coalitions**

At some point early in your campaign, you will want to start thinking about who else you should bring to the table to be part of both the planning and actions. Building alliances or coalitions may be an on-going process throughout your campaign. You may invite some organisations and/or individuals to be part of the development of the goal and objectives for the campaign. Once the objectives are set, you may realise that there are additional allies that you would like to have as part of your coalition or alliance.



A coalition is a group of individuals and/or organisations with a common interest that agree to work together towards a common goal, often to execute a particular campaign.

## Choosing Your Targets

Once you have established your specific advocacy objectives and gotten the facts on both the issue itself and the power structure and decision-making process behind it, it is critical to understand the WHO and the HOW:

- Who has the power to make the change you want, and is most vulnerable to the kinds of pressure you can mount?
- Who are your allies? Who could be your active supporters?
- Who will actively oppose you?
- How can we reach the people in power?

One process tool for this is called power mapping. Power mapping allows advocacy groups to systematically lay out power dynamics across your campaign so you can focus on your main target – the one who can make the change you want to see – while also illuminating other potential connections and recognising opposition so you can minimise it.

Power mapping is used to:

- Forge alliances.
- Build support.
- Do the most targeted actions.
- Be politically relevant and strategic.
- Build awareness and legitimacy of your group.
- Understand the policy and decision-making process.

The first thing you have to do here is to find out a person who is the most open to influence, but who can still give us what we want, through “power mapping.” Now, we will “map” our way to get that person to give us what we want. We

need to know how decisions are made, who has influence and what structures exist for asserting your influence.

## Choose Your Actions

The last thing to consider in strategising a campaign is tactics, or actions. Actions are steps in carrying out an overall plan. In other words, actions are specific activities that you as advocates do to pressure targets. There are many different types of actions that can be used to achieve certain goals.

Below is a list of some of the possibilities, but you should be creative and choose the actions that will help you meet your campaign objectives.

## Advocacy Actions

- Conduct meetings with community members to create awareness about the campaign theme and to raise questions.
  - ▶ *Stage a rally, march or vigil.*
  - ▶ *Conduct outreach or educational activities on the topic.*
  - ▶ *Create a scorecard which rates the performance of your target.*
  - ▶ *Conduct monitoring by collecting information on your issue.*

## Advocacy Tools

Tools are applicable for all levels of the organisation as a resource for building a structured approach for sustained advocacy. The tool that you plan to use should not only be relevant and context oriented, but its content will also be valuable to anyone who wants to expand their understanding of the problem and the approach to advocacy and how this approach is applied.

- The following is a standard list commonly used in any advocacy campaign:
  - ▶ *Leaflets and other materials for public distribution*
  - ▶ *Posters or advertisements*



- ▶ *Logos and mascots*
- ▶ *Public meetings*
- ▶ *Media work – newspapers, radio or TV*
- ▶ *“Stunts” or events to attract media attention*
- ▶ *Puppet shows*
- ▶ *Using celebrities to support your cause*
- ▶ *Letter writing campaigns*
- ▶ *Petitions*
- ▶ *Competitions*
- ▶ *Mass lobbies, demonstrations*
- ▶ *Mass events - fasts, cycle rides, street theatre etc.*
- ▶ *Running an active website.*

## **Fundraising Methods**

There are an infinite number of ways to obtain resources for your work, so try different things.

Whatever works, keep doing it. Be creative and have fun. Below are some suggestions to help you begin:

- Request membership dues from individuals or organisations.
- Solicit in-kind contributions.
- Hold fundraising events such as dinners, concerts, film festivals, picnics, etc.
- Cultivate large individual contributions.
- Look for corporate donations.
- Sell merchandise such as crafts, artwork, promotional items, etc.
- Seek grants from foundations and international donor agencies.
- Win national or local government grants and contracts.
- Promote holiday giving (e.g., Christmas donations).
- Auction donated goods and services.

- Raffle donated prizes.
- Sell advertising space in newsletters or other publications.

