PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION FOR SOCIAL CHANGE:
NORMATIVE VALIDITY AND DESCRIPTIVE ACCURACY OF
STAKEHOLDER THEORY

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ETHICAL APPROVAL NUMBER HSS/111/2010M

A Coursework dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for a
Master of Arts Degree
Culture, Communication and Media Studies

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November 2011
Declaration

I, Musara Lubombo, affirm that the research reported in this dissertation, except for the acknowledged supervision and where otherwise indicated, is my own unaided work. All the pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons, are mine. Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am an author, co-author or editor, I have indicated in detail which part of the publication was actually written by myself alone and have fully referenced such publications. I also attest that the dissertation has not been submitted for any previous qualification at any other university.

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Abstract

Key words

participation, stakeholder theory, social change, development, communication

There is consensus in the development communication field about community participation being a holistic approach required to address social development challenges. Participatory development, also known as another development, is considered invaluable in the social change process. While participatory principles have enjoyed increasing influence over the work of development organisations, there is still confusion as to what participation really is and how it must be applied as an approach to social change. As a result, development in (marginalized) communities has remained what I would call a Sisyphean task despite tremendous funding and effort that is being put towards development. This study is motivated by three factors relating to the practical and theoretical issues characterising participation. First is the acknowledged lack of a consistent definition as well as inconsistencies characterising the application of participation. The second factor is the contention that participation has remained undertheorised and the third is what can be arguably conceived as the influence of stakeholder theory on development communication discourse. The focus of this study is how a theory commonly used in the strategic communication field, the stakeholder theory, applies to deliberate development communication efforts, particularly how the theory sheds light on the concept of participation. It introduces and examines the relevance of Edward Freeman’s (1984) stakeholder theory in defining and applying participation in social change initiatives. Three development agents namely OneVoice South Africa (OVSA), The Valley Trust (TVT) and Drama for Aids Education (DramAidE) are used as a case study of the concept of participation. The study begins with a critical exploration of the complex participatory communication for social change narrative discussing key ontological and epistemological assumptions as well as a pastiche of approaches often reified as participation. It goes on to present a comprehensive review of the stakeholder theory and its critique, followed by an exploration of how the three development agents develop, implement and manage their respective participatory programmes. It concludes by applying stakeholder theory to the analysis of these programmes to determine whether the theory can be conceived as an accurate descriptive tool of the participation process and if its normative tenets are valid to the process.
Acknowledgements

The ontological and epistemological underpinnings of this study are situated within the participatory communication approach that guides the content and delivery of two graduate courses, Development, Culture & Communication (DCC) and Communication for Participatory Development (CFPD), offered at the Centre for Communication, Media & Society (CCMS) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. While I acknowledge the indispensable contribution made by course lecturers Lauren Dyll and Eliza Govender towards my acquisition of that knowledge, the inspiration I got from Professor Keyan Tomaselli, the CCMS Director is priceless, and therefore, cannot go unacknowledged.

There are a lot of other people and organisations without whose cooperation and criticism this work could not have been accomplished. My sincere gratitude goes to Dr Marc Caldwell for his guidance and supervision of this work. I also feel very much indebted to the generosity of the following people, Dr. Josianne Roma-Reardon - the Managing Director of OneVoice South Africa, Mr Tuki Maseatile - Executive Director of The Valley Trust and Mkonzeni Gumede - Director of DramAidE for firstly allowing me to use their organisations as case studies, and secondly for doubling as participants in the study. Special mention goes to Ms Thobile Sifunda, the Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education Provincial Manager for Special Needs Education Services.

I also thank all the other participants especially the CCMS 2010/11 class, not forgetting my regular discussant Rhofiwa Mukundwana, for subjecting this work to rigorous criticism during the stimulating, educative and liberalizing Dissertation Seminars. The rest, your names cannot all be included here. Be that as it may, I remain grateful to your invaluable cooperation and input to this study.

For my son Primal – Musara, this result would not have been possible but you became a torch bearer in the darkest tunnel that we travelled through in 2011. I love you.

My gratitude also goes to the Zimbabwean Government for sponsorship my MA programme through the Presidential Scholarship Programme. Long live President Robert Gabriel Mugabe.

To my faithful God, YOU are awesome.
Dedication

I dedicate this work to the memory of my mother Liza Ngwenya. I cherish your determination to see us attain a liberalising education. May Your Dear Soul Rest in Eternal Peace.
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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 The Development Problem

Change in marginalised communities’ social, cultural, political and economic spheres of activity has proved to be a Sisyphean task\(^1\) despite tremendous funding and effort put towards transforming people’s lives. Just like King Sisyphus’ unrewarded labour in spite of his stoicism, growth in poverty levels, disease, and social inequities among Third World communities actually contradicts the amount of effort and resources channelled towards social change. I attribute this futility to the different (mis)conceptions about the real development problem and inappropriate diagnosis and ‘medication’ of the problem. Indeed, as Colin Chasi (2011:139) contends, “without meaningful understanding of the needs of real individuals in real situations, there is little chance that subjectivities or experiences, motivations or desires and actions or powers are well accounted for in theories that concern peoples”.

It is in light of the above that there has been a continuous change in the perceptions of what development actually is. The contrast between First World and Third World views of development influenced a paradigmatic shift in the thinking about development communication from the ‘dominant paradigm of modernisation’ to ‘community participation’. Modernisation, also known as the ‘dominant paradigm’ is a Western top down approach that views development of the Third World as what Servaes (1999:19) calls “the bridging of gaps, by means of imitation process, between traditional and modern”. This perception of development entails modernisation of the traditional or the lateral transfer of Western ideas and modernisation to the Third World countries. This view of development resulted in a situation of non-participation of the concerned people in addressing their problems, which according to O’Sullivan-Ryan and Kaplün (1978) rather maintains capitalism, dependency, and underdevelopment.

However, as Chasi (2011: 139) argues, “[f]or Africans’ lived needs to be addressed in ways that result in development, it is necessary that they be granted recognition” or participate in defining and finding solutions to their development problems. However, for the Third World

\(^1\) In Greek mythology Sisyphus was a King who got punished by the gods for his trickery, to roll a huge boulder up a steep hill. But before he could reach the top of the hill, the rock would always roll back down, forcing him to begin again. This punishment was reserved for King Sisyphus due to his belief that his cleverness surpassed that of Zeus.
“development should aim to enrich the lives of individuals by widening their horizons and reducing their sense of isolation...It is seen as a form of transition and growth, and a medium for change to achieve better social, cultural and economic conditions” (Govender 2011: 55).

As such, the failure in transition or change of the people’s social, cultural, economic and political lives characterising Third World communities led to grassroots activism and deconstruction of the extremely ethnocentric modernisation paradigm that had failed to address local problems due to what I would call its exclusionary and ineffective approach.

Modernisation, through its use of top down approaches perceived grassroots societies as “occupying a marginal position in a dependency relation with national and transnational communication powers” (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 175). In pursuit of ‘development’, the West imposed exogenous and predetermined strategies on the grassroots as a way of dealing with their situations regardless of how unique these situations could be from the West. However, the prescription of exogenous and predetermined solutions to local problems has proved fruitless in effecting social change.

Development communication has progressed from the dominant paradigm of modernisation to community partnerships that advocate participatory approaches such as communication for social change or communication for participatory development, which support people’s self-determination and empowerment (Govender 2011). The second half of the 20th century saw critical thinkers in Latin America debunking the modernisation approach that had effectively failed to address social development challenges of the marginalized communities. Grassroots activism and deconstruction of this approach led to the emergence of the alternative concept of participatory development which, unlike the former, embodies egalitarian and pro-democratic tendencies which are an antithesis of marginalization (cf. Bessette, 1996; 2004; Escobar, 1995; Melkote and Steeves, 2001; Manyonzo, 2008; Servaes, 2006).

Marginality, as explained by O’Sullivan-Ryan and Kaplun (1978), is a situation of non-participation of the grassroots, which in the end maintains capitalism, dependency, and underdevelopment (Dervin and Huesca, 1999: 175). Thus, as Hettne (1995: 199) argues, the “metatheoretical context and institutional framework of the politics of ‘anotherness’ boils down to the inclusion of the excluded”.

Participatory communication was popularised as ‘Another Development’ in the 1970s by the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation as part of the struggle for the right to communicate that had
grown out of the New World Information and Communication Order debates. The terms ‘anotherness’ or ‘another development’ are used in development communication literature interchangeably and sometimes synonymously with ‘participatory development’; ‘participatory communication’; ‘communication for social change’; ‘communication for development’ or simply ‘participation’.

In this study, the terms “communication for social change”, “communication for participatory development”, “social change” and “development” are used interchangeably. Although these terms may be used in other fields to refer to something different, I use them in this study to refer to a form of transition, growth or change for better social, cultural, political and economic conditions. This process entails involvement or empowerment of the individuals and communities (which in this study are referred to as primary stakeholders) such that they become in charge of their transition or development.

There is consensus in the development communication field that participation, that is the inclusion of the formally excluded, is the only viable way through which empowerment can be achieved. Participation helps the marginalised to get out of what Dervin and Huesca (1999) call the dependency relation, and is thus a route to social change. There is recognition that networking or stakeholder involvement is an essential ingredient for sustainable development (Besset 2004, Figueroa et al 2002, Wilcox 1994). According to the Stanford Research Institute (1963), stakeholders are those groups or individuals without whose support an organization or its programmes cannot succeed2.

For Besset (2004), Figueroa et al (2002), and Wilcox (1994), any intervention with the intent of achieving sustainable social change in any community will fail unless all the relevant stakeholders are actively involved in the problem identification, designing and implementation of the planned action. It is important to note, however, that not all social change initiatives are deliberately planned, for example social movements which may be spontaneous. The Rockefeller Foundation3 developed the Communication For Social Change (CFSC) model (Figueroa et al 2002), that was latter developed to the now Communication for Participatory Development (CFPD) model (Kincaid & Figueroa 2009) which describes the stakeholder integration process. It identifies the intended outcomes of participation or

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2 The stakeholder concept is discussed in chapter four.
3 The Rockefeller Foundation is one of the famous institutions which advocates use of the participatory approach in social change initiatives. The CFPD Model is reviewed in Chapter Two.
stakeholder involvement and is used as a tool to measure the participatory communication process and its outcomes. The model is discussed later in chapter three.

There has been an increase of interest in the use of participation principles by development agencies who seek to influence social change (Yoon 1994). However, research shows that participation is applied differently, and means different things to different communities. This argument is probably what necessitated the formulation of the CFPD model, for in their prelude to the model, Figueroa et al. acknowledge that “there are probably as many ideas about what participation is as there are people using it” (2002: III).

Different definitions of participation and the lack of a proper theory governing its application have resulted in numerous ideas about participation noted above. As Jacobson and Storey (2004) assert, participatory communication remains under theorised and lacks a clear definition. Nonetheless, scholars acknowledge the presence of the stakeholder ideas in development communication programmes. There is also recognisable prevalence of stakeholder language in development communication discourse.

However, there is no explicit reference to stakeholder theory⁴. The impetus of this study whose objectives are outlined below is drawn from this seemingly unacknowledged use of stakeholder theory ideas in CFPD programmes.

1.2 Underlying objectives

This work places emphasis on the so much integral participatory role of community, society and social networks in bringing about social change. Motivated by the inconsistent meanings and applications of participation by development organisations, as well as the unacknowledged application of the stakeholder approach in participatory development programmes, this study juxtaposes the concept of participation with Edward Freeman’s (1984) stakeholder theory.

The goal is to examine the possibilities of using stakeholder theory in development communication for social change programmes, and to reach an improved understanding of the concept of participation. The following are five research questions that guide the achievement of the above objective. They also inform the logic and the structure of the study.

⁴ The stakeholder theoretical framework is comprehensively reviewed in chapter four.
i) How, if ever, do development organisations integrate key stakeholders in the execution of their development programmes?

ii) How accurate can the stakeholder theory be said to be descriptive of the above process?

iii) How valid are its normative tenets to the process?

iv) To what extent can it offer a solution to the problems of definition and application of participation?

v) Can the theory be used as a possible tool to explain and govern the concept of participation?

Figure 1.1 below summarises the study objectives.

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To answer the above research questions, I apply stakeholder theory in the study and analysis of the participatory programmes by three different development organisations, namely: The Valley Trust (TVT), OneVoice South Africa (OVSA) and Drama for AIDS Education (DramAidE)\(^5\).

This dissertation is based on the study of the above organisations. It consists of six chapters. The first chapter briefly introduces the concept of participation (one of the two key concepts of this study) and highlights issues regarding theoretical and methodological challenges characterising it. The second chapter outlines the methodology employed in the execution of the study and production of this dissertation. The third chapter critically explores the complex participatory communication for social change narrative, illuminating the dual perceptions that people hold about participation. It also examines the pastiche of methods often reified as

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\(^5\) Details of these organisations and reasons for choosing them are provided in the next chapter.
participation. The chapter notes a prevalence of stakeholder language and ideas in the narrative, an aspect that, though not explicitly acknowledged, is arguably a derivative of the stakeholder theory in development communication discourse. This leads to a subsequent review and critique of the stakeholder theory (the other key concept of the study) in the fourth chapter. The fifth chapter presents the study findings on the concept of participation as applied by the studied three development agents. Topical issues addressed by the chapter relate to how, if ever, the different agents integrate community/stakeholder interests into their respective programmes. The idea is to create material for the analysis, in the final chapter, of such programmes from a stakeholder theory perspective discussing the accuracy of the theory in describing the participation process and the applicability of its normative aspects to the process.

As noted above, this chapter briefly introduced two key concept of this study, namely the concept of participation as well as the stakeholder concept. There is no space in this chapter to discuss these concepts in detail suffice say that that there is prevalence of stakeholder language and ideas in the participatory development communication discourse, a fact which gave impetus to the present study. The concept of participation is examined in Chapter 3 while the stakeholder is examined in the subsequent chapter.

The methodology used in the execution of this study is neither integrated into the conceptual and theoretical framework of the study, nor affects the findings thereof. In order to maintain a coherent reading of the dissertation, I begin with an outline of the research methodology through which the study was executed. The next chapter outlines the methodology.
Chapter Two: Methodological Outline

2.1 Research Methodology
The objective of this study is to examine whether participatory development organisations integrate key stakeholders in the execution of their programmes.

The term ‘research methodology’ refers to the methodological aspects relating to how research is executed. Two approaches, namely qualitative and quantitative, are the dominant methodologies through which research in different disciplines is usually conducted (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2007: 165; Creswell 1994: 1; Denzin and Lincoln 2005: 10-12). For the reported study, the qualitative approach appeared not only suitable but also appropriate approach to employ. The table below provides reasons why this methodology was applicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Methodology</th>
<th>Qualitative Research</th>
<th>Produces detailed and non-quantitative account of small groups to interpret the meaning that people make of their lives in a natural setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research Design</td>
<td>(Multiple) Case study</td>
<td>The design generates an intensive and detailed examination of phenomena through analysis of cases. I selected three organisations in order to generate evidence that is more robust and provide a basis for generalisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Gathering Methods</td>
<td>Indepth interviews, Document study</td>
<td>Qualitative interviews allow for a natural conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee to develop in a general area of interest of the researcher. Documents can be as significant as speech in social action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While quantitative methods measure a phenomenon using numbers in conjunction with statistical procedures to process data and summarise results (Creswell 1994: 2; Payne and Payne 2004: 180), qualitative methods as an approach to research produce detailed and non-quantitative account of small groups to interpret the meaning that people make of their lives in a natural setting (Creswell 1994: 2; Payne and Payne 2004: 175). Qualitative methodology is concerned with how people observe and describe their lives. Researchers using this approach try to portray the issue they are studying in its multifaceted form (Creswell 1994; Leedy and Ormrod 2001). In light of the above, the qualitative approach was necessary for
this study which sought to understand and describe how participation is understood and applied by the three identified organisations.

Depending on the nature and objective of the study, research methodologies, particularly quantitative ones, do often have impact on the study findings. They are sometimes integrated to the underlining conceptual and theoretical framework as well as main argument of research. The methodology used in this study does not have any impact on the study findings. It is therefore not integrated in the argument of the research.

2.2 Research Design
The study used a multiple case study design. A case study is an object or unit of analysis about which researchers collect information to understand ideographic as well as nomothetic explanations of phenomena (Babbie 2008; Robson, 2002; Patton 2002). This unit may be an individual, organisation, place, decision, event or even time period (deVaus 2001). As the above scholars argue, case study designs are preferred in qualitative research because of their compatibility with qualitative methods, such as participant observation and un-structured interviewing. Case was relevant for this study because semi-structured interviews were used to collect data.

Case study design is viewed as particularly helpful in the generation of an intensive, detailed examination of phenomena through an analysis of an individual case, which may be a programme, event or any other unit of analysis (Bryman 2004: 49; Kumar 1996: 99). The researcher gathers in-depth data on the case to learn more about it (Bryman 2004: 26; Creswell 1994: 12; Leedy and Ormrod 2001: 114; Pickard 2007: 86). For the present study a multiple case study design (Leedy and Ormrod 2001: 114, Willig 2001: 74, Yin 2004: 59, Yin 2003: 5) was applicable as I sought to describe and explain how different organisations that use participatory communication approaches apply participation in executing social change programmes. Three organisations were chosen in order to generate more robust evidence than only one organisation. Multiple case study approach, according to Yin (1994) provides a basis for some generalisation.

The case study organisations were examined in light of how, if ever, they integrate different stakeholder interests in the execution of their programmes. It sought to find out if there were any guiding instruments or theories as well as what, if there were any, challenges that they encounter in the stakeholder integration process. In essence, the study sought to describe the stakeholder integration process in participatory development programmes conducted by these
organisations. The underlying objective was to find out if the stakeholder theory can be used to describe participation or if its normative aspects are valid for the process.

The juxtaposition of the stakeholder theory and a multiple case study in the present study is however different from the usual use of theory in a case study which Willig (2001: 76) posits as consisting of two roles, namely: that of testing an existing theory and/or as a starting point for the generation of a new theory. Instead, it was used according to what de Vaus (2001) and Babbie (2008) refer to as an instrumental case study which is an object or unit of analysis about which researchers collect information or seek to understand as a whole. The unit might be an individual, organisation, place, decision, event or even time period (de Vaus 2001:220).

2.3 Case study Organisations

The three case study organisations listed below are distinct in their operations, scope and programmes, but related in at least two ways. Firstly, they all claim to be using one or more participatory approaches to influence social change in their respective communities. Secondly, they are partners to John’s Hopkins Health Education in South Africa, an international development agency seeking to promote health through participatory methodologies. They are also linked to the Centre for Communication, Media and Society at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. These organisations are:

2.3.1 OneVoice South Africa (OVSA)

OVSA is a youth development organisation that involves school-going teenagers in addressing issues relating to HIV/AIDS, human rights, gender and life skills. It runs a Schools Programme (SP) in secondary schools discussing these issues with grade 8 pupils. The organisation is based in Durban and currently implements the SP in 74 schools across KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern and Western Cape provinces. There is little published literature written on OVSA. Over and above the literature produced by the organisation in the form of annual and other evaluation reports posted on its website, relevant works on the organisation include a book chapter, Lubombo (2011); and an unpublished study Lubombo, Adebayo and Mkhize (2010). The former uses the organisation as a case study to examine the impact which stakeholder integration has on development of communities while the latter examines how the organisation applies participation in its Schools Programme. The present focus on OVSA builds on Lubombo (2011).

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6 See OVSA website //ovsa.org.za
2.3.2 The Valley Trust (TVT)

TVT is a centre for health promotion envisioned to have communities in which people take responsibility for improving their own health and quality of life within a democratic society. TVT supports rural communities in certain provinces across South Africa through a wide range of development projects designed to improve the health, quality of life, and self-reliance of individuals and the community as a whole (Rossiter, Twala and Sebastian 2011: 6). In striving towards this vision, TVT integrates with people to enable them to initiate and sustain their own developmental change processes7.

Studies have been conducted on TVT particularly on one of its programmes, the Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) project. Notable studies include one by Horizons Project and Khulisa Management Services,8 “A Case Study: The Valley Trust OVC Project” (Rossiter, Twala and Sebastian 2011). The study articulates the (OVC) project in light of its description, innovations, and lessons that can be shared with other OVC initiatives. The objective was to document what could be done to improve the well-being of children affected by HIV and AIDS. “With more information about the cost and effectiveness of interventions, donors, policy-makers, and programme managers can make better informed decisions regarding the allocation of scarce resources for OVC” (Rossiter, Twala and Sebastian 2011: 6).

The other notable and published study is that by Digby and Sweet (2011) which uses TVT as a case study to examine the concept of nutrition-based health care in South Africa through social medicine and medical pluralism. The organisation has, over the years, published annual and other evaluation reports on its website (cf. note 7).

2.3.3 Drama for AIDS Education (DramAidE)

With particular attention on AIDS education and psychosocial support for those affected by the pandemic, DramAidE promotes participation of communities in their own development. It uses arts and a range of participatory methodologies to facilitate critical awareness and skills development among educational institutions, community-based organisations (CBOs), faith-based organisations (FBOs) and other communities to “build a social movement towards an education that acknowledges the right to health and wellbeing of everyone”9. The organisation operates as a unit attached to the University of Zululand and also as an affiliate to The Centre for Communication, Media and Society at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

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7 See TVT website: //thevalleytrust.org.za
8 http://www.aidstar-one.com/promising_practices_database/g3ps/valley_trust_youth_caregiver_program
9 See DramAidE website: //dramaide.co.za
Unlike the above two organisations, there is extensive published and unpublished research that has been conducted on DramAidE. Independent evaluators have provided evaluations of the various DramAidE programmes and students have written dissertations and theses on the projects (cf. Bourgault 2003; Botha 2009, 2003; Botha and Durden 2004; Dalrymple 2004, 2006a, 2006b; Gumede and Dalrymple 2006; Nduhra 2004). All these and other studies on DramAidE explore the approaches that DramAidE has used in an attempt to communicate messages aimed at reducing the risk of HIV infection amongst young people, and to sensitise them to issues of gender, culture and tradition through specific development projects.

Previous studies on all the above organisations have immensely contributed to our understanding of the work of these organisations and have tended to focus on specific programmes. However, the significance of these in-depth reviews for this study is minimal, as their focus is not on DramAidE’s individual affiliate projects but rather on stakeholder participation in all the projects. It gives salience to the general stakeholder integration approach rather than to any specific individual project. Moreover, the study seeks to introduce a theory of participation as a response to the problems characterising its application in development programmes.

2.4 Data Collection Methods

In-depth interviews and document study were applied as data collection tools. Interviews are defined as verbal or face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the participants to solicit specific research information. The study used two forms, namely face-to-face and email interviews.

Compared to other data collecting instruments such as questionnaires, interviews are normally flexible, iterative and continuous (Babbie 2008; O’Leary 2004; Robson 2002; Patton 2002). Interviews provide the researcher with the opportunity to probe and ask follow-up questions.

To take this advantage, qualitative or semi-structured interviews were used. A qualitative interview consists of open-ended questions in which both the researcher and the respondents enjoy a great level of flexibility and freedom. The content, sequence, and wording of the questions (formulated around the research objective) are entirely in the hands of the interviewer (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000: 273; Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 146; Robson 2002: 270). Qualitative interviews allow for a natural conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee to develop in a general area of interest of the researcher.
The interview process involved collecting information relating to participatory communication projects by the three organisations. In-depth recorded individual one-on-one interviews, as well as e-mail interviews, were conducted with strategic staff in these organisations, namely: Executive staff (Directors), Programme Managers/Officers as well as Evaluation Officers of all the three organisations. I also managed to interview the Department of Education’s representative in order to get further reflections from a stakeholder perspective. The Department of Education is a key stakeholder of the three case study organisations.

