Forms and Determinants of Development of Civil Dialogue

Edited by
Mariusz Wiktor Sienkiewicz

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Introduction

The Development of Civil Dialogue in Polish Practice

Mariusz Wiktor Sienkiewicz

What is civil dialogue?

Civil dialogue (www.pozytek.gov.pl, 2013) is a form of contact between the state authorities and third sector organizations, which consists of the mutual transfer of an opinion, information or arrangement objectives, instruments and strategies for the implementation of public policy. It should not be confused with social dialogue, understood as communication between public authorities, trade unions and employers’ organizations concerning collective labor relations (collective labor law). Civil dialogue participants - next to public authorities - are not only traditionally understood social partners, but also non-governmental organizations, operating at different social, economic, ideological, professional or territorial levels. For this reason, the subjects of civil dialogue are not only problems associated with the workplace (establishment, industry, sector of the economy), but all issues connected with the groups of citizens in the state and society.

The government program document adapted by the Council of Ministers on October 22: “The Principles of Social Dialogue” (2002), states that NGOs participate in the elaboration and implementation of programs initiated by public authorities, and will complement the activities of public administration, where it is not in a position to fulfill important social tasks.

It is also worth concurring with the consideration of civil dialogue set out in the “Guide to civil dialogue on social inclusion of older people” (2010), which shows the difference between civil dialogue and social dialogue, and points out that a...”uniform definition of civil dialogue does not exist. It is neither parallel nor complementary to social dialogue. Civil dialogue is of a general nature and refers to public policy as a whole, while social dialogue covers specific macroeconomic issues and is organized around
clear objectives with the participation of certain parties - public authorities, employers and employees. Civil dialogue is more diverse and global, but also less organized. Its relations between public authorities and civil society can be routed through multiple channels, with the initiative of each of the parties, by such means as “one on one” meetings, conferences, etc. or written consultation procedures. These civil dialogue structures are promoted and implemented in the European context mainly as a way to build an agreement between the European Union, its institutions and citizens.

Civil dialogue is a formal discussion on the issue, in which two or more parties express opposing views, and seek an agreement that can satisfy all of them. Civil dialogue can thus be described first of all, as the interaction between public institutions and civil society organizations rather than a one-sided exchange, secondly as various forms of civil society activities ranging from simple information dissemination, through the consultation process, up to the active involvement in decision-making, thirdly as activities that take place at every stage of the decision-making process: setting up the structures, defining political objectives, inurement, monitoring, evaluation and providing “continuation”.

The basis for civil dialogue is the assumption that NGOs representatives take part in the preparation and implementation of programs and strategic documents, which state or local government institutions are responsible for. The key is to constitute participation of formal and institutional reality. Good practice of civil dialogue is to inform of each initiative, to communicate made determinations, and to exchange views on the priorities of public policy. As a result, the state and the third sector should be integrated by swapping perspectives between organizations and representatives of power. In other words, civil dialogue is a reconciliation of the main direction of development of the country between the state and the social partners at various levels - national, regional and local.

Assumptions, goals and outcomes of the project entitled: ”Turn in dialogue. Local government cooperation with the local community of Lubartów for the development of civil dialogue”

Description of the problem, the rationale and objectives of the project

According to the Central Statistical Office (2011) Lubartów has the tenth place in Lublin province in terms of size. It is an important industrial center. Many institutions that promote the development of culture are located there. Apart from its tourist value, it is a starting point for touring the Kozłowiecki Park located nearby. National and provincial roads cross in Lubartów, which makes the city a major transportation hub on the Polish map.

Determinants of social and economic development in Lubartów often involve the need to carry out common projects related to the development of services, social and
technical infrastructure and new investments. Their implementation may be question-
able, and sometimes be opposed by residents, thus causing significant delays or even complete failure. Prevention of these types of social conflicts requires the involvement of residents in decisions about local issues by conducting public consultations in the initial stages of project planning. Residents may have an impact on the city’s policy on matters relevant to them, and the city authorities have the opportunity to reach agreement on how to implement the project. This directly strengthens the capacity of local government administration in Lubartów. A range of public policy, previously established with the inhabitants, results in its efficient and effective implementation.

An example of project delays or failures of Lubartów is the delay of the construction of a waste sorting facility by more than a few years (residents’ protests started in 2009), or the suspension of construction of a biogas plant since 2012. While in the case of the first venture, the initial unsuccessful realization of the project was to be resolved through public consultations that have not been successful; the other project was in no way agreed with the local community.

Research carried out in the publication titled: Final report of the research efficiency of public consultation mechanisms (2011), reveals that the organization and conducting of public consultation by public organizations are far from what is desired. Statistics show that the average efficiency is low and ranges within 63.8%. In turn, the efficiency of public consultation for the province of Lublin is even lower at 47.5 -51%. It is also adverse that compared to Lubartów, other cities in the Lublin region carried out more consultations (75%). It should also be noted that the objectives for which consultations were organized had quite a low achievement effectiveness (48.9%).

Consultations are a process that demands complex and adequate preparation, where all parties should present interests. Research shows that in a majority of the consultations, officials misunderstand the concept of “public consultation” (Final Report of the research efficiency of public consultation mechanisms (2011). Consultations limit their scope primarily to informing stakeholders about the development of solutions to a certain problem. The reason for this may be the lack of a qualified advisory body in the local unit, which would be responsible for developing instruments and the implementation of a broad-based dialogue with the residents. In this respect, the city of Lubartów does not stand out too much against Poland, where only a little more than 1/5 of all local governments have a special sector involved in carrying out consultations. Also, there is a lack of interest in consultations with the local community. Low level of active citizenship, and low self-influence on affairs of the city are the causes of the decline in efficiency of public consultation. This results in e.g. social protests against changes. The data for Poland indicates that 75% of the population does not come into contact with the term “public consultation”.

An important problem in the process of consulting the policies of local authorities with the community is the lack of awareness and knowledge among residents of the local government about the possibility of bringing civil projects. For example, refer-
ring to the situation of the city of Lubartów, it should be noted that despite the adapta-

tion of a resolution by the municipality authorizing the commencement of the public

consultation after collecting 300 signatures of residents, most residents might not be

aware of this privilege. Bad planning during consultation is also a problem. The lack of

knowledge of procedures and tools related to carrying out of such activities, also have a

negative impact on the quality and achievement of determined goals.

In the case of the city of Lubartów the most standard forms of consultation are used,
such as: open meetings with residents of the city, enabling proposals and observations,
surveys, Internet surveys, and appointed working groups (Municipality of Lubartow,
2013). While the majority of local government institutions publish comments following
consultations, which have been made during meetings (74.4%), it is rare to conduct
evaluations and to draw conclusions from the social consultations (only 39.4% of the
institutions in the country take the evaluation of the consultation).

Statistics also show that only 33.1% of all consultations were carried out in a way
that did not exclude any of the local communities. It is also important to indicate the
differences in the participation of women and men during this type of action. Research
shows that most of those who voiced their opinion, actively participating in the consul-
tation on issues relevant to the local communities, were men, who are also more likely
to take the floor on the city’s policy.

With respect to the above-mentioned data and research conducted by the Institute
of Public Affairs in the framework of the project “We decide together”, cities and towns
are governed with less participation than villages. Therefore, there is a need to develop
a multi-dimensional plan of action, encouraging and facilitating city dwellers’ partici-
pation in the creation of public policies.

In order to, at least partially, remedy the generally disadvantaged situation in the
area of public consultation, the Centre for Local Development Foundation in partner-
ship with the City of Lubartów undertook the project entitled: “Turn on the dialogue.
The local government cooperation program with the local community of Lubartow for
the development of civil dialogue”. The implementation of the project would result in
the development of its action plan, encouraging co-participation of Lubartów residents
in the creation of public policies, among others, through the establishment of com-
munication platforms to facilitate access to speaking on local matters, and to support
people carrying out public consultation through a series of training and counseling, in
order to fully utilize the available methods and techniques of public consultation.

The main objective of the project was to strengthen the quality and efficiency of
public consultation, the development of local government of the city of Lubartów and
representatives of local communities, through the acquisition of practical knowledge
and skills in the range of planning, implementation of tools and techniques, consulta-
tion and development of public policies. The project also assumed the implementation
of specific objectives directly related to the planned activities: 1) Increase the level of
community involvement in processes concerning the city of Lubartów, decide and create
public policies and public consultation to create a tool for local authorities through the development and operation of an Internet portal; 2) Increase the level of knowledge and skills in independent consultation and civil dialogue by the city government representatives and Lubartów NGOs by completing professional training courses and workshops; 3) Knowledge of good practice and the acquisition of experience by the representatives of the city government and NGOs through study visits in exemplary Polish cities that have implemented the tools and techniques of public consultation; 4) Increase the involvement of representatives of the local community in the city in the process of decision-making and creation of public policies through participation in workshops on the development of the Strategy for Cooperation with NGOs and Local Development Strategy of Lubartow.

The results of the project

As part of the Project, representatives of the local government and non-governmental organizations from the city of Lubartów, in order to raise the level of knowledge and the skill of public consultations, attended training on the principles of public consultations regarding investments in infrastructure and in terms of forms, techniques and tools for public consultation. The Office of Lubartow was also benefited with expert advice on public consultation. In order to learn about good practice and good experience a study visit to Czestochowa and Rybnik - cities, which effectively implemented a program to build civil dialogue, was organized. Consultative workshops were also conducted, in which two strategic documents were consulted. The final stage of the project was the international scientific-practical conference entitled: “Civil dialogue. Forms, mechanisms, barriers and prospects”, summarizing the project and promoting the idea of civil dialogue, including the conduct of public consultation by public authorities with the participation of representatives of the social sector, as well as improving the theoretical knowledge and understanding of good practice in this area.

The project achieved a number of results, i.e. the creation of a web-based platform www.konsultacje.lubartow.pl, serving residents and representatives of the city government of Lubartów. The platform contains updated information about a public consultation that is planned, carried out and completed in Lubartów. The platform also publishes proposals to amend local laws. Children can use the platform. The platform includes simulation games related to the functioning of local communities, including environmental and civic attitudes.

The result of the Project is skillful organization and carrying out of public consultation, involvement of representatives of local communities in decision-making and the public policy-making process of the city of Lubartów, and implementation of staff of the Office of Lubartów in the public consultation process.

It is hoped that the cooperation of NGOs and local government in Lubartów is a good example for other municipalities and cities wishing to introduce or improve pub-
lic consultations on their territory.

Presented above is a brief analysis of the possibilities of supporting the development of civil dialogue in Poland, which shows that representatives of local communities are becoming more active in order to create planes for a wider cross-sectoral cooperation, of course, to the benefit of both the public, as well as social sector. Civil dialogue in Poland is on the one hand a new issue, on the other hand, the development of public administration decentralization and democratization of public life. For many years it has been implemented in various forms of instruments of this dialogue. This is hard and non-confrontational dialogue, especially if it is implemented poorly.

Surely, it must be noted that activities related to the development of civil dialogue will continue in the future, and significantly affect the development of further civil society in Poland, where civil dialogue is one of the basic components.

The monograph consists of twelve articles, with a diverse range of issues relating to civil dialogue, social participation, and civil society. The articles relate to the collaboration and community involvement in public affairs in different ways.

In the article titled: *What Kind of Dialogue the Civil Society Needs: The Conceptualization of the New Model*, Valentyna Ilgenayeva considers dialog in the context of social-cultural dynamics of modern society, which is predefined by communication completeness of the system of public relations. The aim of the article is the rationale of the communication model of dialogue as the way of organization and self-organization of social interaction in the formation of civil society.

Gleb K. Bogatskiy in the article titled *Educational Technology Optimization for Efficient Civil Dialogue* defines civil dialogue as a process of conversation between citizens. According to the author there are different types of conversation. One leads to a fight, another takes the form of small talk and leads nowhere. The third – desirable type – is a structured and constructive process that produces useful outcomes: social agreement, collaboration, consistent citizens’ feedback, and political clarity. The aim of this paper is a theoretical investigation of problems of effective communication between local society, local authorities and central authorities in the case of local goods, which generate vertical expenditure externalities.

An interesting approach to civil dialogue is presented by Silvia Iacuzzi, Mario Ianniello, Paolo Fedele and Luca Brusati. In the article entitled *Civil Dialogue: Obstacles and Solutions a Meta-Analysis of the Empirical Evidence*, the authors performed a meta-analysis of the English-language scholarly literature, analysing practical examples of civil dialogue, in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the problems, barriers and threats to the implementation of this practice, as well as of the techniques and processes that have characterized successful public inclusion.

Agnieszka Kopańska rightly says that communication between public authorities and local society is an important way to enhance allocative and productive efficiency of the public sector. In the case of public goods, reliable information about people, preferences and public budget limitation is necessary for responsible and reasonable choices
of public spending. The author analyzes these issues in the article entitled *Forms of public Dialogue in the Case of Vertical Expenditure Externalities of Local Public Production.* The aim of this paper is a theoretical investigation of problems of effective communication between local society, local authorities and central authorities in the case of local goods, which generate vertical expenditure externalities.

Another article by Aleksandra Patoska, Snezana Savoska, Branko Dimeski, entitled: *Local Government Capacities and Civil Organizations in Macedonia: Current States and Implications* is dedicated to the analysis of the capacities of the local governments in Macedonia when dealing with NGOs in the country. The authors argue that local governments still do not have well organized units dedicated to civil organizations. Most have adapted an official document and apply all the legal forms of cooperation, but not all of them financially support civil organizations. In practice, local governments must strengthen the cooperation with civil organizations, especially by improving the application of IT technology.

The level of community involvement in the process of strategic planning in Lithuanian municipalities has been subjected to analysis by Algirdas Astrauskas and Kostas Zymantas Svetikas. The authors have done this in the article entitled: *Lithuanian Municipalities Strategic Planning: Next Step - Higher Level of Citizen Participation.* The paper analyzes traditional top down strategic planning practice, evaluates stakeholder participation levels, advocates a more participatory planning approach and provides main directions for Lithuania municipalities participatory strategic planning development.

Halina Klepacz and Kamila Szymańska approached the issue of civil dialogue slightly differently. In the article entitled *Lodz University Students’ Expectations about the Issue of Civil Dialogue*, they presented and analyzed the students’ expectations towards civil dialogue between local authorities and residents of the Lodz region. The authors, based on their research, formulated proposals that should motivate local authorities and representatives of other public institutions to more frequent meetings devoted to the current problems of the local community, effective communication and encourage them to participate in this dialogue.

In turn, Luise Brosser in the article entitled: *The Most Important Influence Factors of NGOs on the Austrian Climate Policy - Transport Case Study*, shows the initiative of the Austrian NGOs to improve the climate policy by influencing the political and social areas through lobby actions. The purpose of this case study is to provide an example of the role of the NGOs and their influence on changing the development of the transport sector in Austria.

Catalin Vrabie analyzes the IT tools to conduct civil dialogue and to inform local communities by local authorities in the article *Digital Governance in Romanian Municipalities.* In this article he presents a comparative cross-country study in order to know the implementation level of web services at the municipality level (what are the public services that municipalities offer to their citizens using electronic platforms).

The importance of NGOs in the development of civil dialogue and civil society has
been shown in the article entitled *The Role of NGOs in the Development of Civil Dialogue at the Local Level in Poland*, by Mariusz Wiktor Sienkiewicz. The main thesis of the article is based on the assumption that, despite the ongoing democratization of socio-economic development and decentralization of public administration and the development of civil society, civil dialogue development in Poland is unsatisfactory and much too slow.

In the article titled *City Safety with Development Strategy*, Zbigniew Grzywna addresses the issue of the role of development strategies as a tool to formulate goals connected with the security of citizens in cities. The purpose of his article is the analysis of the strategy and its evaluation by the respondents, at the same time the presentation of some aspects of safety of inhabitants of contemporary metropolis.

The Monograph concludes a case study of the town of Lubartów drawn up by Marta Łacek, Sławomir Pilipiec, Bartosz Liżewski. In the article entitled *A Controversial Investment: The Town of Lubartów as an Example of Encouraging Dialogue with the Local Community*, the authors point out problems and conditions relating to the implementation of infrastructure projects by local authorities. They show conflicts between the local government and citizens, which can occur during the realization of socially sensitive municipal investments. The purpose of this article is to present the verification process of legally binding investment decisions made by local authorities in the context of active citizen opposition.

I thank all the authors for the work done and the desire to publish their thoughts in our Monograph. I hope that the conclusions of the analysis will be used to develop further research on civil dialogue and will serve as a base for effective public administration work for the common good.

*Editor*
Forms and Determinants of Development of Civil Dialogue

- author’s reflections
What Kind of Dialogue the Civil Society Needs: 
The Conceptualization of the New Model 

Valentyna Ilgenayeva

Abstract

Dialogue is considered in the context of social-cultural dynamics of modern society, which is predefined by some communication completeness of the system of public relations. The aim of the article is the rationale of the communication model of dialogue as the way of organization and self-organization of social interaction in the formation of the civil society. System integration, design, process approaches were used as methodological tools for the analysis. The key points of the analysis are: finality of the dialogical rhetoric that recreates the opposition of the subjects of social dialogue; factors, nature and substantial entity; models of programmable, constructive, communication dialogue that implements the aspiration of society for integrity, creation and understanding between the subjects of social action. Practical use of the results of the communication model of dialogue is associated with its methodology of co-organization of a number of subjective life-worlds in a dynamic equilibrium community. The application directions of methods of communication dialogue is associated with updating the public practice of dialogue, communication consulting, and the improvement of preparation technologies of professional communicators.

Keywords: dialogue, communication, social interaction, civil society, communicative practice, modeling.
Introduction

Modern dialog practice is perceived as the arrangement of public opinion or presentation of false transparency and manipulation of consciousness of the participants, while the true purpose of the dialogue in achieving agreement or consensus on solving urgent social problems and tasks is not implemented.

Dialogic problematics gain a new meaning in the context of global communication society, which breaks the usual architectonics of the system of social interaction, including its horizontal-vertical structure of social ties and relations that overcome all boundaries of the social-cultural organization of society. The inclusion of dialogue as a tool for social interaction at different levels of social life organization, demonstrates the need and existence of a common desire to achieve a certain equilibrium state in conditions of collision of different opinions, attitudes, purposes on the background of the domination of a wide range of interests of different social groups, communities, states and their associations.

Dialogue in the structure of human activity

Dialogue as a form of social interaction arose in the early stages of development of society, and gained its constructive meaning, first of all, in the processes of interpersonal communication. Dialogical interaction on the interdisciplinary level is considered a micro-level and basic matrix structure of the social individual. With this, the intentional sense of social organization and self-organization starts, develops and is implemented. The basic structural, functional units and features of inter-subjective cooperation as a condition of co-organization of many conscious and subjective life-worlds in a dynamic community are clarified at this level of the dialogue comprehension.

In everyday life we resort to dialogue without thinking about its essence. We use it in ordinary conversations, communication, conflict resolutions, and in the analysis of controversial issues. Dialog is used as an artistic technique in art, training methods, as a tool of influence in the political sphere, as a way to overcome the alienation of man in the social-cultural environment and to establish a link with the world. We almost never use dialogue as a method, trick or technique of solving problems.

The scale of application of dialogue in our time has reached the borderline of cooperation of states, religions, cultures, civilizations, communities, which are separated by space and time. The appeal of dialogue reflects the state of society, which is in a system of crisis and loses its stability, balance in relations and ties, which have been achieved through history. In this situation should be invoked as a means of overcoming the imbalance between visible and invisible forces of social homeostasis.

Dialogue is present in the spiritual tradition of humanity as a tool for achieving unity, and finds application in the dialog practices of modernity. Well-known are examples of its application in situations of solving public-legal and scientific-research tasks [1, 2,
3] when equal. Structured dialogue, from the linear exchange of views, turns into a circle of general understanding of the dialogue subject, the adoption of common solutions and sharing responsibility for its implementation.

Currently, a significant intellectual resource is accumulated for the consideration of dialogue as the aspiration to an understanding of the governing laws of the social development. Such aspects as: the main mechanism of cognition appeal to the internal and external factors of positioning man in the world; teleological social method; a method of development of man and society; the form of development of dialogue through its own evolution in the structure of human relations, etc. are included in consideration of dialogue.

At the same time, dialogue under modern conditions turns into a dialog process, where different forms of dialogue are partial (particular, special, separate) elements of the cyclic, spiral, iterative approximation of interacting subjects to the consensus, to some desired social result, to the Truth. Our time promotes the inclusion of dialogue in the ways of adaptation to new conditions of social life, decision making under uncertainty and conflicts of interests incredibly well.

It is important not to lose sight of the fact that dialogue cannot be considered without correlation with social-cultural transformations and the challenges of modernity. Dialogue should be considered as a form, content and a way of achieving social results on the way to civil society. This requires determination of clear behavior boundaries for dialogue participants, its structural elements, and technique of implementation in regard to dialogue conditions and its context.

**Conditions of the dialog process formation**

The liberation of the social interaction sphere within single, global, integral society is the main factor of the formation of civil society. The idea of civil society has gained more or less clear outlines in the form of a sequence of successive conceptions of social life organization [4, 5]. The parameters of civil society, which are widely discussed by experts, indicate that they are not limited by the science-technical progress and democratic development, but, first of all, are determined by the level of attainment of the highest human qualities by all its members.

So far, there are many reasons to consider the concept of civil society only as a tendency. The tendency, which is accompanied by the confrontation of the society, state, and local authorities, presumes the overcoming of this conflict by using dialogue as its constructive element. But before expecting the necessary overturn in the social cognition, we must admit the impasse of our present state. Therefore, the main goal of civil dialogue is the formation of the mental unity of communities based on cognitive unity of social consciousness.

All the contradictions of our social life can, and should be solved in the horizontal-vertical configuration of public ties and relations. So far, all of this happens in the
legal-political sphere of society, where dialogue rhetoric reproduces the content of the vertical “Society - State – Authority” relations of mainly concerning the rights, freedoms, property relations. The opposition, in the indicated sequence, is firmly embedded in the public consciousness, and slightly concerns other spheres of the social and cultural life of society. Therefore, an appropriate question is: Is it possible to achieve the ideals of civil society, if the dialog has constructs that symbolize power, authority, political will, military power, the suppression of the opposite point of view, aggression and lies, which disguise the true interests of the participants?

**Methodology**

The conceptualization of a new model of dialogue requires consideration of the modern conceptions about the world in which we live in, of the processes that accompany the progressive development of mankind, of the structure and nature of social activity, of life space, where the space of social ties and relations unfolds.

Since the mid-twentieth century, dialogical discourse has acquired special significance in the organization of social interaction. Individualism and a monologic way of life in the global, technologized space of activity, cognition and interaction, strongly demonstrate the inability of achieving stability of the existing society. Subjective idealism and the rationalism of cognition and reflection of reality, without connection with other subjects of social space, as well as its reflection in the sphere of social activity, are detected opposite to the evolutionary order of development of the world, the universal laws of existence, the information unity of the processes of development and co-evolutionary conditionality of systems of different nature.

Traditional inclusion of universal laws, only in the sphere of material life and essential sciences, extends to social matters such as the spiritual and sensual sphere of social consciousness. In the works of such researchers as E. Cassirer, P. Bourdieu, E. Durkheim, M. Castells, A. Giddens, K. Popper, J. Habermas we find the provision about ties between the subjects of social action, its form, levels, and substances that are determined by the level of functioning in the sphere of social interaction. According to N. Luhmann, in this sphere some system properties also evolve and emerge [6].

In the global space of the natural-social complex of human civilization, integration tendencies leave us no choice but to seek power and mechanism to hold the world in its integrity, viability and favorable prospects. Integralism becomes a necessary methodological installation for the analysis of the conditions, forms and processes of social structure and its prospects. A similar approach is present in the works of P. Sorokin, C. Baade, S. Huntington, A. Toffler. In the structure of the historical process the activity of the post-industrial stage based on the work, method and means of labour, and also capital was transformed into the activity based on information and knowledge. Examples of this approach are in the works of B. Bohem, T. Peters, R. Waterman, W. Deming, S. Macconell [7, 8, 9, 10].
The process approach allows us to connect continuity, cyclicity, spiral and iteration of process activity, as necessary and universal parameters, without regard to the sphere of its realization. The connection of all elements of social structure in a harmonized mechanism of functioning as a single, integrated entity, occurs through networking and relationship-forming by means of gradual iteration of purposefulness states, connectivity, convergence of vision and achievement of the desired result. It all fits in existing approaches, which lead to the realization of the universality of the activity process in all its manifestations. Dialogue in this context can be considered not only as an event of communication, but also as a form of communication activity in its procedural forms [9, 10].

We should note that the philosophical discourse of dialogue is based on the principle of community and unity regarding the search of meaning and truth. The duality that was originally presented in the deployment mechanism of the world and in the basis of the formation of man and society now manifests in dialogue. In the evolutionary self-organization of society dialogue, a communication community where the general arrangements of the activity are clearly traced, forms. In this direction we should mention such researchers as E. Husserl, H. Ortega y Gasset, E. Levinas, P. Ricoeur, M. Buber, M. Bakhtin, W. Bibler and J. Austin. In the conditions of different discursive practices of modernity, as noted by D. Davidson, the truth is manifested as the result of the convergence of thinking through errors of abstraction and generalization of the dialogue process, where the convergence of opinions as the result of collective work appears in its structure [11]. In addition, we should consider the change of dialog forms, which are transformed under the influence of social-cultural changes [12, 13].

We should take into account the changes in the spatial-structural configuration of social relations in the conditions of virtualization of social interaction. Communication society, according to researchers N. Luhmann, J. Habermas, J. Vattimo, determines the state of modern civilization, due to certain communication completeness of the system of social relations and relations mediated by the media technologies, which are under the influence of new communication environments of the single communication space of the global society [6, 14, 15].

**Conceptual framework**

Civil society, in its conceptual foundations, is the result of the organization of maintenance of social consensus. It is necessary for the implementation of the vertical structure of the state and authority, and for the retention of society in the requested state. This is the result of the purposeful activity and the prerogative of social management. At the same time, civil society is the result of essential self-organization of its members in accordance with the adaptation to new living conditions, which are set by the external conditions of development of society. All this leads to the need of a new competence to the subjects of social management, including representatives of the government, state,
and members of society, specifically mass media. It also determines the expediency of dialog practice generalizations in the structure of social interaction.

Civil dialogue is the sphere of goal realization, the sphere of forming right human relations and communication on a single platform of cooperation for solving common problems and achieving a stable, equilibrium state and society development. Civil dialogue is primarily the restoration of essential communication between members of society, regardless of their status. This is the supremacy of law, of spirit and the language of law for all. Naturally, ongoing dialogues or round tables reproduce the balance of power that maintains the structure of social relations, which were inherent at the stage of early socialization.

Today, in contrast to the established ties and relations, which are institutionally supported by society, the state and authorities, informal communities uniting people appear on other grounds that are not programmed by the strategy and tactics of social ties and relation development of the institutional structure of society.

Dialogue becomes a tool to influence the solution of other social problems or situational tasks in conditions when the purpose of subjects and a common desire to obtain the result are clearly presented. It is formed horizontally through the strengthening of ties within communities and borders, which can be the same in geographical, territorial, ethnic-national, religious, economic, industrial, family and domestic entities, and does not match as it is in virtual reality. The place where the relationships of people are formed under conditions of their constant contact and awareness of their common desires and needs is horizontal. From time to time, a burst of self-consciousness of such communities is observed in the space of social life, which is suppressed as anomalous phenomenon relative to institutional social ties and relations.

There emerges now a higher concentration of the possibilities of social regulation, influenced by the vertical social structure of society, which is represented by the state and the authorities. At the moment, we can see the preservation and presence of structural inequality of social life. Dialogue rhetoric is formed in accordance with the situation and is manifested through the words, meanings and values that justify the interests of the participants, especially those, who represent the vertical.

The difference between the forces of the development of communities, states and authorities is the measure of the coordinate conflict when the opportunities of development of the social life in the horizontal vector are weaker than the concentration of the opportunities of development in the vertical vector. The greater the difference is, the more intense or conflicted social relations become, and social ties become distorted and broken. A necessity of dialogue, which should be new by its nature, configuration and principle, also exists in the horizontal vector.
Description of the model of communication dialogue

So, we came to answer to the question: What kind of dialogue do we need that will become a tool of influence on the solution of other social problems or situational tasks, provided that it clearly presents the purpose of the subjects, the desire to get the needed result?

The existence of the globally integrated world, and an increase of interconnectivity of elements of social life has an impact on the content and subject of dialogue, and leads to the necessity of considering goals, vision, knowledge, and assessments of the subject by the participants of the dialogue. The new world organization generates new content and requires new priorities. In this case, the content of the dialog tends to the common aspirations of the people; the analysis involves a search for the causes of contradictions; the result of the dialogue requires a return to the achievement of the community; new priorities put the world in dependence from each of us. The world depends on: where “I am” in the system of relationships; which feelings “I” have; on what “I” target my actions; through what or whom “I” act.

Dialogue becomes a special configuration of individual consciousness aimed at overcoming the limited subjective consciousness in the understanding of the ultimate reason of being, activity and thinking. What is not available for individual consciousness is overcome by the collective consciousness and is implemented by the society.

The importance of a common purpose by the level of consolidation in the social structure is carried out through personal, local, regional, international and global communities. The ideology of civil society, in this case, must be made outside the legal-political frame, but in the whole sphere of social-cultural policy. The dialogue and dialogical discourse should be aimed at the formation of the state of social consciousness, adequate to the global, integral, interdependent society, ideally seeking civil organization.

The geometry of the dialogue has changed from a linear, one-dimensional configuration to a circular, multidimensional form. The overcoming of structural inequalities by way of solving vital problems of society and formation of civil society implies: 1) involvement of subjects-communities in the fulfillment of the tasks of common development; 2) vertical and horizontal convergence of coordinates of social life and its organization.

Dialogue and all its developed forms must be included in the process of construction of social life. First, we should be aware of changes of dialogic forms:

“dialogue – contact” as a form of acquaintance with positions of the subjects of the dialog process, clarification of these positions, determination of readiness for joint discussion of problems. In the dialog practice this form is used in negotiations, public discussions, debates, which should only be considered an initial stage of the dialogue communication.

“dialogue – conversation” as a form of information exchange in the dialogue process, as a demonstration of attitude to the subject of the dialogue. In the dialogue practice this form is widely used in PR, public dialogue, included in the frameworks of various
fictional and journalistic genres, talk shows, and round tables.

“dialogue – communication” as a form of achieving commonality of views and joint decision making about joint actions for the achievement of socially significant purposes. Dialogue-communication represents an intentional sense of social interaction, which is essentially an aspiration for the integrity, creation and understanding between subjects of the social action. Discussions and debates are forms of the initial stage of the dialogue-communication.

Communication interaction on the objective level determines social organization, and on the subjective level changes the perception of the social world and affects a person through the rethinking of perception and assessment of the proposed society models (behavior, activity, thinking). It qualitatively changes the principles of dialogue and the form of its organization. The focus of dialogue is in the center of the dialogue circle, where communication unity defined by us as the unity of goals, visions, feelings, desires of the same result should occur.

New conditions require new social relations, where the constructive elements are characteristics of a state of consciousness connected with sensual-emotional sphere. This state is understood as a state of communication unity, which implies a common understanding of the dialogue goal, content, direction, forms of the results of communication and the subsequent common act. It is possible establish communication unity only when there are common goals by the participants. The achievement of these goals requires the consolidation of the subjects of dialogue over personal and group interests based on the interests of the entire community, members of civil society. This applies both to the local community level and the world level. Technique of dialogue-communication involves: zeroing positions of the participants of the dialogue in regard to the purpose; setting unification of the vision of the dialogue subject; reaching agreement on common solutions. This determines the axiological foundations of dialogue.

Now, we observe how the developing dialog process covers many subjects and the meanings they produce. The synthesis of these meanings requires special efforts of its processing in social interaction. Incompleteness, inherent in traditional dialogue, turns into endless multisubject dialogue on the meanings that initiate it, and require special techniques of bringing these conversations to a common denominator, which balances or removes contradictions.

The answer to the question set at the beginning of the article may be as follows: We need dialogue between communities that leads to horizontal and vertical understanding in social structure. We need communication dialogue, leading to public consensus on key problems of society life. However, in the processes of social regulation the dialogue raises the necessity of its periodic completion. This completion should be considered as a moment of achievement of its value-oriented community of the participants of the dialogue on the basis of a consensus and unity of action regarding the discussed issues. Thus, social effect is achieved and expressed in the change of behavior of the participants of the dialogue and its distribution within the particular community, change
in the condition of consciousness concerning the perception of reality and its evaluation, as well as the change of practical actions for the resolution of any social problem.

The incompleteness of dialogue, i.e. absence of achieving communication unity in all above-mentioned parameters, is a prerequisite for the transfer of the discussed problems and tasks in the sphere of a new circle of the dialogical process in the form of establishing the necessary links between the community representatives.

Speaking about modeling the dialog process, under the conditions of formation of civil society, we should consider the five phases of the process of communication dialogue, in which the gradual transition from the initial (incomplete forms) to the complete form of the dialogue is visible: 1 - preliminary phase; 2 - contact; 3 - message; 4 - communication; 5 – decision making and registration of results. The five-phase process shows by what specific actions and mechanisms the results of the dialogue-communication are achieved. This model can be called a cyclic-iterative model, where moments of incompleteness of the dialogue on the previous stage transferred to the stage of completion of the dialogue, i.e. achieving results or effects in regard to a common vision, behaviour and actions in different communication situations.

Communication dialogue implements its mission only if it leads to the common vision or understanding, action or behavior. The communication dialog cannot contain disputes, discussions and contradictions. All other forms of dialogue are not effective, and perform a supporting role.

**Conclusion**

Social-cultural dynamics of modern society depend mostly on the transformations of the pyramid of social ties and relations in its basis. Civil society is formed simultaneously with the establishment of ties and relations in the society, provided that another is more important than me, “myself”. Thus, we distinguish the actions between two vectors in the development of civil society: 1 - the vector of the organization as a result of historical-evolutionary development of sociality; 2 - vector of self-organization arising from the sphere of social interaction between equal partners, including the legal sphere. Qualitative changes of the state of society are possible under conditions of uniting of these vectors into a single vector of social civilization development on the basis of programmed, constructive dialogue, the principles of which correspond to the character and substantial entity of social interaction.

In the model of communication dialogue the objective process of self-organization of the subjects of social activity and regulatory capabilities of the organization as a function of social management to achieve societal goals is implemented. Dialogue-communication is a form of civil dialogue, which corresponds to the level of development of social interaction and needs of the movement of society towards a stable equilibrium community. The realization of this model is one of the most important directions of implementation of public investment on the basis of public consultation, in which the
need of a solution to various problems of democracy development, relations between the authorities and society, development of the territories and states emerges. There are several options of the dialogical process. First of all, we need professional dialogue, the organization of which is within the competence of professional communicators. The demand for these specialists is urgent under conditions of development and reform of social interaction and openness of society.

Humanity today has everything we need to become a single organism, a communication network that can not only mediate its vitality, but can also change the world for the better. Dialogue, as a form of development of sociality through its own evolution in the structure of social life, returns to the field of study of the regulatory mechanism of the formation of social environments, their structuring and is included in the practice of social action, and the cultural creative process.

References


Educational Technology Optimization for Efficient Civil Dialogue

Gleb K. Bogatskiy

Abstract

Civil dialogue is a process of conversation between citizens. There are different types of conversation. One leads to a fight. Another takes the form of mere small talk and leads nowhere. The third – desirable type – is a structured and constructive process that produces useful outcomes: social agreement, collaboration, consistent citizens’ feedback, and political clarity. Sadly, there is an issue that makes this kind of civil dialogue almost impossible: citizens come to conversation with their backgrounds, interests and thinking patterns, carrying their negative expectations. No one is interested in the social benefit more than in the personal benefit. The solution, as we see it, is in education, since we are all learners by origin. This paper introduces an instructional design solution that is expected to optimize the social dialogue effects of education, keeping the high rate of schooling attainment. The practical implications of this solution presuppose the evolutionary change in public education, which is shown to lead to greater social welfare and stability.

Keywords: education, civil dialogue, policy, instructional design

Introduction

Does improved education promote citizens’ happiness? The answer depends on what particular aspect of education is improved. There is empirical evidence that the expansion of school attainment does not unambiguously lead to greater social welfare. However, increased cognitive skills are shown to result in greater personal earnings. More curiously, experts argue that low skills, as well as high skills, are needed for eco-
nomic growth (Hanushek & Wößmann, 2007).

In other words, someone must be clever, and rich and someone must stay unemployed to ensure the society’s overall wellbeing. This implies social differentiation and tension which naturally disable citizens’ happiness.

The separation of development and engagement, as functions of education, recommended by Bourne (2003), suggests one aspect of the education quality to lead us from the trap of misunderstanding – the societal effects of education, i.e. what character of social relationship the education is resulting in. Social relationships are seen based on conversation as the center of a “deliberative space” (Kaldor, 2002).

The most straightforward impact of education upon social relationships, with minimal time lag, can be observed in how adult education affects civil dialogue, as the process of conversation between citizens.

Civil dialogue brings together people from different social identity groups and/or levels of governance. Their common aim and benefit from a profound conversation on relevant social issues is a better mutual understanding, positive relationship, intergroup action and collaboration. When NGOs are engaged in the dialogue with authorities of some level, the desirable criteria of efficacy of the dialogue would be the fulfilment of expectations by the governors and the social order.

The link between education and dialogue is produced by the fact that civil dialogue requires listening and questioning skills, and commitment to understanding others’ viewpoints, even if not agreeing. Dialogue is neither a debate, where one side “wins”, nor small talk about political and social issues, rather a style of interactive communication facilitating common sense (Gurin, Nagda, Sorensen, 2011).

Learning can be the playground, where learners have an opportunity to train getting involved in intergroup dialogue and achieving mutual understanding while getting actively involved in learning. The conditions for positive effects of students’ intergroup dialogue, are formulated by Allport (1954): equal status, positive interdependence, acquaintance potential, and authority sanction.

However, the games tend to be left on the playground, and life announces “the right answer”: peace is impossible. And after 60 years we observe even more conflicts, poverty and social instability.

In this paper, we search for the solution in optimization of the entire learning process. The initial proposition is that there is an optimal educational technology framework, which would make a pro-dialogue learning environment available for a wide range of citizens and, if needed, serve the whole society in times of exceeding uncertainty. A vital feature of such an environment is transferability of experience from the playground to the real world.

