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Vocational Training in
Rural Development and Ecology
Module № 8

Participatory Approach in Rural Development



Responsible University

**Federal State Budget-supported
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Kostroma State Agricultural Academy**



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National Project Coordinator
Sustainable Rural Development Center
Russian State Agrarian University -
Moscow Timiryazev Agricultural Academy, Russia

Grant holder and Project Management
Eastern Europe Centre
University of Hohenheim, Germany

Authors

Sergei Yuriievich Zudin
Irina Sergeevna Primakina
Angelika Ivanovna Ivanova
Olga Ivanovna Panteleyeva
Alexander Valerievich Merzlov
Lubov Aleksandrovna Ovchintseva
Angelika Thomas

Responsible University

Kostroma State Agricultural Academy (KSAA)

Working Group Partners

Russian State Agrarian University -
MTAA named after K.A. Timiryazev
State Scientific Institution All-Russian Institute of Agrarian
Issues and IT named after A.A. Nikonov
University of Hohenheim, Germany

Reviewer

A.G. Paptsov, Doctor of Economic Sciences, Professor
G.A. Petraneva, Candidate of Economic Sciences, Professor

Contact

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Primakina Irina (Kostroma State Agricultural Academy)
Email: primai@mail.ru

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Preface

The present guide is one of the series of the guides that were developed within the framework of the project TEMPUS 159357-TEMPUS-1-2009-1-DE-TEMPUS-JPHES “Vocational Training in Rural Development and Ecology” (RUDECO) under TEMPUS programme.

The project RUDECO aims to improve the vocational training system in the sphere of rural development and ecology and involves various agricultural universities in Russia and Europe. The project goal is to facilitate the universities in acquiring the necessary qualifications by means of conceptualization and development of study guides (modules), as well as by training the instructors who will participate in the vocational training of governmental employees.

The grant beneficiary and coordinator from the European Union is the University of Hohenheim, Germany, a highly recognised university. The project is implemented by an international consortium which encompasses from Germany the Agency for Development of Agriculture and Rural areas of the Federal State Baden-Württemberg, the Academy for Spatial Research and Planning, the Enterprise «Terra Fusca Engineering»; the University of Udine (Italy); the Slovak University of Agriculture (Slovakia); the National Institute of Higher Education in Agronomy, Food and Environmental Sciences (France); the Agence de Services et de Paiements (France); the Warsaw University of Life Sciences and the Association of Sustainable Development of Poland.

Eleven Russian higher educational institutions participate in the project on behalf of Russia, along with the Ministry of Agriculture of Russia, A.A.Nikonov State Scientific Institution All-Russian Institute of Agrarian Issues and IT of the Russian Agricultural Academy, the administrations of Tambovskaya and Orlovskaya oblasts, as well as representatives of environmental organizations. The educational institutions engaged are: Buryat State Agricultural Academy named after V.R.Fillipov, Kostroma State Agricultural Academy, Moscow State Agroengineering University named after V.P.Goryachkin, Novosibirsk State Agrarian University, Omsk State Agrarian University named after P.S. Stolypin, Orel State Agrarian University, K.A.Timiryazev Russian State Agrarian University-MTAA named after K.A. Timiryazev, Samara State Agricultural Academy, Stavropol State Agrarian University, Tambov State University named after G.R. Derzhavin, Yaroslavl State Agricultural Academy.

The project goals are:

- Development of the vocational training system in the sphere of ecology and rural areas at 11 agrarian universities of Russia, enabling them to obtain a higher qualification;
- Development of 12 modules for representatives of governmental agencies on the national, regional and local level;
- Training of the representatives of Russian public institutions and representatives of public administration of various levels in the sphere of ecology and rural development using professional training from certified instructors;
- Implementing «training for trainers» using the support of European partners;
- Development of international cooperation of Russian institutions of higher education.

The series of modules covers the following topics:

- **Sustainable development: key terms and theoretical basis** (Introductory Module 1, Russian State Agrarian University – Moscow Timiryazev Agricultural Academy)
- **Sustainable rural development: approaches for regional and local programmes elaboration** (Module 2, Russian State Agrarian University – Moscow Timiryazev Agricultural Academy)
- **Ecolabeling and marketing of environmental and regional products from rural areas** (Module 3, Orel State Agrarian University)
- **Eco-tourism and tourism in rural areas** (Module 4, Buryat State Agrarian Academy of Agriculture named after V.R.Philippov)
- **Conversion of conventional farming into organic farming** (Module 5, Yaroslavl State Agricultural Academy)
- **Environmental regulations and laws** (Module 6, Stavropol State Agricultural University)
- **Ecological related problems of intensive agriculture (plant and animal production)** (Module 7, Omsk State Agrarian University)
- **Participatory approach in rural development** (Module 8, Kostroma State Agricultural Academy)
- **Reducing pollution in rural areas caused by agricultural, industrial and municipal solid waste** (Module 9, Novosibirsk State Agrarian University)
- **Sustainable use of water resources in rural areas** (Module 10, Samara State Agricultural Academy)
- **Food safety and product quality control** (Module 11, Moscow State Agroengineering University named after Goryachkin V.P.)
- **Management of biological resources of rural areas** (Module 12, Tambov State University named after G.R. Derzhavin)

The present module 8 includes methodological materials and guidance how to involve the rural population into the development and implementation of rural development projects. It was developed by experts from Kostroma State Agricultural Academy (Sergei Yuriiievich Zudin, Irina Sergeyevna Primakina, Angelica Ivanovna Ivanova) plus colleagues from Russian State Agrarian University – MTAA named after K.A. Timiryazev (Olga Ivanovna Panteleyeva, Alexander Valerievich Merzlov), State Scientific Institution All-Russian Institute of Agrarian Issues and IT named after A.A.Nikonov (Lubov Aleksandorvna Ovchintseva) with active participation of University of Hohenheim (Angelika Thomas).

The introducing module on the key terms and theoretical basis of sustainable development basis is an ideal preparation for all the above listed specific modules. Persons who start to get involved in the field of ecology and sustainable rural development, we recommend to read this

basic module first, before deepening one of the other topics. Readers interested in the modules and further training can address also all involved university partners to get further information or training about the listed modules.

Persons dealing with the presented topic – involvement of rural population in areas development might be especially interested also in module «Sustainable rural development: approaches for regional and local programme elaboration». The module is also closely connected with ecological marking and marketing of ecological and regional products of rural areas, development of rural and ecological tourism, food security and food quality control.

A team of authors expresses sincere appreciation to all the partners of the RUDECO project, especially to Dr h.c. Jochem Gieraths (Eastern Europe Center, University of Hohenheim), to the project coordinator Martin Dietrich (University of Hohenheim) and to Anna Voitenko (University of Hohenheim) for the opportunity to participate and the support in implementing the project. Special thanks to Angelika Thomas (University of Hohenheim) for scientific and methodological assistance.

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Introduction

International experience shows that a development of rural areas which is based on the internal potentials and is with regard to environmental protection, culture and historical values, and at the same time creates favourable conditions for the life of rural population, is possible only with active participation of the population. This participatory approach ranges from the development and implementation of programmes and projects for rural development to the monitoring and evaluation of the efficiency of their implementation.

Goals and objectives

The module's main goal is to provide trainees with the mechanisms for activation and engagement of local population into the processes of development and implementation of the rural development programmes/projects, monitoring and efficiency evaluation of the activities under such programmes/projects.

The module objectives include:

- to familiarize trainees with the basics of the concept of rural sustainable development and managing this process;
- to provide the guidelines and mechanisms for involving the population in various stages of implementation of programmes/projects;
- to familiarize them with the rules and basic methods of participation.

Trainee requirements

Higher education in agrarian and/or humanitarian specialties. Knowledge of basics of the concept of rural sustainable development. It is advisable that readers or training participants have working experience in the governmental agencies or in the bodies of local self-government.

During their work on the module, the trainees will learn:

- basic notions of the concept of rural sustainable development and the management of this process;
- guidelines and methods for involving the population in different stages of the design and implementation of the rural programmes and projects;
- European and Russian experience with citizens participation into implementation of the rural development programmes.

After the module is completed, the trainees will:

- be able to understand the basic principles of rural sustainable development and the essence of the «bottom up» and «top down» administrative approaches;
- have understanding of the essence, principles, and types of participation;
- be able to apply participatory methods on various stages of development and implementation of agricultural development programmes.

1 Participation of population as an important part of “bottom-up” approach to sustainable rural development

This topic covers the conceptual foundations of sustainable development in rural areas and different approaches to manage this process, their strengths and weaknesses.

Questions considered

1.1 Goals and objectives of sustainable development in rural areas

1.1 Major principles of transition to sustainable development of rural areas

1.2 Shifts in rural development policy: from the approach «top down» to «bottom up».

1.1 Goals and objectives of sustainable development in rural areas

There are numerous definitions of the term «sustainable development». The introductory module of the RUDECO training series and the module «Sustainable rural development: approaches for regional and local programme elaboration» provide detailed background how the term and concept of sustainable development evolved and which implications arise for regional and local development programmes in Russia and other countries. With this chapter we want to link the overall goal of sustainable development with major principles that led to participatory approaches in regional rural development.

The concept of transition of the Russian Federation to sustainable development states that this is a consequential process to secure the balanced solution of socioeconomic tasks, of problems of preservation of the favourable environment and the natural resources potential for the purposes of satisfaction of needs of the current and future generations.

*Sustainable development -
establishing of balanced,
harmonious relations between
individual, society and nature.*

In the concept of sustainable development this triad takes on new priorities: the goal is the prosperity of the now living and future generations; the foundation is the natural environmental and life support systems; the economy is the power plant of the development.

The economic approach to sustainable development presupposes an optimal use of limited resources. The social component is directed at preservation of social stability and cultural diversity in global scopes. Environmental security requires sustainability of natural systems and relies on their ability for self-regeneration and adaptation to the changing external conditions.

To reconcile these different points of view, humanity has to address new problems. For instance, interaction of the economic and social aspects brought about the task of fair distribution of income within one generation. Interconnection between the environmental and economic elements raised the issue of monetary evaluation and internalization of impacts on the environment. Comprehensive consideration of the social and environmental components requires taking into account the rights of future generations and involving the population in the decision-making process.

The fundamental difference between the concept of sustainable development and traditional views and practices of economy management lies in the integral approach to development as a holistic process. This is why it is the cornerstone concept for securing of the comprehensive territorial development.

The major goal of sustainable development in rural areas lies in creation of conditions for achievement of the population's prosperity by means of establishment of the self-developing socio-ecologic-economic territorial system; in preservation and multiplication of their cultural heritage; in ensuring of reproduction and long-term use of natural resources for agriculture, local industry, crafts, trades, tourism, and other spheres of economic activity.

Basic objectives of sustainable development in rural areas are:

1. Creation in rural areas of self-developing economic systems based on formation of economic turnover of local resources as a result of:
 - development of a competitive and environmentally harmonious agriculture, forestry and water management;
 - diversification of the agricultural industry, increment of the population's economic activity, revival of traditional crafts, trades, and industries and development of new ones;
 - development of the modern industrial and informational infrastructure
 - development of the local industry;
 - comprehensive development of cooperation in industrial, marketing, financial, and other sectors;
 - consolidation of the market places and corresponding production and sales connections.
2. Development of local self-government for formation of the socially organized and responsible civil society in rural areas.
3. Promotion of attractiveness of dwelling in rural areas.
4. Promotion of competition capacity of rural territories.

As Merzlov explains in the theoretical introduction, the leading approach to development of rural territories in Russia has long been concentrated on forced intensification of agricultural industry. But presently the Russian society becomes more and more aware of the necessity of dedicated and sustainable development of rural areas. Many of its problems have been identified, but locally the strategies to address them have not been developed yet. As a rule, attempts are being made to cope with the problems of rural areas with the help of different activities, yet isolated from each other and with no proper coordination or harmonization of programmes and projects. Such a sectoral problem-solving approach for rural areas should be complemented by projects that cover major issues of rural areas, thus, they have to address not only agriculture, but also forestry, water management and other branches and kinds of activity, without whose development sustainable development is unattainable.

The policy concerning rural regions targets on the prosperity of the entire population of a specific territory. This comprehensive view together with obvious weaknesses of sectoral projects served as the starting point for the design of comprehensive integrated programmes for

development of rural areas, including different sectoral development projects. Such approach is characterized by their multisectoral transformations and regional approach.

More over, the sectoral approach to territorial development treats residents of rural areas only in accordance to their predetermined roles: villagers - as producers of foodstuffs, bus passengers - as participants of traffic, sick persons - as patients or as consumers of services of a health care institution, and so on. But rural residents have a vast variety of different needs and a whole range of various problems. It is the very rural residents with their problems that are the starting point of sustainable development, and accounting for human problems in all their complexity requires intersectoral methods of resolving.

1.2 Major principles of transition to sustainable development in rural areas

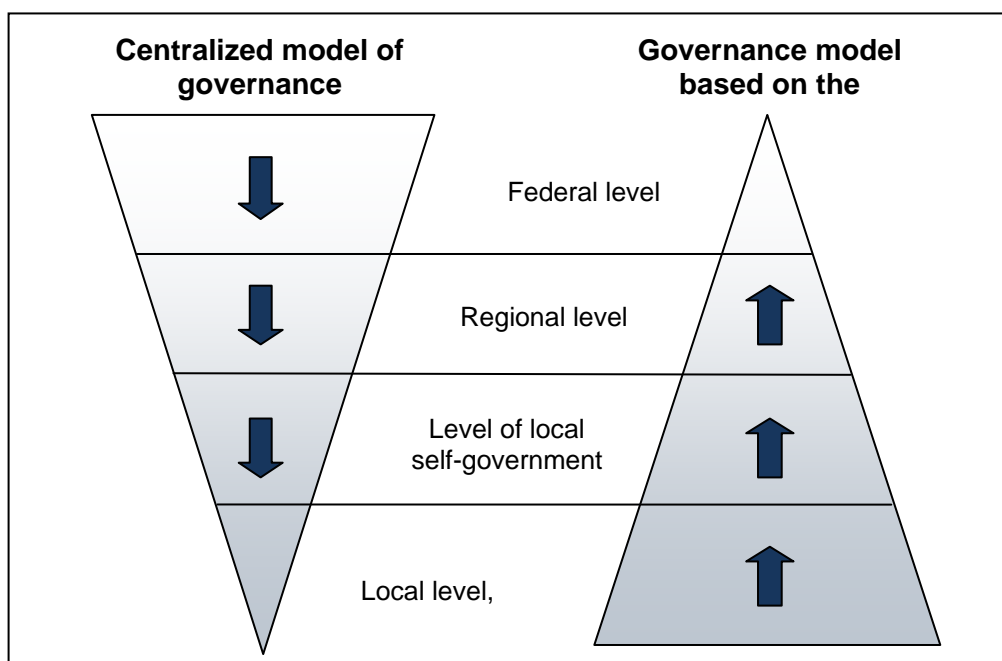
There are several principles of transition to sustainable development in rural areas of the Russian Federation in the modern conditions.

Principles of subsidiarity and complementarity

The notion of subsidiarity is wider and wider used to delimit the subjects of responsibility and powers between bodies of public authority that operate at different territorial level.

The subsidiary approach is incorporated in the constitutions of the European Union and of the U.S., as well as in the European Charter of Local Self-Government, to which Russia is a member state. Its Article 4 states that «Public responsibilities shall generally be performed in preference by those authorities, which are closest to the citizen. Allocation of responsibility to another authority should weigh up the extent and nature of the task and requirements of efficiency and economy».

Fig. 1.1 Models of delegation of powers used on different levels of administrative bodies



Subsidiarity rejects the conventional bureaucratic hierarchy «top down» and proclaims that «only what cannot be effectively done at the lower level of the administrative territorial governance

should be transferred to the higher level». «Assistance for the purposes of self-assistance» and «priority of the small over the big» is the essence of this principle (Fig.1.1).

In the modern complex society, with its depth of social differentiation, it is impossible to establish either a strict hierarchy or effective governance from one centre. The structural division of powers presupposed by democracy is an important issue for effectiveness of management of administrative territorial bodies of different levels. In the contemporary history of Russia, the central authority, after the period of consolidation of its vertical, commences delegation of powers «from top down» to the regions and to the level self-government. But it is not due to implementation of the principle of subsidiarity, as the subsidiary order is grounded in the perception that the powers are inherent to low-level authorities, and delegation can take place only from bottom up. The order of delegation of powers within the framework of development of Russian federalism implies that these powers belong to the highest-level authority and are only granted to lower-level authorities. The lower-level authorities are just authorized, in their mandate they simply represent the highest-level authority.

Federalism in Russia still does not follow from the principle of subsidiarity, and its development does not lead to establishment of subsidiarity. Its nature lies in delegation of central functions of power. Responsibilities were delegated in the periods of crises, and were returned back in the period of stabilization.

In accordance to the Russian legislation, bodies of local self-government exercise a rather wide range of not only their own, but also of state powers. Vesting of separate state powers in bodies of local self-government is not accompanied with transfer of the material and financial resources they require to exercise these powers.

The centralized fiscal system inevitably leads to the situation where the lower-level authorities are «unable» to accomplish the infrastructural tasks, and exposes the inherently unilateral movement towards centralization.

Significance of this principle increased in the circumstances when in response to the developmental needs of the society and the state federative relations are being transformed.

Development of territories based on the principle of subsidiarity requires that in the hierarchy of planning of territorial development it is necessary to regard the principle of «counterflows», when in preparation of plans of the higher level the interests of lower levels are taken into account, and in the local level planning, the regional and federal policies are considered. The resulting complementarity of different levels of administrative territorial governance allows to maximally effectively utilize all internal and external factors of development of territories.

The subsidiarity principle fits best to the psychology of the local economic subjects as it facilitates utmost development of their potentials due to freedom of operation in creative arrangement of their home land. It is closely connected with the principle of mandatory public participation in the processes of territorial development considered below.

Principle of public participation

Twenty five years ago within the theory of development of depressive and backward regions the principle of participation in the development processes was articulated. It is based on the thesis of necessity to use knowledge, experiences and ideas of the local population about development of their «small motherland». The decision-making processes that go «bottom up» lead to development of the creative potential of citizens, deeper accord, greater feeling of responsibility and mobilization of residents' own efforts in rural regions.

Public participation in the process of the design, application and evaluation of rural territories development programmes constitutes an integral part of the democratic system of governance. It is defined as a process, within which different groups of the rural population through wide discussions become responsible for the development initiatives, as well as for related decisions and resources. In application of the participatory approach it is important to take into account the specificity of mentality of local residents, their religious and cultural peculiarities.

In the recent years in the projects on sustainable development in rural areas of different countries this notion rather often denotes mandatory character of participation and partnership in decision-making processes of the previously excluded or marginal groups of the population.

Public participation becomes an important and integral principle of management of rural territories development. It presupposes that success of rural territories development projects directly depends on interested participation of the local population in identification of goals and measures and implementation of this project.

The principles of subsidiarity and of public participation described above serve as the foundation for development of strategies for sustainable development in rural areas at the municipal level and their integration in higher-level development plans.

1.3 Shifts in the rural development policy: from «top down» to «bottom up»

Sustainable development of a rural territory is a complex multidimensional process, which encompassed the economic, social, environmental and political components. In the recent decades many countries have acknowledged the fact that rural areas lag behind urban areas both in development and in obtaining resources, and this prompted development of regional and national strategies of rural development.

Depending on a country and a continent, different components take priority in development strategies. For instance, in Northern and North-Western European countries the central issue is to secure in rural areas the same social standards and opportunities for employment of the population as in urban areas. In comparably better well-off Central Europe the issue of preservation of landscape elements and the natural environment is of great significance. For South-Eastern and Eastern Europe currently the most urgent measures are aimed at increasing of the level of the population's incomes and poverty alleviation.

The following major approaches to **management of development** of rural territories at different levels of state management have been outlined:

- the administrative one;
- the subsidiary one;
- the principle of «counterflows».

Administrative approach (approach "top down") is used in the case when somebody in the position of power decides to introduce a certain change. In an ideal case this means a clear instruction from a person (persons), who makes decisions, on what should be done, after what the specified actions are taken and the "necessary" information (to the originator's opinion) is provided to performers and the assigned actions are taken. Rather often people affected by the change possess few opportunities to change the proposals of the person who made the decision.

Table 1.1 Strengths and weaknesses of the "top-down" approach

Strengths and advantages of the approach "top down"	Limitations of the approach "top down"
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ provides conformity to specific conditions of a concrete organization or institution (from the point of view of its leadership); ▪ the course of actions is chosen and planned beforehand; ▪ works for short-term / middle-term changes; ▪ works for radical changes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ success depends on competence of the higher leadership; ▪ it can be very subjective; ▪ it can fail to sufficiently inspire and motivate the acting persons; ▪ it can fail to cope with the variety and with the local conditions; ▪ if not enough caution is exercised and no extensive and precise information is provided to all affected by the change, the "top down" initiative often can cause resentment and antagonism, as well as the feeling that the change was imposed.

The subsidiary approach (the "bottom up" approach) became well-known thanks to quality-improving teams, local action groups, as well as authority and performance initiatives.

This approach to changes usually is required in following cases:

- It is unclear how to solve a problem(s), so the people affected by the problem(s) directly have to participate in the process of developing possible solutions;
- Some problems are locally perceived in a different way, that is why there are different potential ways to solve them, and because of this the approach "top down" does not work and becomes unacceptable.

Table 1.2 Strengths and weaknesses of the “bottom-up” approach

Strengths and advantages of the "bottom up" approach	Limitations of the approach "bottom up" approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ it engages a wide range of skills and knowledge and promotes staff's involvement/ feeling of responsibility; ▪ works for long-term /middle-term changes; ▪ works for gradual changes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the process can become hectic/ unprogrammable; ▪ it can be subjective; ▪ it can lose orientation and focus or fail to take into account priorities; ▪ it can take a lot of time, as for the changes to be effective, it requires conducting of vast consultations and achieving public accord; ▪ such approach is also difficult to implement if the organization lacks a structure that collects and evaluated ideas for proposed changes/

The subsidiary principle of hierarchical organization rejects the usual unilateral bureaucratic hierarchy «top down» and proclaims that **only what cannot be effectively done at the lower level of the administrative territorial governance should be transferred to the higher level.**

The principle of «counterflows» presupposes that in preparation of plans of the higher level the interests of lower levels are taken into account, and in the local level planning, the regional and federal policies are considered.

«It would be unfair and at the same time very vexatious to break the social order by taking away from low-level associations the functions they can perform themselves, and entrusting them to a larger group that possesses a higher rank».

Pope Pius XI, Encyclic, «Quadragesimo Anno», May 15, 1931

1.4 Test questions for Topic 1

1. List the major principles of transition to sustainable development in rural areas. What is their essence?
2. Identify the major difference between the centralized model of management of territories and the subsidiarity-based model.
3. What are the problems and peculiarities of public participation in the processes of development of Russian rural territories?
4. Name major strengths and weaknesses of the «bottom up» and «top down» approaches.
5. What is the principle of counterflows about?

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2 Participation of the population in rural development: foundation, terms and principles

This topic deals with the basic principles of engagement of the rural population in management of rural development, kinds and degree of the population's participation, and legal grounds for the population's participation in rural development in the Russian Federation.

Questions considered

- 2.1 Participatory approaches in rural development: foundation and basic terms
- 2.2 Degree and types of participation, basic principles of the population's engagement.
- 2.3 Legal base for citizens' participation in rural development in the Russian Federation.

2.1 Participatory approaches in rural development: foundation and basic terms

Development of rural settlements based on the concept of sustainable development is a rather complicated process, but the practice of implementing such programmes and projects demonstrates, that significant results can be achieved only where there are effective structures, mechanisms, and organizations that secure wide participation of the local population. It is impossible to achieve sustained or long-term change, if the process of development is limited to participation of representatives of bodies of power, heads of enterprises, and external experts only. The only possible way is through mobilization of local residents, and as many of them as possible: youth and old people, men and women – everybody who expresses their wish to participate.

International experience of implementation sustainable rural development programmes assigns the central role to people (the so-called anthropocentric approach) and presupposes wide participation of the population in planning, management and implementation of programmes. Public participation became an important and integral principle for development programmes of rural areas. This principle presupposes that **success of rural development projects directly depends on interested participation of the local population in the definition of goals and in the implementation of the project activities.**

For the implementation of sustainable development programmes, organization of work with people is of no less significance than, for instance, planning or securing of resources. No investor would want to invest money into an agricultural enterprise, if its workers sabotage innovations. A microcredit foundation or a rural credit cooperative will not be able to expand their scope, if the population is not informed and does not know, where and at what conditions loans are granted. An environmental programme will not be sustainable, if people do not understand or do not approve of its goals and keep being negligent towards the environment.