However, I failed\(^\text{10}\) to conduct interviews with a donor representative from Johns Hopkins Health Education South Africa (JHHESA) as well as a Department of Health representative. These are also other key stakeholders of the case study organisations. The Department of Health is a key stakeholder of the three organisations because most of their projects deal with health issues. JHHESA is a key stakeholder because it is the main funder of all the three organisations examined in this study.

Generally speaking, there may be an issue of power imbalances between donors, development agents and communities of which donors have been accused of using their financial muscles to indiscriminately advance their interests which may not necessarily be in the interests of the communities. For this reason, an interview with a donor representative could have provided a donor perspective into the power relations debate that is central in this study. This aspect is examined in chapters 4, 5, and 6.

Although the inclusion of insight from these two stakeholders could have added some richness to the findings and analysis of this study, the researcher’s failure to have interviewed them should not be construed to mean that this is a compromised result. Although this may be true to a certain extent, the researcher, by using evidence in the studied documents and evaluating what other participants said of the donor, managed to draw significance insight into the donor’s involvement in the three organisations.

All participants in the study were purposively selected by the researcher on the assumption that they possessed the required knowledge. The assumption was based on positions of the participants in their respective organisations. Studied literature included reports, brochures, strategic plans and other documents produced by the respective organizations. Their websites

\(^{10}\) My efforts to arrange a meeting with the representatives of these organisations were fruitless despite my repeated emails requesting to meet them. Email interviews were not replied to either.
were also found useful. Thematic analysis was used to extract required information from these documents.

Reflections from participants and obtained documents are used to discuss whether the stakeholder theory accurately describes the participatory process and if its normative aspects can be operationalised as participatory communication for development.

The interview process followed Kvale’s seven stages listed by Babbie (1998: 336) as thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analyzing, verifying and reporting. The first stage established the purpose of the interview and important concepts to be explored and outlined broader questions in the form of an interview guide (Appendix C). The designing stage involved laying out of the process through which the interview would be executed, in cognizance of all ethical considerations. In this regard informed consent (Appendix B) was sought from all those who participated in the interviews. After interviewing, the recorded interviews were transcribed (Appendices D – N), presented in chapter five and analysed in chapter six.

2.5 Data Presentation and Analysis

Text, tables and figures are used to present relevant information obtained from the ground. The data is analysed in the tradition of qualitative research (Patton 2002) which allows for rearranging it in line with the identified patterns and themes. This method allowed for the identification of commonalities and variations across organisations concerning participation in the execution of their respective projects. The identified common and variable patterns are then viewed (described and interpreted) in light of the normative and descriptive aspects of the stakeholder theory lenses in order to assess its normative validity and descriptive accuracy in the conceptualisation and application of participation.

In these first two chapters, I have set out the overall objective of this study and outlined the methodological approach and methods through which the study was executed. I have pointed out the unacknowledged interface between the concept of participation and the stakeholder concept. The next chapter sets off to explore the concept of participation in development.
Chapter Three: Participatory Communication for Social Change

3.1 The Concept of Participation

There is no one agreed definition of participation, and scholars agree that its portrayal, both in concept and practice is complex. For Dervin and Huesca (1999: 177), participation is both vague and static.

At best, participation is a vague concept that one can place on a continuum of higher and lower intensities according to moments in a communication cycle: planning, producing, consuming, evaluating. At worst, participation is a fixed notion that can be turned off and on in a binary fashion, controlled at different levels and in different intensities, depending on the communication task at hand.

According to Alfonso Gumucio (2001:8), “the concept of participatory communication still lacks an accurate definition that could contribute to a better understanding of the notion”. This assertion is echoed by Jacobson (2003: 2-11) who argues that the rambling debate over the meaning of participation has resulted in many different definitions and scholarly arguments over what really participation is.

Illustrating the above assertions, Jacobson and Storey (2004: 99) note that “participation is sometimes defined as local involvement in program implementation, sometimes as involvement in programme design, sometimes both”. While other definitions emphasize the sovereignty of local control and cultural solidarity to the point that the idea of outside involvement seems to be ruled out (White, 1999), some approaches are relatively strategic to an extent that the sincerity of intentions to fully involve locals becomes questionable (Jacobson and Storey 2004: 104; cf. Diaz-Bordenave (1994) and Mato (1999). Similarly, Fuglesang and Chandler (1986: 62) contend that “recognition of shared interests, accountability, and facilitating decision making process in a shared milieu of interests, constitute true communication and participation”. Others, however, emphasise “knowledge sharing and creating beneficiary comprehension of benefactor intentionalities” (Ascroft 1987).

However, it is generally accepted that the underlying objective and meaning of participation is empowerment of marginalized communities. Marginalised people occupy the bottom of the social structure and they do not have a say in issues defining their existence. Those who have
power normally dictate this to them. For Craig and Mayo (1995) the concept of empowerment therefore connects to the aspects of self-help, participation, networking and equity. It is the taking of power at both the individual and social levels. Participation is a vital component in the empowerment process as people must be involved in the decisions that affect their lives. According to Narayanan (2003), approaches aimed at increasing the participation of the marginalised assume that participation leads to empowerment. Participation thus seeks to address power inequities between those who have it and those without it.

Theorising empowerment, Perkins and Zimmerman (1995: 570) postulate that empowerment concerns a consciously directed “process centred in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over those resources”. For Rappaport (1987), empowerment concerns two main aspects. First is the provision of opportunities for the marginalised to develop knowledge and skills to gain control over their lives. Secondly, it concerns the democratic participation in the life of the marginalised through engaging professionals not as authoritative experts but as collaborators.

However, the biggest challenges to participation have come where theory meets practice. Participation is characterised by dualisms that dichotomise it as a means (process) and as an end (outcome). As such, its application in development programmes has never been uniform as there is always divergence in the way it is being applied by organisations claiming to use it. Most of such programmes, if closely analysed, are not that participatory (Tufte and Mefalopulos 2009: 17).

3.1.1 The Dual nature of Participation
The ‘means’ and ‘ends’ dual nature of participation is epitomized in Figueroa et al’s (2002: III) definition of community participation as “a valuable end in itself as well as a means to better life”. The definition resembles two lines of thinking about participation which entail the dichotomous view that scholars, institutions and development agents have with regards to the understanding and application of participation. On the one hand; actions, activities, or structures are processes or means that empower while on the other hand outcomes of these processes result in a state of being empowered (Perkins and Zimmerman 1995).
The above dichotomy is also implied when participation is categorized on the basis of the scale at which it is applied. Tufte and Mefalopulos (2009) distinguish the dichotomy as applied at a project level and as a social movement. Influenced by Uphoff’s (1985) levels of participation model, participation at a small scale project level focuses on the participation of the marginalized at each stage of a development project. The stages include decision making, implementation, evaluation and participation at benefit.

Participation at a project level deals with improving life skills of the local communities and is based on the principle that development projects must be owned by local people (Jacobson and Story 2004, Tufte and Mefalopulos 2009). Viewed critically, this typology of participation reduces it to a partial level where if people participate at any one of the above stages, they are considered as having ‘participated’ in the whole projected. In this sense, partial participation is equated to real participation. However, participation is a process of which, as Yoon (1996) argues; if genuine, allows stakeholders to participate at all levels.

Viewed as a social movement, participation deals with social and structural change. Involved communities are recognized as empowered when they are mobilized to “eliminate unjust hierarchies of knowledge, power and economic distribution” (Tufte and Mefalopulos 2009: 4; cf. Yoon 1996; Escober 1995; Bessette 2004, Melkote and Steeves 2001; Manyonzo 2008; and Servaes 2006). This taxonomy of participation draws on Sherry Arnstein’s (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation model which considers citizen power as the ultimate purpose of participation as opposed to tokenism where people are just informed in order to placate them.

Drawing from the Dag Hammarskjöld report “What Now?” prepared on the Seventh Special Session of the United Nations’ General Assembly, Servaes (1991: 66) lists five main characteristics of participation that portray it as a social movement rather than a community project. These are

i) Action based on needs, including nonmaterial needs like social equity, democracy, etc;
ii) Endogenous and autonomous nature (change based on community definition of community resources);
iii) Protection of the environment (rational use of potential within the limitations of the local ecosystem);
iv) Efforts to achieve structural transformation of social relations, economic activities and power structures; and
v) Exercise and promotion of participatory democracy at all levels of society
As Jacobson and Kolluri (1999: 268) put it, adjectives such as “popular,” “participatory,” “indigenous,” “self governing,” and “emancipator” are used to characterise participation. The above characteristics bring about two normative concepts, namely: ‘endogenous’ and ‘sustainable development’ (Kincaid and Figueroa 2009:, 1313, Servaes, 1991)\(^\text{11}\).

However, one particular dualism “order versus chaos” is foundational to all the others (Dervin and Huesca 1999). In my view, ‘order’ epitomises the dominant development paradigm or top-down approaches while ‘chaos’ epitomises diversity or ideal participation. There are six fundamental meta-theoretical assumptions within the order vs. chaos continuum. These assumptions account for the different perceptions about participation and are discussed latter in this chapter.

Despite the inconsistencies on the application of participation, I am of the opinion that the divergence is, however, not necessarily negative. I agree with Tufte and Mefalopulos (2009) who contend that each community has its own characteristics, which may not necessarily be the same as those in other communities. Therefore, not every stakeholder perceives or should perceive participation in the same way.

The above echoes, albeit in a different context, Hettne’s (1995: 177) justification of the doctrine of ‘another development’ in which she argues that “there is no universal path to development. Every society must find its own strategy in accordance with its own needs”. Thus participatory projects have ranged in approach and focus in different communities where it is applied in line with the “basic assumption that development must be conceived of as an integral, multidimensional and dialectic process which can differ from one society to another” (Servaes 1991: 66).

Numerous perceptions and a variety of practical experiences and intentions therefore exist about participation (Servaes and Malikhao 2005). As such, there is no consistent application method of participation in development programmes. This situation has resulted in pseudo participation where many examples of projects claiming to embrace participation are not actually participatory (cf. Tufte and Mefalopulos 2009: 17).

In light of all the above, I strongly feel that there is need for a clear definition and normative principles regarding the implementation of participatory programmes. This will help

\(^\text{11}\) For an elaborate explanation on these characteristics see Servaes (1991) and Hettne (1995) as there is no space to explain them in detail here. Suffice to say that these different views about participation are indicative of some of the dualisms characterising it.
development practitioners to make observations that are important to meeting critical goals and needs of the full variety of community stakeholders thereby limiting chances of tokenism or pseudo participation.

In order for development to be sustainable “it must take into account human factors and make it possible for the communities in question to [undertake dialogue and] decide for themselves what objectives they want to aim for and what means they want to use” (Bessette 19996: 20). Diverse as participation definitions may be, there is agreement that the process involves (or should involve) collective and dialogical action among community members in the development and implementation of programmes meant to find solutions to common problems or to achieve a shared goal (Bessette 2004, Figueroa, et al 2002, Tufte and Mefalopulos 2009). This notion is encapsulated in Nair and White’s definition of participatory communication as the “opening of dialogue … about [a] situation, identifying developmental needs and problems, deciding what is needed to improve the situation, and acting upon it.” (Jacobson and Kolluri 1999: 269).

Collective dialogue and action is thus the only means through which communities can sustainably address common problems or social development challenges affecting them (Figueroa et al 2002, Servaes and Milikhao 2005, Dare 2003, Bessette 2004). Collective investigation and generation of solutions to a social development challenge is a central element of participation (Dare 2003: 8).

3.1.2 The Binding Meta-narrative

The central and most significant principle that the participation process emphasizes is ‘putting the community first’. This is achieved by prioritising their involvement in the identification and implementation of development programs (Bessette 1996; 2004), Melkote and Steeves 2001, and Servaes 1991). Participation in its nuances is however “bound together by a metanarrative that is embedded with particular assumptions about communication, and development” (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 169).

Community dialogue and collective action are the central key concepts in this narrative. An oversimplified portrayal of the narrative emphasises that

i) Communication is the road whereby consciousness and liberation are attained;

ii) Ordinary human subjects – variously referred to as the grassroots, the oppressed - are the most solid vessels of wisdom and knowledge concerning their situations and must
be involved in planning as well as implementation process if social change has to occur (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 170).

Participation advocates active involvement of grassroots people in developing initiatives that address problems affecting them (Melkote 2006: 157). The process entails a dialogical two-way symmetrical communication between development agents and all the key stakeholders.

Given the nuances characterising participation, genuine participation in this study shall refer to a movement or activity using dialogue among key stakeholders to develop and implement activities that contribute towards achieving a shared goal.

The above definition echoes an assertion that “participation of those who are most affected by the problem (stakeholders/beneficiaries) is a characteristic of community/social-change intervention” (Figueroa et al 2002: 17). The act of community problem identification, group decision-making and action planning, as well as collective implementation is thus a fundamental communication for participatory development principle as it is critical to how communities should grapple with a common problem (Figueroa et al 2002: I). It also embraces the aspect of participation as a social movement. This view is based on the interpersonal/classroom context of the Freirian pedagogy12 (Freire 1970).

The Freirian pedagogy identifies communication as a process that is inalienable from the social and political process necessary for development. The pedagogy contends that “the mere transferee of knowledge by an authority source to a passive receiver did nothing to help promote growth in the latter as a human being with an independent and critical conscience capable of influencing and changing society” (Bessette 1996: 15). For social change to take place, it has to be linked “not only to the acquiring of technical knowledge and skills, but also to the [conscientisation of the marginalised about their situation], politicization and organisation process” (Bessette: 1996: 15).

The conscientisation process is beneficial in that it helps grassroots people to take control of their situations in significant ways. This is by

i) becoming aware of the various facets of their problems;

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12 Paulo Freire, a renowned Latin American (Brazilian) educator posits that the marginalised must be afforded a dialogical and critical education which makes them aware of their reality (discovery on one’s consciousness) and enables them to reconstruct it in order to liberate themselves. The education methodology is articulated in his seminal work, “The Pedagogy of The Oppressed” and is popularly known as the Freirian Pedagogy. It is an outgrowth of; reaction against; and part of the struggle for the right to communicate within the oppressive and authoritarian political arrangements dominating developing countries.
ii) organizing in order to react collectively and effectively to these problems;
iii) becoming politicized - learn to provide alternatives to problem situations and finding solutions to them; and
iv) becoming ‘technicised’ – obtaining necessary tools to be able to use the community generated solutions (Bessette: 1996:15).

Communication is thus conceived as dialogue and participation for creating empowerment (Kincaid and Figueroa, 2009).

The concept of participatory communication espouses ‘community’ as the starting point in the development process. However, there is also a huge debate regarding what ‘community’ actually entails and whether participation must only be limited to the local scale processes.

David Wilcox (1994: 34) argues that the term ‘community’ is “so widely applied that it is in danger of losing any meaning”. He points out that it is used to refer to people with common characteristics such as personal beliefs, economic status, activities, services provided or used, and place. He, however, contends that people may belong to many different communities at the same time and there is a possibility of having competing and conflicting interests within communities. For this reason, instead of using “community involvement” referring to participation, the more appropriate term to use is “stakeholder involvement” (Wilcox 1994: 34). This neutralises the vague meaning of ‘community’. As this term (stakeholder involvement) is already used in the corporate field where it is informed by certain theories, it may be necessary to examine the possibilities of applying the same theories in the context of development communication.

According to Wilcox (1994), stakeholder involvement categorises participants according to interest rather than geography and common characteristics. He argues that common characteristics such as place, beliefs and activities do not necessarily mean people identify with each other as a community (Wilcox 1994: 56). He defines “stakeholders” as “those who have an interest in what you are or may be doing, because they will be affected or may have some influence.” These include but not limited to “community members, local and regional authorities, NGOs, government technical services or other institutions working at the community level, policy makers who are or should be involved with a given development initiative” (Bessette 2004: 4).
Community participation as the process refers to the active involvement of different community groups, together with the other stakeholders and development agents working with the community and decision makers around a common development problem to develop and implement a set of activities to contribute to its solution (Bessette 2004: 1).

Participatory communication moves from a focus of informing and persuading people to change their attitudes (the exclusionary tendency of the dominant paradigm), to focus on facilitating dialogue that is two-way symmetrical communication between stakeholders to address a common problem or achieve a common goal (Bessette 2004). Dialogue between stakeholders then leads to a common social change initiative, identification of all requirements to support it concerning partnerships, knowledge and material things. Through dialogue, stakeholders articulate a common goal and engage in a collective action to realise the goal (Bessette 2004: 4; Figueroa, et al 2002)

The conceptual disarray laid out in the participatory communication literature is primarily a surface manifestation, but its root lies more at meta-theoretical level than at theoretical, empirical, or practical levels (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 170). However, “without a conceptual clarification it is difficult to comprehend the full range of participatory behaviours or to design and evaluate participatory programs” (Jacobson and Storey 2004: 100).

What exactly, therefore, is participation and how must it be applied? In order to comprehend participatory communication for social change, it is important to examine the fundamental meta-theoretical assumptions underpinning it.

3.2 Meta-Theoretic Assumptions underpinning Participation

Scholars agree that interest in, and normative theorising of participation gained increased scholarly attention since the 1970s. By the 1990s a rich and diverse body of theoretical and empirical research had been established (Hette 1995; Dervin and Huesca 1999). There is, however an acknowledgement that there is still a lack of a proper theory that governs the application of participation. Jacobson and Storey (2004) assert that participatory communication remains undertheorised and lacks clear definition. Consequently, there are theoretical discussions that attempt to resolve the issue of its conceptualisation and application. Earlier on, these ranged from borrowing theories from other fields to insinuations of calling on the professional skills of the commercial communication industry such as public relations.
Among the theories posited to be relevant in the conception and application of participation is Jurgen Habermas’ (1984) theory of communicative action. The theory has different typologies of social action types such as those undertaken to achieve understanding and those meant to manipulate. The theory is thought to be providing an analytical approach to the problems of definition and levels of participatory activities. Melkote (2006: 157-158) affirms that the theory’s typology of action types provides a framework for distinguishing different types of communication in social change. Communicative action theory posits that communication constitutes an action type and defines communicative action as action meant to achieve mutual understanding. Arguably, this definition underscores the objectives of participatory communication. It signifies symmetrical exchange of knowledge and information or a discursive negotiation in a non-linear process of communication that is necessarily multi-way between the different sectors (Melkote 2006: 158).

Communicative action theory also has an ability to link the analysis of participatory communication at different levels, that is, from interpersonal communication to mass communication. It also recognizes the importance of culture by providing categories for analysis of cultural change at these levels (Melkote 2006).

Although scholars have argued that communicative action theory can be applied as an analytical tool in the evaluation of participatory programmes and their design, I strongly feel that the theory has not been able to address the issue of power relations concerning the structures of inequity. However, this is a key issue in the process and purpose of participation and the argument posited by development scholars is that for social change to occur development communication models must address power inequities.

There are six foundational ontological (nature of reality) and epistemological (nature of knowing) assumptions or stereotypes underpinning different, complex, and even contradictory versions of participatory communication for social change narrative (Dervin and Huesca 1999). These stereotypical assumptions “operate as conceptual pastiche of approaches often reified in stereotypic ways in the participatory communication for development research” (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 182). They are (a) Authority; (b) Naturalism; (c) Cultural relativity; (d) Constructivism; (e) Postmodernism; and (f) Communitarianism. In this order, these stereotypic theoretical assumptions suggest a movement from totalizing views of order to those of chaos.
Below is Dervin and Huesca’s (1999: 184-198) explanation of how each of these meta-theoretical assumptions has influenced the application and conceptualization of participatory development. The authors illuminate the ontological and epistemological propositions of each assumption and illustrate different development approaches that are perceived to be exemplifying each stereotype. Accounting for ontology and epistemology is the ‘ideological warrant’ which “examines how the spaces left by the different ontological and epistemological assumptions allow … power to issue warrants – claims derived from … evidence or reason and applied to generalizations” (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 183). In my view, this relates to deciding what reality is called and equates to Freire’s (1970) notion of ‘who names the world?’ In a participatory communication context, this may involve “naming and identifying of situations; the planning and strategizing of actions; the producing and implementing of programs; and the evaluating of outcomes related to whatever the specific context defines as development” (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 184).

3.2.1 Authority

Authority is a positivist assumption that assumes that there is fixed and continuous reality “out there”. Only the institutional authority has mandate of defining this ‘reality’ without any procedural and philosophical role for compromise or dialogue. The ideological warrant (power to name reality) is obtained and exerted either by inheritance or force and is unquestionable.

The epistemological assumption of this stereotype is that knowing is isomorphic to that reality and produces truthful statements about it. Authority is essentially a top-down model which assumes that participation is guaranteed when information is made accessible to everyone. Dervin and Huesca (1999: 187) argue that this model of participation has been used in horizontal development efforts such as in health care, education, crime control and technology adoption where rhetoric of diversity is heavily used but mandates are issued as to what is the correct practice.

3.2.2 Naturalism

Naturalism is ontologically the same as authority but it has a theoretic acceptance of diversity. However, it still privileges a single voice. It assumes that knowledge (epistemology) is dependent upon individual biases, and reality is thus not the same to everyone. Power to name reality can be questionable and those who have it exert it through exhibiting credentials of expertise and accuracy.
The assumption presents expertise as the new kind of authority. The authorial voice has to "invoke procedures and structures that confer the right to speak based on expertise" (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 188). Under this stereotype, participation is required for reification of expertise or specific individuals and improvement of accuracy of communication for the implementation of development goals. The process tends to result in a situation where reality moves from expertise to innovators and opinion leaders (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 188). An example could be how Agricultural Extension Services have been implemented. Agricultural Extension Workers as experts are considered as authority in communicating new knowledge to farmers.

### 3.2.3 Cultural relativity

The concept of participation must emphasise and tolerate difference or diversity (Servaes 1989). The development century has thus been characterised by an increase in volume of voices of difference that continue to refuse accepting externally imposed solutions to local problems. This is what cultural relativity as a theoretical assumption accounts for. It privileges cultural differences and it sees order as sensible relative to cultures.

As with the previous assumptions, reality is seen as fixed and continuous, in this case it is bounded within its own cultural context. This can be related to what Servaes (1989) calls plurality in one world where each constituent in their multiplicity adheres to their own standard congruent with their own culture. Cultural relativity sees the fracture or divergence from order which is epitomized in the first two assumptions, to chaos or pluralistic intentions where cultural differences explain differences in world views. This is epitomized in constructivism, postmodernism and communitarianism, the other three theoretical assumptions.

Cultural relativity views power as held by those occupying positions within the culture and who are assumed to be able to accurately interpret the cultural norms and needs. The positions are either inherited or obtained by force or are occupied by experts. It is within this stereotype into which the majority of participatory programmes fit. It is important, however, to note that difference within cultures must be homogenized. The assumption labels as defiance any views that do not conform to the cultural standards. This is why some top-down approaches to social change differ from participatory approaches and have different intentions. As such, development communication messages are strategised to appeal to specific cultural audiences.
The resurgent of ethnic nationalism, cultural hegemony and religious fundamentalism that characterise the current global arena have prompted the centralisation of culture in most development programmes. This has resulted in the New World Information and Communication Order recognising the importance of culture in the context of communication (cf MacBride 1980: 30-31; Casmir 1991; Schmucler 2006; Sithole et al 2006).

3.2.4 Constructivism

Constructivism drifts from cultural relativity to personal relativity where each person constructs their own meaning or reality based on their experiences (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 190). The notion of praxis (Freire1970) as the manifestation of dialogue accounts for this constructivist assumption. Constructivism poses the first serious challenge to the emphasis on order as the issues of ontology are completely set aside.