**Table 6.5:** Shows the budget estimates for organising an adult literacy campaign.

Adult Literacy Campaign Fiscal Year 2014 Proposed Budget (Yuan)			
<b>Overhead</b>		<b>Printing and Distribution</b>	
Office space	4,000	Report on literacy	800
Equipment rental	1,000	Fact sheets	400
Supplies	1,000	Briefing materials	500
Phone, fax, modem	1,000	Brochure	150
Postage	750	<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>1,850</b>
Other (contingency 10%)	775		
<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>8,525</b>		
<b>Salaries and Benefits</b>		<b>Fundraising</b>	
1 assistant, part-time	5,000	Literacy banquet/auction	1,250
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>5,000</b>	Donor thank-you gifts	250
		Funders briefing materials	500
		<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>2,000</b>
<b>Programmes and Events</b>			
1 coalition kick-off meeting	500		
Participation in 3 conferences	600	<b>TOTAL BUDGET</b>	<b>18,875</b>
2 briefings for ministry officials	200		
2 press conferences	200		
<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>1,500</b>		

To summarise, advocacy is a skill that combines knowledge, good judgement and creative problem-solving. Building skills for advocacy requires organisational commitment to training, capacity building and promoting staff ability to

engage with a wide range of people, both within the office and with partners.

The Nine Questions for strategic advocacy and tools to help you answer them are:

### **Question 1: What do we want?**

*To understand the situation.*

Tool 1: Developing a problem and solutions tree

Tool 2: Planning research

Tool 3: Generating an evidence base

Tool 4: Choosing advocacy priorities

### **Question 2: Who can make it happen?**

*To understand stakeholders, their relative power and how change happens.*

Tool 5: Mapping stakeholders' interests, influence and importance

Tool 6: Mapping stakeholders' relative power

Tool 7: Mapping targets

### **Question 3: What do they need to hear?**

*To reach a specific audience.*

Tool 8: Developing evidence-based messages

### **Question 4: Who do they need to hear it from?**

*To identify the right messenger for your audience.*

Tool 9: Choosing messengers strategically

### **Question 5: How can we make sure they hear it?**

*To identify processes, opportunities and entry points.*

Tool 10: Choosing the best channels to deliver your message

Tool 11: Identifying and planning opportunities

Tool 12: Lobbying

Tool 13: Negotiating

### **Question 6: What do we have?**

*To identify the availability of resources.*

### Question 7: What do we need?

*To recognise capacities and gaps.*

Tool 14: Advantages, challenges, threats, opportunities, next steps: the ACT-ON model for assessing internal advocacy capacity

### Question 8: How do we begin to take action?

*To set goals and interim outcomes and develop an action plan.*

Tool 15: Being SMART

Tool 16: Advocacy action planning

### Question 9: How do we tell if it's working?

*To monitor and evaluate advocacy.*

Tool 17: Using “logical frameworks” to plan advocacy action.

## 6. CONCLUSION

In the era of rapid transformation, as part of the wider public sector reform in developing countries, the field of local governance institutions (LGIs) poses the challenge of providing affordable services to a heterogeneous citizenry at affordable cost. The public administration in rural areas has relatively weak capacities to initiate actions to address needed interventions for rural transformation and to maintain conducive framework conditions for entrepreneurial initiatives. The module places particular emphasis on streamlining the business and regulatory environment for rural entrepreneurs; business development services including microfinance for rural farm and non-farm workers including women entrepreneurs; collective self-help capacities and advocacy roles; linking private sector associations, NGOs and universities; preparing rural youth for entrepreneurship, etc. The module narrated capacity assessment techniques and the role and responsibilities of local government representatives. The strategies that are followed include: participatory approaches to help the rural poor; institution-

al structure for finance and rural development; and elements of a “bottom-up” growth strategy. This Module is a useful source of information for any organisation involved or working in LG issues.

## 7. FOLLOW-UP

Please discuss your learning from reading the contents and information of this module with your colleagues and relate it to your experience. Identify activities and make a plan which you can individually or jointly implement.

## 8. CONTENTS OF THE NEXT MODULE

In the next module “Designing and Organising Training of Local Governance and Women Group Representatives”, we will focus the following major topics:

- What is training cycle?
- How to conduct training needs assessment?
- What are training aim and objectives?
- What is training curriculum?
- What are adult learning principles?
- What are different training methodologies?
- What is training materials and training aids?
- What is a session guide?
- How to conduct training sessions?
- What are qualities and activities of trainers?