There are various ways to understand the concept “educational technology” since the word “technology” can refer to material objects and software as well as to methodological systems, learning process organization, and techniques. In our case educational technology (ET) should be seen as a set of tools that enhance learner’s advancement in
a given field of study and with the given conditions of learning. Lowenthal and Wilson (2010) suggest measuring the ET performance in how and why individuals behave.

The present paper discusses the question about ways to optimize the combination of ETs w.r.t. their impact on the quality of civil dialogue, especially in such spheres as:
- refresher courses;
- education for unemployed;
- immigrant training;
- and other forms of lifelong learning.

The first section is dedicated to the review of the existing ETs and their classification. The second section analyses the connection between the character of the ET and its social effects. The third section, suggest an efficient general approach to optimization of the ETs. The conclusion provides a glance at further research.

The variety of educational technologies

The basic parameters of educational technology

From a process perspective, educational technology is a structure of cooperation between learners and instructors aimed at planning, organization, direction and correction of the training process for the sake of a measurable outcome and comfortable learning conditions. It can also define conditions for learners, e.g. rules to obey during the studies or a right to suggest “bold proposals” (Zair-Bek and Mushtavinskaya, 2004).

Educational technology consists of:
- a description of the planned outcomes of learning according to specific criteria;
- assessment methods for the current state of learners;
- a set of learning models which ensure repeatability of the experience and reproducibility of the results;
- a set of selection criteria for the optimal learning model for the given conditions.

Educational technology assumes a certain sequence of phases, e.g.:
1. Evocation, provided by an intrigue, a challenge or any kind of motivation. At this stage the aim of the studies should be specified and agreed with learners. An important function of this stage is the assessment of learners’ background. Knowledge evocation may be provided by means of propositions, associations or a Bloom's wheel. The Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, which stands behind this tool, is aimed at a holistic approach that encourages the educators to consider all three “domains”: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.
2. Realization, i.e. the comprehension of the new data;
3. Reflection. At this stage the data is interpreted and creatively processed. An im-
important instrument here is discussion that helps learners demonstrate and evaluate the shift in their knowledge. Learners also evaluate the way they have gone, their own activities, their teamwork, and their comprehension. The reflection stage boosts the metacognitive reflective skills (MRS) of learners (Galaktionova, 1999), which have a direct impact upon the quality of the civil dialogue that will take place between learners.

Relevant classification approaches

One classification approach described by Zagashev et al. (2003), Kulyutkin and Mushtavinskaya (2002 and 2003) suggests the division of educational technologies into standard, reflective and metacognitive reflective technologies.

The standard technologies are aimed at knowledge acquisition, and use the reflective functions merely as a means.

The reflective technologies are aimed at reflective thinking and cognitive skill development, as well as forming of learner’s intellectual apparatus for the sake of further research and findings. Besides the subject-specific competence and achievements, these technologies bring meta-subject competence, i.e. acquired practical algorithms usable for problem solving in various reality situations. Additionally, the personality-related outcomes are the formation of learners’ new relation to themselves, to each other, to the learning process, and to its outcomes.

The metacognitive (meta-subject) reflective technologies are based on the personality-related thinking mechanisms, including awareness, self-criticism, self-appraisal, etc. They form intellectual skills and enhance reflective mechanisms providing both learners and instructors with tools and methods of reflective function activation.

The ETs are normally built according to one of three philosophical frameworks: Behaviorism, Cognitivism and Constructivism.

Behaviorism was developed in early 20th century on the basis of animal learning experiments (Ivan Pavlov) and functional analysis of Verbal Behavior (Skinner, 1954).

Cognitivism came after it, to explain learning as a work of mind and memory. Today it has boiled down to two main topics: Cognitive load and Information Processing Theory. It is not relevant to the present paper since it has no societal implications.

Constructivism, the dominant theory of today, conceptually presumes that learners construct their own knowledge out of the data they receive according to their individual perspectives. As a product of philosophy, psychology and cybernetics it tries to describe how people know the world, as von Glasersfeld (1989) puts it. In a constructivist learning environment, students derive new concepts on the basis of their experience and knowledge (Jonassen, 1997). An instructor now acts as a facilitator that helps learners to develop knowledge on their own. Instructors are recommended to select technologies that enhance previously acquired knowledge, e.g. with problem-solving tasks.

According to a functional approach, the ETs can be classified as follows:
- developmental teaching
- collective learning system
- the theory of inventive problem solving
- research and project methods
- module and block/module learning
- debate technology
- critical thinking development technology
- lecture/workshop teaching system
- technology based on role playing-, business-, interactive and other developing games
- peer-to-peer learning, which has its societal implications
- information and communication technologies
- health preserving technologies
- interactive and distance learning technologies. These are gaining popularity along with the tendency to take the form of socialization, which has a direct impact upon the civil dialogue development.
- project-based learning, which presumes detailed processing of a given matter or issue that is supposed to result in a tangible practical result, presented in a definite form.
- problem-based learning;
- inquiry-based learning, which is a general case of problem-based learning. The three last technologies are called “active learning” technologies. According to Forehand (2010), their main features are student-centeredness, real-world scenarios and requirements for critical thinking.

**A closer look upon the most progressive theories**

Any educational process that involves at least two people inevitably influences the quality of civil dialogue, as a process of exchange of values and viewpoints between individuals. However, the search of qualitative societal impact of ETs leads us to the most progressive technologies that are aimed at developing skills of the highest degrees.

This analysis will allow us to derive optimization regulations for Instructional Design as the practice of creating learning experiences for efficient, effective, and appealing skill acquisition (Morrison, 2010), accompanied with the development of skills and motivation for civil dialogue.

In this subsection we will focus on the essential features of metacognitive reflective
technologies using the Constructivist views on instructional design.

The basic principles underlying constructivism include active, collaborative and authentic learning, i.e. designed to facilitate, simulate and recreate real-life complexities and occurrences (Cey, 2001).

Karagiorgi & Symeou (2005) observe a series of challenges faced by instructional designers when employing the constructivist approach, including issues with the pre-specification of knowledge, evaluation and learner control.

Note that while regular instructional design has to rely upon moderate interpretations of constructivism to produce feasible learning courses that would make sense from the knowledge point of view, courses aimed at the development of civil dialogue will benefit from the unconstrained learning environment provided even by extreme constructivism. According to Hannafin et al. (1997), the general constructivist approach to instruction presumes providing a rich context within which meaning can be negotiated.

Cole (1992) points out four types of personal filters: experiences, goals, curiosities and beliefs which serve as a basis for a learner’s attempts to understand the world, and lead to knowledge generation. At every moment of learning, these are qualities that determine one’s societal behavior and ability to contribute to civil dialogue. Instead of truth and certainty, constructivism suggests the consideration of current “viability” of the desired knowledge for its agent. Understanding is a function of the content, the context, the learner’s activity and goals (Savery & Duffy, 1996).

Eventually, knowledge construction takes the form of putting in order the chaos of inputs (Perkins, 1991a), which makes this process a perfect model of the search of viable position in the civil dialogue framework. The attainment of common sense between learners (a subcase of citizens) is possible according to social (moderate) constructivists, who claim shared reality to grow out of social constraints placed on the constructive process of the individuals.

According to social constructivism, knowledge is viable in personal as well as social contexts (Tobin & Tippings, 1993) and reality is a constructive process integrated in socio-cultural practices (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996). Notably, learning focused exclusively on individual construction of knowledge is considered inadequate. The experiential world appeals as a negotiation between individual and social knowledge, whose contributions have a dialectical relationship and cannot be meaningfully separated.

Lastly, one perfect feature of constructivism described by Bednar et al. (1992) is the presumption of every learner’s unique perspective, which rejects the concept of the global ‘average’ learner. This proposition is a clear reflection of the paradox from the political economy: the median voter elected by a majority vote provides policy, which is eventually unsatisfactory for the majority of the population.

Constructivist instruction always requires a certain level of cognitive and self-reflective skills (Vrasidas, 2000), which connects constructivism to the domain of metacognitive reflective technologies.

Constructivist instruction often relies upon active learning, since the meaningful
understanding is developed by the search of solutions to problems and quests. Perkins (1991a): solutions ‘Without the Information Given’ and ‘Beyond the Information Given’ recommend the use of a combination of the two approaches.

**Educational technologies and civil dialogue**

**The criteria of impact**

We proceed from the assumption that an educational technology used by a given institution produces a learning environment, which the learners are exposed to considerably long. Their regular learning activity in this environment shapes the learners’ new habits, attitudes and socio-psychological characteristics.

A beneficial educational technology must ensure both knowledge acquisition and engagement in dialogue.

In this section we will consider different ETs according to three criteria:

- epistemic efficiency. Karagiorgi & Symeou (2005) characterize the post-modern approaches to instruction with the inevitable plurality of content, strategies and perspectives. The modern ET must ensure systematic knowledge acquisition in these circumstances;

- social engagement is a binding condition for any dialogue-related outcomes, and the technology that does not guarantee it is anti-dialogue, due to the prevalence of self-interest over the social benefit in the non-constrained setting;

- cognitive openness facilitation (Gurin, Nagda & Sorensen, 2011) is supposed to ensure positive outcomes of social engagement and lead to productive civil dialogue in the future.

**Behaviorist approach**

One famous behaviorist ET is Skinner’s Programmed instruction. Its objective is to present the material in very small increments, as Margulies et al. (1961) suggest. Behaviorists admit that cooperative learning can produce better results than competition through behavioral effects: learners’ help for each other follows the behavioral patterns beneficial for the knowledge. However, to ensure epistemic efficiency, the behaviorist technology needs to encompass the plurality of perspectives, which is not the focus encompass of behaviorism.

It may rely on social engagement, however it tends to use it solely in the means of spreading and maintaining the behavior productive from the epistemic perspective.

**Collaborative learning**

An example of collaborative learning is the “peeragogy” (http://peeragogy.org/). It
uses the benefits of globally available access to open educational resources and communication platforms to enhance learners’ collaboration in studies outside as well as inside formal institutions. Instead of books it uses evolving collectively written guides that include practical collaboration ideas.

Peer-to-peer environments engage people to share their knowledge and help each other to advance their proficiency. Epistemic efficiency of these environments depends directly upon the social engagement and cognitive openness. The weak point of this technology is that it does not guarantee responsible participation and does not encourage learners to make socially beneficial decisions.

**Constructivist approach**

Constructivist technologies are unthinkable without the Multiple Perspectives strategy, which multiplies its chances for epistemic effectiveness. According to Kafai & Resnik (1996) it empowers the learning environment with a diversity of learning styles, and knowledge representation from multiple conceptual and case perspectives, thus allowing for what Spiro & Jehng (1990) call cognitive flexibility. The latter essentially emphasizes conceptual interrelatedness.

Another central constructivist strategy is the collaborative learning environment, which allows learners to develop, compare, and understand multiple perspectives on an issue reaching consensual meanings (Cobb, 1994, p. 1051), which obliges educators to facilitate cognitive openness: Mayer (1999) argues that only some social contexts promote constructivist learning. This may not depend on social contexts.

**Active learning**

The evidence shows that active learning activities, including games, contrasting cases, simulations, labs, etc., - in advance of lectures or readings, result in deeper learning, understanding, and knowledge transfer (Westermann, Rummel, 2012). In active learning environments learners are engaged in meaning-making inquiry, action, imagination, invention, interaction, hypothesizing and personal reflection (Cranton, 2012).

Brookfield (2005) notes that discussion as a method of learning helps students to learn a diversity of perspectives, shows respect for students’ opinions and experiences, develops habits of collaborative learning and the skills of synthesis and integration, which inevitably require cognitive openness.

**Distance learning**

As Beldarrain (2006) notes, the establishment of distance learning provides educators and instructional designers with extended opportunities to promote learners’ interaction and collaboration. Social interaction software supports constructivist environments.

Chickering and Ehrmann (1996) suggest 7 principles that should be implemented
in distance learning environments, including reciprocity and cooperation between students and the use of active learning technologies.

Distance learning has a strong impact on social interaction, which in turn is meaningful for the outcomes of learning. One of the reasons behind it is that the learning process built on problem-solving tasks is much more efficient when it takes collaborative forms, which can also be a perfect model of civil dialogue.

**Social networking**

Social networking is not a technology, however it is an instrument substantially used by educators nowadays. If educators do not use social networks, learners use them themselves, hence it is in the educators’ interest to create a “learnscape” (McCarroll, Curran 2013) - an environment for formal and informal learning compatible with educational guidelines and employing the social support system. Experts recommend the use of these systems to facilitate information exchange, raise social awareness and civic engagement, and promote lifelong learning.

The evidence shows a strong risk of abuse against the learners and the learning process. The risk of exogenous abuses is always present, and the elimination of endogenous risks (distraction, conflicts, etc.) depends on the way the learning process is organized and how the learners are engaged to interact and support each other.

Social networking is a powerful relationship-centered platform for constructivist learning environments and collaborative learning. It encourages collaboration and engagement, and the quality of interaction it results in depends on the particular approach adopted by the educators.

**Variative learning**

Changing learning conditions, e.g. by presenting information in an alternative context or format, make learning more effortful and less enjoyable. On the other hand, it enhances learners’ motivation and improves knowledge retention and transfer (Paas & Van Merrienboer, 1994). The benefits from this technology are visible for motor/perceptual cognitive tasks, but it does not necessarily promote social engagement.

**Epistemic and interactive games**

Rupp et al. (2009) describe epistemic games, based on the theory of learning and designed to allow learners to develop domain-specific expertise under realistic constraints. The learners get an opportunity to experience what it is like to think and act like policy makers, managers, the unemployed, policemen, etc. using digital learning technologies to solve realistic complex performance tasks.

Another type of games suggested by Vopel (1996) are called interactive games. They promote the development of “emotional intellect” and help the educator to maintain beneficial relationships between learners. There are two ways to arrange the learning
environment based on games beneficial for both epistemic efficiency and social engagement:
- Combine epistemic and interactive features in one game;
- Alternate epistemic games with interactive games.

The cognitive openness as well as mutual empathy and encouragement to care for the community’s benefit is facilitated by interactive games and workshops introduced by Vopel (2000).

**Students’ intergroup dialogue**

Students’ intergroup dialogue contributes significantly to the pro-dialogue learning environment. The survey presented by Gurin, Nagda & Sorensen (2011) shows immediate effects that persist over the following year, which is considerable evidence of long-term effects. Students testified the importance of engagement in intergroup dialogues by speaking (engaging self), listening (appreciating difference), and active insight. The latter is related to both critical reflection and cognitive openness, the two factors of intergroup empathy and commonly accepted outcomes.

The authors include the following features in the “pedagogy of dialogue”:
- substantive learning through readings, assignments, and papers;
- active learning: exercises and interactions to promote learning across differences;
- facilitators who guide learning by asking questions. They also engage all students in dialogue and reinforce collectively developed guidelines to ensure dialogue, not debate.

In the dialogue learning environment, students are expected to consider how one’s own identity and viewpoint and others’ identities and viewpoints together shape various groups’ views and perspectives on political and social issues. Besides that, dialogue practices in the classroom promote rallying, and help to discover common ground within differences, which results in successful practical action and active civic participation.

As Gurin, Nagda & Sorensen (2011) show, participation in intergroup dialogue helps students to start building meaningful relationships across differences by developing trust, openness, aspiration and engagement. Intergroup dialogue practice increases social and personal responsibility for social justice.

**Instructional design implications**

The five phases of instructional design according to the ADDIE model (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992) are: analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. In this paper, we discuss the educational technological setting beneficial for civil dialogue in the short and long run.

For the pro-dialogue effects of learning, its epistemic priorities should be mingled with the societal objectives, which implies a strong focus on the social engagement
(which also benefits learning) and cognitive openness at all steps of the learning process, as well as its development.

From what we have learnt in this section, we can conclude that pro-growth instructional design is likely to be based on a Constructivist approach and should make use of active learning, distance learning and social networking. An important tool of a pro-dialogue educator is gaming – both epistemic and interactive. The last and the most important point is that the learning environment must provide learners with the opportunity of guided intergroup dialogue.

Analysis. At this stage, the instructional designer should already turn to social networking and use this instrument for a kind of crowdsourcing to get valuable feedback on the actual needs of learners. As active citizens, designers, educators and learners should have a platform where they can meet and figure out their own and social priorities in the form of an intergroup dialogue.

Design. The designer should keep it clear, how each element of the developed program is serving both epistemic and civil goals. The civil goals can be specified in terms of common agreement and practical collaborative action, which makes the active learning approach especially useful.

Development. The designer should distribute the available learning time allocation between social and epistemic activities according to the goals specified, but taking into account that social activities raise the epistemic efficiency. One should not disregard active & distance learning, and gaming, and plan for the intergroup dialogue sessions and social networking framework (e.g. create a virtual community and draw a plan of discussions and postings there – it has also to do with distance learning).

Implementation. The educator should employ all the above tools and keep track of group dynamics, playing the role of a facilitator.

Evaluation. It should be compatible with the accepted guidelines but include a group reflection upon the results achieved. The learners should conclude together, in the form of intergroup dialogue, to what extent they are satisfied with the new knowledge they have acquired and with the social state they have achieved.

**Practical implications**

Above, we have discussed multiple approaches, in some cases conflicting with each other. However, as they all serve the goals (knowledge acquisition and civil dialogue promotion), there must be a feasible way to assemble them in a reasonable combination.

In this section, we will discuss some simple approaches to the implementation of ADDIE model in an efficient and consistent way.

First of all, there is a need to elaborate on the practical implementation of the social activities suggested above.

The intergroup dialogue mentioned in section 2 should take the form of a specific activity. It does not have to take long, but the time for it should be planned. It can be a
15 minute long discussion at the end of the schooling day.

Dialogue learning environments, are guided by facilitators who are expected to support, redirect, and guide, not teach in a didactic manner. To enhance student engagement they may repeat or rephrase each participant’s words, make a responsive comment, or redirect the flow of conversation, e.g. reminding the dialogue guidelines. All these facilitator behavior features are shown to be effective (Gurin, Nagda & Sorensen, 2011). Facilitators’ working instruments are clarifying questions, requests for elaboration, and inquiries about why participants think and feel the way they report, also relating to student engagement. Facilitators are recommended to track group dynamics by listening and engaging in a supportive manner, increasing students’ openness. To reduce anxiety, facilitators should not support any side of a disagreement.

In order to create participation and draw on the wisdom of all the learners the classroom arrangement needs to have flexible seating to allow for the creation of small groups (Bens, 2005).

Intergroup dialogue trains students to collaborate across racial, social, confessional, geographical and other differences. An intentional educational use of diversity promotes intercultural competencies and democratic commitments (Gurin et al. 2002).

The sustained intergroup dialogue provides students a space for civil engagement guided by facilitators, in which students get aspiration for thinking, relating, and acting not only for own benefit but also for a vast social project of effective collaboration across differences to improve community life. This learning environment empowers students to employ their new dialogue skills while engaging in the learning process as well as beyond the educational context.

The interactive games are as developing as rewarding. On one hand, they can be easily empowered with epistemologically meaningful settings. On the other hand, according to Vopel (1996) learners feel the use of these games and in some cases may even ask the educator about a game that would let them learn to regulate a particular type of conflict or acquire ability to analyze the situation from another’s perspective. Their aspiration for the positive interaction skills grows as they move on. Non-competitive games develop social empathy, compassion, mutual understanding and desire for creative collaboration.

A methodological solution that allows for an efficient instructional design and implementation process has existed since early civilizations and can be adopted as an educational technology or framework.

Pranis et al. (2003) report its use for problem solving, conflict resolution and decision making in family and neighborhoods, at workplaces and schools, etc., and summarize it as a “structured process used to bring people together to better understand one another, build and strengthen bonds and solve community problems”. It requires experimental proofing in the form of a pilot project in various settings w.r.t. the student audience (children, college students, university students, grownups, etc), social & professional background, gender, nationality, etc.
The solution is based on a polylogue in a circle according to commonly agreed guidelines. Parnis et al. (2003) specify four rules:

- Everyone is respected;
- Everyone gets the opportunity to speak out without being interrupted;
- We explain ourselves by telling our stories;
- Everyone is equal, no individual is more important than others.

We have practiced conversation in circles in various settings and audiences, however for the time being we have no statistically significant evidence of the effects produced by this practice in learning environments. In other environments, such as working collectives, families, policy makers, citizens, - we can report that after 30 minutes of conversation:

- The conflicts are temporarily resolved;
- Productive solutions to practical questions are found;
- A common opinion on the given issue is achieved;
- The participants report an uplift and demonstrate especially friendly attitude.

As our experience shows, the third rule suggested by Pranis regarding personal stories is not binding. The necessary and sufficient condition is to speak from one’s feelings and experience, even without telling the story behind these feelings – and can be interpreted controversially!

On the basis of vast experience gained in the practical use of the Circle method, we derive the following guidelines, applicable to any audience:

- Everyone is equal and very important;
- Each participant must speak out;
- Participants speak one by one in an agreed order (usually counter-clockwise);
- One should speak from one’s own feelings and experience, not quoting nor sophisticating;
- Each participant speaks only according to the topic or question announced;
- No criticism, no dialogues, no evaluation in the circle;
- Everyone accepts the exalted goal – to achieve common sense.

The circle should have a maximum of 10 people and a minimum of 3 people. A circle conversation between 2 people is also possible and beneficial, however it has its specifics and is not relevant for the case of this paper.

The circle conversation is guided by a moderator (facilitator). The moderator, the role is played by one of the equal participants, rotation is desirable. The moderator’s task is to maintain the observance of the rules, remind the question discussed, and summarize the opinions at the end of each circle.

After the discussion of the topic, which may include a few consequent questions, participants should hold one more circle according to the same guidelines where they
share their feelings and impressions about the discussion they have been a part of. This is necessary for the common metacognitive reflection over the group process that guarantees the persistence of the results.

As the citizenship itself is argued to evolve towards equality (Arneil, 2007), civil dialogue will benefit from learning activities based on the kind of discussion where everyone is regarded as equal. The prevalence of individual interests over social interests can be abandoned by ways of social activities including the above described circle polylogues and workshops, where each participant forgets his own social status and considers the world from a variety of perspectives (Vopel, 2005).

Finally, it is important to note that according to our own experience gained in refresher courses for grownups, the instructional design benefits from relying on the same dialogue principles. Each stage can involve circle dialogue activities. At the analysis stage, designers meet educators and learners (past or future or both). At the design and development stage, they should work in a circle between themselves using it as a powerful tool of quick and precise course construction. At the implementation and evaluation stage, they should return to a larger audience and get valuable feedback from there.

Groups prepared according to the described ADDIE model form a powerful element of civil society. Both in the institutional form and in the form of single citizens, they have a rare ability to reach common opinion and shape a powerful position.

Governments of all levels should utilize the approach described to:
- gain a consistent feedback from the society (NGOs and voters) available for work, not only speculation;
- ensure a greater social and political stability, and citizens’ satisfaction.

As the described approach can be used for refresher & immigrant courses and other forms of lifelong learning, the results can be seen in a short run.

Besides the social stability, the society gets chances for political clarity and a real ability to influence the policies thanks to the social solidarity.

**Conclusion**

In this paper, we have described an instructional design model that ensures the development of civil dialogue along with the epistemic results.

The constructivist-based learning environment empowered by active/distance learning and dialogue practices, and enhanced with gaming and social networking tools is expected to efficiently produce remarkable epistemic results and at the same time promote civil dialogue. The graduates are expected to form institutional and non-institutional social groups capable of addressing the authorities with consistent, publicly acceptable and constructive feedback, ensuring social and political stability and a high rate of citizens’ satisfaction.

We have some empirical evidence that the first results w.r.t. the civic engagement
can be gained in 30 minutes. However, the statistically significant experiment is still a perspective.

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Civil Dialogue: Obstacles and Solutions
A Meta-Analysis of the Empirical Evidence

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Luca Brusati

Abstract

“Civil dialogue” as a system for communication between public authorities and the representatives of the local community is by now a well-established practice, up to the point that it is mandated in a broad variety of settings at national, sub-national and local levels. Branded under many different names (participatory democracy, deliberative engagement, stakeholder inclusion, interactive decision-making, citizen participation, collaborative governance, etc.), it entails the same basic principle: involving citizens, social organizations and, broadly speaking, relevant stakeholders in policy-making since the early stages of the policy cycle, to enhance the quality and legitimacy of policy decisions. The authors performed a meta-analysis of the English-language scholarly literature analysing practical examples of civil dialogue, in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the problems, barriers and threats to the implementation of this practice, as well as of the techniques and processes that have characterised successful public inclusion. This paper outlines and discusses the key insights emerging from the meta-analysis.

1 Research was conducted in the framework of and received partial funding by the Lifelong Learning Programme ERASMUS Multilateral Project “SME Leaders and Sustainability: Deliberative Engagement (SME-DE)”, 538864-LLP-1-2013-1-UK-ERASMUS-EQR. The paper is the outcome of the joint research work of all four authors. Paolo Fedele wrote sections 1 and 2, Mario Ianniello wrote subsections 3.1., 3.2. and 3.3., Silvia Iacuzzi wrote subsections 3.4., 3.5. and 3.6., and Luca Brusati wrote section 4.
Keywords: Civil dialogue, deliberative engagement, stakeholder inclusion, inclusive decision-making, citizen participation, collaborative governance.

Introduction

The main purpose of civil dialogue is to enhance the quality and legitimacy of policy decisions, thus overcoming the problems that the traditional processes and institutions of representative democracy face when dealing with “wicked” problems, multi-faceted issues and fragmented policy environments (Fazi & Smith 2006, pp. 12-15). This paper focuses on a systematic review (Huff 2009) of the English-language scholarly literature analysing actual examples of participation practices in order to highlight the techniques and processes that have characterised successful civil dialogue so far.

Since a shared definition of “civil dialogue” has not yet been agreed upon (Fazi & Smith 2006, p. 22), for the purposes of this meta-analysis all the arrangements falling under the broad umbrella of the collaborative participation processes have been taken into consideration.

To single out good practices we first analysed the obstacles most frequently mentioned in the literature when describing actual examples of participatory processes. Then we summarised the techniques and processes that were adopted to overcome the obstacles, or at least reduce their impact. The paper presents an overview of the key findings and patterns.

Method

All scholarly publications available in full text in March 2014 in the meta-search engines EBSCO-HOST (a.) and Web of Science (b.) were examined to widen the search to different perspectives and fields. More specifically, we accessed:

a. Business Source Complete; EconLit with Full Text; Regional Business News;

b. Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-EXPANDED); Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI); Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI); Conference Proceedings Citation Index - Science (CPCI-S); Conference Proceedings Citation Index - Social Science & Humanities (CPCI-SSH).

As keywords for the database search we used:

“civil dialogue” OR “deliberative engagement” OR “deliberative democracy” OR “stakeholder inclusion” OR “citizen participation” OR “interactive decision making” OR “joined-up government”

AND

“best practice” OR “good practice” OR “initiative” OR “intervention*” OR “policy” OR “policies” OR “process*” OR “regulation*” OR “scheme” OR “strategy” OR “strategies” OR “techniques”.

A first selection of the materials identified through online databases using the
search criteria outlined above allowed us to shortlist 97 articles. Then we proceeded incrementally by selecting only the articles that presented actual examples of participatory processes. Based on this criterion, 39 articles were deemed relevant for the purpose of this literature review, and were consequently analysed in detail.

**Challenges and good practices**

**Analytical framework**

We analysed the selected articles with the purpose of identifying emerging patterns and recurrent themes that could contribute to successful civil dialogue. The insights stemming from the meta-analysis can be clustered around four categories:
- structural factors, including both information deficit and community representation;
- process factors (process design and group dynamics);
- contextual factors, with special emphasis on the attitude of officials;
- outcome-related factors (overall performance).

To facilitate an appreciation of the commonalities, for each cluster we outline the most common critical points and the corresponding solutions suggested in the empirical literature.

**Information deficit and asymmetries**

As for any interaction, the theories about public participation tend to assume perfect knowledge and sharing of information by all stakeholders in a neoclassical fashion. Yet, the case studies included in our literature review show that this is not the case, with important implications for the functioning and the outcomes of engagement efforts. In particular, different stakeholders have often little knowledge of the issues and motives of others. Civil dialogue suffers from the same information deficits and asymmetries common in principal-agent interactions. For example, in the case of citizen engagement by government, the latter acting as the agent lacks knowledge about its citizens’ preferences. On the other hand, citizens lack knowledge of government processes and mechanisms for monitoring and holding it accountable. Each stakeholder engages with situations from their different traditions of understanding; they begin to make sense of the issues from a partial perspective and different value judgements while they construct their “stakeholding”. On top of this, the more the issue at stake is complex or technical, the more less-knowledgeable stakeholders, such as ordinary citizens, may find it difficult to participate. For example, environmental issues are usually defined as science-related ones, wherein expert knowledge is felt as more important than the opinions, demands or needs of citizens.
The consequences of information deficits and asymmetries can be grouped in two main categories: limited focus and unrealistic expectations. On one hand, asymmetric information limits the goals and agenda of many citizen involvement efforts to the goals and agenda of the organizers, rather than embracing also the aims and ideas of other stakeholders. The whole notion of “citizen involvement” often centres on the needs and goals of the party doing the involving, not the citizen. On the other hand, since participants do not properly share in the involvement efforts, they may have unrealistic expectations about the actual influence they could have. Many policy challenges, such as environmental protection, are increasingly global in scope, and citizens at the local level may not be in a position to understand just how their actions can resolve the issues of concern. Faced by complexity, ignorance and asymmetry, even many practitioners and advocates of citizen involvement may fail to see how their work intersects.

The case studies that we reviewed outline some potential solutions to mitigate the information deficit and asymmetry issue. For example, the analysis of the Regional Citizens’ Advisory Councils set up in Alaska after the Exxon Valdez disaster in 1989 found that long-term interactions allow participants to engage in an extended process of mutual learning through on going dialogue, thereby promoting informed participation even in the technically complex issues of environmental management (Busenberg 2007). They have also shown how interaction bodies should invest resources in R&D projects, because this informs and improves public participation. The example of the Dutch municipality of Bilt (Edelenbos 1999), however, shows that participants must accept the experts who perform the study and their findings, otherwise the whole process might be undermined. Similarly, from a process management point of view, the debate over zinc emissions in surface water and aquatic sediments in the Netherlands (Van Bueren, Klijn & Koppenjan 2003) has underlined the effectiveness of small but explicit attempts to increase interaction and create joint research activities among participants as a way to increase acceptance of the findings. If participants are not involved in the execution of the research, its advancement status and results should be fed back frequently to them in order to ensure their trust, and thus their involvement.

Therefore, planning for long-term interactions and investing in shared R&D efforts may help mitigate both the information asymmetry among different stakeholders and the lack of knowledge about technical issues. Both these solutions, though, require time and are therefore useful only for participation efforts that are expected to last for a long time.

**Participation and representation**

As odd as it may sound, participation - in its different facets - is one of the most contested issues when discussing the participatory processes. If we put it in the context of dialogue, however, objections and scrutiny seem immediately more reasonable. Since it takes at least two to have a dialogue, whether people are (or are not) allowed to sit at
the table is a major issue in determining the outcome of the dialogue itself; the number of people sitting at the table influences, to a significant degree, both the process and results; what the outputs of the dialogue will be used for (“Why am I sitting here?”) also influences participants’ satisfaction, and thus their decision as to whether to engage in the dialogue (Cristofoli & Valotti 2005; Edelenbos & Klijn 2005; Koppenjan 2008). Many authors have singled out the rules and modes of participation as the main factor influencing the results of participation (i.a. Bobbio 2005; Edelenbos & Klijn 2005; Regonini 2005; Valotti 2005). In our meta-analysis of the case studies, many contributions appeared to approach these specific aspects of civil dialogue: participation-related issues are somehow at the core of civil dialogue itself, as they involve questions of democracy, legitimacy and management.

Even if each experiment in civil dialogue starts with the selection of participants, or with the decision to allow everybody to participate\(^2\), it is important to reflect first on the preconditions that bring participants to the table by understanding their motivation in order to stimulate participation (Tijūnaitienė, Neverauskas & Balčiūnas 2009). On the other side, spelling out selection criteria allows avoiding self-selection biases (e.g., related to snowballing) and paves the way for successful dialogue (Ryfe 2005)\(^3\).

Selection can be seen as a continuum varying from total absence of any screening mechanism to an involvement based exclusively on cooperation. In between we can find different positions. Yang & Pandey (2011) highlight multiple involvement mechanisms\(^4\) and the selection of the most informed and representative participants as criteria positively associated with better participation outcomes. Van Tatenhove, Edelenbos & Klok (2010) look at the selection on the basis of the objectives civil dialogue is meant to pursue:

- finding innovative ideas for policy-making requires a selection of participants with a broad range of ideas, i.e. based on diversity;
- addressing deadlock situations calls on selecting participants with a distinct interest in solving the issue at hand;
- gaining public support implies a selection based on a combination of diversity and representativeness.

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\(^2\) This solution might seem the most democratic approach to selection, but it brings with it a series of potential problems that are discussed in the following sections, such as participation of the “usual suspects”, prevalence of hidden agendas, limited representativeness of participants and low motivation, just to quote but a few.

\(^3\) Five mechanisms seem to be particularly associated with successful deliberation: rules (even when our impulse is to avoid deliberation, rules of equality, civility and inclusivity may help institutionalize it as a routine process); stories (as a medium for framing discussions); leadership; stakes (deliberation works best when individuals are invested in the outcome); apprenticeship (new skills emerge from the elaborate but guided activity of deliberating in real contexts).

\(^4\) Reliance on different fine-tuned techniques for inclusion is present in various contributions (i.a. Rowe & Frewer 2005; Leihninger 2007; Juarez & Brown 2008; Kim & Schachter 2013; Yang & Pandey 2011).
Actually, bringing people to the table is essential, but not quite enough. Diverse sets of people are more likely to get involved, and stay involved, if they find a supportive environment that allows them to experience a variety of fulfilling civic roles; from socializing, advising, and advocating to deliberating, volunteering and also “being left alone” (Leighninger 2007).

In summary, the main potential problems that have been identified can be grouped in three categories: selection of participants is never “neutral”; participation is generally limited; representation is often problematic. At the same time, a series of suggestions for improvement emerged that involve all three components of public participation (administrators, citizens, administrative structures and processes) (King, Feltey & Susel 1998):

- strategies to improve participation should be citizen-orientated rather than service-orientated, should understand the causes and significance of place-uniqueness and should strengthen communities and citizens’ sense of belonging (Kearns 1995):
  - it is important to institutionalize participation (Rowe & Frewer 2000; Callanan 2005), enhance the local capacity of influencing policy-making (Irvin & Stansbury 2004) and establish public management networks to have a lasting collaborative effect (Agranoff 2006);
  - there is a need for even bigger involvement and responsibility of practitioners to ensure that the processes build trust (Schulz 2013).

**Process design and group dynamics**

While initial attempts at starting civil dialogue require tweaking and refinement as administrators learn better ways to engage citizens (Kim & Schachter 2013), process design and management are vital for the success of the participatory processes, especially in relation to the choice and implementation of “appropriate” tools of dialogue and the dynamics of civic involvement, that may otherwise jeopardize the outcome of such efforts.

On one side, confused definitions of public engagement mechanisms and little understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of different participation methods may undermine the process, or even make it pointless. The use of multiple participatory techniques and a closer attention to context variables might instead reinforce one another and avoid “exporting” pre-defined solutions (Juarez & Brown 2008). At the same time, Pozzebon and Mailhot (2012) point out the importance to envisage both “internal” and “external” engagement mechanisms, i.e. both rules for collaborative processes (e.g., how to discuss, how to reach consensus) and ways to keep in touch with the standpoint of the broader set of stakeholders, including media, citizens and government agencies.

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5 Context sensitive design implies that “designing” becomes both a systemic and adaptive praxis in which participation is necessary but not sufficient for adaptation to occur: social learning must also be taken into account (Collins & Ison 2009).
On the other hand, “leaders” and “elites” within participatory groups may influence civil dialogue as the gatherings tend to be dominated by well-organised minority groups or vocal individuals who may have extreme views. The threat is that group dynamics can become dominant, giving only ritualistic attention to participatory practice in the face, for example, of radical positions, economic pressures or political directives.

Here again the use of multiple participation techniques (e.g., public hearings, meetings, Internet-based surveys) should limit the bias associated to the dynamics of a specific method. In both the USA and Korea this was a way to prevent group dynamics from influencing the overall outcome of citizen participation in the budget process (Kim & Schachter 2013). Naturally, the decision to employ any technique, or combination of techniques, must be accompanied by an appraisal of the context where participation will take place and an identification of the underlying system of power relations within society that permeate roles and practices (McGuire 2006; Thomson & Perry 2006).

**Attitude of officials**

Officials often see civil dialogue as a palliative for the challenges posed by exclusionary or unpopular policies. On the one hand, this implies not wanting to let go of power and control. A “ticking box” attitude shows little appreciation for public involvement and deprives the processes of influencing the real issues at stake, while decision-making is effectively carried out somewhere else. Little trust is placed in the skills, intelligence and experience of ordinary people: there is scarce capacity and willingness of valuing “diffused knowledge”, i.e. community knowledge.

On the other hand, the focus is rarely bottom-up and on community empowerment, but rather on building partnerships from above through central government funding programmes to emphasise local competition and the construction of local collaborations to bid for funds, so as to create active citizens to promote self-reliance, local initiative and reduce “dependence” on the welfare state.

The growing workload for officials in handling participatory results, however, may mean that they view civic dialogue even less positively, and there is often a preference for outsourcing participatory processes to “experts” without embedding them properly in the process, which may raise issues of sustainability.

The case studies show how much official support matters in citizen participation: bureaucratic structures (e.g., “red tape” and hierarchical authority) are a major barrier to effective citizen participation (Yang & Pandey 2011). Top-down structures hamper participation, while transformational leadership, where leaders take a visionary position and inspire people to follow, is positively associated with better outcomes (Raco 2000). In particular, attempts at building the capacity to address complex issues, such as climate change, fail if the preconditions for both responsibility and “response-ability” are not concurrently created (Collins & Ison 2009). In the UK and Australia, for
instance, water management units saw institutional arrangements hampering the effectiveness of participation (Collins & Ison 2009).

Research on collaboration, much of it emanating from outside public administration, is quite useful in offering valuable knowledge to public managers (Barnes et al. 2003). As the citizens forum in Kansas City experienced, finding and keeping capable officials or facilitators for managing the inclusion process is key (Leighninger 2007).