Although individual ‘constructings’ are orderly, they are located within individuals. As such, no standard of knowing is necessary beyond each individual. Power is thus carried by each individual and is open equally to each member of society as opposed to its centralisation which we have seen in the preceding assumptions.

One major problem with this assumption is that dialogue or negotiation (an aspect which is integral for participation) to ameliorate conflict which usually ensues from difference does not only become unnecessary but also impossible. This stereotypic assumption is particularly relevant to cultures that promote individualism and consumerism.

Constructivism accounts for top-down development programmes that focus on behaviour change as the basis for influencing social change, and also to alternative approaches that use theatre as effective strategies for involving individuals in development activities (Dervin and Huesca1999: 192). The keys to development are assumed to be lying within the minds of social actors.

3.2.5 Postmodernism

Postmodernism presents a further serious and sterner challenge to the idea of order and introduces an acceptance of chaos. It abandons the possibility of any kind of systematic development and entails a chaotic reality as well as different ways of knowing. It refuses a direct ontological route to reality and it offers no universal standard of judgment as it suggests that humans are naturally chaotic, decentered and unconscious (Dervin and Huesca
1999: 193). This could be linked to the stakeholder concept as practiced in the corporate world. The stakeholder aspect is examined in much more detail in the next chapter.

Even though development communication has not been influenced much by the notions of postmodernism, an indirect engagement with postmodernist ideas can be found in the work of Servaes (1989) who implicitly acknowledged notions of centeredness, chaos and fragmentation in his advocacy for “multiplicity in one world” or pluralism in the development process (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 193).

3.2.6 Communitarianism

Communitarianism is the last stereotype which incorporates all the other assumptions discussed above and it attempts to find alternatives to the dualisms discussed earlier by harmonising the ricochet between order and chaos (Dervin and Huesca 1999). It focuses on the process by which humans individually and collectively make and unmake both order and chaos. Based on the perspective that societies are made in communities, the approach does not negate any way of knowing (ontology and epistemology) but it acknowledges that both the knowing and the standards of testing the knowing are made and contested in communication or dialogue (Dervin and Huesca 1999: 200).

The assumption of this stereotype is that dialogue is fundamental to the journey that humans travel, individually or collectively, between order and chaos. It thus provides an epistemological justification for a view of participation being made in dialogue and also an ontological mandate which suggests interdependence and stipulates tolerance of difference. It posits this as a normative requirement of a community based society.

Communitarianism and empowerment account for the Communication for Participatory Development (CFPD) model (Figueroa et al 2002), one of the latest and arguably ideal model to guide the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of participatory development initiatives.

For purposes of clarity, table 3.1 below lists the theories and models of participation (the meta-theoretical framework) discussed in this chapter. Some models could have been influenced by the metatheoretical assumptions discussed above. For the reasons that participation suffers from lack of a theory that governs its application, I include stakeholder theory as the suggested theory of participation.
I have in this section articulated participation narrative in terms of various metatheoretical frameworks ranging from totalizing order to acknowledgement on difference or communitarianism. These stereotypes influence different taxonomies of participation which people hold. These taxonomies were highlighted to show the dual nature of participation. This conundrum was attributed to a lack of theory or undertheorisation of participation.

3.3 Communication for Participatory Development (CFPD) Model
The CFPD model focuses on how dialogue relates to collective action by showing how stakeholder dialogue and collective action can work together to produce human development (Figueroa et al., 2002: III).

As with communitarianism, the CFPD model presents dialogue fundamental to the journey that humans travel, individually or collectively, towards developing themselves. The model also provides an epistemological justification for a view of development being made in dialogue and also an ontological mandate which suggests collective action and stipulates tolerance of diversity. The model is both descriptive and prescriptive. It specifies a series of critical steps that should be undertaken\(^\text{13}\) in both the dialogue and collective action stages. It shows the benefits of its prescription by listing the outcomes expected when the process is effectively completed, making the model instrumental as well. Figure 3.1 overleaf illustrates the CFPD model.

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\(^{13}\) The steps may or may not happen in a specific context or case. Also, some may take place simultaneously.
Figure 3.1 Communication for participatory development (CFPD) Model. Kincaid and Figueroa (2009:1334)

Catalysts

- Internal Stimulus
- Change Agent
- Innovation
- Policies
- Technology
- Mass Media

Community Dialogue

- Recognition of a Problem
- Identification & Involvement of Leaders and Stakeholders
- Clarification of Perceptions
- Expression of individual and Shared Interests
- Vision of Future

Options for Action

- Setting Objectives
- Assessment of Current Status

Action Plan

- Consensus on Action
- Consensus on Action

Collective Action

- Assignment of Responsibilities
- Mobilisation of Organisations
- Implementation
- Outcome
- Participatory Evaluation

Value for Continued Improvement

External Constraints and Support

- Conflict - Dissatisfaction

Individual Change

- Skills
- Ideation
- Intention
- Behaviour

Social Change

- Leadership
- Degree and Equity of Participation
- Information Equity
- Collective Self Efficacy
- Sense of Ownership
- Social Cohesion
- Social Norms

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
Howard-Grabman and Snetro (2003), and Kincaid and Figueroa (2009: 1324) articulate the instrumental value (outcomes) of effective participation. As shown on Figure 4.1, the community/stakeholder dialogue stage prescribes ten iterative steps while the collective action stage prescribes five. The latter is dependent upon the former making the two inextricably netted.

Three significant steps in the dialogue stage are worth mentioning. These are (a) identification and involvement of leaders and stakeholders, (b) clarification of perceptions, and (c) expression of individual and shared interests. The first step prescribes involvement of stakeholders in the dialogue about the identified problem. Since stakeholders may have different interests, they express their individual and shared interests in order to clarify each other’s perceptions about the situation at hand. Usually, conflict is bound to happen during such conversations where different stakeholders are involved. It results from varied interests that stakeholders would have expressed.

If not resolved, conflict can jeopardise the process and render the initiative unsuccessful (Kincaid and Figueroa 2009). This is why it is important to involve all the relevant stakeholders at the very beginning stages of any initiative in order to avoid emergence of conflict at critical stages. However, the model acknowledges that dialogue may not be adequate to solve this conflict. Be that as it may, it fails to go on to offer a solution to this inescapable problem.

Nevertheless, the CFPD model can be an effective tool to measure and predict success or failure of community projects (Figueroa et al., 2002: iii; Kincaid and Figueroa, 1999: 1316). As shown, human development is an iterative and dynamic process that starts with a catalyst or stimulus that can be internal or external to the community. The catalyst leads to interaction among stakeholders. When effective, this leads to collective action and the resolution of a problem (Figueroa et al., 2002: iii). The ultimate goal, as shown, is human development, which results from individual and social change.

As noted above, the model fails to provide answers to questions relating to managing conflict. Kincaid and Figueroa (1999), the authors of the model also acknowledge this. On Figure 3.1, dialogue with stakeholders is the first stage. It is most likely that not every stakeholder will actively participate in this dialogue. Kincaid and Figueroa (1999) note that the model neither shows whether these excluded stakeholders can be involved at a later stage. The model also
does not indicate if it makes a difference if the door is left open for those stakeholders to join later in the process and perhaps share in the benefits of a successful project.

The model subjects the whole process of community dialogue and collective action to “external constraints and support” (Figure 3.1), suggesting a possible negative or positive impact on the intended outcomes. However, it fails to prescribe or suggest ways through which the external forces can be managed to optimise the cooperative potential or neutralise the competitive threat of the respective external pressures.

Probably from the standpoint of participation being inclusion of, and dialogue among the local community, the model deliberately avoids addressing issues that have anything to do with the external forces. Viewed from this perspective, the model appears to be self contradictory as it acknowledges identification of “stakeholders” whose definition, as we have already seen, implies anyone whether internal or external who has interest in a particular initiative. As the model stands, it exposes, or leaves development initiatives susceptible to external constraints or competitive pressures without prescribing how, despite its inevitability, external threat can be neutralised.

Complementing the CFPD model with the stakeholder theory can go a long way in addressing the above mentioned limitations of the model. Stakeholder theory prescribes a strategy for managing both internal and external stakeholders in any field (Freeman, 1984: 139-144). The strategy is based on what Freeman calls stakeholder analysis which categorises stakeholders according to their cooperative or competitive potential to affect the initiative (cf. Figure 4.3 on p.37).

3.4 Stakeholders Ideas in Development Projects

According to Bailur (2007: 67), although much of the writing on stakeholders has an “industrialised country focus”, the idea has “strongly transferred to the context of development projects”. Ever since the theorisation of participation began in the 1970s, the language that has been associated with development communication includes terms such as ‘community involvement’, grassroots participation’ or ‘local participation’. Although linguistic discourse is marginally important to this study, simple discourse analysis of the development communication literature shows a ‘transfer’ of the stakeholder approach into the development communication field.
As evidenced in Figure 3.1, the term “stakeholder” is one of the key terms in the CFPD model and the participation process. The term is used interchangeably with ‘community’ (see Tuft and Mefalopulos 2009, Figueroa et al 2002, Bessette 2004, Wilcox 1994).

Although “community profiling” articulated by Bessette (2004) is similar to ‘stakeholder analysis’ that is based on the stakeholder theory, there is no explicit mention and application of the theory in development communication literature. Though the literature partially answers why and how stakeholders should be involved, it is not clear who they are and how their diverse interests could be accommodated and managed in a development initiative.

It is against this background that this study brings the notion of stakeholder theory which defines stakeholders and provide insight onto how they can be managed. The study thus examines the relevance and possible application of stakeholder theory in the development of participatory communication for social change initiatives. The premise is that if stakeholder theory is used, two potential benefits will follow regarding problems characterising participation noted in the preceding chapters. Firstly, it could offer a comprehensible understanding of the concept of participation. Secondly, a standard way of its application in social change initiatives could be realised. This will go a long way in helping development agents to empower communities and achieve the desired social change.

I have in this chapter attempted to explore the notion of participation in development, expatiating on the confusion and dualisms around the meaning and application of participation. Participation in development is considered as both a means and an end. It is also categorised on the basis of the scale at which it is applied that is at a project level and as a social movement. Some definitions emphasize the sovereignty of local control and cultural solidarity while others are relatively strategic but recognize knowledge sharing. Genuine participation was noted as that which recognises diversity, accountability, and facilitates decision making process in a shared milieu of interests or among all stakeholders. The chapter noted that the concept of participation in the development context is undertheorised and that stakeholder language is prevalent in development communication discourse. An examination of stakeholder theory, a theory commonly used in the strategic communication field, was suggested to see how it can shed light on the concept of participation. It is time for us to examine the stakeholder theory. I devote the next chapter to a comprehensive review of the theory as well as the criticism levelled against it.
Chapter Four: The Stakeholder Framework\textsuperscript{14}

4.1 Stakeholder Management Approach

The stakeholder concept is one of the two key concepts of this study, the other one being that of participation which has just been examined in the previous chapter. A comprehensive review of stakeholder theory, which underpins the stakeholder concept, is therefore imperative. Reviewing of stakeholder theory is the purpose of this chapter.

The notion of “stakeholders” is traditionally associated with commercial business field and is common in disciplines such as strategic management, organisational culture and public relations. The stakeholder approach challenges the dominant way of understanding business corporations as properties of their owners or shareholders. It is rooted in the belief that these corporations or people engaged in value creation and trade are responsible to their stakeholders - individuals or groups whose interests can affect, or be affected by the corporation’s activities (Freeman 1984; Freeman et al 2010). Figure 4.2, on page 36, pictures some typical stakeholders of a large corporation.

The stakeholder approach is centred on the philosophy that stakeholders’ interests are of intrinsic value to organisational competitiveness (value creation or profit maximisation), and must therefore be considered and incorporated in the execution of the corporate activities (Donaldson and Preston 1995). As the acknowledged primary objective of business corporations is to gain profit, stakeholder theorists believe that

\begin{quote}
In order to maximise profits, companies need great products and services that customers want, solid relationships with suppliers that keep operations on the edge, inspired employees who stand for the company mission and push the company to become better, and supportive communities that allow business to flourish (Freeman, et al 2010: 11)
\end{quote}

As depicted on figure 4.1 the approach consists of three tenets, namely: descriptive, normative and instrumental (Donaldson and Preston 1995). Descriptively, it presents a model showing what a corporation is. Instrumentally, it predicts cause-effect relationships and establishes a framework for examining the connections between satisfying stakeholder

\textsuperscript{14} This whole section is extensively drawn from my published work, Lubombo (2011: 104-110).
interests and the achievement of corporate objectives (profit maximisation). Normatively, it prescribes recognition of stakeholders and has a criterion of defining and identifying them.

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**Figure 4.1: Three tenets of the Stakeholder Theory**

The theory accepts the idea that stakeholder interests are of intrinsic value. The normative tenet of the theory is also managerial in that it recommends managerial attitudes, structures and practices that constitute stakeholder management. As Freeman, Wicks and Parmer (2004) point out, the theory is ‘managerial’ in that it reflects and directs how managers operate.

The stakeholder approach is influenced by the work of Edward Freeman (1984) that propounds a theory of stakeholders which serves to “turn managerial energies in the right direction” (Freeman 1984: vi) contrary to the dominant view of business. It emphasises the need by managers to regain managerial competence in the “turbulent” business environment and challenges them to reorient their thinking from ‘blame the stakeholder’ to become responsive to the stakeholder needs (Freeman 1984: 74).
Based on the principle of fairness, or common good, it juxtaposes the idea of value creation with business ethics and corporate social responsibility. According to Bailur (2007: 65), “all human beings are ultimately affected by any decision, and because we all have an equal and legitimate interest in a safe and stable life, we should all have equality of opportunity and consideration” (cf. Chambers 1994). Organisations as entities have a moral obligation and responsibility to its stakeholders. This philosophy of management must centre on the idea of voluntarism, which is “not only … consistent with our social fabric, but the cost of other approaches are simply too high” (Freeman 1984: 74).

4.2 The Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder Theory describes a corporation as a system or constellation of cooperative and competitive stakeholder interests possessing intrinsic value to the success or failure of the corporation (Donaldson and Preston 1995). The theory prescribes that each of these interest groups must be considered whenever the corporation intends to make a decision. It believes that corporations that consider stakeholder interests in their decision making, all things being equal, are “relatively successful in conventional performance terms (profitability, stability, growth, among other things) as compared to those that do not involve stakeholders (Donaldson and Preston 1995: 67). The theory hypothesizes that the former will gain competitive advantage over the latter. This is the instrumental aspect of the theory.

Normative stakeholder theory is concerned with stakeholders as an end in themselves (Mellahi and Wood 2003) and is based on the philosophy of voluntarism noted above. The theory can be summarised in prescriptive or normative propositions that constitute what Freeman (1984: 78-80) refers to as “Stakeholder Management Capability”. For Freeman, organisations with high Stakeholder Management Capability

i) Design and implement communication process with multiple stakeholders;

ii) Explicitly negotiate with stakeholders on critical issues and seek voluntary agreements;

iii) Generalise the marketing approach to serve multiple stakeholders and overspend (pay extra attention) on understanding stakeholder needs. They use marketing techniques to segment stakeholders to provide a better understanding of their individual needs and use marketing research tools to understand, viz., the multi-attribute nature of most stakeholder groups;

iv) Integrate boundary spanners (public relations managers) into the dominant coalition to represent stakeholder interests inside the organisation;
v) Are proactive. They anticipate stakeholder concerns and try to influence (respond to) the stakeholder environment;
vi) Allocate resources in a manner consistent with stakeholder concerns; and
vii) Their managers think in “stakeholder-serving” terms.

Freeman (1984) submits that these propositions are practical suggestions that constitute philosophical statements of the stakeholder theory.

The theory emphasises a continuous dialogical communication with stakeholders whenever an organisation intends to, and rolls out a programme. It considers as “managerial failures” situations where a government agency or the courts impose solutions to a stakeholder problem. The theory prescribes organisations to undertake, on their own will, to satisfy their key stakeholders (Freeman, 1984: 74). He posits that this philosophy is “not only … consistent with our social fabric, but the cost of other approaches are simply too high”.

4.2.1 What/Who are Stakeholders?

Simply put, stakeholders are those groups without whose support an organisation would cease to exist. This definition has been criticised for its parochial perception about stakeholders (Lubombo 2011: 110). For Freeman (1984: vi), it limits stakeholders to only those individuals or groups who are always actively involved in the activities of an organisation. He categorises these as ‘key’ stakeholders. His definition of a stakeholder includes any group or individual whose interest can affect, or be affected by the achievement of a corporation’s objectives.

Figure 4.2, on page 36, shows examples of groups and individuals that can affect, or be affected by, the accomplishment of organisational goals. They include employees, customers, suppliers, banks, stockholders, special interest groups, competitors and gatekeepers. Stakeholders of an organisation or initiative can be identified by asking questions such as who will benefit, who may be adversely affected, who may help or hinder, and who may have skills, money or other resources, who decides (Wilcox 1994: 56).

Each of the stakeholders plays a vital role in the success of a business enterprise. Freeman, however notes that this is an oversimplified map of stakeholders for each of the identified groups, for example media, can be broken down into several useful smaller categories.

It is important to note that stakeholders vary from organisation to organisation. Even within one organisation, they may vary according to a specific strategic issue or intervention. This means that different interventions by one organisation can have different stakeholders.
The importance of each class of stakeholder to achieving success in each business is not the same. The power and interest that each stakeholder has on the business goals and objectives varies (Freeman 1984: 112). Thus stakeholders are ranked differently depending on their potential to affect, either positively or negatively any programme or intervention developed (Freeman 1984: 141). In this regard, stakeholders are categorised into “key” and “other”. Those stakeholders “who have high cooperative potential and low competitive threat [are treated] differently from those groups who have low cooperative potential and high competitive threat” (Freeman 1984: 141).

The theory prescribes a strategy for managing stakeholders in any field. The strategy is based on what Freeman (1984:131) calls stakeholder analysis. This stakeholder management strategy is illustrated by Figure 4.3, on page 37, which focuses on each stakeholder’s potential (cooperative potential or competitive threat) to affect the initiative.

Figure 4.3 helps to illustrate different categories of stakeholders and their potential to affect an initiative as well as suggested strategies to handle all the identified stakeholder categories. It offers a visual representation of the generic strategies to deal with the four identified types
of stakeholder groups. The strategy can be adapted to suit any participatory programmes (Lubombo 2011).Bracketed statements in each box point to a strategy of dealing with each category of stakeholders.

Figure 4.3: Generic Stakeholder Strategies

All stakeholders are viewed and categorised in light of their relative “cooperative potential” (CP) or relative “competitive threat” (CT). CP refers to the positive influence or potential, which a particular stakeholder can have on a development programme. Conversely, CT is the potential of a stakeholder to harm or disturb a programme from achieving intended objectives. As shown on Figure 4.3, the potential of each stakeholder can, in these respects be high or low. Each of the boxes on the matrix contains a type of stakeholder categorised on its potential to affect an initiative. The types of stakeholder are swing, defensive, offensive and hold (Freeman, 1984: 139-144).

i) Swing stakeholders: – These are the groups with relatively high CP and relatively high CT. They significantly influence the outcome of a particular situation, thus the suggested strategy to deal with these stakeholders is that development agents must always be prepared to change the already made decisions in order to
accommodate these stakeholders. Thus, unlike the CFPD model, Freeman leaves the door open for accommodation of stakeholder interests at any other stage.

ii) Defensive Stakeholders: – These have relatively low CP and high CT. They can be of relatively little help but can behave in a way that prevents the initiative from achieving its objectives. Examples could be pressure groups, competitors etc. Development agents must employ a defensive strategy in order to deal with such groups. This may include advocacy, negotiation and probably use of influential cooperative stakeholders to motivate the cause.

iii) Offensive Stakeholders: – These have relatively high CP and relatively low CT. Such stakeholders contribute to achieving objectives but pose a small threat. The initiative must take advantage of this and adopt the stakeholder’s position. Development agents have to exploit the stance of these stakeholders for the furtherance of the development programme objectives.

iv) Hold Stakeholders: – Are groups with relatively low CP and relatively low CT and are of little extra help or harm. Their present behaviour may however be quite vital, thus the strategy is such that their current position is maintained.

By analysing CP and CT of each stakeholder, we understand its potential to affect any program that is developed. Those “stakeholders who have high cooperative potential and low competitive threat [must be treated] differently from those groups who have low cooperative potential and high competitive threat” (Freeman 1984: 141).

Stakeholders must therefore be ranked\(^{15}\) according to their potential that can be gauged by identifying who, among stakeholders, could most help achieve the objective or hinder the progress. Working out stakeholder concerns, amount of interest and power and influence over an initiative helps organisations to know how to manage appropriately diverse stakeholders for the accomplishment of set objectives. It is important to note that this stakeholder analysis process is not a once-off event but comprises a continuous process that must be undertaken on regular basis. This is because stakeholder interests, the amount of interest, power and influence over the organisation activity may change at any given time. Organisations or

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\(^{15}\) At the organisational level it is the organisation management that ranks stakeholders. In CFPD context, this study suggests that the catalyst or identified leaders should (with input from the grassroots people) rank stakeholders unless the process is initiated spontaneously within the community and where the process is more natural. Although everyone has the right to participate in any way possible, leadership brings sanity and proper coordination of the initiative.
development agents must always be aware of, and up to date with these changes (Lubombo 2011: 108).

We now have a sense of what stakeholders could be - those who affect or are affected by a project. We also have a sense of why they are important - either because it is morally appropriate to consider them or because they can either positively or negatively influence the project. However, it is prudent at this point to review the counter arguments to the theory as articulated by different critics.

4.3 Critique of the stakeholder theory

Since its formal articulation in 1984, there has been much contention over what kind of entity ‘stakeholder theory’ really is. The theory has been advanced, justified and critiqued from four central aspects identified by Donaldson and Preston (1995) as descriptive, normative, instrumental and managerial. Different critiques treat each of these four aspects as a stand-alone theory. As such, there are claims that it is a convergent of a descriptive stakeholder theory, an instrumental stakeholder theory, a normative stakeholder theory, and a managerial stakeholder theory.

Trevino and Weaver (1994) argue that it is illogical for one theory to be a class of theories. They argue that if subjected to the minimum testable propositions that define scientific theories, stakeholder theory cannot pass the test. Nevertheless, the theory refers to a “substantial body of scholarship which depends on the centrality of the stakeholder idea or framework” (Freeman et al 2010: 63)

However, the debate about two contrasting views of business centred on stockholders (owners) and stakeholders creates a fertile ground for criticism against the stakeholder theory (Freeman et al 2010). The most vociferous critic from this perspective is Milton Friedman who in his (1970) New Times article argued, “The business of business is business”. As such, the notion of organisations having to be responsible to any stakeholder other than the shareholders cannot be viable. He believed that maximising profits and not social responsibility is what makes business successful.

However, this is a narrow view of the stakeholder theory since the theory is also about business and value creation (Freeman et al 2010). As noted earlier in this chapter, for organisations to maximise profits, or create value, they need to satisfy customers’ wants, have solid relationships with suppliers to keep operations on the edge, have inspired employees
who can be company ambassadors and push the company to become better, and to have supportive communities that allow business to flourish.

Another counter stakeholder theorist is Michael Porter (1985) whose view of business is that of struggle for competitiveness. For competitiveness, Porter believes that emphasis must not be on external issues like social responsibility or environmental sustainability (stakeholder theory) but on structure of industry and its conduct (effective/competitive strategy). The argument here is that stakeholder involvement does not entail business success (Mellahi & Wood 2003). However, “external issues like social responsibility or environmental sustainability can lead to advantage, especially if companies find innovative ways to approach these challenges that are better than those of industry rivals” (Freeman et al 2010: 15).

