MOBILISATION, PARTICIPATION AND PARTNERSHIP BUILDING IN LOCAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

Experience from Local Planning on Women's Conditions in six Norwegian Communes.

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ABSTRACT

Six rural communes in Norway participated in a National Project "Commune Planning on Women's Conditions" where participative methods were used to engage inhabitants in strategic planning for local development.

The planning process was organised in stages which corresponds with the basic stages of the strategic planning and management model. All six communes followed this process which started with education and training in planning methods and processes in autumn 1989 both at national level (project leaders and project groups) and at local level (local leaders: administrators, politicians, local organisations, etc.). This support was deemed to be significant for the planning process by approximately 50% of respondents who completed an evaluation questionaire.

This training was followed by a broad mobilisation of inhabitants where visions and strategies were formulated and selected. All projects produced a strategic plan on women's conditions and a 4-year action programme, as expected. This process worked well in all communes, but the political and administrative engagement in mass meetings, in group work and in hearings was lower in Bremanger and Nesna then in the other four communes.

STRATEGIC AND MOBILIZING PLANNING

Compared to earlier types of strategic planning, modern public strategic planning recognizes that there are other players in the arena apart from those of a predictable nature. Other institutions, private firms, communities etc. have their own strategies and will react to our strategies and actions in more or less predictable ways (Amdam and Amdam 1990, Amdam 1992). Our strategies and tactics must be under continuous discussion and revision built on evaluation of effects of our own actions and whatever we may learn from actions and responses of other actors. While broad strategies and goals might be unchanged for a long period, tactics and actions must be changed continuously built on new learning and knowledge. Most often we must act before we have a full understanding of what effects our action will have and we must change our policy and actions according to continuous changes in our surroundings to fulfill as many of our goals as possible. While project planning often only considers one subject and one specific goal in a given schedule, modern public strategic planning tries to fulfill many conflicting goals

concerning subjects such as full employment, economic growth, environment etc. in a continuous "battle" (Amdam and Veggeland 1991). Modern public strategic planning is a neverending planning process.

In the public domain every actor must themselves agree to whatever strategy and action they are supposed to fulfill (Friedmann 1987, March and Olsen 1989). Negotiation, bargaining, encouragement and mobilisation are our means instead of a commando. Our experience is that if most actors in a society agree to and try to fulfill common strategies and tactics, success is more probable than in a situation where important actors disagree and try to fulfill their own conflicting strategies and goals (Amdam and Amdam 1990).

Our experience is from strategic planning on the local and regional level in Norway where communes (municipalities) and counties are territories with a certain level of self government directed by directly elected political bodies. Our national government have encouraged them to use strategic planning for local and regional development as well as sectoral planning (health, welfare, industry development, tourism, communication etc.). On some occasions economic support from government is not given without a locally decided strategic plan.

Contact with and research in peripheral communes showed that planning in the 1970'ies and 1980'ies (Kleven 1993, Amdam and Amdam 1990):

- Most planners planed for higher authorities and for other planners, not for local inhabitants, firms, organizations etc. Most of the planning was done by outside consultants, with low participation from inhabitants and low engagement from political and administrative leaders.
- Most plans were in fact not used by inhabitants, leaders, politicians etc. Plans were more important as a symbol for outside interests, for the department of environment and planning, for the county etc.
- Most practical planning and implementation which functioned could be seen as a result of "Muddling Through" (Freidmann 1973) and "Garbage Can" (March and Olsen 1989) or some kind of social mobilisation or negotiation (Friedmann 1987), not as "rational planning". Some communes used the planning process to get agreement on actions without proposing a plan for formal decision. The agreement between important actors as property owners, local interests, agriculture bureaucrats, politicians, etc. were more important then a formal plan.

We developed the opinion that the rational planning model which planners used for continuous planning as well as project planning at the local level at that time was unsuitable for a complex and decentralized society like Norway (Amdam and Veggeland 1981). On the other hand, a "closed" process, where only important actors were engaged, was not particularly democratic.

Our problem was reformulated to how to involve inhabitants, leaders of business and organizations, civil servants and politicians in the planning process and in the production of plans, so that they all will be "owners" of a plan, support implementation of the plan and build on this planning in their own decision-making process.

A common problem in all welfare states is the strength of functional planning and sectoral politics compared to territorial planning and horizontal coordination of politics (Friedmann and Weaver 1979, Keane 1992, Stern 1992). Norwegian communes and counties are rather self-

reliant compared to local authorities in other countries (Johannisson 1990), but dependant of sectoral authorities for means for local and regional development.

Communes and counties in Norway are increasingly given more responsibility for welfare production. Complex problems which the state level can't solve itself, is "decentralized" in the hope that coordination are easier on local level. New legislation for communes and counties gives them higher freedom to select their own solutions in organization of service production. But the road from "implementor" of national standards to "pathfinder" of own solutions is difficult. Communes and counties must be more self-reliant, introduce more "learning by doing" and learn both from success and failure. This neccities a "learning planning" and a continuous development of their own community and organization (Healey 1994).

Instead of reaction on initiatives from above, local communities must themselves take initiatives and develop strategies and actions. Such strategies must include the total community to be successful and must try to develop common visions to mobilize local inhabitants, organizations, enterprises etc. (Stöhr 1990, Johannisson 1990, Keane and O'Cinnéide 1992). The planning process and methods we introduce here try to do so.

While various short time tactics, projects, and tasks must be discussed more or less continuously, our experience is that discussion of and decisions on long-term and superior strategies are better done as a short and intensive mobilisation process (Amdam and Amdam 1990). If possible this process must be connected to the election of members to a local governing body (commune or county council) or to other political processes where local and regional development is the main issue. Based on theories of social mobilisation and social learning (Friedmann 1973, 1987), and research on and experience from planning and development work, we have named such planning processes **strategic and mobilizing planning** (Amdam and Amdam 1990, Amdam R. 1994).

Norwegian communes have an average size of 9000 inhabitants and since our cities also are communes, over 80% have less then 8000 inhabitants. This give a closeness between local politicians, administrators and inhabitants, which is important for obtaining support for local development planning. Our communes and counties are free to introduce their own policy so long as this is not breaking any law or specific agreements between them and our government. This mean that these local political-administrative entities have almost as much freedom as a private development organization. They have local political legitimacy through direct election.

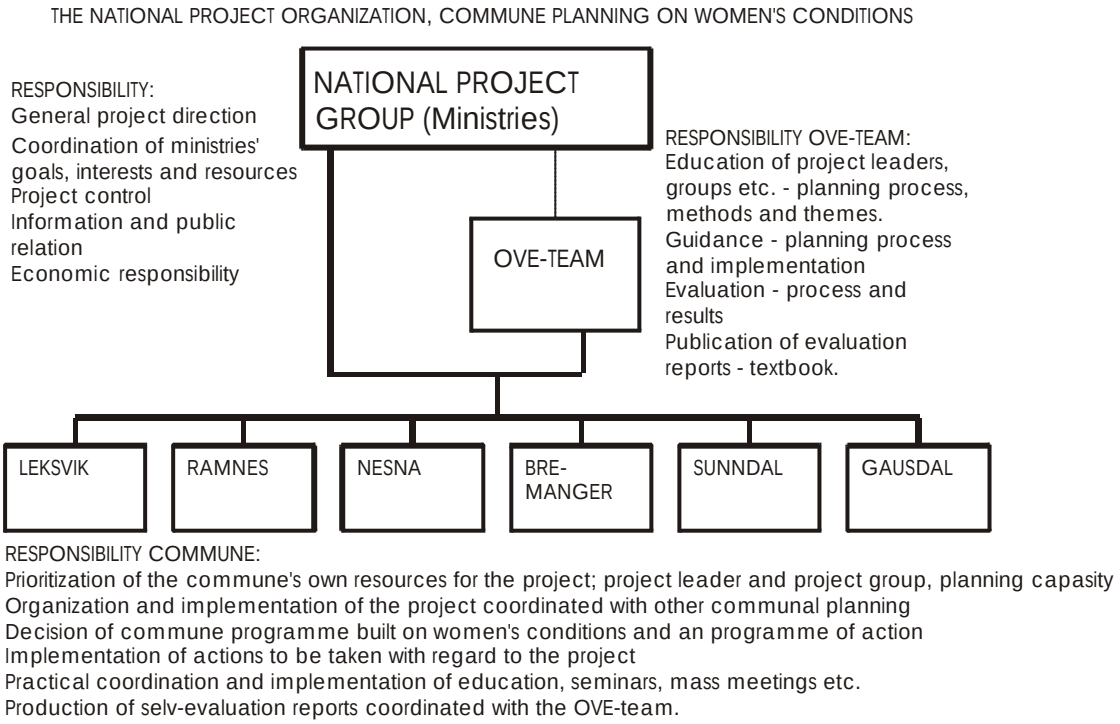
In this paper I will build on our experience as external agents in local strategic and mobilizing planning, with special emphasis on the situation of women - commune planning on women's terms. My case is six rural Norwegian commune with 2.000 - 7.000 inhabitants; the commune as a territory with inhabitants, firms, organizations etc. with their own interests and values, as a social entity with strong territorial tradition and identity (and conflicts) and as a political-administrative unit with a special responsibility for local development - the welfare communes.