**Overall performance**

An impact evaluation of the cases under review reveals that, while public inclusion helps engaging people, holds policy makers more accountable and offers an aura of legitimacy to their decisions, it does not guarantee that participatory processes deliver improved outcomes compared with traditional representative democracy. If the aim is policy change, collaborative arrangements are often less efficient and effective at achieving it. Reaching consensus is a difficult task, and even establishing a dialogue among heterogeneous players is not always easy, let alone when there are value conflicts. Partnerships remain elusive unless partners can also articulate, debate and resolve their conflicts.

Moreover, there are normative and instrumental concerns: if involvement efforts are not carefully designed or implemented, civil dialogue may delay decisions, increase conflict, disappoint participants, and lead to more distrust. This may occur even after the issues have been framed and the decisions made. Little or no impact could have important consequences for current and future involvement efforts, as well as for the policies under discussion.

The case studies analyzed in this review suggest, once more, allowing collaborative efforts to stretch over longer periods of time in order to ensure that impact is obtained (Cooper, Bryer & Meek 2006; Busenberg 2007). There are more specific suggestions emerging from the literature, though. First of all, the institutionalisation of participation bodies often makes them more effective (Rowe & Frewer 2000), as in the cases of participatory budgeting in Los Angeles in the USA and Bukgu in South Korea (Kim & Schachter 2013) or in the public meetings meant to define a framework for landscape architecture in El Monte, California (Juarez & Brown 2008). Participants were able to move beyond appraisal into a level of action that catalysed decision-making, so that they achieved a deeper sense of empowerment and affected change in their community.

Moreover, the citizens forum in Kansas City learnt that “complete collaboration” is recommendable (Leighninger 2007), i.e. the focus should not only be on cooperation among organization leaders - mayors and CEOs, for example - but rather on collaboration occurring at many levels of the organizations involved, particularly between an organization and ordinary citizens. The members of the civil society movement Nossa Sao Paulo in Brazil experienced that in larger communities better engagement can be achieved in smaller working groups with a facilitator helping the involvement of all or
most participants (Pozzebon & Mailhot 2012).

Available evidence points also at the need for clarity and effective communication of all aspect of the engagement effort. The review of eight participatory arrangements in Holland showed that the project status and stakeholders’ influence should be clearly communicated beforehand (Van Tatenhove, Edelenbos & Klok 2010). Agranoff’s study of collaborative networks (2006) underlined the need for transparency about the purpose served by citizen engagement efforts. Moreover, a survey testing “high-quality” public participation in the USA showed that simple practices such as clarification of language and standardisation of terminology may enhance the effectiveness of participation practices (Halvorsen 2003).

Lastly, both the framework for participation efforts in the USA by Rowe and Frewer (2000) and a study of US local governments with a populations of more than 50,000 inhabitants (Yang & Pandey 2011) call for using multiple involvement mechanisms to achieve better participation outcomes. They advise to use various techniques for civil dialogue, so as to ensure that the technique selected does not bias the outcome. As Agranoff (2006) points out, the best solution is to envisage arrangements that guarantee some immediate impact, within a long-term strategy for developing effective citizen involvement.

**Conclusions and further research**

What emerges from our meta-analysis is that the most important factors to improve civil dialogue, or at least those that allowed a more successful attempt at dialoguing are structure and relations. First of all, the presence of a structured approach to decision-making is essential to facilitate stakeholder inclusion and participation, thus improving the chances of a more systematic impact. Secondly, paying more attention to enhancing and intensifying interactions among government, agencies and stakeholders, i.e. establishing opportunities for real (rather than token) participation sustained over time, triggers deeper stakeholder engagement.

**Table 1. Good practices emerging from the literature review.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Info. deficit &amp; asymmetries</th>
<th>Participation &amp; representation</th>
<th>Process design &amp; group dynamics</th>
<th>Attitude of officials</th>
<th>Overall performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allow for long-term interaction</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invest in research and involve participants in data collection and analysis</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Favour diversity and representativeness in participants’ selection | X |
Institutionalize participation | X | X |
Use multiple participatory methods | X | X |
Clarify rules and mechanisms | X | X |
Agree on expected outcomes | X |
Involve knowledgeable facilitators | X | X |
Avoid hierarchical arrangements | X | X |
Plan for short-term gains within a long-term strategy | X |

**Table 1** summarizes the good practices emerging from our meta-analysis. The table is meant to systematize the suggestions offered in the articles we analyzed: it does not imply that a tool may not help address other challenges. For example, it seems logical to expect that allowing for long-term interactions would help group dynamics, but the literature did not explicitly feature these clues.

As a preliminary step towards a more structured research into civil dialogue, this meta-analysis tried to understand the problems, barriers and threats to the implementation of participatory practices, while identifying the techniques and processes that have characterized successful public inclusion. A limitation of the search strategy selected for the purpose of this paper lies in the fact that our analysis is limited to English-language literature. Whereas it could be argued that the most relevant and methodologically sound scholarly contributions would find their way in English-language journals and conferences, the sample emerging from our survey is clearly skewed towards English-speaking countries and countries that have been active for a long time in English-speaking academic networks.

This paper did not intend to evaluate the achievements of the solutions adopted in the cases presented by the literature, both because we believe that there is no one-fits-all recipe for success, and because the level of detail provided in the articles is often inadequate to engage in critical assessment. On the other hand, our meta-analysis identified some important aspects as well as good practices to be taken into account. The overall learning point is that short-term and half-hearted interactions are unlikely to lead to successful outcomes.

A twofold message stems out from the patterns we identified in the literature. On the one hand, there is still little evidence that citizen involvement as a general strategy can improve the efficiency of decision-making; on the other hand, dialogue does allow the enrichment of solutions, broadens the alternatives, fosters accountability and transparency, and facilitates a tailor-made “localization” of the decisions taken.

Is it possible to combine efficiency and enrichment of decision-making? There is no
unconditioned answer to this question: the fact that civil dialogue is intrinsically multi-
disciplinary and based on cross-fertilization between academia and practice suggests
approaching this area of research with even more precision in the ex-ante clarification
of epistemology and methodology. In turn, progressively defining a shared terminology
would help shedding light about results and conclusions of individual studies.

An initial appraisal of the results calls for a more structured academic approach
to research into civil dialogue as an instrument of policy and decision-making. Our
future efforts will look at assessing the transferability of the solutions suggested in the
literature to other cases, taking also into consideration the impact of national and local
cultural patterns as well as different administrative traditions.

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Forms of Public Dialogue in the Case of Vertical Expenditure Externalities of Local Public Production

Agnieszka Kopańska

Abstract

Communication between public authorities and local society is an important way to enhance allocative and productive efficiency of the public sector. In the case of public goods, reliable information about people’s preferences and public budget limitation is necessary for responsible and reasonable choices of public spending. When the choice relates to local public goods, the benefits and costs thereof can be attributed to a particular local area – the communication should be limited to this area. There are, however, many goods and services, which are produced at the local level, but generate over-local benefits. Education, health care, environmental services are examples. The production or service delivery is local, and direct consumers are local, but the results of these services spill out over the whole region or even the country. The aim of this paper is a theoretical investigation of problems of effective communication between local society, local authorities and central authorities in the case of local goods, which generate vertical expenditure externalities. Two forms of local governments are discussed – multi-function and single-function jurisdictions. The possibilities and limitations of using an effective dialogue between all stakeholders of local public production are different in these two forms of local government. Multifunctional jurisdiction is, in historical terms, a dominating form. Very often, in the event of public goods, which generate external benefits, even if a specific jurisdiction is a direct producer, the central government defines and provides funds for the production. In practice it is closer to a centralized than decentralized system – and a public dialog is more difficult (but not impossible). Taking into account the specific nature of particular goods, which generate external benefits, the idea of single-functional jurisdiction
should be taken into account in public reforms. It could help to avoid material costs of coordination, and not to lose decentralization efficiency.

**Key words:** multifunctional and single function jurisdiction, coordination, decentralization, external fiscal (expenditure) benefits.

**Introduction**

Decentralization – the assignment of public tasks to local governments – increases allocative and financial efficiency of public sector. The so-called allocative function of public finance is decentralized in the first place, even though a number of local services are also of a redistributive nature. One of the basic rules for proper division of tasks between the government and particular levels of local government is a division, which corresponds to the area of benefits (and also of costs). The idea is to make sure that only residents of a given local government are the beneficiaries of locally produced goods (and those who incur the related costs).

In practice, however, local governments frequently bear responsibility for tasks, which fall beyond their jurisdiction. This article focuses particularly on those services, whose effects are felt across the country or even abroad, which means that they generate the so-called vertical externalities of local spending. As is shown in the first section of the article, traditional solutions to this problem, which involve grants and quantitative orders, impair the efficiency of decentralization. According to the Coase theorem, inefficiency connected with externalities can be adjusted on the grounds of an agreement among the stakeholders of those externalities. The aim of this article is to carry out a theoretical analysis of problems of dialog as a means of finding a solution to vertical externalities of local government production. Particular attention will be drawn to two forms of local government – single- and multi-functional. These two variants of local government are introduced in the first section of the article, which presents the justification of their functioning in the conditions of lack of externalities. Also a brief survey of problems, which are posed by traditional solutions to externalities – transfers and quantitative orders – to the smooth local government’s performance, is presented. The second part of the article offers a presentation of basic principles of efficient agreement as to externalities, which arise from the Coase theorem. In subsequent sections of the article these assumptions – an unambiguous allocation of property rights and low transaction costs – are discussed with reference to single- and multi-functional local governments. Also, basic forms of dialog between local governments and the central government are presented, together with an indication of transaction costs, which are connected with any of them.
The efficiency of local governments and vertical expenditures of their spending

Following Oates’ decentralization theorem “all public goods should be delivered by a public entity encompassing the smallest area, which internalizes costs and benefits derived from the delivery of those goods” (Oates W.; 1972; p. 39), one needs to take into account the fact that an optimal size of a local government will differ depending on the type of goods analyzed. It means that in the case of traditional multi-functional local governments, the efficiency may be very close to the highest one, but it is certainly not the highest for each type of good. What is used here is the economy of scope. Another solution is a concept of single-function overlapping and competing jurisdictions (e.g. Frey 2001; Petermann-Reifshneider A.; 2006). The basic indicator of efficiency in such single-function institutions is competition – the fact that, like in the Tiebout model (and in the case of club goods), a resident can decide which local government (but also a company employed by the local government) will deliver him or her local goods.

Evidently, the mechanism of boosting the efficiency of local governments is different for each of those types. In multi-function local governments, it is effected by voting in elections (voice), whereas in single-function ones, by the possibility of quitting (exit). Both of these strategies materially affect decisions on spending by producers of local goods (local authorities), boosting the efficiency of goods and service delivery (Hirschman A. 1970).

Multi-function local government is a traditional form, which is also discussed in the European Charter of self-government. The document claims that a local government is supposed to manage a substantial share of public affairs (article 1 of the Charter). Still, it is possible to point to some examples of single-function local governments, which operate or used to operate in various countries. A classic example are school districts, which in Switzerland and USA function as a separate level of administration (Frey; 2001). Yet another example are big cities. On one hand, they constitute a multi-function local government. Their size, however, forces them to fulfill their duties through independent entities operating within administrative districts as well as outside of them. Numerous examples could be given: schools, but also fire service, libraries and other cultural institutions, health care centres, local roads, law and order including public law and order. Such an organism consisting of many FOCJs stands a chance of acting more efficiently, and it must be remembered that the basic function of a municipal local government is to procure for stimulating competition but also to ensure equal access to goods (Petermann-Reifshneider A.; 2006).

In both types of local governments, the basic principle is to internalize the area of benefits. In practice, though, it is hardly achievable. The majority of tasks performed by local governments remain actually local, and local residents are their direct beneficiaries though such tasks produce effects, which exceed the area of a given local government. Again, education is here a good example. Especially primary school pupils are
the children living in the area of a given local district. That is why, a direct beneficiary of local education is a child and his/her parent from a given local government jurisdiction. An educated child, though, makes for a benefit, which certainly exceeds an area of one local district. Together with human and social capital, which is generated thanks to education, this benefit is spread over other areas as well. Another example, which could be given, is the goods connected with the environment, such as water supply, sewage collection and waste management. A direct beneficiary in this case is a resident who is an addressee of the services rendered by a municipal water and sewage company. The impact on the natural environment, which is related to these services, makes them influence residents of other areas. Only the residents of neighboring areas may experience these effects – in this case they can be described as horizontal externalities of local spending. However, in the case of education and environmental goods, it appears difficult to ascribe a given effect to a particular area – it influences the whole region or a country and sometimes it can even influence other countries (e.g. clean water in Polish rivers is a benefit for all residents of the Baltic States). In this situation, one can speak of vertical externalities (Dahlby B.; 1996; Kopańska A. 2014 p. 41).

In economy, these supralocal effects are referred to as externalities. An externality, in its most general sense, might be defined as “the event that leads to provide for benefits (or losses) to a party(ies) who did not make any decisions that could result in that event” (Meade (1973) qtd. in Cornes R; Sandler T.; 2003 p. 39). The existence of externalities deregulates the efficiency of the market allocation of goods and services since private costs (or benefits) differ from social costs (or benefits). In the case of external costs, production and consumption are inflated when compared to the most efficient ones, whereas in the case of benefits they are understated. Public intervention becomes necessary. A traditional solution, which is applied when externalities influence private markets, is public production and implementing regulations of market operations. These regulations can take the form of orders as to the quantity and quality of production or taxes and subsidies. In the case of goods, which are provided by local governments, the first of those interventions means centralization of the task. Whereas in the case of decentralization, the state influences a local government through:

- general and specific grants - that is financial instruments,
- orders as to the quantity and quality of goods.

Unfortunately, at the moment when those central interventions appear, the principles of effective decentralization are violated.

Specific, but also general grants, “stick” to public spending. The flypaper effect, which has been described in literature, proves that income elasticity of a general grant is higher than of one’s own revenue (Inman R. 2008). The analyses of changes in this kind of grants prove, in turn, that in some cases the super flypaper effect appears, when a drop in grants makes local governments suddenly abandon particular expenditures (Gamkhar S. 2002). Specific grants also produce the phenomenon of the so-called
wasteful grant-seeking, and competition to receive money among potential beneficiaries (Tullock G. 1980). The result is that subsidized enterprises are often designed in a manner that is too optimistic. Grants, however, also influence projects other than the subsidized ones. Specialist literature notices the effect of money “leaking” from granted projects when the expenditures on projects other than the subsidized ones increase. In other cases, it is observed that a part of the expenses is moved to a subsidized task – which means cutting the expenses down in other local governmental projects. All these effects show that specific and general grants alter local choices concerning expenditure. As a result, choices made by a given local government are fairly remote from actual residents’ preferences. Additionally, residents, who do not bear the costs of granted enterprises, control their realization to a lesser extent. This situation, again, impairs the cost efficiency connected with decentralization (Boarnet M. G., Glazer A. 2002).

On the other hand, when quantity and quality orders are introduced, local projects cease to fulfill local needs, although it must be emphasized that it does not have to result in a total unification of those goods (Besley T, Coate S. 2003; Seabright, P. 1996). These orders restrict the elasticity of the local government’s income. They influence, therefore, not only the analyzed goods but also those, which are not under review. This lack of elasticity can be damaging especially in the case of changes in economic conditions but also residents’ preferences. The adjustment to these changes can be fairly difficult in the case of centrally designated standards. A further consequence of establishing norms is creating by the government (or, in a broader sense, a donor) of a system, which would control local government’s actions. Being under this type of control, local authorities actually adjust themselves to the expectations of central authorities. In this case, however, residents are those who lose, since their preferences become secondary.

A mutual agreement as a solution to inefficiency in the conditions of externalities

The above problems pose a question for other solutions to the problem of externalities. Coase provided one of them in the context of private markets (Coase R.; 1960). According to Coase, the problem of externalities can be resolved without any external intervention since “all concerned parties can communicate and, consequently, develop certain package of mutual arrangements ensuring the internalization of externalities and efficiency” (Stiglitz J.; 2004; p. 259). The above happens when:

- property rights are clearly defined,
- transaction costs are low.

Such mutual agreements should concern, on the one hand, a decision about the quantity of externality, (thus, the amount of production of the good, which generates this externality) and, on the other hand, financial compensation. Therefore, Coase does not really introduce any new “miraculous” instruments allowing attaining an agreement. He only changes the manner in which they are determined. Instead of certain
activities being imposed on private entities by an external regulator in an arbitrary way, the entities concerned agree upon them on their own.

The problem of externalities in local government’s actions concerns a completely different group of entities (that is public entities and society) and also different types of interactions (not market but political ones) than those assumed in the theorem. Concurrently, the theorem itself has been falsified many times and it has been proven not to pertain to reality - e.g. it barely helps in the situation where there are many entities that have to reach a mutual agreement. Still, Coase’s considerations have become the basis for, e.g., constructing new ideas how to counteract pollution in the analyses conducted within environmental economics (cf. Żylicz T. 2009). A practical example of the application of this idea is trading in the rights to the emission of pollutants.

That is why, apart from all the differences and doubts as to the applicability of Coase’s conception, the option of attaining an agreement among the parties in order to take into account indirect externalities of local production appears to be worth considering. Especially that this is an agreement of that type, which is discussed in new conceptions of local government management and, in a broader perspective, the management of public affairs. In our case, an agreement will have to concern local governments and the central government, but also an agreement between residents/voters with central and local authorities. This agreement is meant to lead to the creation of a financial aid system designed for local governments producing external benefits (that is a subsidy system) and to the designation of an expected amount of production (that is a system of quantity and quality orders), which, on a lesser scale than the classic one (imposed by the government), will influence local government’s action by altering their individual choices. The analysis of such agreements may be regarded as becoming a part of the theory of public choice and new institutional economics. We are attempting in this paper to find the means of rationalization and economization of the sphere of political choices (Wilkin J; 2005, p. 22).

A mutual agreement is a contract between society (principal) and its representatives – local and central authorities (agents), and additionally – in our analysis – the government (principal) and local governments (agents). The problem with this contract is that it is not a full contract and, what is more, an agent acts, first of all, in its own interest, which does not have to correspond to the principal’s interest.

**Property rights - the choice between centralization and decentralization**

In the first assumption of his theorem, Coase points to well-defined property rights. The definition of property rights in the case of private markets allows for an indication of who has the right to manage the wealth/resources connected with production and, concurrently, benefit from them. The above is necessary to attain a mutual agreement, since only an entity, being an owner, can make any binding decisions regarding pro-
duction. In the case of analyses of public entities, one must put special emphasis on the right to decide how to exploit the resources (Lülfesmann C. 2002). In a model (ideal) situation, only one of the entities decides about all the necessary resources needed for the production. If the government is an owner, we deal with centralization. If it is a local government, then we face decentralization. It should be emphasized, though, that centralization does not mean a dictatorship of the center. If this issue is referred to in the context of the Coase theorem – each of the participants has the right to take steps and, especially, negotiate even if they are not the owners of resources. In turn, in the democratic environment, centralization may not mean absolute power of the government. The government represents residents, who are also representatives of particular areas – local governments. Reaching an optimal size of production, which is local and influences directly a particular area (and the society), requires coordination – no matter whether we face centralization or decentralization. In the case of centralization, however, this coordination realization happens through, e.g., local representatives in the government (Besley T, Coate S. 2003). It is close to an idea of a combined management, simply, internalization, which appears in the analyses of environmental externalities. In turn, in the case of decentralization, the government negotiates with representatives of local governments and those local governments negotiate with one another and the basis for those negotiations are the residents’ preferences. Importantly, depending on who makes a decision about production (the government or local governments), its effect will be different. “In conditions of an incomplete contract, it is essential for whoever is in power to make final decisions. One needs to remember that decisions are motivated by self-interest” (Seabright, P., 1996, p. 65).

If significant economies of scale appear, centralization is the most beneficial because of lower costs of coordination (this idea will be developed below in the analysis of transaction costs). Centralization means taking full control over all resources needed for the production by the central authorities. Local governments, as immediate contractors, only follow recommendations of the centre. As said above, it does not mean a total unification of production. In a democratic state, local production will be differentiated because of the diversity of preferences, costs and conditions. Central authorities will take into account diversity of preferences due to their self-interest (being re-elected). However, not having complete knowledge of those preferences and, also taking advantage of their position, they will take them into consideration only partially. Centralization means, therefore, the loss of efficiency of allocation, which is the case for decentralization. Centralization also exerts a detrimental effect on other aspects of public management – in particular it leads to impairment of the accountability of those who rule, which can, in turn, result in the loss of production efficiency. Accordingly, we face here a problem of exchange between the costs and benefits of centralization. This interdependence is similar to the one considered by Oates in his first theories of fiscal federalism (Oates W.; 1972; p. 39). Here, we do not refer, however, to the production economies of scale (the benefits are often not too high in the analyzed goods and that
is why we deal with local production) but we refer to the benefits connected with coordi-
ination. (Kopańska A. 2014; p.148) An optimal solution to this conflict can be imple-
mented (just as in the case of the economies of scale) step by step (which is suggested in,
e.g., Seabright 1996, and which is a reference to the conception of single-function local
governments). An important decision also will be how the production is to be funded –
one needs to remember that it will be conducted locally, that is on the level of local gov-
ernments. Lülfeßman claims (Lülfeßmann C. 2002) that in the case of visible economies
of scale, the choice between centralization and decentralization must be connected with
the introduction of the mechanism of cost sharing. This mechanism is simply a system
of subsidizing the production. If this mechanism is absent, decentralization is not op-
timal. Provided that subsidies are present, decentralization is a more effective solution
than centralization. Seabright (Seabright, P., 1996) proved that in the case of centrali-
zation, these subsidies are likely to be shared in a non-optimal way among producing
local governments. The funds are directed to units whose residents will support the
re-election of the central government, which does not necessarily mean that this will be
connected with their participation in the creation of externalities.

The above considerations do not provide a definite answer, which alternative, de-
centralization or centralization, is better, or which form of local government is more
efficient. Apparently, the key issues are the costs of coordinating decisions and activities.
This problem forms an integral part of Coase’s second assumption – absence of trans-
action costs\(^1\).

**Transaction costs of an agreement in single- and multi-function
local governments**

Transaction costs can be assigned to subsequent phases of the coordination – ex-
ante costs will concern the preparatory stage and the stage of contract negotiations.
Ex-post costs are connected with the performance of such contracts (Hardt Ł; 2008; p.
184). The first basic problem in the case of decentralization is the multiplicity of entities,
which must be parties to the contract. As a result, the costs of attaining consensus (ex-
ante) are significant. As it has been mentioned above, in a democratic state, one should
assume that a local government represents opinions (preferences) of its residents. Next,
these preferences are negotiated among all local governments – that is with reference to
the whole country.

One can find different answers to the problem of multiplicity of negotiating entities
in the two types of local governments, which have already been discussed above. As
far as multi-function local governments are concerned, there is a permanent group of
entities having a range of responsibilities. These local governments will be truly mul-
ti-functional provided that they are relatively large. Residents of each local jurisdiction

\(^1\) R. Coase is again believed to be the inventor of this concept (The Nature of the Firm, “Economica”
1937, no 4)
determine their preferences and make them known to representatives (local authorities) – simultaneously in many aspects – only one time (during each elections). As a result, there is a low number of necessary negotiations on the level of local governments. Still, this frequently happens at the cost of losing the allocative efficiency because of the choice of many tasks in one package. Next, those tasks, which generate externalities, are discussed at the state level with representatives of residents – local governments. The larger the units, the fewer the number of entities, which take part in this phase of negotiation.

In the case of single-function local governments, first of all, the problem of externalities is limited – since, as it has been mentioned above, each local government should correspond to the area of benefits. If, indeed, coordination is needed – it concerns only selected problems – namely, only those local governments, which deal with matters generating vertical externalities. Eventually, necessary interactions between the central and local governments are relatively less frequent than in the case of multi-functional local governments and focus only on one issue (which makes them less complicated). A slight problem, which we face here, is the cost of coordination between local government authorities and residents. On the one hand, it is easier for residents to make decisions and enter into contracts in elections with authorities when they are discussing only one task, not the whole package – this makes the costs of this contract lower. Nevertheless, on the other hand, such contract – elections would have to concern each public task separately – in effect, it would be costly because of an immense number of elections. As it has been mentioned, however, the solution, which is used in the case of single-function local governments is to replace voting in elections with foot voting – residents choose that producer of a particular good, which fulfills their needs most comprehensively. This, however, is also costly.

In the context of negotiations between the government and local governments, the first type of local government is about decreasing the number of participants in negotiations, the second one, in turn, about decreasing the number of necessary negotiations thanks to the specialization of entities (Hooghe, L., Marks, G. 2003). In turn, it must be noted that negotiations between local authorities and residents in the case of multi-function local governments are relatively rare. Whereas, in the case of single-function local governments they are frequent as long as they are conducted during elections. If the contract between residents and a local government is based on foot voting, this can prove to be a cheap solution provided that the costs of job seeking and, in a broader perspective, the cost of migration are low.

The form of a coordinating institution and its influence on coordination costs

An institutional shape of coordination will exert an influence on the costs of preparing the contract. An entity responsible for the solutions deciding about the size of
production of an analyzed good and its funding can be\textsuperscript{2} (Boadway, R. W., & Shah, A. 2006; p. 185):
- government agency, which consists of representatives of the government and government bureaucracies; frequently this type of agency is close to the Ministry of Finance and/or it is related in terms of “trade” to a given task,
- parliamentary institution – located close to the Sejm or Senate, and consisting of representatives of MPs/senators,
- independent agency – appointed to solve issues connected with allocation of tasks and public funding,
- local government – government forum, permanent or appointed ad hoc to determine certain issues; a forum, which consists of representatives of local governments and the government, and also representatives of other businesses connected with the analyzed task.

The solutions worked out by these entities are, subsequently, the subject matter of parliamentary decisions often preceded by additional consultations. Apart from coming up with solutions, these entities should also be responsible for their implementation. Logically then, the costs of their functioning are not only a part of ex ante transaction costs but also of ex post transaction costs.

Government agencies as well as parliamentary institutions are a sign of centralization. Residents’ preferences in the case of a government agency are represented no earlier than on the level of a parliamentary debate. In the case of a parliamentary institution, residents’ representatives are its members. Still, just like in the government scenario, the influence of local governments (and their residents) is only indirect – exerted through the representatives of central authorities. Both solutions, however, offer low costs connected with the functioning of an agency itself.

An independent agency, in turn, is an intermediary institution between a centralizing and decentralizing approach. Apparently, it is prone to be objective, and, at the same time, the purpose of this type of agency should be taking into account both central and local needs. An agency of this sort is an attempt to separate decisions about the shape of production from a political process. The functioning of such a body can generate, however, relatively high costs since establishing an agency means creating a separate entity and employing new people. Apart from attaining its goals, the entity starts performing its own tasks, especially those connected with maintaining its role and significance. It may lead to the overgrowth of bureaucratic structures and, also, to overcomplicate solutions. An additional problem, which can occur, is a proper legitimization of decisions taken by such an agency.

\textsuperscript{2} The aim of these entities is coordinating not only the issue of tasks, which fall beyond the scope of local government’s competences, but also of other interactions between the government and local governments connected with, for instance, establishment of new taxes, deciding about the rules for financial compensation between local governments, etc.
Local government-government forums are the most decentralized form.\(^3\) In this case, representatives of local governments co-decide about the shape of solutions. The costs are mainly generated here by the time needed to reach a political compromise, which means that they can be extremely high.

Other types of problems, which relate to the issue of transaction costs both at the phase of creating and implementation of a contract, are connected with the cost of information, to be more precise, with the asymmetry of information between:
- Residents and local authorities/bureaucracy (in the case of decentralization)
- Local authorities and central authorities (in the case of decentralization)
- Residents and central authorities/bureaucracy (in the case of centralization)

Parties to a contract – a principal (society) and an agent (authorities) – have diverse information at their disposal. A link between them (in the issues concerning the problem of production of public goods falling beyond the jurisdiction of a given local government) is the above-mentioned type of an institution responsible for working out contract rules. The problems in question have been described in the public choice theory. Residents/voters do not have complete knowledge of the government’s and local government’s actions. By entering into a contract (elections), they can partly collect it on their own, but even if it is possible, it is expensive. As it has already been mentioned, in the case of multi-functional local governments, where voters’ decisions must concern a package of many tasks, one can speak of a higher cost of information than in the case of single-function local governments. The more complex the knowledge, or simply conveyed in a more complicated way, the higher the cost of obtaining it. An example of a complicated knowledge can be an algorithm of subsidies or unclear regulations defining the relations between a local government and the central government. As already mentioned, the degree of complication can be particularly high in the case of an independent agency model. As far as access to information is concerned, an open discussion within a local government-government forum (which, at the same time, is well-reported in the media) can prove to be quite vital. In this sense, the costs of functioning of this forum (particularly the costs of time needed to reach a compromise, which has been discussed above) are compensated by much lower costs of information (Boadway, R. W., & Shah, A. 2006; p 199).

In the case of decentralization, there is a necessity to enter into yet another contract between the government and local governments. Here, the government is the principal and local governments act as agents. Information necessary to conclude a contract is, on the one hand, actual costs and local government’s own abilities of production and, on the other hand, expectations of the society. It is in the local governments’ own interest to show high costs, little abilities and, concurrently, high expectations of the society. Thanks to that, they can count on significant support on the part of the government. As

\(^3\) An example of such a forum is the Joint Committee of Central and Local Government, although it is accused of representing the opinions of only those local governments which are members of local government organizations and not all (Stec M; 2009, p. 27).
one can observe, the cost of information appear in this case as well. The assessment of costs, financial effort and, eventually, the effects of local governments’ actions has become the basis for formulating the rules of production and funding of goods produced by local governments, on one part, and their benefits, on the other. Appointing tasks to local governments and their funding through the system of subsidies will additionally complicate the relations between residents and local authorities. For example, local authorities can fulfill tasks on a lower (worse) level than the one expected in the given society, and inform the society that it is not them who are to be blamed for such a situation. Instead, they will claim that it is a negative result of a poor contract with the government.

The problem discussed above touches upon the principal-agent relation and a lack of certainty whether an agent acts in the interest of the principal. In the case of an incomplete contract and the asymmetry of information, the most optimal solution appears to be the funding of tasks, which generate externalities, in the form of subsidies supporting particular tasks in terms of finance (Huber, B., & Runkel, M. 2006). Additionally, a contract consists of certain measures, which allow for its control. The costs of assessment appear, then, at both the ex ante- phase when a contract between the government and local governments is constructed and the ex post- phase when it is implemented. This assessment can also form the basis of evaluation of the actions of central and local authorities by residents. The condition is that measures need to be relatively simple – understandable by residents and available to them.

Conclusions

Effects of many tasks performed by local governments exceed their jurisdictions. One can speak of vertical externalities of local government spending. One of the ways to support local services, which generate those externalities, is the participatory/network management of public tasks. In the above article, the Coase theorem was the basis of the analysis, which made certain alternatives and advantages of attaining a mutual agreement evident, between residents and local authorities and, on a later stage, between local governments and the central government, as to the essential number of goods and public services and the assurance of funding them. The condition to use this mechanism is an unambiguous allocation of property rights and low transaction costs connected with negotiations between the parties (residents, local and central authorities). The analysis of exploiting these mechanisms has been shown in the context of two models of local governments discussed in the literature – multi- and single-function local governments. As it has been proven, the coordination in the second case can be less expensive than in multi-function local governments. This type is rarely used in practice but in the context of increased mobility of residents and the development of information technology, it appears to be an interesting and important alternative to traditional models of multi-function local governments. This is where the mechanism of foot vot-
ing, described in the theory of local finance, operates (according to the Tiebout theory). As it has been shown, this mechanism forms the basis of efficiency of single-function local governments.

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Local Government Capacities and Civil Organizations in Macedonia: Current States and Implications

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Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to analyze the capacities of the local governments in Macedonia when dealing with NGOs in the country. The main research methods that are applied in the paper are literature reviews, national survey results and modeling of IT support in the process of cooperation between municipalities and NGOs. Local governments still do not have well organized units dedicated to civil organizations. Most have adopted an official document and apply all the legal forms of cooperation, but not all of them financially support civil organizations. In practice, local governments must strengthen the cooperation with civil organizations, especially by improving the application of IT technology. The social implications strongly depend on further strengthening of the collaboration by applying IT knowledge during the process of civil dialogue.

Key words: Macedonia, local governments, civil organizations, IT support

Introduction

A key issue for the functioning of democracy today is the participation of citizens in the decision-making process for a successful local community. Thus, introducing decentralization and local government in the country and actions of citizens in the local community are a foundation of the social life.

In Macedonia, there is still the practice of inaction when it comes to citizen partic-
ipation at the local level. Citizens are restrained when it comes to the disadvantages of lack of or poor quality of public services and very few participate in the development and definition of local public policy. Macedonian citizens still see officials as powerful people who are hard to communicate with. On the other hand, in some cases officials see themselves and behave as “owners” of public functions, but not as officials paid with state funds to provide required services. Unfortunately, this situation leads to the passivity of the local people.

Today, the representatives of local government in Macedonia must be leaders in promoting civil participation. Kostov (2006, p. 7) claimed that citizen participation consists of four parts:
- local government that is open for cooperation with citizens and that includes its citizens in the process of governance;
- continuous exchange of information between citizens and local government;
- effective mechanisms for collecting information from citizens; and
- informed citizens who understand and highly value the obligation to cooperate as equal partners in the process of governance.

Thus, participation is directly related to the essence of the concept of citizenship. In other words, exercising the “sovereignty” of citizens through their active attitude in solving problems at the local level. The main objective of participation is to improve the operation of local government and the long-term improvement of the lives of citizens in the community. Consequently, the question should not be whether citizens should be involved in decision-making in the local community, but the fundamental question is how the citizens should be better prepared and included in the participation fee.

In the following sections of the paper, an analysis of the current relationship between local governments and civil organizations in Macedonia will be given, in other words, the current capabilities of local governments when dealing with civil organizations in the country. First, the research begins with background information on the process of local government reforms and decentralization in the country since its independence in 1991, and second, for the purpose of detecting and better explaining current issues, the most recent national survey research conducted among all (in total 84) local governments plus the City of Skopje will be presented, as a special unit of local government according the law. Finally, we concluded the research with a perspective model of IT support for collaboration between local governments and civil organizations in Macedonia.

**Local Government Reforms and Citizen Participation in Macedonia**

Macedonia has a single system of local government organized in 84 municipalities and the City of Skopje, as the capital of Macedonia. Supervision of the work is within the jurisdiction of the central government. Municipalities are not subject to adminis-
trative instruction. They should just respect the provisions of the adopted legislation (Gorgievic 2008).

Decentralization is a strategic goal of Macedonia. The goal of decentralization is bringing local government closer to the citizens, to enable efficient solving of local problems, higher participation of citizens in the management of local affairs, increased transparency in the local government and to reduce corruption at the local level. Sapurić and Boreta (2011) agree that citizen involvement and decentralization are mutually related. Therefore, two-way communication between the local government and citizens must be constantly practiced through institutional mechanisms, which can be changed or improved over time.

With the adoption of the Constitution of November 17, 1991 and the Local Government Act of November 1995, Macedonia was established and the development of the system of local government in the country began. To summarize, the basic characteristics of local government throughout the country are:

First, in pursuance of the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia in 1991 and constitutional amendments I and II of 1992 and IV-XV Amendments of November 2001, local governments determine fundamental values of the constitutional order of the Republic and also establish the basic principles on which it is organized and operates (Davkova & Mitkov 2000);

Second, an important feature of the constitutional concept of local self-government in the country is that by the Constitution, citizens are guaranteed the right to local self-government, which means that the right of local self-government and the principles of local self-government are defined as constitutional categories;

Third, another feature of local government in the country is reflected in the constitutional provision under which municipalities may establish forms of local government as a narrower form of self-organization of citizens; and

Fourth, the local government system in the country may indicate the possibility for citizens on the direct and indirect local government. This means that citizens exercise their right to local self-government directly and through democratically elected representatives in local government. The right to local self-government can be exercised in a direct way through referendum by citizens, citizen initiative, a public meeting and other forms of direct expression, whereas in an indirect way, the right of citizens to exercise their choice of representatives in local government is through direct, free and secret democratic local elections. In addition, local collection and the amount of tax is based on the estimation of the services citizens want, can achieve and are willing to finance (Damjanovic 2002).

Local government in the period from 1991 until the enactment of the Local Government Act in 1995, existed on the basis of the principles of the organization of parliamentary management responsibilities, which depending on a type of municipality, had different width and range of responsibilities. The Macedonian Constitution establishes a system of local government whose shapes are determined by law. Therefore, the
Constitution does not point out the forms through which the right of citizens to local government is exercised, but generally provides that citizens, directly through forms of direct democracy, can participate in decision making on issues of local importance (Todorovski & Kekenoski 2011). The analysis of the overall situation of local government in this period, shows that the period of establishment of the first multiparty local assembly until the adoption of the first Law on local self-government, is a period in which the rights of citizens in local government is mostly realized within the assemblies with a little touch of direct citizen participation in assemblies and with very little touch of direct participation of citizens in the management of local affairs.

For the first time in Macedonian history, in 1995 the first Law on Local Government was adopted. According to this law, citizens can establish local (rural) communities and other forms of local government in the local government. In local communities and other forms of local self-government, citizens decide on immediate and everyday matters of their lives and work. In other words, under this legislation since 1995, the citizens have been granted the right to establish separate organizational units of a local character, where citizens can make decisions of local character or indirectly participate in decision-making by the local government (Citizen Association- MOST 2010).

Acknowledging the shortcomings, the Government in May 1999 adopted the Strategy for Public Administration Reform, which was an integral part of the strategy to reform the system of local government in Macedonia. As a result of these efforts, especially under the pressure of the international community with the signing of the Ohrid Framework Agreement in 2001, a new and recent Law on local self-government was established in 2002 (Citizen Association- MOST 2010).

According to this law, the Council is the representative body that decides within the powers of the municipality. Counselors elected to the municipal council are elected representatives of the citizens in direct and free elections by using secret ballot voting (Davkova & Mitkov 2000). Unlike the previous law, citizens are allowed to establish two types of local government: urban and so-called local communities. Urban and local communities at their meetings can address local issues and can take a stand, make proposals on issues of immediate importance in daily life and work for the residents of that area. Also, citizens at their meetings can choose urban council or the local community council, in a manner determined by the Municipal Statute. Based on what is shown, it is easy to say that the process of citizen participation in decision-making of a local character legally evolves and is in constant development. This means that over time, more and more citizens are taking their “real” place in decision-making processes in local government in the country.