Other arguments advanced relate to the seemingly cumbersome process of addressing dynamic stakeholders who are frequently changing. This poses challenges to organisations who might find it difficult to address changing stakeholder interests. Stakeholders also imply an unlimited constituency of interest, which indicates that there may be just too many parties for an organisation to cater for all their needs (Bailur 2006).

Another argument advanced is the idea of power relations among stakeholders. This relates to the notion of ranking stakeholders according to their power or influence (relative potential). Proponents of this argument feel that this perpetuates existing power relationships among stakeholders, as the strong would be accommodated, the weak ignored, and the status quo emphasised (Mellahi & Wood 2003).

Accommodating the strong and ignoring the weak defeats the whole essence of participation, whose import is empowerment of the marginalised. Although Mellahi and Wood’s interpretation may be true, however, their definition of “strong” and “weak” needs to be clarified if ever one has to draw a fair analysis of the implication of stakeholder ranking in the context of social change initiatives (Lubombo 2011: 117).

Who are the weak, and who are the strong in a social change programme? In stakeholder terms, being marginalised in societal hierarchies does not necessarily imply that one is weak in programmes that directly deal with them (Lubombo 2011: 117). Rather, the opposite is actually true. I agree that, depending on their relative potential to affect the programme, there may be strong and weak stakeholders. Weak in this sense is not negative but simply refers to
those stakeholders who cannot significantly affect the programme in either way, for example Hold Stakeholders in Figure 4.3. The same goes with the strong stakeholders (Lubombo 2011: 117).

What all the critiques of the stakeholder theory are noting and suggesting in the foregoing discussion is actually credible. However, if carefully analysed, one can safely argue that the criticisms levelled against the theory are indeed narrow views of the theory and its propositions.

According to Lubombo (2011), the mention of stakeholder involvement is now prevalent in development communication literature. However, it is not clear whether its inclusion in this discourse conjures its theoretical underpinnings or else it is just a result of idea transfer. What is apparent in the literature, however, is that there is neither explicit mention of ‘stakeholder theory’ nor its explicit application in participatory programmes. In the following chapter, I discuss participation as applied by OneVoice South Africa (OVSA), The Valley Trust (TVT) and Drama for Aids Education (DramAidE), the three development agents constituting the case study on which this dissertation is based. Particular attention is given to the participation process that these organisations have adopted and the reasons proffered as justifications for such strategies or methodologies.
Chapter Five: Participation as Applied by Three Development Agents

5.1 Application of Participation in Development Programmes
Chapter 3 discussed certain problems of conceptualisation and application of the concept of participation. Reviewed literature cited evidence of stakeholder language in which stakeholder integration is posited as an invaluable strategy for the successful development and implementation of social change initiatives. This evidence made necessary a subsequent review of the stakeholder theory (Chapter 4) in light of the overall objective of the study. Using information obtained from the interviewed participants as well as the literature studied, this chapter presents how the three studied organisations, OneVoice South Africa (OVSA), The Valley Trust (TVT) and Drama for Aids Education (DramAidE) integrate the community or its key stakeholder interests in the execution of their respective programmes. The chapter establishes a basis for the analysis of participation from a stakeholder theory perspective.

5.1.1 OneVoice South Africa: Promoting meaningful participation of young people
OVSA declares on its website that it conducts a Schools Programme (SP), which is a participatory education programme involving Grade 8 learners in certain secondary schools across KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Western Cape Provinces. It provides learners, in a classroom situation, “with a platform to discuss and address HIV and AIDS, life skills, sexual reproductive health, gender and human rights issues”\(^{17}\). As with almost any other community project, the Schools Programme has different stakeholders with certain interests to the programme.

Summarising the stakeholders’ interests and activities in the programme, Vezi said

The Department’s interest is to see OneVoice changing lives of young people in their communities and adding value to the Department’s goals and objectives especially in the subject called Life Orientation. The schools interest is to have young people who are equipped with skills and knowledge that will inspire their behaviour change. Learners have the primary interest as they are directly involved, theirs is to learn about social issues, be informed, be equipped and be given a chance to implement what they have learned. Other NGOs and other government departments their interest

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\(^{16}\) This whole section is extensively drawn from my published work, Lubombo (2011: 101-118).

\(^{17}\) www.onevoice.org.za
is to see an HIV free generation and to see young people knowledgeable and be able to change their lives and other peoples (Vezi 2010).

Figure 5.1 shows some key stakeholders of the Schools Programme. The SP Manager, Ms Ntonto Vezi confided that even though stakeholders and their interests may be diverse, their roles “create a momentum and passion to work together to achieve the same goal” (Vezi 2010)\(^\text{18}\)

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure51.png}
\caption{The Schools Programme and its Key Stakeholders (Lubombo 2011: 111)}
\end{figure}

I have modified the shape of the above diagram from the original one for semiotic reasons, which I discuss in the next section with illustrations of quotations from the participants.

In line with the fundamental principles of participation, namely: dialogue and collective action, the SP stakeholders “participate in the stakeholders meetings that…take place twice a year where they get involved in the planning of the Programme at the beginning of the year and at the end of the year, where evaluation is conducted (Mbatha 2010)\(^\text{19}\)

It is at this initial stage of the programme when the community/stakeholders engage in dialogue in order to clarify perceptions, express individual and shared interests and map the vision of the future. This normative is stipulated by the communication for participatory development (CFPD) model discussed in the previous chapter. As pointed by the SP

\(^{18}\)Reference to the SP Manager is based on the email interviews I conducted with her on 20 October 2010. The interview transcript is annexed as Appendix E.

\(^{19}\)Nontobeko Mbatha is the SP Officer. Reference to her is based on the email interviews I conducted with her on 20 October 2010. The interview transcript is annexed as Appendix F.
Manager, “stakeholders meetings [are] our forum or platform to address … and define stakeholder roles and responsibilities and have an ongoing monitoring and communication so that everyone is met at their level”. As noted earlier, each stakeholder is responsible for a specific complementary role meant to achieve the ultimate goal of the programme. The CFPD model prescribes that assignment of responsibilities is the first activity towards collective.

According to Vezi, the SP stakeholder responsibilities are as follows:

The Department of Education is part of the initial stage where we identify schools through them; they sign a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) for us to continue working in those particular schools. They also assist through subject advisors in the curriculum development by giving us their outcomes for a particular year. They partake in Stakeholders meetings. Principals and Teachers sign a school based MOU and allow time for the programme to be implemented. They also look after our Facilitators when they come to their schools to make sure they have a class, learners are ready and sign our documents and stamp them. Learners are involved in the testing of the curriculum. Only in 2010, we established a board of young people in the Eastern Cape as a pilot (Youth Advisory Board) who will be informing us about the content of the curriculum, games and activities they think are appropriate for learners.

Other NGOs and government departments assist in capacity building and for referrals (Vezi 2010).

Figure 5.1 includes parents in the web of key stakeholders. I have included them because they are in most cases care givers to the learners who are at the centre of the SP. Beside this very important role, family is one of the primary institutions of socialisation and influential source of education. As such, parents are an integral element in the SP and their involvement in it both reinforces the knowledge learners acquire from the SP, and sustains the programme’s overall objective.

However, in the list provided by both the SP Manager and Project Officer, parents are invisible though the Project Officer did admit that “we get some parent representation from the School Governing Body” (Mbatha 2010). The SP Manager admitted this fact and acknowledged that parents/caregivers at community level were the other stakeholders not specifically involved in the programme (Vezi 21010). She also recognised the effects their exclusion would have on the programme:
It affects sustainability and ongoing support for learners especially who come informed from school and fail to apply what they have learned at home because their parents/caregivers don’t know what they are talking about or they don’t agree with what they (children) are being taught in terms of their (parents) own values (Vezi 2010).

It is however, not the principle of the SP programme to leave out these and other stakeholders but it is because of other factors and challenges. Vezi acknowledged that parents and caregivers should ideally be included, but “realistically speaking it does not happen as everyone is busy with their own jobs and other commitments”. The stakeholder theory acknowledges that not every stakeholder is always key and that it is not always possible to involve everyone. The stakeholder management strategy (Figure 4.3) is a tool to identify, involve and manage relevant stakeholders.

OVSA acknowledges the necessity of involving stakeholders in the SP. Affirming this conviction, OVSA Managing Director, Dr Josianne Roma-Reardon (2010)\(^\text{20}\) agrees that

> It is important to involve stakeholders at all levels of planning and implementation because all have different views and perspectives on the work you are trying to achieve. Although not always feasible to include them, one must try as much as possible to invite them and keep them informed about your work. At OneVoice, we try to involve all our stakeholders at some point in the programme implementation, and going forward we feel we would like to include them more, so that their different views and perspectives are included in our work. Also, it is necessary to involve them, because it gives us more credibility and transparency when we report on the progress of our work (Roma-Reardon 2010).

Beside the positive impact that Roma-Reardon points out, conflict is inevitable in the stakeholder integration process, and if this is not resolved, it can jeopardise the process and render the initiative unsuccessful. If conflict arises, there is bound to be non-cooperation between conflicting stakeholders and this hinders progress. For the SP, diverse stakeholder interests are, however, not necessarily disruptive but are actually essential as they, according to Vezi (2010), create a momentum and passion among stakeholders to work together to achieve the same goal. However, Vezi (2010) revealed that the SP

\(^{20}\) Reference to the SP Managing Director is based on the email interviews I conducted with Josianne Roma-Reardon on 20 October 2010. The interview transcript is annexed as Appendix D.
Hardly had conflict of interest, but whatever challenges we have regarding the programme, [it] is addressed in our stakeholders meetings where we discuss the content of the programme and roles and responsibilities. Should we encounter such along the way, we always maintain the good relationships with our schools and other stakeholders to keep them informed via mini meetings, telephone calls, emails and newsletter (Vezi 2010).

Apart from conflict, there is always the risk of who has overall control of the process especially when the project stimulus is external; that is, if non-resident stakeholders are involved (Hawtin & Percy-Smith, 2007: 40). In separate interviews, both Vezi (2010) and Mbathe (2010) expressed that conflicting interests were evident in the programme especially in its interaction with the funders who

Have used their financial muscle to dictate to OneVoice what to do, when and how. This has affected the way the organisation may have wanted to apply participation....

The Youth Advisory Board (YAB) idea has ever been there but the funders direct funds towards what they want. Unfortunately, this area (the Monitoring & Evaluation by YAB) has not been funded...Funders are very specific and we do not have much of a choice but to stick to their specifications. For example, we have designed a programme for grade nines, but it is not yet funded. Once we get funding, it will be up and running (Lubombo 2011: 114).

In order to address the above problem, Hawtin and Percy-Smith (2007: 41) suggest that there is need to develop a strategy of involving stakeholders that is informed by a consistent set of values and principles.

There may be costs associated with the stakeholder involvement process. However, costs to the project can be even greater if stakeholders take action against it (Hund et al., 2001a: 2) Listening to, and being aware of stakeholder concerns is an ingredient for healthy projects and is time and money well spent (Hund et al., 2001; Lawry, 2008). For Hund et al (2001: 2), stakeholders can be seen as consultants to an initiative as their ideas and suggestions can often be insightful and useful in its planning and implementation. Vezi (2010) alluded to this fact when she said:

It is necessary to include the stakeholders in almost every process especially the planning stage so that we get everyone’s views and check whether we are on line and even after that evaluation process, we need to involve them to see whether we
achieved our goals together. These days with so many programmes taking place, it is paramount to have an integrated approach to avoid re-inventing wheels and confusion (Vezi 2010).

The CFPD model (see Chapter 4) posits that if each of the several steps that constitute community dialogue and collective action is successfully completed, the following outcomes will be realised and strengthened among the community members. These are: (a) leadership; (b) degree and equity of participation; (c) information equity; (d) collective self-efficacy; (e) sense of ownership; (f) social cohesion; and (g) social norms. Indeed, in a previous study on the SP conduct with learners cited in (Lubombo 2011), the learners expressed that they have a sense of ownership of the SP. One learner explained, “The facilitator did not dictate to us on what project to do. They just come up with the idea but the creativeness is ours….Yes, we feel it is our programme” (Lubombo 2011: 115).

The learner’s statement is indicative to the fact that learners have a sense of ownership of the SP. Ownership is one of the benefits of participation. Stakeholder involvement thus enhances project, and indeed community sustainability. When stakeholders are convinced that they own a programme, its sustainability is guaranteed. The reflection by learners resonates with Hawtin & Percy-Smith’s (2007: 41) contention that cooperation among stakeholders empowers communities to develop independence and autonomy whilst making and maintaining links to the wider society.

Learners also developed life skills that enable them to deal with social development challenges. One learner said, “We now know about human rights, sexuality, and HIV and AIDS” (Lubombo 2011: 115). Another learner went on to explain how he warned his neighbour at home from risk behaviour when he heard him planning to indulge in sex with a stranger. This indicates that learners have been empowered to make decisions about healthy living in the wider society. They are now conscious, have self-efficacy and can participate in the sustenance of social norms.

The above are some of the outcomes of collective action and the avowed goals of the SP. From what all the participants said, it is evident that OVSA values the notion of stakeholder engagement and it involves different stakeholders in order to sustain the SP. The programme uses participation both as a means and as an end to empowerment.
5.1.2 The Valley Trust (TVT): Providing unique responses to unique situations

Unlike OVSA, which has a single programme, the work of TVT is spread over six different but integrated programmes or interventions. According to the TVT Monitoring and Evaluation Manager, Mr. Clive Bruzas (2010), the programmes are HIV and AIDS Programme, the Integrated Schools Community Development Programme, the Izingane Zethu Interventions, Self Help Group Programmes, Social Plant Use Programme and the Umndeni Care Programme (Bruzas 2010). All the six programmes, he revealed, are based on themes that deal with health, human rights, and power issues.

According to its 2009 Annual Report, TVT uses a holistic and people-centred approach which “opens up possibilities for conversation” in the complex contexts which surround these interventions (TVT 2009:10). It thus “design[s] and engage[s] in integrated processes with people, aimed at bringing about developmental change at individual, organisational, and whole systems levels” (TVT 2009: 10).

According to the subsequent report, TVT

Sees action for change as emerging from a visioning process which is undertaken in partnership with our clients [which facilitates] people to initiate and sustain their own developmental change processes, by designing and engaging in integrated processes with [them]. This process requires stakeholder conversations (TVT 2010: 5).

Reiterating this position, TVT Executive Director, Mr. Tuki Maseatile (2010) stressed, “For any programme that we want to embark on, we engage people in conversations to find what people want”.

Both Maseatile (2010) and Bruzas (2010) reaffirmed assertions contained in the TVT report that conversations are always an important part of TVT work especially in trying to map “both visions for the future and current realities” (TVT 2010: 8-9). As already noted in the previous section and in chapter two, reflective action or dialogue is a guiding principle of participation. For TVT,

The idea of reflective conversation is critical to our approach, and this includes reflecting on who we are as individual [stakeholders], what our individual roles and

21 Reference to Clive Bruzas is based on an interview I had with him on 23 September 2010. Its transcript is annexed as Appendix H.
22Reference to Tuki Maseatile is based on an interview I had with him on 28 October 2010. Its transcript is annexed as Appendix G
responsibilities as individuals, what our individual roles and responsibilities are in relation to others and what intention we can establish for ourselves to become more effective (TVT 2010: 8-9).

Although the CFPD model stipulates that stakeholders must converse at the initial stage of the programme in order to clarify perceptions, express individual and shared interests as well as map the vision of the future, (Kincaid and Figueroa, 2009), at TVT stakeholder conversations are not a once-off process as they continue as long as the programme is in existence. From TVT’s experience, “the [continuous] engagement process has confirmed that building relationships and establishing trust is the foundation of health and development work” (TVT 2010: 9).

As Maseatile (2010) elucidates, TVT works in various parts of KwaZulu-Natal province “where we have different programmes aimed at achieving one goal. We work with communities in the Valley and our projects are called community projects” (Maseatile 2010). He goes on to point out that the projects are people-centred or client-driven. “We call them [communities] clients for the simple reason that they are the direct beneficiaries of the programmes”. However,

We can also call them stakeholders even though our definition of stakeholders is wider. We define stakeholders as people who have got interest in our programmes, for example Department of Health and Department of Education who are custodians of these programmes....Anybody who got interest, we call those stakeholders (Maseatile 2010).23

The TVT stakeholder map, (Figure 5.2) is more or less the same as that of OVSA save for the fact that the organisations operate in different localities. Maseatile, in his introductory remarks to the TVT 2009 annual report, highlights some of these stakeholders by acknowledging that

It is more pleasing to know that this brief report will be read by members of the communities that The Valley Trust works with. These are the funders who support us through financial and technical resources, our social development partners, and

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23 It is interesting to note how, without reference to the stakeholder theory, TVT defines stakeholders. This aspect is addressed in the next chapter
government departments as well as other parties that have interest in social development and the work of nongovernmental organisations (TVT 2009: 5).

The above statement by the Executive Director significantly indicates that TVT involves or integrates different stakeholders in the execution of its programmes, even though there may be other stakeholders left out.

Figure 5.2 shows the TVT programmes’ key stakeholders. These are communities/clients, local authorities, government departments, donors and other Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs).

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**Figure 5.2: TVT programmes key stakeholders (Adapted from Lubombo 2011: 111)**

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Since TVT has many programmes, it may not be possible to outline all the stakeholders in this work. As such, only key stakeholders are discussed. Nevertheless, identified key stakeholders may be further categorised into specific groups, individuals or units other than the above listed broader identities. For example, government departments can be further split into Department of Education and Department of Health, which are directly involved in TVT programmes.

As Maseatile (2010) points out, communities as stakeholders refer to the direct beneficiaries of the programme. TVT also call them clients. This group of stakeholders, as with the rest, is a broader category that can be further split into sub or specific stakeholders. The semiotics of
the diagrams attests to this. The iconic ‘exploding’ shapes in which I mark the stakeholders (Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.4) represent that the marked stakeholder group can be further divided.

I have also marked the development programmes on what appears to be a malleable cloud shape signalling what I want to call programmes’ pliability to stakeholder interests. Just like how clouds easily change shapes due to pressures, it is discernible that development programmes are mouldable and can be reshaped to align to stakeholder interests.

Although it may be important to mention specific stakeholders especially for the purposes of stakeholder profiling and analysis, the significance of their mention in this dissertation is marginal. The present objective is to find out if the organisations integrate stakeholder interests in their programmes. For this reason, segregating stakeholder groups to their minute possible unit is not that important.

What is significant however is to reiterate (as discussed in the previous chapter) that stakeholders switch roles and therefore their level of influence does not remain constant. This notion is evident in the way TVT integrates its stakeholders. Maseatile (2010) acknowledges that any of its stakeholders can become its clients at some point in time. For example,

They [department of Education and Department of Health] become clients when we train them. Parents become stakeholders because they have got interest. They can also become clients because we train School Governance Bodies (SGBs) which are made of parents (Maseatile 2010).

The above statement is an affirmation of the evolving nature of stakeholder roles. I intimated earlier in this section how identical TVT’s definition of stakeholders is to that of the stakeholder theory. It is interesting as well to note how the above realisation by TVT on the revolving nature of stakeholder roles and influence can be conjoined to, or located within the same theory. I elaborate this argument in the next chapter.

TVT thus understands participation as involving all the interested players in its projects. Elucidating TVT’s position regarding stakeholder integration, Maseatile (2010) revealed that

TVT learnt a long time ago that things that are imposed on people don’t last, and they don’t bring real change. Real change happens when people actually realise that this is what they want and that they are part of it. They will own it … We have learnt that where we do things for people, when we leave those things don’t mean anything to
them. But if people tell us what they want, they are prepared to work for it whether we are there or not (Maseatile 2010).

It is in this context that all individuals or community groups for whom TVT projects are intended to benefit are not regarded as “beneficiaries of someone else’s provision of resources and actions, but as [important] actors in, and co-creators of their [development]” (Maseatile 2010, TVT 2009. 10). The role of TVT is only to provide support to these communities in acting out their responsibility to bring about the change that they desire.

Explaining the way his organisation executes its programmes, Maseatile stresses that TVT believes that it does not bring change but communities are responsible for their own development.

The view that we hold as an organisation is that we don’t bring change. Change will take place whether we like it or not and whether we are there or not, it will take place. The only difference when we are there is that we can enable people to understand change and also we can enable them to participate in that change and have an influence on that change (Maseatile 2010).

As the Programme Implementation Manager Stephen Shisanya (2011)²⁴ points out, TVT ensures that all those target groups are included as participants in the programme implementation. Even prior to the implementation, there is an initial engagement with the community for them to input into the planning for the implementation. This process, he said, is meant to ensure that stakeholders’ interests are integrated into the programme. Maseatile (2010) explains this process and reasons thereof in a more succinct way.

In the old way of working, decision makers in the community, for example chiefs, would always be excluded. These are not only influential people but also immortal gatekeepers. Therefore, if you say you are going to develop people in an area where there is a chief and the chief do not even know, then how do you expect development to take place. Therefore, we have political leaders, municipal ward members (councillors) who are legally mandated by the provincial legislation with the responsibility to develop their areas. How then do you do development in an area while excluding the very people mandated to do so? (Maseatile 2010).

²⁴Reference to Stephen Shisanya is based on an interview I had with him on 29 July 2011. Its transcript is annexed as Appendix I.
According to Shisanya, the fact that TVT steps in to facilitate dialogue ensures that stakeholders’ interests are brought out. “Remember we enable people to do it themselves! We don’t do it for the community” (Shisanya 2011).

The facilitation role of TVT is illustrated in Figure 5.3. As shown on the diagram, the marginalised communities have a desire to move, transform or develop from their “current reality” to a “preferred reality”. The community (clients) are responsible for that transformation or change, not TVT. “They are the ones who make it happen. Ours is to help them, work with them to understand and play their cards differently to make it happen” (Maseatile 2010).

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**Figure 5.3: Roles, Responsibilities and Relationships in Client-Centred Development Practice.**

As shown on Figure 5.3, TVT’s role in this process is to facilitate transformation by supporting client implementation of action for change. This is done through conversations or dialogue and is based on the organisation’s belief that all people have choices and that best results are achieved through synergy.

It is through these conversations or stakeholder engagement process that needs are identified that trigger a new intervention in the communities. “The whole process of community entry and ensuring total buy-in of the community has to be adhered to” (Shisanya 2011). He goes on to say, “In most cases we go through community gatekeepers who may be elders or ‘Indunas’ (Chiefs) as advised by the community. With basic initial data, intervention plans are drawn in consultation with the community members” (Shisanya 2011).
The dialogue process entails identification of leaders and stakeholders, assignment of roles and responsibilities, timeframes among other things (Kincaid and Figueroa 2009). Similarly, Shisanya states that at TVT

Plans are drawn in such a way that it is known what activities are to be carried out on monthly basis with the accompanying budget. The plan shows in detail who, from TVT will be involved in the activity, who in the community are targeted by the activity and their numbers (Shisanya 2011).

Through facilitation, supportive training and partnership, TVT engages with people in integrated processes designed to bring about developmental change at the individual, organisational and whole systems levels.

As with the OVSA Schools Programme, TVT has the Department of Education (DoE), and Department of Health (DoH) as its key stakeholders. Their roles are mainly regulatory. Expressing the role and involvement of the department of education in the programmes conducted by the three case study organisations in schools, the DoE representative, Ms Thobile Sifunda (2010)\(^{25}\) intimated that

Schools are very sensitive. You can’t get there as a stranger without a mandate. We have a line function ... These organisations cannot be there without our involvement. For them to get to schools we will have to facilitate that. We write circulars announcing them, get to meetings where we introduce them to the district (Sifunda 2010).

