A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF THE LANGUAGE USED IN A PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT CASE STUDY

BY

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DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree examination i
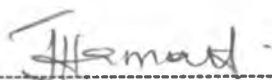any other university

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DEDICATION

To the memory of my late father WILLIAM WAKWABUBI (1924-2000) and brother HENRY MULONGO (1964-1999), from whom the value of language, I derived.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

The study is made up of five chapters, which form the body text and the case study under analysis has been annexed at the end. Chapter one deals the proposal for the research. A discourse analysis of the language used in participatory development investigates how the writer of the case study uses language to convey the intended information to the readers. Communication is possible through manipulative use of language, that keeps into consideration readers interpretation techniques of sentences, topics, presuppositions, implicature and information structure. The term discourse is social since it is the basis for all human communication using language (both spoken and written) and for it to be analysed, ordinary language data is required. Discourse analysis deals with structure of natural forms of language found in conversations, interviews, commentaries and speeches while text analysis deals with all forms of written language. However in this study, discourse analysis at a more general level subsumes the two approaches.

In spite of the fact that discourse analysis has received little attention, it was the structuralist school that first made pronouncements on it in the 1950s. From this time up to the moment, there are abounding efforts of research on discourse analysis. A discourse analysis of the language used in participatory development is essential in order to establish features that give meaning to the case study and facilitate its interpretation by readers. Little linguistic research has been conducted on discourse features that give meanings to texts. This is a knowledge gap, which the study aims to provide some insights on textual features based on participatory development- a case study written in the Kenyan English. The hypotheses for the study include the following: sentences used in the case study have local cohesion/connectivity, sentences in the case study depend on each other to convey their full information, and the case study contains organisational clues and principles, which enable readers to perceive and decode accurately its meaning as a text. In line with these, the investigation aims to show an underlying structural plan and compositional techniques that

give meaning to the case study, sentential interrelationships, and properties of written discourse. The study is justified on grounds that limited research has been done on discourse features above the sentence level. It is also aimed to make readers conscious of the text production processes and make the writers of participatory development literature to be aware of how their texts are received and interpreted. Only texts written in English written are dealt with, with one case study being analysed within the transactional framework.

An eclectic approach has been adopted for this study owing to the lack of a coherent discourse analysis theory. Three conceptual approaches are used. They include cohesion, coherence and the topic approach. A cohesion approach is used to identify links between sentences and sequences of sentences that chunk together and how they are to be interpreted. A coherence approach is used to identify connected propositions (those without overt connectors). For this to be possible, contextual information and background (world) knowledge is needed. Such an approach (and not a cohesion approach) is aided by theories from semantics and pragmatics. Topic approach is the concern of both cohesion and coherence, although it lays more emphasis on coherence. It is used to identify theme, rheme, given and new information and the general organisation of information in the case study. Topic in this framework is to be seen as a representation of content and paragraphs on the other hand are to be seen as topic boundary markers and assist readers to interpret the case study easily using background knowledge.

Corpus data in the form of sentences constructed by the case study writer have been used and analysed in three stages. First is regularisation stage in which grammatical errors in the text have been ignored, second is standardisation in which variations in data is assumed and third is the decontextualisation stage in which sentences have been removed from contexts in which they occur. All this has been aided by the desk-study method. The case study under analysis was selected on the basis of a judgmental sampling framework.

Chapter two analyses the case study in terms of cohesive ties and the role they play in the interpretation of sentences. Cohesive ties give the case study a texture, which at the end makes it a text. Cohesive relationships are dealt with in this chapter in terms of endophoric relations, substitution, textual reference, textual pronouns, textual conjunction, disjunctive relations, conditional connection and connection through contrastives, all of which have a strong bearing on the textual structure of the case study.

Coherence in the case study is dealt with in chapter three. In this chapter, coherence is seen as a textual property that lies in the minds of readers. It is very crucial for the case study interpretation and is used by readers to fill in the gaps in order to meaningfully understand it. In this chapter, coherence is analysed using both semantic and pragmatic properties. These are crucial in identifying sentential propositions that depend on each other for the meaning and interpretation. Background knowledge is essential for this interpretation and the chapter analyses how it is represented in the case study through frames, scripts, scenarios and schemata. Use of implicature and metaphor to achieve coherence in the case study is also dealt with in this chapter.

Chapter four investigates how the case study is organised by the writer in order to achieve a textual structure. Through the linearisation process, words, clauses, sentences, sequences of sentences, paragraphs and events are structured in one textual whole. Features adopted in this structuring process are analysed in the chapter and include theme and rheme, thematic structure, staging, tittles, given and new information, topic and paragraphs. All these are analysed using a cohesion and a coherence approach, which when combined form a topic approach. Such strategy of organising information in the case study is done for the sole purpose of facilitating interpretation.

The last chapter gives a summary of the conclusions and general observations in relation to the research problem and testability of the hypotheses. A conclusion that language in case study is provides a set of shared meanings is made and that the case study as a text, is made up of sentences and sequences of sentences that are connected and that also depend on each other for meaning. Sentences in the case study are organised in such way as to convey information and meaning in the most effective way.

Acronyms

CBOs	Community Based Organisation
GSI	Gender Sensitive Initiatives
IBI	International Broadcast Institute
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PAMFORK	Participatory Methodologies Forum of Kenya
PM&E	Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PEP	Participatory Evaluation Process
RCPLA	Resource Centres for Participatory Learning and Action
RRA	Rapid Rural Appraisal
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development

Participatory Development Quote

The necessary behaviour and attitudes include outsiders sitting down, listening and learning relaxing and rushing "handing over the stick" (or pen and chalk), embracing error and falling forwards, being transparently clear about who they are, their purposes and what can and what cannot be expected and being nice to people. Rigid rules are replaced by using one's own best judgement at all times, asking local people not just what they know and how they would like to show it, but also how they advise outsiders to behave and to become better facilitators. *Chambers (1995:2)*

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

Discourse analysis seeks to investigate how speakers/writers use language to pass information to their hearers/readers. It specifically deals with the analysis of utterances/sentences and how they are used in sequences to produce both cohesive and coherent stretches of discourse. While discourse analysis refers to the scientific study of discourse, discourse is a term that denotes a total communicative event, which includes the context and principles that could be used for its interpretation. Discourse analysis investigates how speakers and writers use language for communication, how they use utterances and sentences to convey information to their audiences and how audiences interpret messages directed to them. Speakers and writers produce and use topics, presuppositions and information structure from which addressees make reference and inferences. Brown and Yule (1983:x) observe that discourse analysis includes the study of linguistic forms, the regularities of their distribution and also involves a consideration of the general principles of interpretation by which people normally make sense of what they hear and read. For Halliday discourse analysis has to be founded on a study of a system of the language. At the same time the main reason for studying the system is to throw light on discourse- on what people say and write and listen to and read. Both system and text have to be in focus of attention (1985:xxii).