An important part of this paper is comments on methods we have developed to increase participation in local strategic planning based on experiences from communes in the Norwegian fringe.

WHY DOES A LOCAL STRATEGIC AND MOBILISING PLANNING PROCESS FUNCTION WELL IN SOME LOCAL COMMUNITIES AND NOT IN OTHERS?

Table 1 summaries the opinions of local leaders in six rural communes in Norway which participated in a National Project "Commune Planning on Women's Conditions" where participative methods were used to engage inhabitants in strategic planning for local development. The project's goals were formulated as: "*to give new priority and new viewpoints to communal planning and administration. ... It is important that women experience that they have influence on and play their part in decisions and planning and that this lead to real change in the project communes*". (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992).

Figure 1. Project organization.



Engagement and representation from political organizations, women's organizations and the commune administration was important, as well as representation from local communities. The responsibility of each partner in this project organization is generally described in figure 1. The 3-year project lasted from 1989 to 1991. This paper is built on an evaluation of the project (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, 1993).

Why did the process function a lot better in Ramnes and Leksvik then in Bremanger and Nesna? (See table 1.) The answer to this question raised in our evaluation is central to any strategy geared toward the involvement of the local population and officials from relevant organisations in such processes.

TABLE 1. RESULTS COMPARED TO EFFORTS. COMMUNE PLANNING ON WOMEN'S CONDITIONS (%).

Commune:	Ramnes	Leksvik	Gausdal	Sunndal	Breman.	Nesna	SUM
Good Results:	63	59	41	26	24	13	37
Poor Results:	10	21	35	31	45	47	31
Don't know:	27	21	24	43	32	40	33
SUM:	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
N=	41	34	34	72	38	30	249

DIFFERENT CONDITIONS?

TABLE 2. STATISTICS RELATING TO PROJECT COMMUNES, 1990.

COMMUNE	Ramnes	Leksvik	Gausdal	Sunndal	Breman.	Nesna
Population	3550	3500	6440	7620	4400	1800
Occupation %						
:Primary	11	17	21	7	18	17
Secondary	30	33	23	45	41	19
Tertiary	59	51	56	48	41	63
Unemploym. % (1993)	3	3	5	6	4	6
Emp. women % of tot:	44	44	44	42	40	45
% women in Commune						
Council (1990):	28	28	30	27	27	41
Travel time to town						
>> 10.000 inh, hour:	1	1	0,5	1,5	1	1

The six communes are located in different parts of Norway. Their populations differ from 1800 in Nesna to 7600 in Sunndal; employment in services varies from 41% in Bremanger to 63% in Nesna. Unemployment differs from 4% in Ramnes/Leksvik to 6% in Nesna. There is no significant difference between them (See table 2.) which can explain the results in table 1.

RESOURCES AND HELP FOR SELF HELP?

During the three-year planning process each commune got the same economic support (salary for a project leader). A well qualified technical support group was established at national level and each commune (including project leaders, project groups and local leaders) was given equal support in the form of education, training, evaluation and other inputs.

When the project started, most of the communes (except Leksvik) did not employ a woman as project leader with education and training in project or commune planning. Instead they selected to employ women with academic training as teachers or administrators living in the commune and with broad local networks. This meant that they needed education in commune planning and training as project leaders.

In cooperation with Volda College each project leader and one to three members of each project group was taken up as students at an education programme for commune planners. Education and training in new methods for commune and project planning were concentrated into five week periods, three autumn 1989 and two spring 1990. This solution was very cost-effective and also created an arena where project leaders and project groups could discuss their common problems and experience. Our evaluation shows that without this training and education, project leaders "would have worked in darkness" as one of them answered autumn 1991 (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1993).

THE PROCESS?

The planning process was organised in stages as shown in Figure 2 and 3, which corresponds with the basic stages of the strategic planning and management model (Amdam 1990, Martinos 1989, Ó Cinnéide and Keane 1990, Ò Cinneìde 1994). All six communes followed this process which started with education and training in planning methods and processes in autumn 1989 both at national level (project leaders and project groups) and at local level (local leaders: administrators, politicians, local organisations, etc.). The support on local level was deemed to be significant for the planning process by approximately 50% of respondents who completed an evaluation questionaire. (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1993).

Figure 2. The planning process: integration of women's perspective in commune planning

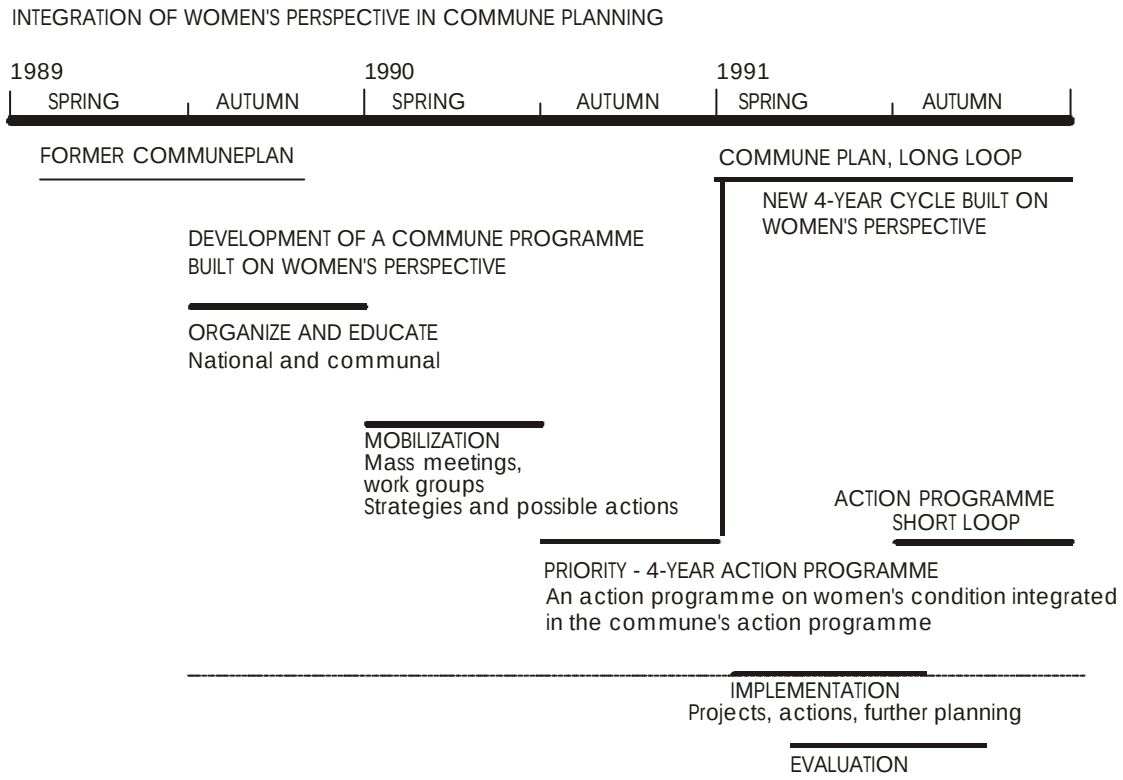
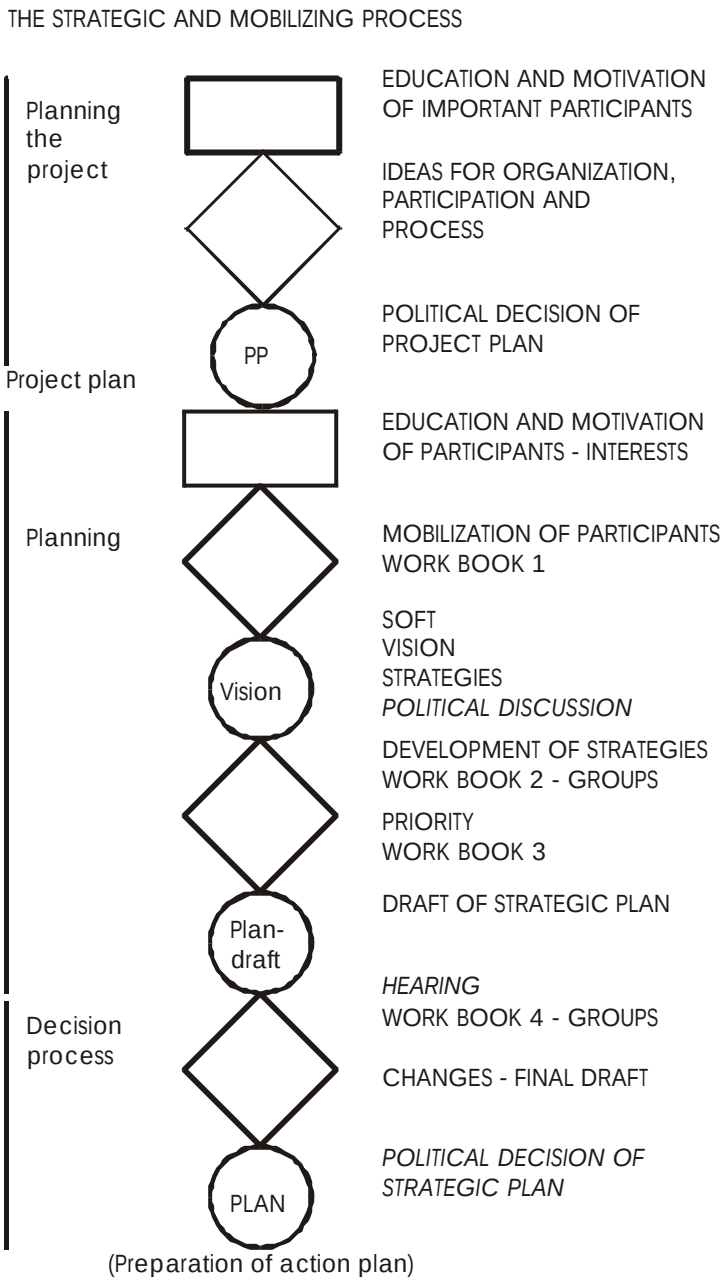