In the concept of sustainable development in rural areas of the Russian Federation for the period till 2020, one of the principles of the state policy of rural development is described as development in rural areas of local self-government, institutes of the civil society, of all form of cooperation, **increase in the rural population's participation in decision making related to access to natural resources (land, water, forest), to social services, as well as to prospects of development of rural settlements.**

Despite this, the rural and district administration in Russia applies the principle of the population's involvement in their practice not so often. Maybe, inflexibility of stereotypes in managerial behaviour and weak initiative of rural residents are taking their toll. Except for this, the work with people requires planning and allocation of resources, time being the most significant of them.

Public participation is not a new notion. It was articulated in the middle of the 1970-ties, on the background of the growing awareness that efforts in the sphere of development had low impact on the level of poverty. The development paradigm in the 1960-ties and the 1970-ties stemmed from the heritage of the colonial rule, especially of the system of the later years of the 1930-ties and of the period after the World War 2. The concept was based on the «top down» principle (development was something the governments were doing for people), and the language was military-bureaucratic – "objectives", "goals", "strategies", "opportunities". Interested citizens took little part in these methods of «development», and this became one of the major causes why programmes on improvement of life of impoverished majority in developing countries failed. As a result of this failure, came awareness of importance of the population's engagement in the design and implementation of territorial development programmes.

Public participation serves several goals:

- it facilitates the design of development programs that take into account the needs of the local population and their experience;
- it promotes engagement of the local population in the development programs through participation in their design and in their implementation;
- it gives opportunities to different social groups to express their interests.

The population's participation in development of rural territories was specified as the cornerstone principle for achievement of rural development at the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD), which took place in Rome in 1979. As early as then it was claimed that development of rural areas can be achieved only through motivation, participation and organization of the rural population on this basis. Rural population must have opportunities to participate in the design, implementation and evaluation of development projects, especially those projects, which are connected to employment in rural areas. Starting from this conference, engagement of the population as a mechanism for implementation of projects is gaining more and more dissemination among international organizations. In particular, the Declaration of principles and Action Plan adopted at the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development encouraged and directed implementation of some joint FAO projects, like: «Population's Participation in Development of Agriculture and Rural Areas Through Encouragement of Self-Help Organizations», «Public Action of Support to Poor Rural Women», «Forestry Development Programme for Local Community», the programme «Forests, Trees and People».

In the text sources one can find a variety of different terms that characterize the participation of the population in decision-making process at different levels of state and municipal management. The most wide-spread terms are «civic participation» and «public participation». The «civic participation» is usually used to denote involvement of the population in the discussion and in the design of political, socioeconomic, cultural and environmental programmes and projects, their

influence over adoption of decisions and control over their implementations, self-government at the grass-roots local level [3, C.31-44]. Unlike this the «public participation» is wider and constitutes a continuous process of interaction between the body of power (institution or department) responsible for adoption of decisions and citizens whose interests can be impacted by direct or indirect consequences of the decision being adopted. This process includes:

- measures that promote the public's complete understanding of the processes and mechanisms of preparation and decision-making by the responsible department;
- complete informing of the public about the status and advancement of the design and implementation of projects, plans, programmes, identification of priorities of the policy or of the evaluation;
- active collection of opinions of all interested citizens, of their perception of goals and objectives, as well as of their preferences as to use of resources and alternative strategies of development or management and any other information concerning the decision being adopted (Виноградова Т et al.).

Public participation – is a process of objective and active participation of all stakeholders in formation of principles and strategies of development, as well as in analysis, planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of effectiveness of development programs.

FAO Rural Institutions and Participation Service (SDAR) of the Rural Development Division (SDA)

So, there are different definitions of public participation depending on the context and directions of activity of the organization that proposed it. This reflects a wide nature of the process of participation and the fact that interpretation of this process is connected to the directions of development of a concrete organization. This means that there are no universal explanations or models of definition of a term «participation» that would be applicable to all development programmes and projects.

The population's participation in development of their territory can be considered both as a goal in itself and as a means to achieve other goals. Both the process and its result are important.

Such approach is based on the following preconditions and ideas:

- the population has the right to express their opinion about decisions that influence their life;
- the population better knows how they live, what they want and what is better for them than people from outside who represent the authorities and public structures;
- the population have negative attitude to politicians and civil servants who may be asking the people about their ideas but still take no heed of them;
- the population has a lot to say and their ideas and opinions are no less valuable than anybody else's;
- the population's participation can help distribute resources more effectively and rationally;

- if residents are engaged to planning of development of industries, works and services they will better satisfy the population's needs and will be in demand;
- different forms of the population's participation can support skills development and the design of the organizational methods of work with different communities;
- involving the population in preparing and making decisions will help optimize this process, and decisions will comply with the principles of sustainable development due to the very fact that residents themselves will be determining their own future;
- the population's participation is a manifestation of a democratic process, opening access for the population to management of their territory that eliminates all injustice;
- the population's participation creates new opportunities for creative thinking and use of new ideas in planning and development;
- the population more eagerly participates in the implementation of plans, that take their opinion into consideration.

The population's active participation supports the achievement of such objectives as:

- consolidation of democracy;
- combating social stratification;
- expansion of local powers;
- mobilization of resources;
- development of a comprehensive approach to rural development;
- adoption of optimal and effective decisions;
- sustainability of development projects or programmes.

There are some **problems and limits** of public participation in rural development processes, like:

- the society does not have democratic experience;
- the state is deeply mistrusted by the population but at the same time is being perceived as the «provider»;
- the society faces lack of transparency in the decision-making, bribery and corruption;
- public servants lacking skills for strategic planning;
- collective consciousness (family or clan structures) is strong, people's social feeling of responsibility in general is limited to their own group;
- ethnic issues can be rather burning in poly-ethnic rural regions;

- in the gender aspect, there is strong domination of men over women in administrative hierarchy;
- in separated regions, respect and obedience to the elders, as well as to spiritual leaders play a significant role.

2.2 Types of participation and basic principles

2.2.1 Degree of involvement

There are different degrees of the population's participation (involvement) in processes of the design and implementation of rural development programmes, starting from simple consultations on jointly adopted decisions to independent management of the programme/project by the stakeholders themselves. A high degree of the rural population's involvement in programmes of rural territories development means that the population themselves are at the core of the process of the design and implementation of programmes, and that they are in a position to make corrections at any moment in accordance to their own needs.

Depending on the nature of the population's engagement in the decision-making process, there can be the following degrees of participation:



Informing. Participation as a process of **getting information** lies at the base of all other levels of participation, and can be used by itself in some circumstances. People are participating even when they are just being informed about what is going to happen or has already happened. The information is given one-way by the programme administration or managers who do not necessarily regard the opinions of the people. Information that is shared belongs only to external experts.

Participation through **providing information** enables the population to participate, by answering the questions articulated by interviewers and programme managers, in surveys or other similar methods. People have no ways to influence the process, as the research results are not shared and are not checked for accuracy.

Consultation. The population is involved in the process of development through consultations, and external experts listen to their opinions. External experts identify problems and design solutions that can be corrected taking into account the answers of the population. Such a consultation process does not provide any privileges to the population in decision-making and consultants are not obliged to take into account the people's opinions.

Joint planning. People participate in the process of joint analysis of the current situation, which leads to the design of implementation plans and creation of new groups of stakeholders or

consolidation of already existent ones. This method is based on the interdisciplinary methodology, which strives to take into account different points of view and to use systematic and structured training process. These groups take under their control local decisions so that people would be interested in preservation of the existent structure and practice of management.

Decision-making. If the consensus of the collective opinion is achieved this means the beginning of joint responsibility for the results that can be gained in the future by implementing the jointly developed action programme.

Expansion of rights and opportunities (empowerment). People participate in the joint analysis, which leads to the development of implementation plans and creation of new local groups or consolidation of the already existent ones. People participate by implementing initiatives independent from external institutions to be able to change the systems. Thus they gain both power or self-responsibility and the capacity to manage their development process.

So, there exist the following types of participation (Table 2.1):

Table 2.1 Types of participation (Source: Pimbert and Pretty, 1994)

Type of participation	Some components and characteristics
Passive participation	People participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. It is unilateral announcement by an administration or project management without any listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.
Participation in information giving	People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers and project managers using questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research or project design are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted, and external agents listen to views. These external agents define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in the light of people's responses. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision-making and professionals are under no obligation to take on board peoples' views.
Participation for material incentives	People participate by providing resources, for example labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentives. Much in-situ research and bioprospecting falls in this category, as rural people provide the fields but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of learning. It is very common to see this called participation, yet people have no stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end.
Functional participation	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organization. Such involvement does not tend to be at early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather after major decisions have been made. These institutions tend to be dependent on external initiators and facilitators, but may become self-dependent.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local groups or the strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, and so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.
Self-mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. Such self-initiated mobilization and collective action may of may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power.

2.2.2 Key principles of participatory methods to involve the rural population

1. To lead to actions and discussion of changes. Processes of the population's engagement must lead to discussions of desired changes of the existent conditions and, therefore, changes in the participants' perception of the situation and their readiness to action. The joint analysis and dialogue help to determine necessary changes and strive to encourage people to implement them.

2. Repetitiveness of actions and step-by-step analysis. Participation is a repeating process, which has to continue during the entire planning process. Decisions (agreements) must be reviewed, periodically and checked for necessary corrections taking into account the changes that can emerge in the circumstances (situations, needs) over time.

It is assumed that analytical processes must follow a step-by-step procedure. This means that at the very beginning the focus is given on the collection of general information, later on concrete topics, and finally on the detailed analysis of local problems, needs and opportunities. Besides this, it is necessary to continuously review one's conclusions to determine, in what direction to keep moving.

3. Variation in view points and directions. When different points of view are taken into account, the results of the analysis make it possible to present a fuller and more precise picture of the situation. In the process of discussion it is necessary to rely on a variety of opinions of the team members, tools and methods used, and also all sources of information/stakeholders.

Composition of a group: representatives from different fields of expertise, genders, with different backgrounds and skills, internal and external participants.

Means and techniques of conducting: interviews; composing of maps, diagrams, and ratings; observation; discussions; use of secondary data.

Sources of information, interest groups: women and men, people of older age and youth, different socioeconomic groups, representatives of different professions.

4. Flexibility in application of tools and the selected degree of accuracy. There exist no universal recipe or plan how to facilitate the process of participation. The methods and means must not be used mechanically; instead, they must be suitable for discussion and fit the project's specificity so that the issue or the topic can be discussed. A selection of a concrete tool depends on the peculiarities of the society, a settlement or a group.

For instance, the goal of joint analysis of the problem is not to achieve absolute accuracy (everybody is not supposed to know/discuss everything), but the problem should have been discussed to a sufficient degree. To determine what is "adequate", the organizers must ask themselves: "What information is required, for what goals, and what amount of information will people require for their analysis?"

5. Visualization. Thanks to visualization, the participants have an opportunity to conduct discussions easier, especially where among participants there are people with the low level of education, as well as those who are joining the discussion later than others. The maps, schemes, and other forms of visualization also facilitate coordinated adoption of decisions, as all residents can directly express their opinions with the help of graphics, schemes or any other visual means.

6. Group work. It is better to conduct group seminars and other collective events for interdisciplinary groups, as the complexity of the majority of cases can be addressed only through group analysis and interaction.

7. Self-critical awareness. Organizers/coordinators of the participation process must be extremely cautious and permanently analyze their own prejudice. This means to continuously reflect events they experience.

2.3 Legal base for population's participation in rural development in the Russian Federation

Sustainable development in rural areas at the local level is immediately connected to citizens' participation in local self-government. Citizens' participation in solution of issues of local significance and in development of local communities relies on vast regulatory grounds as stipulated in the Federal Law as of October 6, 2003, No. 131-Φ3 «On General Principles of Organization of Local Self-Government in the Russian Federation» (hereinafter – the Federal Law No. 131-Φ3).

This law provides sufficiently varied forms of civic participation and contains the provisions that secure the population's participation in local self-government even in case of lack of any legal documents in this sphere at the regional and local levels. Chapter 5 of the Federal Law No. 131-Φ3 stipulates the following forms of the population's participation in local self-government, which can secure civic participation in development of rural territories:

- local referendum;
- municipal elections;
- voting on revocation of a deputy, a member of an elective body of local self-government, of an elective civil servant of local self-government, voting on issues of changes of borders of a municipal body, transformation of a municipal body;
- citizens' assembly;
- citizens' legislative initiative;
- territorial public self-government;
- public hearings;
- citizens' gathering;
- citizens' conference (gathering of delegates);
- citizens' survey;
- citizens' addressing to bodies of local self-government;
- other forms of population's immediate performance of local self-government and their participation in its performance.

Let us consider how each of these forms can be applied for solution of issues connected to development of rural territories.

Local referendum – is a form of direct declaration of citizens' will on most important issues of state and local significance for the purposes of adoption of decisions in the citizens' interests. Declaration of citizens' will is done by direct voting, in which everybody who dwells within the borders of a municipal body (for instance, of a rural settlement) can participate. A referendum, if conducted, must cover the entire territory of a municipal body. The referendum can be initiated by representative bodies of local self-government and citizens themselves.

The procedure of how a referendum is conducted is stipulated in the very text of the Federal Law No.131-ФЗ, in regional legislative documents in case of their existence, in the special literature dedicated to the issues of citizens' participation in local self-government¹. In literature one can find a description of cases of how citizens would use referenda in the course of adoption of decisions, for instance, whether a local park would be preserved or its territory would be used for residential construction.

Voting on issues of changes to the borders of a municipal body or transformation of a municipal body. The citizens' informed opinion has great significance at discussion of an administrative organization. In the course of the reform of local self-government, some of rural inhabited locations were included within the borders of urban settlements. The reverse cases can be observed, too, when urban inhabited locations are transformed into rural ones. On the issue of changes to the borders of a municipal body and transformation of a municipal body citizens' consent has to be achieved by means of voting.

The law stipulates that voting on issues of changes to the borders of a municipal body or transformation of a municipal body must be conducted on the entire territory of a municipal body or in a part of its territory in the following cases:

1. change to the borders of municipal districts that leads to transfer of territories of separate settlements within their borders and (or) inhabited locations to territories of other municipal districts, is performed with consent of the population of these settlements and (or) inhabited locations taking into account the opinion of representative bodies of corresponding municipal districts;
2. change to the borders of settlements that transfers territories of separate inhabited locations within their borders to territories of other settlements is performed with consent of the population of these inhabited locations taking into account the opinion of representative bodies of corresponding settlements;
3. association of two and more settlements that does not incur changes to the borders of other municipal bodies is performed with consent of the population of each of the settlements;
4. division of a settlement that leads to formation of two and more settlements is performed with consent of the population of each of the settlements being formed;
5. change of the status of an urban settlement as it gets the status of an urban district or gets stripped of the status of an urban district is performed with consent of the population of the corresponding urban settlement, as well as with consent of the population of the municipal district, out of which the corresponding urban settlement is being separated (to which it is being included). As we can see, most cases pertain to rural settlements.

The voting can be initiated by the population, by bodies of local self-government, by bodies of state power of a subject of the Russian Federation, federal bodies of state power.

¹ See for instance, the methodological guide «Участие граждан в местном самоуправлении» ИД Авангард, М., 2008./«Citizens' Participation in Local Self-Government» ID Avangard, Moscow, 2008. [website]: URL: http://www.undp.ru/publications/grazhdanskoe_uchastie.pdf.

The population's consent is considered obtained, if more than half of the residents of the territory took part in the voting and more than half of the votes was in support of the proposed change.

Citizens' assembly is a traditional and one of the most wide-spread forms of public participation. Assemblies are conducted in small settlements with the population up to 100 persons. An assembly is being convened by a head of a municipal body by his or her own initiative or by an initiative of a group of citizens. An assembly has a quorum if more than half of the population participate in it. Correspondingly, an assembly's decision is considered adopted if more than half of the assembly participants voted for it.

Similar tools are **citizens' gatherings and citizens' conference**, in which delegates from groups of citizens participate (in case the population of the territory is sufficiently large). Gatherings and conferences are conducted to discuss issues of local significance, to inform the population about the activity of bodies of local self-government and in the course of activity of bodies of territorial public self-government. Gatherings have the right to adopt petitions to bodies of local self-government and to public servants of local self-government, as well as to elect authorized representatives to represent citizens' interests in the dialogue with the bodies of local self-government. Decisions and petitions of citizens' gatherings must be published. Bodies of power are obliged to consider citizens' petitions and answer them.

Citizens' legislative initiative – is a tool that allows citizens to submit draft municipal legal documents to bodies of local self-government. A legislative initiative can be brought forward by a group of citizens who are qualified voters and whose number is up to 3% of the population of a concrete territory. The minimal size of the group is determined by a decree of a body of local self-government or, in case of its absence, constitutes 3% of the number of qualified voters on this territory. When the draft legal document submitted by citizens is well considered they must be provided with the opportunity to underpin their opinion. A decision to be adopted by a body of local self-government on the draft under consideration must be motivated and directed by the citizens' group.

Territorial public self-government (TPSG) – is an effective tool for the implementation of local rural development projects. TPSG is the form of citizens' self-organization at the place of their residence at a section of the settlement's territory. In rural areas, for instance, TPSG can be established in rural inhabited locations that are not settlements, in multi-apartment residential buildings, in a group of residential buildings and on other territories where citizens dwell. The borders of the TPSG territory are established by a body of local self-government as proposed by citizens who are organizing TPSG.

The forms of performance of territorial public self-government:

1. directly by the population in the form of conducting of citizens' gatherings or conferences;
2. through establishment of bodies of territorial public self-government.

Bodies of territorial public self-government are elected at citizens' gatherings or conferences which dwell on the corresponding territory.

A territorial public self-government is considered established from the moment of registration of the charter of territorial public self-government by an authorized body of local self-government of the corresponding settlement.

The charter of territorial public self-government specifies:

1. the territory where it is in effect;
2. goals, objectives, forms and major directions of activity of territorial public self-government;
3. procedure of formation, termination of powers, rights and responsibilities, the term of powers of the body of territorial public self-government;
4. procedure of adoption of decisions;
5. procedure of obtainment of property, as well as procedure of use and utilization of the said property and financial means;
6. procedure of termination of operation of territorial public self-government.
7. The procedure of registration of the charter of territorial public self-government is determined in the charter of a municipal body and (or) regulatory legal documents of the representative agency of a municipal body.

Territorial public self-government in accordance to the charter can be a legal entity.

If territorial public self-government is registered as a legal entity it is subject to state registration in the organizational legal form of a non-commercial organization.

A citizens' gathering on the issues of organization and performance of territorial public self-government is qualified if no less than half of residents of the corresponding territory over 16 years of age participate in it.

A citizens' conference on the issues of organization and performance of territorial public self-government is qualified if no less than two thirds of delegates elected at the citizens' gathering who represent no less than a half of residents over 16 years of age of the corresponding territory participate in it.

The exclusive powers of citizens' gatherings and conferences that perform territorial public self-government include:

1. establishing the structure of bodies of territorial public self-government;
2. adoption of the charter of territorial public self-government, updating and amending it;
3. election of bodies of territorial public self-government;
4. determining of major directions of activity of territorial public self-government;
5. approval of the incomes and expenses estimation of territorial public self-government and of the reporting on its implementation;
6. consideration and approval of activity reports of bodies of territorial public self-government.

Powers of bodies of territorial public self-government:

1. representation of interests of the population that dwells on the corresponding territory;
2. securing of implementation of decisions adopted at citizens' gatherings and conferences;

3. economic activity on the territory improvements, other economic activities directed at satisfaction of social and household needs of citizens who dwell on the corresponding territory, both at the cost of the funds of the said citizens and based on contract between the bodies of territorial public self-government and the bodies of local self-government with use of funds from the local budget;
4. submission to bodies of local self-government of draft municipal legal documents subject to mandatory consideration by these bodies and by public servants of local self-government whose mandate includes adoption of the said documents.

The legal regulation of territorial public self-government is performed by the Federal Law No.131-Φ3, the charter of the body of local self-government or by special provisions on TPSG, as well as by the TPSG charter.

Residents' survey is also a form of public participation, as it elicits the residents' opinion and provides for consideration for this opinion at adoption of decisions on the issues concerning economic, social, environmental and other legal interests of the population of a concrete territory. Usually residents who are qualified voters are surveyed.

A survey can be conducted both on the entire territory of a municipal body and on some part of it. The survey results are recommendatory, but they must be taken into account at adoption of decisions by bodies of local self-government.

Residents' survey can be initiated by:

- on the issues of local significance – a representative agency of a municipal body or a head of a municipal body;
- for consideration of the citizens' opinion at adoption of decisions on changes in designated use of lands of a municipal body for objects of regional and interregional significance – bodies of state power of subjects of the Russian Federation.

The procedure of appointment and conducting of the citizens' survey is determined in the charter of a municipal body or by regulatory legal documents of the representative agency of a municipal body.

A decision on conducting of a citizens' survey is adopted by the representative agency of a municipal body. This decision should specify:

1. the date and period of conducting of the survey;
2. articulation of questions asked at the survey;
3. technique of the survey;
4. the form of the survey sheet;
5. minimal number of residents of a municipal body to participate in the survey.

Residents of a municipal body must be informed about the survey in no less than 10 days before its conducting.

The events connected to preparation and conducting of a citizens' survey, are funded at the cost of the body that initiates the survey.

Public hearings – is another important form of the population's participation in solution of issues of local significance and rural development. The goal of the public hearings is to discuss draft municipal legal documents on the issues of local significance with participation of residents of a municipal body.

Public hearings are conducted by a representative agency of a municipal body or head of a municipal body.

Public hearings are initiated by the population or a representative agency of a municipal body, or a head of a municipal body.

There are a number of issues that necessarily must undergo the procedure of public hearings. They are:

1. draft charter of a municipal body;
2. draft municipal legal document on making updates and amendments in the charter of a municipal body (except for cases when the charter is amended to comply with the Constitution or federal laws);
3. draft local budget and report on its implementation;
4. draft plans and programmes of development of a municipal body;
5. draft rules of land utilization and development;
6. draft territory planning;
7. draft boundary survey of territories;
8. issues of granting of permits for conditional use of land lots and capital construction projects;
9. issues of variations from ultimate parameters of the permitted construction;
10. issues of restoration of capital construction projects;
11. issues of changes of one kind of permitted use of land lots and capital construction projects to another kind of such use in absence of approved rules of land utilization and development;
12. issues of transformation of a municipal body.
13. The procedure of organization and conducting of public hearings is determined by the charter of a municipal body and/or regulatory legal documents of the representative agency of a municipal body.

This procedure must specify:

1. timely information of residents of a municipal body about the time and place of conducting of the public hearings;
2. timely familiarization with the draft municipal legal document;
3. other measures that secure participation of residents of a municipal body in the public hearings and publication of the results of public hearings.

2.4 Test questions to the Topic 2

1. Define the term «public participation».
2. Identify goals of public participation.
3. What is the difference between the terms «public participation» and «civic participation»?
4. Identify the reasons of the population's weak engagement in the design and implementation of rural development programmes in Russia.
5. List basic provisions, on which the population's engagement in decision-making is grounded.
6. Give characteristics of degrees of the rural population's engagement in decision-making.
7. List the key principles of application of the methods and means of the population's engagement in development of rural territories.
8. Give a brief characteristic of forms of the population's participation in local self-government in the Russian Federation.

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3 Participatory methods at different stages of regional rural development projects

This topic considers the kinds of programmes and projects for rural territories development, stages of their design, participatory methods at different stages of the project cycle; major methods of the population's engagement at different stages of the project cycle are discussed in more detail.

Questions considered

- 3.1 Programmes and project design for the development of rural areas
- 3.2 General requirements for participatory methods throughout the project cycle
- 3.3 Participatory methods during the analysis phase
 - 3.3.1 Information collection through the involvement of the population
 - 3.3.2 Conducting consultations
 - 3.3.3 Major stakeholders and their analysis
- 3.4 Participatory methods during the project planning stage
 - 3.4.1 SWOT analysis
 - 3.4.2 Problem tree and objectives tree
 - 3.4.3 The logical framework
- 3.5 The monitoring and evaluation stage

3.1 Programmes and project design for the development of rural areas

A comprehensive approach of problems being addressed, differences in socioeconomic, environmental, cultural and other conditions, in potentials of rural territories development and funding sources leads to the availability of a wide list of programmes connected to the development of rural areas.

In the Russian Federation the programme-target method of planning and management is widely spread. It is based on the application of the systems approach and presupposes connection of goals and subgoals of the socioeconomic development to resources that are necessary for their coordinated implementation. As a rule, problem solution with this method lies in the definition or selection of priority goals and objectives for the use of budget funds and development of mutually-connected events on their achievement within the set time-frame. It is considered that target programmes by securing

Management — is structuring of the social processes for the purposes of achievement of predetermined goals (several functions).