Forms of direct citizen participation or forms of direct democracy are legal actions of citizens even in the event that the municipality ignores the demands and needs of the citizens. Biljarska and Mirceski (2011); Milevska and Sazdevski (2011) assert that there are ways in which municipalities can meet the interests of citizens and service their needs, and they may appear as:
- entrance days in the Mayor’s Office;
- citizen initiatives;
- gatherings of citizens; and
- referendum;

On the other hand, in “A Guidelines for Strategic Planning of Municipal Local Development” (in Poposki & Bilaroska 2008) the civil organizations have the following available legal forms of action:
- submissions and proposals;
- public forums and survey research;
- participation on management boards of municipal public utilities; and
- participation on school boards in primary and secondary schools;

Besides the officially adopted legal framework, the cooperation of civil society organizations with local governments in the country is outlined the so-called “Strategy of Cooperation between the Government and Civil Society”, adopted in 2007. This strategy, although imposes no binding nature for local government, is expected to indirectly cause greater motivation for participation in the local decision-making process without which the entire development would be partial and limited (Milevska & Sazdevski 2011).

Finally, in the study done by the Macedonian Center of International Cooperation (Macedonian Center of International Cooperation 2013), there are many examples of innovative forms of civil organizations’ direct participation in the decision-making process in many local government entities, such as: urbanism, environmental protection, local economic development, culture and art, education, health protection etc. The involvement of citizens in local decision-making is of great importance because it provides legitimacy to decisions arising from the municipality.

The National Survey Research and Findings

Today, representatives of local governments in the country have to be leaders in promoting civil participation. It actually requires a great commitment to the process of civil participation by local government leaders, ranging from the Mayor and Councilors. Also, other people who are involved in direct communication with the public must be fully committed to the process of encouraging civil participation. Hence, general issues arise that require a response research of the local government capacities and their ability to enable better collaboration with civil organizations.

The legal framework allows the improvement of relations between citizens and the local government. Legal provisions for citizens’ involvement in decision making at the local level are a good basis to maintain and gradually further develop civil involvement. However, although legal framework set basic guidelines for informing citizens, mutual
For many of the above-mentioned reasons, there was a real need for conducting national survey research in all local self-governments in Macedonia, (a total of 84 plus the City of Skopje), as a distinct unit of local government. Therefore, the survey was conducted at the St. Kliment Ohridski University- Bitola in the period from November 2013 to January 2014. The survey research was concentrated around answering the following questions:

- Are there mechanisms for cooperation between local governments in Macedonia with NGOs?
- Have local governments in Macedonia developed and adopted formal policy documents for cooperation with civil society organizations?
- Has cooperation between local government and civil society been practiced in reality? and,
- Do civil society organizations have financial support from local governments in Macedonia in order to promote their active involvement in decision-making at the local level?

Overall, for the purposes of the survey 36 completed questionnaires from 36 out of 85 local governments in the country were received. What follows below is a graphic display of the basic fundamental or central issues that were required in the response survey. 

**Figure 1.1** Forms / mechanisms of institutional cooperation with NGOs

![Mechanisms of Institutional Cooperation with Civic Organizations](image)

**Source:** Georgieska, J 2014, p. 82.

1) department collaboration;
2) no special department, but only a person responsible for the cooperation of other activities, including collaboration with civil society organizations;
3) a center to inform citizens.
Figure 1.2 Strategic documents of local governments in collaboration with civil society organizations

Source: Georgieska, J 2014, p. 83.

1) There are strategic documents;
2) There are no strategic documents;

Figure 1.3 Practices of cooperation between local government with NGOs

Source: Georgieska, J 2014, p. 84.

1) civic initiative;
2) gathering of citizens;
3) referendum;
4) public debates;
5) participation in Council meetings;
6) community forums.
The issue of the IT ability or capacity of local governments in Macedonia in their relations and support of civil organizations is very related to the questions in the survey. We strongly believe that in order to facilitate better communication and cooperation, the role of IT methods and techniques is extremely important. Thus, we propose a model of so-called IT support of collaboration between local governments and civil organizations in Macedonia in all four aspects of cooperation i.e. mechanisms, official documents, financial support and real practices. In all four aspects, there must be extensive use of web support during teleconferences, video-conferences, blogs without borders, discussion groups, special websites for publication and EU web links for solutions and usage of best practices / experiences in EU member countries. Local governments in Macedonia must apply all available IT solutions in order to further strengthen collaboration with civil organizations. The present level of IT support for fostering better relations is not on a needed level and must be improved in almost all aspects of collaboration as it is displayed in the model below.

**Conclusions**

Based on the results of the recent survey, it can be concluded that given the fact that no separate department exists, but there is a “person solely responsible for cooperation with civil society organizations”, it can be said that local governments in Macedonia still
do not have access to organized serious collaboration with civil society organizations in their local jurisdictions. Local governments in the country, for the most part, have made specific strategic documents for collaboration with civil society organizations. This means that, in a declarative sense, they are ready and willing to cooperate with civil society organizations. Furthermore, according to the survey, local governments in the country legally practice almost all forms of cooperation with civil society organizations (citizen initiative, public meeting, referendum, public forums, participation in sessions of the Council, community forums etc.), although in different percentages. Finally, most local governments, but not all of them reported that they financially assist civil organizations.

As a result, although there are satisfactory “legal” limits, local governments still need to work intensively in order to further strengthen and deepen mutual collaboration, given the fact that the collaboration of local authorities with civil society is a condition sine qua non for a democratic society in every sense of the word.

As a general conclusion, the aspects of collaboration with civil society in the country at the local level, like other local social-political processes, is under constant evolution and transition. There is no doubt that these processes will not stop, but in the future will be increasingly deepened in the country. The success of the reforms would be incomplete without significantly increasing citizen participation in local processes.

Finally, the use of IT methods and techniques is an inevitable process in all four aspects of relations between local governments and civil society that were subject to analysis in this paper. The use of IT can further facilitate communication and cooperation, primarily by applying specific web links, web pages for publication, creating so-called “blogs without borders”, better control of the budgeting process in order to enable better transparency and finally, empowering public meetings by IT support such as teleconferences and video-conferences etc. The above model that we proposed must be respectfully applied by local governments in the country in relations with civil society in order to say that there is “no perfect” but “acceptable” reality of democracy, and transparent collaboration with the civil sector in the country. As a future recommendation, there is a need of searching for the IT capacity of local governments in their everyday collaboration with civil organizations in the country.

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Do Public and Nonprofit Sector Employees Speak the Same Language? 
Public Service Motivation in Nonprofit and Public Organizations

Palina Prysmakova

Abstract

While the cooperation of local governments and nonprofits might lead to the successful public service provision, the dialogue between the employees of these organizations is only possible if they are motivated by the same reasons. This article is based on the theory of public service motivation (PSM), and it presents a literature review on the public-nonprofit relations in different administrative systems as well as their influence on the work motivation in the service providing organizations. The summary of the theoretical and empirical evidence suggests why, despite similar aims and goals such as assisting individuals and providing public goods, employees of one sector are more responsive towards society's problems and failures than of the other. As a conclusion, the article proposes two hypotheses regarding the differences of the PSM level in the public and nonprofit sectors in Poland and Belarus, which mainly arise from the context of the centralized and decentralized administrative systems of these countries. These hypotheses are to be further tested in the empirical research.

Introduction

In times when civil society organizations become the principal structures of democratic society outside of government and public administration, successful public service provision depends on effectual dialogue between the public and nonprofit sectors. Cooperation of local governments and nonprofit organizations allows finding fresh solutions, unlocking new potential, and providing innovative services that meet different needs. Yet, is an efficient dialogue even possible if employees of these organizations are motivated by different reasons? Could they indeed work together in solving social
issues? In former communist countries, prior to encouraging nonprofit-public partnerships on an institutional level, we should check whether on the organizational and individual level their dialogue is achievable. Do employees of different pro-social sectors share similar public values and possess the same motivation to tackle social problems?

This theoretical paper is based on the theory of public service motivation (PSM) and focuses comparatively on the public and nonprofit sectors in Poland and Belarus. It aims to summarize theoretical and empirical evidence on why, despite similar aims and goals such as assisting individuals and providing public goods, employees of one sector are more responsive towards society’s problems and failures than of the other. The theory posits that both sectors should be driven by PSM, and thus, their motivation should be similar as compared to the private sector, which is primarily focused on increasing money capital, but not necessarily public satisfaction. The PSM definition that frames the entire study is the following:

“PSM is part of a behavioral process in which public service motives lead to behaviors that benefit the public” (Kim and Vandenabeele 2010, p.703).

This definition most accurately suits this article, because it does not distinguish between the public and nonprofit sectors, but emphasizes the service provided by both types of organizations. As properly mentioned by Perry and Wise (1990), public service should not be confused with government service, since “public service signifies more than one’s locus of employment” (p.368).

The previous research analyzed working attitudes in communist countries, and revealed how the highly centralized regime determined individual motivation. Meanwhile, this paper is devoted to the motivation of the current employees of public and nonprofit sectors, who grew up and worked most of their lifetime during the gradual collapse of communism, and in the post-Soviet environment of the 1990s and 2000s. Were employees in both sectors able to absorb Western democratic values and equally reflect them in their working patterns? Does the centralization level of the current government determine the motivation of employees in public and nonprofit organizations? Prior to answering these questions empirically, the existing literature on the motivation to serve the society should be reviewed in the light of how the sector affiliation and the centralization of the government determine this motivation. This article serves this purpose by analyzing the existing literature along the two hypotheses:

- **Hypothesis 1**, which assumes that in former communist countries, the nonprofit sector employees will exhibit higher levels of PSM than their public sector counterparts;
- and **Hypothesis 2**, which suggests that the level of government centralization intensifies the sectoral differences in the degree of PSM.

The article proceeds as follows. The first section provides a historical overview of the nonprofit sectors in Poland and Belarus, and sets the context for the further debate whether nonprofits became a new institutional formation for highly motivated individuals. The second section narrows the broad scope of civil society and nonprofit organi-
organizations, giving the definition of the particular type of nonprofits to be discussed in the article. Subsequently, public values in the newly established nonprofits in post-communist countries are reviewed. This section reveals the necessity for the further quantitative comparative analyses of the public service motivation in the public and the nonprofit sectors. The last section refers to the centralization and decentralization of the government as a factor that can undermine both civil dialogue between the sectors and public service motivation in each of them.

The Nonprofit Sector as New Phenomenon in Central and Eastern Europe

The nonprofit sectors in Poland and Belarus drastically differ from the American nonprofits not only in their origins, functions, and scope. The main difference lies in the direction of causality in establishing the democratic regime and the subsequent occurrence of the nonprofit sector itself. In the United States, the strongly developed nonprofit sector preconditioned democracy to a great extent (Chimiak 2006). Although the concept “nonprofit organizations” dates back only to the 1970s, charitable and educational organizations have been functioning in the United States since the colonial times: “Philanthropy and volunteer service -- giving money and time -- were also features of early American life” (Dobkin 2011, p.4). With varying degrees of success in different states, nonprofit organizations ubiquitously spread around the country and played an important role in the Revolution. In the early nineteenth century, New England states became national centers for education, culture, and science mainly due to the strong support of nonprofit colleges, hospitals, libraries, and museums by the flourishing economy (Dobkin 2011).

Milestones in the establishment of the American democracy were achieved while possessing the developed and active nonprofit sector in the background. Contrary to the United States, to be able to build new functioning democracies, the former communist countries had to develop the functioning nonprofit sector after gaining independence: they had to ensure that civic initiatives would reflect other purposes than movements for liberation (Chimiak 2006).

It cannot be said that the nonprofit sector was completely suppressed by the communist regime in the past. On the contrary, the regime supported certain types of civil institutions insuring that they are thoroughly controlled and are closely identified with the state (Mishler and Rose 1997). Organizations founded by the state administration and the party were called, if not to fulfil the tasks of the latter, than to promote their ideals. While some organizations resembled Western nonprofits only to a certain extent (like the Western Boy Scouts and Soviet Pioneers), others fully corresponded to the organizations operating in the West. Examples of the latter are some low-scale philanthropy organizations, hobby or sports groups (Chimiak 2006).

The reorganization of economy, for instance, transitioning from central planning
to a competitive market and vice versa, comes with a significant change in the relations between the government and the nonprofit sector. In order to survive, the old nonprofits had to adjust to the new governmental activities and to the mechanisms the government applied, to carry out its policies (Smith and Gronbjerg 2006), but in most of the cases new nonprofit organizations emerged for those purposes. The liberalization of the 1990s allowed not only for buying and selling state property. While some public service providers indeed became privatized, others changed their registration form to become a nonprofit. For workers with an entrepreneurial spirit, the creation of organizations became an option that would provide self-employment, which was a new form of activity unknown/illegal before. For those highly motivated to help others and society, but still entrepreneurial enough to create an organization from scratch, the new political system offered a special sector -- the nonprofit sector. Thus, newly emerged nonprofits gathered people willing to help others or to fight a particular social problem, especially if it had not been addressed by the communist system (e.g. special assistance for the individuals with Down Syndrome, elderly care, educational courses for the entrepreneurial, adjustments to the job market, requalification, etc.). In addition to the development of new initiatives, the introduction of certain democratic rules and freedoms also caused widespread initialization of self-organized groups, which have operated clandestinely before (Chimiak 2006). Therefore, it was after 1989 that civil society could start fully developing in Poland and Belarus, often with the support of foreign governments or international organizations¹ (for Poland: Kurczewski, Dzieniszewska-Naroska, Laciak, Smigielska and Zakrzewski 2000).

At least from the human resources perspective, both public and nonprofit organizations in modern Poland and Belarus have originated from the public sector. For some representatives of the younger generation born in the late 1970-ies and in the1980-ies, nonprofit work could be the first and only job they had so far. However, the majority of the workforce constituted of an older generation that experienced “work transition” from public organization to the newly created nonprofits. Both voluntary and involuntary transitions from the public into the nonprofit sector took place in the former communist countries (Fouad and Byrner 2008). As for voluntary transition, individuals believed that nonprofits fit better individual motivation and needs, whereas, involuntary transitions occurred when public employees were forced to leave the public service sector, for instance, due to their political beliefs. They would have to continue their work through “nonprofits”. For example, one such person was a former docent at the Public University of Hrodna in Belarus, Dr. Aliaskandr Milinkevich, who also served as a dep-

¹ A lot of service-providing nonprofits were established with the help of foreign nonprofit organizations or with the support of foreign governments or international organizations. For instance, Swedes or the Germans would come to Belarus or Poland to assist a startup of a service providing nonprofit, and to facilitate its further development. Here, an international learning from foreign practices took on an important role, because it brought not only the funds and established a management system for such novelty organizations in the former Soviet context, but also implanted a system of values and motivation as reasoning for organization to function.
uty mayor of Hrodna City. After losing in the presidential election of 2006, where he ran as a candidate of the united opposition, together with the like-minded, he launched the Republican civil union (NGO) “Movement For Freedom”. The organization became the civil union of democratic forces in Belarus and Alexander Milinkevich has been chairing ever since.

Contrary to the United States, where nonprofits possess a high degree of publicness, in Europe, the public and nonprofit are seen as distinct sectors (Steen 2008). The United States has a greater tradition of voluntary associations and communities providing public services (Steen 2008). Citizens of Belarus and Poland view the government as a main provider of public services while private service providers such as educational or health institutions are viewed as complementary. Yet, these countries share European characteristics of the welfare state to a different extent.

Even though there was a democratic movement toward decentralization in the beginning of the 1990s, Belarus reverted back to the highly-centralized governmental system. Today, the government of this country is known, among its neighbors, as having a strong welfare state approach that also shapes the nature of institutional relations and determines the scope and the types of nonprofit organizations present in the country. As the research of DiMaggio and Powell (1983) suggests, societies dominated by large bureaucratic institutions may favor a nonprofit sector that operates with similar structures. This explains why in Belarus, the nonprofit sector is dominated by larger pro-governmental political entities. For instance, Belaya Rus (Belarusian for “White Ruthenia”) is a Belarusian public association with a membership of over 130,000, founded in 2007 to support President Alexander Lukashenko. It is based on the idea of Vladimir Putin’s United Russia party, but is registered as a nonprofit organization. Another example of a successful nonprofit organization in Belarus is the Belarusian Republican Youth Union (in Belarusian: BRSM), which is a youth organization aimed to promote patriotism and to instill moral values into the youth of Belarus. The BRSM is the largest youth group in Belarus (from different sources: membership is more than 100,000) and is strongly supported by the Belarusian government. In 2011 the organization absorbed 98% of the funds allocated by the state for the youth policy (Belsat 2011). Both BRSM and Belaya Rus emerged from former Soviet organizations and the government remains the main source of financing.

Continuing the Soviet tradition, the current Belarusian government has skeptical attitudes towards the development of the independent nonprofit sector. Low-scale local nonprofits funded from abroad are often seen as anti-governmental organizations, even if they have no political agenda and their only function is to provide services. Larger national prosocial nonprofits -- for instance, those that assist elderly people, individuals with disabilities or war veterans -- have to mainly rely on membership fees and corporate fundraising, while they are left without any governmental support or subsidies. The information about their projects is not publicly distributed, their activities are not advertised. An average Belarusian has limited knowledge about these organizations,
unless s/he is in need of their assistance and therefore, tries to establish contact.

At the same time, advocacy nonprofits and the movements for liberation became the most visible organizations on the independent nonprofit arena, after Belarus turned back to the authoritarian style of administration. For example, an umbrella institution for the nongovernmental democratic organizations in Belarus “Assembly of NGOs” has 300 member-organizations, which constitute the majority of pro-democratic NGOs and advocacy groups active in Belarus (NDA Assembly 2014).

The unfavorable situation of Belarusian independent service providers is typical for strongly centralized authoritarian states, where nondemocratic regimes are usually suspicious of the independent nonprofit sector. For example, the study shows that a clearly humanistic and liberal undertone of social work practice has posed a potential threat to the Chinese party state, in its capability to manipulate social work to its own advantages (Leung et al. 2012).

In contrast to Belarus, after the fall of the communist regime, Poland took a steady path towards decentralization. For the purposes of cooperation and further integration with the European Union (EU) in the 1990s, Poland undertook a number of decentralization reforms aiming to harmonize its political and administrative system with the EU regulations. These steps are also consistent with the welfare pluralism approach, where acknowledging complexity and interdependence of social problems, the state actively collaborates with society to find solutions to these problems (e.g. Mendoza 1995).

Social, political and economic changes in Poland affected the nonprofit sector, which advanced through several stages after the fall of communism. Initially, different international actors, for example, the World Bank and the national Soros Foundation would support various nonprofit activities. Despite the well-establish position of some foreign donor organizations, with the accession to the European Union in 2004, Poland has finished the stage when Polish nonprofits were mainly financed from abroad, usually from the United States (Pastwa, 2014).

As the literature suggests, societies dominated by large bureaucratic institutions may provide organizational space for those that serve to mediate between the individual and other impersonal, formal structures (e.g. Berger and Neuhaus 1977, Van Til 2008). In the case of Poland, the European Union (EU) became such a large bureaucratic institution, which among other channels to implement its policies, works through the nonprofit sectors of the member-countries. The EU membership opened doors to EU money resources coming from various social funds and programs, but it also changed the face of this sector. Funds from the international development organizations became limited or were substituted by the internal EU funds. The smartest NGOs were able to convert their financing scheme, while others just expired (Pastwa 2014).

Several scholars and experts emphasize that during the last decade, the nonprofit sector in Poland has been going through a thorough transformation. On one hand, the nonprofit sector in Poland became more institutionalized and mature and now calls for another kind of people than the ones who founded the first nonprofit organizations.
(Chimiak 2006, Kazanecki 2014). Polish public administration scholars and practitioners admit that nonprofit organizations in Poland can be more open, more sensitive to these issues and that they see the problems of public administration and the society better (Wenclik 2014, Pastwa 2014).

On the other hand, the great number of service providing nonprofits emerge due to the availability of the EU funds, when Polish entrepreneurs see nonprofits as an employment opportunity. As a result, numerous nonprofits upstart with support and for the utilization of EU funds. Polish experts argue that a great number of nonprofit organizations are led by their profit maximization, rather than noble ideas to improve the society. It also often happens that the perspectives of such organizations are short-term. In his interview, a Polish civil servant and diplomat, currently the president of the National School of Public Administration, Jan Pastwa (2014) revealed the scheme of a “bush” company popular in Poland (in Polish: firma-krzak): an organization is created for one particular contract and is usually closed or transformed into another company afterwards. Having well prepared documentation, this company wins the public procurement tender for a particular project. For the purpose of this procurement, the company seeks a grant for the project participants and usually looks for the EU’s available resources.

The Working Definition of Nonprofit Organization

Various definitions of nonprofit organizations reflect different types of activities and purposes of the organizations that constitute the sector. This subsection narrows the scope and defines a nonprofit organization that will be used in further analyses of the study.

First, this study concerns the nonprofit organizations that promote non-political and non-religious values (Salamon and Anheier 1994). Second, this study refers to the function performed by an organization as one of the main criteria. The study focuses on civil society organizations that have a service providing function. Thus, it excludes voluntary organizations that are research and advocacy organizations, self-help groups, clubs and societies for leisure interests, intermediary bodies, political parties, and trade unions (Handy 1998). Engagement in the organizations, which is in the focus of this research, allows active citizens to pursue goals that they share with similar-minded fellow citizens (Chimiak 2006). Furthermore, an individual who is not necessarily a member of these organizations can become a beneficiary of the organizations concerned.

Another important characteristic is that in this study, nonprofit organizations should offer alternative provision of the services, whose delivery is equally arranged by the government. Due to the necessity to have a comparable sample of organizations across the studied countries, the research is mainly focused on the nonprofits that are equally present in both countries -- those fostering biological and social development
and preparing beneficiaries to perform social and vocational roles (Zaluska 1996). The research is focused on those nonprofit organizations, which operate towards the common public good rather than for a narrowly defined interest group like associations formed on the basis of shared hobbies. Umbrella nonprofit organizations are also excluded from the analyses because they do not work directly with the beneficiaries but with other nonprofits instead.

The fields of the nonprofits’ activities in Poland are not only limited to supporting the poor, healing the sick, and educating the unemployed (Chimiak 2006). Yet, nonprofit organizations usually take over the tasks of the welfare state, and therefore this sector is usually thought of as consisting of such organizations only. This study also focuses on the traditional welfare functions of the nonprofits, since these organizations will be compared to governmental entities providing similar services. As for the Belarusian nonprofit sector, this study will consider independent low-scale nonprofits, which provide public services and which are more comparable to nonprofits in Poland.

Briefly introducing the definition of civil society that refers to individuals involved in the betterment of the society is important here. Civil society is broader than the nonprofit sector and includes individuals that can be employed in any sector. For instance in Poland, where the civil society is quite developed, a number of civil society activists are currently employed in the public sector that came from the public sector, or switched to the public sector from the nonprofit sector. This phenomenon is especially visible at the local level because in Poland, the nonprofit sector together with the local self-government constitutes two basic pillars of civil society (Sicinski 1999, Kazanecki 2014). Civil society in Belarus is in its initial formation stage, where a new generation of public service and local government employees are slowly starting to realize the benefits of cross-sector cooperation.

Public Values in Newly Established Nonprofits: External and Internal Factors

In the 1990s, Helmut Anheier (1995) already noticed that nonprofit organizations have assumed such importance in the developing process, both in terms of their advocacy roles and in their capacities as service providers, that they became major actors in the international system of development assistance. The question remains as to what type of development these organizations bring. While the economic development is usually estimated by the increased production output, the success of public service provision is more difficult to assess. It is usually measured by the public value created by service providing organizations (Moore 1995).

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2 M. Zaluska (1996) names the following functions of nonprofit organizations: fostering biological, social and cultural development of the individual; enriching human life, distributing knowledge and embodying the idea of democracy; preparing its members or beneficiaries to perform social and vocational roles.
Development literature often draws from a popular school of thought that economic development is associated with adaptation of democratic freedoms and norms. Within this framework, the modernization theory assumes that economic development increases chances for a transition to democracy and therefore, adaptation of democratic values. Inglehart and Welzel (2005) argue that a broader process of human development leads to democratization. Salamon and Anheier (1994) seem to fall in line with the modernization theory when they name the level of social and economic development as one of three important external factors that shape the nonprofit sector. They use typology to classify nonprofit organizations internationally in addition to the level of social and economic development, which also mentions the type of the legal system and degree of political centralization, and therefore suggests that the variations of governmental and public administration systems account for the variations of size and scope of nonprofits to a large extent.

While the type of the legal system sets the legal norms for organizations’ registration and operation, the degree of political centralization might directly determine public values created by a nonprofit organization. The degree of political centralization is immediately correlated with the freedom of individuals to gather in a nonprofit organization. As Vernis et al. (2006) put it, civil involvement in independent nonprofits should remain civil and volunteer because no public administration can take any credit for mobilizing volunteers (p.6). Thus, it is questionable whether pro-governmental organizations that obtained nonprofit statuses after the fall of communism, and continue to support centralized authoritarian Belarusian government and apply so-called “voluntarily compulsory” techniques to attract new members can truly promote public, but not central-government values. Thus, for instance, the Belarusian Republican Union of the Youth cannot be called an independently functioning nonprofit because the membership, among other benefits, gives young public university applicants priority to be selected. This procedure does not promote fairness, but rather teaches the youngsters to comply with the rules from above. Additionally, this organization openly declares its affiliation with the government: the statute of this organization, among other functions like teaching patriotic behaviors, names dissemination of political information through the promotion of the ideology established by the central government (BRUY 2010).

Thus, the independence of the nonprofit sector remains a crucial characteristic to promote public values. Contrary to the public sector, organizations that are created to implement governmental policies, nonprofits are neither established by Parliament nor by local or central government. The nonprofit sector, whose very nature is a bottom-up sector, should not set any requirements for the participants to become involved (Barnett 2006). The only requirement would be a desire to start up or to join a nonprofit organization, which exists because an individual or group perceived a need and set out to meet it (Barnett 2006).

Since initiatives in the nonprofit sector come from the ground, even though the economic development process paves the way for the nonprofit sector expansion, it
cannot guarantee that these organizations work towards desired public values. The internal values dominating inside nonprofit organizations can overshadow the favorable external climate created by the government and international donors. Being a crucial component of the democratic society, nonprofit organizations could, nevertheless, promote quite contradictive values, which should be expected from the associations that vary in size, scope, political affiliation, socio-economic level of its members, reasons for organization creation and etc.

The type of public values that a nonprofit creates through service provision might to a larger extent depend more on the level of social and economic development of the organization’s members than the country overall. Ideally, nonprofit services should be grouped under the label “to help others”. Being one of these idealists, Andrew Barnett (2006) believes that the quality and effectiveness of provided help are highly determined by the passion of its members and their closeness to the needs of the beneficiaries. Yet, other scholars have noticed that passion itself might be an insufficient drive to engage oneself in the promotion of public values. Moreover, as Jenkins (2006) put it, “Overreliance on solidarity also runs the risk of goal diversion” (p.320). Wilson (1995, as cited by Jenkins 2006) distinguishes different organizational incentives for different social groups. According to him, the more educated middle and upper classes are, the more they are receptive to moral appeals (passion). Devoting themselves to nonprofits out of passion reflects the economic security of these classes. The lower class is more receptive to a mix of the purposive appeals with material interests and solidarity (Jenkins 2006, Wilson 1995).

Similarly, if the members of the organization mainly pursue the satisfaction of the government and other donors, but not citizens, their projects might create little public value. Vernis et al. (2006) observe that the beneficiary satisfaction of social assistance services suffers when an organization is responsible to the donor but not the customer. The situation gets worse when the inputs from the customers are also ignored since result assessments are not based on customer services provided by social organizations. In addition, as noticed by Vernis et al. (2006), nonprofits become very similar due to the fact that donors (public agencies or foreign sponsors) need nonprofits to meet several requirements that are meant to ensure standardization of nonprofits. Sadly, despite democratic freedom most of the former communist countries after the fall of the regime obtained compliance with the procedures standardized by the donors, which usually remains the main priority for nonprofit organizations instead of the creation of public values. For instance in the case of EU projects, a collaboration between funding institutions and nonprofit organizations is generally limited to submitting proposals to win contracts, and, once contracts are awarded, expense reports are submitted upon service completion.

Vernis et al. (2006) suggests that in order to fix the malfunction of this system, both public and private organizations need to be driven by the solidarity of its members and not exclusively by their desire for organization to survive. Finding the right driving
force becomes a complicated issue because as some other scholars suggest, the overreli-
ance on solidarity also runs the risk of goal diversion (Jenkins 2006).

In order to find whether a particular nonprofit organization creates a public value, looking into the reasons why individuals originally launched this organization might be helpful. Was the creation of a nonprofit organization undertaken as informed by public values or whether public service delivery is simply driven by the self-interest of employees? If the organizations were established to indeed pursue public values, are nonprofit services complementary to the public services, do they oppose public services, or are they competitors to public organizations?

DiMaggio and Anheier (1990) note that there is a natural division of labor across sectors that comes with the distribution of functions between businesses, nonprofits and public agencies. They further suggest that the nonprofit sector has the apparent disadvantages with respect to incentive (compared to businesses) and revenue generation (compared to the government), which may influence the decision of individuals to group in nonprofits. Assuming that despite acknowledging weak sides of nonprofit incentives and revenues, the individuals nevertheless establish nonprofits. They do so either because they feel the importance of these organizations in guarding public values or they simply pursue their own lucrative desires. Simply said, they either launch a nonprofit because of their PSM or for the money.

Firstly, there is some evidence why individuals might launch a nonprofit because they see the possibilities of personal gain. Researchers and practitioners often mention the utilization of occasional funds as a driving factor for nonprofit activation. Empirical evidence shows that there a lot of nonprofits were created because of employment opportunity or political reasons (e.g. to oppose government). In her empirical study of Polish NGO leaders, Chimiak (2006) proved that a person, who possessed the knowhow of utilizing funds offered by Western foundations and organizations, will create a nonprofit organization ensuring not only its success, but also personal lucrative gain. Taking into consideration that socioeconomic development of the population determines the reasons why individuals would start a nonprofit organization (Salamon and Anheier 1994), it is natural that some of the nonprofits in Poland and Belarus are launched simply for reasons other than public value creation, since most of nonprofit organizations in these countries are run by the middle-lower class (Jenkins 2006, Wilson 1995). Nonprofit sectors in the former Eastern bloc cannot rely on solidarity alone because economic security in the developing post-communist countries is questionable, and upper and upper-middle classes are on their formation way.

At the same time, there is some support for another more popular justification for opening a nonprofit, which is the possibility to pursue an individual call to help society. This internal call matches the definitions of the PSM used in the current study, and therefore, this study argues that the reason to create a nonprofit might be an expression of individual PSM. Several scholars claim that a personal-fit approach assumes that active involvement in the work of the nonprofit sector should be interpreted as an expres-
sion of an individual’s personality (Chimiak 2006). In this situation, social commitment that comes together with flexibility, agility, and proximity might “turn the nonprofit sector into a sound option in an environment shaped by deep social changes and transitions” (p.67, Vernis et al. 2006). Referring to Inglehart’s (1997) theories discussed in the previous research, social changes come through the gradual establishment of the values: the process which, as this study argues, facilitates occurring and/or opening up for PSM. The literature suggests that creating public values and public service motivation (PSM) indeed cannot be totally separated (Andersen at al. 2012). As values can be motivating for individuals to launch a nonprofit, their motivations might aim at doing good for others and society through public service delivery. The following subsections further elaborate on cross-sector differences and similarities reflected in individual motivation.

Motivation in the Nonprofit vs. Public Sector

For the last decade, researchers around the world have been addressing the distinctions in motivation between the public and private sector in their studies. Some scholars claim that motivation of individuals employed in government differs little from those in the private sector because both sectors have problems motivating managers and employees, experience the pressures from unions, exhibit selfish and unethical behaviors, and have ineffective bonus and merit-pay systems (Rainey 1991). At the same time, most of the research suggests motivational differences between sectors (Kim 2005, Houston 2000, 2006, Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown 1998, Wittmer 1991, Crewson 1997). Yet, relatively little research has been conducted on the comparison of nonprofit and public organizations (Lee and Wilkins 2011, Light 2002, Rotolo and Wilson 2006). The subsections below provide theoretical reasoning why similarities and differences in working motivation might occur and also suggest some evidence from a few empirical studies. Table 1 serves as a summary for this part of the article.

Table 1: Similarities and Differences Shaping Motivation in Public and Nonprofit Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Sector</th>
<th>Nonprofit Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Differences</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusting to multiplicity of the society’s values</td>
<td>Serving the donor’s single priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oversized and bureaucratic rules reducing organization efficiency</td>
<td>Flexible in reaching customers due to weaker external control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image of public services dependent on the general opinion about the government</td>
<td>Independent image of the sector</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Traditional superiority over nonprofits | Viewed as a subordinate of the public sector
---|---
Better employment benefits, e.g. career advancement and retirement plans | Unpredictable future of the employees

**Similarities**

Not-for-profit-sectors

Dedication to public values, orientation towards increased citizen's assistance

Nonprofit and public sectors are similar in their differences with the private sector. The similarities between public and nonprofit sectors are determined by the fact that these sectors usually provide services that are not exchanged on economic markets, but are justified on the basis of general social values, the public interest, and politically imposed demands of groups (Rainey 1991).

Thus, firstly, both nonprofit and public sectors consist of not-for-profit oriented institutions. As the value these organizations produce is measured in terms of mission fulfillment (Moore 2000), employees of these organizations are motivationally distinct from businesses. The outcomes of Goodin’s research (2003) show that managers are not merely maximizing profit or managerial efficiency, but are rather committed to “the cause”. Because maximizing profit is not a primary aim of employees in public organizations, these employees pay less attention to lower salaries. Hartman and Weber (1980) provided some evidence that high-level officials studied, entered public service because of their desire to perform public service and the challenge that came with it, rather than because of material rewards, and they knew their new jobs suggested salary cuts. Comparative studies of public service motivation (PSM) between sectors also suggest resemblance in commitment found in the public and nonprofit sectors. The study of Crewson (1997) revealed that profit-seeking firms are likely to be dominated by economic-oriented employees while public-service organizations, both public and nonprofit, are likely to be dominated by service-oriented employees.

The second main characteristic differentiating the public and nonprofit sector from the private sector is the dedication to public value, which comes with the orientation toward increased social assistance. Even though it is usually assumed that the sectors address social issues in their own unique way, some scholars would argue that the public sector today becomes even more similar to the nonprofit sector. Smith and Gronbjerg (2006) explain it by the recent ubiquitous involvement of the public sector in addressing social issues: “Motivation of the public sector should have become different, since government is now more extensively involved in efforts to regulate economic cycles, stimulate growth, support families, protect health and safety, and invest in human capital than fifty years ago” (p. 222).

While the extent of homogeneity in the ways public and nonprofit sector tackle
social problems is debatable, public-sector employees indeed resemble nonprofit employees in having more prosocial motivations than their public sector counterparts. Employees of public and nonprofit organizations are more dedicated to do their job for the benefit of others than individuals working for the private sector, which is proven by several empirical studies, e.g. Rotolo and Wilson (2006) and Vernis et al. (2006). In addition, public servants share more similarities with nonprofit workers than private employees in terms of their PSM and civic participation. Public and nonprofit workers displayed significantly higher PSM levels than private workers (Taylor 2010, Houston 2006, and Lyons et al. 2006). Moreover, the findings of Houston (2008) suggest that public and nonprofit workers show similar patterns of PSM-related attitudes.

**Differences between Sectors that Influence Motivation**

Despite some strong similarities between public and nonprofit sectors, these organizations operate in different environments, which determines motivation in these organizations. For example, public organizations have the priority to satisfy all citizens, while nonprofits are responsible for a particular target group that they choose themselves; the structures of public organizations are regulated from the above as compared to the more flexible structures of nonprofit organizations, and etc. These and other distinctions of each sector will be discussed in detail further in this subsection.

(1) Moore (2000) names organizational mission as a distinctive characteristic of both the public and nonprofit sectors. Yet, the divergence in their missions determines the differences in the values that the organizations intends to produce for its shareholders and for society at large. Thus, nonprofit organizations aim at the achievement of their social purpose and simultaneous satisfaction of the donors desire to contribute to the cause that the organizations embody. For nonprofits, the process of priority setting is relatively simple. Nonprofit organizations are not required to adjust to multiplicity of values found in society. An organization sets one value as the priority, finds a donor that shares this priority and arranges its activities around it. Clearly defined priorities narrow the professional experience required from job candidates, which makes nonprofit employees more specialized on particular issues than public sector employees (Vernis et. al 2006).

At the same time, the governmental organization completes “the politically mandated mission” by fulfilling “citizen aspirations that were more or less reflected in that mandate” (p.186, Moore 2000). The variety and fickleness of citizens’ inclinations leads to the conflict of values, constantly experienced by public organizations. The environment public organizations is characterized by “multiple, conflicting, and often abstract values that public organizations must pursue” (p. 121, Rainey 1991; also Rainey 2009). Cherniss (1980) suggests that in the public service provision, professionals usually experience stress and burnout caused by the conflict of their motivation to help their clients and their attempt to comply with bureaucratic systems. Rainey (1991) likewise
notes that “for many public managers, a sense of valuable social purpose can serve as a source of motivation, although in many agencies, they appear to face impediments in fulfilling this motive” (p.129).

(2) Motivation of public organizations differs from nonprofits also due to the type of the external oversight and processes that impose structures, rules, and procedures on the public organization. While as mentioned above, nonprofits mainly aim at satisfying their donors, public organizations have to operate within the government rules regulating not only the desired outcome, but also employees’ pay, promotion, discipline and rules that affect training and personal development (Rainey 1991). In order to overcome oversize and bureaucratic inefficiency issues, public administrations often resort to nonprofits to outsource public services (Vernis et al. 2006). Thus, nonprofits undertake roles that neither the state nor the market can perform. The nonprofit sector differentiates from the public sector with its flexibility, which also allows reaching out to inaccessible customers (Vernis et al. 2006).

(3) According to some scholars, public service motivation appears to vary over time with changes in the public image of government service (Rainey 1991). The environment of the public sector employees could indeed be darkened by a negative opinion of the government by population. Even though there should be no direct relation between elected officials and street-level bureaucrats, with the latter recruited based on merit, for the general population, public servants and public service employees remain the agents of politicians in power. In these situations, motivation of individuals that work for the public sector can be shaped by the general attitude toward taxes, government, and government employees. For example, in the United States, the external political climate turned out to be sharply negative during the 1970s and 1980s which influenced the prestige of jobs in the public sector (Rainey 1991).