A text contains a sequence of sentences characterised by dependencies on each other for effective meaning. They are thus not disjointed. Based on this premise, the scientific study of text aims to explicate features of language that connect sentences in a sequence and make them rely on each other to derive meaning irrespective of where they occur in a text. This is all under the rubric of discourse analysis since it deals with language in use. According to Brown and Yule (1983:1), a discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of language use. Language can be used transactionally to express the content or

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interactionally to express social relations and personal attitudes. Coulthard (1977:10) remarks that sentences combine to form texts and the relations between sentences are aspects of grammatical cohesion, utterances combine to form discourse and the relations between them are aspects of discourse coherence.

Discourse analysis deals with the structure of naturally occurring language as conversations, interviews, commentaries and speeches. Text analysis investigates the structure of written language in essays, public notices, road signs and chapters. This distinction between the two should not create confusion since the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably to refer to all units of language used in communication irrespective of whether they are spoken or written. There are two types of texts: the written and the spoken text. Brown and Yule argue that in a piece of expository prose, the author's indication of the development of the argument contributes to the reader's experience of the text. Thus titles, chapter headings, sub-divisions and sub-headings all indicate to the reader how the author intends his argument to be chunked (1983: 7).

Despite the current fruitful research in discourse analysis, little research has been done on the analysis of the language used in participatory development. For research on discourse analysis to do well, considerations of extending research in areas that have not been investigated is warranted. One of the ways in which language is used is in the field of participatory development. The case study being studied reflects efforts towards engendering participatory development. The case study is used as a text to be read by outsiders, who did not participate in its writing. In writing of case studies for participatory development, participatory methodologies are used to collect data, which reflect the views of members of the community, who development workers are working for. They are to be read by development agencies and other interested development stakeholders.

Language in the case study provides a shared set of meanings to be read and learnt by various actors working with communities. Elliot (1999:14-15) remarks that there has developed a growing understanding of how language and the way we use it makes our world, that is we can only experience, understand and communicate with others about the world (and even ourselves) through the use of language. Language is therefore the primary mode of contact with our reality and the essential mode of checking that reality with others. The Case study, which is about communities, should therefore be seen as a text in this line of argument. Elliot goes ahead to note that:

> *Just as a literary scholar reads a text from many different perspectives as narrative, as memoir of history, as fiction, as self-disclosure, as derivative from earlier sources- and holds all of these readings in his mind at once, so we can read an organisation or community in very much different ways, recognising that no one reading is any better than any other. Some might be more appropriate for particular purposes than others, some might appeal to some people more than others (1999: 15).*

1.1 Background to the Study

Discourse analysis is a linguistic field that has not received much attention. Hoey (1983:1) remarks that, until recently, discourse analysis has been the Cinderella of linguistics, seen as irrelevant to all the most important theoretical problems of the discipline. It has now gained momentum and evidence for its study can be traced back to the structuralist school of linguistic thought. According to Coulthard, the first linguist to attempt discourse analysis was Harris, who studied a written text, followed by Mitchell, who based his study on spoken texts. He argues that Harris worked in the Bloomfiedian tradition and produced a formal method of analysis of connected speech or writing which did not depend on the analysts knowledge of the particular meaning of each morpheme (1977: 3). Harris used a distributional analysis to identify structures above a sentence.

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Coulthard notes that the aim of an analysis done by Harris was to isolate units of a text which are distributionally equivalent though not necessarily similar in meaning, that is equivalencies which have validity for that text alone (1977: 4). Hoey (1983:2) argues that it is true that Zellig Harris had published some papers in 1952 which had introduced the term discourse analysis into the linguist's vocabulary even though it did not take root and later in that year, it was taken over by transformations introduced into the syntactic theory.

Mitchell's work was based on the Firthian tradition in which he identified relevant elements of situation and relevant participants in detail and divides the buying and selling process into stages on purely semantic criteria, admitting that stage is an abstract category and the numberings of stages does not necessarily imply sequence in time (Coulthard 1977: 5). He describes three major categories of transaction: - market auctions, other market transactions, shop transactions and gives the following five stages:

1. Salutation
2. Enquiry as to the object of sale
3. Investigation as to the object of sale
4. Bargaining
5. Conclusion

Kenneth Pike also attempted a discourse analysis in his tagmemic approach in the 1960s. Hoey argues that Pike had shown awareness of the need to consider units large than the sentence and had framed his tagmemic model so that it would be able to incorporate study of discourse, however his analysis were too sketchy even though they were picked up by other others in the endeavour of studying discourse (1983:2).

Coulthard observes that that there were at least four levels of organisation: phonology, grammar, discourse and non-linguistic in a spoken text. The structure

in each of these levels can be expressed in terms of small units within phonology and grammar, the traditional concern of linguistics.

For exemplification purposes, the descriptive units proposed by Sinclair et al (Coulthard 1977:6) given below are used although one could substitute similar terms from other systems:

Phonology	Grammar	Discourse (Sinclair et al)	Non-linguistic (Mitchell)
Phoneme			
Syllable			
	Morpheme		
Foot			
	Word		
	Group		
Tone group			
	Clause		
		Act	
	Sentence		
		Move	
		Exchange	Stage
			Transaction

The above arrangement indicate that there were four levels in the analysis of any text.

Within discourse analysis, one does not only deal with a set of grammatically well-formed sentences. One is able to deal with sentences that are even grammatically odd, since they still do have a communicative value. Labov (Coulthard 1977:7) argues that the first and most important step is to distinguish "what is said" from "what is done", that is, discourse analysis must

be concerned with the functional use of language. This means that for all discourse analysts, the unit of analysis is not a grammatically defined clause or sentence. The basic unit is the speech act.