Figure 3. The strategic planning and mobilization process



Mobilisation - spring 1990.

This training was followed by a broad mobilisation of inhabitants where visions and strategies were formulated and selected (spring 1990). The goal for this period was to develop the strategic part of the commune programme built on women's perspective. Each commune

arranged a “mass meeting” where work book one was used and with between 75 and 150 participants, over 50% women. Before the mass meeting a list of persons was set up. Leading politicians and administrators and leaders of local organizations were asked to join the mass meeting together with women which the project group know were or could be opinion leaders among women or in their local communities.

The mass meeting concentrated on the situation in the commune in general and for women more specific. During group work strengths and faults were analysed together with threats and opportunities in the future. At the end of the mass meeting each commune formulated four to seven areas of importance for further studies and planning to change the situation for women. An example was Bremanger where four strategies were identified (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, Bremanger commune 1990):

- Women as social caretakers
- Women as employees
- Women as social individual
- Women as politicians

Connected to the general commune planning process four strategies were selected:

- Development of industry and employment
- Communications
- Conservation of the environment
- Women’s perspective

Work groups were elected on commune level (at least 50% women in each group) and on community level (mostly women) where actions were developed using work book two or other creative methods. Some of these groups worked with strategies specific for the commune programme built on women’s perspective. The project leader or other project group members were secretaries for these groups. This functioned well and the tight time scale were followed. A seminar was held in each commune where each group presented its proposals. Built on this and other material, each project group developed during spring and summer 1990 a commune programme built on women’s perspective with this content:

a. The situation for women and perspective for further development.

b. A vision for further development

c. Strategies for change

Strategies for commune development.

Coordinated with this activity the commune planner and the commune plan group in each commune developed the strategic part of the commune plan during summer and autumn 1990. Perspectives, visions, strategies and actions from the women’s commune programme were integrated into the commune plan.

An example of a vision is from the commune plan in Leksvik (Amdam, Kleven & Sæterdal 1992 p. 41, Leksvik commune 1991):

"Commune planning on women's perspective means:

- *that women shall participate in the planning process*
- *that women's and children's interests shall have priority in the commune plan and action programme*
- *that women and children are the most important groups for further development in Leksvik commune*
- *that all actions shall be evaluated and have priority according to women's and children's interests*
- *that consequences from actions (in all sectors) shall not be negative for women and children*
- *that women shall have priority when the local development fund is allocated*
- *that women's values and "practical view" shall have priority in the commune plan*
- *that Leksvik commune as an organization and community, is a society where women have equal possibilities for work, recreation, education and relief as men."*

This vision was ambitious and difficult to introduce especially in the commune's action programme which traditionally is dominated by sector activities and formal processes. The project groups tried to influence the sectorial planning through direct negotiation and communication and with some success. The project group in Leksvik concluded in its end report that (Amdam, Kleven & Sæterdal 1992 p. 41, Leksvik commune 1992): *"Women's perspectives have been of importance through women's participation in the planning process and by focus on themes and actions on which women are preoccupied. This lead to that the commune planning process more strongly focused on everyday problems and opportunities. "*

The project leaders and project groups generally felt that this activity was successful and that their activity had high influence on the strategic part of the commune planning process. As shown in table 3. the general correlation is that the higher knowledge an informant has about the project, the higher is the opinion that the project has had influence on the commune planning process. Over 80% of our informants with high knowledge of this project have the opinion that the project has high or some influence on the commune planning process, compared to only 16% of informants with small knowledge.

TABLE 3. THE CORRELATION BETWEEN INFLUENCE ON COMMUNE PLANNING FROM THE PROJECT: "COMMUNE PLANNING ON WOMEN'S CONDITIONS" AND KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THIS PROJECT.

	Knowledge about "the women's project"			
Influence on commune planning	High	Some	Little	SUM
High	43.8	7.4	0.0	17.1
Some	37.0	45.2	15.8	38.2
Little	12.3	32.6	44.7	28.5
Don't know	6.8	14.8	39.5	16.3
SUM:	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N=	73	135	38	246

Chi-square: 76, Significance level: 0.00 with six degrees of freedom.

Reference: Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 89.

An important goal in this period was to get participance from inhabitants, to inform them about the process and to activate them to propose actions and projects. During a short period, spring 1990, commune planning and women's perspective was tried put on the agenda of the community through mass meetings, group works and more general information using local press etc. This is easier to do in small communes then in big ones. In Nesna (1800 inhabitants) and Leksvik (3600 inhabitants) over 1/2 of our informants was of the opinion that most of the communes inhabitants have been reached, compared to only 27% in Sunndal (7000 inhabitants), the biggest commune.

4-year action programme - autumn 1990.

The goals for this period were to:

- Develop a 4-year action programme built on women's perspective and
- Integrate this action programme with sector programmes and
- Through this process to influence the commune's 4-year action programme and budget.

Each project group developed their own draft action programme during autumn 1990. This programme contained specific actions according to their own visions and strategies and how they defined women's perspective (see below). But the project groups lacked means to implement these actions.

Some actions could be done by local action groups themselves. Most of such actions were implemented shortly after the mass meeting or the group work where the idea was formulated and agreed on, if they had local "owners" and/or could be done by "dugnad" ("barn building").

Other actions needed cooperation between the commune and a local group, ie. economic support from the commune or other public agencies or a cooperation where the commune were responsible of some activities and a local action group or organization responsible for other.

Some actions could only be done by the commune organization themselves or by other public agencies.

Some of these actions needed further planning, which were easily understood by local actors. Some others needed little planning and could be done by existing resources. The difference in time-scale and thinking between local action groups and organizations and public organizations created a lot of problems in this phase. Small actions which local groups felt could be easily done, had to go through administrative and political decision processes which was time-consuming and which easily developed territorial or sectoral defence. The project group should have had some small means for small actions at least as symbols for the importance of participation.

Implementation.

In general the proposals from the project groups had little influence on the commune's action programme for the period 1991 to 1994 and on the 1991-budget. During 1991 the project leaders and project groups tried to build stronger political and administrative relationship and networks, with variable success.

Related to their own strategic plan and action programme the project leaders and project groups started further planning and implementation of specific actions during 1991. Most of these actions were activities which needed cooperation between sectors and actions of importance for women. Actions as change of when kindergarten opens and close so that parents could deliver and receive their children outside their work period etc. were implemented through dialogue. Planning of new kindergartens, separation of cars from pedestrians, renovation of public areas etc. were started and some of them implemented during 1991.