The above statement encapsulates the department’s interest as a key stakeholder in the work of these organisations. It also shows the import of its involvement in the work of the organisations. Illustrating this point, Sifunda (2010) highlights the backlash of excluding DoE in such programmes

If you are to come from the outside and start demanding things or wanting to do things for them, then chances are that you are not going to get their cooperation. Even if you did, unless you only wanted to work just with one school, and the Principal agrees to it, you would still have a problem because you can’t sustain the programme because the custodians of your programme are people like us, so it will be a dead

\(^{25}\)Based on the interview with the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Manager, Special Needs Education Services held on 25 October 2010 in Pietermaritzburg.
start. You would have your way with the principal, if he allows you, but then what happens to your programme. Who is going to sustain it, how are you going to make it come alive, how are you going to ensure that it gets aligned to the departmental programmes and that indeed it lives on beyond you or the input from your organisation. So we would need to be involved from the word go (Sifunda 2010).

The above stakeholder sentiments show how legitimate the DoE’s interests in these organisations are. In actual fact, the sentiments reveal how inalienable the Department’s interests are, and attest to the fact entrenched in the original definition of stakeholders as “those groups without whose support the organisation would cease to exist” (Freeman et al 2010: 31)

Explaining her department’s gate keeping role in the programmes, Sifunda (2010) reveals that the department enters into partnerships with these organisations, but before they do so, they subject the proposed programmes to their test to see if the programmes align with the government’s objectives.

We screen their programme for quality to make sure that whatever that they will be doing will be enhancing the goals and objectives of our programmes because we don’t want them really to implement things that are out of line....Once we have subjected their programmes to our test, depending on how it fares, then we establish partnerships with the various organisations and those partnerships will be formal. We enter into a Memorandum of Understanding where we spell out the terms of our engagement (Sifunda 2010).

However, this process is not always easy as the organisations have their own interests. Finding each other is always difficult and, as indicated in the CFPD model, requires dialogue with relevant players. To ensure sustainability of the programmes, Sifunda (2010) admits that

We negotiate right from the beginning when they come and approach us. Of course they say we have got this proposal. We look at the proposal and we present to them where government is in light of the proposed aspects. Now we look at how we can align what [they] have got to where we are so that we can actually incorporate what you are doing to government programmes and guarantee some sustainability (Sifunda 2010).
In as much as negotiations may result in compromises from parties and sometimes consensus, the department of education seem to have unbridled and overriding decision powers as the custodians of these partnerships. As Sifunda (2010) puts it, nongovernmental organisations must “align with the government or perish” (Sifunda 2010).

Another key stakeholder worth mentioning are donors whose role is mainly provision of funding. As Maseatile (2010) says, TVT ensures that its funders are involved in the whole process of their programmes, not as mere funders but as partners to the programmes.

   We make sure that our donors become part and parcel of the whole process, we partner with them. We say, you give us money, but come along. When we go out to our projects we invite our donors to come along (Maseatile 2010).

However, as usual with donor agencies, and as evidenced in the previous organisation, donors seem to wield a lot of power due to their financial muscle to dictate to organisations which they fund - what, when and how to do26. This creates a challenge, especially considering that there are other stakeholders’ interests to be considered.

   Donors seem to be most significant stakeholder and they wield a lot of power purely because they are the ones who can give or even take away the money. They determine how long the program can run. It becomes a challenge where the donors’ interests are opposed or different from what we think has to happen. In some instances we take a month to negotiate with them, to say look we think what we want is this but if we work that way, we will not achieve that objective (Maseatile 21010).

Unequal power relations compound different stakeholders’ interests in generating conflict and contention over who has overall control of the project. This results in a widely acknowledged challenge posed by dialogue when it comes to time. Too much time is spent negotiating, posing impediments to actual development efforts. This remains a daunting task of development agents which requires an efficient strategy to manage.

Over and above the issues TVT has with donors, it also has similar problems with government departments in terms of quantitative objectives:

   If you are working with the Department of Health, the national DoH says we want so many numbers of circumcisions in KZN in three months; that is their interest.

26 I noted in chapter one that this study lacks input from donors.
Whether in the process there is damage or not, that is not their interest. So in situations like that, if we are involved we then say, how do we make sure that we still achieve the target of our numbers while at the same time people learn? You don’t have to give people the impression that if you get circumcised you don’t get HIV anymore (Maseatile 2010).

It is a given that in any community there will be differential power relations as different stakeholders of a specific project wield different levels of power, and have different objectives. However, Shisanya (2011) states that at TVT

Our approach is to appreciate the differences and utilise the strengths in the differing poles for the advantage of the programme. Again here it is reminded that we are facilitators with the objective of ensuring that even the weakest have their input in the programme (Shisanya 2011)

Shisanya stresses that stakeholders are defined and categorised in light of their ability to affect the implementation of the programme. Thus, power and leadership “are the characteristics that determine a stakeholder's ability to affect or block the programme implementation, these two characteristics are the basis for the first importance analysis”. This is where, as the CFPD model suggests, assignment of roles and responsibilities suffices. The critical questions for TVT in this regard include but are not limited to:

i) Who are the most important stakeholders (from a power and leadership analysis)?
ii) What is the stakeholders' knowledge of the policy?
iii) What are the stakeholders' positions on the specific programme to be implemented?
iv) What do the stakeholders see as possible advantages or disadvantages of the Programme to be implemented?
v) Which stakeholders might form alliances? (Shisanya 2011).

Stakeholder participation is critical because without their cooperation, there may be no sustainability of the programme. TVT thus facilitates stakeholder ownership of the programmes. As Bruzas (2010) puts it, “we need to understand clients’ desired reality. Ideally at the initiation of any programme, we would spend much as needed building relationships, developing trust.” In its effort to provide unique responses to unique situations, TVT thus juggles between “a very open process such as this where we say to people, what is your desired reality or vision? What do you like this community to be in the next 5 years?” (Bruzas 2010). The process, as shown before, involves extensive stakeholder engagement.
5.1.3 DramAidE: Interactive communication for Development

As with OVSA and TVT, Drama in AIDS Education (DramAidE) uses participatory methodologies such as performing arts as an enterprise to communicate public health messages. As the name indicates, DramAidE uses drama and other action media like poetry, dance, music, painting to “facilitate critical awareness, provide information, and develop the skills to build a social movement towards an education that acknowledges the right to health and well being for everyone”27.

The DramAidE website declares that through the use of drama, DramAidE provides training in schools and local communities, tertiary institutions, non-profit organisations and the private sector in the areas of HIV/AIDS, life skills, health promotion, and human rights among other social development challenges where participants assume the responsibility for their own development and are viewed as agents of change. This approach by DramAidE can be located within constructivism which accounts for the approaches that use theatre as effective strategies for involving individuals in development activities (Dervin and Huesca1999: 192. See chapter 3).

According to the website, the DramAidE methodology “takes communication a step further by facilitating a participatory process whereby its participants are challenged to question their beliefs and negotiate new meaning for themselves and the world around them”. As the above statement indicates, DramAidE understands participation as a process that enables communities to take part in their own development. The organisation operates within the CFPD model or framework in the sense that it also views participation as involving other stakeholders and works in partnership with other important players that constitute its external stakeholder environment.

Operating as a unit attached to the University of Zululand, and also as an affiliate to The Centre for Communication, Media and Society at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, DramAidE, in partnership with other organisations is involved in several projects whose focus is primarily around HIV/AIDS prevention. The projects include among others; Scrutinize campaign, Brothers for Life campaign, Health Promoters Project, Caring Communities Project, Faith Based Organisations, and Act Alive.

27 www.dramaide.co.za
As Keyan Tomaselli (2011)\textsuperscript{28} (as chairperson of the DramAidE Board) says, the organisation’s work is guided by a board whose representatives are committed to the organisations’ vision and work. The board is comprised of donor and contracting bodies (government departments), experts in the field, provincial agencies and participating university representatives. Its duty is to “mainly offer advice on policy, governance, strategy, fundraising and facilitates access to contractors like the Department of Education” (Tomaselli 2011). Indeed the structure of the board is representative of the key stakeholders whose cooperation is key to the success and sustenance of all the DramAidE projects. Affirming this view, the DramAidE Director, Mkonzeni Gumede (2011)\textsuperscript{29} said the organisation “attempted to have a board of trustees that is representative of our work”, Figure 5.4, on page 60, shows these stakeholders.

As indicated in its 2010 annual report, DramAidE appreciates the importance of stakeholder integration in its programmes as evidenced by the following lessons drawn from four of its projects, namely: Health Promoters, Faith Based Organisations, Orphaned and Vulnerable Children and Youth Against Violence – ‘Just Don’t’ projects. For the Health Promoters project, one of the key lessons was that “it’s crucial that all University stakeholders are involved in the project to avoid hindrances to [the] programme” (DramAidE 2010:4; cf. Botha & Durden 2004). The Faith Based Organisations project also learnt that:

It is important to network with other organisations doing similar work in the area, because this helps to strengthen the implementation of the project. [Community Forums] were able to network and establish partnerships with many organisations and government departments (DramAidE 2010:7).

The same goes for the Orphaned and Vulnerable Children project that learnt that “[t]he partnership with Community Based Organisations was very important because resources were shared and activities were achieved by working together” (DramAidE 2010:8). The Youth Against Violence – ‘Just Don’t’ project learnt that “community participation is vital for any development to occur” and that “it is [also] important to work closely with [other] stakeholders for sustainability purposes and for the benefit of target audiences” (DramAidE 2010:14).

\textsuperscript{28} Reference to the Board Chairperson is based on my email interview with Keyan Tomaselli on July 5, 2011 in Durban. The transcript is annexed as Appendix M.

\textsuperscript{29} Reference to the Director is also based on my one on one interview with Mkonzeni Gumede on July 15, 2011 in Durban. The interview transcript is annexed as Appendix J.
Thus, as the DramAidE facilitator, Ms Zama Mbambo (2011) says, in all its programmes DramAidE:

Conducts meetings with different stakeholders like municipality, Department of Health..., Department of Social Development, of Education, and then we [tell] them...the programme areas that we focus on, and then they chose that we would like you to help us on this and this and this (Mbambo 2011)\(^{30}\)

Figure 5.4 shows broad categories of DramAidE’s key stakeholders.

\[\text{Figure 5.4: DramAidE Programmes key stakeholders (Adapted from Lubombo 2011: 111)}\]

It is through stakeholder meetings that gatekeepers are engaged and memoranda of agreement are signed. Working with stakeholders, as noted above, brings about sustainability of a programme. It also promotes harmony and cohesion among development agents and communities within which these projects take place.

Cooperation with other non-governmental organisations doing similar work is thus not only compelling for DramAidE but quite inescapable particularly because:

We do not want to work as an island, I mean you find that we do something only to find out that other organisations are already providing it, so there is going to be that

\(^{30}\) Remarks by Zama Mbambo, the DramAidE Facilitator are drawn from an in-depth interview which I had with her on July 6, 2011 in Durban. The transcript is annexed as Appendix L.
redundancy if I may put it like that. The best thing is to have meetings with them first.
... So the meetings first, the stakeholders meetings help in the sense that you get to know what the other person is doing (Mbambo 2011).

Stakeholder dialogue is so compelling for DramAidE in that it facilitates cooperation with other development agents working in the same communities so that the efforts complement each other for the collective achievement of development in these communities.

In all the projects that DramAidE is doing, it offers training in areas agreed upon among the partners. As the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Officer Ms Karen Peters (2011)31 points out, the organisation finds its relevance through liaising with partner agents to find out what their training needs are:

We contact our partner institutions and organisations and say to them we would like to offer you peer education training and we have these program areas; what do you think your peer educators would need? (Peters 2011).

Identification of leaders of particular projects, clarification of perceptions, as well as expression of individual and shared interests take place at this stage. This is also when relationships are built, terms of reference drawn, and the sharing of duties and responsibilities takes place.

DramAidE offers training to identified participants that may include members of partner organisations or community members among other groups. It develops a curriculum that outlines the content of the training sessions or workshops (Peters 2011). During their training, DramAidE facilitators use methods that encourage participation among the participants. “And because we are based in drama methodology, the participation becomes more like drama techniques” (Peters 2011).

The organisation does not have a real system that they use to identify relevant stakeholders but it relies on mutual relationships it has built over the years with the communities where it operates.

We work in districts so...we have to learn about all the community organisations and other NGOs that are working or operating in the ETHekwini District so we do meet

31 Remarks by the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Officer are drawn from an indepth interview which I had with the official on June 17, 2011 in Durban. The transcript is annexed as Appendix K.
them along the way and they become part of the program. In addition, we meet up with other stakeholders through other stakeholders so the department of education [for example] will say there is an organisation called Help to Educate, it may be good for you to work with them. We then meet with them and discuss how we can better each other’s programs (Peters 2011).

The above depicts DramAidE programmes as wholly inclusive and quite participatory, as is confirmed by the following evaluations of DramAidE’s education philosophy, and its programmes (cf. Botha 2009; Botha and Durden 2004; Ndhura 2004; Tomaselli 2011; Bourgault 2003).

Like TVT and OVSA, DramAidE is also aware of the cost that comes with leaving out key stakeholders.

Our programmes, for example the Health Promoters, speak to health, and it is conducted in universities. If we do not speak to the authorities thereof, and if they do not know them, the health promoters will not be accepted (Gumedde 2011).

The same sentiments were echoed by Peters (2011), who noted the integral role of traditional leadership as gate keepers.

You have to get buy-in through them to work in their community, as a lot of them do not sit on government bodies ... So if you do not have that buy-in, your campaign, or your training or whatever you are planning in that community can barely fall flat. You would have got permission from the government but they (traditional leaders) will say no this is my land you cannot do anything (Peters 2011).

One can conclude from the above sentiments that excluding some stakeholders at any level of the project can affect the development and implementation of development projects. For example, “as the key donor, JHHESA’s participation [in the board of directors] is crucial [although] not all donors or contractors are on the board” (Tomaselli 2011).

However, unlike OVSA that acknowledges the need to include learners’ representatives on its board, learners are not that important to be included on the DramAidE board although they a one of its key stakeholders.
I do not think learners that we work with are key stakeholders because our projects are research based. However, I feel that we have left one important stakeholder, which is business (Gumede 2011).

It is also important to note that neither OVSA nor TVT indicated business as their key stakeholders. Viewing this against OVSA and DramAidE’s opposing views regarding the position of learners as stakeholders, it shows that it is necessary to continuously assess the relevance of stakeholders in light of their cooperative or competitive potential to the development efforts (cf. Chapter 4). OVSA and DramAidE must therefore learn to be always on the lookout for potential stakeholders who they may have not included at the beginning of their programmes, and reassess the threat or opportunities posed by all the stakeholders currently involved.

In light of all the foregoing, is it possible therefore to interpret the way OVSA, TVT and DramAidE conduct their programmes in the context of the stakeholder theory? If so, to what extent does the theory shed light on the concept of participatory development communication? How valid are its normative and descriptive tenets to the participation process? These are some of the questions that the next chapter sets off to addresses.
Chapter Six: Applying Stakeholder Theory to the Analysis of Participatory Development Programmes

6.1 Participatory development through the Stakeholder Theory Lenses
The previous chapters comprehensively reviewed development communication literature, elaborating on the nature as well as the process of participation. In juxtaposition to this, the stakeholder theory was reviewed, highlighting its key tenants as well as its critique. The previous chapter showed how three different development agents apply participation in the execution of their respective programmes. This chapter analyses the participation process in light of the normative and descriptive tenets of stakeholder theory. The aim is to provide answers to the research questions spelt out in the first chapter as a way of examining possibilities of applying stakeholder theory in the development, implementation and management of participatory development programmes. The benefits of stakeholder engagement processes outlined by the communication for participatory development (CFPD) model leads to the inclusion, in this discussion, of the instrumental relevance of stakeholder theory in the participation process.

6.2 Situating the CFPD model within Stakeholder Theory
Participation as epitomised by the CFPD model can be located within the stakeholder theory framework. The proponents of the model (Figueroa and Kincaid 2009) note that it is both prescriptive (normative) and descriptive. They are, however, silent on the model’s instrumental value that I perceive to be enshrined in its prediction of outcomes that can be realised when stakeholders are comprehensively involved (cf. Chapter 3). I want to argue that the descriptive, prescriptive and instrumental nature of the model makes it unquestionably symmetrical to the normative, descriptive and instrumental tenets of the stakeholder theory.

Normatively, the model accepts the idea that stakeholder interests are of intrinsic value. The model becomes normative by prescribing and recommending attitudes, structures and practices that are required when developing participatory development programmes. It accepts that the community and other stakeholders have an inalienable right to participate in the design, implementation and management of participatory programmes. It then recommends dialogue and collective action as the method of stakeholder participation. This principle is congruent to the normative stakeholder theory tenet that states that stakeholder
interests are of intrinsic value to organisation competiveness and recommends organisations to consider them whenever they make any decisions (cf. Chapter 4). The CFPD model, in like manner, prescribes dialogue and collective action among stakeholders as two fundamental requirements that a participatory development programme must fulfil for it to be successful (cf. Figure 3.1)

The model’s conception of human development being consequential from dialogue and collective action among the community and relevant stakeholders indicates its descriptive character. As with stakeholder theory’s description of a corporation as a system or constellation of cooperative and competitive stakeholder interests possessing intrinsic value to the success or failure of the corporation, the CFPD model is also descriptive. Its descriptive nature is inherent in its description of a series of critical steps that characterise this process (chapter 3, Figure 3.1). It describes ten iterative steps that constitute stakeholder dialogue processes and five steps that constitute collective action. It describes how stakeholder dialogue and collective action can work together to produce human development.

The instrumental perspective of the model is evident in its prediction of outcomes expected when the collective dialogue and action process is effectively completed. Collective action guarantees sustainability of the programmes. It also promotes self-efficacy of the individual community members which culminates into human development. This aspect of the model appears to be in line with instrumental stakeholder theory that suggests that organisations that consider stakeholder interests are relatively successful as compared to those that do not.

Further to the above similarities, both the CFPD model and stakeholder theory acknowledge differences of power among stakeholders (cf. Figure 4.3). They note possibilities of power related conflicts in situations where different stakeholders are brought together. The model notes that in participatory development programmes, conflicts may occur due to varied influence and interests that stakeholders may have on a particular programme. The model, however does not offer a concise conflict management strategy. It only suggests consensus as one of the ways of neutralising conflict, therefore, rendering itself inadequate to manage conflict. This is especially so considering that dialogue does not guarantee consensus.

Also, the model does not offer a strategy of bringing new stakeholders on board long after an initiative has already started. While the model subjects the collective action to “external constraints and support” (Chapter 3, Figure 3.1), suggesting possible (negative/positive) impact on the intended outcomes, it also fails to prescribe or suggest ways of managing
external forces to optimise the cooperative potential or neutralise the competitive threat of the external stakeholders. As the model stands, it exposes, or leaves development initiatives susceptible to external constraints or competitive pressures without prescribing how external threat can be neutralised. This is despite the inevitability of competitive threat from the external constraints.

It is in light of the above flaws of the of the CFPD model that the potential of stakeholder theory in addressing this challenge can be realised. As shown on Figure 4.3 (Chapter 4: p. 37), stakeholder theory suggests some useful proactive measures to avoid stakeholder conflict at any level of the development programme. It recommends classification or ranking of stakeholders into different categories based on their power and or influence on the programme. The theory recommends that in order to appropriately position and relate with stakeholders, communities or programme leaders must continuously (re) assess the negative or positive potential of each stakeholder on the programme. In stakeholder theory terms, this process is called stakeholder analysis. From a development communication perspective, stakeholder analysis is possible through continuous dialogue with all the relevant stakeholders.

The notion of ranking stakeholders in terms of their power or influence (relative potential) has however drawn criticism from some scholars. Some perceive it to be perpetuating existing power relationships among the stakeholders by accommodating the strong and ignoring the weak (Mellahi & Wood, 2003). As such, perpetuating the status quo defeats the notion of empowerment, which is the essence of participation.

Countering this argument, Lubombo (2011) contends that in a social change programme such as those articulated in the previous chapter, the meaning of “weak” and “strong” may be different. Being marginalised in societal hierarchies does not necessarily imply that one is weak in programmes that directly deal with them.

For example learners in the OVSA Schools programme (Chapter 5) are stronger and there are plans to include their representative in the board of directors. Donors are weak because if they decide to withdraw, they can do so with little impact on the programme as others may always come in. However, DramAidE feels that it is not necessary to include learners in their board. For DramAidE, the programmes are research-based so the learners’ needs are already known.
The opposing views of OVSA and DramAidE regarding the influence of learners not only justifies the notion of stakeholder ranking, but demonstrates the possible utility of stakeholder theory in development communication. Considering the foregoing, it can be argued that the CFPD model can be expeditiously situated in the stakeholder theory framework and that the theory can complement the model to address the power-related challenges that characterise participatory development programmes. The theory can also be useful in managing the evolving roles of stakeholders.

Nevertheless, does the stakeholder theory, beyond the CFPD model, have any semblance with the understanding and application of participation as applied OVSA, TVT and DramAidE? In answering this question, I have in this chapter generated a schematic synopsis (Figure 6.1) of the way in which these organisations’ describe their programmes, how they implement them and the reasons thereof.

6.3 The normative validity of the stakeholder theory
As noted in Chapter 4, normative stakeholder theory principle is concerned with stakeholders as an end in themselves and it holds that all human beings are ultimately affected by any decision. Because we all have an equal and legitimate interest in a safe and stable life, we should all have equality of opportunity and consideration.

As evidenced in the last chapter, all the organisations were consistent in that action for change is a collective effort which organisations undertake in partnership with different stakeholders. All the organisations have a culture that prioritises a holistic and people-centred approach. They use dialogue and collective action in their interventions. It is thus a norm in the organisations to engage in integrated processes with the formally marginalised communities and other stakeholders to bring about developmental change at different levels in these communities.

The views expressed by all participants are summative of the normative propositions that constitute what Freeman calls “Stakeholder Management Capability” (SMC) highlighted in Chapter 4. SMC, which I propose to equate with participatory communication in development, entails designing and implementing communication processes with multiple stakeholders. It involves explicit negotiation with stakeholders on critical issues aimed at achieving voluntary agreements. This approach serves multiple stakeholders through paying extra attention to understanding their needs (Freeman 1984: 78-80).
As shown in Figure 6.1, some may find it relatively compelling to conclude that the normative stakeholder theory principle that stakeholder interests are of “intrinsic value” correctly explains how these three organisations develop and manage their respective social change programmes. The organisations maintained that ‘it is important to involve stakeholders at all levels of planning and implementation’ (OVSA) because ‘how then [can] you do development in an area while excluding the very people mandated to do so’ (Maseatile 2010). Surely, ‘it is important to work closely with stakeholders for sustainability purposes and for the benefit of target audiences’ (DramAidE 2010).

The normative stakeholder theory tenet prescribes that,

In order to maximise profits, companies need great products and services that customers want, solid relationships with suppliers that keep operations on the edge, inspired employees who stand for the company mission and push the company to become better, and supportive communities that allow business to flourish (Freeman, et al 2010: 11).

If I were to transpose the above statement from its macro context (strategic communication) to a micro one (development communication discourse), I would say

In order to achieve sustainable development, agents need to listen to what communities want, establish solid relationships with other stakeholders that keep operations on the edge, bring inspired experts who stand for the programme objectives and push the communities to become better, and facilitate supportive structures that allow the programme to flourish.

The shared sentiment among all the organisations on the fact that their programmes follow the principle that stakeholder interests are invaluable sustains my argument that the stakeholder theory is normatively valid to the participatory communication for social change concept and practice. Indeed, stakeholders’ interests are invincibly valuable in the development and management of social change programmes.