Project is a process that presupposes investment of funds during a limited amount of time and contains a series of events.

Programme is a set of projects, whose goals facilitate achievement of the common goal (are connected together in a sector, subsector, region).

combination of principles of self-regulation and purposefulness promote integration of state, collective and individual interests.

A **target programme** is an aggregation of activities being implemented (services being rendered), interconnected in their time-frames, performers and resources and directed at achievement of a certain goal.

As to the level of the design and approval, target programmes can be federal, regional and municipal.

As to their types, the target programmes can be long-term, departmental and federal targeted investment programmes.

Target programmes of rural territories development, being implemented at the regional level, are characterized by the following characteristics:

- the programme activities are implemented within the borders of a geographically limited region, a unit of an administrative territorial division. As a result, effectiveness of implementation of programme events depends on the regional administration, its attitude to rural areas, and the funding amount depends on how much of its budget funds the region receives;
- the selection of regional problems for programming is conducted by territorial bodies of power, but as a rule within the framework of a federal programmes;
- the design and implementation of programmes is secured by the regional structures of executive power. Qualifications and interest of administrative workers to a significant degree determine the depth of addressing of the issue and implementation of programme events.

Actual solutions of problems of socioeconomic stabilization and sustainable development of regions significantly depend on the quality of regional programmes. There is the following regularity. If errors are made at the stage planning stage of a programme and need to be corrected during the implementation stage, it takes additional funds that are significantly greater than expenses for the design of programmes. That is why the design of target programmes of sustainable development in rural areas must be performed with application of modern methodology of adoption of effective management decisions. To minimize later on corrections includes also the involvement of the population into the process of the design and implementation of these programmes.

In addition to target programmes, there are grant programmes to fund projects and programmes directed at development of a separate rural settlement. Grant programs are different depending on the mechanism of selection of projects for funding and conditions of funding.

A **project** constitutes of a scheme or sequence of actions which are reflected by the input of the available resources to achieve concrete results within the set time-frame. The project has a specific date of commencement and completion.

Within the framework of this general definition different projects can be described, with different type of organization of the project design and implementation. In general they all have the

same phases /stages from the beginning of the design (emergence of an idea) till its completion. These stages are connected to each other and are called the **project cycle**, which constitutes a continuous process and where each stage secures the foundation for the following one.

At the stage of **identification**, the idea is translated into the project's preliminary contents. The existent situation is analyzed, conditions for the project implementation are determined, the future situation «with» and «without» the project is evaluated, different approaches to the project implementation are identified, and a decision is adopted on what idea will be implemented in the further as a project.

Major stages of the project cycle:

- identification,
- preparation,
- coordination and agreement,
- implementation,
- monitoring and evaluation

Purpose of the **design stage** is to assess the complete project. Goals, resources, results, participants, and organizations are identified, expenses and incomes are estimated, the financial plan is prepared, the expected results as well as the socioeconomic and environmental consequence are analyzed, the final draft of the project is prepared.

The stage of **coordination and project agreements** presupposes availability of the prepared project proposal taking into account the requirements of the project documents. Negotiations on the project funding commence with the Ministries and other organizations. Sometimes based on the results of negotiations, it is required to revise and readjust the timeline of the project implementation, its cost, goals and funding volumes.

At the stage of the **project implementation**, the project management and mechanisms for its implementation are determined. The entire process of the project implementation is monitored. In the case of unexpected events the project is accordingly changed and adapted. Eventually, the project is completed.

The **project assessment** is conducted at the first convenient time after the project is completed. Achievement of goals, project implementation and achieved benefits are assessed. The assessment results can influence continuation of the existent project or lead to development of a new one. The methods, with the help of which similar projects will be implemented in the future can be revised, too.

Practical experiences show, that the involving the population is an effective method of the design of projects of any kind – connected with the agrarian industry, development animal husbandry, forestry, fishing industry, loans, conducting research, or development of education (for example, see Chapter 5).

While the project cycle is a widely spread element of the design of projects and planning of rural development, not in all projects the population's participation can be used as a method in the project design and implementation. But in projects connected with development of local potentials, the population's participation is a necessary element. In this case participation is the project's major effective mechanism, which must cover all project actions – from the initial analysis, the identification of needs, the project planning to monitoring and evaluation.

Here an important question emerges concerning the relation of participation and different stages of the project cycle. There exists no universal model that could be applied as different projects will be implemented along different cycles and will be use different forms of participation, depending on the project goals. Although the project cycle consists usually of five major stages, but for projects with the population's engagement this cycle is more flexible and in some cases one or several stages can be consolidated or even skipped. The project cycle can be changed depending on the nature and goals of the project, but the population's participation is not a one-time action within the project, instead, it is a process that must be an integral part and characteristic of the project in its entire duration.

Beneficiaries are persons who obtain income or benefit from something.

Beneficiaries of a project are the individuals or organisations (users at any level, intermediaries/ multipliers, agents such as associations, regional authorities) benefiting in various ways from the implementation of the projects

Target group concerns those who will be directly, positively affected by the project by its activities and its results. In a long term view 'final beneficiaries' might be as well a target group.

Stakeholders are individuals or institutions that may, directly or indirectly, positively or negatively, affect or be affected by a project and/or a programme.

In rural development projects the population's participation generally develops through several interconnected stages (see also chapter 2.2):

Passive participation - beneficiaries predominantly approve project proposals and support them, but usually are cautious (and even distrustful) towards the project management;

Growing engagement - beneficiaries start to believe in the project more and engage themselves in more contacts with the project staff; they also can take some obligations;

Active participation - beneficiaries play a role of active partners in the project implementation and undertake more and more responsibility;

Full participation/empowerment - beneficiaries are ready and able to support and

develop further the initiative launched within the project.

The example for different levels of participation in local tourism development is given in table 3.1

So, involvement of the population at all stages of the project cycle must be planned accordingly and responsible bodies of state power should take this into account. But, more often than not, representatives of bodies of power see the population's participation only as an element of the project at a certain separate stage and do not acknowledge importance of the population's participation in implementation of all stages of the project cycle.

Table 3.1 Example for different levels of participation in local tourism development

Degrees of the population's participation in the process of implementation of projects on tourism development through a local community:
<p>passive participation, when a decision on development of the project/establishment of a spearhead group is made by influential “external” people, for instance, by the local administration, but the local population participates in nothing else but receiving information that something is going to take place or already has taken place on their territory. A proposal concerning creation of some kind of new activity (for instance, rural tourism) for a village sometimes can come as unexpected as the population has never been engaged in such activity before and has never hosted (seen) tourists. Sometimes residents have no idea what interest national or foreign tourists can have to their life, household ways, traditions, and national cuisine as well as to environment, in which they live. As the case may be, some communities live more or less autonomously and are reserved towards other communities, are close-knit and not very friendly to outsiders and visitors. That is why the specialists have to take into account all these factors before advancing to the next stage;</p>
<p>participation in transfer of information, that is, the local population begins to answer questions from experts who are developing local tourist projects, and thus help create the database. At the very beginning, one can't expect local residents to open up and to tell how the situation really is. They are not yet aware of the degree of their engagement in the future tourist process, but the initial collection of information is necessary for creation of the database, for instance, who has a spacious house and can offer premises for tourists to stay, who has a dining-room where visitors can eat, who owns a horse for horse-riding, who is knowledgeable about tracks in highlands and can show tourists where most picturesque locations are, where it is better to fish or where one can observe wildlife, and so on;</p>
<p>constructive participation – is when the population is already developing the existent database, and coming up with additional services and goods that can be engaged in the local tourist project. If this stage has been achieved, it can be admitted that the population has revised their opportunities and realized what their benefit here is. Sometimes, experts call this stage “the critical point”, that is, the population either accepts or rejects the project idea. If residents feel negatively about it, expectations concerning local tourism from tourist companies or the local administration are unlikely to be achieved;</p>
<p>interactive participation presupposes active engagement of local residents in discussion of positive and negative aspects of the local tourist project, creation of the corresponding kind and form of organization. Without doubt, people would consider influence of the tourist project over the sociocultural and environmental state of the locality, calculate the limits of influx of tourists, beyond which the presence of outsiders would impact negatively the health of the residents and the environment. It is common knowledge that tourism, besides its economic benefits (purchase of goods and services from local residents), can bring elements of destruction to the local population's everyday life (prostitution, drug and alcohol addiction, smoking, as well as changes in traditions) that can cause negative attitudes towards visitors and loss of that very “uniqueness”, for which the travellers are coming from afar. If a positive decision on creation of the local tourist project has been adopted, the forms of its organization are considered – this can be a limited liability company, an open joint-stock company, a commandative company, a collective enterprise, a private entrepreneurship;</p>
<p>self-mobilizing participation – is a process, when the population commences implementation of the project, engaging all available resources. The people start to get in order their housing, catering facilities, first aid stations, communications facilities, the entire infrastructures in general (in particular, roads, electricity, and the water and heat supply systems), as without these elements tourists will find it difficult to enjoy their stay in this locality. The system is developed to guarantee tourists' safety along their routes (to prevent crime and accidents);</p>
<p>immediate and active participation – is a stage of the participation process, when the population is already working in the project. Each resident renders services to tourists, based on their resources as stipulated in the contract with the enterprise that implements the tourist project, say, the first family provides overnight accommodation, the second one – provides meals, the third one – guides tourists in the mountains, on rivers and in the woods, the fourth – sells folk arts and crafts, the fifth – provides transportation (a car or a cart), and the sixth – renders medical services.</p>

Source: A.Taskanov. *Local Community-Based Tourism*.

3.2 General requirements for participatory methods throughout the project cycle

3.2.1 General conditions for participatory methods

The process of involving citizens and other stakeholders in the design and implementation of projects is complex and requires certain knowledge and skills from the organizers. Despite a great variety of participatory methods, it is necessary to take into account general conditions how to organise this process. These are as follows:

1. Each idea and opinion is considered

A lot of people neglect the simple fact that different people and groups of people in accordance to their experience have different opinions and, as a result, differently assess a situation what leads them to different conclusions and actions.

This is true for everybody, including those who are organizing and steering the process of participation. Everybody's opinion is rather complicated for interpretation by others. People having prejudices and biases, there are numerous descriptions and interpretations of actual events, phenomena and actions.

Thus one necessary base for all processes and actions connected with a participatory project approach is to admit that each person differs from others and can bring something important to the table, because his or her opinion can complement others' opinions, although from the first glance this proposal can look useless and provocative.

Remember: if during the group discussion of a certain issue everybody expresses the same opinion maybe members of this group have never given this issue any consideration.

2. Learning attitude

Organizers and moderators (facilitators), as well as any other person engaged in the process must adopt the learning style, through which they are learning from a person/group they work together with. The organizers must not adopt a teaching and requesting role.

This mutual «learning attitude» can be expanded by admitting the knowledge and skills of the participants and by treating them as experts who are dealing with their own situations and problems. Thus, the organizer's role lies in engaging all stakeholders/groups of persons to participate through different methods.

3. Transparency (clarity, understandability)

Collective decision-making requires readiness to work for mutually beneficial trade-off. The atmosphere of mutual trust is crucial for trade-off and constructive cooperation, and openness of all stakeholders is a major requirement.

Transparency helps to avoid hidden agendas and suspicions among different parties and, thus, to prevent situations, where all parties strive to protect their own interests, instead of look for a trade-off acceptable for everybody involved.

4. Flexibility

The most complex aspect of the participation processes is the ability to be open for ideas and opinions from other people. Often, others' opinions can be difficult for understanding, contradictory or incompatible with the organizer's own ideas and beliefs.

The organizer should accept that this reality requires a high degree of flexibility, as well as courage to distance oneself for a while from one's own perception and to neutrally follow the process; he or she should be ready, in case of necessity, to revise and readjust at any stage of the project cycle.

3.2.2 General project steps

Generally, the **sequence of actions for developing and implementing a concrete development project** for a rural settlement can be presented as follows.

Activities to involve the population should start from identifying leaders and persons who have influence over decision-making, as well as over the established relations between the population, the administration, representatives of business (as a rule, this is a usual list of possible participants for a local partnership).

The following step is the conduction of group consultations (? Training of what?). It is necessary to conduct them separately for representatives of the administration and for groups of rural leaders and engaged local residents. During these meetings, representatives of the administration show whether they are ready to build partnership connections, find possible directions of interaction, identify problems. It can be also addressed to whom the administration would be ready to build partnership relations, as well as possible objective obstacles and ways to overcome them.

The consultations with engaged rural residents and informal leaders, as a rule, is combined with identification of the most burning issues the population has to deal with. Evaluation of these problems is conducted from different points of view, for instance, who are persons and organizations interested in solution of the problem, what resources are necessary, what resources are lacking, how the action plan can look like to address this issue, and so on. In the course of the discussions, the very "business" or, using the Western terminology, "project", gets articulated, which will serve as the core of establishment of the partnership relations.

Along with the consultations, the information campaign is to be conducted. On the one hand, it familiarizes the population with the intention of the administration and of the spearhead group to address priority issues, and, on the other hand, it makes it possible to obtain feedback and to find out whether the majority's opinion aligns with the opinion of the spearhead group. In the course of the informational campaign it is not uncommon to attract additional volunteers to address the problem, while informing all interested participants / stakeholders (target groups).

Interactive situation analysis and planning is an effective tool for solving rural communities' problems. Involving villagers in active discussion helps the rural communities to become aware of the problems. In the process of discussion and of interactive planning, the following issues can be clarified:

- what people know about the problem, its causes, and opportunities to solve it;
- whether they agree that this problem exists and influences their life;
- whether they believe that the problem can be solved;
- whether they know how it can be solved;
- what their role as regular residents can be in the solution of the problem;
- whether necessary resources are available to people for solution of the problem;
- whether they have a feeling that solving the problem will have an impact on the quality of their life.

Some techniques of interactive planning that can be used during group work:

- composing maps (social, environmental, resources and so on) – the maps (schemes) are composed by residents themselves or with their immediate participation and are most applicable for quick identification of problems of the territorial nature, including issues like latent unemployment, latent employment, and so on;
- matrices (for identification of priorities, rating of problems and resources) – is one of the strongest analytical tools; they help determine the residents' attitude to the existent problems, balance of resources, ways to solve the existent problems; seasonal calendar – is useful at analysis of problems that have a cyclic or seasonal nature;
- circular and column diagrams – are the simplest graphic way of analysis of correlations of the parts of the whole or comparison of integer quantities that change over time;
- timeline (for a day, year, several decades) – is made in the form of a chronological line with marked important events within the considered period;
- cause-effect graph – like circular diagrams, it is used at a comprehensive analysis of a problem.

The next step after the problem has been identified, admitted as significant, it is clarified who is interested in its solution and what resources are available for this – is to draw a plan or a sequence of steps to solve it.

It is important that somebody is allocated not only to be responsible for the implementation of separate steps, but to perform the concurrent control, to what degree people manage to achieve the set objectives, what obstacles they are facing and what can be done to overcome these obstacles.

It is very important to familiarize the public with information about the project successes; this serves as a good reinforcing stimulus and attracts new participants.

Finally, after the tasks are completed, sometimes it is useful to consider continuation of the relations or new possible forms of interaction. As a rule, when public problems are successfully solved through partnership relations, sustainable positive contacts emerge. If they want, the spearhead group participants can institutionalize these relations, establish an informal club, a body

of territorial public self-government or other public institute, within the framework of which such interaction can continue.

Thus there exists a significant number of different methods and techniques to involve the population, some of which are the same for all stages of the project cycle, others are applied only at a concrete stage. The methods of the population's engagement at the different stages of the project cycle that are used most often are:

Table 3.2 Application of Participatory Tools in the Stages of a Project

Stages of the project cycle	Methods
1. Development of the project	<p>Ways to obtain information based on the participatory approach for better understanding of the situation.</p> <p>Consultations and analysis of national conditions are necessary to be sure that the programme being planned fits in with the goals of development at the national level.</p> <p>Analysis of stakeholders – is understanding of who will be a direct or indirect beneficiary from the project implementation, and planning on how they can be engaged.</p> <p>Matrix of stakeholders' conflicts and interaction</p>
2. Project planning	<p>Analysis of strengths and weaknesses, threats and opportunities (SWOT analysis) is used for the analysis of problems or opportunities connected with the project.</p> <p>Building of the problem tree and the objectives tree is used for understanding of existent problems and searching for alternatives and goals for planning.</p> <p>Building of the project planning matrix (functional diagram) for the project implementation.</p> <p>Action plans of the settlement or a seminar in the settlement help initiate planning at the settlement level.</p>
3. Project implementation	<p>Use of different technologies or methods, like microfunding, cooperation, establishment of groups and similar, depending on the type of the project.</p>
4. Monitoring and evaluation	<p>Monitoring and self-evaluation of participation</p> <p>Monitoring of the project implementation</p> <p>Monitoring exercise</p>

Source: URL: http://www.fao.org/Participation/english_web_new/content_en/tool_part_.html

3.2.3 Limits for of participation

Admitting all the benefits the rural development projects can enjoy due to elements of partnership and participation, one should be aware of the limitations of applying a collaborative and participative approach and of possible problems one can face.

Unfortunately, the modern rural Russia is facing a burning issue of mutual mistrust. The growing differentiation of the population, disintegration of the previously existent social connections, and the population's forced migrations do not contribute to consolidation of rural communities. It is necessary to be ready to address this issue and to take measures to overcome it.

Another problem is the existence of stereotypes about responsibility. Unfortunately, the administrative command system before the collapse of the Soviet Union did not encourage manifestation of people's initiative. Rather often people are aware of the problem, but consider it someone else's business or do not believe they are able to do something about it. It is necessary to invest efforts to demonstrate successful experiences and to organize a meeting with people who have successfully dealt with this problem so that the others get persuaded and start to believe in their capability. Analysis of experience of the pilot programmes on solution of problems of depressive municipalities in Ukraine showed that partnership relations are developing and development programmes are implemented most effectively where there is nobody else to shift the responsibility for solution of social problems in rural areas to.

One more problem is the issue of the limits for application of the principle of engagement and for partnership relations. Collective discussions and actions are not always effective. At solution of problems of rural development, it is reasonable to combine the population's participation with traditional administrative ways of solution of problems where it is practical. Solving of all problems should not be rural residents' sole responsibility.

3.3 Participatory methods during the stage of situation analysis

3.3.1 Information collection

Although a participatory project approach is much wider than the method for research and collection of information, it is often understood as a set of tools and methods that enables the rural community to visualize their own reality, that is, to vividly characterize the spatial use of the territory, time and established relations.

All methods used for collection of information can be grouped, depending on what information or data are collected with their help.

Examples of some of the methods are given below.

Spatial data

The methods of information collection in this group are connected with data related to availability of land resources, their use and different ways to present them. They include composing land utilization maps, resources maps, drawings of farms, cross-cutting maps, topical maps and three-dimensional models. The most wide-spread techniques include:

composing of the settlement's resources map;

composing of the transect diagramme;

a transect walk or «stroll around the village» - presupposes collection of information based on visual scanning and conversations with local residents.

Time-related data

These include data gathering connected with time. The information is for example contained in trend lines, seasonal calendars and time distribution charts. The most wide-spread methods for collection of such data include:

1. «daily activity chart» illustrate all kinds of activity different groups of people are engaged in during one day;

timelines/ historical maps – help encouraging the discussion on how and why the problem emerged and identifying its roots;

trend lines – is a simple chart diagram that reflects changes in time in the local natural, economic, social or institutional environment. It is a convenient visual aid for consideration of what improved and what deteriorated;

seasonal calendar – composing one helps to learn more how food supply change during the year and demonstrates seasonal amount of work in the agrarian and other sectors, availability of foodstuffs, proliferation of diseases among the population, men and women's incomes and expenses, availability of water, food for animals, and loans, as well as holidays.

Social/institutional information.

This information generally describes people's relations with each other, or with outsiders, or with different organizations. These techniques help evaluate and/or rate the comparative value of these relations with application of social maps, Venn diagrams or institutional diagrams, and so on. Examples of these information collection techniques are:

1. development of group profiles – helps to identify groups' concise characteristics depending on what roles each member of the group usually performs. This method helps to engage each group in the design of their own strategy based on possible roles and responsibilities;
2. composing the maps of household economy helps to collect information about where members of one household get the money from and what they spend it on. The major goal of the method is to engage people in discussion of all possible ways to obtain income;
3. institutional profile – is used for understanding of connections between the households' strategies for obtaining income and operation of local institutions and how these relations can influence efforts on development of the settlement;
4. social maps and social network maps help identify relations between different social, ethnic, religious, class and other groups;
5. the matrix of stakeholders' conflict and cooperation identifies, between what stakeholders there are conflicts or interactions, as well as the degree of this process;
6. Venn diagram – is a method that uses circles as symbols denoting different institutions of the settlement (both internal and external ones) and the nature of relations with each other.

Stand-alone data.

There is also some information that stands alone. It is collected by tools like composing of census maps, demographic profiles, simplified forms of surveying, conducting of sectoral consultations, composing of matrices, and so on.

Aboriginal or local data.

These are artifacts or cultural forms within the community that have symbolical or historical value, such as drawings, ceremonies, legends, myths and other ways of reflecting of reality by aboriginal people.

3.3.2 Conducting consultations

To design a project that is supported by different administrative bodies, and, therefore, has chances to obtain external funding, as a rule, it takes consultations with representatives of Ministries and departments responsible for allocation of funding.

A starting point for conducting consultations aimed for development of joint actions, is a plan or an abstract of this plan prepared by the spearhead group. The parties that can influence implementation of the project are offered to discuss this plan or its draft, to give recommendations and come to an agreement. This means that participants of the consultations must have enough authority to adopt a decision or, at least, to come to an agreement, which has high chances to be later approved by the directive bodies.

Depending on the number of participants and nature of consultations, corresponding forms for this consultation can be meetings, negotiations or joint seminars. All three forms of consultations have a similar structure and require the same basic skills. But each of them requires its own approach.

Group work. A meeting based on a partnership usually is characterized by a higher degree of collegiality, where partners are actively working together (at least, in the period immediately before the meeting). The problems that emerge for the organization of such meetings are connected to typical issues of group work – these are the meeting's concrete goals, the general approach, transparency of the dialogue and awareness and understanding of capabilities, strengths and weaknesses of each member of the team.

A result of such meeting should be an agreement to prepare the subsequent actions and steps. The meeting result can be a report, a memorandum, the minutes or another document that can be used in the organization whose members are participating in the meeting. In this situation, the leader of the consultation acts as a team leader.

Negotiations. In negotiations two parties (in complex cases – more than two parties) meet each other and both parties possess the authority for decision-making (within the set limits). Such negotiations can be easily sabotaged if each party has determined their position and then engages others in a «competition» to see who wins and who loses. Thus in some cases it might be very important to use negotiating skills. Generally one commonly desired result of the negotiations is to achieve an agreement that improves or, at least, does not impair relations between the parties. Such an agreement lies as much as possible within the interests of the negotiating parties, resolves the conflict situation and will be sustainable (for a long period of time) in some kind for general good. The final document of such meeting is an agreement (or a draft agreement, if the negotiators themselves are not authorized to sign such an agreement).

During such a meeting, the leader the consultation acts more as a negotiator executing a task, and is not on a neutral position.

Planning of participation. Finally, different participants with different decision-making powers can be engaged in consultations. Such consultations are more like workshops for participatory planning.

This approach helps to find solutions for many parties, unclear situations, and when the interests differ significantly. Such consultations, predominantly, are necessary in situations when a required solution is not obvious and it is necessary to overcome differences between several parties before any agreement can be reached.

A desired result of such a meeting can include clarification of the situation, achievement of an agreement about possible directions of activity and further steps to be taken. At such meetings decisions can be adopted but only if all participating parties are authorized for this by their organizations. Often further joint work is necessary to refine the agreement in detail. Such seminar can result in a series of reviews of the issues being discussed.

In these conditions, the leader of the consultation adopts a neutral stance and acts more as a facilitator helping the group to discuss the problem.

Basic principles of conducting consultations

Despite differences in the purposes for the consultations, the basic principles of their conduction are the same for group decision-making.

When conducting any group meeting, it is necessary to take into account the fact that people actually are not sharing their opinions or agreeing on the issues of the discussion; the key element in such meeting is to identify different points of view, opinions, and interests. The period of dissent in opinions virtually always is followed by the period of some chaos, when it is unclear, in what dimension the agreement will be achieved. Finally, all participants understand and accept each others' opinions, and the discussion moves towards the stage of completion and adoption of a decision. This ideally outlined scenario of general stages of the group process is based on having a common objective and basic openness to get involved in the group process at all.