(4) The working climate is likely to be influenced by the superiority of public organizations over nonprofit organizations, especially when the funds for the nonprofits come from these public organizations. Despite some blurring between the sectors, government organizations remain restricted to certain functions. Public agencies decide whether they will produce the services they have already decided to provide, if they are going to sell, run, manage, control and assess these services. Each provision and production activity could be outsourced separately from the nonprofit sector (Vernis et al. 2006). When the nonprofit sector is a subordinate of the public sector, hierarchy is likely to shape work motivation in these organizations.

(5) Last but not the least, what might influence motivation of the employees is that public organizations usually have better future benefits than nonprofit organizations. Lee and Wilkins (2011) confirmed that indeed public managers emphasize extrinsic incentives as pension and retirement plan more than nonprofit ones.

While the overview above shows motivational differences and similarities between the public and nonprofit sector on the institutional level, values and motives can differ on the individual level across sectors. As some interviews with NGO leaders and ser-
vice providing private organizations in Poland and Belarus reveal, while not all NGOs’ employees are standing for civil society, some active employees in the public sector are an active part of it (Prysmakova, forthcoming). This is also supported by empirical evidence from Lee and Wilkins’s research (2011), who found that public managers value intrinsic motivations, such as the ability to serve the public and public interest, more than nonprofit employees.

The proposition for this article comes from the perspective that working motivation should be higher in nonprofits because they are placed further from the government and thus, are less affected by it, even in the situation when their funds are mainly coming from public programs. Despite being traditionally seen in the region as public sector subordinates or complimentary service providers, nonprofit organizations enjoy an image of entities that stand separate from the government’s politics. Moreover, even though employees of these organizations have a less predictable future, they have more freedom to prioritize the organization mission that the public sector employees with their necessity to comply to the rules and requirements of the government do not have. A hypothesis that assumes sectoral differences in the PSM level between public and nonprofit employees in service providing organizations is formulated:

Hypothesis 1: In post-communist countries, nonprofit sector employees will exhibit higher levels of PSM than their public sector counterparts.

Government Centralization and Sectorial Differences in Motivation

The most academically interesting question, however, is the simultaneous effect of sector and centralization of the government on motivation. An increase in the centralization level of the government might (1) equally diminish the PSM level of employees involved in public service provision in both the public and nonprofit sectors; or (2) crowd out the highly public service motivated individuals from the public sector to the nonprofit sector. In the latter scenario, service provision employees in the country with a centralized government are likely to exhibit extreme levels of PSM.

Because the sectors do not cooperate, the difference in PSM between sectors is likely to become even larger. On the other hand, in decentralized countries, where two independent sectors are willing to work together, the cooperation might align PSM levels. In this article, the simultaneous effect of the sectoral and country’s administrative system on the level of PSM will be tested using in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: The level of government centralization intensifies the sectoral differences in the degree of PSM. In other words, we expect to register the lowest level of PSM among public sector employees and the highest level of PSM among nonprofit sector employees in the centralized administrative system.

Whether this hypothesis is correct for administratively decentralized Poland and centralized Belarus should become evident in further quantitative empirical research. Whereas, in this article, we look into the possible antecedents, which are likely to in-
crease the motivational differences between sectors in centralized regimes, with special emphasis on authoritarian regimes as an extreme case of centralization. The differences of the environment, in which public and nonprofit organizations operate, are likely to mold the motivation of employees in these organizations. For instance, the way the political structure is organized in a country is likely to influence public-nonprofit relations, which in turn will affect motivation in both sectors and their abilities to create public values. Smith and Gronbjerg (2006) explain that the relations between government and nonprofits are “penetrated with political ideologies about the proper role of the government and priorities that reflect values of fairness, equity, equality, choice, and opportunities” (p.222).

This subsection proceeds as follows. First, the relations between public and nonprofit sectors are defined for decentralized systems. This part also analyzes how these relations are reflected in the motivation of employees in service providing organizations. Secondly, the attention turns to the centralized systems and examines relations between public and independent nonprofit sectors within them. Here, PSM in both public and nonprofit service providers is also discussed in the case of limited relations between the sectors.

**Nonprofit-Public Relations in Democratic Decentralized Systems**

Vernis et al. (2006) claim that contemporary democratic societies are built around three sectors: public administrations, business corporations, and nonprofit organizations. Expanding their ideas, this article is written from the perspective that the presence of the sectors themselves does not determine democracy, but contemporary democracy relies on the dialogue between these three sectors. The proponents of public-nonprofit cooperation dominate contemporary literature on governance.

A government that shares its power with other sectors has to build a mutual dialogue with these groups. Tamsin Cox and Daniel Harris (2011) argue that democratic societies have the potential to create truly democratic dialogue regarding important issues. These authors also assume that in this dialogue, the voluntary sector may find itself uniquely well positioned as the broker in the sector provision. Castineira and Vidal (2003) further suggest that the quality of services provided by third-sector organizations help to legitimize democratic systems. According to their propositions, in democratic systems, when public administrations, businesses and nonprofits share some common goals, they have to search for common consent in their actions while not jeopardizing their individual identities.

Why would democratic societies need a cooperation of the sectors that are different in their missions and organizational structure? How is it important for public services that the government is sharing its power? The supporters claim that stronger dialogue between civil society and the government is necessary to bring real benefits to society, for instance, by providing a “deep well” of voluntary sector knowledge and experience
to help the government solve and prevent difficult problems, or by helping to ensure that public services meet different needs (Slocock 2011). Well-established cooperation channels between the government and civil society will facilitate finding fresh solutions, unlocking new potential, and providing innovative services which meet different needs (Slocock 2011). Joyce Moseley (2011) further suggests that voluntary organizations in all their diversity are a ‘credible partner’ and a ‘critical friend’ to any government with ambitions for social changes.

Vernis et al. (2006) also support intensive relationships between sectors and propose their model of collaboration. According to their model, a successful partnership is based on a mutual agreement on the system of needs (social dimension) and the shared goal, which is to provide quality services (learning dimension) for users over a lengthy period of time (time dimension). It is necessary to underline here that the cooperation of the two independent sectors can be obtained only by providing certain levels of decentralization in the country, which ensures that the two sectors are independent and are willing to cooperate.

Public Service Motivation in decentralized systems

When public and nonprofit organizations hit the same goal, civil dialogue between them is easier to establish. The interaction, for instance through the information exchange, assures that these sectors complement each other in solving social issues without overlapping in their functions and tasks. In addition to complementation of services, in a decentralized democratic system, a constant cooperation between sectors comes with a constant flow of individuals between the public and nonprofit sector.

The enhanced cooperation between sectors allows for easier flow of employees between public and nonprofit sectors, and therefore, PSM between sectors is more likely to be similar. Third sector leaders possess a huge diversity of experience because they have often worked in the public and private sectors. Previous work experience in a different type of organization ensures a natural cultural bridge between sectors (Board 2011). The levels of PSM sharpen during the process of working for the sector. If an individual believes that his or her position in the public sector does not fully allow him or her to fulfill his or her PSM needs (self-sacrifice, compassion, but also power, influence of politics), s/he is able to open a nonprofit organization or move to an existing one, and vice versa.

So far this section elaborated on different reasons of how a decentralized government could positively affect motivation to serve citizens in both public and nonprofit sectors. In order to avoid bias, some negative sides of decentralization should be mentioned as well. Despite the number of advantages of increased public-nonprofit cooperation, the decentralized system also has some weaknesses. For instance, a high level of decentralization can negatively influence the capacity of the government to adequately fund and regulate voluntary service agencies. The research shows that the Netherlands,
which have a more centralized structure and mainly national financing of voluntary services, have been able to offer much more extensive services to the elderly than decentralized Germany (Smith and Gronbjerg 2006).

Moreover, the democratic decentralized systems also have some limitations when they over-rely on nonprofit organizations for service provision. In decentralized democratic systems, the differences in motivation between sectors can be weakened due to the abundance of relations between sectors. For instance, the increased responsibility that falls on the nonprofit organizations might demotivate individuals employed by this sector. Moreover, if adjusting to the governmental funding, a nonprofit organization operates on short-term perspectives, its employees might become PSM discouraged, since they do not see the lasting effect of helping others. Therefore, working closer with the government and being highly dependent on governmental funds might create a clash of short-term political agendas and planning horizons with civil society's commitment to achieving long-term change. Nick Wilkie (2011) points out that “some of society’s most valuable work takes place in profoundly unstable circumstances because non-profits are overstretched and under-capitalized, partly because of inflexible, project-based funding tied to short-term, narrow outputs”. In such situations, extended civil dialogue in reality can create obstacles in the successful creation of public values by the nonprofit sector service providers.

**Table 2: Review of Relations between Public and Nonprofit Sectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public-Nonprofit Relations</th>
<th>Decentralized Systems</th>
<th>Centralized Systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government shares the power</td>
<td>Exercising its power, government destroys civil society and suppresses non-profits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-established channels of cooperation</td>
<td>Nonprofits are not allowed to fill the gap by providing missing services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonprofits as credible partners and critical friends</td>
<td>Nonprofits as mistrustful and dismissive competitors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual agreements on citizens’ needs</td>
<td>Power elites protect own interests, not interests of the society</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent sectors willing to cooperate</td>
<td>Superiority of the public sector</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nonprofit-Public Relations in Authoritarian Systems as an Extreme Case of High Centralization**

Contrary to the countries with decentralized governments, the more centralized the structure, the less room there is for a coherent nonprofit sector, and vice versa, the less centralized the structure, the greater the opportunity for the operation of extensive
nonprofit organizations is. Salamon and Anheir (1994) provide good evidence of this. Germany, which has a federal administrative structure, has quite a vibrant nonprofit sector, whereas France with a more centralized government has a much more limited nonprofit sphere historically. Similarly in terms of the degree of centralization, the United Kingdom evolved a far more centralized political and institutional structure than the United States and this has limited the space available for the development of the nonprofit sector (Salamon and Anheir 1994).

Speaking of even stronger centralized regimes, namely authoritarian ones, exercising their powers can simply destroy civil society because such regimes usually reduce the ability and willingness of individuals to organize for mutual benefit or political purpose (Scott 1998). Especially, if from the perspective of the regime, it “doesn’t seem logical for public administrations to entrust them [nonprofits] with certain activities” (p. 49, Vernis et al. 2006). When the power elite protect their own interests, government-nonprofit relations are also used for the benefit of a narrower group rather than the entire population. Contrary to that, a counterbalanced regime allows for the full spectrum of interests in the policy-making process.

Thus, the attitude of the public sector towards the nonprofit sector, will deviate between highly centralized democratic governance in Western Europe, and highly centralized administrations that apply to some authoritarian means in certain Eastern European countries. In the centralized United Kingdom, where public service provision was largely delegated to the nonprofit sector during Thatcher’s reforms, a key question of the government is whether it prefers small-scale community engagers and advocacy organizations, or large-scale deliverers (Bath 2011). In Eastern European countries, with the long history of well-established service provision by public sector organizations, the question of the government is whether it allows nonprofits to fill in the gap by providing missing services, to substitute existing public services, or to compete with them. In connection with competition, the research shows that the more centralized the government is, the more often it acknowledges the nonprofit sector as a competitor rather than a partner. Julie Bishop (2011) reports that in the United Kingdom, civil servants find civil organizations becoming dismissive, mistrustful, and hostile. A civil servant complained about “the arrogance of these organizations undertaking ‘research’ and then expecting us [public sector] to consider it.”

As mentioned earlier, the nonprofit sector can be “a credible partner and a critical friend” to a government with ambition to be an enabler for social change (Moseley 2011). Thus, we cannot expect the government in centralized nondemocratic regimes to cooperate with independent nonprofit organizations. The government would rather preserve social order in the conditions they were when it obtained this power, ensuring the continuity of its power.

Because in such systems a centralized government would not prefer to share its power with another sector, the nonprofit sector is likely to be suppressed. For example,
the research from China shows that a clearly humanistic and liberal undertone of social work practice has posed a potential threat to the Chinese party state in its capability to manipulate social work to its own advantages (Leung et al. 2012). In the situation, where the government is unquestionably always right, where it does not acknowledges its possible failures, but advertises itself as the one that makes right decisions and implements correct policies, there is no space for a cooperation with an independent nonprofit sector. The main role of civil society associations in such regimes becomes the role to sustain and mobilize political opposition under authoritarian rule (p.210, Salamon and Anheier 1994).

Public Service Motivation in public and nonprofit organizations

Limited cooperation between sectors, or even the suppression of the nonprofit sector by the public sector, is likely to affect the morals and values of the employees in both sectors as well as their motivation to provide public services. Even if a service providing organization in the public sector is not directly intervening in political affairs, the administrative systems of the centralized government undermine democratic attitudes of its employees regardless. A wide body of literature suggests that operating in an authoritarian regime and having close linkage to the state can undermine the degree of democracy within an association: “if an association is linked to a non-democratic state through personnel, financial, decision-making, or operational procedures or arrangements, then state interests dominate member interests” (Foster 2001, p.534).

The way dominating state institutions operate and maintain their power determines not only public organizations, but also whether the nonprofit sector takes on visible and formalized functions, including special recognition within the legal structure (Smith and Gronbjerg 2006). In a strong centralized regime, as in Belarus, independent nonprofit organizations constantly face obstacles from the government, for instance, troubles to receive official registration. From the personnel perspective, this means that an individual participating in such organizations has to acknowledge negative consequences of his/her affiliation with the independent nonprofit sector. When an individual takes a position in an independent nonprofit organization, it might be difficult for her/him to apply for a position in the public sector afterwards. Individuals that participate in nonprofit organizations, regardless of the disadvantages and obstacles such an employment history created for the future cross-sector mobility, should possess a very high PSM level since they consciously take unfavorable side.

Centralized regimes are usually characterized by the lack of workforce exchange between sectors. Douglas Board (2011) notices that three quarters of Permanent Secretaries [in Britain] have only ever worked in government. Such a permanent separation of the workforce in highly centralized regimes strengthens cultural barriers that occur due to the lack of workforce exchange. In centralized nondemocratic systems, lacking civil dialogue is either substituted by a unilateral relationship of unquestionable fulfill-
ing of orders in the exchange for official recognition, or minimizes mutual recognition and responsiveness (Civil Society Contact Group 2006). In both situations, the motivation to work together to tackle the same social issues can be easily undermined.

With no exchange of the workforce between sectors, cultural barriers between the sectors become difficult to break down. Observing the relations between highly centralized British government and the nonprofit sector, Tamsin Cox and Daniel Harris (2011) emphasize obstacles in the communication between these sectors due to the closeness of the public sector and openness of the volunteer sector: “Government works in silos, while the voluntary sector often works across government institutional boundaries, making communication difficult, especially for smaller organizations” (as cited by Slocock, 2011, p.4).

**Table 3: PSM in Different Systems**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Decentralized System</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Service</strong></td>
<td>Motivation reflects more general goals</td>
<td><strong>Nonprofit Service</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees’ flow creates natural bridge between sectors</td>
<td>Motivation focused on particular goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When an individual motivation is crystalized, a person might switch to a nonprofit to focus on this priority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abundance of relations might weaken PSM: e.g. by increased responsibility of nonprofits, or short-term perspectives based on public funding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Centralized System</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Service</strong></td>
<td>Enjoyment of the power undermines willingness to help</td>
<td><strong>Nonprofit Service</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) motivation suppressed by the government’s discouragement, or</td>
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<td>(b) high motivation allowing to take unfavorable side</td>
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<td>With no workforce exchange, PSM serves as a precondition to choose the sector of a job place</td>
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The situation when two sectors speak different languages might influence individual motivation in two possible ways. Either employees will select the sector basing on their level of PSM, or they will be equally PSM-discouraged in both sectors. Rainey (1991 Castineira) suggests that the constraints on the performance of public services, among other conditions, are likely to be determined by the type of individuals who choose to work in the public organization. Following his approach, in the first scenario, highly motivated individuals would be more likely to choose to work for independent nonprofits, and those with lower PSM are more likely to end up in governmental organizations. Because in centralized systems the flow of human resources between sectors is almost none, the PSM level would become a precondition in choosing the sector of em-
ployment. Another scenario would be that due to the constraints of highly centralized systems, employees in both sectors might get equally discouraged in working for common good. In addition, influencing its own public employees, authoritarian regimes can also destroy civil society by greatly reducing the ability and willingness of individuals to organize for mutual benefit or political purposes (Smith and Gronbjerg 2006).

Conclusions

The aim of this article was to gain more understanding about the general differences of public values and motivation in public and nonprofit organizations, and in the context of centralized and decentralized administrative systems in particular. Thereby, the literature on these issues was reviewed not only in the light of public-nonprofit relations, but also by examining how these relations might determine employees’ motivation across sectors in Poland and Belarus.

As evidence from the previous empirical studies and the theoretical reasoning suggest, public and nonprofit service organizations share some similarities, such as being not-for-profit or oriented towards public interest. Yet, these sectors reveal even more differences that might determine employees’ motivation in a unique way for each sector. For instance, a positive image about the current government or a better employment benefits package might serve as a more attractive incentive to join public organizations than pure willingness to solve social problems. Yet, the ambiguity of goals and an overall bureaucratization might scare out highly motivated individuals from joining public organizations. At the same time, an independent image of nonprofits is less affected by the government showdowns and the goals are narrower than in the public sector. Meanwhile, nonprofits might be to a larger extent dependent on the donors, in setting their priorities and planning their activities. Moreover, the motivation of nonprofit employees can be affected by the unpredictable future of their employment.

Further analysis of the literature reveals that the differences and similarities in Public Service Motivation among public and nonprofit employees might indeed be intensified by the political and administrative regimes of the countries where these organizations are located. In decentralized systems like in Poland, public sector organizations serve larger goals, while allowing nonprofits to focus on particular problems that keep a vivid interest of the nonprofit employees. The intensive public-nonprofit relations support employees’ flow between the sectors. Meanwhile, the abundance of relations might weaken PSM of nonprofit employees, for instance by increased simultaneous responsibility before the citizens and the government, or short-term perspectives based on public funding.

Centralized systems like Belarus limit the workforce exchange between sectors, therefore making PSM a precondition when choosing between job places in different sectors. Enjoyment, which comes to public employees when exercising the power, would undermine the willingness to help. Meanwhile, the motivation of nonprofit em-
ployees would either be suppressed by the government's discouragement, or would become even higher since these individuals consciously take unfavorable side. Moreover, as the American experience shows, negative opinion of the government might spread out to the public sector as a whole. Thus, a negative political climate might unfavorably influence the prestige of the jobs in the public sector, which to a certain extent has been happening in Belarus. The negative opinion of the public sector furthermore has been spreading to the nonprofit organizations that receive funds from the government and share the same attitude.

Due to the lack of any empirical analyses of the motivation between the sectors in these two countries, it is hard to unambiguously name exact factors that influence PSM in practice. Although the theory offers many distinctive motives for public and nonprofit employees, the findings of few empirical studies conducted to compare motivation between the sectors provide different results. Scarcity of the findings suggests that more research should be done to fill the gap of comparative knowledge, especially taking into consideration that PSM differs from job involvement, organizational commitment and other generic concepts developed in organizational behavior research, in ways that should be better understood (Rainey 1991).

The review of the relevant theoretical and empirical literature helped to formulate the hypotheses that might be empirically tested in further research. Deeper analysis of the newly emerged nonprofit sector, namely in Belarus and Poland, can provide an answer to the question whether the sectors of employment and country's administrative and political systems determine fluctuations in individuals’ PSM in former communist countries.

This literature review offers sound grounds to assume that employees of public and nonprofit organizations indeed speak different 'languages'. Moreover, it shows that these differences might be intensified by the institutional conditions. In decentralized democratic regimes the 'languages' of the sectors originate from the same 'language group', meaning that with a bit of effort the employees can communicate across the sectors and work towards the same goal. Meanwhile, the hierarchical relations between sectors in highly centralized systems pressure employees to develop their own incomparable 'languages' and, thus, leave fewer chances for mutual understanding. By enjoying superior power, the public sector in the centralized systems neglects the fact that nonprofits might become partners and, therefore, share some part of the work load. Nonprofit employees feel no support from the government in their activities, and therefore, get discouraged, while public employees might lose their motivation to serve citizens since they are overwhelmed by responsibilities to address all social issues simultaneously.

Decentralized systems do not provide a unique solution to improve the motivation level of the service providers. An abundant cooperation of nonprofits with the public sector in decentralized systems might limit nonprofits’ independence and dictate the ways to address social issues in exchange for funding guarantees. The motivation of such nonprofits to help others might also fall low. Thus, in one administrative system
or another, the freedom and the independence of the nonprofit sector remains the key factor that determines the abilities of the service providing employees in both sectors to adhere and prioritize the public values.

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Abstract

The paper analyzes the traditional top down strategic planning practice, evaluates stakeholder participation levels, advocates for a more participatory planning approach and provides main direction for Lithuania municipalities participatory strategic planning development.

Keywords: participatory strategic planning, participative level, participatory tools, collaboration, placatation.

Introduction

Participation of citizens in local public life is an essential element of effective and democratic local government. Citizen participation is a two – way relationship between citizens and local authority.

The representative democracy is a principal type of democracy at a municipal level in Lithuania. Local voters elect governing bodies of municipalities. In this way the municipal council is elected directly by local voters, and the councils indirectly elect mayors. Traditionally this category of citizen participation is well developed. In recent years, as in many European countries, we have observed an erosion of democratic elections at the municipal level. The representative democracy is necessary but not sufficient. In our complicated modern world, this system needs to be supported ( Ank and Laurens, 2010).

Greater citizen involvement in direct participation in decision making and giving effective tools for participating in management in Lithuanian municipalities is currently essential. We needed more collaborative governance where local authority, organiza-
tions of the private sector, non-governmental organizations, community organizations and other stakeholders come together to determine policies, strategies, programs and actions of local development, and local authority must provide a facilitating and coordinating role. Here, public decisions, including local development strategic planning, must be undertaken collectively. Stakeholders and various interest groups must be included in the planning process, instead of it being solely decided on by politicians and bureaucrats, or particular interest groups. Stakeholders are people who have an interest in a particular decision, either as individuals or representatives of a group. This includes people who influence a decision, or can influence it, as well as those affected by it.

Recently, a wide set of tools of citizen participation was developed in many European local authorities. They vary from simple information and consultation tools to advanced schemes of citizen participation in municipal decision-making (Slocum, 2006). Appliance of this successful good local practice is very important for Lithuanian municipalities. Participatory strategic planning will be a significant contribution to the development of participatory democracy in Lithuanian municipalities.

**Types and Level of Citizen and Stakeholders Participation in Lithuania Municipal Strategic Planning**

According to the legal regulation in Lithuania, the local development plan consists of two types of plans: the strategic development plan and three-year strategic activity plan. The strategic development plan is a long-term plan determining development strategies and means to reach goals. Local development goals must be accordant with the national and regional development strategies. The three-year strategic activity plan is a middle-term plan providing details, program and project clarification on the strategic development plan. It is a rolling plan, requiring yearly revision and extension covering the three years. This plan provides a basis for the local annual fiscal plan and the annual action plan.

The extent of citizen participation in local development planning in Lithuania is weak; furthermore, there is no indication of equal authority in the public decision-making processes. The municipal executive institution and the municipal council have authority in making important decisions, including the appointment of a strategic planning committee (or commission) and approval of the local development plans. In Lithuania, citizen and stakeholder participation in local development planning mainly aims to collect information or consultation rather than collective public decision-making.

A helpful approach to define the degree of citizen and stakeholders participation in the municipal strategic planning process was provided in a classic model by Sherry Arnstein. (Arnstein, 1969). Whilst this does not offer an ‘ideal’ approach, the risks of ‘non-participation’ and ‘tokenism’ are explained, as well as go beyond participation in devolving full responsibility to ‘stakeholders control’. Arnstein developed a classic mod-
el (or „ladder“) of citizen or stakeholder participation. (Arnstein, 1969). The bottom rungs of the model – manipulation and therapy – describe levels of ‘non-participation’ that have been contrived by some, to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programs, but to enable power-holders to ‘educate’ or ‘cure’ the participants. The next level of ‘tokenism’ that allows the have-nots to hear and to have a voice is: informing and consultation. When they are proffered by power-holders as the total extent of participation, citizens may indeed hear and be heard. But under the conditions they lack the power to insure that their views will be heeded by the powerful. When participation is restricted to these levels, there is no assurance that stakeholder concerns will be addressed. Placation is simply a higher level of tokenism, because the ground rules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the power-holders the continued right to decide, a municipality carefully chooses a few ‘hand-picked’ stakeholders to consult or involve directly in the strategic planning process. Part of Lithuanian municipalities intend to reach only the fifth level, the so called ‘placation’.

Further up the Arnstein model are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Partnership enables stakeholders to share decision making through the strategic municipal planning process, which enables them to negotiate. The word “partnership” implies a relationship of equals, where everyone has an equal voice, and where power and responsibility are equally shared. Forming such a relationship, even in circumstances where everyone truly desires it, is not a quick or easy task. The development of a real partnership, acting together, may be only a future goal for the community. Deciding together may be appropriate in reality. Collaborative strategic planning is defined in terms of power-sharing, and five tasks are assigned to it: identifying and bringing together stakeholders; designing and using arenas for communication and collaboration; trying and using different routines and styles of communication; making discourses of policy; and maintaining consensus. Consensus building and maintaining is central to collaborative planning: ‘If the culture-building process of strategy-making has been rich enough and inclusive enough, the strategy should have become widely shared and owned by the participants and the stakeholders to which they are linked.

Participatory strategic planning is an alternative paradigm that involves various interest groups in the public decision-making process. The participatory strategic planning process in Lithuania municipalities is hierarchic, more top down and informal. The municipal politicians and executives are a significant mechanism pushing municipal planning to the participatory processes. They are now able to manipulate the participatory process. Various local groups of interests are kept out of planning procedures to negotiate their needs with local decision makers, and often are ignored in participatory activities. For some groups, municipal leaders are highly authoritarian; there views are perceived as a threat rather than an advantage to local executives. These groups are likely to be excluded from the participatory process. Particular groups have close contact
with municipal executives. These people maintain a type of patron-client relationship with the mayor; therefore, debates and negotiation rarely take place. It appears from this that various interest groups are not involved in the public decision-making process and genuine participatory strategic planning is not achieved.

**Participatory Planning Manual for Lithuanian Municipalities**

Lithuanian Government (Cabinet of Ministers) in 2013 constituted a team of strategic planning experts, municipality development specialists and scientist consultants for the preparation of the recommendations on strategic planning for Lithuania municipalities. Except for traditional strategic planning procedures one of the main goals of this project is to enhance local democratic governance in Lithuanian municipalities by strengthening the capacity of local authorities to undertake participatory strategic planning.

The project is expected to produce two main outputs:
1. To enhance the capacity of local authorities in participatory planning in order to better respond to the development needs of their communities.
2. To improve the capacity of local civil society organizations and other stakeholders and empower citizens to participate effectively in the planning process.

The purpose of this project is many-fold:
1. To prepare the recommendations for developing the municipal development strategic plans and provide guidance in preparing them.
2. To develop and produce a participatory strategic planning procedural manual.
3. To conduct training workshops to educate stakeholders on the proposed planning methodologies and procedures.
4. To conduct training workshops to educate stakeholders on the use of the manual.

The recommendations for preparing development strategic plans should reflect the following:
1. Methodologies and procedures to be applied in the stage of strategic planning, including analysis of the existing situation and development strategies, objectives and criteria of valuation.
2. Institutional framework relevant to the anticipated planning process.

The participatory development planning procedure manual should serve as the guiding document for stakeholders in the planning process. The manual should reflect the following:
1. A procedure for identifying a list of external and internal stakeholders, role and responsibilities of the different stakeholders in developing the strategic development and strategic activity plans.
2. Detailed procedures and processes for undertaking the participatory planning tools.
Conclusions

A set of tools of citizen participation was developed in many European local authorities. They vary from simple information and consultation tools to advanced schemes of citizen participation in municipal decision making. Citizen and stakeholder participation in Lithuania local development planning mainly aims to collect information or consultation rather than collective public decision-making.

According to the classic model of Sherry Arnstein, for the most part Lithuanian municipalities intend to reach only the so called ‘placation’ level. The municipal politicians and executives are able to manipulate the participatory process, and mainly basic local interest groups are not involved in the participatory strategic planning and the public decision-making process.

The Lithuanian Government (Cabinet of Ministers) decided to prepare recommendations for municipal strategic planning and to produce a detailed participatory manual for stakeholder involvement in the planning process.

References

Lodz University Students’ Expectations about the Issue of Civil Dialogue

Halina Klepacz
Kamila Szymańska

Abstract

The aim of this article is to present and analyze the students’ expectations towards civil dialogue between local authorities and residents of the Lodz region. In an era of intense regional development, involving people in decisions that affect their quality of life is essential. The basis of the empirical studies, are the results of a survey conducted on a group of students studying part-time at one of the city’s university. It turned out that the most important problems that local authorities should discuss and resolve in cooperation with the inhabitants are: unemployment and security in the city and in the family, and also the right to vote on the age at which children should start school education. The students consider the survey and vote to be the best and most convenient channels of communication with local authorities, but they are convinced that all residents should be able to read the course and results of collective consultation. The authority of the city or town and people without jobs were indicated as major dialogue partners. Test results should motivate local authorities and representatives of other public institutions to more frequent meetings devoted to the current problems of the local community, effective communication and encourage them to participate in this dialogue.

Keywords: civil dialogue, unemployment, security, consulting, education

A politician must be able to predict what will happen tomorrow, next week, next month and next year. And then explain why it did not happen.

Winston Churchill
Introduction

According to many authors, the need to consult with the public, which is a kind of dialogue called civil dialogue, has emerged as a result of weakness of the state, which ceased to cope with emerging socio-economic problems (Rhodes, 1994; Blanc and Beaumont, 2005; Forrest and Kearns 2001). The reluctance of the average citizen to actively participate in public life, from the point of view of the authorities, led to a variety of difficulties in making a decision in respect to meeting their needs (Matczak). It is concluded that Poland is a country with a weak state, poor administration, and a very low level of public activity (Wołek 2012 Hausner et al. 2000). It is, therefore, necessary to formalize and diminish bureaucracy procedures in place that will limit the range of informal links (Grosse and Kolarska-Bobińska 2008). The lifetime of “new” Poland is still too short, and its membership in the European Union even shorter, so it is too early for an evaluation and summary, even at the level of civil dialogue. However, it is worth analyzing the assessment of this phenomenon from the point of view of this particular group of young people - students. They “enter” today in the political and economic life of our country, their “judgment” should be taken into account as they will affect the place and role of Poland in the European Union and in the world.

Civil dialogue

The encyclopedia provides the following definition: dialogue [Lat. dialogus<gr. diálogos ‘conversation’], in philosophy: oral or written exchange of opinions, thoughts, ideas, arguments, happening between individuals or in the consciousness of one person, aiming to know the truth or to pass it on to another person, the creation of interpersonal bond or space for joint action.

You can distinguish three forms of dialogue, namely: social, civic and participative self-representation dialogue (Skrzypiec). Social dialogue is “all forms of negotiation, consultation or simply exchange of information between representatives of the government, employers and employees, concerning issues in the area of economic and social policy” (Towalski 2007). In contrast, civil dialogue is understood as “a way to communicate between the state authorities and the various social partners, which manifest themselves in the mutual transfer of an opinion, information or findings regarding the goals, instruments and strategies for the implementation of public policy.” Notably, this form of dialogue involves legally defined forms of organization of society, such as: NGOs, social, associations, foundations at various levels of their business i.e.: social, economic, territorial, vocational and others. The third kind of dialogue, is dialogue with local governments, or “autonomous dialogue within the system of public authorities: between central government and different subjects of local governments (Misztal).

Principles of social and civil dialogue were developed in a systematic way for the first time in a government program document, dated October 22, 2002, entitled: Prin-
principles of Social Dialogue. According to it, non-governmental organizations participate in the elaboration and implementation of programs initiated by public authorities, and will complement the activities of public administration, where it is not in a position to fulfill important social tasks on its own. The concept of civil dialogue can be used in two senses: wider and narrower. In a wider sense, civil dialogue is different forms of participation of citizens in communicating with public authorities; while the narrower, known as institutional dialogue, is understood as organized groups of citizens taking part in the process of decision-making by public authorities (Schimanek 2007). Civil dialogue participants - next to public authorities - are primarily non-governmental organizations, and its subjects are any issues related to the role and place of the various groups of citizens in the state and society (Wejcman 2007). In Poland, the practical application of civil dialogue has a very short history, whose beginning can be traced back to the middle of the first decade of the twenty-first century, after the Polish accession to the European Union. Initially, dialogue referred only to the integration processes and its actual use dates back to the year 2002, when the amendment of the provisions relating to the creation of law, introduced, mandatory for public authorities, the Regulatory Impact Assessment procedure. According to this principle, the consultations with civil society organizations should become an essential element of the legislative process. Another contribution to the creation of civil dialogue was the draft of the Act from April 24, 2003, about public benefit activities and volunteer work. In Poland, the most important institution of civil dialogue is the Public Benefit Works Council (RDPP), established under the Act on public benefit activities and volunteering.

In 2010 the legislature decided to expand the catalog of instruments of civil dialogue, moving to a large extent the functional schematic of the Public Benefit Works Council at the local level in the formula of the local councils of public benefit activities. A common feature of the local councils of public benefit activities, regardless of what level the local government functions at, is that they are mainly involved in the legislative process and serve as local discussion forums between local centers of power and non-governmental organizations on the local public policies and directions of development of local communities. The council shall also perform the functions of “peacemaking” to help in resolving disputes between NGOs and local authorities. Of course, the scope of their powers, creation and operation mode are varied depending on the level of local government (Sobiesiak-Penszko 2012). Currently, an important institution of civil dialogue - in the context of the implementation of the Structural Funds Monitoring Committees - are operational programs at both the central (ministerial) and regional (provincial government) level. The committees, in addition to representatives of the government, consist of representatives of local governments at all levels and the social (NGOs, and academia) and economic partners (employers and employees), and finally non-institutional forms of civil dialogue, for example: The Parliamentary Committee of Cooperation with Non-Governmental Organizations. According to Schimanka, a team, as opposed to the Public Benefit Works Council, became a platform for “genuine
debate about matters of importance to the civil sector” (Schimanek 2007). The basis for civil dialogue is citizens’ access to public information and participation in controlling the actions taken by the administration. In Poland, these regulations include the Act of September 6, 2001, on access to public information. The second, more important form of civil dialogue is consulting. Consultations generally need to be considered as a form of mutual information to participants in the dialogue, because it consists of listening, sharing of information and knowledge, and dialogue and debate on issues, which are the subject. Sometimes they also take the form of power sharing - “People come to joint decisions through discourse and debate” (Dlugosz and Wygnański 2005). However, the most complete form of dialogue, referring to the principles of partnership, or co-participation of citizens in decision-making procedures initiated by local government bodies is the co-decision (Dlugosz and Wygnański 2005). It is civic participation that engages the whole environment, stimulates action and awareness, encourages you to discuss important issues, which in turn is aimed at breaking down barriers of mistrust towards public institutions (Prawelska - Skrzypek 1996). An area of civil dialogue, due to the openness of the various participants in social life, public space, which is not synonymous with the public debate, which has the strength of arguments, however in civil dialogue, the importance is “organizational and representational strength in numbers of participants” (Misztal).

Basically, there are two development paths of social and civil dialogue institutions: pluralistic, that assume free clashing with groups of interest, and structural, that are based on existing forms of social organization - state or socio-professional. As part of the first, it was possible to form bottom-up mechanisms, eg. a public hearing or lobbying, while in the case of the latter - “administrative and corporate forms of participation in the processes of law-making (eg. A tripartite committees)” (Makowski 2007).

The objectives of civil dialogue can be divided into the following targets: a) general, namely: the socialization of decision-making procedures; balancing the interests of different social groups; development of better proposals of solutions for social and economic policies; preparation of social partners and the public for co-realization and responsibility for the implementation of the agreed dialogue programs and projects; extension of social control mechanisms and functioning of public administration; b) specific: provision of information; knowledge and understanding of social needs; discussion on important social issues; identification of common interest; building consensus and social equilibrium (Misztal).

**Methodology**

To get details on the expectations and experiences of civil dialogue, a survey was conducted among 163 part-time students of a university in Lodz. The research was done by audit questionnaire in late November and December 2014. Sampling was random in nature, because participants of the survey were students, who on the day of the
study were present in the class during their course schedule.

It was assumed that the expectations of the respondents to the subject matter, form and audience of dialogue between local authorities and residents might be dependent on the gender of the respondents, their age, place of residence and current employment status.

Among the respondents there were more women (62.58%) than men (37.42%). Respondents were highly diverse in terms of age criterion.

**Figure 1** Age of respondents

![](image1.png)

*Source: own research.*

The most numerous group were the youngest people aged 18 to 25 (43.56%), and the least numerous people where those over 45 years of age (6.13%). Larger gaps could be seen in terms of the size of a city or town in which they reside.

**Figure 2** Location of the respondents (by population)

![](image2.png)

*Source: own research*

Most (just over 46%) of the respondents live in major cities with a population of over 500 thousand residents. Relatively as many as 20.86% of the respondents live in the countryside. The smallest group consisted of residents of medium-sized cities (from 101 to 300 inhabitants), who were close to 2% of the surveyed people.

The vast majority of respondents are employed (95.71%). People without jobs or
looking for their first job, accounted for 4.29% together.

3 Analysis of survey results

The first part of the study on the expectations and preferences of respondents regarding the subject matter of civil dialogue. Figure 3 The subject of the dialogue between local authorities and residents (number of respondents)

Source: own research.

Most (69.94%) of the respondents think that local authorities should discuss the problem of unemployment in the region and its eradication with the inhabitants. It can, therefore, be concluded that this is the kind of social problem which is the most noticeable for the respondents or was felt strongly sensible (due to the lack of job opportunities for people close to or familiar to them). Much fewer (in 44.17% of the cases) respondents reported the need for dialogue on the quality of medical services provided by local health centers as well as investment in the region. It can, therefore, be assumed that these are phenomena, which although they are constantly being improved and there is no shortage of financial resources for them, their quality or desirability still leaves much to be desired. The least interesting topics to discuss for the respondents were: setting up and running their own business (12.88% of responses) and the provision of educational services (15.34%).