**6.4 The descriptive accuracy of stakeholder theory**

Stakeholder theory describes a corporation as a system or constellation of cooperative and competitive stakeholder interests possessing intrinsic value to the success or failure of the corporation (Freeman et al 2010).
Figure 6.1: A stakeholder framework view of development agents’ understanding of participation in their respective programmes

Describing the nature of their programmes

OVSA
“The SP has different stakeholders with diverse interests but whose roles create a momentum and passion to work together to achieve the same goal.”

TVT
“Sees action for change as emerging from a visioning process which is undertaken in partnership with our clients.”

DramAidE
“The organisation “attempted to have a board of trustees that is representative of our work”

Why? (Convictions)

OVSA
“It is important to involve stakeholders at all levels of planning and implementation because all have different views and perspectives on the work you are trying to achieve. Although not always feasible…we feel we would like to include the more, so that their different views and perspectives are included in our work”

TVT
“…if you say you are going to develop people in an area where there is a chief and the chief don’t even know, then how do you expect development to take place. So we have political leaders, municipal ward members (councillors) who are legally mandated by the provincial legislation with the responsibility to develop their areas. How then do you do development in an area while excluding the very people mandated to do so?”

DramAidE
“It is important to work closely with stakeholders for sustainability purposes and for the benefit of target audiences”

So what? (Benefits)

OVSA
“…it gives us more credibility and transparency when we report on the progress of our work. Exclusion of parents as stakeholders affects sustainability and ongoing support for learners who come informed from school but fail to apply what they have learned at home because the parents/caregivers don’t know what they are talking about or they don’t agree with what they are being taught in terms of their own values”.

TVT
“the [continuous] engagement process has confirmed that building relationships and establishing trust is the foundation of health and development work”

DramAidE
Our programmes, for example the Health Promoters, speak to health, and it is conducted in universities. If we do not speak to the authorities thereof, and if they do not know them, the health promoters won’t be accepted.

Descriptive Stakeholder Theory
In light of the above views from three different organisations, it is unarguable but accurate to describe a development initiative in stakeholder theory terms as a “system or constellation of cooperative and competitive stakeholder interests possessing intrinsic value to the success or failure of the initiative”

Normative Stakeholder Theory
Evident in the above is a shared sentiment among all the organisations that their work is based on the principle that stakeholder interests must be considered in the development and management of social change programmes. It is therefore undoubtedly valid to conclude, in stakeholder theory terms, that stakeholders’ interests are of intrinsic value and must therefore, always be considered.

Instrumental Stakeholder Theory
The consistency by all the above organisations on the benefits of stakeholder integration is compelling to believe in the validity of the instrumental stakeholder theory that development programmes which consider stakeholder interests are relatively successful as compared to those that do not.
The synonymity of this description and the way all participants in this study described their respective social change programmes is quite conspicuous. Figure 6.1 above presents an overall picture of what the study findings suggest regarding the normative validity, descriptive accuracy as well as the instrumental validity of stakeholder theory in the participatory communication for development context.

As shown on Figure 6.1, at OVSA, the Schools Programme (SP) has different stakeholders with diverse interests. However, their roles create a momentum and passion to work together to achieve the same goal. The description of the SP is not in any way different from TVT, which also sees action for change as emerging from a visioning or dialogue process undertaken in partnership with the concerned communities together with other interested groups. For DramAidE, the constellation of different interested groups happens at two levels. First is on the development and management of particular programmes. It is also reflected in the composition of the organisation’s board of directors whose members are drawn from different stakeholders. The aim of such a composition is to ensure that the board is representative of DramAidE’s programmes.

As can be drawn from the three stakeholder maps for the three organisations presented in the last chapter (Figures 5.1; 5.2; and 5.4), a common stakeholder map of all the three organisations consists of communities, government departments, donors and other agents doing similar work in the same communities. One may wonder who, among these stakeholders, is cooperative or competitive. This question does not have one answer as it is peculiar to specific programmes. However, in all the three organisations, there was a shared view that donors insist on timeframes that may not be congruent with the pace at which communities want change to happen. Government departments also appeared to be concerned with numbers without necessarily paying attention to detail. Advancing these interests may not necessarily entail effectiveness of the programme. However, this must not be construed to imply that these stakeholders always have competing interests, as they are generally supportive of the concerned programmes.

The description of development programmes offered by the CFPD model depicts them as consisting of both cooperative and competing interests. Viewed from a systems theory perspective, it subjects these programmes to inescapable external constraints and conditional support. In light of the views from the three organisations, it may be accurate to describe a development initiative in stakeholder theory terms as a ‘system or constellation of
cooperative and competitive stakeholder interests possessing intrinsic value to the success or failure of the initiative’. This description is foundational to the normative and instrumental perspectives of the theory.

6.5 The instrumental validity of stakeholder theory

Both stakeholder theory and participatory development practice acknowledge the importance of dialogue between business/development initiatives and stakeholders. There are numerous benefits of using a stakeholder-based approach. The findings in the previous chapter suggest that opinions and input of different stakeholders can help shape and improve the quality of a project. Gaining support from stakeholders such as business and the community, for example, can help to win required resources making it more likely that the project will be successful. In addition, communicating with stakeholders early and often ensures that they know about the projects and fully understand its benefits. This means they can actively support it. Dialogue with stakeholders allow for prediction of people's reaction to a project. For this reason, drawing of appropriate actions aimed at winning collective action become possible.

Meaningful engagement with stakeholders thus entails anticipation of contending views among stakeholders. It also results in the effective management of imminent conflicts that ensue from these contending views. Other benefits include decision-making from all stakeholders, consensus amongst diverse views; stakeholder identification with the outcomes of the development project (sense of ownership) and trust among the stakeholders.

There is concurrence that development programmes are more sustainable if all possible stakeholders are involved. As evidenced earlier, sustainability is one of the benefits of stakeholder participation. The stakeholder theory, as already noted, is also built upon and is purported to enhance sustainability of business corporations. For sustainability to be realized, stakeholder theory prescribes establishment and maintenance of mutual beneficial relationships between corporations and their stakeholders.

OVSA, TVT and DramAidE consider stakeholder relationship as a proactive strategy to avoid compromisation of sustainability of their respective programmes. From TVT’s experience, the continuous engagement process confirmed to them that building relationships and establishing trust is the foundation of health and development work. This perspective is inseparable from the instrumental perspective of stakeholder theory. It is therefore arguable that there is an instrumental value to participation in development programmes.

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The instrumental perspective resonates well with communitarianism, the foundational metatheoretical assumption of participation which holds that dialogue is fundamental to the journey that humans travel, individually or collectively, between order and chaos (cf. Chapter 3). It can be argued that it is this instrumental perspective which is the underlying objective and meaning of participation noted earlier as the betterment or empowerment of marginalized communities.

I noted in the first chapter that marginalised people occupy the bottom of the social structure and they do not have a say in issues defining their existence as those who have power normally dictate this to them. I also highlighted that the concept of empowerment entails aspects of self-help, participation, networking and equity, which the CFPD model call human development. To achieve this instrumental value, participation is a vital component in the empowerment process as people must be involved in the decisions that affect their lives.

The instrumental value of dialogue about a situation, as alluded to earlier, lies in that it results in collective identification of developmental needs and problems, deciding what is needed to improve the situation, and acting upon it. Collective dialogue and action is thus the only means through which communities can sustainably address common problems or social development challenges affecting them. For Paolo Freire (1973), the conscientisation process is beneficial in that it helps the grassroots to take control of their situations in four ways which Bessette (1996:15) lists as: (a) becoming aware of the various facets of their problems, (b) organizing in order to react collectively and effectively to these problems, (c) becoming politicized or able to provide alternatives to problem situations and finding solutions to them, and (d) obtaining necessary tools to be able to use the community generated solutions. The Freirian pedagogy thus conceives communication as dialogue and participation for creating human development.

6.6 Conclusions and further research

A juxtaposition of stakeholder theory and the concept of participation as presented in chapters 4 and 5, respectively, suggests that the concepts are arguably congruent in many respects. Firstly, the linguistic conformance in the definition and use of the term ‘stakeholder’ is striking. The term carries the same meaning in both the business and development communication discourse communities in which it has undoubtedly become a buzzword.

Secondly, situating OVSA, TVT and DramAidE programmes (Chapter 5) within stakeholder theory reveals a relationship between the normative, descriptive and instrumental
perspectives of the theory and the conception and application of participatory communication for development. Further to this, the logic and structure of the CFPD model as discussed in Chapter 3 demonstrates this relationship.

Thirdly, the theory appears to be relatively symmetrical to communitarianism (Chapter 3.2.6), the last and most important of the six alternative sets of metatheoretical assumptions that operate as conceptual pastiche of approaches often reified as participation. Just like the stakeholder theory, communitarianism is based on the perspective that societies are made in communities.

Stakeholder theory also exudes great potential to complement the CFPD model in comprehensively guiding participation. The theory stands tall in its concise articulation and recommendations on how stakeholders, whether internal or external can be effectively managed or to neutralize power related conflicts among stakeholders, which is a major flaw of the CFPD model. It also has potential be used to modify the model in this regard.

The need for a far-reaching, inclusive and balanced stakeholder engagement in development programmes needs no emphasis. Comprehensive stakeholder integration leads to the best consequences for all, and stakeholder theory appears to be a viable tool in this respect. Indeed stakeholder engagement exercise should, amongst other things, clearly identify those who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an ‘organization’s’ objectives, and clearly identify the intensity and priority of the issues they bring on board. However, there is no determinate algorithm of stakeholder integration and management in the present models in development communication.

However, since stakeholder theory provides some broad direction for prioritising and managing stakeholder needs in business management, it may be important, as part of further research, to look at ways in which the theory can be applied in non-profit development organizations. Of interest may be to test the theory on specific development programme to examine how effective it could be in addressing unique challenges they face in meeting diverse needs of their various stakeholders without compromising the grassroots empowerment goal.

All having been said and done, it is important to note that it was also the aim of this study to find out the extent to which the stakeholder theory could provide a solution to the definitional problem and meaning of participatory communication discussed in Chapter 3. Although the
reader and other critics may arrive at some conclusions based on the evidence shown in this study, I strongly feel that this question cannot be fully answered in this mini dissertation. The same applies to whether the theory can be a possible tool to explain and govern the concept of participation. Although I am inclined to say ‘yes’, basing on the reading of chapters 3; 4; 5 and 6, I feel that an extension of this study into an intensive empirical study can do justice to answering these two questions.

In addition, a ‘yes’ answer to the two questions may be proved otherwise if the same study were to be conducted using a different methodology and if other delimitations were to be changed. For example, the results could be different if the case study was to be changed, the sample size revised, and many other methodological aspects were changed. As such, a much more comprehensive study of a wider magnitude and integrated methodology may be necessary in order to answer these questions. This may result in the improvement of the current participatory communication models which this study, nevertheless, has found wanting.

#
References

Primary Sources

Interviews (Appendix D – N)

OneVoice South Africa
The Managing Director, October 19, 2010. Durban
The Programme Manager, October 20, 2010. Durban
The Programme Officer, October 18, 2010. Durban

The Valley Trust
The Executive Director, October 28, 2010. Valley of 1000 Hills, Durban.
The Monitoring and Evaluation Manager, September 23, 2010, Durban.
The Programmes Implementation Manager, July 29, 2011. Valley of 1000 Hills, Durban.

Drama for Aids Education
The Director, July 15, 2011. Durban.
The Facilitator, July 6, 2011. Durban

Other Participants
DramAidE Board Chairman and CCMS Director, July 5, 2011. Durban.
KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Manager, Special Needs Education Services, Department of Education. October 25, 2010, Pietermaritzburg.

Documents
DramAidE, Annual Report 2010.
The Valley Trust, Annual Report, 2009.
The Valley Trust, Annual Report, 2010.

Secondary Sources


Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical Approval

5 October 2010

Mr. Mthombu
School of Literary Studies, Media & Creative Arts

Dear Mr. Mthombu,

ETHICAL APPROVAL NUMBER: HSS/111/33010M

PROTOCOL: Participatory Communication for Social Change: Narration, Visibility and Narrative Accuracy of Stakeholder Theory

In accordance to your application dated 1 October 2010, Student Number 21014479, the Humanities & Social Sciences Ethics Committee has considered the aforementioned application and the protocol has been given FULL APPROVAL.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

Professor Steve Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc: Supervisor – Dr. Marc Caldwell

cc: Mrs. S van der Westhuizen
Appendix B: Informed Consent

Mr. Musara Lubombo (HSS/111/2010M)
Centre for Communication Media & Society
Memorial Tower Building
Howard College Campus
Mazisi Kunene Rd
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Durban 4041
South Africa
Cell: 078 863 514
E-mail: musalubombo@yahoo.com

This consent form, a copy of which I give to you, to keep for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. If you want more details about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask or contact me on the above address. Please take time to read this carefully and understand.

My name is Musara Lubombo. I am a research student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Centre for Communication Media and Society reading for a Master of Arts degree in Culture, Communication and Media Studies. I contact you in respect of a research project titled Participatory Communication for Social Change: Normative Validity and Descriptive Accuracy of Stakeholder Theory that I am conducting as part of my study. The project has full approval of the University of KwaZulu-Natal Humanities & Social Sciences Ethics Committee and is supervised by Dr. Marc Caldwell.

Purpose of the Study

The project explores the systems that change agents put in place to integrate the multifarious stakeholder interests for collective action towards addressing social development challenges. It examines how your organisation involves all those with interest in your programmes and the impact that their involvement (and exclusion) has to the social change effort. Premised on the communication for participatory development model that describes a social change process as an iterative process involving dialogue and collective action by members of a community affected by a problem, it finds impetus on the widely acknowledged fact that community members may have but different stakes in any development project seeking to resolve a common problem. Change agents have, therefore, a challenge of balancing these interests. However, more often than not, this process results in conflict among community groups in dealing with the problem, a situation that may terminate a programme, or if dealt with effectively, can lead to a successful resolution of the problem. The underlying objective is to examine the relevance of Edward R Freeman’s Stakeholder Theory in the conceptualisation and application of “Participatory Communication” in participatory development initiatives, as well as how the theory can be possibly used to address power relations inherent in the execution of such initiatives.

You have been selected for participation in this study because of your professional expertise in, engagement with, and or knowledge of the participatory development initiatives or with issues pertaining to planning and management of such projects.

What Will I Be Asked To Do?

a) Discuss with the researcher, individually or with others, in an audio-recorded interview, issues around how the participatory development initiatives you are involved in are planned and managed; and also issues around power relations that characterise the initiative and how they are managed.

b) Interviews will last about half an hour, at a convenient location in your organisation/community.
c) Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are at liberty not to participate and are free not to respond to certain questions. You may withdraw from the study at anytime during the focus group discussion.

There will be no remuneration for participation.

**What Type of Personal Information Will Be Collected?**

While I will collect information about your gender, age, level of education, and profession, such data will be presented in aggregate form in all publications to ensure your anonymity. You will choose or be assigned a pseudonym prior to the interview, and this will be used to identify you during the interview, in data analysis, and in publications. Any information you provide may be quoted in publications, as long as such a quotation does not compromise your anonymity.

Here are some options for you to consider if you decide to take part in this research as a respondent. Please put a check mark against the appropriate response.

- You may assign me a pseudonym
  - Yes: ___ No: ___
- I prefer to choose a pseudonym for myself:
  - Yes: ___ No: ___

The pseudonym I choose for myself is: ________________________________

**Are There Risks or Benefits if I Participate?**

Participation may not yield any direct, personal benefit to you. However, the information you share will help to facilitate our understanding of the issues covered by this research, and help design more holistic and effective strategies in future.

**What Happens to the Information I Provide?**

You are at liberty not to participate and are free not to respond to certain questions. You may withdraw from the study at anytime during the interview. However, once the interview is completed, you cannot ask that the information already provided be expunged from the study. In the event that you withdraw in the course of the interview, any information that you provide prior to withdrawal will be used by the researcher to accomplish the research objectives.

Raw data that you provide will be stored in a secure cabinet (under lock and key) in the investigator’s office. They will only be available to the researcher and the supervisor. I do not have a predetermined maximum time frame for disposing of data because it could be used for related research in the future and could form the basis for a longitudinal study. I will, however, keep the data for a minimum of five years in accordance with our faculty policy.

**Signatures (written consent)**

Your signature on this form indicates that you understand to your satisfaction the information provided to you about your participation in this research project, and agree to participate as a research subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigator, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from this research project at any time. You should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation.

Participant’s Name: (please print) __________________________________________

Participant’s Signature _____________________________________________________ Date: ____________________
Appendix C: Interview Guide

Mr. Musara Lubombo
Research Student
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Memorial Tower Building
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Durban 4041
South Africa
Cell: 078 8 635 514
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The overall objective of the study is to examine your organisation’s stakeholder integration process for the programmes that you do. I want to understand the nature of, if ever there is any, interaction with all the key stakeholders and the impact they have on the programme. I intended this to be an interview ‘discussion’ in order to get as much information as possible from you. As such, the discussion centres and revolves around the following fluid guiding questions.

Note: If given this guide as a ‘questionnaire’ please converse with it as if you are engaged in a natural conversation. Give detailed explanations, not only restricted to the listed questions but to whatever you feel might be relevant to the subject under discussion.

Questions:

(a) I understand that your organization uses the participatory approach, can you highlight on your organization’s understanding of the concept.

(b) What theories govern your understanding and application of the concept?

(c) How do you apply participation (if you do) in the schools programme?

(d) Who are your stakeholders in the programme?
   a. What are their interests?
   b. Does the different stakeholder interest affect the main objective of the programme?
   c. How do you reconcile the project’s objectives and different stakeholder interest?

(e) Are all stakeholders equal in terms of influencing (if they do) the direction of the programme?
   a. How do you balance differences in power and interests among them?

(f) How do you, or what systems do you use to identify the stakeholders?
   a. How do you integrate them in the project?
   b. How do they participate and at what stage of the programme?

(g) Who are (if there are any) the other stakeholders who are not involved in the programme?
   a. What effect does their exclusion have on the achievement of the project objectives?
Appendix D: Interview with the OVSA Managing Director

Dr. Josianne Roma-Reardon, October 19, 2010, email.

FROM:

- Josianne Roma-Reardon

TO:

- ’Musara Lubombo’

Tuesday, October 19, 2010 8:38 PM

Dear Musara..here is my response.

(Why) Is it necessary to involve stakeholders in the schools programme?

It is important to involve stakeholders at all levels of planning and implementation because all have different views and perspectives on the work you are trying to achieve. Although not always feasible to include them, one must try as much as possible to invite them and keep them informed about your work. At OVSA, we try to involved all our stakeholders at some point in the programme implementation, and going forward we feel we would like to include the more, so that their different views and perspectives are included in our work. Also, it is necessary to involve them, because it gives us more credibility and transparency when we report on the progress of our work.

---

From: Musara Lubombo [mailto:musalubombo@yahoo.com]

Sent: 19 October 2010 10:10 AM

To: 'Josianne Roma-Reardon'

Subject: Interview

Long time! May I thank your staff for their participation and timeous response to my questions. There is, however, one aspect which I feel I did not address in the original schedule regarding the importance of stakeholder participation in the Schools Programme. Let me put it this way;

(Why) Is it necessary to involve stakeholders in the schools programme?
I think you can answer this one as well. I don’t think it can compromise your supervisory role in the project.

I look forward to hearing from you. I am still waiting to hear from Brenda and Bronywin.

Expect three draft chapters this week.
Many thanks

Musara Lubombo
Appendix E: Interview with the OVSA SP Manager

Ms Ntonto Vezi, October 20, 2010, email.

FROM:
  • Ntonto Vezi

TO:
  • 'Musara Lubombo'

Wednesday, October 20, 2010 2:59 PM

Hi Musara

To answer your question, *Is it necessary to involve stakeholders in the Schools Programme? If so, Why? Explain giving details.*

My honest answer is Yes, it is necessary to include the stakeholders in almost every process especially the planning stage so that we get everyone’s views and check whether we are on line and even after wards, the evaluation process, we need to involve them to see whether we achieved our goals together. These days with so many programmes taking place, it is paramount to have an integrated approach to avoid re-inventing wheels and confusion. Idealistically we are supposed to be including them, but realistically speaking it does not happen as everyone is busy with their own jobs and other commitment.

For instance the Department of Education should be active even in mentoring and evaluating whether are we still in line with their objectives and achieving the projected goals.

From: Musara Lubombo [mailto:musalubombo@yahoo.com]

Sent: 19 October 2010 09:54 AM

To: ntonto@onevoice.org.za; Nontobeko Nono

Subject: Interview

Thank you all once again for participating in my study. May I just follow up on one aspect which I feel I did not address in the original schedule. Just a quick one. Let me put it this way;

*Is it necessary to involve stakeholders in the Schools Programme, If so, Why? Explain giving details.*

Many thanks

Musara Lubombo
INTERVIEW GUIDE

The overall objective of the study is to examine the OneVoice South Africa’s stakeholder integration process for the Schools Programme (SP). I want to understand the nature of (as the SP) your interaction with all the key stakeholders and the impact they have on the programme. I intended this to be an interview ‘discussion’ in order to get as much information as possible from you. As such, the discussion centres and revolves around the following fluid guiding questions.

Note: If given this guide as a ‘questionnaire’ please converse with it as if you are engaged in a natural conversation. Give detailed explanations, not only restricted to the listed questions but to whatever you feel might be relevant to the subject under discussion.

Questions for Staff in the organisation:

I understand that your organization uses the participatory approach, can you highlight on your organization’s understanding of the concept.

Response: My organisation’s understanding of the concept is that we do not lecture our audience (learners) but create an environment that is inclusive for them to participate involved in an active way. This approach for us means “learner-centered”, we are inclusive i.e. learner and Facilitator and other learners are included in the process and they are welcome to voice their opinions and suggestions without being ‘judged’.

What theories govern your understanding and application of the concept?

Response: Skills, Knowledge, Attitude equals Change

How do you apply participation (if you do) in the schools programme?

Response: Participation is applied on different levels. We involved our learners in our materials (curriculum) development and other promoting materials. We test these materials before print with them. We also involved them during the implementation of the programme in the class whereby a trained Facilitator uses activities that are involving and active for them to express their understanding, knowledge and attitudes. Activities include ice breakers, games related to the workshop, debates, discussions and brainstorming, focus groups, role plays and drama.

Who are your stakeholders in the programme? –

• Department of Education
• The schools participating in the programme (principals, teachers, SGBs)
• Learners
• Other NGOs working in the same schools
• Other government departments
• Consultants developing the curriculum

What are their interests? –

The Department’s interest is to see OneVoice changing lives of young people in their communities and also adding value to the Department’s goals and objectives especially in the subject called Life Orientation. The schools interest is to have young people who are equipped with skills and knowledge that will inspire their behavior change. Learners have the primary interest as they are directly involved, theirs is to learn about social issues, be informed, be equipped and be given a chance to implement what they have learned. Other NGOs and other government departments their interest is to see an HIV free generation and to see young people knowledgeable and be able to change their lives and other peoples.

Does the different stakeholder interest affect the main objective of the programme?

No, instead it creates a momentum and passion to work together to achieve the same goal

How do you reconcile the project’s objectives and different stakeholder interest

We have hardly had conflict of interest, but whatever challenges we have regarding the programme is addressed in our Stakeholders meetings where we discuss the content of the programme and roles and responsibilities. Should we encounter such along the way, we always maintain the good relationships with our schools and other stakeholders to keep them informed via mini meetings, telephone calls, emails and newsletter.

Are all stakeholders equal in terms of influencing (if they do) the direction of the programme?

How do you balance differences in power and interests among them?

As I indicate above that we use Stakeholders Meetings as our forum or platform to address such and define Stakeholders roles and responsibilities and have an ongoing monitoring and communication so that everyone is met at their level

How do you, or what systems do you use to identify the stakeholders?