Since the case study is written in English language, the background of the language is also fruitful to the study. The origins and development of English Language has been greatly influenced by the social, cultural and political environment. All these are factors, which have made English Language to be what it is today. Baugh (1957:1) remarks that English should be treated as a cultural subject within the view of all educated people, while including enough references to technical matters to make clear the scientific principles involved in linguistic evolution. The present day English is a reflection of development realised through many centuries. English Language has undergone great changes. Old words have been lost and new ones have been created. Meanings of words have also been changed. Baugh argues that much of the vocabulary of Old English have been lost and the development of new words to meet new conditions is one of the most familiar phenomena of our language (1957: 3). The Language grew from these earlier stages and has now become a global language used politically, economically, commercially, socially and culturally. The number of the people who speak it has been increasing every now and then owing to the expansion of its scope of usage to areas where it had never been used. It is the mothertongue of nations whose combined political influence, economic soundness, commercial activity, social well-being and scientific and cultural contributions to civilisation give impressive support to its numerical precedence (1957: 8).

One of the special usage of the language is found in development fora, seminars, symposia and conferences, in which it has been used to write developmental literature, one of which (the case study) is being investigated by the study. Such usage has emerged probably because of the fact noted by Baugh that the language shares with other highly developed languages of Europe the ability to

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express the multiplicity of ideas and the refinements of thought that demand expression in our modern civilisation (1957: 8). The growth of science, mass media, world wars, and colonisation have all assisted in making English an international language, and now it mirrors the development of countries in which it is spoken. After independence, the new government adopted English Language for national and international functions and made it a compulsory subject to be taught in schools and colleges. It was made a national language and was put to specialised usage in parliament, in the courts, in the mass media, in churches, in development consultations and conferences in which the case study for participatory development acquire a limelight. All these usage vary from each other. Herndon (1970:48) contends that as more modern methods have been applied to the study of language, there has been a tendency to recognise dialect differences and varieties of usage for what they are rather than attempting to pin "right" and "wrong" labels to them. Herndon comments that the English Language, which spread with the British Empire, was adapted to new uses, and adapted itself to others. However it is worthy noting that the history of English Language shows that the language is dynamic, flexible, and can creatively be put to usages that are not standard.

The Participatory Methodologies Forum of Kenya (PAMFORK) is a broad-based network of the National Council of NGOs of Kenya. A Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) first held in Kenya in 1988 in Katheka, Mbusyani sub-location, Kangundo Division, Machakos District, witnessed the rebirth of emphasis on a people-centred development. This later on, led to the development of the first PRA training manual in 1989. This is believed to have triggered PRA practitioners into forming what later came to be known as Participatory Methodologies Forum of Kenya (PAMFORK). It emerged from the fact that the founding members felt that there was need to develop a forum for sharing experiences in the field of participatory approaches. In February 1994, PAMFORK was established after a Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) workshop hosted by Oxfam. The workshop brought together practitioners of participatory

approaches to share their development experiences. In order to influence future directions in participatory development, the meeting advocated for an organised forum for sharing experiences and ensuring quality application of participatory development approaches. PAMFORK was launched as all-inclusive network of practitioners of participatory development and its sole purpose was to promote participatory methods of community organising and development. Its long-term goal of empowering communities and promoting existing innate potential for transformation through participatory methodologies and home grown initiatives, is aptly captured in its vision and mission. Its vision is to enhance participatory development and ensure the establishment of community owned and sustained development programmes in Kenya and its mission is to identify and promote innovative and novel participatory approaches that evolve out of community driven and community-centred processes, and ensure quality application and utilisation of participatory methodologies to achieve people centred development in Kenya.

Participatory development deals with efforts to eradicate poverty afflicting the vulnerable groups by involving them in the design, analysis and implementation of development programmes designed to improve their well-being. Guijt and Shah (1998:1) note that the broad aim of participatory development is to increase the involvement of socially and economically marginalised people in decision-making over their own lives. Participatory development can only be achieved through the use of participatory methodologies which inculcate skills and confidence into the poor and vulnerable groups while empowering them to analyse and interpret conditions affecting them and develop mechanisms to come out of them. According to Guijt and Shah, the ultimate goal of participatory development is to achieve equitable and sustainable development (ibid.). Holland and Blackburn (1998) remark that participatory approaches provide space for local people to establish their own analytical framework and thus challenge development from above. For Bainbridge (2000:5), participatory methodologies have proved to be effective in enabling local people to take

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greater control of the development process. They have also enhanced the delivery of services to vulnerable groups by external support agencies and increased the viability of development programmes and projects by using local knowledge capacities and priorities as the basis for learning and action.

1.2   Research Problem

The study is a discourse analysis of the language used in participatory development. It aims at giving an exposition to a participatory development case study in order to identify textual features that contribute to its meaningfulness. Language in the case study is organised around clues and principles that facilitate effective communication between the writer and reader and it is the aim of this study to identify and analyse these principles.

Scanty literature exists on the study and analysis of the language used in participatory development. Other usages of languages such as political speeches, language used in the newspapers and other forms of mass media, legal language, language in liturgical sermons and literature, language of the sports, language of advertising, scientific language and language in literary texts etc. have all undergone some form of linguistic research. Such analysis, to a large extent has not been focused on the framework of discourse analysis and specifically more attention has been directed on the syntactic and stylistic features. It is on the basis of this knowledge gap that this study has been carried out.

Corollary to the above, is the abounding evidence that no researcher has attempted a discourse analysis of the written English language within the Kenyan context. What might have contributed to this may be is the lack of a coherent theory of discourse analysis. The study therefore also aims at providing some insights about the textual features based on case study written in the Kenyan English.

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Case study writers have mastered the syntax of case studies. However they are trapped in their own cultures, they never learn its grammar. They remain outsiders looking in and can not even visualise what it might be like to be an insider looking out. This study looks inside the language of the case study in order to identify how it can be read and understood by outsiders. The analysis will investigate how language shapes meaning and how meaning shapes the language in the case study. It seeks to answer the following specific questions:

- What gives meaning to the language used in the case study for participatory development?
- When is it most meaningful?
- How is meaning conveyed in the case study?
- What are the different ways in which the case study can be read/interpreted?
- How should the case study be read?
- What should be the most creative way to read the case study at any time, place or any particular contemporary context?
- What are the rules of construction and word order that make sentences in the case study intelligible?
- What makes sentences mean what the case study writer wants them to mean?
- What makes linked sentences convey precise concepts of complex meaning?