According to the opinion of our informants the project groups gave high priority to:

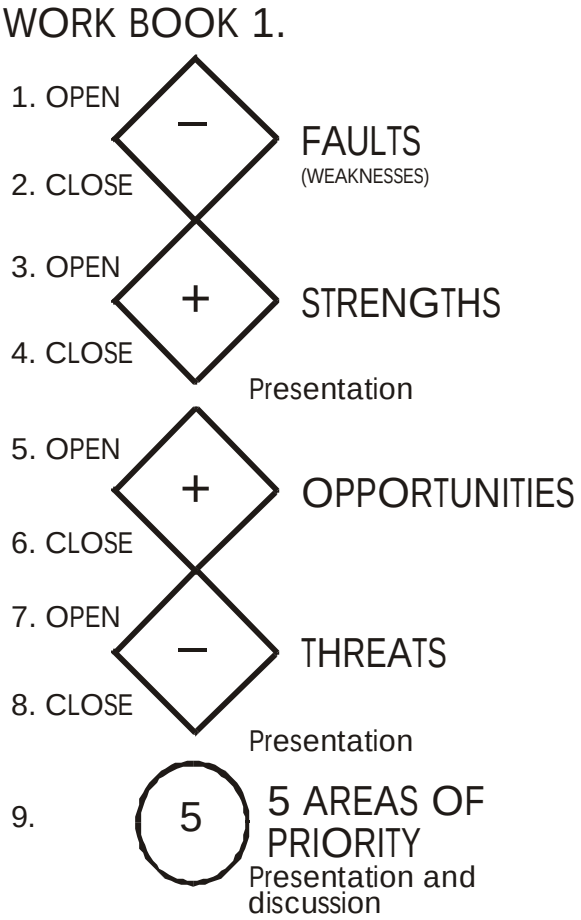
- Participation of women in the planning process (41%) and in concrete planning activities (28%) have been the most important activities in Leksvik, Ramnes and Bremanger.
- Planning of actions on local level (in local communities - 51%) have been important in all communes.
- New methods for commune planning (43%) have been important in all communes, highest in Ramnes, Gausdal and Leksvik.
- Actions for women (30%), highest in Sunndal, Ramnes and Gausdal.
- Direct participation of all inhabitants in planning (30%), highest in Leksvik where the project was closest integrated with the commune plan process.
- Political participation of women (28%), highest in Bremanger, Ramnes and Gausdal.
- Planning education (23%), highest in Ramnes and Leksvik.

All projects produced a strategic plan on women's conditions and a 4-year action programme, as expected. There is little concerning the implementation of this process, in itself, which can explain the differences in results between communes.

METHODS USED?

The methods used were mostly built on creative thinking where idea generation and idea discussion are divided into separate stages as in brainstorming sessions (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992). We have developed work books, to help local project groups in their self-governed SP and M efforts (Amdam 1990) and these were used by all six communes.

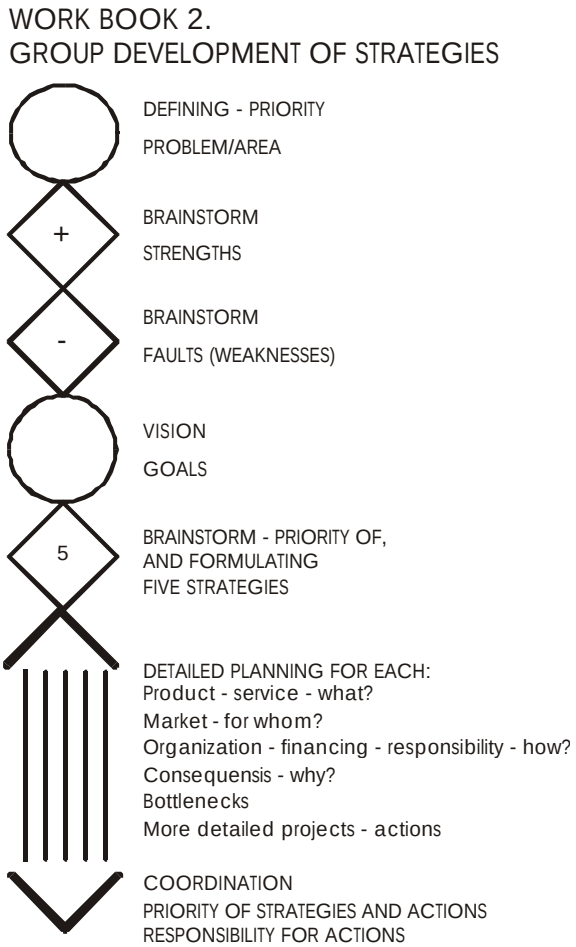
Figure 4. Process and stages using Workbook 1.



Work book 1 - (Figure 4) is built on the SOFT or SWOT method and is used to formulate visions, goals, strategies -alternative development paths and preferred choice of strategy. Through a process of brainstorms in groups of 6 to 8 persons and plenary presentation of their conclusions, the participants themselves analyse and conclude on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to their own community. This work book was used at mass meetings at local level (local communities 200 - 1000 inhabitants) to which all inhabitants were invited (approximately 20% participated with highest participation in small communes). This work book was also used at meetings at commune level to which over 100 formal and informal leaders of local communities, organisations, businesses, all members of the commune council and leading

administrators were invited. Through this process a basic understanding and acceptance of the local situation were reached and five to seven basic strategies for local development were selected in each commune (with almost no opposition).

Figure 5. Process stages using Workbook 2.

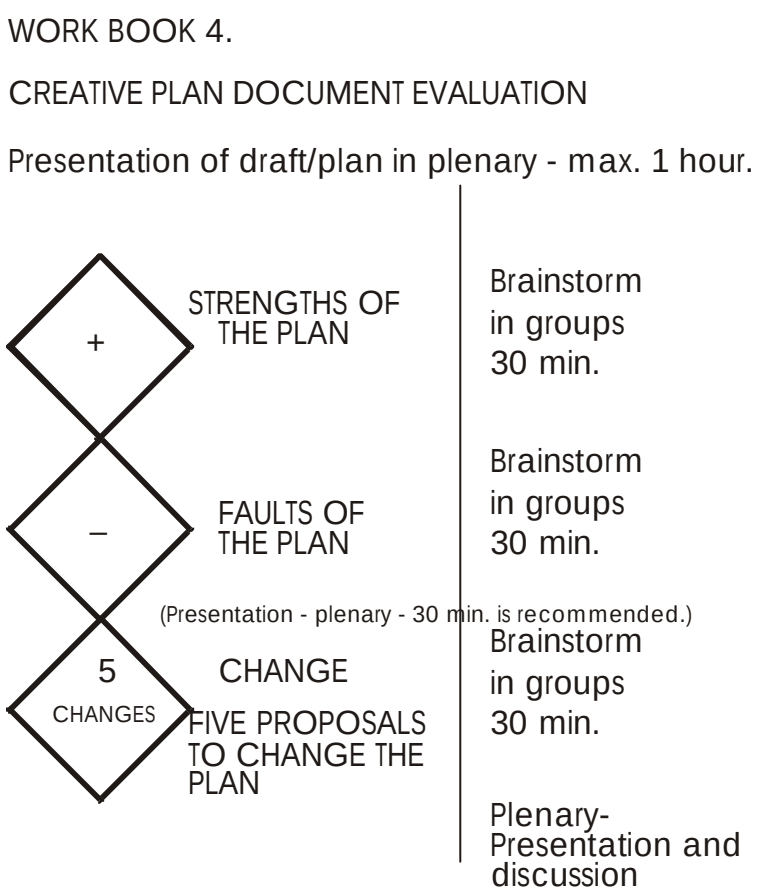


Work book 2 - (Figure 5) illustrates the most commonly used method to further develop the various strategies - the road from broad visions and goals related to selected priorities to the formulation of attainable objectives and concrete targets and identification of projects related to each strategy (Ó Cinnéide 1994). To carry out this exercise, 5 to 10 inhabitants were selected on the basis of their knowledge and interests relating to the strategy. Sometimes "competing groups" were established. The quality of this activity differed between groups, but the process was deemed successful in all communes.

Development of strategic management plans. Based on these proposals and other studies the project group in each commune produced a strategic development plan and two four-year

action programmes - one programme for general development of the local community and another action programme based on women's interests and coordinated with the general programme.

Figure 6. Process stages using Workbook 4.