The facilitators must be prepared to such difficult and unpleasant stages in the discussion. Very rarely do all participants of the discussion easily find common ground to adopt an agreement without confusion and discord. Similar situations take place when a solution is obvious for everybody, and everybody is familiar with the discussed issue, but it became necessary to conduct such consultations and meetings. Most of us tend to avoid situations that lead to adoption of a decision that addresses the issue only half-way or is not grounded enough or will fail to get acknowledgment.

Besides the usual skills for conducting meetings, seminars and consultations (these are skills to organize meetings, set the agenda, and keep people within the framework of the issue), the facilitators of consultations must have experience in listening to other people and consideration of their opinions and in resolution of conflict situations that can emerge in the process of a meeting. Thus, facilitators must be highly competent in communication skills and in organization of consultations, if they want the group to achieve concrete results.

3.3.3 Major stakeholders and their analysis

One of the important stages of the project cycle is the identification of persons that would facilitate or resist the project implementation. With regard to development and implementation of rural development projects, stakeholders can include, for instance, households, interest groups and socioeconomic groups in the settlement, local bodies of power, state and private institutions that operate at the national, regional or local levels to secure the basic infrastructure, agricultural industry, marketing and information/training, as well as organizations that render social services like health care, education, international and national donor institutions and civil society institutions at all levels. The process of the project design should involve current stakeholders as well as potential stakeholders who may be influenced by the project or will participate in the adoption of corresponding decisions.

Stakeholders/parties – are individuals, groups or organizations that directly or indirectly benefit or lose as a result of a concrete project activity or policy.

Among stakeholders/parties, the following groups may be observed:

- **primary stakeholders** – those who will be immediately affected by the project and its results;
- **secondary stakeholders** – those who will be affected by the project and its results indirectly;
- **key stakeholders** – immediate originators of the project. They often also are the primary stakeholders.

Identification of stakeholders is a complicated process that requires comprehensive and thorough analysis. A detailed approach to this issue helps to reduce risk of exclusion from the discussion of separate groups of stakeholders, whose later identification can lead to conflict situations and cause additional expenses.

Levels of management of programs/projects of rural territories development:

- *national – usually coincides with the state level;*
- *regional – the region's size can be different (oblast, district);*
- *intermediary – between the oblast and local levels (for instance, interregional organizations);*
- *local – local self-government, civil society, private and state subjects that implement development projects at the local level.*

It is necessary to conduct this analysis before identification of the project's future directions as stakeholders have different priorities and, correspondingly, are interested in different project activities. A lot of actors, different levels of power and political participation get engaged in the process of management of development of rural territories, as are different functions and different kinds of relations between the management levels and economic subjects.

Taking this into account, one can identify the following major stakeholders:

Table 3.3 Major stakeholders on different levels

National level	The Ministry of agriculture The Ministry of economic development Other Ministries Organizations and associations (consumers, manufacturers, protectors of the environment and others)
Regional level	Regional Ministries/departments of agriculture Other regional Ministries and departments Oblast professional organizations Other organizations and associations
Intermediary level	Subregional authorities (departments of provinces, rayons, districts and so on) Regional development agencies
Local level	Local bodies of power Local institutions Local entrepreneurs Local partnerships (state or private) Local organizations /associations Volunteer and non-commercial organizations

Principles for conducting a stakeholders' analysis

- it is best to conduct the analysis in cooperation with major groups of stakeholders;
- it must not be a desk study, it is necessary to use methods such as seminars and local consultations for direct communication;
- to use secondary information (publications in mass media, reports of organizations, and so on.) wherever possible, under the condition of its authenticity.

Stages of conducting a stakeholders' analysis

It is most often performed by brainstorming by a group of persons, who are initiating a rural development project.

Stage 1. Identification of stakeholders.

Compose the list of stakeholders. For a start, answer these questions:

- Who are the stakeholders on a specific rural territory? (Whose rights and interests can be impacted in the course of the project implementation?)
- What interests and benefits from the project implementation are they expecting?
- How strong/important are these interests and benefits?

- Are there any gender differences within and between the groups of persons?
- How important is the role of each of the stakeholders?
- Who can influence (positively and negatively) the course of the project implementation?
- How is the stakeholders' understanding of the rules of behaviour?
- What are the relations between the stakeholders?

Draw the list of all stakeholders. Identify the primary, the secondary and the key stakeholders.

Stage 2. Evaluation of stakeholders' interests and the project's potential influence over these interests.

- what expectations do the stakeholders have on the project?
- what are the possible benefits for stakeholders?
- what resources are the stakeholders able and ready to mobilize?
- what are the stakeholders' interests that conflict the project goals?

Some stakeholders' interests are less obvious in comparison to other ones and they can be difficult to identify, especially if they are «covert» or contradict the declared goals of the organization or individual.

For some organizations, these questions can be answered through review of the secondary information. To evaluate interests of informal groups and of the local population, it may take some consultations either with them directly, or with people locally that are familiar with these groups.

Taking into account the obtained information, it is necessary to consider how the project will influence these groups' interests – both positively and negatively.

Stage 3. Evaluation of stakeholders' influence and importance.

For each group of stakeholders, evaluate:

- authority and status (political, social and economic);
- degree of organization;
- control of strategic resources;
- decision-making process – formal and informal (for instance, state and traditional);
- power relations with other stakeholders;
- significance for the successful project implementation.

Influence is linked to the power stakeholders have over the project. This can be exercised either by means of immediate control over decision-making, or facilitation or resistance to the

project implementation. This control can be a result either of the stakeholder's status or power or their informal connections with the leaders.

Stage 4. Development of the strategy for stakeholders' participation.

The stakeholders' participation is planned in accordance to:

- interests, importance and influence of each group of stakeholders;
- special efforts necessary to engage important stakeholders who do not have influence;
- appropriate forms of participation during the entire project cycle.

During the previous stages, some planning already can be done in regard to what groups of stakeholders can be involved at different stages of the project implementation. As a rule to engage stakeholders with a different degree of influence and importance the following approaches can be used:

- stakeholders with the high level of influence and importance must be actively involved during the entire time of the project implementation to secure its support;
- stakeholders with the high level of influence and low importance are not an object of the project, but they can oppose intrusion into the project implementation. Thus, it is necessary to inform them on a regular basis and to take into account their opinion to avoid conflict or resistance to the project implementation;
- stakeholders with the low level of influence and high productivity require special efforts to satisfy their needs and secure their participation;
- stakeholders with the low level of influence and low importance will not be significantly involved in the project and will not require special engagement strategies (any informational strategy aimed at the wider public will suffice).

Picture 3.1 gives a graphic representation of these issues. It is extremely important to determine the strategies for inclusion of important stakeholders that do not have influence, as well as those who due to cultural or other reasons cannot easily participate in the project implementation.

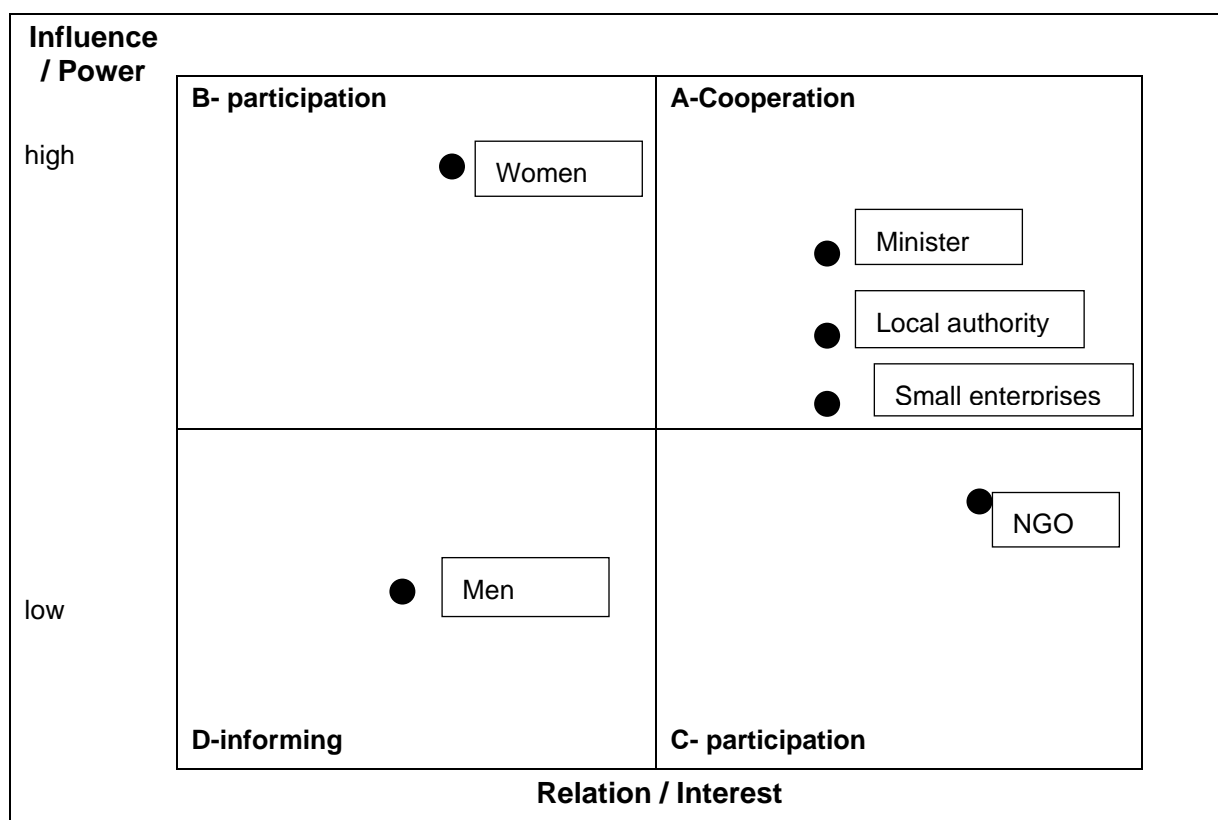


Fig. 3.1 Stakeholder' matrix (Source: Regional Management for Regional Rural Development.P.110)

For further analysis, a matrix of conflict and interaction (see fig. 3.2) between stakeholders is compiled. It is obvious that existence of a conflict between them will hinder successful project implementation. Therefore, it is necessary to envisage measures to avoid this.

Bodies of state power					
Non-commercial organizations	●				
Manufacturers of agricultural produce	●	●			
Landowners		●	■		
Local population	●	■	●	●	
	Bodies of state power	Non-commercial organizations	Manufacturers of agricultural produce	Landowners	Local population

Symbol ● demonstrates existence of a conflict
 Symbol ■ represents existence of cooperation and partnership

Fig. 3.2 The matrix of conflicts and interaction between stakeholders (Source: SEAGA Field Level Handbook. P.125)

3.4 Participatory methods during the project planning stage

3.4.1 SWOT analysis

Rather often, simple realization of one's own strengths and elimination of weaknesses is a sufficient condition for further development independently from any external help. The most general tool of analysis of strengths and weaknesses of an organization/project/settlement, its opportunities, external and internal threats is the SWOT analysis. The strengths and weaknesses are such elements, in what an organization/individual is good at or vice versa. All this can be controlled by the organization itself or by an individual.

SWOT analysis

Strengths

Weaknesses

Opportunities

Threats

The opportunities and threats are such elements that are beyond control of the group, but can render positive or negative effect. For instance, construction of a new road will improve access to markets (an opportunity) or a new law can hinder launch of a new business (a threat). In some cases some changes can be both threats and opportunities.

The goal of the SWOT analysis is the development of strategies that can be used for planning of concrete goals and events.

Thus, conducting of a SWOT analysis presupposes, firstly, identification of internal strengths and weaknesses of an organization/group/project, as well as of external opportunities and threats, and, secondly, establishing connections between them.

Therefore a SWOT analysis helps to answer the following questions:

- does the organization/group use internal strengths and advantages? If it has no advantages, what of its potential strengths can become advantages?
- are the organization's/group's weaknesses its vulnerable points and do they hamper it from using any favourable opportunities? What weaknesses require correction, taking into account the proposed strategy?
- what favourable opportunities give the organization/group real chances for success when qualifications of the group members are applied and access to resources is available? Favourable opportunities without ways for their implementation are nothing but illusion.
- What threats must alert the project management and what actions must be taken for protection?

An important element of the SWOT analysis to not make just any collections of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, but to phrase an objective or vision to which then the analysed factors are related to.

Below are several examples of factors to take into account in the SWOT analysis:

<p style="text-align: center;">Potential internal strengths (S):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Clearly manifested competence ▪ Adequate financial sources ▪ High art of competition ▪ Good understanding of stakeholders ▪ Clearly articulated strategy ▪ Proven reliable management 	<p style="text-align: center;">Potential internal weaknesses (W):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Loss of some aspects of competence ▪ Absence of finances necessary for shifts in the strategy ▪ Market art below average ▪ Absence of analysis of information about stakeholders ▪ Absence of a clearly articulated strategy, inconsistency in its implementation ▪ Management's loss of depth and flexibility
<p style="text-align: center;">Potential external favourable opportunities (O):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Opportunity to cover additional groups of consumers ▪ Expansion of the range of possible goods ▪ Competitors' complacency ▪ Significant availability of resources ▪ Lenient restrictive legislation ▪ Reduced instability of the business 	<p style="text-align: center;">Potential external threats (T):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Weakening market growth, unfavourable demographic changes of introduction of new market segments ▪ Growing sales of replacing goods, changes in buyers' tastes and needs ▪ Growing competition ▪ Growing suppliers' requirements ▪ Legislative regulation of the price ▪ Sensitivity to instability of business' external conditions

Source: SWOT- analysis: [сайт]:URL: <http://marketopedia.ru/47-swot-analiz.html>

Based on the results of the SWOT analysis, the matrix of strategic events is drawn. The so called TOWS strategies combine 4 conceptual alternatives:

SO-strategies aim to expand existing strengths in order to benefit from the correlating external opportunities;

WO-strategies attempt to minimize weaknesses and to support benefits from opportunities. These strategies are suitable if external opportunities may be identified, but visible weaknesses prevent from taking advantage of these chances;

ST-strategies are based on the existing strengths that can deal with threats of the environment. The aim is to expand strengths in order to avoid the consequences of the correlating threats.

WT-strategies minimize weaknesses and cope with identified threats.

Rules of conducting a SWOT analysis.

To benefit most from the SWOT analysis, it is necessary to regard several rules:

1. Whenever possible, the object of SWOT analysis must be very specific. At the level of a municipal district, the analysis results will be most probably too generalized and useless for practical application. It is more useful to focus to the territory of implementation of the possible project – a concrete rural settlement.

2. It is necessary to clearly observe the principles of classifying this or that factor as a strength/weakness or as an opportunity/threat. Strengths and weaknesses are internal characteristics of an organization/group/project/settlement. Opportunities and threats describe the external situation and are beyond the management's direct influence.

3. The quality of the SWOT analysis directly depends on objectivity and use of many-sided information. Its conduction should not be assigned to just one person, because the information will be distorted by his or her subjective perception. Besides, all identified factors must be necessarily supported by objective facts and results of research.

4. It is necessary to avoid lengthy and ambiguous wordings. The more concrete the wording, the clearer will be the influence of this factor now and in the future, the more practical value the results of the SWOT analysis will have.

And as mentioned above a development objective or target state should be defined first.

Limitations of SWOT analyses

A SWOT analysis can lead to a better assessment of the existing situation and development potentials in relation to a set objective or a guiding vision. However the following limitations should be also considered.

A SWOT analysis is just a tool for structuring of the available information, it gives no transparent and clearly articulated recommendations or concrete answers. It only helps to visually represent major factors, as well as to evaluate very tentatively the mathematical expectation for these or those events. Articulation of recommendations based on this information is the analyst's job.

SWOT analysis' simplicity is can be misleading, its results significantly depend on completeness and quality of the initial information. To conduct SWOT analysis, it takes experts with very deep understanding of the current state and trends of development, or a huge amount of work on collection and analysis of initial information to achieve such understanding. Mistakes made while composing the matrix (inclusion of redundant factors or loss of important ones, incorrect evaluation of weighted coefficients and mutual influence), cannot be identified in the process of further analysis (except for the most obvious) - they will lead to wrong conclusions and unsound strategic decisions. Besides, interpretation of the obtained model, and, therefore, the quality of conclusions and recommendations significantly depends on qualification of the experts who conduct the SWOT analysis.

As mentioned above in the rules, a SWOT analysis should be very specifically related to a territory and should not be general or large scale. But to find development options for rural regions the SWOT analysis can be a helpful tool to guide a discussion process. If a SWOT analysis is used to identify strengths and weaknesses of a region and to uncover risks and potentials for development, it needs to consider that regions are complex systems consisting of interdependent geographical, geological, climatic, social, historical, political, economical subsystems to name only some. To reduce complexity, the forming of categories is a suitable approach when preparing a Region SWOT Analysis and developing sound development strategies. To facilitate the conduction

of such a SWOT analysis “fields of action” should be identified. Field of action related to a defined region could be for example:

- A) Geographic position, traffic and transportation.
- B) Environment, Culture and Tourism.
- C) Agriculture, forestry and renewable energy.
- D) Commerce, industry and service sector (non-agriculture).
- E) Public utility infrastructure and public transportation.

3.4.2 Problem Tree and Objectives Tree

A common method of analysis of problems and objectives is composing the «problem tree» and the corresponding «objectives tree». This analysis includes three basic steps:

- definition of the framework and identification of the subject of the analysis;
- identification of major problems the target groups and beneficiaries are facing;
- visualization of problems in the form of the problem tree or «hierarchy of problems» to help analyze the problems and clarify the cause-effect relations.

The goal of the analysis is to identify actual bottlenecks, which the stakeholders consider as crucial and want to overcome. The problem tree demonstrates the connection between the cause and the consequence. By studying the chain of events and causes, the group members permanently ask the question «why?». When the problem tree is completed it reflects the general picture of the existent negative situation.

At development of concrete projects, the following sequence of composing of the problem tree and of the objectives tree is rather typical.

1. Analysis of problems

It is possible to evaluate an existent problem only based on the available information and understanding of the cause-effect relations, by creating a detailed overview of the current situation. No decisions concerning a possible resolution of the situation can be considered at this stage, as they narrow down the perspectives and opportunities for solutions that can emerge later. Only the existent problems must be considered, not imaginary or future ones.

Each participant of such working meetings (seminars) must write down one central problem, that is, to describe what he or she considers the core of the general problem.

EACH proposal is being discussed, and then the participants try to reach an agreement concerning identification of one major problem. If such agreement cannot be reached, the cards with the problems written on them can be organized taking into account their interconnection. The problems tree is build based on the results of this discussion, which, basically, helps determine the key problem. The methods like «brainstorm» and role-playing games are useful tools to conduct such discussions. It is possible to hold voting, but it should not be formal.

2. Creation of the problem tree

Place the card with the name of the key problem at the centre, and locate the cards that describe its major and direct causes below it on a horizontal line. The cards with the names of

significant and direct consequences of this problem should be placed above the central card along a horizontal line. The causes and consequences can move vertically up and down for such distance from the central card that reflects their relation to the key problem. Thus, a «tree» is outlined, whose trunk is the key problem, and the branches are consequences and the roots are its causes.

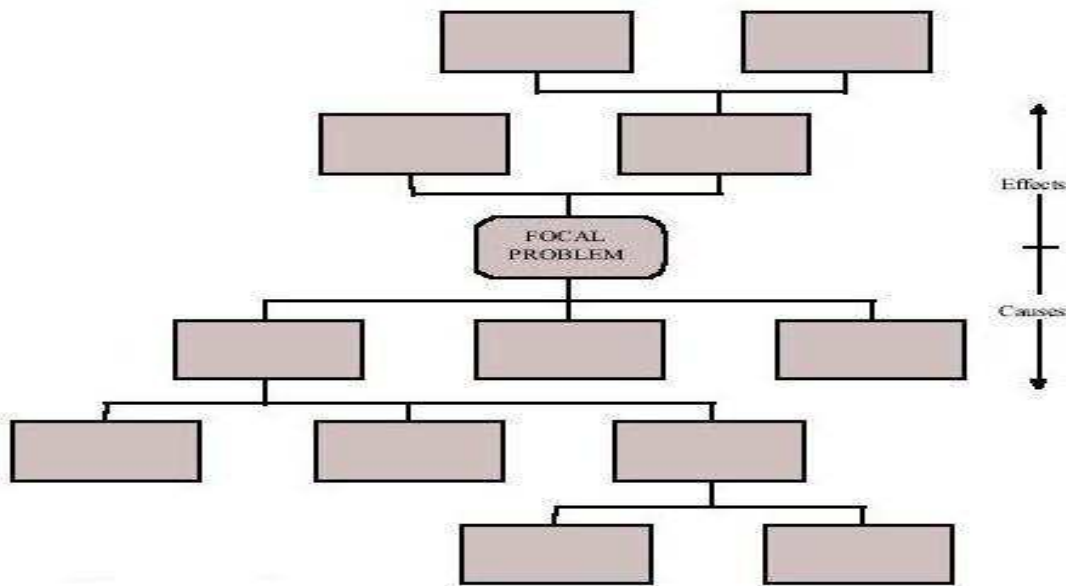


Fig. 3.3 Objective tree. (Source: *Problem, Alternatives, Objective Tree*: [caïm]: URL: http://www.fao.org/Participation/english_web_new/content_en/problem_tree.html)

The problem analysis can be finished when all participants are sure that all significant information that explains the major causes and characterizes the results is included in this «network».

3. Analysis of objectives

Later on, the problems tree is transformed into the objectives tree (the future solution of the problem) and is analyzed. Starting from the top part of the problems and moving down, all problems are re-articulated as desired situations (positive statements). Similarly, the key problem turned into a goal.

If the obtained statement has no sense after the changes, one can articulate a goal with a different wording, but with the same essence, or to leave the description of the problem as is, without changes. It is also necessary to check that to achieve larger goals there is a sufficient number of smaller ones. If no, it is necessary to add them.

If the problems were articulated as «if A happened, then B was the result», then the goals must be outlined as «the means X to achieve Y». Note: the causes and consequences do not always translate into the relation «means – result».

Finally, one should draw lines that visualize the interconnections «means – result».

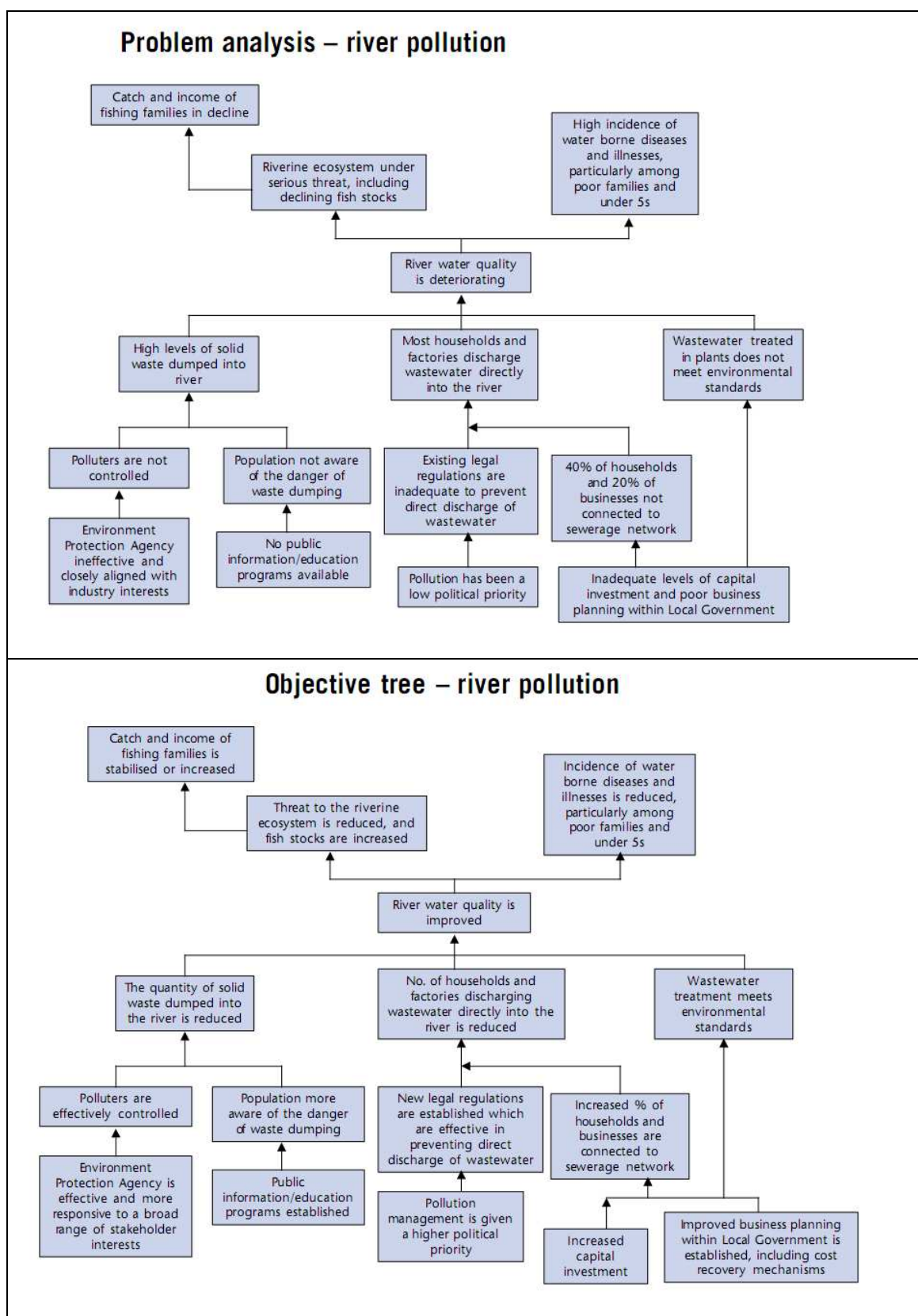


Fig. 3.4 Example of a problem and objective tree. (Source: EuropeAid Cooperation Office, 2004, 69-70)

3.4.3 The logical framework

One of the most wide-spread methods for project structuring and design is to compose a functional diagram (Logical Framework). This is a tool for presentation of project activity with the help of work plans and individual schedules. One of this scheme's major strengths is its application at several stages of the project cycle: at the stage of the project preparation and at the stage of monitoring and evaluation.