1.3 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be tested by the study:

Hypothesis 1

Sentences used in the case study have local cohesion/connectivity.

Hypothesis 2

Sentences in the case study depend on each other to convey their full information.

Hypothesis 3

The case study contains organisational clues and principles, which enable readers to perceive and decode accurately its meaning as a text.

1.4   Research Objectives

Specifically the study will analyse the case study in order to:

- ◆ Show that an underlying structural plan, compositional techniques and devices that give meaning to sentences used in the case study.
- ◆ Investigate how meaning of sentences in the case study depends on the meaning of other sentences. It seeks to discuss sentential interrelationships in the case studies.
- ◆ Identify and account for the properties of discourse used in the case study.

1.5   Justification of the Study

A discourse analysis has not been conducted before on the case studies for participatory development. This is because of the fact that people rarely read development literature when compared to other forms of general readership literature. The structure of sentences in the sense of combination of clauses into large units has been little studied. This study is expected to give some suggestions (particularly on meaningfulness) on how to improve the quality of the case studies for participatory development.

Participatory development can only be achieved through the use of approaches that will engender people's participation in development projects. The case study

used demonstrates attempts of how this has been done. It is important for learning and sharing of lessons for development. Owing to this, an effective way of presenting lessons and experiences meaningfully for developmental learning is required and this is what justifies this study. The study in this regard highlights the importance of development support communication as an effective way of passing information to the concerned audience.

PAMFORK has been chosen as a case study for participatory development since it is one of the leading network promoting participatory development in the Eastern and Southern Regions of Africa. It represents the African continent in the Resource Centre for Participatory Learning and Action (RCPLA). It also facilitates developmental learning through publication and dissemination of case studies that utilise best practices for participatory development.

Since readers do not put into consideration how the case study is produced as a text, and neither do case study writers put into consideration how their texts are received, the study has an intention of bridging the gap between the two situations. It is hoped that at the end, both considerations of the readers and the writers will be taken care of.

The study derives motivation from the fact that the value of language used in the case study is to transmit information on participatory development to the readers. Brown and Yule (1983) argue that it is a faculty of language which has enabled the human race to develop diverse cultures, each with its distinctive social customs, religious observances, laws, oral traditions, patterns of trading and so on. We all believe moreover that it is the written language, which has permitted the development of some of these cultures of philosophy, science and literature. All these have had great impact on the development of any society. Development can be fostered through information transfer. Development is made possible by the ability to transfer information through the use of language, which

enable man to utilise the knowledge of his forbears, and the knowledge of other men in other cultures, and it is this that the study will try to wrestle with.

1.6   Scope and Limitation

- ◆ The study will deal only with the English written texts and not conversations. Case studies in this regard reflect a creative and adaptive usage of English Language and the study will investigate/deal only few aspects of discourse on cohesion, coherence and topic framework and ignore areas like tense, aspect, modality etc. Only some properties of discourse will be investigated.
- ◆ A total of 16 case studies were presented at the Pathways to Participation Workshop held at the Reef Hotel, Mombasa between 10th-14th September 2000. Out of the 16, only 1 case study will be used for anlysis.
- ◆ Only text sentences from the case study will be used and not the system sentences. Text sentences are sentences in the acceptable ordinary language while system sentences do not occur as products of ordinary language behaviour in the case study.
- ◆ Since this is a study on discourse analysis, general linguistic knowledge on particular linguistic concepts, which do not have a bearing on discourse features, will be assumed.

1.7   Conceptual Framework

Since a coherent and well-structured theory with specific assumptions on discourse analysis is lacking, a conceptual framework is adopted for this study. A conceptual approach relevant for this study deals with concepts such as cohesion, coherence and the topic framework. Habwe calls such an attempt, an eclectic approach (1999:16).

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1.7.1 Cohesion

In using a cohesion approach to study discourse in the case study, connective links between sentences and sequences of sentences are identified. The concept was introduced into discourse analysis by Halliday and Hasan (1976), who argue that through the use of a cohesion approach, one can capture the links and ties that bind together a text. Hasan in Dijk & Petöfi (1977:73) defines cohesion as the sum of the syntactic mechanism which are prerequisites for the cognitive, narrative, etc., wholesomeness and fluency of a text. Cohesion has to do with the way propositions are linked together by a variety of structural operations to form texts (Widdowson 1978:52).

Cohesion in a text is made up of connected elements where a word or a phrase is linked to the other word or words. Brown and Yule remark that an anaphoric element such as a pronoun is treated as a word, which substitutes for, or refers back to another word or words. Although there are claims that cohesive links in texts are used by text-producers to facilitate reading or comprehension by text-receivers, the analysis of the product, i.e. the printed text itself, does not involve any consideration of how the product is produced or how it is received (1983:24). From this assertion, discourse analysis seeks to identify the functions of pieces of linguistic data, analyse the data in terms of how it is processed by both the producer and the receiver.

1.7.2 Coherence

Coherence has to do with illocutionary function of propositions, with how they are used to create different kinds of discourse reports, descriptions and explanations. The reader identifies coherence by recognising propositions in the form and in the order in which they appear and associates them with appropriate illocutionary values (Widdowson 1978:52). Language is used in contexts. Brown and Yule argue that if the sentence grammarian wishes to make claims about the acceptability of a sentence in determining whether the strings produced by his grammar are the correct sentences of his language, he is implicitly appealing to

contextual considerations (1983:25). Contextual considerations fall within pragmatics and the question on how this is linked to discourse analysis arises. The two authors contend that doing discourse analysis certainly involves pragmatics [...] in discourse analysis, as in pragmatics, we are concerned with what people using language are doing, and accounting for the linguistic features in the discourse as the means of communication employed in what they are doing. The discourse analyst treats his data as the record (text) of a dynamic process in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker/writer to express meanings and achieve intentions (discourse) (Pg.: 26). Sentences are contextually appropriate when they express propositions in such way as to fit into the propositional development of the discourse as a whole (Widdowson 1978:25). According to Seuren, a proposition is standardly taken to be defined truth-conditionally, a specification of the conditions under which it is taken as true, is at the same time a specification of its meaning (1985:27). He further argues that a theory of linguistic comprehension must primarily define a proposition in terms of what it does with respect to any discourse domain.