Evaluation of proposals - work book 4 (Figure 6). Before political decision on the strategic plan and the action programmes, hearings were held both at local and commune levels. Summaries of analyses and proposals were published in local newspapers and through folders sent to all families in the commune before the hearings. The main contents of the plans were presented in the beginning of each hearing. Participants then were divided into groups of 6 to 8 where they used work book 4 to identify strengths and weaknesses in the plans. A summary of the analysis of each group was presented in plenum before each group formulated their five proposals for change also presented in plenum. Broadly agreed proposals for change were included in the plans - and accepted by the commune council in their final political decision.

EXPECTATIONS AND ACCEPTANCE?

Nothing so far can explain the difference in success between Ramnes and Nesna. Some explanation can be found in how the projects were established in each commune. The initiative was taken from the top, involving six different departments coordinated by the Department of Environment and Planning, as part of a national strategy. But the national goal was to give help for self help so that the commune itself would be totally responsible for the planning process and the outcome of the process.

When Bremanger and Nesna were contacted by national bureaucrats and asked if they would participate in this project, the impression that local political and administrative leaders got was that the goal of this project was to create local jobs for women. They also expected strong economic support from the Government for job creation. Instead, the content of the project was a local strategic planning and management process with financial support in the form of half the project costs (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1993).

All six communes were also given only a short time to decide if they should participate and most of them couldn't have a debate in their commune council before the decision was taken. When the national project started in autumn 1989, there was no common understanding at commune or local level of what were the goals and means of both the national and the local projects.

On Figure 3 is shown that the main content of the first stage in the planning process is to educate and motivate important participants. They shall themselves produce ideas for organisation, participation and processes which are built on in the development of a project plan. An important part of this process is "Anchor Conferences" and analysis of expectations. Through this process, acceptance and ownership can be created among important leaders, local persons whose opinion can lead to broad acceptance or rejection of the project in the local community. This process must be undertaken before the final decision is taken to start the strategic planning and mobilisation process in full scale, not after that decision was taken as in this case.

When local leaders especially in Bremanger and Nesna, but also in the other communes, finally understood the goals and means of the national project and the role of their own commune, some of them rejected the project and a lot of them did not commit themselves to it.

TABLE 4: POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT IN THE PROJECT

Commune	Sunndal	Brema	Ramnes	Gausdal	Nesna	Leksvik	SUM
Leaders	2.8	2.6	9.3	15.6	0.0	0.0	4.7
Active	33.3	23.7	60.5	25.0	17.6	66.7	38.0
Passive	43.1	57.9	20.9	34.4	67.6	33.3	42.4
Don't know	20.8	15.8	9.3	25.0	14.7	0.0	14.9
SUM:	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N=	72	38	43	32	34	36	255

Reference: Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 117.

In general the project planning process, and the methods used, worked well in all communes. The reason for a lower political (and administrative) engagement in mass meetings, in group work and in hearings in Bremanger and Nesna then in the other four communes (See table 4) is connected to their expectations and their lack of acceptance of the content of the project.

WOMEN'S PERSPECTIVES?

An experiment like this which lasts over years and with ambitious and general goals, will include at last two parallel processes:

- a number of actions which try to fulfill goals (see above), ie. actions related to the planning process in each commune and actions related to the national project with four levels: the national project group, the OVE-team, project leaders and project groups in each commune, and the commune organization.
- a number of discussions and formulations of notions which try to reformulate national goals to the local situation. An important part of this discussion was what was meant by "women's perspective".

The initiative to this project did come from the Norwegian department for environment and planning. This department also employed the national project leader and it was responsible for the experiment with economic support from other departments.

The reason for this experiment is complex. Each department shall yearly produce a **national action plan for equality between genders** within their domain. Planning have traditionally been influenced by men, so actions in this field were natural for the department responsible for local planning.

Another goal for our planning department is **vitalization of local planning.** A lot of experiments and national projects have been started by the department for this reason and this experiment was one of them.

The planning department also tries to **democratize local planning,** through experiments, by producing material about democratic planning and by support to milieus which tries to develop methods for a more democratic local planning.

The women administrators on national level engaged in this project, especially the leader of the national project group, have been engaged in a Nordic movement which the last 15 years have tried to develop women's perspective on society planning and models for "the new everyday life". A programme for "to build and live on women's conditions" had been developed by this group. This activity had created a network between departments and an ideological programme and understanding which this project is built on. This understanding had also reached some of the project communes. An example is the project group in Gausdal which selected the goals formulated in the Nordic programme as their own visions and goals.

All six project groups have had as their general goal to integrate women's perspective in commune planning process, but this is a general and diffuse goal. This has lead to a continuous discussion both on national and local level of what is meant by this goal. "What is meant by integrating women's perspective in local planning?" "What meaning did the national group give to this notion?" "What did the communes mean?"

The discussion about the content of "the women's perspective" have been started both by local project groups, by part of the commune organization and by sceptical administrators or politicians. Some persons felt it important to have distance to this project. It can be "dangerous" to discuss the relationship between genders and the more general "power-situation" between men and women.

It might be that this situation has lead to that most of the persons active in this project on local level have selected a "careful" strategy and have tried to "generalise" this perspective. They have interpreted the women's perspective as equal to "perspective of everyday life", "human perspective" etc. so at not to create unnecessary conflicts.

The OVE-team tried to clarify this perspective by formulating four principles for local discussion, goal formulation and action (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992):

Knowledge about the objective conditions of life for women in the commune

One strategy is to map the actual living conditions for women in the commune. Such knowledge is important for women to understand their own situation and for actions to change an unequal situation. Our experience from the six project communes is that such research have not been done. The reasons for this are:

Lack of means. The project groups did not have resources and knowledge to do such research themselves.

Doubt. Would such research uncover the real situation for women and better then direct representation of women in mass meetings and group work? Most project groups felt that mass meetings and group work only for women, or where most of the participants were women, would give a better description of the situation for women and of possible actions.

Actions. The project groups tried to produce actions, not research.

During the planning process goals like these have been formulated:

- Need for job creation for women
- Support to women from the local development fund
- Education and training for women
- Training of women in self-reliance and self-employment
- Better organization of everyday life -coordination between family and community life and support both for men and women
- Equal rights for women - education and employment
- Equal rights and opportunities for women in different part of the commune - employment and access to services as shops, kindergarten and education

"Women's themes" as goals for local planning

A more practical approach is to give importance to themes which women means are important. What themes occupy women concerning the local planning process? Are all women occupied

by the same themes - are some themes common for most women? Are women occupied by other themes then men? Are women more occupied by social and family care and family-and everyday-experience then men, which are more occupied by their employment? How can we get knowledge about what themes occupies women and how can we integrate this knowledge in the planning process? How can "women's themes" be put on the local political agenda?

Such questions are not typical in traditional local planning because women have low representation in local political councils and among local administrative leaders (in spite that over 60% of the commune's employees are women) and because of low participation of women in public debate.

To what degree is the planning activity in this experiment built on women's themes? All projects have been very active and creative in setting women-related activities on the planning agenda. Women have dominated work groups, mass meetings etc. during the planning process. Many brainstorms have been held only for women. Scenarios about the role of women in the future society have been used in seminars in all communes to motivate men and women to give importance to a more equal development. The commune programme and the strategic part of the communeplan have been developed in each commune through open discussion with participation from both genders. Some themes are common as social and family care, employment, conditions for adults, the organization of everyday life and environment issues. These themes have also been integrated into sectoral programmes and the communes action programme. In some communes the communication with some sectors could have been better and more must be done to produce practical actions in the future.

An important part of the project activity was to introduce new methods for local planning. Mass meetings and group work using work books were one part of this strategy to increase participation. Other methods as creative problem solving, analyses of expectations through dialogue in small groups and brainstorms were used (Amdam, Kleven og Sæterdal 1991). Mobilisation strategies were used, like:

- Production of written material to all families in the commune and a systematic use of local newspapers
- Telephone - to take a call to important women to motivate them to participate on a mass meeting and asked them to call ten women themselves.
- Face to face contact with important persons like administrative leaders of sectors, politicians etc. but also house-calls on local level.
- Establishment of networks between local organizations in problem solving and implementation of actions.
- Mobilisation to specific actions, which is a lot easier then to mobilize for general support.
- Mobilize people to do something they are skilled to do.
- Mobilize "burning souls". Every local community have persons eager to engage themselves in a social situation. An important part of mobilizing processes is to engage such persons at an early stage and to motivate them to join the process.

Some of these methods like work books and creativity methods were new to local planning, others like the mobilizing strategies were well known at local level ("dugnad" in Norwegian - barn building) but new to local planning. Our informants generally felt that these methods should be used in further local planning (80%, lowest in Nesna 45% and Sunndal 55%).