The logical framework represents the project's basic structure as an entirety of events, results, goals and objectives, and is reflected in a matrix (Table 3.2).

The scheme's major components are:

- goals (objectively verifiable indicators) for each element of the project structure, taking into account the amount, quality, time, target group and location;
- sources of information to verify achievability of target indicators;
- the external environment, that is the factors beyond control of the project, which can influence the project's implementation and sustainability.

Table 3.4 The project's logical framework.

Project structure	Indicators How can the project achievement be measured?	Sources/means of control What proof of achievement of the stipulated indicators can be found?	Important assumptions (external environment) What external conditions are significant for the project's success?
Development goal How will the project influence the situation?			
Project goal What direct influence will the project have over behaviour of the target group?			
Results What does the project strive to achieve?			
Activities What is planned to do within the project's framework?	Funds: resources and cost How much will the project cost?		

Source: Regional Management for Regional Rural Development. Toolbox for Trainers based on the InWent Programme "EU Integration of South Eastern Europe". InWent Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung gGmbH. December 2010. P..87

1. Structure of the project.

The project structure consists of four elements:

- project activities;
- results achieved from the activities;
- contribution of the activity results to the achievement of the immediate (nearest) goal of the project;
- contribution of the project goals to achievement of the wider goal of development.

The project goal describes the assumed benefit from the project. The standard practice goes like this: one project goal – one logical framework. Only the project activity and its results are under the project's control and can be managed within it. The project goal lies outside the project's limits. That is why it is important that combination of the project activities and corresponding results maximally facilitates the achievement of the goal. The development goal is a wider notion than the project goal. For instance, the goal of development can be to improve quality of life, but its achievement is facilitated by a range of other initiatives. Thus, there must be a logical connection between activity or project events and the general goal of development.

Case Study: Structure of the project

A goal of a fishing settlement is to improve quality of life. This goal can be achieved through implementation of two projects: the first one is about creating kinds of activities for women to obtain income; the second project is about improvement of sanitation and hygiene. Each of the projects has its own logical framework. The project for women presupposes:

- events on organization of a marketing group for tailoring (activity 1.1.) and training for women in sewing (activity 1.2) that will lead to a functioning sewing group (result 1);
- another set of events is directed at training for women on how to return a loan (activity 2.1) and to purchase sewing machines (activity 2.2) that helps the group of women to have their own sewing machines (result 2);
- together these events will facilitate achievement of the goal on creation of income-generating activity for women.

SEAGA : Project Cycle Management, Technical Guide

2. External environment (important assumptions).

This column lists the factors that influence the project effectiveness, but are beyond control of the project management. They are described as positive conditions (assumptions) necessary for the project to be successful. The connection between the project structure (column 1) and the external environment (column 4) are often presented as an «if and then» connection (Table 3.3). For instance, if some event has been conducted and certain assumptions turn to be true then the results will be achieved.

Table 3.5 Connection between the project structure and external environment.

Project structure	Indicators	Sources/means of control	Important assumptions (external environment)
Development goal	then		
Project goal	if then		and
Results	if then		and
Activity, events	if		and

Source: SEAGA : Project Cycle Management, Technical Guide

To fill in this column, three questions have to be answered:

- if the activity has been conducted, what other factors must be present to achieve the results?
- if results have been achieved, what factors are necessary to achieve the goals of the project?
- if the goals of the project have been achieved, what factors are necessary to achieve the central goal of development?

Case Study: External environment

If a group has been formed (activity 1.1) and the family members support the woman in her learning to sew (assumption), then the group will be working (result 1)

If the group is working (result 1) and manufacturing clothes of good quality (assumption) then the income-generating activity for women has been created (goal of the project)

if the income-generating activity for women has been created (goal of the project) and sanitation and hygiene have been improved (assumption), then the quality of life improves (goal of development)

SEAGA : Project Cycle Management, Technical Guide

It is obvious that it is impossible to list all possible assumption in this column, that is why the following three kinds of assumptions are differentiated:

- assumptions that are not important for the project results or are likely to happen, are excluded from the functional diagram;
- assumptions that are important for the project, but are not guaranteed to happen, are also excluded from the functional diagram and are monitored during the project implementation;
- assumptions that are important for the project implementation, but are unlikely to happen require changes of the project or its adjustment.

The last type of assumptions requires special attention. If this was not taken into account at the designing stage of the project, this can lead to failure of the project. Thus, it is known as the

«killing factor». This factor can be neutralized by means of inclusion of additional project activity, which will help overcome it in development of the project.

Case Study: Overcoming the «killing factor»

An assumption that «family members will support women who are developing their own activity» can be identified as the «lethal factor». If this is not taken into account, the project will not succeed. For instance, some women will fail to come to training sessions due to household chores. But if family members are sensitive to the project goals and to the benefits they can get in the future, they may help women with some of their family responsibilities, for instance, by cooking or babysitting. Informing of the settlement residents about the project can be included as an additional event of the project.

SEAGA : Project Cycle Management, Technical Guide

3. Indicators subject to objective evaluation

Purpose of indicators. The indicators are determined for each element of the project structure and are quantitative data used to demonstrate the project results. Thus, they establish the foundation for the project monitoring and evaluation.

Characteristics of indicators. Indicators must include:

- number (how many);
- quality (how well);
- target group (who);
- time/duration (when and for how long);
- location (where).

Case Study: Indicators for project activity.

Indicators for project activity on training in sewing can be:

- number: 35 women
- quality: to achieve professional skills in sewing (for instance, to use schemes, different options in sewing machines, to sew high-quality clothing)
- target group: women from fishing families who have no access to other income-generating activities
- time/duration: meetings three times a week for 12 weeks
- location: at the fishing place

Criteria for selection of indicators.

To identify corresponding indicators, different criteria can be used:

- relation to user's needs and opportunities,
- simplicity of collection, use and understanding,
- clarity and accuracy of identification, unambiguousness,
- opportunity to keep track of changes caused by the project,
- independence from each other,
- whether it is possible to concentrate on measuring of important project peculiarities, without aggregation.

Initial indicators.

To observe changes as a result of the project activity, it is necessary to establish the initial quantitative values of indicators. When there is no such data, one of the first kinds of the project activity can be planning of surveys to obtain quantitative and qualitative information. Such surveys can be used also to promote the public's awareness about the goals and nature of the project.

Tools to check the indicators.

After the indicators have been identified, it is necessary to resolve the issue of determining of the source of information, which will be used to evaluate the project effectiveness.

The project documentation usually lists sources of information used for monitoring of the project and of its results. To verify the goal of development, published materials are often used. Qualitative indicators can be verified by means of informal surveys.

Data verification must be timely, economically effective in collection, reliable and unbiased. If information is not available in a form appropriate for monitoring and evaluation, concrete mechanisms for data collection must be included in activity within the framework of the project. This can be especially important at consideration of the socioeconomic and gender aspects of the project.

Sustainability of the project.

The logical framework must demonstrate sustainability of the project results (achieved benefits) after completion of the project. In the course of the design of the project attention should be paid to political, institutional, infrastructural, socioeconomic and cultural problems, the state of economy. It may be necessary to include additional project events or factors of the external environment to secure the project viability in the future. This concept must be also reflected in the project indicators.

Checklists.

The following checklists can be used to evaluate validity of the functional diagram:

- Was the project goal identified correctly?
- Are there logical connections between activities, results, the goal of the project and the goal of development?
- Were there enough activities proposed for the achievement of the results?
- Are the «if and then» statements sufficient for transition to the following stage?
- Did any new «lethal» factors emerge during the design of the project? If yes, then what measures for correction of the current situation should be taken?
- Are the indicators targeted?
- Will any tool for verification of indicators expensive and labour-intensive?

- Will the project results (benefits) be sustainable after the project is completed?

3.5 The monitoring and evaluation stage

At this stage different methods and mechanisms of monitoring and evaluation of the project results can be applied – they are similar for effectiveness evaluation of any project. But there are specific methods and tools for evaluation of projects based on participatory approaches.

Participatory Impact Monitoring

The monitoring that makes it possible to evaluate the impact of development programmes and projects constitutes of continuous observation, systematic documenting and critical analysis of the project impact, followed by adjustment of the activity (revision of the plan, changes in the strategy). The project staff and target groups perform this, based on the results of an independent survey.

After an agreement between stakeholders (the funding agency, the implementing organization, and target groups) has been achieved about the goals of conducting of such monitoring, their expectations and concerns about the project results are identified, for instance, by the method of brainstorming. The more participants of the project there are, the more these expectations and concerns will coincide.

Then a hypothesis is developed that characterizes the project's expected impact, to obtain a clearer picture of the project and the environment, in which it operates. Using different diagrams and logical schemes of the project implementation, the project staff develops the list of information necessary for identification of target indicators: definitions of terms, the technique of indicators calculation, survey units and respondents, instructions for information collection.

To minimize the so-called «problem of false reporting», the sample can include both the villages, where the project is being implemented and the villages not impacted by the project. Assuming that political, agricultural, environmental and other conditions are almost the same for both kinds of villages, any differences concerning the directions of the project activity, are considered as the project's influence.

After such questionnaires and other evaluation tools have gone through a preliminary testing and a decisions has been made on the sample size, surveys of private persons (for instance, female farmers), key persons (the head of the settlement, teachers) or groups of residents are conducted.

For the project completion, joint seminars of the project staff, representatives of target groups and other stakeholders are conducted, to (1) verify the results of the monitoring with the opinion of representatives of different target groups and (2) secure necessary adjustment of the plan and strategy of the project implementation.

Organization's self-evaluation of the level of the population's participation

This method is applied to evaluate effectiveness of the spearhead group's activity at the project implementation. The initial list of evaluation indicators covers more than 80 different kinds

of activity, of which the spearhead group itself selects the important ones, taking into account the goals of the group's creation. Initially any number of issues can be selected, but, as a rule, not more than 30.

As soon as the agreement is achieved on the issues that must be used for self-evaluation, the discussion of each issue, one after the other, begins. In addition, among the group members one is chosen to coordinate self-evaluation, but only after it becomes clear that both the group in general and the coordinator have a good idea of how this process works.

This technique has some strengths, compared to usual evaluation methods:

- this approach presupposes self-education that helps inform the group on what is expected and can be;
- it can self-improve because as soon as weaknesses are discovered based on discussion, they become clearer for the group as it develops actions for their elimination;
- the methodology helps to improve preparation and resolution of the problematic issues that were identified by this very group. The initiatives on correction of the situation are more effective where the problem is openly acknowledged by the people who are being trained.

List of questions for self-evaluation

1. Organizing and managing the activities of the groups:

- management responsibilities: style of management, distribution of responsibility (within the framework of the group), control over the office workers (group members), rotation of office worker, supervising the group, specialized functions;
- meetings and participation: periodicity of group meetings, decision-making mechanisms, promptness and efficiency, participation of the group members, participation of women, productivity of meetings, attendance of the meetings, the minutes of the meetings, reports on the process of work, place for meetings;
- activity of the group: the charter and legislative basis, interpersonal relations, quality of discussions, discipline, identification of objectives, managing conflicts and resolution of problems;
- group work: working plan, help from the group's promoter, group's goals, achievements of the group, group work, contributions.

2. Economic effectiveness: receiving income, economic diversification, extension, industry, industrial credits, assets, savings, acquisitions (purchases) of the group.

3. Technical activity and managing it: improvement of technologies, local technologies, technical information, maintenance, quality control, technical responsibilities.

4. Financial activity and managing it: financial questions, financial reports, amortization, income, loan payments, safety of resources, inventory and industrial stocks.

5. Institutionalization and self-sufficiency of the group:

- autonomy potential: progress regarding self-sufficiency, independence from the group organizer, meetings with the group organizer (promoter), official status, mobilization of resources, extension of benefits from participation;
- membership basis: solidarity of the group, knowledge exchange, confidence of the group members and their personal growth, causes for creation of the group, securing effective management;
- knowledge basis: monitoring and evaluation, evaluation of self-government, experimental approach;
- extending the base: dissemination of the programme, extending connections outside the programme, extending connections within the programme's framework, connections between local organizations, support of the programme at the national level, support of municipalities, ability to resist pressure, continuation of the group activities.

6. Other directions: access to assets, reduction of inequality, improvement of nutrition, population's literacy, population's health, undesirable social activities, environmental protection, development of agriculture, major obstacles, the balanced programme.

Monitoring exercise

To conduct the monitoring exercise, it is necessary to perform the following actions.

- Prepare a sheet of paper with four columns.
- Discuss in the group what types of activity, to the opinion of the group members, are important. List these kinds activity in one column.
- In the second column, specify the results or current effectiveness of each type of the group's activity.
- Survey all the group members, regardless of whether they are satisfied with the results of each activity type. Discuss the problems and opportunities they came across.
- After the group members consent about the results, ask them to imagine the decisions in the third column using numbers or happy(:))/unhappy (:() emoticons. Use 4 point scale for this.
- Discuss the next steps to take in each kind of activity and write them down in 4 columns.
- Repeat this exercise regularly (at least once a month).
- If evaluation of some specific activity remains permanently low, it is necessary that the group finds some other means to address these weaknesses.

Many aspects of the group and its activity must be controlled, such as regularity of conducting trainings, attendance of the meetings by group members, and their active participation in these meetings, distribution of responsibilities, and so on. (See previous point). The process of indicators selection must be done by the members of the group.

3.6 Test questions for the Topic 3

1. What is the difference between the programme and project for a rural territory/ rural settlement development?
2. What is a project cycle?
3. List major stages of the project cycle and characterize them briefly.
4. What peculiarities of the project cycle based on population's engagement do you know?
5. Identify basic methods of the population's engagement that can be used at different stages of the project cycle.
6. Who are «stakeholders» and what are the stages of conducting stakeholder analysis?
7. What are the peculiarities of application of SWOT analysis in designing of rural territories development projects?
8. What is the essence of the method of «problem tree» and «objectives tree» building?
9. How is the logical framework used in designing of rural development projects?
10. What are peculiarities of use of the monitoring methods in the projects with population's engagement?

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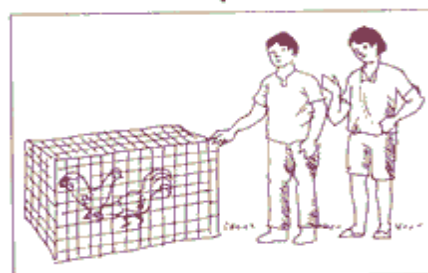
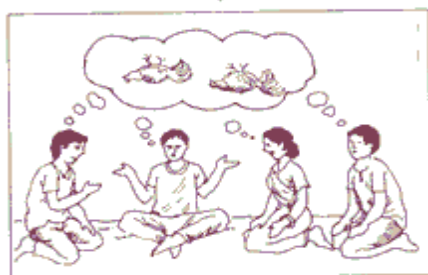
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4 General participatory methods

Questions considered in this chapter are:

- 4.1 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)
- 4.2 Examples of PRA techniques and how to apply them
 - 4.2.1 Resource mapping
 - 4.2.2 Walk about the village
 - 4.2.3 Venn diagram
 - 4.2.4 Method «We can»
 - 4.2.5 Method of tokens
- 4.3 Basic rules of conducting of seminars/trainings

4.1 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)



Changes in thinking of development

The work by the Latin American scientists and practitioners Paulo Freire and Fals Bord showed that the deciding factor, which facilitates activation of the population in the development, is specification of the problems by the residents themselves and joint search for opportunities to address them.

Activities of many non-governmental organizations in the humanitarian sphere showed that when the issue of development of a settlement arises, its residents need skills in organizing themselves, in collecting information and mobilizing their own resources. Many programmes directed at extending the opportunities for poor strata of the population, followed the formula – organizing, education and mobilization of resources, before they addressed the issues of influence of social structures.

Method of participatory rural appraisal as an alternative in development and research

The innovative work by Robert Chambers and Gordon Conway on the Rapid Rural Appraisal technique was one of the examples of attempts to include the interests of the poor strata of the population into designing programmes and projects. The importance of this technique is in admitting the

Source: Overview of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): [caüm]: URL: www.fao.org/Participation/tools/PRA.html

necessity to consult with the poor population about their needs, and this also made it possible to very quickly identify this method's own weaknesses. Thus, the method of rapid rural appraisal is viewed as the technique for obtaining information for external users. The necessity emerged to change or complement this method with techniques for engagement of the local population. The information collection and research of the situation using the Participatory Rural Appraisal method (abbreviated as PRA) helps to see deep into the situation from within, to identify opportunities and capabilities, and to articulate them using a unique beneficial and realistic method.

Presently, many international agencies, governmental and financial institutions emphasize necessity to use this method in their development programmes. As a result, large numbers of examples of application of the participatory rural appraisal can be already found.

Method of participatory rural appraisal as a collection of principles

This research has the following characteristics:

Officers for the issues of development are ready to learn from people, to adapt to the flexible learning process, and to the training speed in a concrete rural settlement, to find the poor and to learn about their problems and priorities;

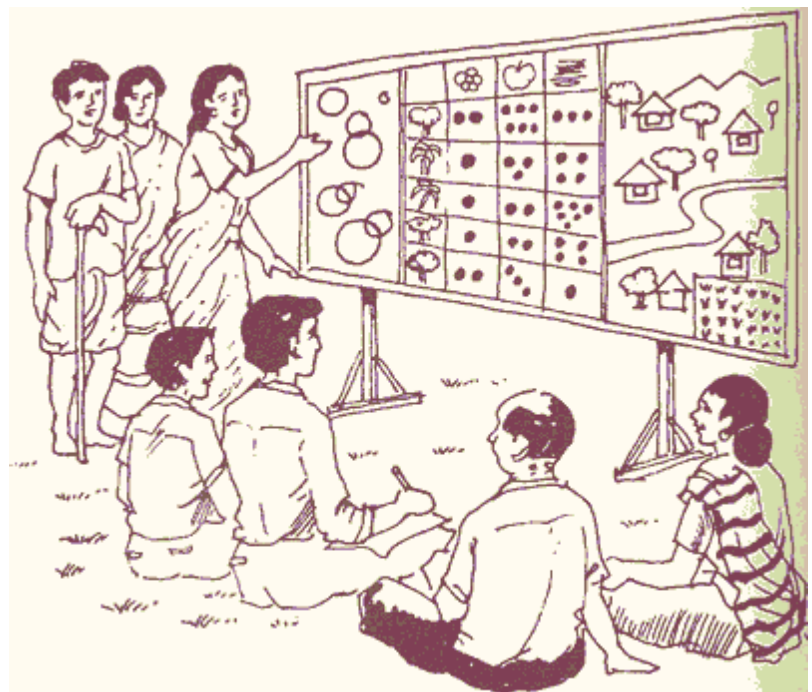
The major role of an officer for the issues of development is to facilitate the research, analysis, presentation and studying of the situation by the rural residents themselves, so that they are able to articulate and obtain results of their activities;

The officers at all times monitor their behaviour to identify their mistakes and to improve their abilities in organizing of people's interactions;

A comfortable atmosphere between the external experts and local population must be established as soon as possible;

Local residents have greater abilities in composing maps, models, diagrams, and quantitative evaluation in comparison with any outside person. Exchanging these is a very popular and powerful tool, because this is the information that is presented visually, is public, can be verified and belongs to the participants;

Sequence of the method tools used is based on the participants' interest in future activities and in self-training activities;



Source: Overview of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): [caüm]:

URL: <http://www.fao.org/Participation/tools/PRA.html>

Different tools of the method have a cumulative effect, adding more aspects to self-understanding in the settlement;

All stakeholders are trained through the processes of sharing information, observation and analysis.

The following **principles** of the participatory rural appraisal method can be singled out:

Participation. The local population's contribution is very important for increasing PRA value as a research and planning method, and as the tool for dissemination of the participatory approach to development.

Group work. Credibility of data received using this method depends on the informal communication and brainstorming of those involved. It is best done by the team that includes local residents with knowledge of local conditions, traditions, and social structures, citizens or foreigners with additional combination of various interdisciplinary knowledge and experiences. A balanced team will represent diversity of socioeconomic, cultural, gender, and age groups.

Flexibility. There exists no unified form for users. Combination of different techniques for a concrete project will be defined depending on the size and abilities of the team, time and available resources, topic and place of operation.

Optimal ignorance. To be effective from the point of view of time and money spent, only the information needed to make necessary recommendations and decisions is gathered.

Triangulation. The method works with qualitative data. For securing authenticity and reliability of information, the team follows “the rule of the thumb”, when at least three source or methods must be used to study the same issue or topic.

Method of participatory rural appraisal as a collection of tools for obtaining information and increasing awareness

The key elements are the methods used, and, most importantly, behaviour and relations of those who conduct the process. These provide for application of a wide range of graphic methods for analysis of local (economic, social, environmental, cultural, institutional) problems and search of possible solutions with the local stakeholders.

For this reason, the participatory rural appraisal method is not just one method, but rather a collection of techniques that allow residents of a settlement to visualize and to present the existing reality in graphic form.

All methods are grouped according to what type of data or information they are designed to collect. As a rule, the methods collect the following data (for more details, see chapter 3.3.1)::

- spatial data,
- temporal data,
- social and institutional information,
- discrete data,
- aboriginal or local data.

Method of participatory rural appraisal as a method to manage projects

The method often is defined as a combination of approaches, methods and models of behaviour that help people to express their opinion and to analyze the reality of their life and their living conditions, to plan themselves what actions to take, to conduct monitoring and evaluation of the results. Thus, the method has great potential for application at all stages of the project cycle - articulation, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Either one tool or their combination can be used.

Application of different tools of the participatory rural appraisal method at the stages of the project cycle

Table 4.1 Overview of 'PRA' tools

Stages of the project cycle	Tools
1. Promoting problem awareness	Folk theatre, consultations, focus groups, reports about the preliminary research results
2. Articulation of the project	The methods for obtaining information with using participatory approaches, such as analysis of stakeholders, composing different maps, seasonal calendars, demographic profiles, Venn diagrams, and so on.
3. Project planning	SWOT analysis, action plans of the settlement, seminars in the settlement, Problem Tree and Objectives Tree, Grant diagram, organizational diagram, budgeting and problem analysis.
4. Mobilization of resources	Conducting consultations where PRA reports are presented to underpin the necessity of support on the part of external institutions and on the part of the settlement.
5. Project implementation	Alternative technologies or methods, such as micro-funding, sustainable agriculture, alternative medicine, cooperation, local forests management, corresponding technologies for income generation , and so on.
6. Monitoring and evaluation	Grant diagrams, discussion in focus groups, other methods of monitoring based on the means of obtaining the information with involvement of the population, reflection sessions.

Source: Overview of Participatory Rural Appraisal: URL: <http://www.fao.org/Participation/tools/PRA.html>

4.2 Examples of PRA techniques and how to apply them

4.2.1 Resource mapping

Mapping the resources is a method that allows identifying the resource base of the settlement. The participants must determine the content of the map themselves, concentrating on the things that are important for them. The maps can reflect: infrastructure (roads, houses, constructions), water resources, agricultural lands (types of cultures and locations), agricultural and environmental zones (soils, mountain zones, elevation changes), forests, pastures, stores, markets, medical clinics, schools and religious institutions, use of land for special goals (bus stop, cemetery, sacred places) and so on.

Goal:

- to learn about spatial characteristics of the rural settlement and its key resources;
- to learn the opinions of local residents about what they want to change.