Dijk (1977:4) argues that by specifying semantics as a theory which explicates both meaning and reference and both lexical meaning and general meaningfulness conditions determined by world knowledge, we will be able to make explicit one of the central notions of a semantic analysis of discourse, viz. coherence. He adds that one should specify what kind of semantics is needed, both for the description of sentences and for that of texts. Dijk remarks that a linguistic theory of discourse is concerned with the general conditions, morphosyntactic, semantic and pragmatic determining the well-formedness, interpretability and appropriateness respectively of any discourse of a particular language (Pg.: 4). For Crombie, when we communicate with one another through language, we do not do so by means of individual words or clauses or even individual sentences. We communicate by means of coherent stretches of

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interrelated clauses and sentences, the meaning of each can be understood only in relation to the linguistic and situational context in which it occurs (1986:1).

1.7.3 Topic Approach

The notion of topic relates to both cohesion and coherence, although it relates more to coherence. Topics in discourse or texts are given in terms of propositions, sets of propositions and propositions entailed by such sets (Dijk 1977:114). Topic also relates to the theme and organisation of information within a text. The structure of information in a text should be specified both in semantic and pragmatic terms, its distribution in sentences and its canonical or transformed syntactic and morphological expression, the aim of which is to identify given and new information (Dijk 1977:114). Topic also includes features that are related to the communicative functions of sentences within a text (Brown & Miller 1980:357).

Using this approach enables the analyst to identify what makes the reader to interpret discourse encountered within a provided number of options. Hoey notes that there is something in discourse itself that helps the listener or the speaker to perceive the structure. Emphasis is placed on the ways in which the surface of the discourse (not necessarily to be contrasted with hidden depths) contains sufficient clues for the reader/listener to perceive accurately the discourse's organisation (1983:33).

Brown &Yule adopt what they call a "*topic framework*" in the analysis of discourses and texts. They argue that the notion of topic is attractive since it is central to the organising principle for a lot of discourse and it may enable the analyst to explain why several sentences should be considered together as a set of some kind, separated from another set (1983:73-75). They note further that the topic framework consists of elements derivable from the physical context and from the discourse domain and any discourse fragment [...] if we say that characterising the topic framework is a means of making explicit some of the

assumptions a speaker or a writer can make about their hearer's or readers knowledge, we are talking about the total knowledge which the speaker or writer believe they share with their hearers or readers. We are describing only that activated party required in the analysis of discourse fragment under consideration. Using the topic framework therefore, it is easier to investigate what the writer of the case study has used to organise its structure in order to appropriately convey its meanings to the readers, and this is the cornerstone of discourse analysis. Yule (1996:146) remarks that investigating how we use our background knowledge to arrive at interpretation of what we hear or read is a crucial part of doing discourse analysis.

In this approach, lexical signals are required since they are the means used by the writers/speakers to explicitly signal the intended organisation and are the main means used by readers or hearers to decode meanings of discourse correctly. Lexical signals can take the form of a sentence, a clause, or a phrase and incorporates either one of the signals or an evaluation (Hoey 1983:63).

1.8   Literature Review

Discourse and Text

Important to this sub-section of literature review are books that deal with discourse and text. Macdonell regards discourse to be social and that the statement made, the words used and the meanings of words used, depends on where and against what the statement is made: the alternating lines of a dialogue, the same word may figure in two mutually clashing conditions [...] actually any real utterance, in one way or another or to one degree or another, makes a statement of agreement or negation of something (1986:2). Brown and Yule (1983) have written the most relevant book for discourse analysis. Under the general title of *Discourse Analysis,* it takes a linguistic approach in the analysis of discourse. They examine how humans use language to communicate and in particular, how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees

and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them (1983: ix). In their book, they give particular attention to the speaker/writer as a source and a facilitator of communication. Brown and Yule (1983:20-21) argue that a linguist who is primarily interested in the analysis of discourse is, in some sense, derive his data from the ordinary language of his daily life and also be acceptable in it. A regularity in discourse is a linguistic feature, which occurs, in a definable environment with a significant frequency.

Discourse refers not only to ordinary conversation and its context, but also to written communications between the writer and readers (Wales 1989:130). It thus aids in the transmission of social values that are institutionalised within a society. Goody (1977:78) argues that written language has two main functions: the first is the storage function which permits communication over time and space, and the second is that which shifts language from the oral to the visual domain, and permits words and sentences to be examined out of their original contexts where they appear in a very different and highly abstract context.

Brown and Yule also discuss the link between pragmatics and discourse context. They note that in using terms such as reference, presupposition, implicature and inference, the discourse analyst is describing what speakers and hearers are doing, and not the relationship which exists between one sentence or proposition and another (1983:27). In their book, they give a detailed examination of the term "topic" and its uses in discourse. They discuss patterns of discourse representation, discourse structure and argue that a more general, more inclusive term than thematisation (which refers only to the linear organisation of texts) is staging (Pg.: 134). Issues on reference, cohesion and inferences are also analysed in the book.

Coulthard (1977) argues that learners need to become analysts of discourse themselves, and in confronting a foreign language we should help them by encouraging a use of existing discoursal awareness in their mothertongue while

providing them with a workable model of analysis for the organising of the data. In addition to the appreciation of the setting, the discourse topic and the discoverable presuppositions of the participants, learners have to see through referential meaning to the discoursal signficance of shifts of stress and key, kinesis and streotypical strategies of conversation (Pg.: xiii). Coulthard (1977:xiv) remarks that we can put discovery methods to good discoursal use by introducing into our materials the kind of questioning Gumperz proposes for his interethnic communication studies:

- What is A trying to achieve by talking in this way?
- What is it about the way he says it makes you [...]?
- Could he be trying to [...]?
- How should he have said it if he wanted to [...]?
- How did B interpret what A said?
- How can you tell how B misunderstood?
- How should B have replied to show that he did understand?