Since the questions formulated were rather general, surveyed people were asked a detailed question about the subject of public consultation, which should be brought up.

Figure 4 Social problems as the subject of consultations (number of respondents)
The obtained results allow us to conclude that the most irritating problems for the surveyed students is safety at their place of residence (68.1% of responses) and various social pathologies (61.96%). This indicates a very strong sense of insecurity in everyday life - both locally (external) and in the family (social). Meanwhile, a sense of peace is one of the most important and basic needs of every human being. Minimal necessary public consultation topics are habits and a healthy lifestyle (in 33.13% of responses). It can be assumed that relatively little needs to discuss these problems stem from the fact that these issues are often raised on a national scale (eg. The social and educational campaigns), and yet there are no significant differences between them.

In relation to the periodic return of the controversial topic of education in primary schools, respondents were asked: under which projects it is worth collecting signatures from residents.

**Figure 5** The collection of signatures on the organization of education (number of respondents)

**Source:** own research.
The most important problem, for which the respondents would like to have the right to collect signatures is to decide whether children should start early school education at the age of 6 or 7 years (the significance of the problem was indicated by 76.69% of the respondents). This problem has returned as a social discussion topic for several years now, just a few months before the start of the new school year. A much less irritating, but also relatively important issue is to make parents and teachers the decision-makers on the choice of textbooks (55.21% of responses). The least controversial problem is the impact of parents on the curriculum (29.45% of the respondents declared the need to collect signatures in this case).

Another important problematic area, that the respondents were asked about, are ways of collecting and publishing opinions expressed by residents. Figure 6. How to collect the opinions of the members of the local community (number of respondents)

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Source: own research.
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According to the surveyed students, surveys are the most comfortable tools for recording residents’ opinions, probably because of the speed and scope of information gathering. (such preferences were declared by 54.6% of the respondents). Slightly less (52.15%) of the respondents indicated that a good way to collect opinions of citizens is a traditional vote. It appears that the respondents have relatively small confidence in the dialogue between representatives of residents (27.61% of the respondents prefer this form of communication). Note, however, that none of the proposed tools are strongly unsupported by the vast majority of respondents - expectations in this area are, therefore, quite diverse.

The vast majority of respondents (96.32%) believe that the course of the public consultations should be documented in order to publicize the outcomes for all stakeholders. Creation of descriptive characteristics of a conversation and conclusions that arose from it may also be more obliging for local authorities to make residents’ suggestions come to life.

Respondents were asked in which publicly available source of information records of public consultation should be published.
Most (58.28%) of the respondents indicated that the Internet should be the main source of information about the course and conclusion of the public consultation between local authorities and city dwellers. Such a distribution of preferences is not surprising, given the media coverage and its widespread use by residents with virtually no spatial, time and age boundaries. Less popular, but also an invaluable source of information about the results of the consultation is the local press (interest in finding information in this media was declared by 48.47% of the respondents).

Dialogue with residents is frequently led by representatives of local authorities. The Party in the consultation can also have meaning and other public entities whose activities focus on improving the quality of life of the local community. It was, therefore, considered important to question the respondents about what institutions should conduct public consultations.

The vast majority of the respondents (92.64%) expressed the view that the organizer of the public consultation should primarily be the municipal (or communal) office. This is fully justified, as it can be concluded that the range of activities of this institution
and its decisions, exactly match the geographic scale of residence of the respondents. In addition, civil dialogue with the city authorities, “intuitively” is associated with a conversation with the president of the city, representatives of the departments of the City Council or other persons who have a decisive influence on the activities undertaken at the most narrowly understood local scale. All the other actors, such as the police, the National Health Fund or the Marshal’s Office were deemed less important for dialogue and reached a maximum of 25.15% of the respondents’ votes.

It is impossible to talk about public consultation without any indication of who should be the main participant in such meetings and, therefore, to whom such an offer should be addressed. Thus, the respondents were asked to indicate who should be the recipient of the offer of dialogue between residents and local authorities.

**Figure 9** Public consultations recipient (number of respondents)

![Bar Chart]

**Source:** own research.

Most (61.35%) of the respondents expressed the belief that members of public consultation should be primarily people without jobs. It should be noted that this is consistent with earlier statements that the problem of unemployment and its liquidation should be the focus of public consultation. Much fewer, compared with other indications - also relatively common, respondents perceived the need for participation in the consultation with students (49.08%) and families who either have or are at risk of experiencing a variety of social pathologies (45.40%). It can therefore be concluded that the remaining groups are either perceived as those whose rights and specific needs are now quite widely respected, or as being able to independently improve their quality of life. But there were voices that the recipients of public consultation should be all residents, regardless of their social status, occupation and demographic characteristics.

The surveyed students had little experience in the field of real participation in the dialogue between local authorities and the local community. Only 11.66% of the respondents had ever participated in public consultation - perhaps the remaining 88.34% of the respondents had never had the opportunity to participate in such a meeting, or the subject had been uninteresting to them, or they had believed that such participation would not translate to their quality of life in the long term.
The respondents, who indicated that they had participated in the public consultation in the past, had varied experience in this area - the minimum number of meetings they took part in was 1 and maximum was 10. On average, a “mediocre” test subject took part in consultations 3 times. It can, therefore, be concluded that the respondents see the need and long-term consequences (in terms of improved quality of life) of such meetings at the local level. The subject of the consultation, in which they had taken part in, focused on e.g. the disposal of the civil or municipal budget, the establishment and closure of schools, development of road infrastructure, land development, residential (housing), the liquidation of the municipal police and other current local problems.

In the end those who had experience in participating in the public consultations were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of public consultations.

**Figure 10** Evaluation of the effectiveness of public consultation (number of respondents)

![Pie chart showing evaluation of effectiveness](chart.png)

**Source:** own research.

Most (40%) of those who participated in public consultation evaluate their effectiveness neutrally. It can therefore be concluded that the findings made during such meetings did not significantly affect the perceived quality of life of respondents and their families, or their consequences are deferred in time. In addition, a total of 30% of the respondents is at least partially satisfied with the effectiveness of the organized consultations. The same number of respondents, however, rated it negatively. It can be said, as was rated by the respondents, that the public consultation organized by the local authority or other public institutions, regularly or occasionally, impact the lives of the respondents at a moderate level.

To sum up the conclusions of the empirical studies it must be noted that, according to the respondents, the most important problems that local authorities should discuss and resolve in cooperation with the inhabitants are unemployment, and security in the city and in the family. The respondents would like to have a legitimate right to vote on the age at which children should start school education. As the best and most convenient channel of communication with local authorities they value surveys and voting, yet they are deeply convinced that all citizens should have the opportunity to learn about the course and cumulative results of the consultation. In the area of social dialogue, they
pointed out mostly the authorities of a city or town, and people without jobs, as major partners.

It should be noted, however, that relatively few respondents have a real experience of participation in public consultation. The analysis of the obtained results, however, should motivate local authorities and representatives of other public institutions to more frequent meetings devoted to the current problems of the local community, effective communication and encouragement to participate in this specific public discussions.

References
government perspectives, Public Administration, 79 (1).
The Most Important Influence Factors of NGO’s on the Austrian Climate Policy - Transport Case Study

Luise Brosser

Abstract

The greenhouse gas emissions are to be found in the industry, households, agriculture, deforestation and traffic. The transport sector recorded the highest growth rates of CO2 emission. The savings potential in the transport sector is enormous - fuel consumption of vehicles could be reduced, alternative fuels and alternative forms of propulsion could be used. In Austria, the transport sector continues to grow further. The Austrian climate policy must comply with the obligations under the Kyoto Protocol: Austria had to reduce its greenhouse gas emissions by 13% during the calculation period 2008-2012. Currently, not only the government, but even the non-governmental organizations, such as Global 2000 and Greenpeace Austria have made it their goal to help ensure that greenhouse gas emissions are reduced. NGOs try to turn the attitude of the politicians by lobbying on climate change influence. The purpose of this case study is to provide an example of the role of the NGOs and their influence on changing the development of the transport sector in Austria. This article shows the initiative of the Austrian NGOs to improve the climate policy by influencing the political and the social areas through lobbying actions.

Keywords: NGOs, Austria, transport sector, climate policy, politics

Introduction

Man is constantly affecting the nature through his behavior. 50% of the land surface has already been altered by man. The effects affect biodiversity, nutrient cycle, soil structure, soil biology and the microclimate. About a quarter of all fishing areas are
overfished, over 50% of the accessible fresh water is used by humans and in many parts of the World groundwater supplies are dwindling swiftly. The extinction of species takes its course and many ecologically important habitats such as wetlands, rain forests and woodlands are constantly being decimated. (Formayer H. and Kromp-Kolb H., 2005, p.99-158)

Climate change, accelerated by the man-made greenhouse effect leads to global warming. This fact is already a far advanced problem that the entire planet is concerned about. It can trigger changes on the Earth and serious consequences for all living things within it. A series of consequences has been noticed, such as lower agricultural yields, the melting of glaciers, the drying up of rivers in the summer, reduction of biodiversity and the spread of infectious diseases. (Murray P., 2007, p.7-40)

In Austria, NGOs seek to stop climate change. It is not easy to find an optimal solution. The government’s intent is to bring under one roof environmental, social and economic interests.

The NGOs make many demands on the government with regard to the development of the transport policy. But what are the influences they can actually exercise on the policy? And how does this influence the climate policy? This paper tries to bring to answer these questions.

**The Austrian climate policy**

Austria has long been regarded as one of the greenest countries in the world. However, in the recent years, the greenhouse gas emissions have drastically increased.

One of Austria’s main tasks is to implement, as quickly as possible, the agreed decisions and agreements based on the international level. For this purpose, appropriate measures in their own country need to be found. It is demanded that greenhouse gases are greatly reduced without a large loss in social need.

In 2002 Austria ratified the Kyoto Protocol. According to the Burden-sharing agreement the EU, which is based on the Kyoto Protocol, Austria has to reduce its emissions by 2012 by 13%. (Kratena K. and Schleicher S., 2001, p.1-14)

In June 2002 the Austrian Federal Government decided to apply the “Climate strategy Austria 2008-2012”. This provided an extensive package of measures to reduce greenhouse gases in order to reach the Kyoto target.

In 2003 the research program initiated the “Start Climate Protection Project”, StarClim for short. This provides reports on climate change and extreme weather events in Austria each year.

A cornerstone of the Austrian climate policy is, among all, the EU Green Electricity Directive (Directive 2001/77/EC ), through which the Green Electricity Act (Federal Law Gazette 149/2002 ) has been implemented on the national level. According to this law, the increased share of electricity from renewable sources is to increase from 70%
to 78.1 % by 2010.

In the Electricity Industry and Organisation Act (ELWOG) (Federal Law Gazette I 143/1998 i.d.F. Federal Law Gazette I 104/2003) it was agreed that 4% of total electricity is to be provided by renewable energy sources by 2008. Another directive of the European Union, the EU Biofuels Directive (Directive 2003/30/EC), will increase the market share of biofuels in the total fuel market, namely to 5.75 % by the year 2010.

The listed programs and strategies are just a short extract from a large sum. The first had already begun, but whether it will be enough to cause a reduction in emissions is to be seen.

Furthermore, the behavior of the government is to operate climate policy due to the pressure of the European Union. The EU wants to reach a speedy ratification of the Kyoto Protocol, so they assume a credible leadership role in global climate policy. (Kratena K. and Schleicher S., 2001, p.1-14)

### The Austrian transport policy

In terms of the population, Austria has the largest and most expensive motorway network in the European Union. Especially outside metropolitan areas, the supply by far exceeds the demand.

The auto and construction lobby is still for the expansion of roads. In the Gap closing program about 2.4 billion euros were invested by 2009. The past shows that gap closing programs led to an increase in traffic and thus to an increase of CO2 emissions. Therefore, there is also the General Transport Plan of the Ministry of Transport, which identifies a generous expansion of the road network. (Rauh W., 2001, p.7-21)

One of the main reasons why Austria’s transport policy has developed more and more the road transport policy, relies in the great demand of the voters that prefer private transportation. (Salat CS., 1996, pp.76)

The Minister of Transport must take into account the interests of the government, and also try to bring about a balance of interests with the interest groups. Moreover, it is particularly difficult at the prevailing diversity of competences in Austria to implement a rational transport policy target system. (Salat CS., 1996, pp.76)

The VCÖ regularly performs the VCÖ traffic radaring in cooperation with the OGM. In this survey, in 2006 the population was asked who, in their opinion, the transport policy was most established for. Austrians most commonly mentioned that it was for female drivers (33%), then came truck drivers with 19%, 19% passengers of public transportation, and Austrians perceived that it was in the least for pedestrians. The Minister of Transport is thus perceived as an auto Minister, according to the Trafficclub Austria (VCÖ, 2006).

In 2001/02 a general transport plan for road, rail and waterway was created, which is to summarize all modes of transport in the resort. This plan regulates the area of infrastructure, to manage a growing transport demand in the first place it is. (The Trans-
The Austrian Federal Transport Infrastructure Plan (FTIP) and the Master Plan claim the concretization of Austria’s total transport concept in 1991 and represent the objectives of Austrian transport planning, strategic environmental assessment, and perceive the needs of the economy. (Schäfer E., 2000, pp.19)

The influence of NGOs on climate policy

The influence and effectiveness of NGOs is in close connection with the self-understanding and functioning of the organization. (Kohout F. and Mayer-Tasch P.C., 2002, p.15-18)

Global 2000 and Greenpeace Austria criticize the actions of the Austrian Government in regard to the climate policy. The environmental organizations try to make their claims public and set the politicians under pressure. One of the main successes of NGOs is probably that they have a very large expertise about the subject, since they need all necessary resources to intensively deal with it. Therefore, they are suited to work hard to convince, because they have no permanent pressure. (Kohout F. and Mayer-Tasch P.C., 2002, p.15-18)

The oncoming traffic plan, conceived by the NGO, identifies the weaknesses of the Transport policy and offers an image of eco-friendly solutions. According to Global 2000 about 35% of CO2 emissions are caused by traffic in Austria. As already mentioned, the Transport sector is the largest and fastest-growing emitter of CO2. This unstoppable trend, which calls for a massive expansion of the Global 2000 rail transport, is pointing to measures that simultaneously aim to reach a reduction or to achieve stabilization of car and air transport (Global 2000-100% Umweltschutz, 2004).

Greenpeace Austria requires a greening of the tax system with the core of a revenue-neutral CO2 tax. According to the NGO, diesel and petrol in Austria is taxed too low. The NGO calls for a comprehensive, consumption-based CO2 taxation.

At the end of April 2007 Greenpeace had a small success in the Austrian transport issues. After months of work in the form of discussions and protests, the transport minister, Werner Faymann agreed to a speed test at 160 km/h on the A 10 Tauern motorway between Paternion and hospital east end. 160 km/h was Hubert Gorbach’s, Faymann’s predecessor, test zone. The department of Transportation said in a press release that studies have shown that a speed of 160 lowers road safety and the environment would be burdened.

The environmental organization Greenpeace indicates that it has demonstrated help with discussions and protests of these facts. The first protest against the pace - 160 test track was on 30 March 2006 on the hard shoulder instead of the Tauern motorway. Greenpeace activists protested with wooden crosses against the planned test track, and then protested in front of the Federal Chancellery.

On May 2, 2006, 30 activists of Greenpeace were detained and chained for a day.
Again, the environmental organization turned to Chancellor Wolfgang Bowl to finish with the demand of a speed test to 160. The next action followed on the 3rd and 4th of May. Greenpeace activists reported motorists on the Tempo 160 - in the Safety Car that a higher speed means a higher risk. Following the example of the car race, Greenpeace limited the pace on the test track with the help of safety cars to a maximum of 130 km/h. Also on May 4, Greenpeace presented a warning sign marked “No 160 - Stay alive” on the A 10 Tauern motorway.

Conclusions

One possible reason for the growing influence of NGOs on international and national environmental policy, is the metamorphosis of the state. The state is no longer alone in coping with the increasing variety of tasks today. Its role has changed. It is no longer a sole ruler of all meetings and controlled decisions. The representatives of the state are always more encouraged to leave their familiar place in the center of society and meet with other representatives of economic, scientific and social interest groups to negotiate with them.

The integrated hierarchical structures of domination are replaced through formal and informal negotiation systems and networks. (Kohout F. and Mayer-Tasch P.C., 2002, p.15-18)

In summary, it can be stated that the most successful and important opportunities for NGOs climate policy to influence at the national and international level are the methods of indirect influence, and in particular lobbying and the creation of public pressure through campaigns and counter-summits.

In principle, an influence of NGOs on processes of climate policy is very difficult to prove. Lobbying plays a major role in the work of NGOs, but they do not want to publish the contents and strategies of their lobbying campaigns. It is especially difficult for NGOs to directly influence the political processes as social influence has not come up recently in the policy.

As mentioned, the Transport sector is a very complex system. Changes need to be well planned and the resulting consequences are thought up for the future. The NGO’s think of their demands primarily to the environment and the climate. The Government needs to take into account also the interests of the society and of the economic sector.

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Digital Governance in Romanian Municipalities

Catalin Vrabie

Abstract

A national strategy represents the critical first step in building digital government. It provides the framework in which most digital government projects are prioritized, designed, and implemented. Effective implementation of digital government requires a well-articulated strategy. It is considered the first and most important step in securing the success of information technology projects. Critical success factors have been identified in other research, which examines IT projects at the local level. This article presents a comparative cross-country study in order to know the level of web service implementation at the municipality level (what are the public services that municipalities offer to their citizens using the electronic platforms). In order to find this, we have accessed each municipality’s Web portal from Romania (103 in total) and using a defined scale; we have rated each one very strictly. The results are presented here both as a table in which a classification of all the municipalities and their rates will be presented, and as a chromatic map, which represents the actual development of Romanian digital government by cities and counties. It is understood that the existence of very well maintained Web platforms does not imply that they are also used by the citizens or the business society. The new methods of administration do not need only innovative solutions but also “intelligent citizens”. By this study I will find out what the most critical aspects for a municipal Web site are: Transparency, E-documents management, Communication (with citizens), Content etc. Knowing those aspects will help the municipality to be more attractive and to gain inputs from the citizens making them an important actor in the decision making process. I have to mention that this study is the third one (the first was made in 2010 and the
second one in 2012) and by that I will be able to present some dynamics (by presenting the chromatic maps made before) of Romanian municipalities and how this study helped IT departments from the municipality to obtain a higher rate this year, and by that, to be closer to the citizens offering multiple online services.

**Keywords:** Municipalities, electronic, governance, digital

**Introduction**

Today, for interacting with the public administration a computer connected to the Internet is usually enough. Connecting from a browser to the Web page of the institution you look for is enough (generally) to obtain and send information to/from the public administration. Scientific literature presents 5 pillars of interaction of the PA with its environment (Pardon 2000; Baltac 2008; Vrabie 2009).

Pillar 1. Displaying information on Web pages – one-way communication. This is the easiest form of interaction, the posting of information on the official Web page of the institution with the purpose of informing the citizens.

Pillar 2. Two-way communication. Through this method the public administration can collect data from the environment to which it addresses them, be it through e-mail or more evolved systems of data transferring using intranets or extranets.

Pillar 3. Financial systems and Web transactions. The Web site available to the public offers the possibility of effectuating the complete public service through, or including, the decision of using the service and the actual supplying of it. For the applicant there is no need for another official procedure through which he must use documents written on paper. This type of government is partially possible through offering access for the citizens and the business environment to on-line databases.

Pillar 4. Vertical (inter-department) and horizontal (intra-department) integration of the public services available on-line. This level of interaction is dependent on the speed with which the synchronization of information is realised for the on-line IT systems to provide in time the data needed by the users.

Pillar 5. Citizen participation in the government activity. This phase promotes the participation through electronic systems like: discussion forums, blogs, electronic voting systems (not necessarily electoral), electronic questionnaires, or any other method of direct and immediate interaction.

The conceptual frame marked by these 5 pillars is necessary only for the understanding of the evolution of eGovernment. In Romania, at this moment there are 41 districts and 103 municipalities, from which only 102 (99.02%) are present on the Internet in the moment of this study (January 2014). From these, only few of them (we will find more detailed information in the following pages) have a Web site sufficiently developed to allow communication as it is described in pillars 3, 4 and 5. Practice has
shown that there is no lineal evolution and this is a good reason to expect that at the next analysis the number of municipalities that use well developed Web platforms will be greater.

The elements taken into account in the analysis were: the presence of transparency elements, the management of electronic documents, useful content, methods of bidirectional communication and some general elements regarding the Website taken into discussion (graphic interface, the easiness in navigating, the richness of information connected to the municipality etc.).

Research Methodology

Although there are numerous Romanian initiatives of connecting even smaller communities, like small towns or even communes to the Internet (one example would be the project www.ecomunitate.ro1, that has the ambition of connecting to the Internet 255 communes and medium to small size towns from Romania), I have chosen municipalities due to the positive relation between the number of inhabitants and the capacity to eGovernment of the local public administration (Moon 2002; Moon and Leon 2001; Musso et al. 2000).

Most of the elements used in this research are taken from previous studies, adapted afterwards to take in relevant values (table 1.1). We can observe, as an example, the study “Digital Governance in Municipalities Worldwide (2011-12)” realised by Mark Holzer and Aroon Manoharan in 2012, where Bucharest, the only Romanian municipality, is present on the 52th spot.

The obtaining of the data was made through individually accessing each official Web site of the municipalities, just after these were found on the Internet with the help of the well-known search engine Google (this intermediary step was necessary due to the lack of a standard model of a Web address; for example the mayor office in the capital city has the address www.pmb.ro and the mayor office in the city of Iasi uses www.primaria-iasi.ro). The whole research was made in January 2014.

Once the Web site was accessed, the elements presented in table 1.1, were followed and values from a scale of 1 to 5 were attributed (according to the table 1 – C5 section) to those elements that present a potential risk of subjectivity from the observer, like: easiness of browsing, attractive design etc. In all the rest (for sections C1 to C4 – see the exceptions described below, box 1.1.) the attributing of values was made with 0 or 1 (0 = it doesn’t exist; 1 = it exists) for every element submitted to the research, for example: “Can you submit petitions on-line?” or: “Is there an electronic map of the municipality?”

Box 1.1. Exceptions

1 The institutions involved in the project are: the Ministry for Administration and Internal Problems, the Ministry for Education, Research and Innovation, the Ministry for Culture, Cults and National Patrimony and the Ministry for Small and Medium Sized Enterprises, Commerce and the Business Environment with the support from the World Bank and the European Union.
We can find two exceptions to these rules, and these are:

1. In the case of the chapter “Transparency”, especially the presence on the Web site of the CVs of the employees. In the case the CVs of all the employees are present, the value that must be introduced is 2 (C14 = 2), if only the CVs of the leaders of the institution are present, then the value 1 must be introduced (C14 = 1), and if none of the CVs can be found, 0 (C14 = 0);

2. In the case of the chapter “E-DOC”, if on the Web site documents for on-line fill-in can be found (C211 = 1), as well as in standard electronic format .doc and/or .pdf (C212 = 1), then C21 will take as an exceptional case of value 3, or else C21 will be equal to the sum of C211 and C212, which obviously will be equal with 0 or 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The research element</th>
<th>The values that can be registered</th>
<th>Codification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANSPARENCY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration of fortune</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational chart</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minutes/meetings published on the Web site</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVs of the employees</td>
<td>0, 1 or 2</td>
<td>C14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislation</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E-DOC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authorizations/certificates/electronic forms</td>
<td></td>
<td>C21**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.pdf, doc, .rtf format</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line fill in of forms</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line following of submitted request, electronic or not (after registering no.)</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line petitions</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public announcements for: acquisition projects, concession, renting</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMMUNICATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility to send an e-mail directly to the mayor (or his cabinet)</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility to send suggestions (other then regarding the Web site)</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>USEFUL CONTENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion forum between/with the citizens</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic map of the city</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map of public transportation</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possibility to search within the Web site</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language selector</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayor Office news</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web cam</td>
<td>0 or 1</td>
<td>C46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **GENERAL** |  
| Attractive design | Between 1 and 5 | C51 |
| Easy browsing | Between 1 and 5 | C52 |
| It presents information with general character (taxi phone no., hotels, shows etc.) | Between 1 and 5 | C53 |

**Explanations:**

- 0 - not found on the Web site;
- 1 - found on the Web site
- * Exception 1
- ** Exception 2
- *** see table 3.8

The study used 24 instruments for the radiography of the Web site\textsuperscript{2}, grouped in 5 distinct classes (C1, C2, C3, C4 and C5 as they’re presented in the same table), each with a different number of subclasses according to the relevance it had in the analysis. The 5 classes have the same weight in the final classification. The grade in each class is given by the sum of the point’s weight obtained at each subclass, so that the subclass will have a value between 1 and 5. In the appendix 1, a model of calculus is presented on the example of the Mayor’s office in Bucharest.

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\textsuperscript{2} Undertook and adapted after The Rutgers - SKKU E-Governance Survey Instrument, that can also be found in the paper „Digital Governance in Municipalities Worldwide (2011-12)” [Marc Holzer & Aroon Manoharan]
Below is presented the calculus formula for each class at a time and for the final result:

\[
C1 \text{ (TRANSPARENCY)} = \frac{N_{max}}{P_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{5} C1_i
\]

\[
C3 \text{ (COMMUNICATION)} = \frac{N_{max}}{P_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{3} C3_i
\]

\[
C2 \text{ (E-DOC)} = \frac{N_{max}}{P_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{4} C2_i
\]

\[
C4 \text{ (USEFUL CONTENT)} = \frac{N_{max}}{P_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{6} C4_i
\]

\[
C5 \text{ (GENERAL INFO)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{3} C5_i}{N_{elem}}
\]

\[
P_{final} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{5} C_i}{N_{cls}}
\]

Where:

- \(C1, C2, C3, C4, C5\) analysis classes (for \(C1\) and \(C2\) we must keep in sight the exceptions described before);
- \(C1i, C2i, C3i, C4i, C5i\) subclasses (elements) of the analysis, the values obtained after receiving the answers;
- \(N_{max}\) maximum grade that can be obtained, \((5\) in this case);\n- \(P_{max}\) maximum points that can be obtained through summing up the maximum values that can be given to each element;
- \(N_{elem}\) number of elements submitted to the analysis;
- \(N_{cls}\) number of classes, \((5\) in this case);\n- \(P_{final}\) the points obtained on the Web site under analysis (on a scale of 1 to 5).
Obtained Results

All of the 103 Romanian municipalities have been analysed and the results obtained can be presented in each class, but also by the final results. As it was expected, the municipality of Bucharest is in the top if we judge according to the final results, but we can find drawbacks in the chapters of “Transparency” and “Generalities”.

Table 2.1. The stage of eGov development in Romania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>44.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From those 103 municipalities only 102 (99.02%) had at the end of the year 2014 an active page on the Internet\(^3\), from which – after the final results – 10 have obtained the grade very good (final points situated between 4,01 and 5,00), 33 good (points between 3,01 and 4,00), 46 satisfactory (points between 2,01 and 3,00), 12 low (points between 1,01 and 2,00) and 2, very low (points under 1,01).

We can see that almost half of the Romanian municipalities of the country have a satisfactory Web page (information about which we can’t say that it is satisfactory from the point of view of the citizen or the business environment), and a third is good or very good.

Further, I made averages for each county and created a chromatic map (Image 2.1) displaying the level of implementation of Web technologies from the municipalities of the analysed county.

Table 2.2. The level of eGov development divided by counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>56.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^3\) The only municipality which is missing is: Dragasani.
We can see after the analysis of the counties (table 2.2), that the level of eGovernment development in Romania is mostly satisfactory – half of Romania’s counties have received this grade (points between 2.01 and 3.00), while only 2 obtained very good: Sibiu and Arad. We must notice that none of the counties received the grade very low.

**Transparency elements**

Law no. 52 from January 21, 2003, regarding decisional transparency in the public administration\(^4\) governs the way in which the local public administration authorities must relate to the communities in the legislative process, especially to involve the interested parts, be it members of the communities, associations or other interested parts (stakeholders). The normative act determines, as an objective, the honour of 3 principles: previously informing, ex officio, the people over the issues of public interest that will be debated, consulting of citizen and legal constituted associations in the process of elaborating normative act projects, as well as the active participation of citizens in the administrative decision making and in the process of elaborating them. (Septimius Parvu)

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\(^4\) Issued by the Romanian Parliament, published in the Official Monitor no. 70 on 3 February 2003
In the procedures of elaborating normative acts, the authorities are obliged to make a public announcement, with a minimum of 30 days before submitting it for analysis, notification and adoption by the authorities, which must publish it on its own Internet Web page, to post it on its notice board (in a space accessible for the public) and to send it to the mass media. The announcement must include a foundation note, an exhibit of reasons or a paper of approval regarding the necessity of adopting the proposed normative act, the full text of the project as well as a deadline, the place and the way through which the citizens can advance written proposals or recommendations. Normative act projects are transmitted to all the people that have submitted a request for receiving the information in discussion.

A part of the transparency elements can also be found in the C4 analysis (Useful content) subclass C45 (Mayor Office news).

The weight of this information category (C1 class) is 20% in the calculation of the final result and in its structure we can find 5 elements: declaration of fortune, organization chart, minutes that are accessible through the institution Web site, employees’ CVs or legislation available for informing the citizens interested in the activity of the local elected leaders.

Four municipalities obtained the maximum, followed by 40 municipalities with 4.17 points. Sadly, there is one municipality (Vatra Dornei) to which, if we add Dragașani, we gather two municipalities, that obtained less than 1 point in this class.

**Table 2.3. The municipalities’ status in the Transparency chapter**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>42,71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33,98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average score obtained in this chapter is the highest – 3.45, but probably this high number of points is obtained due to legislative obligations rather than the interest of the officials. We will see that in the E-DOC chapter, where the legislation is not so compelling, the average is much lower.

**Graph 2.1. Dispersion graph in the Transparency chapter**
The graph displayed above shows us that the score of most of the municipalities (79, meaning 76.69% of their total) is situated in the interval 3.01 – 5.00, which is over the average. This may show that in the future the ones under the average will also go up.

**Electronic document management**

The E-DOC section includes the documents to which the citizens can have access through the digital environment, whether they’re destined for downloading for a future fill in, or for filling in directly on the Web page. In the same section the checking for announcements on acquisitions, franchising or renting; that the mayor’s office publishes on its Web site was included.

*Electronic authorizations / certificates / forms.* This category can include documents in .pdf, .doc, .rtf format that can be downloaded for diverse purposes from the mayor’s office Web site. Most often these represent forms destined to be handed in at the public institution after a previous filling in. From the 103 analysed Web sites, 81 (78,64%) presented documents meant for downloading, as the ones presented above, 32 municipalities (31,06%) benefit from an on-line filling in system for forms – from which only 27 (26,21%) allow the on-line following of the form’s track (an easy to implement system from a programming view). For example, the mayor’s office in Bucharest has implemented on its Web site an on-line system for tracking the paying of taxes and contributions, as well as tracking of citizen’s petitions (in this case a user account must be created by every citizen that wishes to use this service).

There are 11 Web sites most developed from this point of view, each of them obtaining a full score. It is also worth mentioning that 21 municipalities (20,38%) have obtained a score lower than 1 point, a finding not so encouraging considering the fact that through these on-line services the mayor’s office can get closer to the citizens.

**Table 2.4.** The municipalities’ status in the E-DOC chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18,44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12,62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20,38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this chapter we find the lowest average in the entire study (2.44), a fact that shows how many issues the municipalities’ Web sites have on the delivering of on-line public services.
In the graph above we can observe that most of the municipalities (71 – 68.93%) are positioned under the average. For avoiding a further decrease, the authorities should “force” the mayors’ offices - through an adequate legislative frame - to post on their Web sites electronic forms/materials for the citizens’ access.

**Electronic methods for bidirectional communication**

Citizen participation in the act of governance continues to be the most recent area of study for eGovernment. Very few public agencies offer on-line opportunities for their citizens to actively participate in the governance process. This can be done through the presence of electronic voting forms when a public decision must be made (a procedure so rarely found that is has not been introduced in the study for the purpose of not diluting the researches’ results), or through discussion forums with and between citizens. In this way the present part of the analysis stops at the research of the mechanisms through which the users can send on-line comments or can generate feedback for the institution or its officials. A mayor’s office can display on its Web site a considerable amount of documents and information of public interest, but the lack of possibility for the citizen to contact the public institution (for questions as well as for suggestions) damages the citizen – administration communication.

**Table 2.5. The municipality’s status in the Contact chapter**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>52,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27,18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicators used for measuring the Web site's capacity of allowing its users to interact easier with the administration were: *the possibility to send an e-mail directly to the mayor (or his cabinet), the possibility to send suggestions (other than referring to the Web site) and the presence of a discussion forum between/with the citizens.*

The possibility to send an e-mail directly to the mayor or his cabinet was encoun-
tered in 83 cases (80.58%) and the possibility to send different suggestions to the authorities in 78 cases (75.72%). We can observe that only 23 (22.33%) have implemented a discussion forum. In some rare cases I have encountered institutions that facilitate the communication with the citizens through applications of instant messaging (Yahoo Messenger) or situations where the on-line discussions are structured according to a certain topic (e.g. public politics), more or less a successful idea, depending on the total number of participants (directly proportional to the population of the community).

The average score obtained in this chapter was 2.98. The maximum number of points was gained by 16 municipalities (15.53%) in this chapter. The average score is 2.98.

**Graph 2.3.** Dispersion graph in the Contact chapter

We can gather from this graph that the scale is slightly out of balance in favour of those with a score over the average results: (67.96%) are above, pointing at a possible growth.

**Useful content of the Web sites studied**

The content is an essential component for a Web site. It is irrelevant how advanced the technologies used are, if the content is not up to date, if it is difficult to navigate on the Web site or if the information is hard to find or inaccurate. In this scenario the Web site doesn't fulfil its purpose.

**Table 2.6.** The municipalities’ status in the *Useful content* chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Useful content can be considered by the information presented on the Web site like news, or other useful information about the city for its citizens (through an on-line city map, a map of transportation means or the Web cams installed in key points of the city). This type of content is not related only to the external elements of the mayors’ office,
but also to the easiness with which you can access the information on the Web site, the possibility to choose between languages or the option to search within the site.

The results in this chapter show that seven municipalities are the top cities on the chart, with a maximum score. Unfortunate 9 municipalities (8.73%) have reached a score below 1 (about the same situation as in the chapter E-DOC), which can be interpreted as a situation where the mayors' offices Web sites are not oriented to satisfy the citizen's needs, but due to legislative regulations in the field.

The obtained average is 2.78, which shows that there is an unbalanced situation between the number of municipalities that don't offer information on the Web site about the city, and those that present this information. Only 42 Web sites (40.77%) allow citizens to choose between several used languages, and 27 (26.21%) have the option of viewing live images through Web cams. The map for transportation means is available only on 23 Web sites (22.33%) and the map for the entire municipality (a very important element) is presented on 82 Web sites (79.61%).

A category with higher performance from the Web sites is the News about the mayor's office; 93 of them (90.29%) have a section specially designed for this purpose. A note must be made about the fact that this section belongs also to the chapter for Transparency, signifying that there are legislative norms which oblige the mayor's offices to make information of this sort available on their Web sites.

**Graph 2.4.** Dispersion graph in the Useful content chapter

Graph 2.4. reveals a concentration of municipalities in its lower part rather than in its upper part (as it would be desired). A number of 57 municipalities are situated below the average. It is possible that a legislative intervention, or a higher interest from the local authorities, will increase the values obtained in this category.

**General information about the Web sites in view**

This research examines also the level of accessibility of the Web site. In other words, I wanted to see how user friendly the Web sites are. For measuring this, I used mostly the same techniques applied to the Web sites analyses made in the private sector, studying how attractive the design is, how easy it is to work inside the Web site, the quality and quantity of information about the municipality.
These results indicate that, nevertheless, the municipalities are interested in being visible on the Internet, and the visibility should lead to a pleasant visit (e.g. for tourism the Web site of a city is like its business card).

The results are balanced between those three subclasses analyzed (table 2.7.).

Table 2.7. Results balance for the chapter General information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Attractive design</th>
<th>Easy browsing</th>
<th>General information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7,77%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26,21%</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18,45%</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32,04%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15,53%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 2.5. The balanced results of the chapter General information

The scale, according to the table presented below, registered values starting with 1 – very bad, to 5 – very good:

Table 2.8. Description of the evaluation scale in the 5th class – General information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>the design of the Web site is very unprofessional, unattractive, probably the municipality realised it with its own resources/ difficult inside browsing, the Web site is developed in .html and did not present dynamism, the maximum number of needed clicks to reach the last page in a branch is greater than 4/ doesn’t present information of general interest for those who are visiting the municipality (phone no. for taxi, hotels, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the design of the Web site is unattractive, probably the municipality realised it with its own resources / difficult inside browsing, the Web site is developed in .html did not present dynamism / presents too little information of general interest for those who visit the municipality;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9,71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32,04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7,77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As an example, I have analysed how visible the links are, if the presence of chromatic elements is not clumsy, if the number of clicks that must be made to reach the last page of the Web site is not to great etc.

The general information section includes two information categories. One refers to the Web site itself, to the degree of difficulty found in using it and accessing the information presented on it - finalised by appreciating the Web site's design and the easiness of browsing it. The other category refers to the information of general interest presented on the Web site: telephone no. for taxi, hotels, shows/events).

Table 2.9. The municipalities' status in the General information chapter
From the graph above we can conclude that most of the municipalities (69 in absolute measure, 66.99% in relative measure) have obtained a rating superior, or very close, to the average. The “concentration”, contrary to the previous chapter, is found in the upper region of the graph, with an obvious inclination towards an attractive design rather than utility.

**Study conclusions**

In this study the present situation in the level of implementing eGovernment through the mayor’s offices Web sites of all Romanian municipalities is revealed. As we can observe from the map displayed earlier (img. 1.1.) or from table 2.1., and table 2.2, the situation is medium which signifies that there are still multiple steps to be made in order to be able to speak about electronic governance in Romania, as we encounter it in other European countries (and not only).

This can also be seen in graph 4.1, by the fact that the “concentration” can be found around the average interval (2.00 – 3.00), with 79 municipalities (76.69%) obtaining a rating over the average.

Fearing a dilution effect which probably would have appeared in the final results, I have not introduced in this study elements that can be found in similar studies conducted in other countries, like: the possibility to perform on-line pays (a situation rarely found in Romania) or the participation of citizens in the governance activity through electronic vote or electronic referendum (rarely found as well), on-line questionnaires meant to collect citizen opinions in regard to possible actions by the mayors’ office.