"Women's participation" in public life and all part of the planning process

How are women represented in local politics, the communes leadership and administration, in the planning process, in interest groups and organizations in the commune, in business, in local media? This structure is dominated by men in most communes. How to get equal participation from both genders? The discussions in the project groups have been dominated by two themes:

- How can we change and develop working conditions for local politicians so that it can be possible and attractive for women to participate? Local political work is not arranged for women with children or for persons which not easily can "escape" from their job or family. This theme has been put on the agenda in most of the communes and some actions have been implemented.
- How can we motivate women and prepare them for political activities? This has lead to education programmes for potential local politicians connected to the local election autumn 1991.

The opinion in the project communes is that it was easier to get women to be on political lists concerning the local election in 1991 then before. The project groups opinion is that this is a result of their activity. But did this lead to more women in the commune councils and other political bodies?

Without change in "name-votes" (1) the new commune councils in most of the project communes would have had approximately equal members from each gender after the election in 1991. The real situation is shown on table 5.

TABLE 5. PERCENT WOMEN IN COMMUNE COUNCILS AFTER LOCAL ELECTIONS IN 1987 AND 1991.

COMMUNE	1987	1991	CHANGE
Bremanger	27	15	-12
Gausdal	30	24	- 3
Nesna	41	35	- 6
Leksvik	28	16	-12
Ramnes	28	28	0
Sunndal	27	27	0
All project communes	30	25	- 5
All communes Norway 31	29	- 2	

Reference: Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 65.

On national level the relative representation of women in commune councils did not increase for the first time since world war II, instead it changed from 31% to 29%. The relative representation of women in the project communes decreased more than on national level, from 30% to 25%.

We don't know the reason for this change. One reason can be a reaction to the mobilisation activity. The opinion of the project groups is that mobilisation of women was only one of many mobilisation processes in each commune where various interest groups tried to influence on the election. It is easy to cross out an unknown person in this process. The higher "visibility" of men related to issues that voters felt important, could be the main reason.

Has this decrease of relative representation of women in the commune council also influenced on representation in other political bodies? Apparently not, when the project started only two communes had women as mayor (Ramnes and Leksvik), after the election in 1991, four of the six communes have elected women as their mayor. All these have been engaged and active in this planning project. The member of women in the executive committee is the same as before or has increased (doubled in Ramnes and Bremanger to 40%).

Except the technical committees, almost all other political committees have 40% women or more. A comparison between the six project communes and all other communes in Norway shows a higher representation (but not significant) of women in political committees in the project communes (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 67 & 140).

Members of these political bodies are selected by the commune council. We have reasons to believe that higher knowledge and understanding among politicians, because of this project, are a major reason for this change. This acceptance of the importance of women as politicians have not yet been accepted by voters.

"Feministic values" as a perspective in local planning

Women's values and goals are an important part of women's perspective in planning. This has been discussed by the project groups related to questions like: Do women have a common set of values based upon their experience as women that are different from men's values and experience? What is meant by "meek values"? Do women represent such values? How, if this is true, can such values be a fundamental for local planning?

It is a common but problematic assumption that women share values related to social care and the care for "underdogs" in our community; children, old and sick people, people with social or physical disability etc. These values also include preservation of nature and life, and development and preservation of social network and partnership.

Not all women share such values and many men share them, but the project groups have found it meaningful to ask these questions and to develop concrete actions related to them. Related to this discussion the women's perspective in planning has been formulated as:

- Wholeness in planning, territorial as well as sectoral coordination

- Organization of everyday life
- Value of humanity
- Participation from all groups in our society
- Social care for all in need
- Un-formal and open dialogue and cooperation
- Creativity and richness of ideas.

THE ROLE OF PROJECT LEADERS AND PROJECT GROUPS?

Another explanation can be found in how the project leader and project group functioned. In the successful communes, Ramnes and Leksvik, selection of project leaders and project groups was given high importance. The Mayor in Ramnes worked only half time as mayor. She was elected as project leader on a half-time basis. The chief administrator (manager) was himself interested in local planning and was elected as a member of the project group. In Leksvik the mayor (also a woman) was elected as leader of the project group and the manager was appointed as a member of the group. The project group included important political, administrative and local leaders in the commune. The commune planner (a woman) was elected as project leader. The political and administrative leadership in both communes at once used this project both as part of a local development strategy and a strategy for the development of the commune organisation.

Sunndal had problems at first with administrative acceptance of the project. Both the mayor, as leader of the project group, and the project manager were the driving forces together with the project group. Only after change of manager in 1990 did the process "take off". In Gausdal at first there was much conflict between the manager who was elected as both project leader and leader of the project group and important politicians, who were elected as members of the project group. Change of manager lead to a change of acceptance. In both communes it took approximately one and a half years to establish and get acceptance of the project.

In Bremanger and Nesna the mayor and manager and other political and administrative leaders never committed themselves to the process. The project leaders and project group did good work in mobilising inhabitants and local organisations. Implementation of a lot of actions is dependent on the commune organisation in the Norwegian context, so the lack of acceptance lead to little integration of proposed actions. The project was one more state activity which the commune carried out dutifully but unenthusiastically (See table 6).

TABELE 6: WHO HAS IN YOUR OPINION BEEN ACTIVE PROMOTERS OF THIS EXPERIMENT?

Commune	Sunndal	Brema	Ramnes	Gausdal	Nesna	Leksvik	SUM
Project leader	61.5	38.5	31.6	32.0	75.0	70.0	51.8
Project group	7.7	15.4	18.4	36.0	12.5	13.3	15.9
Commune plan group	3.8	15.4	2.6	16.0	4.2	20.0	9.2
Mayor	9.6	7.7	50.0	4.0	4.2	16.7	16.9
Manager	0.0	0.0	10.5	24.0	4.2	13.3	7.7
Other	30.8	40.7	28.9	26.9	29.2	26.7	30.5

Reference: Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 119.

EVALUATION

Our evaluation is that all six projects functioned well as isolated projects. The project leaders and project groups did a tremendous effort. They worked well regarding all problems which they could solve themselves like production of a commune programme on women's conditions, high participation of women in this activity and cooperation with commune planners. The variation is higher regarding the integration of women's perspectives in the commune planning and political and administrative acceptance of women's perspective.

Leksvik and Ramnes had high success according to the goals of the national project. This lead to changes in the commune organization regarding themes like development of planning strategies, integration of women's perspectives in politics, planning and administration and the use of new methods in planning. In these two communes we found the most engaged top leaders (mayor, manager and sector leaders) and we can see that the combination of the role as leader and ownership of this project have given results.

Gausdal and Sunndal had some success but needed more time to reach their goals. Both communes had a difficult start and needed more time then planned to motivate their administration. Change of managers in Sunndal and Gausdal during the process lead to a more positive attitude in their administration. We are of the opinion that a longer project period would have given results equal to them in Leksvik and Ramsnes.

Bremanger and Nesna had meager success related to integration of women's perspectives in politics and administration. Both mayors and managers were little engaged in this project.

If we relate these results to theories about coordination and mobilisation we can point to these arguments:

Strategic and mobilizing commune planning need commitment from both mayor and manager. Table 6. shows which persons or group our informants means have been active promoters of the experiment. Very few informants in Bremanger and Nesna are of the opinion that their mayor and manager have been active promoters.

Strategic and mobilizing commune planning need commitment from political and administrative leaders. Table 7. shows high variation between communes in commitment to this project. It show the absolute member of persons from different groups which have the opinion that this project has given high results compared to efforts, what we call "owners". Bremanger and Nesna have very few owners, especially in the administration. This will lead to a difficult situation when strategies and actions developed through the project shall be integrated into sectoral plans and when the commune administration shall implement actions. Domain defence and other resistance are a likely result as we have seen (Amdam and Mariussen 1991).

TABLE 7. THE NUMBER OF "OWNERS" OF THE PROJECT.

Commune:	Sundal	Breman	Ramnes	Gausdal	Nesna	Leksvik	SUM
Administrators	4	2	6	3	1	4	20
Politicians	9	4	17	10	3	13	56
Other	4	3	1	0	0	2	10
SUM	17	9	24	13	4	19	86

Reference: Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1992, p. 98.

Project like this need a positive attitude to their principles and goals. Some of the important actors in the project communes had problems to accept the ideas behind this project, commune planning on women's conditions. Actors in especially Bremanger and Nesna had the expectation that this project should create employment for women, an expectation which might have been created by the national project group in their first contact with the commune or when the project was tried sold to political bodies and the administration. Instead they got a project which tried to modernise their planning process. Our opinion is that the national project group used to little effort in the beginning of the process to orientate and create knowledge and acceptance on local level of the goals and principles of this project. Instead of giving the commune time for political and administrative discussion which could have clarified such problems, they were given very little time to decide if they should join this project or not. This political decision was, in most communes, taken by the executive committee instead of the commune council.