Such questions necessitate an analytic approach to the language being investigated. Words in a language are used to do and achieve things. Coulthard discusses the theoretical basis of discourse analysis with views from authors such as Firth, Lakoff, Harris and Mitchell. Speech acts as postulated by Austin and later Searle, the ethnography of speaking, in which he argues that one of the aims of ethnography of speaking is to describe and systematise the interpretative rules used by members of the speech community (1977:51).

Brown and Miller (1980) discuss the role of theme, rheme and end-focus, topic and comment, given and new information in discourse. They are concerned with those features of word order within sentences that are related to the communicative function of sentences within texts (Pg.: 357).

Dijk (1977) gives an exposition of the linguistic study of discourse. He discusses the theoretical basis of semantics on discourse analysis and observes that in

linguistic grammars, the meaning of sentences is assigned on the basis of the meanings of expressions (words or morphemes, and phrases) as specified by a lexicon [...] whether sentences can be meaningfully combined into one sentence or one discourse respectively depends on an interpretation in which conventional knowledge of the world is involved. (Pg.: 4). He gives a brief introduction to formal semantics and explores the concepts of connection, and coherence in discourse.

1.8.1 Definition of Terms

Case Study

According to Harvey and Macdonald (1993:224), an area in which multiple methods of data collection are used is case study research. Case study normally refers to a detailed examination of a single *"case"* usually such a *"case"* is an organisation such as a factory, a hospital, a police force or a community. Case studies are used to represent the whole society, group, community or organisation. They thus present picture of the large society and are not necessarily inward-looking but are designed to provide detailed information about a specific area and to see a group in the context of a wider setting (Pg.: 225). A case study involves a focused, in-depth discussion with a selected sample of people or households about any topic that is selected and aims to give insights on how people deal with change and development.

Case studies for participatory development involve development workers or field staff, members of the community and vulnerable groups in establishing the objectives of the research. They are the entire key informants and analysts of the data generated. Case studies preparation is a valuable learning experience for development stakeholders.

1.9 Research Methodology

Corpus data illustrating particular discourse features of the English Language under investigation will be used. The sentences are not contrived or tailor-made but have been extracted from the case study under the analysis. The study therefore adopts an empirical and scientific approach utilising data from the written texts (case study) in the form of sentences.

Sentences to be used as data are or are not necessarily grammatical, since grammaticality is not an issue in discourse analysis, but the communicative value attached to the sentences under analysis. This is a text-based description and adopts three stages:

- The first stage is regularisation in which phenomena such as slips of the text, repetitions, self-editing and others have been ignored.
- The second stage is standardisation in which data variation in the case study has been ignored and is therefore treated as homogeneous.
- The third and the last one is decontextualisation stage in which sentences have been removed from the contexts in which they occur in the case study and will be analysed as self-contained independent units.

Judgmental sampling was used to select the case study from the 16 presented at the *"Pathways to Participation Workshop"*. This was based on the premise that the case study would provide a pilot framework for describing discourse features of the language used in participatory development. Even though the case study might not be representative enough, useful generalisations about discourse properties of the language can be made. Its selection was based on my own judgement and experiences in participatory development. The selection was also based on the assumption that the case study was appropriate for the problem and objectives of the research.

A desk study method is also crucial for this study and has been used to trace the background of the English language, PAMFORK and that of participatory

development in Kenya. Some value on the methodology owes to part of my experience in participatory development and having also been one of the participants in the PAMFORK workshop in which the case studies were presented.

CHAPTER TWO

THE CASE STUDY AS A TEXT

2.0 Introduction

This chapter investigates how elements of sentences and sequences of sentences in the case study are linked to the meaning and references through connectives. Connectives play a crucial semantic role in the interpretation of sentences. Reference is also possible in the case study through the use of connectives. The chapter analyses the case study in the framework of textual interpretation by both the reader and the writer.

2.1 Text

A text is a sequence of sentences or utterances that are connected to achieve the desired communicative impact. The reader links different sentences in a text together for the sole purpose of advancing propositional development, which facilitates easier interpretation. Brown & Yule (1983:190) define a text as the verbal record of a communicative event. For Crystal (1987:112), it is a sequence of sentences which display some kind of mutual dependence, they are not occurring at random [...] the task of textual analysis is to identify the linguistic features that cause the sentence to cohere- something that happens whenever the interpretation of one feature is dependent upon another elsewhere in the sequence. What makes discourse a text are the cohesive ties between sentences and components of sentences. Fowler (Dijk & Petöfi 1977:77) notes that a text is progressive if its structure leads the reader onwards, projects him forward from one segment of a text to a succeeding one. This is done normally through cohesive ties in the case study. Halliday argues that a written text is presented to us as product, we attend to it as product, and become aware of its process aspect as a writer but not as reader or analyst, unless we consciously focus on the activities which led to its production (1985:xxiii).

2.2 Cohesion in the Case Study

Cohesion is a discourse term that refers to relations, ties or connections in a text. Widdowson (1978:26) argues that cohesion refers to the way in which sentences and parts of sentences combine so as to ensure that there is propositional development. Sentences in this regard rely on others within a text in order to convey full textual information. Cohesion is important to a text since it is the one that contributes to its texture (Halliday & Hasan 1976:2). For Rutherford (1987:97), cohesion is what ties sentences together such that they are perceived collectively as constituting a single text. Hedge (1988:91) argues that cohesive devices are the means by which parts of text are linked as logically related sequences. They therefore signal the relationship between ideas in such way that the writer's intentions are made clear. They make obvious the developing thread of meaning, which the writer is trying to communicate and often help readers to anticipate what is coming next.

Cohesion within a text requires that the interpretation of one sentence should be based on the interpretation of some other feature within a sentence. For Dijk, connection denotes a specific sentential or propositional relation and sentences that are connected refers to the sentences in which the underlying propositions are connected (1977:45). Winter on the other hand in Hoey (1983:18) equates cohesion to clause relation and defines the latter as the cognitive process used in interpreting meanings of a sentence or a group of sentences in the light of their adjoining sentences. This has an implication that textual sentences in the case study can only be interpreted in their contexts and readers base their interpretation on what they have encountered before. The notion of cohesion in the case study can be illustrated by the sentences below:

1. On one hand, "these institutions prescribe a demand/supply conceptual framework in which basically a pre-packaged solution to poverty is prescribed, including the need to restructure the economy and putting in place efficient systems.