We approach our schools and request them to give us a list of their district contact people in the department, SGBs and we directly contact other NGOs and government departments.

How do you integrate them in the project?

Each person is requested via Stakeholders meeting or email to contribute their section and discuss it and make a decision. They are also given quarterly reports. They are invited during special events by learners.

How do they participate and at what stage of the programme? –
The Department of Education is part of the initial stage where we identify schools through them; they sign a Memorandum of Understanding for us to continue working in those particular schools. They also assist through subject advisors in the curriculum development by giving us their outcomes for a particular year. They partake in Stakeholders meetings. Principals and Teachers also sign a school based MOU and allow time for the programme to be implemented. They also look after our Facilitators when they come to their schools to make sure they have a class, learners are ready and sign our documents and stamp them. Learners are involved in the testing of the curriculum. Only in 2010 we established a board of young people in the Eastern Cape as a pilot (Youth Advisory Board) who will be informing us about the content of the curriculum, games and activities they think are appropriate for learners. Other NGOs and government departments assist in capacity building and for referrals.

Who are (if there are any) the other stakeholders who are not involved in the programme?

Parents/Caregivers at community level.

What effect does their exclusion have on the achievement of the project objectives?

It affects sustainability and ongoing support for learners especially who come informed from school and fail to apply what they have learned at home because they parents/caregivers don’t know what they are talking about or they don’t agree with what they are being taught in terms of their own values.
Appendix F: Interview with the OVSA SP Officer

Ms Nontobeko Mbata, October 18, 2010, email.

FROM:

- Nontobeko Mbatha

TO:

- 'Musara Lubombo'

Monday, October 18, 2010 10:09 AM

Dear Musara

I would like to apologise for this arriving late, last week was too packed with trying to accommodate the other 2 students as well.

I am not sure with the Consent Form because it requires hand writing I assume you will come to the office to collect them.

Thanks

Nontobeko

____________________________________________________________________________________

From: Musara Lubombo [mailto:musalubombo@yahoo.com]
Sent: 12 October 2010 02:17 PM
To: 'Josianne Roma-Reardon'; ntonto@onevoice.org.za; Nontobeko Nono
Subject: INTERVIEW WITH STAF MENBERS

The above reference.

I am sorry to inform you that I have just been informed of another serious commitment that I must attend to tomorrow. It coincides with our scheduled discussion on my project. I wonder if we can convert our purported discussion to an email interview.

Please find attached the interview schedule together with an informed consent signature request. I would really appreciate if you can respond before the 15th (this Friday).

Many thanks

Musara Lubombo
INTERVIEW GUIDE
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Note: If given this guide as a ‘questionnaire’ please converse with it as if you are engaged in a natural conversation. Give detailed explanations, not only restricted to the listed questions but to whatever you feel might be relevant to the subject under discussion.

Questions for Staff in the organisation:

I understand that your organization uses the participatory approach, can you highlight on your organization’s understanding of the concept.

- The Organization believes it is important for young people to feel part of the programme through their involvement in designing the Programme, the activities and their guidance on what they can relate to and what they find interesting in terms of trends.

What theories govern your understanding and application of the concept?

- The creation of a safe environment where learners can share their feelings, thoughts and opinions without any intimidation or threats.

How do you apply participation (if you do) in the schools programme?

- We apply participation through the fun approach we bring within the games, activities and the kind of probing from the Facilitators whom the learners can relate with because they are younger and different from the teachers.

Who are your stakeholders in the programme? What are their interests?

- Our stakeholders are the learners, the teachers, the principals, the Schools Governing Body, the Department of Education and the community at large. Their interest is to see a generation that is HIV free and can make sound decisions in their lives.
Does the different stakeholder interest affect the main objective of the programme?

- I do not believe so because the ultimate goal between the different stakeholders compliments that of the Organization.

How do you reconcile the project’s objectives and different stakeholder interest?

- Since we are in line with the curriculum from the Department of Education I don’t think there is a need to reconcile.

Are all stakeholders equal in terms of influencing (if they do) the direction of the programme?

- As an Organization we act on the learners and the Departments interests, we are not direct with the Parents all times, but we get some parent representation from the School Governing Body. Since the Programme is never tested with the Parents I don’t think they have much influence beside what we receive from through the school.

How do you balance differences in power and interests among them?

- One way we are able to balance power is through the Consent Forms that are signed by the Parents agreeing for the learners to participate in the Programme.

How do you, or what systems do you use to identify the stakeholders?

- We use the schools hierarchy; who is responsible for what in schools e.g LO Teachers since the Programme falls under LO.

How do you integrate them in the project? How do they participate and at what stage of the programme?

- The participate in the Stakeholders meetings which initially take place twice a year where they get involved in the planning of the Programme at the beginning of the year and at the end of the year, where evaluation is conducted.

Who are (if there are any) the other stakeholders who are not involved in the programme?

What effect does their exclusion have on the achievement of the project objectives?

- Just the Parents that Organisation is not able to interact with them directly. The only effect is that they don’t get a chance to fully understand, ask questions directly about the Programme. Therefore sometimes learners indicate that Parents sometimes don’t fully understand the learners involvement with the Programme therefore they don’t give the necessary support.
Appendix G: Interview with TVT Executive Director

Mr. Tuki Maseatile, October 28, 2010 Valley of 1000 Hills, Durban.

How does your organisation view social change?

We believe that change is brought about by a number of factors and that it occurs at different levels. There is what we call quick change which is unsustainable. There is lasting which once it takes place you know that it starts kicking things to happen. Our approach is centred on what we call long and sustainable change which normally not easy to bring about.

The other view that we hold as an organisation is that we don’t bring change. Change will take place whether we like it or not, whether we are there or not it will take place. The only difference when we are there is that we can enable people to understand change and also we can enable them to participate in that change and have an influence on that change. The example we could use is that when you say people are poor and they want to move away from their state, they could move away in 100 years. However nobody wants to wait for such a period for that to happen.

The other thing is that we also say that sometime people can bring about change themselves but because they don’t know how, they may be doing the wrong things to bring out a certain change. In the process, they may actually be moving in a wrong direction. As a result, we see our role as purely a catalytic one.

(Referring to figure 5.3) – the way we describe change is that people are at a particular state (current reality) and they require transformation to a next state (preferred reality) they are responsible for that transformation or change. They are the ones who make it happen. Ours is to help them, work with them to understand and play their cards differently to make it happen.

How do you apply participation?

We say that for any programme that we want to embark on, we engage people to find what people want. Sometimes it’s tough, but let me give you an example. I went to Jorburg to meet a funder who asked me to send in a proposal. I got excited and when I came back I asked my team what to include in the proposal and they said to me we can’t write anything unless we have spoken to the people.

You actually can’t write anything before you have spoken to them because once you start doing this you will actually be telling them what is good for them. We don’t work that way. They need to tell us what to do and that’s how we work.

The challenge we experience is that people are not yet ready to do things for themselves. So when you say to them what change do you want, people still think that you are an NGO you must tell us.

Theoretically we have the basis for applying participation. For every programme that we do, we have what we call conversations where we actually go to the communities and talk to people about it.

The challenge that we face here is that it takes long to have that dialogue. Donors don’t understand when we say that we are still going to people to find out what they want. They
think we are too theoretical, and argue that we can’t give them what they want in the first place. However we strive to engage in these conversations at the beginning, and then they decide what they want and ours is to say once they decided, how do we then do that.

I have not personally been part of these conversations but from the reports I get, there is evidence of these conversations taking place.

Why is it necessary to have these conversations?

TVT learnt a long time ago that things that are imposed on people don’t last, and they don’t bring real change. Real change happens when people actually realise that this is what they want and that they are part of it. They will own it.

In fact, in the old social development theory people used to say “make people buy into”. We say no, we don’t want them to buy into by doing this it will be yours. We don’t do this, we simply make them talk about the things they want and we talk of how we are going to work together to make those things happen.

The other reason is that in as much as we know it’s difficult, we say that we cannot be in communities forever. We are an organisation with restricted resources. We have learnt that where we do things for people, when we leave those things don’t mean anything to them. But if people tell us what they want, they are prepared to work for it whether we are there or not. We want to phase ourselves out of these communities.

Who are these people that you dialogue with?

We work in various parts of KZN where we have different programmes. We call these programmes strategies because we use them to achieve one goal. We work with communities in the Valley and our projects are called community projects.

Are these your stakeholders?

We call them clients for the simple reason that they are the direct beneficiaries of the programmes. Our projects are people centred or client driven.

We can also call them stakeholders even though our definition of stakeholders is wider. We define stakeholders as people who have got interest in our programmes for example Department of health, department of education who are custodians of these programmes. They become clients when we train them. Parents become stakeholders because they have got interest. They can also become clients because we train school governance body which are made of parents. Anybody who got interest, we call those stakeholders.

So do you engage stakeholders in your projects?

Well we do. In fact what you will notice is that all our programmes are integrated. We have realised that you can’t bring change by dealing with one issue. We deal with multiple issues such as health, power issues, enabling environment and rights. These are our four main themes. But we also say know that economy is important, poverty is important. Human beings live in a system and you can’t deal with one issue in a system. For example in an HIV programme you tell a Zulu woman that she must use condoms. When she goes home she will
tell the husband but she won’t have influence over sexual matters at home. So we can’t deal with health unless we deal with power and rights as well as the environment.

If a person is poor and is dealing in sex work you can’t tell that person to desist from that behaviour telling them that it is risky. As long as that person has no money in the house, that person will not listen to you. That is why we say we try to deal with a complex of issues.

At what stage of your projects do you involve stakeholders?

Clients: We engage clients at the beginning and work with them throughout.

Donors: we make sure that our donors become part and parcel of the whole process, we partner with them. We say, you give us money, but come along. When we go out to our projects, we invite our donors to come along.

Schools: schools DOE decides, has decision making powers

Parliament: we are trying to engage it to influence policies which are made there. If we can’t influence policy, the work we do may have little impact, so we are now saying let us now be included in parliamentary portfolio committees, to make our proposals and find out how we can work with them.

How do different stakeholder interests affect your projects?

Stakeholders always have different interests. Donors seem to be most significant stakeholder and they wield a lot of power purely because they are the ones who can give or even take away the money. They determine how long the program can run. One of the things where the donors interest are opposed or different from what we think has to happen, it becomes a challenge. In some instances, we take a month to negotiate with them, to say look we think what we want is this but if we work that way, we will not achieve that objective. Some donors eventually give in while other refuse in which case then we try to look for an alternative or compromise where we say you can win a donor when the donor is away from you. We then compromise other things to get the donor with us. We engage them in dialogue and make presentation to them. Some are now talking of integration, holistic, and long term programs. They have changed their stance because of the work we are doing. Others have admitted that, our strategies have been proven wrong by your work. Other maybe because what is the way it will go or that is the truth.

In terms of power again for example, if you are working with the department of health, the national DOH says we want so many number of circumcisions in KZN in three months, which is their interest. Whether in the process their damage or not, that is not their interest. So in situation like that, if we are involve we then say, how do we make sure that we still achieve the target of our number while at the same time people learn. You do not want to give people the impression that if you are circumcised, you do not get HIV anymore, that is another risk.

The other issue also is that as an NGO, we also have our own interest and we cannot pretend to people that we do not have our own interest. We need to be sustainable so in whatever we do at the end of the day, it has to bring money to us. So we can’t say to you we do everything for free, yes we don’t charge the community when we work them but someone must pay we for that work (donor). Even though we say our interest is social development if we do not
have money to influent it, we do not do it anyway. So we have a financial interest too which we can’t lie about.

The second thing is that, because we believe that our approach works when we deal with the people and enter in to conversation, our interest still is there that we believe this works so if for example, we engage with the community we say look guys forget about things we want you to do this thing for ourselves we want you to work for us, we don’t do that.

What system do you have to identify you client?

Currently we are not starting new programs. The way we work is that TVT has been involved in social change programs for a long time, and we have also been evolving. We started a lot of project in the traditional way when we would focus on single issues for example HIV, education, etc. We started realising that we cannot achieve real change unless we start integrating and deal with all these things combined. Therefore, what we then said was that if we had one program dealing with power, we must now in the same program bring in HIV aids etc. Then community is already there, we not selecting new ones but we are simply bringing in new strategies.

The board always ask us how long we are going to remain in this community. We say not we are trying to perfect these models and we cannot leave out of the community unless we have perfected the models. Not only that, but we have not attend real change. It would be a disaster if we say we have worked with this community and we need to go where change has not happened. We want to make sure all program are on fit. If for example, community A learns that we are working in community B, approaches us, and asks us to work with them we actually welcome that. Such instances make our dialogues easier.

Do you have project where you feel some stakeholders have been excluded?

We were actually invited to participate in another project in which the people who wrote the proposal had indicated which stakeholders we must work with. They said if time allows we must work with certain groups. We have said not actually the group that you have excluded we think is a critical one we can’t only work with it if time permit but we must actually engage the group from the onset. It is part and parcel of the program

In the old way of working, decision makers in the community may always excluded for example chiefs. These are not only influential people but also immortal gatekeepers. Therefore, if you say you are going to develop people in an area where there is a chief and the chief don’t even know, then how do you expect development to take place. Therefore, we have political leaders, municipal ward members (councillors). The provincial legislation mandate councillors with the responsibility to develop their areas. How then do you do development in an area while excluding the very people mandated to do so?

Change happens at individual, group level and society levels. Our belief is that the more stakeholders we involve, the easier it is to sustain the programme.

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Appendix H: Interview with TVT Monitoring and Evaluations Manager

Mr. Clive Bruzas, September 23, 2010, Durban.

Can you explain what TVT is and its understanding of participation?

Yes, we do strive to be participatory in our approach but I think it is first important to understand the history of the organisation, to understand that that might not happen equally across all the programmes. In the mid 1980s, we became involved in the labour intensive programmes, which were such as road building, extending water pipelines, building sports fields and things like that. I think like many other NGOs at that time, we stepped in to close the gap left in the previous government and in many ways became service delivery oriented. With the advent of democracy in 1994, we had to ask ourselves what was our role as an NGO in this new democracy. We started to change the focus of our organisation...we had started reflecting quite deeply on what we understood by health, what we understood by development and for the past six years or so, we have taken a number of decisions, the one is we didn’t want to be an organisation that primarily delivers products or services, we wanted to be a professional organisation and we defined that as an organisation that provides unique responses to unique situations. Therefore, this is really where participation approach becomes so critical because if you don’t know what the unique situation is you cannot give a unique response so that first stage of understanding of relationship building, the situation that we are intervening into requires high levels of participation.

We have been working with ideas of participatory learning; participatory action research but we have been also an Organization in transition. In addition, some programmes had been already operating like that and others were not. We had to look at a sort of transition process to make some programmes more participatory, so this has been quite important internal drivers of our move to becoming more participatory. It has been our understanding of participatory process.

External drivers too, as to whether or not you can do that how often related to donors .Some donors are far more willing to fund participatory programmes. Others give you funding to do specific programmes which may or may not be all that participatory. So that is why I say that there is quite a mixture across organizations.

What models that guide your approach?

(Referring to figure 5.3) - We need to understand clients’ desired reality, ideally at the initiation of any programme we would spend as much time as needed building relationships, developing trust, ideally around that process of visioning. There is a bit of tension here also just because we also describe ourselves as a centre for health promotion and health promotion here is described in a particular way, it often come as a fixed idea of what people need so we are trying to juggle between a very open process such as this where we say to people, what is your desired reality or vision? What do you like this community to be in the next 5 years?

Which beginning are you referring to?

Of engaging with the community and our organisation which also has some tensions because donors sometime expects you to really have something fast...and so we have been influenced by that and also by the declaration of Omar Attar in terms of participation and health. It
defines primary health care and it talks about people’s full participation in determining their own health. There are also various declarations and conferences that surround health promotions which also emphasize importance of participation and there are also various writings on the matter which look at different levels of participation and say in the end planning and evaluation are critical. So there is a number of frameworks if you like.

Can you list the programmes that you do?

We work around four themes, which cut across all the programmes, the one is health communication which is where the bulk of HIV/AIDS work happens, there is Izingani Zethu which is work around children, Integrated School Development Community Programme, Integrated Sustainable Livelihoods, Self help Groups.

How do you apply participation in these projects?

This is where you begin to see the difference in approach I mentioned at the beginning. If you take Izingani Zethu for example, we were approached by a donor to work in partnership to develop this programme in quite a participatory way. So the first stage there was getting to know parties, community and doing a participatory situation analysis so right from the word go, participating communities were involved in getting to know what is happening on the ground. This is a stage of establishing what the current reality is.

Now the programme has grown from that and interventions have arisen from that, obviously many organizations like ourselves never comes to a process without any preconceptions of what we might be able to bring. It was a much-negotiated programme, a mixture of what we brought in terms of health and development experience and integrate that with what emerged from situation analysis and what the participating communities saw as a vision of their community. So it evolved from then. The donor was quite involved in that process as well, something which is very unusual, Nelson Mandela Children’s Fund, they have been quite active in reflecting and helping to determine the progress of that.

The Integrated Schools Development Programmes has also been participatory looking at things like leadership development in the school community setting, working with SBGs, municipality, school improvement plans etc. We try to bring quite a wide range of stakeholders to say what is the vision for this work in the community. On the other hand programmes such as health communication have focused more on the message and content of messages that has been driven the theory of health communication. It is based on the social ecology model where we have individual, who is located within a family, which is located within a community and bigger society. Although it is important to work with individual, we have to understand the huge complexity of the interactions at these various levels. Although we work at the level of individual, we also try to work with community leadership with cultural norms but there is joint reflection, there is feedback but it’s not really the same model as this one.

Who are the stakeholders and are their interests in the integrated schools programmes?

There are various stakeholders as mentioned in the 2009 annual report.

There are always tensions between mandates of different stakeholders; these may not be always negative. Stakeholders also wield different amount of power as Robert Chambers
discuss (uppers and lowers). Power dynamics are different and sometimes they shift, there is power over people, power within ourselves, power with other people, power to see some things through. Our programmes have been exploring this, women are sometimes perceived not to have power, youth at school pretty powerless yet those are meant to be direct beneficiaries of the programmes SGBs; What power do they have?, They are mandated to fairly run the school. They don’t have power over but power with which requires a highly participatory approach so that all the stakeholders can actually listen and hear each other and come to some sort of mutually beneficial relationship to show understanding of reality, municipalities are mandated to run the integrated development programmes in their areas, in theory they have resources and power etc.

Qn: What is the impact of the tensions?

They can be positive or destructive, our programme take the model developed by the community development resources association, they talk about the first stage being that of relationship building. Ultimately, in a participatory development approach everything depends on that . The next stage is that of gaining understanding referred to the diagram in the report. The next stage is facilitating change. From that process emergence an action plan ideally some indicators for change. So how does one facilitate that process? Our work is not to go and make that change happen, ours is to facilitate whatever emerges from that, its not deliver the desires of the community. The next stage is supporting implementation –in supporting various stakeholders where we can in different ways and that probably changes over time and one is working through the circle over time one needs to come back to the situation of reviewing the relationship because maybe it would have changed ,maybe it will be time to pull out of that situation so it’s a continuous process. Some stakeholders fall off the way, some remain especially considering role players like SGBs who are elected . Players they move in and out and there is no necessarily continuity over a long period of time for example municipal councillors who are elected may not be there in the next round of elections, so some role players might move out off the process so we also need to look at institutionalizing the process to guarantee an element of stability and continuity in a programme and in that you find in the form of institutions and structures and policies and framework around which maybe individuals come and go but doesn’t affect sustainability of the programme.

What impact does exclusion of other stakeholders have on the programme

In this model that we use in thinking about them I have been quite been influenced by the work of John Makenut and Jody Cripsman. They say in this visioning process its very important to get the right people around the table, sometimes thats very difficult for a number of reasons: depending on: Power issues, Who has the voice, Who is marginalised.

They often talk of strangers in communities those people whose voices are often unheard. Sometimes the elderly, sometimes the youths, sometimes the disabled, it might be women. Sometimes when it turns to have dominant voices around the table, if one is leaving out certain voices, ones vision of the future is only partial which doesn’t mean you can’t go ahead it doesn’t mean that u need to be cautious of the partial matter of that vision and then you have time to strive to bring those voices otherwise those people who have been excluded are going to feel more marginalized and that can always undermine the process.
Appendix I: Interview with TVT Programmes Implementation Manager

Mr. Stephen Shisanya, July 29, 2011, email.

FROM:
  • Stephen Shisanya

TO:
  • musalubombo@yahoo.com

Friday, July 29, 2011 11:40 AM

Dear Musara,

I have given in some input to your interview.

In case of any follow-up, please feel free to contact me.

Thanks,

Stephen

That's wonderful. These are the questions I need you to answer.

1) Can you explain how TVT implements its programmes.

2) How do you make sure that all stakeholder interests are represented in the programmes.

3) What system/model/theory that you use in the identification of the stakeholders and to proceed I in the event that tensions or conflict arise due to different interests of these stakeholders

4) Are there some stakeholders who are powerful than the others? If so, how does this affect your programmes and how do you make sure that all interests are represented

5) Why do u consider stakeholder participation as necessary in your programmes.

Please kindly assist by providing as much detail as you can.

Thank you very much

Sent from my BlackBerry® wireless device
Who we are. Founded in 1953 in the Valley of a Thousand Hills in KZN, The Valley Trust is a health promotion centre working throughout the province.

Our vision is communities in which resource poor people in peri-urban and rural areas take responsibility for improving their own health and quality of life within a democratic society.

What we do. We enable people to initiate and sustain their own developmental change processes.

How we work. We engage with people in integrated processes, designed to bring about developmental change at the individual, organisational and whole systems levels. These processes include:

- Facilitation
- Supportive training
- Partnership collaboration
- Lobbying and advocacy
- Development of models of good (relevant and appropriate) practice
- Action research: research to support learning through action
- Sharing our learning through documentation and presentations in various forms.

Our work is based on the belief that:

- A poverty gap exists and poses a challenge to our work.
- Existing resources for development are badly managed and underutilized. All people have potential
- All people have choices
- All people have equal rights
- Good health and sustainable development require positive interactions between people and their environments.
- Desired results are best achieved through synergy.

Strategic Priorities

- To be recognised as a leading proponent of people-centred development.
- To align our work to national priorities.
- To emphasise personal development, advocacy, and enablement to facilitate change.
- To enhance effectiveness by working as a learning organisation and by strengthening monitoring, evaluation, and research work to ensure participatory validation.
- To be staffed by highly competent and committed personnel able to work creatively in teams and partnerships.

Transformation statements

- To positively influence people’s views of their own self-worth.
- To increase people’s awareness and understanding of opportunities for improved quality of life.
- To influence the way in which different sectors collaborate.
- To influence the systems that impact in people’s health and way of life.
Core values: Integrity, Human dignity, Proactivity, Enablement, Sustainability.

2) Can you explain how TVT implements its programmes.

Through engaging with communities in existing programmes, needs are identified that trigger a new intervention in the communities. In some cases, community members have come upfront to request TVT to intervene in situations that are affecting them. If the intervention is to be in an area where we are already working, minimum effort is required to kick-start the intervention since we have already existing information. In new areas, the whole process of community entry and ensuring total buy-in of the community has to be adhered to. In most cases we go through community gate keepers who may be elders or Indunas as advised by the community. With basic initial data, intervention plans are drawn in consultation the community members. The assumption is that funding for implementation has been secured.

The plans are drawn in such a way that it is known what activities are to be carried out on monthly basis with the accompanying budget. The plan shows in detail who, from TVT will be involved in the activity, who in the community are targeted by the activity and their numbers.

3) How do you make sure that all stakeholder interests are represented in the programmes?