High participation is needed to create identity and ownership to strategies and actions. There is a strong correlation between participation in mass meetings, group work etc. and ownership to this project. Both Bremanger and Nesna had problems when the project group and project leader tried to engage administrators and politicians in their activities during the

project. One reason seams to be their attitude to the project; the project was not what they had expected.

Related to theories about neverending strategic and mobilizing planning, we have tried to show that most of the six communes succeeded in creating knowledge and acceptance in the commune organization and among inhabitants through mass meetings, group work, information activities etc. But commune planning is a neverending process and this project lasted only three years (actually the national project group at first decided that the project should last only two years, but this was changed through strong influence from the OVE-team). The project had much influence on commune planning in this period, but will this effect last? Only evaluation in the future can show. What we know is that planners, administrators and politicians in the commune can be "bearers" of new knowledge. Only if they use this knowledge in their own planning activity will this project have effects in the future.

Figure 7. The learning planning process as a spiral.

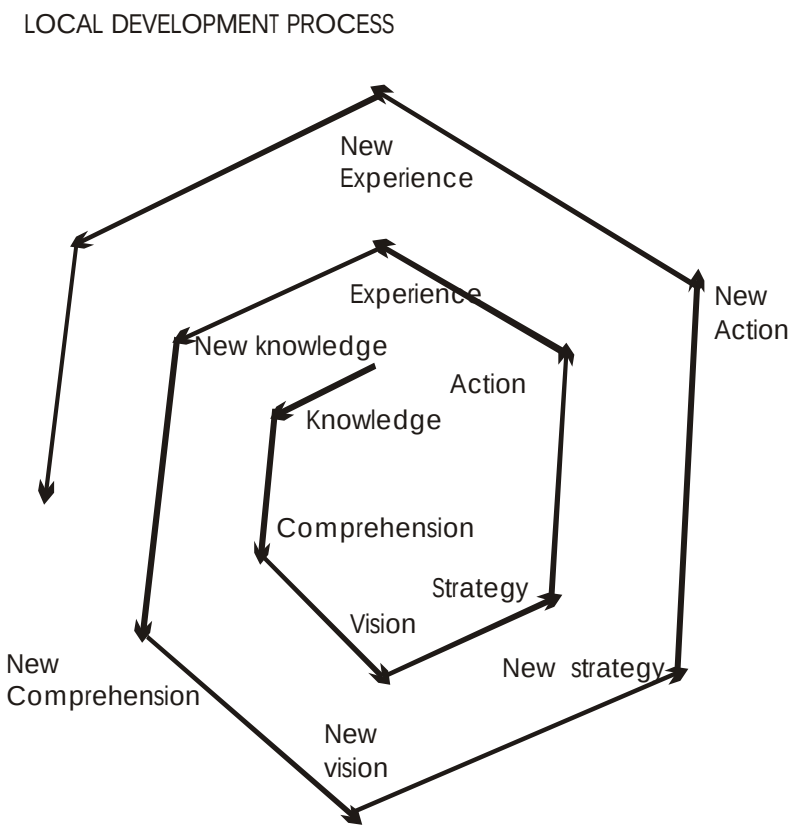
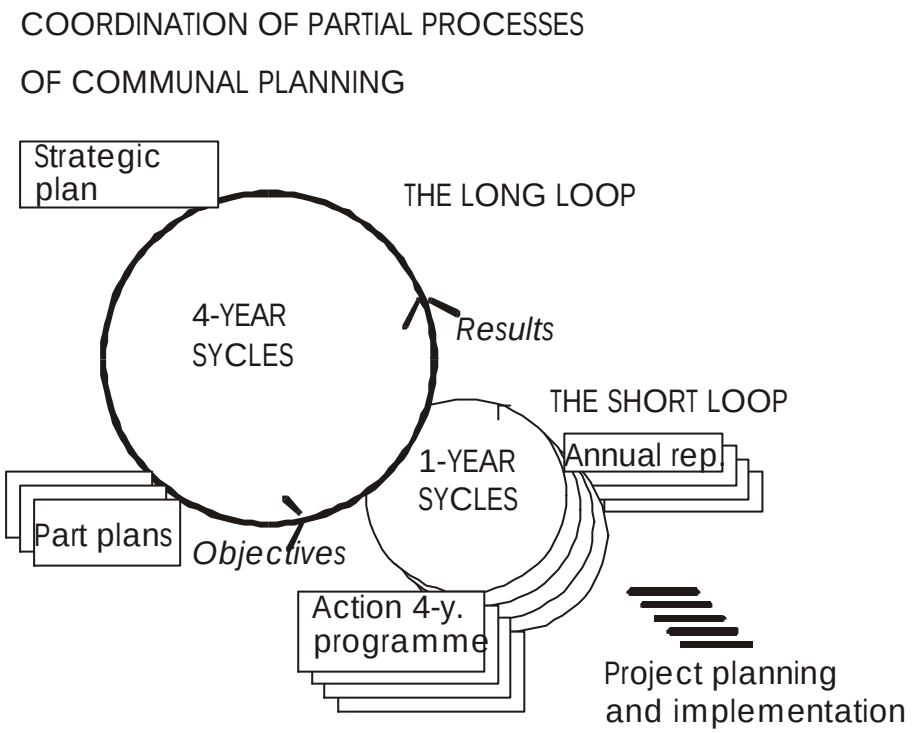


Figure 8. The Norwegian local planning system



THE STRATEGIC PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT PROCESS AS A CONTINUOUS LEARNING AND COMMUNICATION PROCESS.

The case discussed above was seen as an "ignition" project where new methods and perspectives in local planning were introduced as the beginning of a continuous self-governed local development process. Based on our interview with local leaders, we believe this process will continue to function into the future in four of the six communes, but not in Bremanger and Nesna (Amdam, Kleven and Sæterdal 1993). As shown on figure 7, this type of planning is seen as a learning process which develops from a circle to a spiral:

The program must start with **the motivation, education and training** of leaders. If leaders are not motivated for learning new work methods and not engaged in the planning process, they will form obstructions to change and to organizational learning. Gradually, motivation, education and training must be extended to other members in the organization or community.

The next step in the learning circle is to **organize** the learning process. One must decide who shall participate and who shall be the teachers. After education, the third stage is usually a **training period** where new methods, new planning models, etc. are tried out in practical and simple situations but without any great ambitions. What has happened this far must be **discussed and evaluated** before starting a new learning circle with higher ambitions. What

experience did the participants get from education and training? What functioned well and what was not so good? What strengths and faults were found and what should be changed? How can such methods and planning processes be used in the organisations' everyday life? What consequences will this have for both continuous planning and project planning processes?

The next circle consists of repeating the stages but with greater ambitions; new participants, more realistic problems, etc. In practice, discussion and evaluation are often the most important stage in the learning circle. Too often we concentrate on what is functioning well and forget our faults. Or we concentrate on faults and forget our strengths. Recognizing faults as well as strengths are the most important stages in learning processes and fundamental to effecting improvements.

Long time and short time partial planning processes must be coordinated into an integrated planning system on local level as in Norway, see figure 8.

Local development is dependent on many actors. Successful development from below requires cooperation and partnership between local inhabitants, local organisations, enterprises (market), local commune and state administration (bureaucracy) and the local political leadership (Commune council - democracy). Acceptance and cooperation are also needed from levels above the local community, from the county and state and (dependant on the situation) from different national organisations.

Our experience is that mobilisation of inhabitants and local organisations will function well only if the process is accepted and promoted by local political and administrative leaders and leaders of the most important local organisations. As shown above, a rejection from some or most of these create a situation where a strategic planning and management process will not function properly.

Ideally the mobilisation processes should originate spontaneously on the basis of local initiative. In our case the research work has been organized by us as a research institute in the form of an offer to the local communities, communes etc to participate, i.e. the initiative has come from outside but participation is voluntary. The aim is to develop new methods and processes that will work independent of us. The intention is that it is the participators in the process who themselves define the objectives, develop the strategies and projects, and implement these. Our role is to give assistance in the process and training in the use of the work methods.