2. *That is*, preparing a solution and then looking for the perfect problems to fit the perfect solutions.

3. *From this pre-packaged solution, there are <u>corresponding technologies</u>, which include professionals, and on the other hand, talk about <u>a people-centred approach</u> at the same time.(Pg.: 7-8)*

In sentence (1), *"these"* anaphorically refers back to the institutions named in some other sentences in the text. In (2) *"that is"* refers back to what these institutions do. In (3), *"corresponding technologies"* and *"a people-centred approach"* refers to what these institutions promote.

Lexical connection is also evident in the above sentences from the text. For instance:

> Pre-packaged solution-------poverty-------restructure-------economy
> System--------perfect solution------corresponding technologies-----
> people-centred approach.

The above sequence contains a semantic relation and shares some form of meaning, that of *"efforts to eradicate poverty"*. Widdowson (1975:40) observes that the structural equivalence of words such as above can condition the lexical items in the structures concerned in a such a way that they take on meanings other than those they have in the language code. The words above therefore express complementary meanings. The sentences also have connectors such as *"on one hand, that is, from this, and, and then, and on the other, at the same time"*. These connectors in the text indicate the order of what follows what and a relationship of what comes first, what follows and what comes last.

Connection in the above sentences is also possible through verbal tenses. In sentence (1) *"pre-packaged"* and *"prescribed"* appear first and are in the past tense followed by *"restructure"* in the present tense and *"putting"* in the present

continuous tense. Such a variance in the verb tenses provides a link between events that happened before the text was written and events that are happening and the ones that will happen. Verb tenses in this line create time linkages between sentential propositions. The associative relationship into which the above verbs enter with each other is their commonality in meaning since they all have the same implied referent. Widdowson (1975:39) contends that such lexical items have the value in the composite characteristics in the contextual and semantic relations [...] further, the syntactic equivalence is reinforced by the semantic links between the lexical items which appear in these structures.

They are also connected through a causal-consequence relation since as it is implied in the above sentences, poverty is the major cause of the initiation of efforts by institutions for its alleviation. Dijk (1977:49) observes that clauses and sentences are connected if the facts denoted by their propositions are related in related worlds [...] one of the clear types of the fact relatedness is that of cause or reason. An event A causes event B if A is a sufficient condition for the occurrence of B i.e. in at least one possible world, the occurrence of A is incompatible with the non-occurrence of B. In the three sentences above, there is knowledge about poverty which is a sufficient reason to trigger actions initiated by institutions.

The sentences also exhibit a matching relation where the second sentence makes a contrast in terms of attention, which the reader could give to institutions in sentence (1) so as to focus more on their activities. Sentence (3) is matched into sentence (2) because of its similarity in activities, which are being done by institutions in (1). Hoey argues that logical sequences and matching relations are governed by a more fundamental relation, that of situation-evaluation, representing two facets of world-perception "*knowing*" and "*thinking*" (1983:20). In this line of debate, the relation between the above sentences pertains to contrast and compatibility.

The sentences are also linked through subordination. There is subordination in sentence (3) signalled by *"which"* and this serves to clarify more on the issues that are sequentially linked, even though it does not express a cohesive relationship. Hoey in line with this observation remarks that indeed subordination can be seen as a means of making explicit in an altered sequence what was already implicit in the unaltered sequence (1983:37). Subordination in the above sentences aids the writer's intention to provide the same meaning to the text.

2.3   Cohesive Relationship

Halliday and Hasan (1976:2) provide a detailed examination of ties that exist within a text. They refer to these ties as cohesive relationship and argue that they appear in the text as formal markers, which relate what is about to be said to what has been said before. These formal markers indicating cohesive relationship given by Halliday and Hasan in Brown & Yule (1983:191) include:

(i)	Additive:	*and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition*
(ii)	Adversative:	*but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless*
(iii)	Causal:	*then, after that, so, consequently, for this reason, it follows from this*
(iv)	Temporal:	*an hour later, finally, at last.*

Cohesive ties provide connection in propositions, sentences, clauses, truth values, facts, events, states of affairs, actions, possible worlds, situations/set-ups (Dijk & Petöfi 1977:22). Propositions, in doing this are simply sets of meanings.

According to Dijk (1977:52), relations between propositions or facts are typically expressed by a set of expressions from various syntactic categories called connectives. For Dijk, these connectors include conjunctions and sentential adverbs. Halliday and Hasan, unlike Dijk were much more interested in

cohesive relationship that related to reference, substitution ellipsis and lexical relationships.

Propositions that are co-referential require relationships with other propositions within a text for their meaningful interpretation. They are meaningless if they are interpreted in isolation. Consider the sentence below:

4. The <u>six years</u> that GSI spent with the community were <u>invaluable</u> (Pg.: 6).

Even though the above sentence is grammatical, it is semantically redundant. Its interpretation aimed at deriving its meaning can only be possible if the reader identifies some other co-referential sentences in the case study. Halliday & Hasan (1976:31) remark that co-referential forms can not be interpreted semantically in their own right and a reader has to make reference to something else for their interpretation.

A linguistic context (not physical, temporal or other) in which the above sentence occurs is needed to facilitate a reader's interpretation and understanding. The phrase *"six years"* from the above sentences informs the reader to acquire some extra information from the case study in order to decode its meaning. Observe the adjectival of the word *"invaluable"* in the sentence. This adjective plays an adjunctive role, which connects the sentence to others in the case study. It thus acts as a grammatical connective that connects the above sentence to others in the case study. The adjective tells readers that the contribution of GSI's work to the welfare of communities is about to be discussed. This is what Winter (Hoey 1983:23) calls lexical signalling and argues that lexical signals may spell out a relation before, during or after the event. If it occurs before the event, it is termed as anticipatory, if it occurs after the event it is termed as retrospective. In the sentence *"six years"* is the anticipatory signal and all that comes after this is its lexical realisation or what is being

referred to. *"Six years"* is anticipatory and *"invaluable"* is its lexical realisation since they alert the reader that the writer is about to discuss the work done by GSI during that span of time and that whatever was done to the community was great as signalled in the adjective *"invaluable"*.