Necessary materials: large sheet of paper, flip charts, markers of different colours. Sticks, leaves, stones, flour and sawdust can be used, or any other local materials.

Time: 3-4 hours.

How to do it:

1. Plan and organize the meeting for the entire settlement. Schedule the time for the meeting so that it is convenient for both men and women, and make sure to invite all socioeconomic groups of the population. Mapping the resources is a good method to start working on the project, as this simple exercise makes it possible to start a dialogue between the residents of the settlement and the organizers.
2. It is necessary to find a large meeting place and to clear the land. Ask the participants to draw a map of their community that shows the most important points. To make orientation easier, it is a good idea to map the roads. The easiest way is to start with placing some tokens (stones, leaves, and so on) for important, key places of the settlement on this map.
3. Ask the participants to draw other places on the map, places that are important for the village. For instance, schools, mosques, churches, hospitals, health care institutions, public administration, market, stores, kindergartens, places for regular gatherings, and so on.
4. Do not stop the participants until they stop by themselves. In the latter case, the organizer should ask questions that help to identify the objects for mapping.
5. Make sure that the tokens for different points on the map will be understandable to you when you will further analyze the map.
6. Try to add to the map legend for various signs and symbols drawn on the map.
7. When the map is complete, the organizer should ask the participants to describe and to discuss the peculiarities presented on the map. Ask about anything you do not understand.
8. In the end, the organizer can ask the participants to show the things that they want to see in their village, but are not in the map. In other words, to draw the village's future. This helps to get some preliminary ideas for the project, and to engage the residents into designing the project at the earliest stage.



Visualization during the resource mapping. Project 'Kulturlandschaft Hohenlohe', Germany

Advice:

- if participants find it hard to cope with the task, it is a good idea to draw for them a sample map;
- make sure that while you are on this task, if somebody expressed a proposal, you ask the others if they agree or disagree, or maybe they want to add something;
- the organizer's assistant must document all important points of the discussion, and other relevant information.

4.2.2 Walkabout the village

The method presupposes walking around the settlement's territory on a pre-set route together with local people. During the «stroll», the team members have informal conversations with people they meet on the way and learn their opinions concerning the resources that are visible. The stroll can also be used when identifying problems and opportunities (in relations to using resources and access to such resources at different sections of the route).

Goals:

- to familiarize the project staff with the settlement, with local residents and the surroundings;
- to learn better about how the information in the village is being spread (for instance, whether everyone received an invitation to the gathering (seminar));
- to get a first impression about the problems and about the settlement's potential;
- to secure informational foundation for conducting a seminar.

Key questions:

- What is the history of development of the village?
- How many residents are there in the village? How big are households and what do they like about the village?
- How dispersed is the village?
- What are the primary resources and utility services in the village?
- What problems are there in the village?
- Are there any groups of «outsiders» in the village (new settlers, ethnic groups)?
- Was everyone informed about the gathering and about the time when the first meeting would start?

Necessary materials: paper and pens to write down the information.

Time: depends on the territory that you need to walk around. If the village is dispersed, about 2-2.5 hours is needed.

Implementation:

- Divide the team into groups, 3-4 persons each. Ask one of the local residents to be the guide for the stroll, which must last at least 90 minutes.
- The group of local residents must include representatives of different ages and genders. If possible, form one group of women with a local female resident as a guide.



*Information collection using a “transect walk”.
Project 'Kulturlandschaft Hohenlohe', Germany*

- Take a walk in different directions, to outside of the village and, if possible, to the fields.
- During the walk, start asking general questions about the village (population, history).
- Avoid any haste, take a careful look at the surroundings (for instance, what cultures are being cultivated on the fields and in the gardens), infrastructure (roads, water-towers, and so on, what is the condition of such infrastructure objects), types of activities of the residents (who does what kind of work), what kinds of domestic animals they keep in the households (for instance, is there cattle or just some hens), how the houses are kept (well-maintained, clean, dirty or shabby houses, types of materials used for construction, and so on.).
- Discuss your observations with local residents who act as guides (for instance, ask about the reasons, population and about their professions, about the distances, and so on.)
- Talk to the local residents you meet during the walk and ask if they were informed about the tomorrow’s meeting. If not, in short explain them the goal of the village forum and invite them to participate.
- After the walk around the village, meet with other subgroups of your team to share your impressions.
- Generalize and document the collected information and use it to make the agenda of the forum more precise, and also use it as source of data for further analysis.
- If the tour is chosen along a transect, the collected information of the “transect walk” can be illustrated accordingly

Advice:

- The organizers' team should arrive in the first day around the lunch time, and walk around after the lunch.

- It is necessary to apply all efforts to find local residents to accompany you, otherwise the walk will not be as valuable.
- When you meet local residents during the walk, you should keep an informal, relaxing manner of conduct. Avoid awkward «interrogation situations», when the residents only answer your questions, instead of telling you freely about their life and what is important for them.
- The results of the walk must be generalized in the end of the same day, as the information gathered and the observations made can be necessary for planning of the next day.

4.2.3 Venn diagram

A venn diagram demonstrates which groups, structures, and organizations exist in the communities, and relations between people and these structures as seen by the local people themselves. The diagram is composed using circles of different sizes that are touching or overlapping, on a large sheet of paper; at that each circle symbolizes a separate structure, group of people, organization, and so on. The circles' size stands for the degree of importance of these structures in the life of the community, and the overlap zone between the circles stands for the degree of their contact, interaction and mutual participation in decision-making. This will help in articulation and implementation of the development initiatives at the community level, and in identification of the neglected people and groups who dwell in this community. The information reflected in the diagram can also help to identify what existing structures in the community can be engaged in joint development and implementation of projects, and to draw attention to weak connection with these or those structures as well as to discuss how to improve and strengthen the connection.

Goal:

- to identify organizations, structures, groups of people and individuals that play an important role in life of the community.
- to determine how all these different components interact with each other from the point of view of cooperation, information sharing, and service providing.

Key questions:

- What organizations /institutions /structures/groups/important people are working/acting in your communities?
- Which of them do you consider the most important? Why?
- What groups deal with... (here you specify the major topic of the research, for instance, with the help to the needy, with education, health care, road safety, and so on).
- Which organizations work together?
- Are there any groups that include only females or only males?

- Are there individuals or groups of people that are excluded from groups, or those who do not have an opportunity to become part of such groups, organizations, etc.

Implementation:

If time permits, it is useful to conduct the exercise separately with male, female, and mixed group. Also, it is necessary to engage people from different social strata of the community into the process.

Secure availability of the necessary materials (large sheet of paper, markers, circles made of coloured paper of different sizes, scissors, glue, pencils, eraser). If the participants work with coloured paper, they will have easier time making changes to the diagram, that is, to move the circles on the sheet. If they want to draw circles with markers, it is better first to use pencil, to be able to make changes.

Explain to the participants the objectives of the method described above.

Ask the participants to name all organizations, structures, groups, etc. within their community, or located elsewhere and working with them (as they do, one of the participants writes down all mentioned components on a separate sheet of paper).

On a big sheet of paper, at the centre you draw a large circle, which represents the community itself and its members.

Ask the participants, which of the mentioned components (organizations, groups, etc.) are the most important for them. The most important ones are represented by big circles, the less important ones – in form of small circles, by degree of importance. Thus, the size of the circle that stands for a certain organization represents the degree of its importance in the life of the community.

Each circle must be marked with a corresponding name (school, shop, and so on).

Ask the participants to discuss to what degree these or those structures are useful to them.

During this entire time, the facilitator and the record-keeper must listen carefully to the participants' explanations, and the record-keeper must make notes on the opinions about why some components are considered important by the participants, and others are considered less so, or not important at all.

Ask them to place the circles on the sheet in such a way, that degree of interaction and participation of these components are marked by the distance between the circles. Organizations, with which contacts are almost non-existent, must be located far from the central circle that represents the community. Those components that are a part of the community itself can be located inside the central circle.

Contact between all components can be also shown in the following way:

Circles far from each other: no contact or cooperation, or very weak contacts

Circles close to each other: the contact is in place, but very weak

Circles touching each other: certain cooperation is in place

Circles overlapping: close cooperation

Ask whether among the specified components there are ones where only females or only males are involved, or those that provide services exclusively for males or exclusively for females. If yes, mark these circles with corresponding symbols for men or women.

Ask the participants, which components are directly involved in the sphere of the topic studied (health, education, natural disasters, and so on), and mark these components with the corresponding markings.

When time permits, ask the participants to discuss strengths and weaknesses of the components that they consider the most important.

Note: if the participant have hard time understanding the method, it is useful to draw a sample Venn diagram for them.

4.2.4 Method of tokens

Goal:

- Setting the priorities for the identified problems and objectives.

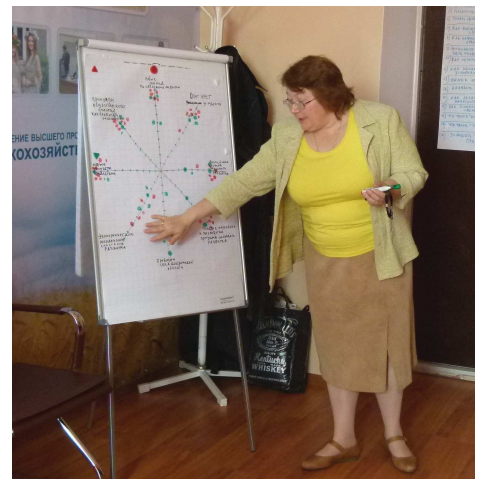
Necessary materials:

- flip chart, markers, sticky small tokens (one can use beans, but for this the flip chart needs to be placed horizontally, not vertically, that is, on the table, on the floor, etc.).

How to do:

- On the flip chart, write the names (of problems, means to address them, types of daily activities, etc., which were identified using the methods above).
- Each of the participants is given a set number of tokens (5-10 tokens).

We tell the participant the following: «Imagine that these tokens are money. Each of you has 10 tokens. You can see on the flip chart the names of several issues that need addressing (for instance, absence of washstands in the cafeteria, public WC out of order, cold classrooms in the school, school too far from home, and so on). Imagine that you can use these money (tokens) to address some of these issues. Think which problems are the most important for you, place on the relevant section the most of your tokens, for less important ones, place less tokens, and for the issues that you think can wait, do not place any tokens at all.



Estimation of goals achievement using method of tokens. Pilot training, Kostroma, Russia May 21-24, 2012 г.

4.3 Basic rules of conducting of seminars/trainings

A participatory process at all stages of the project cycle presupposes wide use of interactive methods of work with the population. Many works dedicated to the interactive techniques place special emphasis on the level of preparation and qualification of people or groups that implement them. Often this process is called “facilitation”. And the person who is implementing it is called “facilitator”. The use of a foreign name, we consider, is justified here, as organizing group work (seminars, trainings, forums) is hard to define with one word like organizing, training, conducting, moderation, etc.

An English word “to facilitate” means to ease, to assist, to conduce. But direct definition of the facilitator’s work how «to make things easier» is oversimplified. The process of facilitation leads to increased effectiveness of group work, to engagement and interest of participants, to reaching their true potential.

Contentions and misunderstanding often arise between the participants at all stages of the cycle of designing projects/programmes for rural territories development, including joint discussion of issues and problems. Somebody talks too much, someone’s ideas are not heard; a lot of time is spent for discussion of the issues that are not the focus of the meeting; the decisions are not adopted. To come to constructive decisions, the process of discussion needs to be managed, and the actions of participants of the meeting need to be coordinated. Such process is performed by a **facilitator**, who manages the process of the discussion, engages the participants into discussion and structures the group work. The facilitator might not be an expert in the issues discussed and does not train participants, yet he or she must help the group in achieving their objectives, resolving the problem or achieving consent to the participants' mutual satisfaction. Thus, the facilitator:

- creates the setting where people feel safe and interested in participating in this process;
- keeps the group focused on the goals;
- controls adherence to the scheduled agenda timing;
- conducts the process so that the objectives are achieved, and in the order which to the greatest degree facilitates achievement of the desired results;
- manages the process so that people have easy time working together.

Therefore, the facilitator addresses a twofold task, promoting the comfortable atmosphere and fruitfulness of the discussion. From the group's point of view, a facilitator is the one who helps

Facilitation — is professional organization of the process of group work, directed at the group’s clarification and achievement of the set goals

...I often think that the best facilitator was described by the Chinese philosopher Lao-tzu more than twenty five hundred years ago.

*Among the rulers, the best is the one whose existence is barely noticed;
the one who is obeyed and exalted is not as good;
The ruler who is despised is the worst.*

*«People do not respect the one who does not respect people».
A wise ruler after achieving his goal does not glorify his labors,
And the people say: «We did this ourselves».*

*Carl Rogers. Freedom to Learn.
Moscow:1994. p.63*

the group to understand the common goal and supports positive group dynamics in achievement of this goal in the process of discussion, without defending one of the opinions or parties. Facilitators hold the meeting within the schedule framework, and help to follow the agenda closely, can arrange it so that they are listened to, create environment for active communication, constructively set out the problems, make summaries and seek arguments. An experienced and successful facilitator knows how to stay unbiased, create opportunities for constructive dialogue between all participants. He or she is an outsider, and must stay neutral during the entire time of the meeting.

To preserve the positive sides and strengths of the role, to survive and not to be injured due to its downsides, the facilitator in this case needs complete impartiality and needs to be focused on the objectives. For him or her, it is not important if the group loves him/her and makes much of her, or hates and curses him/her. The facilitator does not develop personal relations with the members of the team, but is friendly and equable with all. He or she does not know what the product of the team's joint activity will look like. Whatever happens in the group, the facilitator is cool-headed and is focused on only one goal: the set objective must be resolved with high quality, without losses, and timely. The facilitator's attention is mainly focused on securing high quality of the process.



Didactic Seminar, Project Tempus-RUDECO, Germany, November 2010.

When necessary, the facilitator uses the entire range of the methods at his/her disposal:

- heuristic conversation;
- brainstorm;
- business games;
- work in pairs;
- work around the circle;
- work in small groups;
- exercises for development of team work skills;
- communication exercises, training of communication on partnership basis;
- exercises for development of creativity, sensitivity, dynamic thinking.

Depending on the objectives and on the stage of development of the team that is being formed, the facilitator chooses the appropriate tool [8].

There is no universal recipe for facilitation, as there is no just one correct way to conduct group work. This depends on the group, the subject and the facilitator's personal style. But there are some general pieces of advice, recommendations and techniques that you can use.

Facilitator's ethics:

- to respect each member of the group;
- to assume that any saying includes a valuable idea;
- to explain the role of a facilitator, so that the participants do not view him/her as an authority;
- to seek consent with each participant and to use collective processes for decision-making until consent with each one is achieved, one way or another;
- to work with people of other culture, using their knowledge of local traditions, customs, rituals. Do not assume – ask;
- to use humour without humiliating people;
- not to use facilitation methods to control the directions of the group work, but to help the group in working together for achieving results;
- to trust the group – to have an inner feeling that the group's resources are sufficient for achieving its goals.

A good facilitator:

- expresses interest to things that the people want to propose;
- listens, watches and feels – 100-percent presence;
- is punctual, even if it is necessary to wait for the group to gather;
- does not associate himself/herself with any specific person from the group (based on age, gender, etc.);
- persistent, yet not domineering – knows when it is necessary to intervene;
- feels calm when a conflict emerges, and always encourages participants to speak their mind openly, because differences are a natural result of having different characters, views and opinions;
- understands the common goals of the group;
- encourages the group to continue working, going through a long or hard process, confirming the progress and acknowledging achievement of objectives;
- behaves naturally and encourages the participants to express their opinions.

To create a supportive environment for the participants:

It is necessary to avoid the «school class» style, where the participants are sitting in rows and the facilitator is before them. The discussion goes better when participants can see each others' faces;

1. It is very important to protect the room or other place where the group work is conducted from interruptions and distractions;
2. To use the so-called «ice-breakers», the techniques helping the participants to feel comfortable, to give the people an opportunity to laugh or to move, in general «to break the ice»;
3. To divide large groups into smaller ones;
4. To intervene when somebody begins to dominate the group;
5. To encourage feedback. One of the feedback methods is the following – go around the room and collect from each participant one positive comment and one comment expressing constructive criticism;
6. To prepare good questions, meaning the questions that cannot be answered with «yes» or «no», at that these questions must not be unclear. Be ready to rephrase the questions several times in several different ways, or to give an illustrative example;
7. If the topic requires more than a 30-minute discussion, it needs to be divided into smaller parts;
8. If the discussion deviated from the topic, it is necessary to repeat the last question and/or to acknowledge that other questions are important, and to write that down on the «parking» (large sheet, blackboard, etc.) for later consideration;
9. To record the results of the discussion in drawings, flip charts, in reports, to make audio or video recording to save the discussion and its results in the participants' memory.

4.4 Test questions to the Topic 4

1. Name the basis for emergence of the method of participatory rural appraisal.
2. List basic principles of the participatory rural appraisal method.
3. Which tools of the participatory rural appraisal method are used at the different stages of the project cycle?
4. What is «facilitation» and «facilitator»?
5. Identify the facilitator's basic function.
6. List the rules for conducting group work.
7. What is the «brainstorm» method?

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5 European and Russian experience of the population's involvement in the creation and implementation of rural development programmes

This topic considers the basics of organization of the LEADER programme in the European Union; experiences and mechanism of the population's engagement into rural territories development programmes coordination in Russia.

Questions considered:

5.1. The LEADER programme – mechanism for implementation of the European Union participatory rural development policy.

5.2. Rural population's participation in rural development in the Russian Federation (experience of rural development projects).

5.2.1 Project «Securing employment and increase in earnings of the rural population» 1999-2003.

5.2.2 Project “Local self-government and civic participation in rural Russia” (2004-2006).

5.2.3. Local community development foundations.

5.2.4. Examples of other project activities on the population's engagement into the rural development in Russia

5.1 The LEADER programme – participatory mechanism of the European Union rural development policy

One of the important components of the uniform agrarian policy of the European Union is supporting the initiative, which provided for the rural population's active participation in development and implementation of rural territories development programmes/projects.

This direction of the Common Agricultural Policy is being implemented by means of the LEADER programme, which has over 20 years of experience. LEADER stands for «Liaison entre actions de développement de l'économie rurale», that in French means «Interconnection between the actions for the development of rural economy». The idea on which the programme is based, was to engage efforts and resources from everyone who is able to contribute anything to rural territories development by means of forming partnership between the public, private and community sectors at the local level.

In 1990, this idea, heard from a group of the European Commission officials, was quite innovative. At that time, the basic programmes affecting the development of rural territories of Europe were implemented within the framework of the Common Agricultural Policy of the European Union, and were aimed, mainly, towards support of farmers; expenses for environmental protection and support of rural settlements were minor. Some funds came from the regional fund,

whose programmes were mainly oriented towards cities, the industry, and large infrastructural projects.

As the employment rate in the agrarian sector of the European countries was rapidly declining, and many small rural enterprises had difficulties because of the population's migration and competition with network stores, came the understanding of the fact that other economy sectors in rural areas need to be developed. At the same time, changes in lifestyle and development in information technologies also facilitated development of rural territories, for instance, development of the remote employment sector and rural tourism.

In 1991, the LEADER programme was presented as an initiative of the European Union. This means that the programme was administrated directly from Brussels, unlike other large European programmes, such as the regional or social foundations, which are administrated at the level of the European Union member states. Such approach secured direct access of local partnerships to the European Union funding, without the need to wait for their projects to be approved by national or regional governments. The requirements were to establish a formal partnership and existence of an action plan. The programme's Success in the first programme period (1991-1995) lead to LEADER II extending of the geographical coverage in the second programme period (1996-1999). Finally, in 2000 the LEADER programme+ was introduced, which ended in 2006, and which provided for some administrative procedural simplification, with simultaneous extension of the programme to all countries of EU-25.

The programme's particular value was the fact that it caused establishment of many close partnerships between governmental, private and civil sectors. Where in 2000-2006 the total number of local proactive groups in the EC-15 countries was equal to 893, later, taking into account 12 more countries that joined the EU, their number increased to about 1,500.

In addition, inhabitants of rural settlements realized that they can improve their lives as a result of their own initiative, without expecting any charity from outside. Local administrations realized that they cannot generate jobs without the local population's support.

As a result of successful implementation of the programme, in the period of 2007-2013 it transformed from the European Commission initiative into a component of every rural territories development programme within the framework of the Unified Agrarian Policy of the European Union.

LEADER goals, principles and methodology

The main goal of the programme is engaging population into the activities of building their own future, which will enable consolidation of the dispersed rural human resources. In addition, the approach is based on discovering unused potentials and local resources of specific territories, to achieve sustainable development. In the traditional administrative model, residents of remote or backward regions are used to passively wait for assistance from administrative bodies of different levels – be it local, regional, national or international. The approach of the LEADER programme suggests the opposite – residents of rural areas are viewed as the best experts, knowledgeable of local peculiarities and of their future. The government acts, as do non-governmental organizations,

as a catalyst of development ideas, assists in identifying the ones that have an important added value, and provides support for implementation of these ideas.

The LEADER programme is conducted through organization of local active groups, which can have different organizational forms – non-governmental and non-commercial organizations, partnerships, etc.

The programme's effect is based on seven **main principles**, which define the requirements for creating local active groups, their manner of actions and guidelines for selecting specific projects to be funded:

- territorial – local development strategies must be developed for specific, clearly defined territories;
- use of a «bottom up» approach, that is, development of the local initiatives, including broad engagement of citizens and participation of all stakeholders;
- public-private partnerships must be created in the form of Local Action Groups;
- activities must be innovation-oriented;
- intersectoral approach: there are no limitations on types of activity, rather, the synergy between different sectors is sought, which promotes interaction between them and joint projects;
- interregional (inside the country between different local active groups) and/or transnational (between local action groups from different countries) cooperation is essential;
- a local action groups must be a part of a rural network at the national and European levels, as it promotes information exchange and dissemination of positive experiences.

Methodology

The participants of the LEADER programme are rural communities, which form economically, geographically, and socially one entity, that is not within the same borders as administrative units, at the same time the aggregated territory must include communities in their entirety.

Most often, the coverage territory for LEADER must include a territory with the total number of the population not exceeding 100/150 thousand residents, with density of the population at least 150 persons per sq. kilometre.

Local action groups must include representatives of all social groups (peasants, entrepreneurs, local authorities, and so on), who reside on the territory covered by the programme. Prevalence of the administration representatives in the group is not permitted. The project must provide for the funds for media coverage of the project and its presentation to broad circles of the public.

Local development strategies must take into account peculiarities of the specific rural territory, its weaknesses and comparative strengths. The programme is open for the communities

that had never participated in it before. Those who participated in the programme before do not have a priority in the competition, only the best ideas are supported.

Local action groups, as a rule, have 1-2 employees, who are responsible for the application procedure, public relations, information policy, payments and secretary work for the board of directors.

The directions for activities for each local action group are defined by the local development plan, which is developed for 6-7 years using the population engagement methods (forums, seminars, and so on). In implementing of the actual project, 7 clear stages can be identified: identification of the problem or need, development of a detailed plan with the goals, scheme and implementation schedule. After this, the board of directors of the group takes the decision on funding, taking into account compliance with the criteria and the project's possible influence on the local social and economic environment. At the implementation stage, the project undergoes monitoring and evaluation of the project results. General results and long-term influence are evaluated by independent experts after the board of directors confirmed that the allocated funds were spent for the specified goals, and that the project was implemented using the specified methods.

Project applications are selected by the board of directors of the local action group, which usually consists of 10-20 members, who represent at least two groups in equal parts: 1) rural enterprises and associations (private sector) and 2) local administration (public sector). It must be mentioned that none of the group members, and no political, ideological, religious or ethnic group can have an opportunity to control decision-making. To avoid this, the board members are re-elected annually by all members of the local action group at the general meeting. In addition, for instance, in Finland, no member of the director's board can be re-elected more than 5 times.

Organization

Administration of the LEADER programme slightly differ in different countries, and depend on the structure of governmental bodies and of the bodies of local self-government. In general, it can be said that the programme can be effectively managed in different administrative systems.

For instance, in the Czech Republic and Finland the agencies of the regional Ministry are rather strong, and they sometimes disagree with the applications of the local action groups. In Ireland, where the programme is in effect for a rather prolonged period, the management model is simpler, and local active groups have full control over funding of the projects, within the limits of the budget allocated to them. Since 2003, in Ireland the Ministry of rural development and local self-government issues has been operating, which administrates the LEADER programme. In some of the European Union countries, the programme is administered by the Ministry of Agriculture.



LEADER Project. Reconstruction of historical fountain. Bronnen, Oberschwaben, Bavaria, Germany

In Finland and Ireland, the intersectoral committee for rural policy is successfully operating, which consists of various Ministries, with the purpose of preparing collective decisions, and for evaluation of the socioeconomic policy's influence over rural areas in various sectors. The LEADER Support Units secure interaction, training, information support and other services for local action groups. The municipalities' role is stronger in Finland, where they supply up to 20% of funding.