During the drawing of the plan, it is ensured that all those target groups are included as participants in the programme implementation. As I indicated earlier, prior to the drawing of the plan, there is an initial engagement with the community for them to input into the planning for the implementation. The fact that TVT steps in to facilitate ensures that stakeholders’ interests are brought out. Remember we enable people do it by themselves! We don’t do it for the community. The community aside, we ensure that we have identified who in the community is having a similar intervention with the objective of working together and not competing. This is our strength, where we believe collaboration with other community development partners will have greater impact at a lesser cost.

4) What system/model/theory that you use in the identification of the stakeholders and to proceed in the event that tensions or conflict arise due to different interests of these stakeholders?

To TVT, a stakeholder in programmes implementation are actors (persons or organizations) with a vested interest in the programme being implemented. These stakeholders, or “interested parties,” can usually be grouped into the following categories: international/donors, national political (legislators), public (Departments of Health, Educations, Social Development etc), commercial/private for-profit, non-profit (nongovernmental organizations [NGOs], foundations), civil society, and users/consumers.

Critical questions for us include but not limited to:

- Who are the most important stakeholders (from a power and leadership analysis)?
- What is the stakeholders’ knowledge of the policy?
- What are the stakeholders’ positions on the specific programme to be implemented?
• What do the stakeholders see as possible advantages or disadvantages of the Programme to be implemented?
• Which stakeholders might form alliances?

5) Are there some stakeholders who are powerful than the others? If so, how does this affect your programmes and how do you make sure that all interests are represented

In any community, there will be differential power relations. Our approach is to appreciate the differences and utilise the strengths in the differing poles for the advantage of the programme. Again here, it is reminded that we are facilitators with the objective of ensuring that even the weakest have their input in the programme

The importance of stakeholders is defined here as their ability to affect the implementation of the programme. Since power and leadership are the characteristics that determine a stakeholder's ability to affect or block the programme implementation, these two characteristics are the basis for the first "importance" analysis.

6) Why do you consider stakeholder participation as necessary in your programmes.

Stakeholder participation is critical because without their buy-in in the programme, there may be no sustainability of the programme. It is not about TVT programmes but community programmes. We facilitate their ownership of the programmes.
Appendix J: Interview with the DramAidE Director

Mr. Mkonzeni Gumede, July 15, 2011. Durban.

Can you give me a quick rundown of what DramAidE is?

We do projects in public health communication in tertiary institutions which is about...We also make students aware ....

Is that the reason why your board of trustees has such a composition?

It is an attempt to make it more representative of what we do

The department of education....., department of health......, we also used to have department of social welfare.........

We thought it was important to have representation from all these departments and it could be more.....

Why is it necessary to involve all these different stakeholders?

Let me give you an example of the health promoters projects. It is a programme that speaks to health and is being conducted in tertiary institutions. If the health promoters are not known in these institutions, the authorities will not allow them to work there. So it is very important to be properly grounded and situated within the structures.

What are the roles of these departments?

Let me begin by the history of DramAidE. It started in 1992 under the request of the DoH and DoE who came to the drama department. There were drama students, all they knew was drama. They said look, we are faced with this HIV problem, we want a methodology that can show this virus so that people can believe, that shows how it multiplies..... Drama was an appropriate tool to do this. But these two departments are included in the board because our projects speak to health and education. They said we want you to teach our young people in schools across KwaZulu-Natal, which is what we are doing.

They also provide mentorship and guidance and also we are informed of their requirements. The DoH wants to see the reduction of HIV infection so that's their interest....

NGOs complements what should have been done by government. In instances where there is absence of services, NGOs come and address that need. So in a way you can't say as an NGO you work with someone without understanding the priorities of your country. Although you can start something new as well, you are not going to have sustainability for long, you have to work with government because it is charged with that responsibility. So ours is just to complement or supplement, informed by policy what has to be done.

How do you apply participation?

Participation in our projects mean that we self critical of what we do. When implementing our projects we give voice to the participants to such an extent that we provide space for them to come and give direction to the project. Established that way, we developed our own drama methodology which uses music and elements of drama which i think speak to audiences but
still not about us talking to them, but theatre where audiences participate. The idea is that we are not there to tell communities what they should do, we ask them what problems they have and what we should do to address those problems. So they tell us the problems. Its them participating in deciding what they want and feel that they are equal to determine the direction of the project.

Health seems to be your central them, how do u make sure you address health in a holistic way?

We are funded by Johns Hopkins Health Education South Africa (JHHESA) which base its approach on the social Ecology Model which ......As much as we do life skills

Are there tensions that exist among stakeholders?

Yes, there will always be tensions because we are standing in the gap as DramAidE. First, there are interests of the community, they know what they want. There are also interests of the funders. Usually the tension is about the indications that funders give you, and the timeframe that they give you and the pace at which you should do your implementation which sometimes do not tally with the pace at which community wants to move. Usually funders tie funding to timeframes, say one year, two years etc while life is not like that. Some of the problems that we deal with cannot be solved within these timeframes.

The issues that we deal with are so layered and you also have to sustain, its not like advertising Coca Cola when the sales are down. Under constrained circumstances where there are not enough resources, you find that projects take longer. Also the methodology that we use take longer ....if you need to do justice , you have to be there for long

How do you reconcile this tension?

All our projects are evaluated, because objectively, no one needs to be excluded. Look we as DramAide also have our interest the same way as the funders, but if we agree to end up the project and find an outsider to evaluate the project and give us an objective view, we then engage and agree on the way forward.

What impact does leaving out other stakeholders such as learners?

I would not say there is much impact because how we structure our projects is that in communities we create local committees to oversee the projects that we do, through evaluation of some sort. Look, our projects are also research based for instance, you will need a person that work at that level, but I am not saying its not important to involved learners but i don’t think they are a key stakeholder. Tertiary educational institutions are represented, DoE is represented. They could, however second, through their Student Representative Council, someone to represent them if they want to. It’s not that it’s closed.

However, I think there is one stakeholder that is missing. I think we are missing business because if you look at the international trends concerning funding, we are very poor, engaging local funding. Look at the rate of infection among women which is higher than that of men. So if we want to make justice to the issues that we want addressed, will have a very big board. Of course we have representation from the National Association of People living With HIV/AIDS (NAPWA) but i am not saying we have to choose representatives based on these
factors. All we want is to be properly informed so that we can come up with effective programmes. The board members that we have are knowledgeable about these programmes as they have been involved in such programmes in one way or another. They have a wealthy of information that we need to run this organisation.

What are the challenges that you have by using participation?

There are a number of challenges that we have. Payment of workers. We need to pay our workers. They work the whole day. Thats life. Also, we work to provide information yet there are more urgent needs in these communities such as food etc. You are likely to have less cooperation of such communities if you go to provide social support. All these are the challenges we face.

Funding is also a problem. When you run out of money you stop working yet communities will have established relationships, and they are still implementing the project. These are the challenges that are part of development work, they are part of us.

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Appendix K: Interview with the DramAidE Monitoring & Evaluation Officer


Introduction yourself and your organisation

Karen Peters monitoring and evaluation officer at Dramaide

Dram aide is a non profit organisation based on two campuses, University of Zululand in Kwandengezi and at UKZN Howard College . We are a participatory communication organisation, we use a participatory approach .We are basically a communication NGO, we train people on communicating HIV prevention messages, yes that’s what we do .

And you have various projects devoted to that?

Sure, we have various projects that we run for that would you like me to introduce the project? One of the projects is called the Health Promoters projects; the Health Promoters project employs HIV positive people that are based at tertiary educational institutions across South Africa, various institutions to communicate HIV prevention messages and to live as role models on the campus for the students to have a positive life style. The initial vision or mission of the project was to eliminate stigma attached to HIV and it’s still the mission but it’s obviously developed because the social issues as stigma is not important as it was when the project first began. But it’s still the message about positive living, looking after ones’ self, nutrition and treatment is still needed.

A quick run down of the participatory approach

Ok, that’s awesome. For all of our projects we offer training. That’s one activity that runs across all of them and what has been involved with it regards to training is obviously from our funders big group. We have six program areas with regards to HIV prevention that we have to focus on. In terms of HIV we have programmes on abstinence rather sexual prevention, condom usage, male circumcision, and treatment literacy. We have all of these possible program areas to focus on and we contact the institutions and organisations that we already partnered with and we say to them we would like to offer you peer education training and we have these program areas, what do you think your peer educators would need? Then they will explain we have done some HIV sexual prevention, can you focus on treatment logistics and we say ok. We develop the curriculum the beginning of the year, they are prefix curriculums but it’s up to the facilitator to use the curriculum and develop their own lesson plan. So the curriculum which actually means the content of the work shop of the session,,, but it’s up to the facilitator as to how far into each content she goes depending on the situation .Then the lesson plan is developed each facilitator according to the needs of the training. The facilitator will uses methods during the training that encourages participation among numbers and because we are based in
drama and methodology, the participation becomes more like drama techniques, more plays will be one of them and different key African rhymes as well during the training to encourage participation

Involvement of stakeholders

Yes, absolutely

What stages do they get involved?

The term stakeholders need to be unpacked because the people that we training are also the stakeholders. Ok, so there is different type of stakeholders also within the institution, for example, at the beginning of the planning of going to do the training, we would involve the HIV unit, the contact person in the institution or that organisation, these are the people we already know we have been working with them for years. For example, either the healthier promoter on campuses or in a community based organisation its community facilitator so they are the people we provide funding for their employment as well, we know them on a constant basis they have always been involved. Even during the training, they organise and come facilitate with us and after the training as well. They are our contact people on site in case the peer educators or people we are providing training to need assistance. At other levels, the stakeholders who are the people we are training, peer educators, their involvement comes not rarely before the planning and stage but during the training and then after the training because we train people to do something and not train them to just know so their involvement happens mostly after the training process takes place. The other thing to note is because i said we already have relationships with the institutions the reasons we have

Is it the ministry of education?

No it’s like tertiary institutions, for example Howard College Campus, UKZN rather. We have a memorandum of agreement or understanding with the university institution like for example Howard college campus right but we also have institutions so many levels of it, we have not necessarily memorandum of understanding but we have relationships with the department of education department of health officials. It’s quite hectic we are cutting across projects. We have linkages with organisations institutions, departments because we have known them for a long time. What I was going to say is what is interesting in terms of participation and what we try to do is the fact that we have people in the community that have always been there, for example if I come to Howard College and Musa may be my Health Promoter on this campus, Musa is also a student so even though I am training peer educators okay, Musa is a peer educator or part of that environment he is not separate to the people that we are training so Musa is like a representative to DramAidE. So that is why the community facilitators work closely with the peer educators and Health promoters work closely with the students. Peer educators are school learners and we also work with the
department of education who have identified the school learners who are in need of peer education.

Do you identify some along the way?

No, absolutely especially this year like I said we are doing working districts so it’s been different for us because we have to learn about all the community organisations and other NGOs that are working or operating in the EThekwini District so we do meet them along the way and they become part of the program. Also we meet up with other stakeholders through other stakeholders so the department of education will say there is an organisation called Help to Educate , for example, it will be good for you to maybe work with them and we will and we meet with them and we discuss how we can better each other’s programs. Because there has been many times Dram aide here in EThekwini has worked with Help to Educate, for example, we did not even know them before we started, she is already visiting their school, they have peer education programs and we are already working with them now.

Any system you use to identify them?

I wouldn’t say the system necessarily but when we were planning on doing this district work it was like obvious to us it’s like if you are going to work in the district contact the department of Health go sit on the task team for HIV in the district. Invite yourself to these meetings, local area council meetings, so it’s not really a system to say we know you must tick off a list you have done this, you have done this there are certain people you have to work with the department of education, you cannot work separately from them or else your project will not get anywhere.

Any moment you felt you left out important stakeholders and if so what impact did it have?

Personally I have not experienced that but I have heard a lot of facilitators who have had that experience and it happens mostly. I am not saying one specific facilitator but it happens a lot with traditional leaders because you have to get buy-in through them to work in their community as well. A lot of them do not sit on government boardies, some of them will, obviously who are up to date but a lot of them do not, so if you do not have that buy-in, your campaign or your training or whatever you are planning in that community can barely fall flat. You would have got permission from the government but they will say no, this is my land you cannot do anything. I think we have also learnt from our mistakes so I do not think that has happened very often because I think now we know that we have to obviously start with all the stakeholders which is very time consuming because you have to go to each of them separately as well to meet with them not just a matter of a phone call, - hey how are you, this is who we are. We want o work with you - but you have to go there and sit with the traditional leader and discuss what is it that you plan on doing.
Appendix L: Interview with the DramAidE Facilitator

Ms Zama Mbambo, July 6, 2011. Durban

What does participation entail in the projects that you are involved in?

We do quit a lot of drama methodology basically

Just drama

Yah Drama and action media, so action media is poetry, dance, music, drama, you know, painting and stuff. Its action media thats what we use.

Any specific projects that you use

The specific one is the Steldom Theathre one. We are from there, thats one of the very participatory programmes.

Various projects?

We work throughout because scrutinise campaigns we train people first; and then they have to come up with a campaign. We help them come up with a campaign, access small campaigns, so we do but not all. We help promoters projects, its not my project its someone elses’ project but we do help there if like she is working with peer educators and we need to train. Thats when we get hold of them and yeh, but its not my project basically I wouldn’t say that we scrutinise campaigns if someone else’s projects or Brothers for life is this persons project ,we trust the projects that we have; so like next week will be conduction training in Claymond, so its brothers for life training

Who will you be training?

We work with different organisations CPOs , FPOs,

What are those?

Community Based Organisations, Faith Based Organisations, other NGOs basically.

How do you identify these organisations?

I work in the district so we had meetings with different stakeholders like municipality, department of health some officials not everyone, some officials like the department of social development, of education, and then we told them what we do, like the program areas that we focus on, and then they chose that we would like you to help us on this and this and this so they, like for an example, municipality recommended some organisations but then we told them its not them who tell us that we would like you to go and work there, we tell them that. I work in seven districts and my focus is going to be Umbumbulu and my focus is going to be Pine town so I
approach people who work in those areas like municipality, the department officials who work in Pine town and then they say ok Zama this is what we would like you to do. Before I do that, I go to the community and I find all the stakeholders there. What is it that you do, invite them, have meetings with them and tell them about our program areas and then after that they decide on what is it they would like us to train them on, so its participatory manner, we just don’t go and say we are going to train you on this and this, but we say to them this is what we have got.

So are you saying you are there as an instrument to help?

We strengthen their capacity yeh, we just do not go there and say do this, but they select from our program like our program areas like if they need training in CP, we can’t just train anyone on CP, so they have to tell us that this is what we do and we feel that your training will benefit us and we tell them that ok our training involves this and this and they say ok fine. So when we do training we use drama methodology, so its not just like a lecture thing, we play games, we have talk shows sometimes they come up with songs they get information and put it together come up with songs integrate them with the play, so its a bit of everything really.

Why is it necessary to hold meetings with those stakeholders?

Because we do not want to work as an island, I mean you find that we do something only to find out that other organisations are already providing it. So there is going to be that redundancy if I may put it like that, so the best thing is to have meetings with them first; for example DSC Department of Social Development, they work with a number of community based organisations so if I just go straight to these organisations and maybe I approach one organisation, the other organisation is going to complain. What we are trying to do is get everyone to work in collaboration not one doing their own thing and when we go to this one they do not know what the other person is doing. So the meetings first, the stakeholders meeting help in the sense that you get to know what the other person is doing and we have actually noticed that when they talk to use towards the end of the meeting they thank us. They say no I did not know that there was this organisation just around the corner and yet they are in the same community, same area so now we get to work as a team in the same community and say ok this one has problems like a child is being abused, they come to you and you know that you will not be able to help but its easy for you to say ok, I have a minute. you pick up your phone and say ok I have asked this person to come and see you guys because of this so there is no anonymity or stuff like tension when they talk, communicate because they have been together in meetings and plan together. It’s like after planning they talk together and say ok what is it that we need guys, do we need training on this? And they say ok we need training on this, and they call you. You go and train them and when you train you do not train just one organisation, it’s about five people from different organisations so after that you say ok now we have to come up with a campaign after training. Like today there was a meeting at 11 O’clock at Claymont. Stakeholders got together now they have to
look at the proposal, our proposal because they have to apply for funding looking into that, put together what is it that they will be doing during the campaign, forward that to us we are going to have a look at it and deposit the money into their account and we have to come up with a campaign, together, it is not going to be Musa’s campaign or Zama’s campaign so we are going to come up with one theme, something like “think before you act” or “abstinence is cool” but you find out that its a number of organisations

You have highlighted that you work with a number of organisations........

You know sometimes everyone expects us to know everything, they bring kids and we only take from 0 to 10 and they bring like 14, 15 year olds and we do not know and they say to them go to these people and we have our own problems you know, and you finally deal with your problems only to find out that if they are there when you say to them see there, they say oh yeh, and you by the time you talk to them they all have one mind set because they say they need each other as a community We need each other, yes we have different problems but we need each other, we need to communicate, we need to know, we need to listen as well people are crying out, then it’s easy once we have done that its easy.
Appendix M: Interview with the DramAidE Board Chairman and CCMS Director

Prof. Keyan Tomaselli, July 5, 2011, email.

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INTERVIEW GUIDE

The overall objective of the study is to examine DramAidE’s stakeholder integration process for its various programmes. I want to understand the nature of your interests, interaction with, and involvement in the activities of DramAidE. I intended this to be an interview ‘discussion’ in order to get as much information as possible from the stakeholders. As such, the discussion centres and revolves around the following fluid guiding questions.

Note: If given this guide as a ‘questionnaire’ please converse with it as if you are engaged in a natural conversation. Give detailed explanations, not only restricted to the listed questions but to whatever you feel might be relevant to the subject under discussion.

Questions for Stakeholders:

I understand that you are one of the DramAidE board members, and at the same time a Director for CCMS, one of the key institutions with interests in the activities of DramAide.

Are you in the board in your individual capacity or as a representative of CCMS interests?

I am now chairman of the board since the retirement last year of the UNIZUL chair. Previously I served as a member of CCMS, and in terms of the MOU CCMS has with DramAidE

What is the nature of the relationship between CCMS and DramAidE?

See attached documents (pp. 24-8 of the centre application and the MOU.

Beside CCMS, I also notice that DramAidE board members are drawn from other organisations and institutions such as Johns Hopkins Health Education SA, Department of Health, Department of Education and Centre for AIDS Development, Research and Evaluation (CADRE)

As a 2010 Acting Chairman, can you explain why there is such composition?
The board is comprised of donor and contracting bodies, experts in the field, provincial agencies and participating university representatives. These are representatives who are committed to DramAidE’s vision and work. Please note that parker no longer represents CADRE as he resigned from that organization about 2 years ago. CADRE is thus not currently represented

Do you think if all these organisations where not represented at DramAidE, its activities would be succeeding?

As the key donor, JHESA’s participation is crucial. Not all donors or contractors are on the board. The board mainly offers advice on policy, governance, strategy, fund raising and facilitates access to contractors like the Dept of Education. It does not micro manage DramAidE. That is left to the DramAidE management committee. DramAidE runs many projects over and above those facilitated by individual board members.

Which of these organisations (if any) has more influence and control (than others) over the activities of DramAidE?

The board operates on the basis of consensus.

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Appendix N: Interview with the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Manager for Special Needs Education Services, Department Of Education

Ms Thobile Sifunda October 25, 2010, Pietermaritzburg.

Are you, and in which sense, involved with TVT, OneVoice and DramAidE?

Yes we are. They are responsible for programmes which target vulnerable children and this directorate is responsible for programmes for care and support, for learners. Because these organisations target learners who have barriers to learning or vulnerable children, we work closely with them.

How are you involved in the Programmes

What happens is, when as a department get approached by an organisation, the HOD uses his discretion in terms of where the programme is to be located. So if an organisation comes in and say we are targeting OVC, or learners affected by HIV/AIDS then of course the HOD will refer them to our directorate the Special Needs Education Service Directorate. We then meet with the relevant stakeholders/organisation. We give them the platform to articulate their programme to tell us what they are offering to the Department as a proposal and then we screen their programme for quality to make sure that whatever that they will be doing will be enhancing the goals and objectives of our programmes because we don’t want them really to implement things that are out of line.

Once we have subjected their programme to our test, depending on how it fares, then we establish partnerships with the various organisations and those partnerships will be formal. We enter into a Memorandum of Understanding where we spell out the terms of our engagement. Of course there will be a service delivery agreement in terms of what is expected of the parties and the time frame of the project, and if there are financial implications all will be listed.

We then direct them to, and facilitate interface with the district where implementation happens. Depending on their capacity, we prefer that they pilot whatever it is that they do just to test it out and see that indeed it is something that we would love scale up together. They then work with the district and the district report to us.

The MOU covers structures to be set up. Structures for management, coordination, terms of reference like how often they are to meet and normally it would be monthly.

How influential is your Department in the work of these NGOs

Because of the screening process that we go through, more often than not we decide at this level whether we like them or not. Our screening is quite intensive and it helps because it helps us to eliminate those that we don’t want. We don’t start on a process and then discover these are not the people we would really have wanted to work with.

How important is your role in these programmes
The terms of engagement that are contained in the MOU spell out what each party is committing to do. Under normal circumstances the department will commit things like time. These organisations cannot be there without our involvement. For them to get to schools we will have to facilitate that. We write circulars announcing them, get to meetings where we introduce them to the district and that’s time we count time as our input to the programme.

They can’t write to the departmental officials, we do. We also facilitate their meetings.

What interests do you have in these partnerships?

Schools are very sensitive. You can’t get there as a stranger without a mandate. We have a line function. Schools know where they take instructions from so if you are to come from the outside and start demanding things or wanting to do things for them, then chances are that you are not going to get their cooperation. Even if you did, unless you only wanted to work just with one school, and the Principal agrees to it, you would still have a problem because you can’t sustain the programme because the custodians of your programme are people like ourselves, so it will be a dead start. You would have your way with the principal, if he allows you, but then what happens to your programme. Who is going to sustain it, how are you going to make it come alive, how are you going to ensure that it gets aligned to the departmental programmes and that indeed it lives on beyond you or the input from your organisation. So we would need to be involved from the word go.

Do you interact with other Stakeholders?

Absolutely, we are in care and support for learning as I have mentioned. Beyond the department of education there are other depts. With primary mandate of care and support for example department of health, social development, etc. we can’t carry this mandate alone. We clearly have to rope in other departments for example when we need social grants for the OVC we ask the relevant department. We can’t assess whether the children have barriers to learning/hearing, we need expertise from department of health. We are just one unit, we need other units. We need to build linkages with other government departments, business, and civil society (NGOs). That’s how it goes.

We always say to these organisations ALIGN OR PERISH. So we say to them align because government will always be there, you can’t get funding from donors forever. Few years down the line you exhaust the funding but government will always be there. So the best thing to do if you are an NGO is not to come here and start telling us what to do just because you have discovered this beautiful concept and you think you have these wonderful formulas, we say to you listen, align to government programmes because we guarantee sustainability. You can inform because we want you to probably better what we have but you can’t come in and start dictating. We would rather partner and people must understand that these are government programmes and you are there to assist us achieve government programmes. For us that’s clear cut and we don’t compromise there.

How then do you resolve the differences?

We negotiate right from the beginning when they come and approach us. Of course they say we have got this proposal. We look at the proposal and we present where government is in light of the proposed aspects. Now we look at how we can align what you have got to where
we are so that we can actually incorporate what you are doing to government programmes and guarantee some sustainability.

If you can’t align, if there is no quality, then tough luck. That is negotiation. We have a strategy we are implementing here, so come on board and implement with us within the government strategy and you are guaranteed the success that you probably desire. But if you are going to be off the tangent with this beautiful programme, by the time you leave it will be this huge white elephant that we can’t do much about or sustain.

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