This and other experiments shows that this approach can gain wide approval and support, but at the same time can appear as a threat to key politicians, bureaucrats and planners who are orientated toward traditional routines and rational planning (Amdam J. 1990, Amdam R. 1994). It can seem to them particularly "dangerous" that the process is open-ended, no-one knows where it is going to lead them. The process may also conclude that the whole or parts of the established local power apparatus is/are an obstacle to the desired development, which can in fact lead to a greater polarization between the power apparatus and the rest of the system. Major conflicts have developed between the political leadership in the communes and clearly administration-minded civil servants and planners who feel their positions threatened. In a few cases the administrators have tried to establish rival activities that they themselves control. In particular some of them are afraid of rival projects and a different set of priorities than they themselves desire.

The local politicians have experienced the processes as far less threatening than we had expected. On the contrary, they have often expressed very positive attitudes to the experience and method of working, which shows the clear political element in the method/approach. We have even experienced that politicians and civil servants have adopted these methods in their own work with the planning of e.g. health and social welfare activities, compulsory education, planning in sports associations, voluntary organizations etc.

Much of the apparent opposition to such methods has proved to be the result of a lack of understanding of what this way of working really involves. We therefore today make a point of starting the work with a period of solid training, during which we in fact go through the various stages "in miniature" with the group of leaders, so that they can see on a small scale what is going to happen before we start the mass mobilisation. In addition it is important to draft detailed plans of action with clearly defined partial activities, time schedules, descriptions of who ought to take part in the various phases, responsibility for reports, drafting documents, informal and formal decisions etc, and that the leaders themselves are responsible for this work. There is, of course, a danger that this can lead to them having too much control and influence, but this has not been a problem so far.

In the commune planning we have managed to link the formal parts of such processes to the legislation pertaining to planning, which is fortunately suitably vague as to what communes shall and shall not do, the content of planning documents etc. The law is mainly concerned with rules regarding land-use planning and processes necessary to make documents legal, matters which are of little significance in the mobilisation processes as such.

On the other hand, the new approach has lead to the recruitment of enthusiasts into politics and the administration, and meant that it is legitimate for them to "do their own thing", as long as this is in accordance with the overall plan. This has resulted in the development of an effective system for delegating responsibility for the implementation of programmes, an excellent system of annual reports and also the establishment of new working routines for political bodies, with less time spent on handling individual questions and more on process evaluation, i.e. discussion of the overall present and future situation for a municipal division, institution, neighborhood etc which concludes with clear signals for reform if necessary.

The greatest challenge in the future is what role the planners are to play in this work. We experience that some planners, especially those who are frustrated over their own methods and their lack of results, eagerly adopt the new approach and become skilled leaders of the processes in their own communes. Many planners seem content to spend their time working on minor questions. In such cases the mayor or treasurer (chief financial officer) have lead the processes and have in fact also had to draft documents, because the planners have not understood what is happening and what role e.g. documents should play - not as final plans, but as status reports on how far the development work has progressed.

Similar reactions have been registered from bureaucracy-minded civil servants and politicians - either in the form of withdrawal from the process or even some form of sabotage. Norwegian communes are today in the throes of changing from being implementers of state policies,i.e. their role as administrators, to being themselves responsible for developing service and social care programmes on the basis of local needs, i.e. a role as pathfinders. (Baldersheim 1987). Policies and means will to a far greater degree be based on help to help oneself rather than standard solutions (Strand 1978). We see a clear correlation between the ability to be active in

mobilisation processes in which they are involved and the ability to meet the challenges offered by this changing role. As elsewhere in society, some communes will lead the way, others will straggle along behind them. Perhaps the best results will be achieved by those who act quickly, but not too quickly, i.e. when the teething troubles in such methods have been overcome.

Another factor is the local culture. Some local communities enjoy a long and positive tradition of voluntary community projects and mobilisation and of doing things themselves. In these communities this method of working is stimulating and results in a more systematic and effective approach, because the local development work is better coordinated and the purpose becomes more apparent. In these communities it is natural for them to ask what they themselves can do and what they can achieve in co-operation with their superiors, with enterprises etc (Amdam R. 1994).

On the other hand are the communities where the initiative has to come from "the lord of the manor" or where they are used to everything coming "from above". Instead of their own activity and their own projects, they concentrate on making demands of the commune, of the state, of enterprises etc, an attitude which often breeds conflicts instead of co-operation and development.

The mobilisation strategy presented here is without doubt most successful in the first type of community. In fact, it can even be dangerous for the local community to adopt it if the community is "of the demanding sort", unless at the same time great emphasis is placed on a "cultural change" and on consciously using mobilisation to this particular end. In such a case the role of the planner will not only be that of the leader of the process, but also that of the agent of change, which makes new demands and raises new problems, not least on the question of values.

CONCLUSIONS

The aspirations of a learning strategic planning and management process must be realistic and try to concentrate on opportunities and threats which the participants themselves recognise as important and managable. Over-ambitious targets and lack of support from local leaders are the main bottlenecks. Strategic planning and management are time consuming. Much time and effort are needed to gain the acceptance and support of important partners in the development of strategies and actions and in the implementation of these. Realistic expectations and ambitions in the beginning of the planning process are fundamental. Without acceptance and realism the process is better postponed or rejected. Related to this and other cases (Amdam and Amdam 1990), I will point to the following experience:

Community

Local strategic and mobilizing planning must include the whole community: Inhabitants, organizations, enterprises, administration, political boards and other interests in the territory. Identification of the territory and its borders will also decide what participants and interests must be included in the planning process. Mobilisation of inhabitants and interest groups is fundamental for successful change (Stöhr 1990). Inhabitants and interest groups must themselves decide the content of the planning process included visions, strategies and actions. Local identity and common understanding of crises are a good beginning.

Initiative

In our pilot project the initiative was taken both from communes and from above. In the last cases the first step is to transplant this initiative to local actors. We have shown that if important actors as mayors and chief administrators are not active promoters of such initiative, success is unlikely. Local development agents are needed and these persons must integrate into the local community and local networks (Stöhr 1990, p. 4) to "create" more "owners" of processes, methods and perspectives. The mayor and/or the chief administrator are often key individuals for change as shown here and in other successful cases in Scandinavia (Johannisson 1990). These "social entrepreneurs" must have the development of the total community as their goal.

Organization

Local strategic and mobilizing planning is dependent of the commune organization in Norway, since inhabitants have a strong territorial identity to the commune as a community, a political entity and a service producing organization. The commune has a formal and a real responsibility for local development. But the commune must build partnership with other local organizations in the private sector (banks, enterprises, farmer and labour unions etc.), voluntary organizations and important public agencies. A project committee with representatives from important organizations is often needed. To activate and/or change existing organizations with developed network and partnership is a lot easier then to develop new organizations, often in competition with existing ones.

Process

The planning process must function as a continuous learning process. Our cases are mostly projects with a definite time-scale but which hopefully will initiate a continuous self-governed planning process. Such processes must start with activities that can be successful to create believe in the process and to give participants self-respect and trust. High ambitions initially can easily destroy initiatives.

Education

Education and training of project leaders, project groups, participants etc. are tremendously important. This education must be directly related to the planning process and the local situation to give knowledge, understanding and self-trust. If possible the local community (the project group etc.) itself must organize this process and define what need they have of education and training.

Arena

New ad hoc and permanent arenas for communication and dialogue are an important activity for creation of new understanding, visions and strategies, and for development of more democratic processes. Mass meetings, creative problem solving groups etc. are means we have used with high success. A new local community house, which can be used by all kind of local interest groups, can strengthen local networks and create a meeting point between inhabitants where local issues can be discussed. It is important to use local schools and local community houses for mass meetings, group work etc. in the planning process to give them new activities.

Participation

Participation must be planned according to the goal of different processes and projects. If the goal is to have broad participation in development of visions and strategies, all inhabitants must be invited. But, if we like it or not, some inhabitants are more important then others - they can have "veto-power" etc. Such persons must be personally motivated to join mass meetings and group work where participation from them is important. Groups must be constructed so as to escape personal conflicts, or managed by experienced process leaders. Ad hoc groups with selective participation are useful to develop relationship with business, organizations, development agencies etc.

Agenda

Our experience is that participation and processes must be well planned, while participants at mass meetings, project groups etc. must develop their own agenda. Some guidelines according to themes etc. are acceptable, but participants must feel and trust that their own activity is important for development of visions, strategies and actions.

Note 1.

Each voter has some influence on what persons shall represent her in the commune council. Each political list must have as many names as persons in the commune council. Most parties have decided that their list shall contain as many women as men. A voter will select one of all possible lists when she votes, which gives each party a representation proportional to "list-votes". But a voter can cross out as many names on a list as she like and instead write the name of persons on the same list or from another list (but only once for each person). If a party get "list-votes" for five members elected to the commune council, "name-votes" on this party's list or other lists decide which persons are selected from this party.

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