The organizations that are responsible for implementation of the LEADER programme, in various countries have several monitoring committees and working groups for monitoring the results and improving the programme implementation mechanism. Local action groups and their projects are constantly subjected to the accounting audits or administrative inspections that are conducted by different administrative bodies of all levels of management. The internal and external evaluation programmes are conducted at least once per programme period (2000-2006, 2007-2013).

An important organizational element for programme implementation is the local action groups' obligatory participation in operation of so-called rural networks. For example, in compliance with article 67 of the provision of the European commission No.1698/2005 as of September 20, 2005, the European Network for Rural Development was created. It integrates the national networks, organizations, and administrations that participate in rural development of the European Union countries. The European Network for Rural Development was launched in October of 2008 as a coordination center for participants of the rural territories development process in the European Union.

At the level of the European Union, this network's goals are defined as follows:

- collection, analysis, and dissemination of information about the measures for rural territories development in the EU;
- collection and dissemination of positive experience of rural development;
- providing information on the development of the EU rural territories and third countries;
- organizing meetings and seminars at the community level for those who are actively involved in the rural development;
- establishing expert networks with the purpose of sharing experience and supporting implementation and evaluation of the rural development policy;
- supporting national networks and initiatives on interaction between the countries.

The network activities are directed at supporting the activities of the corresponding administrations and institutions, rural networks, local action groups, organizations of the European Union, and other institutions and actors involved in rural development.

Each country-member of the EU created its own national rural network of organizations and administrations involved in development of rural territories. The volumes of their funding from the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development can comprise up to 4% from the total expenses under the national programmes. From the fund, expenses for the following items are financed: structures necessary for creation of national network; network administration; organizing of sharing

of experience and dissemination of information; development of training programmes for local action groups in the process of preparing and providing technical support in inter-territorial and international cooperation.



LEADER Project „Ostalblamm“
Production and marketing of lamb meet

Financial aspects

Compared to the programmes and projects of other European Commission structural funds, the LEADER programme's share is minor. Within the Common Agricultural Policy framework in the programme period of 2007-2013, LEADER comprises only about 5%, and the greatest share in that amount is ecological payments to farmers. Yet, the programme funding from the funds of the European Union is constantly increasing: 1.5 billion Euros - LEADER II (1996-1999), 2.1 billion Euros – LEADER+ (2000-2006), 69.8 billion Euros – in the programme period of 2007-2013.

Funding of the programme by the European Union requires co-funding from the national funds, which can originate from different sources. On the one hand, these are public funds from national or regional budgets, funds of municipalities. In their stead, or in addition to them, there can be private funds of enterprises or non-commercial organizations. In many cases, co-funding is secured by founders of rural development projects themselves.

Average budget of a local action group

In the programme period of 2000-2006, in the EU-15 countries the average budget of a local action group was equal to 5.35 million Euros, with huge variations between the countries. The largest average budget was in Sweden – 12.4 million Euros per local group, in Spain and in Greece – 9 million Euros. The smallest local group budget was in Belgium and in France – less than 1.8 million Euros. In general, within the framework of LEADER+, large infrastructural projects were not financed; the priority was given to small and medium projects with the budget of less than several thousand Euros.

Average budget of the project

The average budget of projects within the framework of the LEADER programme is also rather low. The strategy of the majority of successful local action groups is usually the population's mobilization in the location. This means that the budget, most likely, will be divided and distributed into several areas, rather than into a couple of large projects. For instance, in 2000-2006 in one of the local action groups of Ireland almost half of the projects had the budget of less than 2 thousand Euros.

External evaluation showed that small budgets and precise, specific goals made the projects of the LEADER programme the most economically efficient of those that are co-funded from the European Union funds. Thus, the results of external evaluation contradict the opinion that the small

scale means only «financial spraying» with limited results in each case. All such projects cannot be completely successful, yet the projects that yielded good results generate effect, which is sufficient to compensate for lack of success in some other projects. The positive effect is also affirmed by the subsequent active and voluntary population's engagement, which is typical for the programme projects. This effect is supplemented by the fact that a small effective project after having been implemented can lead to other, larger projects that receive funding from other sources. For instance, in the operation area of the local group, Joutsenten Reitti (Finland), the village of Illo always had difficulties with supply of quality drinking water. The village development association implemented the project costing 5,620 Euros, and this resulted in public (from the municipality and the Ministry of the Environment) and private investments (household owners) for construction of water supply and plumbing in the amount of 1.2 million Euros.

Major results of the LEADER programme implementation.

It is often difficult to measure the results of implementation of the LEADER programme projects in numbers. One of such results is creation of favourable conditions for local development through active engagement of local residents and stakeholders. Yet this requires adequate support on different levels of the governmental administration. The approach «bottom up» requires not a smaller, yet different support «top down»: creating conditions and motivation instead ordering and control.

Creation of networks makes sharing information easier not only inside the country, but also between the countries, promotes active information exchange between different governmental agencies and local organizations, helps to receive support from universities and research institutions.

The results of intermediary monitoring of implementation of the LEADER programme in specific countries showed that the most important result is changing the residents' behaviours from being consumers to becoming active participants who secure development of their rural settlements, as well as changes in the mechanism of interaction between different stakeholders.

The projects' scale and type of participants in the LEADER programme allows categorizing this programme as one that satisfies needs that cannot be satisfied by other programmes. Many stakeholders see this programme as the mechanism that takes a niche not covered by other programmes, especially for small-scale projects. Formation of networks and cooperation allows to reach critical mass (in research, development, marketing and facilitation, in training), which is usually lacking when small projects are implemented.

In the end, the LEADER programme promotes more effective use of the area's internal resources (physical and human potential, environment), taking into account historical and traditional peculiarities, and because of this it preserves its value for the generations to come.

5.2 Participation of the rural population in rural development in the Russian Federation (experience of rural development projects)

The necessity of engaging rural population into the process of rural territories development became obvious in the process of socioeconomic transformation of the 1990-ties. The new economic paradigm required shifts in social relations. It became obvious that for successful rural development it is necessary to form local self-government, to form the civic society and its institutions in the rural area.

In the pre-revolutionary Russia (before 1917), the rural self-government was run by the community, and the peasants' regional administration did only administrative work. The community's central function was to organize the procedure of land use and distribution of taxes and levies between community members. The latter included the so called secular needs, that is, in modern notions, objectives of securing of everyday functioning of local rural communities. A *zemstvo* before the revolution did not have a level under it; neither *gubernia*, nor *uyezd zemstvo* were systematically involved in rural development, except for agronomic assistance to the rural population.

Among the institutions of the pre-revolutionary rural self-government, one should mention cooperatives, in particular, credit cooperation, and cooperatives in the area of milk and flax processing. Large cooperation unions, for instance, the Union of credit partnerships of the flax growing district of Moskovskaya gubernia, were supporting the manufacturing process by providing loans, purchase and processing of agricultural products; moreover, they were also doing something we now call development of the rural infrastructure, namely: providing the population with consumer goods, cultural and educational activities (folk theatre, local periodicals, sending officials to retraining courses), housing construction for the union's employees, construction of 130-kilometer long telephone line, and so on.

After the February revolution of 1917, the institute of *volost zemstvo* was created, which was a body of local self-government at the grass-roots level. Yet, this institute could not be deployed under the conditions of the civil war, and in the middle of the 1920-ties, in the process of the administrative reform, was abrogated.

In the Soviet era, rural administrations had administrative functions, and citizens' initiatives other than appeals for labour feats were not exactly welcomed. Development of the rural local social infrastructure in fact became a function of the local rural enterprises, *sovkhozes* and *kolkhozes*.

In the *perestroika* years (1985-1991), the situation in organizing of rural life changed radically. Administration over development of the rural infrastructure was transferred from the enterprises to the bodies of local self-government. At that, the legislation in the area of local self-government changed three times. Presently, the legal basis for rural self-government is the Federal Law of the Russian Federation as of October 6, 2003, N 131-ФЗ "On General Principles of Organization of Local Self-Government in the Russian Federation", which became effective in 2006, and in some regions - in 2009. The Law universalized organization of local self-governments on the entire territory of the Russian Federation. In rural locations, rural settlement became the basic units of self-government - «one or several rural populated localities on the same territory

(villages, hamlets, steadings, kishlaks, auls, and other rural settlements), in which local self-government is effected by the population directly and (or) through elected or other bodies of local self-government». At the same time, after the reform of local self-government some villages became part of city settlements, and are now administrated by municipal administrations. The latest law preserves the institute of territorial public self-government and of citizens' congregation. Territorial public self-government can exist in settlements of any type, both in villages and in cities, and is quite developed in some districts.

In addition, by now the draft of the federal targeted programme «Sustainable development in rural areas till 2020» has been developed, which will substitute the federal targeted programme «Social development of villages», within the framework of the second state programme for 2013-2020. Grants supporting local initiatives are assumed to become one of the new programme's mechanisms. It is necessary to define the grant awarding procedure, to identify who will be able to bring forward such initiatives, who will be able to be a grant receiver.

Further we will discuss the characteristics of participatory mechanisms applied within the framework of some rural development projects, which have been already implemented in our country.

5.2.1 Project «Supporting employment and increase in earnings of the rural population» (1999-2003)

The project was implemented with support of the Department for International Development of the United Kingdom in Leningradskaya and Orlovskaya oblasts. Within the project's framework, work was conducted with the bodies of territorial public self-government, as well as with associations of citizens, during the assemblies, with rural residents, with rural libraries to inform village residents about their rights and opportunities for participation in rural development.

Territorial public self-government

Territorial public self-government (TPS) is one of the forms of population's participation in local self-government. Along with TPS, there are many other forms, such as non-governmental organizations and public commissions in the issues of local self-government, assemblies and conferences of citizens, public hearings, public committees, supervisory boards of municipal enterprises, and so on. (See section 2).

Territorial public self-government is a local initiative, self-organizing of citizens based on the location of their residence for independent, responsibility-taking implementation of their initiatives concerning the issues of local significance, directly by the population or through the bodies of TPS that it forms. The peculiarity of TPS lies in territorial limits, as only residents of the given territory are TPS participants. TPS is different from public organizations and associations as it is not regulated by the law on public associations. Its activities are defined by the normative enactments formed by municipal authorities. The procedure for establishing and activities of TPS is described in the charter.

The legal status of territorial public self-government is defined in article 27 of the Federal Law 131-Φ3 «On General Principles of Organization of Local Self-Government in the Russian

Federation”. The Federal Law provisions are developed in local legislation. Practically in all regions, the laws are adopted that regulate activities of the bodies of local self-government and, in particular, of TPS. At the level of rayons, the status of TPS bodies is defined in the charters of municipal origin. In some regions, programmes for support of TPS bodies have been adopted (Archangelskaya oblast). In a number of rayons, targeted programmes have been adopted to create and organize operation of TPS bodies for resolving of social problems of the rural areas.

Within the project's framework, the charter of a TPS body was created (for a multi-apartment building committee in village Rassvet of Lodeynopolskiy rayon in Leningradskaya oblast) to determine the authority of TPS bodies, which was used as a model for TPS bodies in Leningradskaya oblast.

Case study: Multi-apartment housing and street committees as a form of support for rural housing space in Lodeinopolskiy rayon

Initiated by residents of Domozhirovskaya volost, in the village of Rassvet, a multi-apartment housing committee was established. It was chaired by the village head, L.V.Smachnaya. The housing in the village of Rassvet consists predominantly of multi-apartment buildings. The multi-apartment housing committee included representatives of each house, seven persons in total. Liudmila Smachnaya, is an enthusiastic woman, who is not indifferent to her neighbors' problems. The committee established under her leadership conducted a subbotnik to clean the territory and to conduct sanitary inspection of apartments where troubled families live. Celebration of the anniversary of the village of Rassvet was organized. In coordination with the rayon employment centre and with the local municipal unitary enterprise Combine of communal enterprises, refurbishment of building entrances was organized, with engagement of labour and funds of the village residents.

The local administration supports the housing committee's activities. The village of Rassvet's experience was extended to other populated localities of the rayon that have multi-apartment houses.

Case study: Rural information centre as a form of support for rural libraries of Lodeynopolskiy rayon

In the district library of Lodeynopolskiy rayon, the center of municipal information and issues of rayon local self-government was created. But rural libraries are formally independent, the central rayon library only provides methodological guidance. Due to remoteness of their housing, rural residents have limited access to services of the rayon library. For this reason, it was resolved to organize the rural information centre in Domozhirovskaya volost under the library of the village of Rassvet.

In the library, an open round table was organized, where the volost residents discussed possible directions of the information centre's work. The first round table gathered 14 persons. The round table participants decided that the rural information centre must provide local residents with information concerning:

- structure and functions of the local self-government;

- legal aspects of the agricultural reform;
- the rights of owners of land shares and property shares;
- the population's rights in the area of social security.

A bulletin board and exhibition of reference guides were prepared on the issues of agricultural enterprises reformation; there is a file with copies of legislative enactments of federal, oblast and district level on local self-government.

Information about creation of the information centre was posted in public locations. People started visiting the library, and during the month following creation of the information centre, over 30 requests from residents were submitted to the centre.

On residents' request, one more round table was set up, with a lawyer invited. About 35 people attended this round table. For over two hours, the lawyer answered the people's questions regarding the problems with lease of land shares, about the benefits for payment of utility services for different categories of rural residents (today, in some households payment for communal services is up to 2/5 of the family budget expenses), about the workers' rights in case of employer-caused downtime, and about many other things. The round table participants expressed great interest to the work of the information centre.

Case study: Hobby groups and other non-governmental organizations

Support of the existing and creating of new NGOs helps consolidate the rural community, change the attitude to social problems and to objects of the social sphere.

In Novosilskiy rayon of Orlovskaya oblast, the women's club "Nadezhda" (Hope) was established; it has been successfully operating ever since. The research conducted on the territory of Novosilskiy rayon showed that the majority of rural women who reside in the rayon, due to various reasons, are unemployed. To address the issue of female unemployment, the project specialist initiated, in cooperation with the oblast department of the employment services, establishment of the club for unemployed rural women "Nadezhda". On the starting stage, the club's main goal was to help find employment for its members or to get them self-employed. This goal was achieved. In addition, when creating the women's club, the specialist supported the women's civil initiative in various aspects of sustainable rural development. This was done through systematic trainings and seminars in different areas: "Starting your own business: legal aspects", "Establishing an NGO", "How territorial self-government bodies work", "Development of folk arts and crafts", "Agrotourism marketing", and many others.

The club's continuous work empowered many women to spearhead creating on the territory of their rural administrations of some forms of citizens' informal associations that would address the issues of functioning of the social sphere and utility infrastructure objects, to draw the community's attention to resolving of the problems. Street committees were created in the village of Viazhi, a community council in the village of Zarechye, women's and children's clubs in the village of Prudy.

Non-governmental organizations can bring together not only women, but also motorists, veterans, people with special needs, and so on. The key in this work is promoting care for others in local communities and contributing to the resolution of social problems at the level of one's abilities.

5.2.2 Project «Local self-government and civic participation in rural Russia» (2004-2006)

The project's goal was to familiarize residents of the villages with the new law on local self-government and the opportunities and rights this law granted to them. The project was implemented in 22 rural municipal formations on the territory of three regions – the Perm Territory, Penzenskaya oblast, and the Republic of Adygeya.

As early as at the stage of its discussion, this law already stipulated extension of civic engagement; and when it became effective it seemed like a good opportunity to integrate the mechanisms of public participation into the budgeting process, and into designing of the municipality development plans. The project showed that at any randomly selected rural territories the local population's active involvement into the budgeting process, selection of the development priorities and implementation of development plans for rural settlements was quite possible.

Within the project's framework, the following mechanisms were used to engage the public:

- the community was engaged into the process of municipal education budgeting; for this, the most interested individuals formed spearhead groups, public meetings were conducted, population participated in the public hearings, and the work was conducted with the aid of specially trained consultants;
- priorities were identified for development of rural settlements, and plans were made to increase the quality of the municipal services,
- development funds were created for local rural communities, or the activities of existing funds was extended to cover the rural areas.

In the project process, many training seminars were conducted for municipal employees, rural residents, and consultants. The programmes of the training seminars were developed by the Urban Institute, Washington, and later adapted by the specialists from the Moscow Institute of Urban Economy. The training was conducted in the form of interactive seminars and public meetings.

The meetings were moderated by the specially prepared local residents – rural municipal consultants. The rural consultants were trained beforehand, and this training included not only information about the budgeting processes, about the new law and how it can be applied, but also training in the field of methodology of working with people, managing dialogue, organizing interactive meetings and seminars. To support the municipal consultants, the so-called working groups were established, which included rural deputies and local activists. What is noteworthy is that in compliance with the new law that has become effective, for the first time deputies were elected for rural areas. Before that, deputies usually had little understanding of what they should do in the rural municipality.

The project demonstrated that both the population and the rural administration were open and ready for the dialogue. The training promoted broad exchange of opinions between the local administration and the population. Speaking very generally, the pattern they followed was the following:

1. Description and realization of the current situation and identification of the problems that exist;
2. Analysis of the identified problems, their internal causes and their connection with the background situation;
3. Searching for ways to resolve the identified problems.

Analysis of the situation in each particular settlement and realization of the main problems was taking place at the public gathering, organized using the methods of visual information sharing. In the hall of a local village club house or school, display boards were set up on the walls. On these boards information was provided; also, people were given an opportunity to speak up to express their vision.

On the first board, general information about the goals of the specific public gathering and project was given. On the second stand, people were offered to share their opinion about their community. As hints, questions like this were used: «Who are we?», «What are special things that we have?», «What is our settlement known for?». Any participant of the gathering could write down anything he or she thinks, so in fact the method of brainstorm was used.

On the next stand, analysis was started. It was offered to identify the community's positive characteristics. The hint question was: «What do I like most about my settlement?». The participants had an opportunity to share their subjective evaluation of the positive characteristics of their settlement, and to evaluate its strong sides.

The next stand continues the analysis, but this time the topic is negative things it is necessary to understand and eliminate. Thus, the gathering's participants are brought to identify the problems. Problems must be realized and named. After this, the analysis goes deeper. The identified problems can be divided into the problems of economic nature, problems of social nature and problems related to management methods. We must note that problems can be analyzed from a different point of view: for instance, basing on their «cost» – how much funds and efforts it takes to resolve the problem; basing on the level of competence – within whose competence the resolution of this particular problem is, and so on. The participants of the gathering express their wishes and proposals on improving the economic and social development of the settlement, and comment on what has to be done first. Separately, such spheres are singled out as the condition of the utility infrastructure of the village and what can be done to improve it, as well as their wishes concerning municipal administration. The contents and the number of stands can be different, but the main idea is to create the atmosphere of communication, where all participants feel comfortable and are ready for the dialogue, at the same time receiving new knowledge about local self-government and on what role they can play in it (Kuli Sh., Achkurin. 2007). The information received during such gathering was then analyzed by the members of the working group specially formed from the active residents of the village, and was discussed with the head of local self-government.

The rural consultants were trained in techniques of analysis and rating of problems based on their priority. Such analysis served as the basis for composing and comparing the lists of the most important issues, and issues that are the easiest to resolve. The lists received in the result were compared with the powers and resources of the bodies of local self-government. In the process of such analysis, people were able to better understand what issues are within the competence of the

bodies of local self-government in the village, and what issues are within the competence of the higher level bodies, what resources are available in the specific settlement to resolve the identified problems.

The next step is composing the action plan to resolve the problems that can be resolved on the local level. Such plan is a description of the sequence of actions. To goal of formalization of the intentions is to help the community work in a specific priority sphere (for instance, to improve roads or to provide cultured leisure opportunities for youth, and so on). The action plan is also directed at effective use of the local self-government's resources, which, as a rule, are rather limited. Whether the planned result was achieved is evaluated using qualitative indicators, which characterize the set goals and results. Public control (monitoring) of the activity for achieving them is also provided for. In fact, the basis of these plans is the «result management» principle. Its key indicators reflect not only expenses, but also the actual qualitative changes, such as «condition of the road» or «reduction of cases of adolescents' hooliganism».

In each rural settlement, two or three problems were selected. To resolve each problem, a specific plan was developed. In some cases, funding for resolution of priority problems could be included into the settlement budget for 2006, yet in many cases the plans were implemented by volunteers for free, with some financial support from sponsors, for instance, representatives of the local business community.

Case study: Village of Krasnaya Ulka, republic of Adygeya

In Adygeya village Krasnaya Ulka, the population named the kindergarten's refurbishment a priority problem. Generally, maintenance and repairs of children's pre-school institutions is not under the rural settlement's competence in this region of the Russian Federation. Yet, the head of the rural settlement, as a response to the residents' need, started acting to resolve it using all possible methods. The rural deputies submitted to the rayon administration the proposal to include the kindergarten's refurbishment in the budget for the next year. At the same time, the residents started clearing the territories and premises of the kindergarten. One of the local entrepreneurs started repairing the heating and water supply and the sewerage system. The local Orthodox community got involved in the kindergarten's refurbishment. The Orthodox community agreed to refurbish one wing of the building, with vision to use the premises as Sunday school on the days off. This way, with united efforts some progress was achieved with this dead-locked problem.

Within the plan's framework, different issues were chosen for resolution, starting from simple (but nevertheless significant for the village) cultural events, to more wide-scale problems of infrastructure development. In spite of the fact that for infrastructure projects' implementation it usually takes time to find enough resources to achieve real progress, realization of the problems by the entire community helped the bodies of local self-government to bring positive changes within a very short term. The efficiency of the conducted gatherings and seminars translated into kilometres of repaired roads, restored lines of street lighting and water supply, in cleaned wells and restored rural celebrations. We must remind here that of almost 20 thousand rural settlements currently in existence, half was formed very recently. Many heads of the settlements and rural deputies were elected for the positions for the first time, and never before tried municipal administration.

Participation in the project training programmes allowed them to understand the priorities, and engaged broad circles of the population into resolving the priority development tasks.

5.2.3 Local community development foundations

A local community development foundation is a non-commercial organization that forms at the cost of funds from different sources an emergency fund and the grant funding, and awards grants for implementation of the projects for development of local communities on competitive basis. Besides grant distribution, the foundation can provide other services for the donors, and work in different directions, but we are interested here in their activities in development of rural communities.

The foundations are characterized by the following features:

- specific and limited territory of activity,
- collegial administration acting in the interests of the communities the funds are serving to,
- their activity is concentrated on funding, in form of grants, of the activities of NGOs and spearhead groups aimed at resolving issues important for the public,
- aspiration to create permanent capital, which can secure the foundation's sustainability, and its relative independence from the state, or specific donors (Avrorina P., CAF, 2007).

It is usually considered that the local communities' foundations are most effective in medium cities with the amount of population up to 100 thousand persons and above. Within the framework of the project «Local self-government and civic participation in rural Russia», the model of local community foundation was applied for the village for the first time, and the experience showed that the local communities' foundations can successfully work in rural locations.

Grant awards can be conducted by regional (municipal) administrations. Taking into account the limitations stipulated in the budgeting legislation, the grants in this case can be awarded in form of subsidies that are transferred to individuals or legal entities for targeted use, under the condition of co-funding of the beneficial activity defined by the grant donor.

Case study: Foundation for local communities' development «Sodeystviye», the Perm Territory.

In the Perm Territory, a foundation was created in 2005 called «Sodeystviye» (“Support”) to support social initiatives, which is still successfully operating. Its founders are N.N. Samarina, the director of a Perm consulting agency, and I.N.Shubin, a prominent businessman. As early as in 2003, they started conducting **grant award competitions** in the village **to support social initiatives**. In February of 2005, with support of the consultants of the project «Local self-government and civic participation in rural Russia», the foundation was officially registered. The foundation operates in five rayons of the Perm Territory. The main direction of the foundation's activities is financial support for rural projects that aim to improve quality of life, extend employment, support small business, farming, improve and develop social services and the environment in rural areas. The foundation pays special attention to the projects of rural youth.

Depending on availability of funds, from 10 to 30 projects are financed annually. The amounts of grants are up to 50 thousand roubles.

A very important thing is the projects are being prepared by rural residents themselves, and this is why their implementation gives considerable social effect. When making the application, the residents themselves identify the current priorities in problems to be resolved. For instance, in the village of Andreyevka of Okhanskiy rayon, a room was prepared to train tractor drivers. In the village of Chernovskoye of Bolshesosnovskiy rayon, as a result of the project implementation, young people received training in stove-setting. In Okhansk, a workshop has been equipped and training of youth in carpentry and cooperage has been introduced. In the village Bolshaya Sosnova, using the grant, a health care centre was set up under the agricultural manufacturing cooperative «Rus». Free health care is available there not only for the co-op workers, but also for other villagers. The centre provides treatment and holds events to promote healthy lifestyle.