In comparison with most of the cities (even when these were outmatched by Bucharest) we can say that the biggest limitation found in this study, in relation to the
Romanian municipalities, is civic participation. It is here that the deficiencies in the relation between the authorities and the citizens are highlighted. The reasons can be diverse, from the lack of informing over the electronic means of communication, the lack of ways of communication, to the lack of interest from the authorities or the civic qualities of the citizens.

As I declared from the beginning, I will repeat this study every 2 years in order to observe the adjustments that appear, and for a possible comparison with other cities of the world. I expect a substantial improvement of the obtained ratings.

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The Role of NGO’s in the Development of Civil Dialogue at the Local Level in Poland

Mariusz Wiktor Sienkiewicz

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to determine the role of NGOs and local government in the development of civil dialogue. It also seeks to analyze the essence of civil society in the process of democratization of public life and social life in Poland after the change of the regime in 1989. The main thesis of the study is based on the assumption that, despite the ongoing democratization of socio-economic development and decentralization of public administration and the development of civil society, civil dialogue development in Poland is unsatisfactory and too slow. This article shall also attempt to answer the question of what role an active cooperation between local authorities and NGOs plays for the development of civil dialogue? Whether there are tools for building civil society and civil dialogue at the local level? Whether, after more than twenty-five years of local government structures, effective “local communities” have been formed that actively participate in building civil dialogue in the local government?

Keywords: civil society, civil dialogue, NGOs, local government

Introduction

As a result of the reform of public administration, the most important element was the adaptation of the Law on Local Self-government on March 8th, 1990 (Dz. U. 1990, No. 16, pos. 95), which restored the local government in Poland. Municipality was established as the only local government unit, which functioned with the central government and provincial local administration, which was sanctioned by the Act of March 22 on local authorities of general administration (Dz. U. 1990, No. 21, item. 123).
This led to the formation of a two-tier system model of public administration. Governmental structures have been established, based on the principle of centralism and acting on the basis of professional bureaucratic apparatus, and the structure of local government managed in a decentralized manner by the authorities selected through a democratic election. Municipality, as a unit of local government, has become the basic unit of territorial division on the basic level. On the other hand, the regional government was functioning - the basic unit of territorial division functioning in order to perform the tasks of central government (Ofiarski, Mokszyc, Rutkowski 1998; Płoskonka 2001).

One of the main objectives of the concept of building local government, as defined in the previous Law on Local Self-government was, as rightly observed by E. Nowacka, empowerment of society. Overarching objectives that the legislature had achieved were:

- the granting of independence to local communities through the decentralization of public authority,
- triggering entrepreneurial activity and local communities, which was designed to create conditions for the development of mechanisms for the restructuring of the economy,
- raise public participation in decision-making processes of political and economic power thanks to the separation of local and central authority (Nowacka 1994: 85).

These objectives were to be achieved through the operation of local municipalities, as the basic territorial unit of the country. However, there was no wider support, either social or political, to create further levels of local government, including the county. Of course, since the beginning of the system changes, a number of ideas appeared to restore the county in Poland, however, inter alia, through political fragmentation in the system of government and “overload”, the transformation of socio-economic life did not pay particular attention to the further development of local governments. This took place only after a few years (Sienkiewicz 2011).

This fact came in 1997, when advanced work on public administration reform started. The culmination of these activities was the adoption in 1998, four makro reform state, including public administration reform and the establishment of two new levels of local government: regional self-government and county self-government.

**The essence and tradition of civil society in Poland**

The existence of civil society is the basis of a democratic state, and its level is closely related to the level of development of democracy in the country. Civil society in Poland has its own tradition. It occurred rather varied in different periods of our history. Substitutes of civil society are visible in the Republic of noble, e.g. Traffic enforcement in the sixteenth century, or the period of the Great Sejm in the eighteenth century. During the annexation the collapse of civil society occurred, especially in the 60s of the XIX century, just after the fall of the January Uprising. It was most strongly suppressed in
the Russian annexation, where, for example, most of the male and female religious congregations were resolved. After Poland regained its independence in 1918 there was a flourishing of civil society institutions. It manifested itself in the creation of hundreds of organizations, associations, societies and foundations, that participated in political life or in the functioning of local government.

During World War II so called underground civil society functioned, which included, in particular: underground education at all levels, the underground press and vast movement of publishing, cultural life, numerous social local or creative associations, and political parties. After the war, there was a deep regression of civil society. It was the result of the process of mastering the state by the communist regime. The new government subordinated all forms of self-organization of society. The seal of these activities was the elimination of the local government and the establishment of the national councils in 1950, which are local government fiction. However, certain forms of civil society existed, for example, the activities of various groups of mutual aid, self-education, and social environments supporting relationships resulting in earlier forms of organization (eg. Pre-war scouting, student organizations, school alumni association).

1956 marks the beginning of the process of change taking place in Polish society, when moral objections to violations of the rules laid down by the socialist system begin to emerge. Such events as the year 1968 (protests intelligence and students); the year 1970 (the workers Coast); the year 1976 (Workers’ Defence Committee); the year 1979 (the visit of Pope John Paul II in Poland); interrupt the social isolation and control of the state over society. These are important, even critical points, which consequently led to building the foundation for the creation of “real” civil society in Poland. The turning point is the year 1980, in which the elite and mass transfer in ten-millionth “Solidarity” have proven that they are capable of restoring the subjectivity of Polish society. This thesis, supported by Inka Słodkowska, illustrates the fact that the events of August ‘80 and the subsequent history of “Solidarity” are closely linked to the constitution of civil society in Poland.

The events of the eighties and enabling socialist power to create institution, giving a formal basis for the development of civil society in Poland, (the Ombudsman, the Constitutional Court, the State Court, the Supreme Administrative Court, the Law on Foundations, Law Law on Associations) initiated a process whose culmination was the “Round Table” and parliamentary elections in 1989. These events gave both the beginning of the existence of a democratic system in Poland and the beginning of democratic civil society (Słodkowska 2006).

Civil society is defined as a participating community, consisting of active citizens, working in the public as individual or collective entities in order to express their interests, achieve specific goals or realize certain ideas (Gąciarz 2004). Wiktor Osiatyński (2004) defines civil society as a space between the family, the state and the market in which grassroots community organizations operate. In this space citizens engage in debate, the result of which are developed social solutions for the common good. Mani-
festations of civil society in the territory are diverse. Barbara Gąciarz (2004) states that the features of a model civil society approach are: 1) the empowerment of citizens in all spheres of the political, social, economic and cultural activity; 2) the establishment and functioning of a network of independent social institutions (organizations), which operate on the principle of representation, autonomy and pluralism; 3) implementation of certain practices, such as responsibility, solidarity, mutual respect and trust.

Civil society has different dimensions at different levels of public life. In general the relationship between the state and civil society determine the economic, social, professional and political conditions of the activities of citizens as individuals, partners in business, or the participants of national associations. At a local level (at the level of the municipality or county) these relationships stem from specific dimension indicators of civil society to which Świaniewicz P. (2000: 31) includes: 1) the number of voluntary social organizations in the area; 2) the presence of local press; 3) the share of local government units in voluntary associations, unions; 4) the intensity of international relations; 5) the “historical tradition” factor. These indicators are relevant to both the local government at the municipal and county level.

It is also worth underlining that civil society, whose existence and development is indicated as one of many principles of good governance (good governance), has a number of references in relation to the functioning of the state apparatus and local government (Rozwój Społeczeństwa Obywatelskiego, 2010).

Public participation at the local level

One should share A. Janus’s (2004) point of view that institutionalized social participation opportunities conduce the formation of civil society. The opportunity for residents to actively participate in decision-making on the future of the local government is a manifestation of the democratization of social life in Poland. The System Transformation in Poland in the early nineties of the twentieth century led to the formation of local self-government, as one of the basic elements of a democratic state. The municipality and county were established, local government units with authorities elected by the local community, whose aim, among others, is to approximate the authority to the citizen. The functioning of the local government in Poland showed that the transfer of power to the local level was a very favorable move in both the economic as well as social and political sphere.

In many counties the mechanism of strengthening ties between the local community and the local elites of power - the “Authority – county office” was observed, which directs the county structure and social support which is very necessary to carry out basic tasks faced by the entity. The way to create conditions aimed at increasing public participation in decisions taken by local authorities is to create mechanisms for two-way communication between the local government and its citizens. This manifests itself in a mutual exchange of information between the office and the local community. The
local government should inform the community broadly about its activities, and should create conditions for the effective collection of information from the public, concerning opinions for example on the subject of its investments, the general policy of local acceptance of planned activities and should express their needs and demands. The local community acquires the skill of functioning in public life if it has the possibility to co-decide - to participate in decision-making processes of their self-government (Chlivickas, Raipa, 2002/2003: 117-136).

In the PWN Polish Language Dictionary (1995), the word “participation” is defined as “to participate in the costs, expenses; participation, attendance”. By J. Hauser (1999) (Mączyński, 1996; Mendel, 2002; Horsman, Raynor, 1978: 239-253). We can assume that public participation is the participation of citizens in the management of the affairs of the community of which they are members. In the broad sense it is the basis of social participation of civil society, whose members voluntarily participate in public activities. In a narrower sense it means the public-private partnership of local government and residents for taking action on local development.

Adapting this concept to our considerations, participation can be defined as participation associated with the process where two or more parties cooperate in the preparation of plans, implement plans and make decisions. This is reflected as the expression of opinions, views in relation to the actions taken by local authorities, by local referendum institutions, public debates and meetings with residents that address the current problems. This sphere incorporates the work and public consultation on such a strategy, or local development plans (Rachwalski, Betkiewicz, Izdebska, 2000; Szot-Gabryś, Sienkiewicz, 2003: 128-130).

Public participation in terms of co-operation of the public sector, non-governmental and private organizations, is the process of integrating residents and local businesses in the process of solving local problems and making critical decisions on the local community. In this approach, the representatives of the local community are co-authors of concepts and solutions for local politics. An effective public participation program is primarily used in the practice of a two-way flow of information between the local government and citizens, and the inclusion of local communities in the process of development planning.

The scope of two-way communication and public participation in the local government is associated with the specific local problems. Poland has implemented a number of model solutions in the field of social participation, which in many cases have been initiated. An example of this is the program Partnership for Local Government (LGPP) funded by the US Agency for International Development in 1999. The program included projects on participation and communication in municipalities and counties with the participation of external consultants. The scope of these projects involved e.g.: the creation of a communication system of social attitudes to ensure efficient communication in the office, the improvement of the flow of information between employees and the management office, preparing a catalog of services, the improvement of information.
about the work of the office, the development and preparation of the newsletter, the improvement of direct contact of local authorities with the locals, external promotion, institutionalization of cooperation between local authorities and NGOs. Similar initiatives implemented in recent years also include the implementation of a number of projects relating to civil dialogue under the Human Capital Operational Programme 2007-2013.

In practice, the process of participation in local government is implemented by creating plans, participation and social communication, taking into account the process of informing local communities, the process of obtaining information from the community, conducting public consultation and participation of residents in the decision making process (Jakubowska 2001).

So far the developed and implemented plans for participation and communication in the local government were to create a directory of public and official participation, and ways of informing residents about local government matters. In many cases, the measures in the field of social participation were included in the plans of the information offices and boiled down to tasks related to the improvement of local government information policy. Additional elements of the socialization process, was the development of strategic plans for local and long-term investment plans. In this regard, the process of cooperation with the residents included tasks related to prioritization of expenditure and local government investment projects.

In Poland, the public participation process is closely related to the determinants of local problems, which typically involve technical and social infrastructure. In addition, the restrictive elements to implement the process are: low profile differentiation of local NGOs and the lack of experience in the development of institutionalized trilateral cooperation by local governments.

Management of local governments using the model of social participation is a natural process of change in the perception of local government units. Phasing out bureaucratic forms of management to the managerial model in local government has a positive effect on the process of socialization in public decisions, effective delivery of public services and the creation of a tripartite partnership in the implementation of local initiatives.

**Local government and non-governmental organizations**

The main factor in the development of civil society is the development of NGOs. They form the organizational structure in which active citizens can act, thereby expressing their participation in public life. Without this there is no possibility of civil society (Regulski, 2002: 3), which quoting A. Sulek (2003) is like “... the tissue of voluntary organizations, associations and contacts that fills the space between the individual and society, the citizen and the state, is one of the pillars of a democratic system”. According to the author, civic associations are a place of expression and reconciliation of the interests
of different social groups. In social organizations, people learn to trust and learn civic skills such as participation in democracy and joint action. Social organizations also shield the unit from excessive power of the state. The state of civil society is expressed mainly in the universality of the association of citizens, including the establishment or the membership in voluntary organizations, associations, parties, committees, councils and other social relationships by citizens.

J. Blicharz’s view (2005: 7) should be shared that the roles non-governmental organizations perform are determined by the social, political and economic life of the country. NGO development is closely linked with the level of development and democratization. In democratic countries, non-governmental organizations often play the role of intermediary bodies between citizens and public administrations in the sphere of solving social problems. The relationships between the public sector and local government in the field of cooperation in the performance of public duties, mostly attributable to a public entity, are important conditions related to the activities of NGOs in Poland.

M. Kulesza (2002: 56) rightly says that, theoretically, despite the large number of non-governmental organizations, there are many other local government units in which there are several organizations, often specialized, less active in public life. The author argues that it creates a so-called vacuum in the life of the community, which is easily and willingly filled the political parties, thus taking control over life. The report of the Conference of Local Democracy Foundation (2002: 3) summarizing the activities of the reformed local government states that “... government is that which is public, and the way in which it functions, is a reflection of the problems of building civil society”.

NGOs in Poland are an important partner in shaping local and regional development. The development of the “Third Sector” is significantly associated with the decentralization of state structures and strengthening of the democratic process at the local level. The third sector is the name that is used for general non-governmental organizations. This term, borrowed from English, refers to the division of partitioning the socio-economic activity of modern democratic states into three sectors. According to this typology the first sector is public administration, also sometimes referred to as the state sector. The second sector is the business sector, which consists of all the institutions and organizations whose activities are focused on profit, also known as the private sector. The third sector is generally private social and not-for-profit organizations, or NGOs (non-profit organizations). Another name applied to these organizations are social organizations or public organizations. The wording emphasizes that the activity of these organizations is the clearest in the field of health, broadly defined social welfare, charities and education, which are short in action for the public good. The Law on Public Benefit and Volunteer of 2003 introduced the concept of a public benefit organization in relation to the organizations that are active in the field of socially useful public tasks specified in the Act (ngo.pl, 2004).

The dynamics of the development of NGOs in Poland was significant after 1989 and underwent a gradual strengthening in the 90s. The process of Poland’s accession to the
European Union and the possibility of using external funds rapidly developed the Third Sector and had a significant impact on legal legislations governing the cooperation of NGOs with local and regional governments. According to the study: “The situation of the NGO sector in Poland 2004” (2004) conducted by the Klon / Jawor within the Program the Third Sector in Poland, the largest number of non-governmental organizations work in the field of “sports, tourism, recreation and hobbies” (38.6%). Other areas of activity indicated by the organizations are “arts and culture” (11.6% of organizations), “education and upbringing” (10.3%), “social services and social work” (10% of organizations) and “health” (8.2%). The number of non-governmental organizations in Poland is closely connected with the size of the village. In 16 provincial cities, nearly 40% of all organizations currently operate, and in rural areas and in cities with less than 10 thousand residence, only 25% (Sułek 2003).

On the basis of sociological research, currently the vast majority of Poles (77%) do not work in any civil organization. Every fourth adult (23%) however says, that they devote their free time to social activities, 14% in one area, 4% - in two areas, and 5% - in three or more. The activity level of Poles in civic organizations is stable (Wciórka, 2006).

A slightly more positive picture emerges from research on the wider social engagement conducted by the Center for Public Opinion Research. The question posed for several years by CBOS (2010, 2012): In the past year did you work voluntarily and free of charge for the benefit of your community, church, neighborhood, village, town, or for those in need? In 2002 19% of questioned respondents answered positively, in 2004 - 24%, in 2006 - 23%, while in 2010 28% and in 2012 up to 32%.

Among the research on the level of involvement of local communities in the activities of non-governmental organizations, a survey of this type was conducted on councilors of local counties and the region. It turned out that the outside political party council activity is not too broad. A significant part of the respondents declared that they do not belong to any community, organization or association. In counties 41% of councilors do not belong to this type of organization. Those councilors who have declared their membership in social organizations or associations, most frequently referred to professional associations and sports. Only 10% of councilors belonged to regional associations, and the same for educational or scientific associations (Gąciarz, 2004).

It is worth emphasizing that the vast majority of councilors (60%) who declared adherence to these social organizations or associations have managerial functions, mostly at the highest level. They are usually the President or Vice-Presidents of the associations and foundations. The characteristic of social participation of district and regional councilors shows that councilors are more socially active than the average residents, however, it is the scale of participation that shows a continuous weakness of civil society in Poland and the domination of civil life by the influence of political parties (Gąciarz, 2004).

The relationship between public administration and the non-governmental sector is crucial for local development. NGOs have a big impact on stimulating social activity and the implementation of projects based on partnership building. NGOs, are an im-
important channel of communication with the local community for local authorities. They can raise finances for projects relevant to the local community and be an important partner in developing and implementing strategic development plans. For most organizations the local government is the most important partner in the implementation of various projects for the benefit of local communities and they give access to public funds. Local government cooperation with NGOs is an opportunity to carry out public tasks in a more efficient manner. Indirectly this cooperation depends on the quality of achieved tasks and the solution of socio-economic problems by the local government.

Normalization of relations between the public administration at the local level and non-governmental organizations is an important step in building civil society and in particular the so-called civil dialogue. Research conducted by the Institute for Social Policy at Johns Hopkins University shows that third sector activities are financed mainly by public funds. In the case of France, Germany, Italy and the UK 40% of all the resources available to the third sector come from the same government grants. The example of Western Europe confirms that the cooperation of the public sector, including local authorities and NGOs is crucial in the development of civil society (Mendes, 2004). In addition, regulations have a significant impact on the development of non-governmental organizations at the local level.

In the Law of the County Self-government of June 5, 1998, article 4 one of the public listed tasks is “cooperation with non-governmental organizations.” Adapted in 2003, the law on public benefit activities and volunteer work, opens a new chapter in the relationship between public administration and NGOs. The Act provides the legal basis for the development of systematic cooperation between the district administration and NGOs. The solutions introduced in the Act presented a statutory obligation of public authorities to cooperate with the actors and public benefit. The nature of this cooperation is based on a few fundamental principles: subsidiarity, the sovereignty of the parties, partnership, effectiveness, fair competition and transparency.

Understanding the scope of application of these principles in practice boils down to a few theses:

- public authorities, in accordance with the principle of subsidiarity and the sovereignty of citizen organized communities, recognizing their right to self-defining and solving local problems, also belonging to the sphere of public tasks, supporting their operations and allowing for the execution of public tasks, under the terms of the Act;
- non-governmental organizations in accordance with the principle of partnership involved in solving local problems, the solution of which is the subject of public tasks;
- public authorities, when commissioning tasks to non-governmental organizations should be guided by efficiency, respecting the principles of fair competition and the requirements of the Public Finance Act;
- local governments cooperate with NGOs only to the extent of their tasks, and provide cooperating organizations with information about intentions, objectives and
measures in carrying out public tasks (Mendes, 2004).

The indicated Act defines the principles and forms of cooperation, and also leaves local governments the ability to create multiple solutions for the development of this co-operation based on local conditions. One of the key determinants of the level of institutionalization of cooperation of the NGO sector and the public one is the existence, at the local government level, of the appropriate legal and organizational tools for such cooperation. The Act on Public Benefit and Volunteer introduced a mandatory requirement for the development of the “Programme of cooperation with non-governmental organizations”, moreover, the Act established a single mode of subsidizing by local non-governmental of organizations that have used various forms of financing objectives of the organization.

Prior to the entry into force of the Act on public benefit organizations and voluntary service, the scope of cooperation between the local government and NGOs has been analyzed in detail in the report entitled: “Cooperation Barometer 2003” developed by the Association of Klój/Jawor. It shows that the most commonly, almost in half of the cases (47%) local governments cooperated with organizations on the basis of bilateral agreements, next in terms of universality was the law on public procurement (22.3%), followed by a resolution of the competent authority of local government (19.3%). In a large minority cooperation was based on cooperation programs (7%). In some cases, co-operation was formalized and extemporary (4.7%). The forms of co-operation consisted primarily of informing NGOs about the current goals and actions of local governments, non-financial support, participation in local development planning and in mutual promotion. The analysis did not reveal any differences between rural and urban municipalities.

The analysis of the role of NGOs, in relation to the local government maintaining the most frequent contacts with institutional partners and representatives of the local community, should be stressed. Among partners, local government occupies a special place at the municipal and county level. According to 2004 data, 65% of organizations are in contact with the local government often or at a certain time, 58% of organizations contact the local government about matters relevant to the implementation of statutory objectives. The most common forms of cooperation include: 1) the exchange of information (60%); 2) agreeing on mutual projects (57%); 3) the transfer of funds (65%) (Gumowska, Herbst, 2004).

An important element of cooperation between local and non-governmental organizations, are the rules for the allocation of funds for specific actions and initiatives. The results of the report entitled “Cooperation Barometer 2003” indicate that the funds were transferred to NGOs in different modalities. The most common form was provided in the form of a grant agreement between the parties, usually without open tender. Only counties and cities applied open competition procedures more often than rural municipalities. However, regardless of the type of local government, the funds trans-
ferred to NGOs were of about 1% of the budget. In the case of municipalities they were 1%, in counties - 0.9% of the budget (Skiba, 2004).

The scope of cooperation of the public sector and the NGO is closely related to the scope of local governments' own tasks. The vast majority of municipalities and counties cooperate with NGOs in the field of sport and recreation, culture, social pathologies and solving problems of marginalized groups. The general comparison between the different local government units shows that counties and municipalities often cooperate with the third sector in different areas. The average number of areas is much lower in the case of rural communities than it is in the case of municipalities and counties. The scope of cooperation of non-governmental organizations with districts generally includes areas related to unemployment, persons with disabilities, homelessness, lack of access to information, as well as consulting and training issues.

The analysis of the opinion of NGOs participating in the “Situation of the NGO sector in Poland 2004” study, indicates that for non-governmental organizations local government is the most important institutional partner. In accordance with Art. 5 of the Act on Public Benefit and Volunteer “public authorities operate in the field of public tasks (...), in cooperation with non-governmental organizations (...), corresponding to the territorial scope of activities of public authorities, public benefit, to extend the tasks of these bodies”. The cooperation of NGOs and local government can take various forms. These are in accordance with the provisions of the Act:
- NGOs outsourcing of public tasks (by entrusting them with these tasks, or to support their implementation);
- common informing each other about planned activity directions;
- consulting draft normative acts;
- creating joint and initiative advisory teams;
- programs of cooperation with NGOs.

In Poland local authorities carry out these tasks, primarily through the development and implementation of the so-called “Programmes of cooperation with non-governmental organizations and entities conducting charitable activities”, which are long-term cooperation programs setting out the areas and principles of cooperation and determining the procedures for the preparation of “Annual programs of cooperation”. In addition, many local governments appoint coordinators that perform the function of connectors between individuals and departments, with representatives of non-governmental organizations. The coordinator most often takes scope of the task of leading and updating a database of non-governmental organizations, meetings with local organizations, informing organizations about the tasks assigned to implement, and preparing annual reports on the implementation of public tasks entrusted to NGOs.

While analyzing the role of NGOs, the factors of most importance at the local government level, the following determinants should be most emphasized:
- Non-governmental organizations have human potential with relatively specialized
skills;
- they know the specifics of local socio-economic problems;
- perform assigned tasks more efficiently and cheaper;
- have good social trust, and are representative of the local community;
- have experience in tasks based on partnership;
- are promoters of volunteering;
- undertake innovative activities in solving local problems.

The expectations of the “Third Sector” in relation to municipal and county self-governments is quite important because it allows us to specify the place of NGOs in relation to the local authorities. The development of local NGOs depends on the involvement of local governments in the development of cooperation in the field primarily to delegate of tasks for non-governmental organizations and their financing, share housing base and technical-organizational activities to organizations and to provide recommendations for projects, and also mutual promotion.

NGO cooperation with the local government has brought a lot of interesting model solutions in addressing socio-economics and stimulating grassroots initiatives. Mostly these were the initiatives funded by the grant-giving bodies in various programs of support. The accession of Poland to the European Union was the most important factor for the process of strengthening of non-governmental organizations at the local level and legitimizing cooperation with the local government.

The possibility of using many funds was a huge challenge for NGOs and local authorities and forced the need to build local partnerships for many projects. The integration process was a challenge in terms of internal cooperation and consolidation activities at the level of local development. From the point of view of the local government of greatest importance is the use of the European Social Fund and the European Regional Development Fund by organizations.

Currently in Poland essential for the development of cooperation between the local government and the NGO sector are a number of factors:
- the development and strengthening of the role of non-governmental organizations at the local level depends on the financial condition of the “Third Sector”. The revenue of NGOs from public funds occur in the countries with the highest level of co-operation development of the public sector and non-governmentals, a decisive part of the budgets of NGOs;
- the problem of strengthening NGOs in local government is dependent on the level of delegation and public tasks in their own right of local government;
- the support of third sector development by local governments must be a systemic and long-term action, inscribed in the strategic activities at the regional and local level;
- legislative solutions that govern cooperation of public administration and NGOs in
Poland are the starting point for creating model rules of cooperation in these sectors.

Conclusion

In this study, an attempt was made to assess the functioning, conditions and opportunities of non-governmental organizations, as a factor in the development of civil society and civil dialogue in operating conditions created after 1989 in local government. It is difficult to clearly identify the main determinants that influence the scale and level of development of local self-government cooperation with civil society actors. There is also the problem of differentiating local authorities in terms of active communication with representatives of the local community. Specific competitions are often between local government units, in particular in the county in which NGOs are active. The problem is aggravated by the fact that the county authorities actually support county organizations in a very small manner, focusing its attention mainly on those operating at the headquarters of the district town.

The problem is also located on the side of NGOs (Brodziński, Kamiński, Kmieć 2013). NGOs are too often seen as consumers of public funds or institutions that pursue interest of narrow special groups. This situation inspires discussion on a more activating and participatory model of the third sector.

The study and research of the Klon/Jawor presented by CBOS in 2008, indicate the existence of considerable Polish civil society potential, which is currently only partially reflected in real action for the common good, but under favorable conditions can lead to greater involvement of citizens. However, there is a trend to inhibit the development of civil society (Wciórka, 2006).

This state of affairs may be surprising. Polish integration with the European Union was to increase the level of democratization of social life, its openness, and transparency, increasing the potential number and involvement in non-governmental activities, increasing civic participation and influence decisions of the government at various levels. EU which Poland is using, were to serve these changes. Unfortunately, it is apparent that the initial objectives are not being achieved. There are at least two main reasons for this state of affairs. First the thesis about the formation of the so-called Polish “Consumer society”, mentioned by Wiktor Osiatyński must be formulated: “(...) the consumer is fundamentally different from the citizen. The citizen had to deal with opposites jointly with others. The consumer is a completely different type of a person. For the consumer the most important is to make life easier. Each new product is a fix, each is easy to acquire. There is no symbolic layer in buying, no need for virtue, besides material values. Common good began to fade in a consumer society. Since most needs can be met in an easy and convenient manner, making it individually, community is unnecessary, and with it the idea of the common good, self-limitation and civic virtues ...” (Osiatyński 2004).
The second reason for the decrease in the development of civil society in Poland after the Polish accession to the EU, is the weakness and inefficiency of the institution of the EU, that should deal with the broader issue of the development of civil society in the Member States. The Economic and Social Committee, as the body responsible for these actions, for various reasons, does not fulfill its role. Perhaps it would be good to appoint an independent authority at the European level, which would take over the tasks of ESC in this field, and focus all attention on studying, initiating the activities of different actors and institutions, promoting citizenship and social commitment to the development of European citizenship.

Furthermore, prof. Wojtaszczyk observations, claims that in Poland during the permanent transformation, a full system of civil society was not amounted, because: a modern party system; political liberalism; political culture and rational administrative arrangements and administrative staff loyalty (Lewandowska, Budziszewski, 2002) are still missing.

Given the positive side of the balance of the functioning of local government in Poland after 1989 in terms of social benefits, the following statements must be concluded, first, that the human community living in the local area has evolved even further empowered - psychosocial, political, and prosperous - community; secondly, the local community has created a bond within its area historically, ethnographically, professionally, through family, education, etc.; thirdly, there were more favorable conditions for the development of the social inclusion process, which is essential for the self-organization of the local community and to enrich and strengthen ties with the territory of the local government; fourthly, local institutions were created by the local community, that have become a form and manner of empowerment for residents, allowing articulation of collective needs; fifthly, on the basis of commonly perceived needs of the local population, the consciousness of common interest created the sense of the common good. The local community has become a community that takes even stronger action, during which it reveals its self and creates local authorities and local leaders; sixthly, it develops the social activity of local residents, improves citizenship, a local community becomes more socially creative, social energy is released, producing a variety of local initiatives that serve the creation of local development; seventhly, mechanisms of local democracy are perfected and built, the community is able to - and aims to carry out public tasks of local importance; eighthly, residents of the local government, understanding the social reality that surrounds them and having the opportunity to influence it, develop a personal relationship, and finally, ninthly, generally thanks to the decentralization and functioning with it, the real self-regulatory mechanisms of local democracy of a society can work faster and more widely than in the case of centralized administration (Piekara, 1998).
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City Safety with Development Strategy

Zbigniew Grzywna

Abstract

A city, which fulfils only basic needs for a human can hardly be the place of accomplishing real democratization practices. There are no doubts that because of this reason we deal with city crisis as a place of living and fulfilling of modern people. It emphasizes the need to think of the tools, which can improve the level of living in the city. It is popular that we take care of the increase in the availability and use benefits, infrastructure and devices. And probably it is right. However, it seems that problems of environmental burden connected with urbanization, decreasing energy use and irreversible changes of environment are not the subject of attention of people and institutions responsible for public affairs. Believing in the development and possibilities of finding solutions for our needs on the basis of the increase in technicization is much stronger than the will to consider real needs.

Keywords: Threats, security, development strategy, planning.

Introduction

In the minds of cities’ inhabitants of the western world, environmental issues are more often combined with current or future scientific opportunities to rescue, prevent or rehabilitate than with the needs to change the way of thinking and action. Direct relations, which connect problems of widely understood living environment with the organisation of society living in areas heavily urbanized are completely omitted. They are indicated in the will to the maximum technicization and to avoid linking quantitative limitation of using up goods, with discovering opportunities and benefits from the fact of living next to one another and a constant exchange of experience. Potential, benefits
and satisfaction, which you can obtain from direct and detailed reporting without any obstacles, are usually in the background. They are usually replaced with widespread informatization and virtual closeness, which in fact cause the isolation (and alienation) of people from the rest of the society (Ładysz 2014). The cities of the 21st century are no longer associated with relative safety, stability and a multitude of opportunities for development and even with intellectual and technical potential, which lies dormant in their inhabitants. On one hand, they continue to function as the centres of culture, politics, science, innovations, but on the other hand, generate behaviours with which society is not able to cope. In this situation, you can ask the question, if we really need a new idea for a city or development strategy. The problem is, how to manage actions and who should organize suitable forces and prepare measures so as to ensure the safety for inhabitants. Management resulting from the strategy depends primarily on effective management of resources, especially human, physical and financial resources. The strategy also includes the issue of residents’ safety. It is the main task of each authority. On one hand, it is the accomplishment of the needs of inhabitants which is shown in the form of requests for voters, on the other hand the aspect of contemporary metropolis management, where life and human health represent the highest value. The expression safety of residents will refer to the set of conditions, which enables them to function in social life and in particular ensuring protection of their life, health and properties. Security can show up in a variety of forms, for example, we can discuss ecological, social, energy, physical, mental, sanitary, financial or technical type of safety.

The purpose of the article is the analysis of the strategy and its evaluation by the respondents, and at the same time, to present some aspects of safety of inhabitants of the contemporary metropolis. The instances of system-related solutions regarding security of infrastructure functioning, the fight against social pathologies or social security are mentioned in the paper. The important factor influencing the outcome of the research on development of the metropolis is material capital, consisting of production possessions and infrastructure. The special role is played by technical infrastructure, i.e.:
- energy network
- waterworks and sewage system,
- sanitary institutions
- transport.

Research issues raised by the author in the article have been mentioned as the voice in the discussion, because of the fact that development strategy of the separate city districts, with surrounding infrastructure are connected with widely understood safety. 

**The risks arising from the development**

Dynamic development of large cities or agglomerations is not only the result of the migration of the rural population who looks for jobs. Developed industrial, transporta-
tion, telecommunication infrastructure, and a whole range of other investments often accompany the development of modern cities. However, we should be aware of the fact that considerable terrain saturation of infrastructure components does not only make everyday living both easier and harder for inhabitants. It means that particular issues are favourable for business development, but on the other side it can have a harmful effect on basic functioning or living in the environment. Finding a compromise is sometimes a very complex process, which results in a partial migration of elites to the outskirts, and we can also see the attraction of more and more numerous groups of people looking for particular things. Every person, regardless of the place of residence requires from its state, and in fact from its administration, ensuring effective protection against potential threats. Dangers that may result from the wide variety of events, natural disasters, terrorist attacks and similar events often occur unexpectedly. The same man who is a citizen of a state and a resident of a particular village has the right to demand ensuring a good management system, safety and public order in the place of performing daily activities. The sense of security has a meaningful influence on economic and social development and is closely related to living in a social or family group. Responsibility for activities associated with it, is the responsibility of state administration bodies and other institutions such as the police, fire brigade and municipal police as well as other services or technical emergency. The effects of their activities shall be decided by finding the sources of danger and their appropriate classification. A lot of statistics are led whose aim is the issue mentioned above. If the statistics are analysed in a suitable way, it allows us to undertake appropriate action resulting from the strategy.

The author of this article has decided on the basis of the legislation, the analysis of the literature, and conducted research to make an attempt to compare and portray what the system strategy of safety management in a big city looks like, including Katowice, and the institutions which deal with this field. The experience referring to counteracting a wide variety of threats and removing their effects will allow us to verify or analyse whether the plans included in the region development strategy are accomplished by the governing bodies at a high level. The strategy for the development and functioning of the city is closely connected with the existing or created programming document system, which includes the National Development Plan and the Spatial Development Plan. It creates the conditions for accomplishment of the Regional Innovation Strategy and is the foundation to work out the Regional Operation Programme. It is important to remember that the strategy for the development of the city assumes the development within the following aspects:

- social - education, openness, the identity, competence;
- economic - diversified and innovative economy;
- environmental - biodiversity and healthy life;
- infrastructure and technical - trans-European availability (Integrated vision 2008).

Development in the above mentioned aspects of the strategy of city prospering and
the action of people deciding on the implementation of the strategy, and in accordance with generally accepted principles of action should be accomplished by and selected by the administration or established with the inhabitants objectives:

creating conditions for improvement in inhabitants's education and their adaptability to social and economic changes within the sense of social security and the public.

development and improvement in modernizing technical infrastructure systems.

the increase of innovation and competitiveness of creating environmentally friendly areas for residents.

improving the quality of natural environment and cultural heritage and the increase in attractiveness.

**Graph 1.** Factors influencing the lack of safety according to gender

![Graph showing factors influencing the lack of safety according to gender](image)

**Source:** Author’s own work on the basis of conducted research.

The success of city development largely depends on a well-developed strategy and rational and internal organization of the development processes and effective cooperation, which is intra-metropolitan cooperation. The development of cooperation at the local level increases the opportunities of the use of chances flowing from the environment and at the same time allows us to implement the spatial policy. Therefore, it is appropriate to organize development processes at the local level (City Council of Katowice 2020). Some authors of papers dealing with the subject included in the article claim that a space is safe, and indicate that this is the structure in the area of the space where a unit or a social group function. When signals and symptoms are noticed, the subject initiates suitable forces and measures and then manages them in order to ensure required standards of life referring to individual and collective life, which is free of threats. The structure of requirements or activities is created by security subjects, aims of safety, security objects and safety content as its sub-structure (Regional Council of Silesian
Voivodeship 2013). As the safety subjects which perform the strategy, the following are enumerated: government and self-government authorities, services and guards, educational and research institutions, economic subjects, social groups and individuals.

**Security in the city development strategy**

To ensure the security of large agglomerations it is necessary to manage space in a suitable way, which must be based on thoughtful spatial planning (The act of 2003). The term spatial planning should be understood as the entirety of undertakings intended to ensure proper development of particular areas, as well as the art of organizing space in such a way to meet the needs of man and at the same time take into account the interconnectedness of particular parts of town and districts as a unity. We should assume that the mere fact of the existence of some devices, installations and materials along with the possibility to active nature forces, means potential threats which are construed by different subjects in various ways. Possible threats are the following: breaking the dams on large water tanks, air damage occurring in air corridors for aircrafts, fires in large areas, infectious diseases, mining damages, heavy rains and others (Grzywna 2012). The threats mentioned are not only threats of cities, but also threats or the source of such threats that may cause disaster, which have the hallmarks of a crisis situation in the county town, voivodeship and in the whole country (Grzywna, Z., Grzywna, A. 2011). There are also both positive and negative mega trends which are not without significance for the security of the city, which include:

- the democratization of the world system;
- creation of a new approach in understanding the security system, cooperation and development;
- the formulation of new cultures;
- creating the new order occurring in discussions, agreements, contracts, compromises;
- reduction of the military factor in shaping the new security strategy, moving away from the surrounding reality.

- The analysis referring to shaping statistical indications in large city agglomerations allows us to draw such conclusion. The negative impact of economic, social, cultural, ecological and other factors, while solving interpersonal problems can cause:
  - the possibility of further exploitation of natural resources (mineral resources, energy sources, etc.);
  - the possibility of the emergence of natural and industrial disasters;
  - attempts to upset biological and natural balance;
  - emergence of new unknown challenges.

Pathologies, frustration, vandalism often of young people who are anonymous in
large groups, and negative examples, or their mega trends, accompanied and continue
to accompany during the development of surrounding reality and neighboring states
such as:
- the difference in living standards between developed and developing countries;
- national ethnic and religious conflicts;
- the spread of international organized crime and terrorism;
- increasing threat of a global ecological disaster.

In such situations, the most important issue in the strategy is to identify the threats,
which will contribute to firm action in order to counteract them. The next important is-
ue is to identify the risk involved, the preparation of forces and means in order to elim-
inate the threat gradually and struggle with it or take action when it disappears. To all
of the issues mentioned, there are the needs for a constant law amendment within the
field of benefits for protection and defense, and the use of non-cash benefits imposed
on an institution, a legal entity or natural person in order to accomplish specific tasks
in peacetime for internal security. Analyzing the literature and comparing the studies
of other researchers with the author’s, which have been carried out in 2014 among 1000
students of several universities, as well as previous and current strategies for large ag-
glomerations, it can be noticed that the administration has worked out the following
strategy aims within the designated field priorities:
- aspiring to the increase in education
- enhancing their adaptability to social and economic changes
- constant expansion and modernization of technical infrastructure systems
- aspiring to innovation and competitiveness of the economy
- improvement and continuous increase in the attractiveness of the area (Strategy
  2020).

The place of the inhabitants in the city strategy

Special directions of action are continuously defined for the accomplishment of
the determined strategic objectives by particular subjects. The choice of purposes and
directions are made on the basis of the analysis of the socio-economic situation on the
ground of the identified factors, conditions and analysis of existing strategies and car-
ried out programs. Human resources accumulated in agglomerations or major cities are
one of the primary factors accomplishing the development strategy, not only of the city
where they function, but the strategy of the voivodeship, region or country. A prereq-
uisite for the development of agglomerations as it has been previously mentioned is so-
ciety, which has a favourable demographic structure and is both suitably qualified and
motivated to carry out the tasks facing them every day. What is more, the improvement
in the living conditions of the residents is also an essential element of socio-economic
development. In aiming this, the cities wanting to show the perspectives of individual development present the benefits of life understood as a universal access to high quality health care, social help system, housing, cultural, sports and recreation institutions. A significant factor of the development prospects is considered as the sense of social and public safety (Tyrała 2011), and identifying the community with its own place of living. In the urban world there must be the place for the dissemination of secondary education by supporting the development of vocational schools adjusted to potential needs, with regard to the cooperation with self-governments at all levels of administration. In the strategy of development and operation of administrative bodies we should take into account the increase in the sense of social and public safety. Here, the strategy works as a factor, which shapes social behavior, and, on the other hand, determines the region's image, which calls for a series of appropriate activities. In the operation strategy for city development we should emphasis the support for groups of people at risk of marginalization and social pathology; it enables us to limit these negative phenomena and strengthen solidarity and interpersonal bonds. Therefore, we must consider support by both local governments and non-governmental and social organizations in organizing social help, leading action for the equalization of opportunities for professional and social development and what is more, take into account the equal status of men and women. The following issues contribute to the improvement of the quality of life in the region: the increase in accessibility to health benefits (both basic and specialized) and creating conditions for doing sports and leading an active lifestyle. It is also necessary to take steps to improve housing conditions, forming a basis of the development and functioning of the family. The effectiveness of the action will largely depend on the proper coordination of activities at all levels of local government, government administration and other institutions (Opolski 2005).

**Graph 2.** The factors influencing the sense of safety of Katowice inhabitants.

![Graph 2](image.png)

**Source:** Author’s own work on the basis of conducted research.

Within the scope of ensuring public safety, it is important to support activities carried out by the police and other policing services, organization of an efficient and
effective rescue system and emergency response system, monitoring and prevention system as well as support for people affected by natural disasters and catastrophes. Essential elements of social and economic development in the city development strategy are counteracting and tampering the effects of negative phenomena including poverty, unemployment, homelessness, addiction and accompanying phenomena of social exclusion and marginalization. From the research results we can conclude that the most vulnerable individuals and groups include: children, young people, families in difficult life situations, especially single parent families, immigrants, ethnic and national minorities, the disabled, elderly people as well as people coming back from penal institutions.

Social help in the city functioning strategy is orientated to satisfy essential life needs of individuals and families as well as allow them to live in conditions referring to human dignity. Social help should, as far as possible, lead to the independence of people and families and their integration with the environment. In city development, strategy government and self-government organization bodies are responsible for social help, which cooperate with social organizations, churches, religious associations, foundations, associations, employers and natural and legal persons. In order to guarantee a suitable scope and level of benefits for the inhabitants of the region, it is important to ensure suitable standard of services provided, by means of modernization of facilities where residents live, e.g. in Social Welfare Houses. This involves the need to support social welfare institutions operating within the framework of the public, social and economic sectors (Prońko 2010).

The availability and quality of infrastructure determine the functioning effectiveness of the city and the region as a whole. Adequate infrastructure facilities are determined, to a large extent, by the ability to attract investors, and are the primary determinant of the living level of inhabitants and moreover, have a significant impact on reducing environmental burden - which is the effect of economic and living activities of the region dwellers. Development strategy and the action plan in the Silesian agglomeration should be based, inter alia, on the creation of an optimal transport system, which will contribute to the increase in communication availability in the region, and will enable inhabitants to travel quickly throughout the agglomeration, at reduced costs, reduced load of fume emission and improvement in the safety of commuters. Our metropolitan areas in the nearest future should be the meeting point of Polish and world economy, if development strategies will be implemented. They will become the environment which will be capable of absorption, adaptation and, above all, the creation of innovations.

Conclusion

The strategy for cities in the Silesian Voivodeship, one of the most urbanized Polish regions, assumes a particular significance. The issues of the development and integration of the urbanized area are the main points in the studied and analyzed development and safety strategies. Urbanized areas are the centre of economic growth and innova-
tion, and by influencing the environment they become centres of metropolitan areas. The emerging Silesian metropolitan area with Cracow region area is the largest concentration of population and economic potential in the country, as well as one of the largest concentrations of foreign industrial investments. Agglomerations, as the centres of economic growth and innovation, influence the environment by diffusion, and the impact creates just enough equal living conditions and equal opportunities in life of all its inhabitants on the territory of Silesia. For this reason, the development of functions of the metropolitan agglomeration is of paramount importance for the social and economic development of the Silesian voivodeship. To conclude, it can be stated that in the development of the city, it is necessary to take action aimed at shaping the strong agglomeration body, which in turn shapes metropolitan central areas, in terms of legal, organizational, administration and economic dimensions. Furthermore, the efforts of regional and local self-government should be supported as well, which aims at permanent changes in planning at the local, sub-local, regional level in order to manage in a better way.

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A Controversial Investment: The Town of Lubartów as an Example of Encouraging Dialogue with the Local Community.

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Abstract

The present article describes the way in which an investment decision, put into practice, made by local authorities, has been verified regardless that it has not been approved by the residents of this area, i.e. in the context of an existing conflict of interests. In an attempt to avoid imposing an arbitrary decision on the local residents throughout sustaining the resolution made by the authorities of the previous term, Lubartów’s local government has decided to implement the idea of public consultation, based on surveying and conducting polls among all adult residents. The strategy of the public consultations, moving far beyond a formal schema, has been developed by the common efforts of the representatives of the residents as well as a team of experts consisting of the employees of the Maria Curie Skłodowska University. The strategy itself made it possible to recognize the true character and extent of the divergences in public opinions concerning the issue in question, and opened a brand new perspective in the negotiations with the Swiss fund as regards to postponing the funds allocated for starting the investment at another time and location. Owing to all this, Lubarów’s authorities have obtained the possibility to reach a decision that satisfies the public interest and the fair interest of the town’s residents. The steps taken by both – the mayor and the council – constituted a milestone in construct-

1 The article was also published in polish scientific monograph: “Dialog obywatelski. Formy, mechanizmy, bariery i perspektywy rozwoju”, Lublin 2014, p. 225-235.
ing a dialogue between the authorities and local communities as well as stable grounds for shaping cooperation and mutual trust. Therefore, they fit in perfectly into a model of good practices in regards to participatory ruling based on bringing closer the public (i.e. the authorities) and the individuals (i.e. the residents) throughout an active participation of the latter into the decision making process which is inherently tied with authorities.

**Keywords:** decision making process, social conflict, consultations social, opinion social, local government authority, civil society

**Introduction**

Even the most meticulously prepared act of law is unable to take into account the entire complexity of developmental and social needs which are key aspects of public administration. Naming a set of very detailed competences is not quite enough to account for all conceivable problems local authorities have to face and cope with on a daily basis (Kulesza 2009). The act of decision-making is the final stage of a complex process, which involves planning, organising, motivating, conflict solving, controlling and leadership (Marcin's pyramid), (Kuc 2003).

At the same time, though, one needs to bear in mind that planning and strategic decision-making in a non-profit local authority situation is more difficult in comparison with strictly business situations, because the two activities are linked to creativity-related problems. The decision-making itself is co-defined by detailed features typical of the local law, social relations as well as technical, technological and financial conditions (Penc 2011; Kuc 2003).

Therefore, local authorities prefer operating under typical or routine circumstances, which make the solutions come easy. Typically, though, the act of decision-making is burdened with information scarcity, not only as far as the way of arriving at a given solution is concerned, but also as far as to what the solution should look like, “given that, individuals responsible for making a decision are expected to invent a new solution that meets all the above-mentioned requirements themselves” (Kuc 2003: 153). It becomes abundantly clear that the act of decision-making is a complex process that requires an in-depth investigation and analysis of key features remaining at the heart of a decisive situation as well as a number of possible solution scenarios. One also has to address the issue of an arbitrary but absolutely rational choice of one scenario over others in a particular social context, which has to lead to the final stage, namely putting it all into practice.

Additionally, it is worth noting that decision-making gets even harder whenever there is a conflict of interest. This particular situation results in the so-called “stormy surroundings” conditioned by the two contradictory opinions. The “stormy surroundings” issue is further characterised by no structuralised decision-making, which leads
to even more creativity-related problems. For this reason the issue in question calls for more innovative solutions. Before the final decision has been made, the local authority has to analyse the given situation in an unemotional manner. It is only the rational approach that is bound to ensure the cognitive distance, which is absolutely crucial to fully understanding and discovering all the hidden aspects a given decision process undoubtedly has. This sort of approach allows for solving the conflict in a peaceful and sensible way as opposed to taking the arbitrary and strict set of actions in order just to show who is in a position of power. It is beyond doubt that the law-related activities of local authorities should be done peacefully and sensibly for as long as possible by promoting conflict-solving, and encouraging the good practice of compromise. This clearly calls for the need of agreement when it comes to the area strictly defined by law, economic and social issues, in order to ensure a compromise for as long as possible. The compromise in question is crucial to the idea of a real dialogue-based local community. Certainly, one has to bear in mind the fact that local authorities have to take into account each and every social interest there is in a given community, which means that an individual needs to provide a satisfactory justification corroborating their point of view. In a conflict situation, authorities cannot possibly approve all existing interests, but only those well accounted for. Apparently, only well accounted for interests are worthy of protection because they are not at odds with the law and other rules that govern life in a local community (Rozmaryn 1961). This statement has long been advocated in legal literature.

Therefore, local authorities should not be interested in the rightness objective only, but they should also be open to subjective rightness, which has to do with the cultural approval typical of a given community. What is more, local authorities should also be open to the needs of the community they stand for. The practical aspect of meeting these requirements involves getting to know what the people in a local community really think by simply confronting them with a direct question relating to the controversial issue in question. Without knowing that, people working for the local authorities would act almost as if blindfolded, which would surely put the whole project at risk of making a decision against the public opinion or expectations (Kwilecki 1996). Knowing exactly what it is that people think gives an opportunity to “discover our own diversity […] and it may contribute to increasing the sense of responsibility for the community itself and people who represent it” (Kwilecki 1996: 277).

A survey of public opinion conducted in a proper way allows for making the right conclusions and producing practical, non-ideological directives crucial for making the right decisions.

An accurate decision provides the local administration with a balanced approach to the local community and a certain level of development in relation to human, financial and economic potential. A compromise in relations between groups of people who think differently, however, stimulates a social makeover leading to the re-establishment of balance and integration in a given community, which results in a new era of law
and order conceived on social dialogue. The bigger the conflict becomes, the more and more tense matters begin to get, which is bound to pose a socio-pathological threat to the local society in the long run, or it can result in a complete disintegration (Smolski et al. 1999). Among the negative phenomena, one should pay particular attention to the local authorities losing people's trust for good. This typically leads to the development of such character features as suspiciousness, passiveness as well as losing interest in the life of the community and biasing against the administration, which usually puts people at a great risk of manipulation vulnerability (Penc 2011).

An open conflict with the social community that happens right in front of it evolves into an argument. The argument, in turn, triggers a reaction from the local community. All kinds of legal and political arguments with interpersonal or intergroup backgrounds, as well as those between units of administration and citizens, fall into the same social phenomena category that differentiates the network of social relations on which the dynamics of social life is based. The emergence of conflicts in these areas of social life and their public articulation is a natural effect of citizen institutionalisation and empowerment processes. The range of effects does not stop just here and it also includes a greater social community awareness, which allows for a certain competition between different local players willing to purse their own interests within the local community (Machaj 2000). If an argument poses a threat to the interests of the local community, there is a need to restore the law and order. In such case we can speak of legal and routine mechanisms being launched in order to control (channel or solve) the argument. Alternatively, the parties involved in the argument manage to do it themselves by using spontaneous and non-standard methods leading to the solution.

If the conflict emergence or escalation in a given community is caused by participation denial displayed by one side of the argument, we can surely speak of social disintegration. Ending and solving the conflict is important not only to the parties directly involved but also to the entire community.

The purpose of this article is to present the verification process of a legally binding investment decision made by the local authorities in the context of citizens actively opposing it. The resulting conflict of interest is caused by the previous term authorities, which failed to conduct consultations with local community when it comes to the proposed location of the waste processing plant (Jaszczak 2011). Although not exactly legally binding, actions taken by the authorities are aimed at establishing an atmosphere of dialogue with the local society, especially in the context of further development of the civil society in the town of Lubartów.

**Reasons for social consultations in Lubartów**

The argument in Lubartów was a reaction to a planned construction of the Local Waste Plant (LWP). The plant was supposed to be located in the industrial part of
the town, specifically, in the area surrounded by Gazowa, Lipowa and Nowodworska streets. The argument was shaped by conflicting interests of various social groups, and the sense of marginalisation as far as having a real impact on the life in the town of Lubartów (Jaszczak 2011) is concerned. Further on, the conflict got the authorities to face the need to solve the problem in such a way, so that each and every local community group involved was satisfied and definitely not at a loss. Actions taken by the mayor of Lubartów were typical of the democratic reality that involves the process of decision-making allowing for the local communities to have their say (Ziółkowski 2002).

The construction of the LWP was determined by two key requirements. The first was conditioned by the need and direction of development which was related to new infrastructural requirements, and the appearance of some community pressure aimed at getting the authorities to introduce the town to new functions (Karwińska 2000). The second requirement was a consequence of a legal modification regarding the waste policy. In the near future, it implied termination of existing landfills and a strict rule requiring the construction of specialised waste processing plants.

At this stage one must bear in mind that both the Lubartów Town Council and the local community including citizens and 2 bodies representing the so-called Third Sector: The “Lubartów for Local Community” association (legal entity) and the Protest Committee (informal body initiated by the local community) came together. According to a number of people in Lubartów, the construction of the LWP was expected to ruin the natural environment and living conditions in general. The conflict developed on and on to such an extent, causing chaos among the local communities, that in 2011 it was already difficult to make sense of it without an in-depth analysis.

The previous term authorities employed a professional company to conduct a telephone opinion poll, by addressing a selected group of citizens and asking them about their opinion on the planned construction of the LWP in the industrial area of Lubartów. However, both the used methodology and the opinion poll outcome failed to satisfy the citizens and it hardly contributed to relieving the tension in the town. The citizens actively tried to express their own and their neighbours’ concerns regarding the construction of the LWP to the representatives of the Lubartów Town Council. Taking this into consideration, the current term authorities decided to conduct consultations with the local community hoping for more luck with a new opinion poll. At a Lubartów Town Council session on 27 September 2011, a new set of rules and regulations concerning the opinion poll on the LWP was agreed on. The resolution in question became a legal milestone on the way to establishing dialogue with the local community. The local au-

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2 The research was related to the Swiss cooperation project aimed at new EU countries and co-funded by Switzerland. The Swiss Contribution, The Swiss-Polish Cooperation Programme or The Swiss Fund is a non-returnable financial help granted by Switzerland to Poland and 9 other new member states that joined the EU on 1 May 2004. By virtue of international agreements approved on 20 December 2007 in Bern, over a billion CHF is expected to make it to the new member states. Poland is expected to get almost a half of all funds gathered in The Swiss Fund (ca. 489 million francs), http://www.programszwajcarski.pl/.
Authorities saw it fit to invite a team of experts from the UMCS (Maria Curie-Skłodowska University) in order to make sure the resolution would be put into practice properly. The team featured Marta Łacek (sociologist), Sławomir Pilipiec (lawyer – sociologist of law) and Bartosz Liżewski (lawyer – theoretician of law). It undoubtedly meant the team clearly had an interdisciplinary character. The experts served advisory, planning and organisational purposes as well as those related to supervising the practical aspects of the entire local community consultation and the dialogue project.

The team of experts began their mission knowing that the consultations in development would have no legal binding force. The only legally binding consultations are those conducted as a referendum and mentioned in the relevant act of law such as the Local Government Bill, paragraph 5a, as of 8 March 1990 (The 2013 Journal of Law, item 594, consolidated text). A referendum is an instrument of direct democracy, because it gives the citizens an opportunity to have their say and take part in solving all kinds of matters including controversial ones. What is more, authorities responsible for carrying out referendums stimulate the development of local communities by trying to convince citizens to the official’s viewpoints. In order for a referendum to get off the ground, the local council needs to pass a resolution stating all the rules and regulations concerning the character of consultations with the local community (Węglarz 2008; Antoszewski, Herbut 1999). This type of a resolution had not been approved in Lubartów before.

Given the circumstances, the mayor wanted to avoid imposing an arbitrary solution in the form of keeping the relevant resolution approved by the previous term authorities which was believed to be controversial by many Lubartów citizens, and attempted to take advantage of the planned consultations project. According to the Supreme Administrative Court of Poland, consultations are separate legal actions and one cannot mistake this legal form for a referendum even on the basis of the a minori ad maius rule. The Supreme Administrative Court’s resolution, issued on 1 February 2001, clearly says that “the key difference between consultations and referendum involves a different set of effects contributing to a completely different character of the two legal forms. A referendum involves the citizens of a given commune expressing their opinions by voting which is supposed to reveal the opinion of the majority on a given matter. When dealing with enough vote advantage, the outcome is believed to be legally binding, and local authorities are obliged to take actions in order to put the outcome of the referendum into practice”. Consultations, on the other hand, provide data as to opinions, expectations and wishes of the local community regarding the subject matter that is to be decided by a different administrative body (Rachwał 2008, Rączka 2003). The data gathered in the course of consultations is not legally binding and it may be merely treated as one of many opinions on the subject matter.
Structural aspects of the consultation solution

Practical solutions, employed by the team of experts, directly correspond to rules and elements that make a properly arranged consultation situation (Sienkiewicz 2014). The opinion poll process was definitely the hardest part of the whole project. The gathered data was supposed to reveal the real opinions that Lubartów’s citizens had on the proposed Local Waste Plant location. Furthermore, the project also aimed at exposing the scale of the opinion diversity and all the reasons behind it. The data acquired in this manner were going to be used by the local authorities as a solid foundation on which to make the final decision in the context of the existing conflict, increased social tension and symptoms suggesting that the air was getting thicker.

All interested parties involved in the conflict were invited in order to make sure the consultations would be objective, dialogue with the local community would be established in the right manner and the opinion poll process would proceed uninterrupted while supervised by independent and uninvolved experts. It was believed that no particular involvement of the experts in the life of the Lubartów community would be beneficial to the entire project. Developing such an independent approach allowed for the experts to become advisors, mediators, facilitators and observers armed with enough cognitive and emotional distance towards the entire conflict situation.

The first meeting took place in September of 2012 at the Lubartów Town Council. Representatives of the local authorities in the shape of the mayor Janusz Bodziacki, and the vice-mayor Radosław Szumiec, as well as Elżbieta Wąs, the head of the Lubartów for Local Community association and the Protest Committee represented by Bogumila Lisek-Jublewska attended the meeting. The UMCS experts also attended the September meeting. The meeting in question helped to approve the opinion poll rules, strategies and time schedule. What is more, the meeting introduced the rule of equality of all parties involved and it furthermore decided that all adult citizens, namely 18 618 persons, would be entitled to take part. On September 12, 2011 the Protest Committee ceased to express its interest in the project which meant an instant withdrawal. The committee head confirmed the news to the mayor on the phone. Soon the Protest Committee launched intense media actions aimed at undermining the legitimacy and validity of the consultations project. In addition, the Protest Committee would bring up matters related to the local authorities and the decision making strategies they used, claiming honesty deficiencies and impartiality issues with regard to the experts. This, then, was a clear sign of trust crisis shaped by the previous term authorities that had chosen the most formal way of running the consultation process.

Structural aspects of consultation solutions also involved the assessment of the role and function of the experts involved in the project. Guaranteed impartiality and autonomy are of crucial importance when it comes to coordination, supervision and control of activities. The establishment of the internal and external communication system played a very important role in encouraging dialogue between the involved parties. The
team of experts was independent by definition and served an advisory function in the process of viewpoint unification between the interested and directly involved parties. The team’s mission implied setting and keeping a social as well as emotional distance, in the context of a potential interference into the opinion poll process. An expertise based on statistical analysis of the gathered data was supposed to be the outcome of the team’s work. The expertise also was to be published while granting the citizens access to its contents (Piechota 2006).

It was believed that simply getting people to fill in the opinion poll was not enough, and stages of the structural aspects of consultations needed to be introduced in order to enhance the dialogue with the local community. Eventually, the whole process featured 3 stages that consisted of a variety of detailed activities. The first stage involved attempts at getting the process of opinion poll right, preparing a press release and a master copy of the opinion poll, selecting and educating the team of interviewers and statistical staff that would keep a record of all events happening in the course of the project.

The basic purpose of the press release was to familiarise the citizens of Lubartów, in greater detail, with problems related to the construction and location of the Local Waste Plant (Misztal 2008). The release was to give the citizens some insight into: a) future, systemic changes in the waste and garbage processing law (the amendment of the so-called garbage bill), b) financial issues, namely the degree of the Swiss fund involvement, c) new technologies that were to be employed in the construction and familiarising the society with using “simpler language”, d) the nature of concerns that emerged and the fact that some people strongly opposed the very idea of the LWP (Odpowiedzi... 2011, Czy Lubartów skorzysta... 2011).

The informing process covered both presenting the subject matter in the local press, which also included online presentations and physically delivering it to each and every household in Lubartów (according to a rule which claims instant informative feature of a piece of law).

The informing process was meant to help the local community learn more and revise their knowledge regarding the investment in question. It was believed that raising people’s awareness is necessary in order for them to approach the opinion poll in a sensible and well-thought-of manner, i.e. in accordance with their standpoints and feelings. The press release was also meant to make each and every adult citizen of Lubartów prepared for an interviewer and the entire opinion poll (Jędryszka 2011a). Given this, the whole informing process was aimed at preparing people to take a conscious part in the dialogue and ensuring a decent attendance. What is more, it also served as an announcing letter which is of help in scientific research when it comes to allowing an easier access to respondents and increasing the number and quality of completed polls (Lutyńska 1996, Gostkowki 1995). The information itself was prepared as a result of standpoint unification between the Lubartów authorities (represented by the mayor and vice-mayor) and representatives of the Lubartów for Local Community association. The team of experts actively took part in the informing process, serving an advisory
function and suggesting particular solutions in order to arrive at a compromise when it comes to both content and form of the press release. At this point, it should be stressed that the team of experts instantly refused pushing definite standpoints and chose to act in an objective and advisory manner.

At the stage of opinion poll preparation, the expert team denied one question that was to appear in the poll due to a high risk of obscuring all aspects of the problem at hand, which could leave some important juridical (the waste and garbage processing law), economic (funding sources problems) and psycho-social (concerns shared by citizens when it comes to the location of the plant within the town limits of Lubartów) matters unaccounted for. Speaking of suggested opinion poll questions, the team was convinced that the number of questions should not be significant and the form too complex. A synthetic character of the opinion poll allowed for drawing a conclusion that filling it in would not be too time consuming for a single person, which meant the whole project could actually get off the ground with the total number of 18 000 citizens entitled to take part in it. The question draft designed by the experts was consulted with the Lubartów mayor and vice-mayor, a representative of the Lubartów for Local Community association and the head of the Local Waste Plant. As a result, an agreement was reached.

The accepted poll version consisted of 2 parts. The first part involved content-related questions addressing the key aspects of the investment in question, important from the perspective of the local community and the policy of the Lubartów authorities. The questions allowed for a real assessment of the awareness problem, discovering the real opinion shared by the local people and its diversity when it comes to the existence of the waste processing plant in general. The questions also managed to gather information as far as funding sources are concerned as well as a potential threat assessment when it comes to the plant operating within the town limits, namely in the neighbourhood of Gazowa, Lipowa and Nowodworska streets. The second part of the poll involved relevant sociodemographic data, i.e. gender, age, job market status and a self-financial assessment of respondents. The relevance of the second part was related to the possibility of getting some insight into the diversity of opinions.

The choice of interviewers began by placing online information regarding the planned recruitment. The idea was to recruit people who were able to work part-time as interviewers. In the course of job interviews, 25 persons were chosen out of 54 candidates in total. According to the expert team, the number of 25 persons was enough to carry out the project according to the planned strategy. In order to get hired, one had to have experience as an interviewer, time availability, good manners and a good command of street layout in Lubartów. In the course of the job interviews, 3 persons were also recruited to the statistical team. Then the process of training began. Interviewers and those chosen to enter the gathered data, were faced with a course in ethics and requirements their social roles implied, at the stages of gathering and documenting the data.
The second stage involved working at gathering the physical data and its processing at the same time. The opinion poll was conducted on October 1-15, 2011. Due to the parliament election, the opinion poll was suspended on October 8-9, 2011. In the course of 12 working days, interviewers were able to contact 11932 citizens, which is 64.1% of the assumed number of 18618 persons. The polls were filled up by 10 614 persons, i.e. 57% of all citizens. 1318 persons, i.e. 7.1% refused to take part in the poll providing various justifications. Interviewers were unable to reach to each and every person entitled to taking part in the poll because the official place of residence often had very little to do with the actual address. According to the information offered by other household members (rarely neighbours), the reasons for the place of residence discrepancies were caused by: leaving the country in search of a job, studying in other areas of the country, staying with a spouse/partner in a different place, leaving the town for a long time due to other reasons or very rarely staying in a hospital, imprisonment and demise. In the majority of cases it was not possible to contact these respondents or even establish the reason why they were not at their place of residence.

In several cases, interviewers could tell there was someone inside but the door remained shut. These cases can be clearly classified as conscious avoidance of taking part in the conflict situation, symptoms suggesting a lack of trust towards the authorities or a reluctance to allowing a stranger (interviewer) inside. Attempts at entering private properties were sometimes impossible because of guarding dogs or locked gates. In total, interviewers were unable to reach 6686 citizens listed in the database.

At the same time, the team supervised the process of database building and assessed the reliability of field interviewers. Every day at a fixed time, address lists, blank polls and special containers were given out to interviewers requiring a delivery confirmation. In the evening, the special containers holding the opinion polls were delivered to the Town Council. Then they were emptied in the presence of the vice-mayor and team members, and coded by the team (Jędryszka 2011b). A permanent and direct contact with interviewers allowed for an instant analysis of the problems they faced while doing their job, and providing them with working algorithms if the problems were to appear again. Additionally, this form of contact was of crucial importance in controlling the work progress of every interviewer and monitoring the social moods during the course of time. It also helped to assess the trust degree and the reaction of citizens to the appearance of the so-called anti-poll. The anti-poll was something of a user’s manual for those willing to take part in the research project. Its contents referred to the content-related part of the original survey but with a certain bias towards the option that should have been chosen. Authors of the anti-poll were very clear about their intentions and included a statement on the first page, which suggested no to the planned construction of waste processing plant. One must bear in mind the fact that the anti-poll could have some effect on the public opinion but it would be difficult to determine the exact degree. It appears that people behind the anti-poll, regardless of who they were, tried to put into practice their policy, which could only be described as a strong denial of the whole LWP
idea. Alternatively, it is politics that could be held responsible for the above-mentioned actions or they simply had other interests that appeared more important to those behind the anti-poll initiative.

Due to a prevailing sense of tension in the town of Lubartów, attempts at politicising the problem and relentless efforts aimed at undermining the entire idea of consultations with the local community, the team of experts agreed with the mayors that the work would continue while being socially monitored and that results would not be released until the end of field activities. (Bodziacki 2011; Jędryszka 2011b; Jędryszka 2011c).

The third stage assumed that preliminary results of the survey would be published at a press conference together with a survey report and expertise. The end of the field activities naturally triggered an increased interest in the findings. Pressure from local papers and TV stations demanding access to the information resulted in a press conference called by the mayor. The team of experts handed over the information regarding the survey to the public opinion and announced the preliminary results and analysis. The distribution of answers to each and every question was discussed at an introductory level (Jędryszka 2011d; Jędryszka 2011e).

The final act of the whole process involved preparing the expertise for the local authorities so that they could transfer it to the state administration. The state administration at that time was negotiating the matter of funding with the Swiss partners. The point of the expertise was to: 1) determine the interrelated structure of the questions included in the poll, 2) make an attempt at explaining the “I don’t know” and similar choices, 3) find a correspondence between the given answers and sociodemographic categories, 4) show the coherence of the public opinion within the statistical groups.

The above-mentioned matters were crucial to understanding the complexity of the opinion differentiation problem displayed by citizens and referring to the controversial investment under discussion. Moreover, they were also very important from the perspective of the local authorities of Lubartów and the prospect of the Swiss funding.

Releasing the results at the Town Council press conference by the team of experts revealed that almost 70% of Lubartów’s citizens support the Local Waste Plant construction in Lubartów. The “Do you think the Local Waste Plant should be built?” question was answered affirmatively by 67.4%, negatively by 25% and 6.9% did not have a clarified opinion on the subject matter. However, the question that referred to a suggested location in the neighbourhood of Lipowa, Gazowa and Nowodworska streets was answered negatively by more than a half of respondents (51.1%). 36.1% of people who took part in the poll supported the suggested location and 11% did not have a clarified opinion on this matter. The mayor immediately referred to the results during the press conference claiming that the citizens strongly support the official actions, which took place from the beginning of the term. Contacting neighbouring communes and issuing the Town Council’s statement on the subject matter were all actions aimed at supporting the LWP project as not to lose the internal backing while looking for alternative location ideas (Jędryszka 2011d; Jędryszka 2011e; Nowokuńska 2011).
Conclusion

Attempts at building civil society, pluralism and democracy should give a chance of having and expressing individual opinions and beliefs within the freedom of speech limits. The idea of a democratic society is to give everyone an opportunity to take an active part in a discussion concerning the problems and ways of solving them. The Lubartów authorities assumed that problems need solving rather than pretending they do not exist. Taking that into account, the authorities suggested the consultation programme that involved input from all parties interested in this controversial matter. In consultation with representatives of the public opinion, the Lubartów Town Council made a decision to carry out the surveying process, which involved the team of experts from the UMCS. This, then, is a good example of diminishing the distance between the legal and private aspects of living in the local society. The authorities, knowing they had to act very fast and either carry on with the project or put it on hold, referred to “common wisdom” by trying to discover the real scale of the public opinion diversity as far as the controversial subject matter is concerned.

The opinion poll tried to directly reach all adult citizens of Lubartów and, on a nationwide scale, it was an innovative project focused on establishing a dialogue with the society and properly conducting the consultation process (Misztal 2008, Sienkiewicz 2014). All the involved parties knew, though that the consultation outcome would not be legally binding. It was obvious, however, that given the social, legal and economic circumstances, the final decision made by the authorities needed to take into account the local community’s expectations. Therefore, at the preparation stage, it was of paramount importance that the citizens knew their vote would be important in the decision-making process carried out by the Lubartów Town Council. Furthermore, the development of a communication channel between the decision-making body and the community was to take place. Reaching each and every adult person in their households, in order to hear their opinion on the subject matter, was a great example of the authorities actually facing the people and overcoming the “we-they” scheme of things.

The fact that the citizens of Lubartów actively participated in the survey was very important because it contributed to a more credible and representative outcome. Although the authorities were convinced there were no legal obstacles to proceeding with the waste processing plant project, they thought that carrying on without the public opinion’s approval would be an abuse of their power. Therefore, getting to know the standpoint of the public opinion on the subject matter was of paramount importance to the authorities because it would help them to make the final decision. However, in the course of surveying, interviewers often came across opinions saying that citizens did not have a great impact on the decision making process. Some citizens were confident their opinion would not be of any interest to the authorities, and that the authorities had already made the decision for the local waste plant. It becomes clear, then, the entire consultations project was conducted in an atmosphere of distrust caused by conflicting
opinions and standpoints. The questions that appeared in the survey were undermined by the waste plant opponents, who were not exactly sure about the outcome of the consultations. Given these circumstances, the decision of not releasing any partial results was by all means correct.

The survey clearly revealed that the local community supported the idea of the Local Waste Plant in Lubartów but opposed the location plans in the neighbourhood of Lipowa, Gazowa and Nowodworska streets. The first statement is a sign of support for the waste processing facility in general. However, a “yes” for the plant and very existence of the LWP but a “no” for the suggested location plainly unveiled the real view of the local community. According to the experts, it gave the local authorities a chance to modify their opinion and took the decision making process to a whole new level.

The citizens’ approval as to the suggested location would clearly point to the acceptance of the legal decision that had already been made. The actual citizens’ support combined with the legal agreement as far as the suggested LWP location is concerned would mean a green light to the LWP construction both in terms of legal issues and the genuine support from the local community. Moreover, the local community acceptance of the construction of the LWP would undermine the arguments brought up by the suggested Gazowa, Lipowa and Nowodworska neighbourhood opponents. However, a majority of citizens (51.1%) rejected the suggested location within the town limits. The group of supporters were smaller by 15% than the group of opponents, though.

The above situation led to the emergence of a conflict between the legal and social aspect of the problem in discussion. On one hand, the legal aspect enabled the construction of the LWP. On the other hand, though, the social disapproval made the decision making process very difficult in terms of both legal and financial matters. The legal difficulty concerned the change of law (the so-called garbage bill), which would come into life on 1 December 2013. The absence of a waste processing plant would increase the cost of garbage processing. The financial difficulty was related to the Swiss fund, which could cover around 80% of the total cost but only if the proposed and, apparently very controversial, location would be used.

It seems, however, that regardless of the complexity scale of the situation in question, the authorities managed to reach their basic objective. They carried out the consultations with the local community, which involved a large-scale survey. As a result, the authorities got a clearer picture of the public opinion in Lubartów, established a dialogue with the community and it was exactly this that provided authorities with the grounds on which to base further decisions.

An objection to the suggested LWP location expressed in such a decisive manner indicates that the question regarding the location was included in the survey for a very good reason. In this case, a great majority of respondents (67.4%) said a waste processing plant was a necessity. This, then, meant that the people of Lubartów wanted the plant to be built but they simply opted for a different location. This data was very important because it allowed for the LWP construction to take place but in a different
location. What is more, thanks to the consultations option that was used, it was possible to postpone in time the use of Swiss funding in order for the plant to be built at a different time and location. The Swiss funding issue is absolutely key to the whole waste processing plant. The Lubartów Town Council simply would not be able to afford the investment in question them selves.

A meeting at the Ministry of Infrastructure and Development held on October 28, 2011 was the final stage in the decision making process. The meeting was attended by representatives of: Polish supervising and implementing authorities, the Swiss fund and Lubartów local authorities headed by the mayor. In the case under discussion, the Ministry acted as a mediating body between the Swiss-Polish fund and the Town of Lubartów. The Swiss who took part in the meeting agreed on the further cooperation but under several conditions. A new location for the LWP was to be announced by March 31, 2012 due to the fact that the new plot had to be prepared before the construction could begin. An auditor was introduced whose task was to assess the probability of making the suggested changes and building the object. The authorities of Lubartów wanted to secure their position should the survey turn out to give unexpected results by preparing an alternative location for the LWP. The waste plant project was given a brand-new location that wasn’t controversial and the Swiss-Polish fund obliged to assign additional funds for adjusting the LWP project to the new location.

The auditor appointed by the Swiss side approved the possibility of building the plant in the new location. On January 24, 2012, the Swiss side approved CHF 195 552 in total amount of the additional funds requested by the Lubartów authorities. Rokitno was the new location of the waste processing plant. Without leaving the area of the Lubartów commune, the new location was situated within the territory of a landfill governed by the city of Lublin. Given that, tenancy negotiations involved the town of Lubartów and the city of Lublin. On February 28, 2012 the President of Lublin approved the tenancy of the Rokitno plot. More details were to be agreed on by the interested parties. According to the arrangements, the construction of the plant was to begin in 2014 and come to an end in 2015.³

To sum up, one should bear in mind the fact that the Swiss side, while taking into account the results of the opinion poll, displayed flexibility and maturity typical of deliberative democracy. The Swiss side was ready to support the project and it regarded the opinion poll as a well-executed referendum, which gave the citizens an opportunity to have their say and, what’s more, their opinion was heard. The mayor of Lubartów and the local authorities acted according to the participative decision making model, encouraging the participation of the local community in solving the conflict, which was an important step in establishing a dialogue with the people and creating an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence.

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³ Information gathered in a conversation with the vice-mayor Radosław Szumiec in October 2012.
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Civil dialogue is a formal discussion on the issue, in which two or more parties express opposing views, and seek an agreement that can satisfy all of them. Civil dialogue can thus be described first of all, as the interaction between public institutions and civil society organizations rather than a one-sided exchange, secondly, various forms of civil society activities ranging from simple information dissemination, through the consultation process, up to the active involvement in decision-making, thirdly, activities that take place at every stage of the decision-making process: setting up the structures, defining political objectives, inurement, monitoring, evaluation and providing “continuation”.

The basis for civil dialogue is the assumption that NGOs representatives take part in the preparation and implementation of programs and strategic documents, which state or local government institutions are responsible for. The key is to constitute participation of formal and institutional reality. Good practice of civil dialogue is to inform of each initiative, to communicate made determinations, and to exchange views on the priorities of public policy. As a result, the state and the third sector should be integrated by swapping perspectives between organizations and representatives of power. In other words, civil dialogue is a reconciliation of the main direction of development of the country between the state and the social partners at various levels - national, regional and local.