5.2.4 Examples of other project activities to involve the population into rural development in Russia

Of great interest are specific events, which advertise the rural lifestyle and can be implemented only with the rural population's active involvement. All such events must be clearly planned based on application of the project activity instruments and different methods for engagement of the rural population.

Hay Festival, or creation of new traditions in rural settlements, Republic of Karelia

In summer of 2012, the administration of Kondopozhskiy municipal district (republic of Karelia) plans to conduct the Hay Festival already for the second time. The idea of conducting such unusual event first emerged as one of the projects at the international seminar "Ethnocultural peculiarities as resources for territory development", which was held in the urban settlement of Kondopoga in the beginning of April 2011. The programme of the Festival and organizational issues were discussed in greater detail in the administration of Kondopozhskiy municipal district at the meeting of the coordination council for development of the territory, language and culture. It was agreed that the village Spasskaya Guba in Petrovskoye rural settlement was the most convenient place to conduct the Hay Festival. The event's ultimate goal was supposed to create a new brand for the territory. The organizers hoped that holding the Hay Festival will promote revival of long-forgotten traditions and crafts.

Major preparatory actions were conducted: evaluation criteria for the Festival's planned contests were chosen, the issues of providing the participants with the inventory were resolved, the necessary municipal enactments were adopted (Provision on the sponsors of the event, Schedule of the event, Provision on the event, forms for participant applications).

The organizers took into account practically everything including the fact that the Festival is a rather prolonged celebration, which must include many different events.

It was planned that teams from all rural settlements of Kondopozhskiy district would participate. Many municipal institutions, organizations, centres of leisure for children, and associations of Karelia declared their desire to participate.

On July 9, 2011, in the high season for hay-making, a brand-new event was launched in Kondopozhskiy district – it was the Hay Festival attended by about fifteen hundred people. Among the Festival's participants there were not only many of the local residents, but also visitors from other locations. The event was interesting for the participants, first of all, because of its traditional Russian setup.

The Festival united not only those who are skilled with a scythe (although the programme of the contests had to do a lot with scything skills, stack-making, hammering a scythe, and many others), but also engaged anyone who is at least in some way related to creation of distinct ethnic flavour: craftsmen, participants of folklore teams, national cuisine chefs.

Among the main events, a scything contest was organized. The stacks of hay created during the Festival became art objects, and the visual result was a traditional landscape design, a field with hay stacks. In addition to traditional stacks, elaborate artistic stacks were evaluated as a work of art, in separate nominations like "The funnies stack", "The most unkempt stack", "The most nervous stack", "The highest stack", and so on. Besides the basic contest programme, master classes were organized on the haymaking culture, on how to bundle a broom, weave wreathes, make toys from hay and straw. Within the Festival framework, an exhibition of photo-, video- and imitative art works "Haymaking in Kondopozhskiy Territory" was held.

And after the haymaking, river-based events were planned. Because nothing is better after hard work in the hot of the summer than chilling in the river.

At the Festival, a mobile kitchen was working, the meals were real haymaker meals, but for connoisseurs more exquisite dishes were available.

The rayon administration plans to hold this event annually. Branding of the territory is not about the local authorities just wanting to attract investors and tourists, it is about concrete actions. The Hay Festival became one of such real actions.

The administration expects some concrete results from the cultural tourism, first of all, increased number of attendants. As it is known, a constant stream of tourists promotes increasing of the municipal budget income, which helps the territory develop.

Veps ethnographic museum, the Kondopoga center for children's youth tourism, and environmental organizations have already expressed their interest in participation in the Festival this year. As usually, the Kondopozhskiy municipal rayon administration will be the organizer. And the place for holding will be decided in May, because many villages in the location are ready and willing to host the event.



*Hey Festival, Republic of Karelia.
knk.karelia.ru/2011/10/festival-sena.html*

Project «Creation of the interregional Centre of Preparing initiative support masters» (The Vologda region)

To create critical mass

It is not enough to awaken active people and to give them opportunities for implementation of projects. It is important to support them during the period when they decide to pursue a new way of life. It is simply necessary for them to communicate with other enthusiasts like them, to share ideas and to receive support from their community. But then, what is required for implementation of this idea, even at the regional level, is understanding of the scale of the objectives and the authorities' readiness to overcome their narrow interests for the sake of development of the specific rural settlement. It took four long years for the department of development of municipal institutions to be formed in Vologda oblast. Now all municipal institutions of the oblast, issues of their sustenance and development are within the competence of one structural subdivision.

There is one interesting observation: when in the village one or two activists start a new public movement, the rest of the villagers react very negatively. When looking at them, villagers make gestures to show that these activists are crazy, but when the activists get support from the leaders of the public opinion, the situation changes drastically. The activists' opinion starts to matter, and it becomes easier to engage people into public activities.

For this reason, the project's goal is to accumulate the critical mass of villagers in the selected municipalities, so that their social and business projects receive maximal support from both the authorities and fellow villagers.

Developing people – develop the location

We are sure that development of rural territories is based on the development of people, which is being implemented through their engagement into economic and social projects run by the leaders who are masters of initiative. A support master is a specialist who works with rural activists and helps them realize their affiliation with each other and their joint responsibility for the fate of their settlement. Such work has diverse directions: creation of residents' spearhead groups, help in outlining of the village development concept and of projects addressing specific issues, creation of collective rural formations and public councils under village heads, consulting, targeted training, and so on. The main thing here is not financial income, but shift in the social climate. For this specific purpose, the training centre for initiative support masters discovers, consolidates and organizes effective interaction of rural leaders.

For real achievements, it is necessary to change the way of thinking, the perception of the world, even the language of all subjects of the project. Money is not enough, neither are investments into the social infrastructure. One cannot develop the social infrastructure and help the needy for free, as such approach produces dependents.

What the rural people should be taught

The rural people should be taught planning, creation of plans for perspective socioeconomic development, and team-building. But the main thing is to teach them self-confidence, so that they stop relying only on the authorities and are able to do something useful for their territory with their own hands.

It should start with a detailed conversation. Focused interviews with the residents of "pilot" settlements in Vologda oblast were not only a starting point for identification of the scope of problems for the territories, but also the means for restoring of the forgotten custom of gathering the entire community to discuss the problems. After that, several strategic sessions are required, so that rural residents could literally see their settlement's future with their own eyes. This feeling of being close to the future will charge their activities with energy, what is especially useful when they have to struggle the authorities' lack of understanding to gain their cooperation. Brainstorm will allow to see a multitude of opportunities for everyone's self-actualization. The most complicated thing is to follow the first idea of a project through to its implementation. And it takes a trainer who believes in success, always supports and engages necessary resources to achieve the results.

As soon as on the territory of a rural settlement a non-governmental organization or TPS emerges, it turns into a serious test for the local authority. Energetic and persevering activists begin to demand more from its operation, thoroughly study the progress reports submit proposals to increase effectiveness, and so on. And this forces the authority to choose – either to improve the quality of its work and change, or to give way to the new leaders. The most advanced heads of local authorities begin to support rural activists and participate together with them in development projects.



*First seminar for municipalities, 17-19 February, 2010
Picture from the web-site "Development of social potential of rural areas" URL: <http://www.pilotproekt.ru/>*

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Glossary

Agriculture – a) a synonym of the term 'agrarian industry' – the sector of the country's economy that produces agricultural products, satisfies the needs in majority of foodstuffs and in raw materials for the consumer industry and food-processing industry (the Russian Federation); b) the category of agriculture, besides the agrarian industry as such, also encompasses harvesting and processing of fish and seafood, forestry and harvesting of raw materials of forestry (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations / FAO, the European Union approach).

Beneficiaries - are persons who obtain income or benefit from something.

Citizens' legislative initiative is a tool that allows citizens to submit draft municipal legal documents to bodies of local self-government.

Civic participation is engagement of the population (citizens) in the discussion and design of political, socioeconomic, cultural and environmental programmes and projects, influence over decision-making and control over their implementation, self-government at the grass-roots, local level.

Degree of participation (engagement) of the population is a characteristic of a level of the population's engagement in the decision-making process.

Facilitation — professional organizing of the process of group work, directed at clarification and achievement of the set goals by the group.

Facilitator – the person, who manages the process of discussion, engages the participants and structures the group work.

Local referendum is a form of direct declaration of citizens' will on most important issues of the state and local significance for the purposes of decision-making in compliance with the citizens' interests.

Logical framework – is presentation of the project activity with the help of work plans and individual timelines.

Management - is structuring of the social processes for the purposes of achievement of predetermined goals (several functions).

Participatory rural appraisal method – is an aggregate of approaches, methods, and models of behaviour that help people express their opinions and analyze the reality of their living conditions, plan what actions to take themselves, conduct monitoring and evaluation of the results.

Programme – is a set of projects, whose goals facilitate achievement of the common goal (are connected together in a sector, subsector, region).

Project – is a process that presupposes investment of funds during a limited amount of time and contains a series of events.

Project cycle – is a continuous process from the beginning of the design (conception of the idea) of the project till its completion, where each stage secures the foundation for the following one.

Public hearings is a discussion of draft municipal legal documents on the issues of local significance with participation of residents of a municipal body initiated by the representative agency of a municipal body or a head of a municipal body.

Public participation is the process of all stakeholders' objective and active participation in formation of principles and strategies of development, as well as in analysis, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of effectiveness of development programmes.

Residents' survey is a form of public participation conducted with the purpose of eliciting of the population's opinion and its consideration at adoption of decisions bodies of local self-government and public servants of local self-government, as well as bodies of state power on the issues concerning economic, social, environmental and other legal interests of the population of a concrete territory.

Rural economy - is a multisectoral agglomeration of economic units of all forms of ownership and households as participants of the economic activity, located in rural areas and engaging in economic relations in regard of manufacturing and exchange of products. In its wide understanding it is a system of branches and socioeconomic relations in rural areas.

Rural population - residents who permanently reside in the entire plurality of rural inhabited locations;

Rural territories (rural areas) – a) territories of rural settlements and corresponding territories between them (the Russian Federation); b) territories outside cities with their own population, their own ways of life, traditions, material and cultural accumulations of the past, natural environmental conditions and resources (the European Union).

Stakeholders/parties – are individuals, groups or organizations that directly or indirectly benefit or lose as a result of a concrete project activity or policy.

Sustainable development - a) is development, which secures satisfaction of needs of the present time, and does not endanger the future generations' possibility to satisfy their needs; b) is development, which leads to the economic growth and at the same time justly distributes its results, restores the environment to a greater extent than destroys it, enriches people's opportunities instead of depleting them. This is development that gives priority to the poor, to expanding their opportunities and to securing their participation in making decisions that impact their lives. This is development, which holds human beings at its core, which is oriented towards preservation of the nature and securing of employment, as well as implementation of rights of women and youth.

Sustainable development in rural areas - a) encompasses stable socioeconomic development of rural territories, increase in volume of production of agricultural and fish products, growing effectiveness of agricultural and fishery combines, achievement of full employment and better standards of living of the rural population, as well as rational use of lands (the Russian Federation); b) long-term economically effective development of rural communities with

preservation of natural foundations of life and securing social welfare of all strata of the population (the European Union).

SWOT analysis – is a tool of analysis of strengths and weaknesses of an organization/project/settlement, its opportunities, external and internal threats with the purpose of the design of strategies that can be used for planning of concrete goals and events.

Target programme – is an aggregation of events being implemented (services being rendered), interconnected in their time-frames, performers and resources and directed at achievement of a certain goal.

Territorial public self-government is self-organization of citizens at the place of their residence on a part of the territory of the settlement for independent, under their responsibility, performance of their own initiatives on the issues of local significance

Triangulation – is securing reliability and veracity of information through extended engagement of local people, systematic re-verification of information through use of different sources of information, different techniques and different working hypotheses, as well as systematic meetings of the initiative groups, during which the reality is considered from different angles and points of view, alternative working hypotheses are being developed, analyzed, compared, and / or integrated.

Annex: Training material

For readers of the module textbooks and training participants the RUDECO project website provides the possibility to download additional material on <http://tempus-rudeco.ru/en/modules> (required password **RD-modules**) e.g. presentations and other didactic material used in the conducted trainings.

This annex to module 8 contains the didactic material for trainers and teachers conducting the module:

1. The syllabus for vocational training “Participatory Approach in Rural Development”

2. The main rules of conducting training and tasks for group work.

3. Presentations:

- Conceptual bases for sustainable development of rural areas (Merzlov A.V.)
- Rural development policy in Russia (Ovchintseva L.A)
- Population involvement in processes of rural areas development (Merzlov A.V.)
- Participation of rural population at the different stages of the project development (Merzlov A.V.)
- European experiences of involvement of rural population in rural development (Thomas A., Panteleeva O.I.)
- Practical examples of Leader’s projects in Baden Wurttemberg, Germany (Ivanova A.I.)
- Rural development: population involvement (Russian experiences) (Ovchintseva L.A.)
- Rural areas development: the stakeholders (Panteleeva O.I.)
- Organization of population meetings: technical issues (Ovchintseva L.A.)

4. Additional material:

- Programs of assistance to development of municipalities in Russian territories: best practices. Fund “Sustainable Development” (file. pdf)

Presentation:

- Activity of the Fund “Sustainable Development”.
- Grants of the Governer of Altay Krai in the economy sphere (a rural cut) (Chinyakov N.N.)

RUDECO partners and contact information

Contact persons for the presented module

Primakina Irina Sergeevna,
Kostroma State Agricultural Academy,
E-mail: primai@mail.ru

Panteleeva Olga Ivanovna,
Moscow State Agrarian Academy- MTAA named after K.A. Timiryazev
E-mail: olgapanteleeva@hotmail.com

All RUDECO partners

Russia/Россия

Russian State Agrarian University-Moscow Timiryazev
Agricultural Academy
Sustainable Rural Development Center
Moskva, Timiryazevskaya 49
Moscow 127550
a.merzlov@gmail.com
<http://www.timacad.ru/en/>

Российский государственный аграрный университет –
МСХА имени К.А.Тимирязева
Центр устойчивого развития сельских территорий
Тимирязевская, 49
г. Москва, 127550
a.merzlov@gmail.com
<http://www.timacad.ru/>

Russian Ministry of Agriculture
Department of Rural Development and Social Policy
1/11 Orlikov pereulok
Moscow 107139
<http://www.mcx.ru/>

Министерство сельского хозяйства РФ
Департамент сельского развития и социальной
политики
Орликов переулок, 1/11
г. Москва, 107139
<http://www.mcx.ru/>

All-Russian Alexander Nikonov Institute of Agrarian
Problems and Informatics of the Russian Academy of
Agricultural Sciences (VIAPI)
B. Kharitonievskiy per. 21/6
Moscow 105064
lovchintseva@viapi.ru
<http://www.viapi.ru/>

Всероссийский институт аграрных проблем и
информатики им. А.А. Никонова Российской академии
сельскохозяйственных наук
Б. Харитоньевский пер. 21/6,
г. Москва, 105064
lovchintseva@viapi.ru
<http://www.viapi.ru/>

Tambov State University named after G.R.Derzhavin
Internatsionalnaya 33
Tambov 392000
enoctsu@yandex.ru
<http://tsutmb.ru/>

Тамбовский государственный университет имени Г.Р.
Державина
Ул. Интернациональная, 33
г. Тамбов, 392000
enoctsu@yandex.ru
<http://tsutmb.ru/>

Administration of Tambov region
Internatsionalnaya 14
Tambov 392000
<http://www.tambov.gov.ru/>

Администрация Тамбовской области
Интернациональная, д.14
г. Тамбов, 392000
<http://www.tambov.gov.ru/>

Orel State Agrarian University
Generala Rodina 69
Orel 302019
inter@orelsau.ru
<http://www.orelsau.ru/>

Орловский государственный аграрный университет
ул. Генерала Родина, д. 69.
г. Орел, 302019
inter@orelsau.ru
<http://www.orelsau.ru/>

Samara State Agricultural Academy
settl. Ust-Kineskiy, 2 Uchebnaya str.
Samara region 446442
interoffice@mail.ru

Самарская государственная сельскохозяйственная
академия
п. Усть-Кинельский, ул. Учебная 2
Самарская обл., 446442

<http://www.ssaa.ru/>

Yaroslavl State Agricultural Academy
Tutaevskoe shosse 58
Yaroslavl 150042
S. Shchukin: s.shhukin@yarcx.ru
<http://www.yaragrovuz.ru/>

Kostroma State Agricultural Academy
Karavaevo Campus
Kostromskoy rayon
Kostromskaya oblast, 156530
primai@mail.ru
<http://kgsxa.ru/>

Stavropol State Agrarian University
Per. Zootekhnicheskii 12
Stavropol 355017
stavropolfad@yandex.ru
<http://www.stgau.ru/english/official.php>

Omsk State Agrarian University named after P.A.Stolypin
Institutskaya Ploshchad 2
Omsk 644008
ng-kazydub@yandex.ru
<http://www.omgau.ru/>

Novosibirsk State agrarian University
Dobrolubova 160
Novosibirsk, 630039
dr.schindelov@ngs.ru
<http://nsau.edu.ru/>

Buryat State Academy of Agriculture named after
V.R.Philippov
Pushkina 8
Ulan-Ude, 670024
econresearch@rambler.ru
<http://www.bgsha.ru/>

Association of organic and biodynamic agriculture
"AGROSOPHIE"
Krasnaya 20
Solnechnogorsk
Moskovskaya Oblast, 141506
info@biodynamic.ru
<http://www.biodynamic.ru/en/>

LLC Company "Gutelot"
Marshala Katukova Str. 20
Moscow 123592

The National Park "Plescheevo lake"
Sovetskaya 41
Pereslavl-Zalesskiy
Yaroslavl'skaya Oblast, 152020

interoffice@mail.ru
<http://www.ssaa.ru/>

Ярославская государственная сельскохозяйственная
академия
Тутаевское шоссе, 58
г. Ярославль, 150042
С.В. Щукин: s.shhukin @ yarcx.ru
<http://www.yaragrovuz.ru/>

Костромская государственная сельскохозяйственная
академия
Учебный городок КГСХА
пос. Караваяево, Костромской район
Костромская обл., 156530
primai@mail.ru
<http://kgsxa.ru/>

Ставропольский государственный аграрный
университет
пер. Зоотехнический 12
г. Ставрополь, 355017
stavropolfad@yandex.ru
<http://www.stgau.ru/>

Омский государственный аграрный университет
им.П.А.Столыпина
Институтская площадь, 2
г. Омск, 644008
ng-kazydub@yandex.ru
<http://www.omgau.ru/>

Новосибирский государственный аграрный
университет
ул. Добролюбова, 160
г. Новосибирск, 630039
dr.schindelov@ngs.ru
<http://nsau.edu.ru/>

Бурятская государственная сельскохозяйственная
академия им. В.Р. Филиппова
ул. Пушкина, 8
г. Улан-Удэ, 670024
econresearch@rambler.ru
<http://www.bgsha.ru/>

Некоммерческое Партнёрство по развитию
экологического и биодинамического сельского
хозяйства «Агрософия»
ул. Красная, 20
г. Солнечногорск,
Московская область, 141506
info@biodynamic.ru
<http://www.biodynamic.ru/ru/>

ООО компания «Гутелот»
ул. Маршала Катукова, д. 20
г. Москва, 123592

Национальный парк «Плещеево озеро»
ул. Советская, 41
г. Переславль-Залесский,
Ярославская область, 152020

Service on environmental safety, protection and use of fauna, aquatic bioresources
Sauren Shaumyan Str. 16
Orel 302028

Управление по охране и использованию объектов животного мира, водных биоресурсов и экологической безопасности
Улица Сурена Шаумяна, 16
г. Орел, 302028

Moscow State Agroengineering University named after V.P. Goryachkin.
Timiryazevskaya Str. 58
Moscow, 127550
international@msau.ru
<http://www.msau.ru/>

Московский государственный агроинженерный университет им. В.П.Горячкина
ул. Тимирязевская, 58
г. Москва, 127550
international@msau.ru
<http://www.msau.ru/>

All-Russian Association of Educational Institutions of Agro-Industrial Complex and Fisheries
Listvennichnaya alleya 16A, build. 3
Moscow, 127550
direct@agroob.ru
<http://www.agroob.ru/>

Ассоциация образовательных учреждений агропромышленного комплекса и рыболовства
ул. Лиственничная аллея, д. 16 А, корп.3
г. Москва, 127550
direct@agroob.ru
<http://www.agroob.ru/>

Germany/Германия

University of Hohenheim
Institute of Landscape and Plant Ecology (320)
Eastern Europe Centre (770)
70599 Stuttgart
oez@uni-hohenheim.de
<https://oez.uni-hohenheim.de/>

Университет Хойенхайм
Институт ландшафтной экологии и экологии растений (320)
Центр Восточной Европы (770)
70599 Stuttgart
oez@uni-hohenheim.de
<https://oez.uni-hohenheim.de/>

Agency for Development of Agriculture and Rural Areas of the Federal State of Baden-Wuerttemberg (LEL)
Oberbettringer Strasse 162
73525 Schwäbisch Gmünd
roland.grosskopf@lel.bwl.de
<https://www.landwirtschaft-bw.info>

Агентство по развитию сельского хозяйства и сельской местности федеральной земли Баден-Вюртемберг (LEL)
Oberbettringer Strasse 162
73525 Schwäbisch Gmünd
roland.grosskopf@lel.bwl.de
<https://www.landwirtschaft-bw.info>

Academy for Spatial Research and Planning (ARL), Section WR IV "Räumliche Planung, raumbezogene Politik"
Hohenzollernstr. 11
30161 Hannover
Gustedt@arl-net.de
<http://www.arl-net.de/>

Академия пространственных исследований и планирования (ARL)
Отдел WR IV "Пространственное планирование, территориальная политика"
Hohenzollernstr. 11
30161 Hannover
Gustedt@arl-net.de
<http://www.arl-net.de/>

Terra fusca Ingenieure
Marohn, Lange Partnerschaftsgesellschaft
Karl-Pfaff-Str. 24 a
70597 Stuttgart
<http://www.terra-fusca.de/>

Терра-фуска
Marohn, Lange Partnerschaftsgesellschaft
Karl-Pfaff-Str. 24 a
70597 Stuttgart
<http://www.terra-fusca.de/>

Poland / Польша

Warsaw University of Life Sciences
Laboratory of Evaluation and Assessment of Natural Resources
Nowoursynowska Street 166
Warsaw 02-787
aschwerk@yahoo.de
<http://www.spoiwzp.sggw.pl>

Варшавский университет естественных наук
Лаборатория анализа и оценки природных ресурсов
Nowoursynowska Street 166
Warsaw 02-787
aschwerk@yahoo.de
<http://www.spoiwzp.sggw.pl>

Association for Sustained Development of Poland
Grzybowa Street 1
Warsaw-Wesola 05-077
ekorozwoj@ekorozwoj.pl
<http://www.ekorozwoj.pl/>

France / Франция

L'Agence de services et de paiement
Mission des affaires internationales
Rue du Maupas 2
Limoges 87040
Helene.Wehrlin-Crozet@asp-public.fr
<http://www.asp-public.fr/>

AgroSup Dijon
26 Boulevard Docteur Petitjean
21079 Dijon cedex
c.stewart@agrosupdijon.fr
<http://www.agrosupdijon.fr/>

Italy / Италия

University of Udine
Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences
Via delle Scienze 208
33100 Udine
Francesco.Danuso@uniud.it
<http://www.uniud.it/>

Slovakia / Словакия

Slovak University of Agriculture
International Relations Office
Tr.Andreja Hlinku 2
94976 Nitra
Magdalena.Lacko-Bartosova@uniag.sk
<http://www.uniag.sk/>

Ассоциация устойчивого развития Польши
Grzybowa Street 1
Warsaw-Wesola 05-077
ekorozwoj@ekorozwoj.pl
<http://www.ekorozwoj.pl/>

Агентство сервиса и платежей (ASP)
Служба международных отношений
Rue du Maupas 2
Limoges 87040
Helene.Wehrlin-Crozet@asp-public.fr
<http://www.asp-public.fr/>

Национальный институт высшего образования в
сфере агрономии, продуктов питания и окружающей
среды (AGROSUP), Дижон
26 Boulevard Docteur Petitjean
21079 Dijon cedex
c.stewart@agrosupdijon.fr
<http://www.agrosupdijon.fr/>

Университет Удине
Институт сельскохозяйственных наук и экологии
Via delle Scienze 208
33100 Udine
Francesco.Danuso@uniud.it
<http://www.uniud.it/>

Словацкий университет сельского хозяйства
Отдел международных отношений
Tr.Andreja Hlinku 2
94976 Nitra
Magdalena.Lacko-Bartosova@uniag.sk
<http://www.uniag.sk/>