For the possible understanding of the above sentence, the case study writer gives clues that could enable readers to identify the intended meaning. According to Widdowson (1978:32), the speaker or writer provides as many clues to his intended meanings as he judges to be necessary for the listener (or reader) he is addressing to recover them, relying on knowledge of the world, of the convention of the language code and of the convention of use which the writer assumes to be shared. Cohesive relationship in the case study is discussed under the following headings: endophoric relationship, substitution, textual reference, textual pronouns, textual conjunction, disjunctive relations, conditional connection and connection through contrastives.

2.3.1 Endophoric Relations

Sentential propositions in the case study exhibit endophoric relationships, which require readers to look back and forward in order to decode meanings given in the case study. Those that demand readers to look back are referred to as anaphoric relations and those that look forward are called cataphoric relations (Halliday & Hasan 1976:18). However within the case study, most of the sentential propositions contain both anaphoric and cataphoric relations as illustrated in the sentence below:

5. *Mary Okumu, the consultant who dared to undertake an analysis of the process that GSI and partner communities took upon themselves had to continyously reflect back.(Pg.: 6)*

For the interpretation of the above sentence, readers need to get acquainted with the meanings of other sentences that appeared before the above sentence

in order to understand reasons as to why GSI hired a consultant (an anaphoric relation) and read what comes after the sentence in order to understand the outcome of the consultants work given by the phrase *"reflect back"* (a cataphoric relation). Look at the word *"process"* in the sentence. On reaching this word, readers start pondering about what sort of *"process"* is implied. They only come to know it after reading information that comes after its occurrence. The word therefore creates anticipation in the minds of the readers to keep on reading.

Consider the variance in the verbal tenses in the sentence:

Dared---------undertake-------had-----------reflect

Past ──────▶present ──▶ past ──────▶ present

The verbs above have the same semantic signification and extend the contextual meaning of the sentence in which they occur. Co-referential relationship displayed in the above tense pattern is both anaphoric and cataphoric in terms of meaning. The pattern demands from the reader of the text to look for propositions that appeared before and those that appear after the sentence in order to establish the relationship of reference. Halliday and Hasan propose that this relationship creates internal cohesion within a text through a kind of network of lines of reference, each occurrence being linked to all its predecessors up to and including the initial reference (1976:52). In this sentence, tenses serve the purpose of appropriating illocutionary effects (Widdowson 1978:48). Shifting tenses adopted in the verbs above plays a role of heightening vividness. This is reflected in the switch from the past to the present tense at the peak of the topic of information. Miller (Pike & Saint 1988:4) contends that tense shift may be used to bring about a hightened vividness. This may be seen in swift from the past tense to the present tense at the climax of the narrative.

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2.3.2 Substitution

Substitution is evident in the case study particularly when one textual element replaces another. Consider the text below:

> 6. *The majority of <u>NGOs</u>, <u>which</u> are the main <u>stewards</u> of poverty alleviation, have equally suffered a similar fate. Having emerged out of the Bretton Woods/Bilateral framework of development aid, <u>they</u> have naturally and unfortunately employed a welfarist/quick fix response to poverty alleviation/development in general due to readily available resources from the North for disaster/relief operations.(Pg.: 8)*

It is reasonable to assume that the words which are underlined *"which, stewards, they"*, refer back to the underlined word *"NGOs"* in the above text. *"Which"* and *"they"* is substitution through proverbs while *"stewards"* is lexical substitution. Despite this, it is also worth questioning whether the underlined words correctly refer back to the word *"NGOs"*. It might not be case since there is change in terms of semantic quality of the referent designated by the word. In support to this assertion, Källgren (1978:150) argued that one should not only enumerate referents as the textual content, but should also include the relations that the text makes between referents. For instance, the first referent of NGOs *"which"* refers to the ones that have not emerged from Bretton Woods development aid and the second referent *"they"* refers to NGOs that have adopted Welfarist approaches to development. From this observation, it can be concluded that there is a change in meaning of the co-referents and the substituted referent

From this view, readers interpret the referents in terms of substitution. Even though the identity of *"NGOs"* is preserved, its description varies from one referent to the other. Brown and Yule (1983:202) remark that the reappearance of identified entities with different descriptions attached to them does suggest

that we need some model of processing which allows entities to accumulate properties or to change states as the discourse progresses.

Hoey includes personal pronouns (he, she, it, one etc.), demonstrative pronouns (this, that etc.), demonstrative adverbs (there, then etc.) and the proverb "do" with or without "so" in substitution (1983:109). Substitutive elements as shown in the above text and in this line of argument function as alternatives for referents that occur more than once in the case study.

2.3.3 Textual Reference

Reference according to Halliday (Dijk & Petöfi 1977:188) demands that certain elements in a text be interpreted only by reference to something other than themselves. For Brown & Yule, the traditional semantic view of reference is one in which the relationship of reference is taken to hold between expressions in a text and entities in the world and that of co-reference between expressions in different parts of a text (1983:204). Within this context, the notion of reference in relation to the text strictly means how the writer of the case study passes information to the readers through manipulative use of the available language resources. Readers therefore utilise appropriate reference to decode and understand information given in the case study. The question readers might ask while reading the case study is: *what is the aim of the writer's decision to use a particular referent in the text, which the referring expression stands for?*

The writer of the case study presents it as a text while basing on the known circumstances about poverty and development. What is known or the actual state of affairs surrounding participatory development within Kenya is used in order to tailor information to be understood easily by probable readers. Brown and Yule contend that a speaker (writer) uses an expression to pick out an individual entity and takes into consideration features of his hearer's (reader's) developing discourse representation which can depend on the hearer's (reader's) ability to use them in identifying the intended reference (1983:207). Some of

these features may include common experience within the country, socio-economic problems, contextual information and even rules of communication within English language. All the above features are assumed to be shared by both the writer and the readers and enables the latter group to meaningfully interpret the text. Consider the sentence below:

> 7. *These* <u>*institutions*</u> *and the* <u>*development packages*</u> *they bring carry their own cultural and political biases and agenda to the mix, often limiting their support to* <u>*organisations*</u> *that subscribe to or exemplify their external analysis,* <u>*conceptual frameworks or believes*</u>. *(Pg.: 7)*

In the above textual sentence, the identity of the terms *"institutions, development packages, organisations, conceptual frameworks or believes"* elicit different interpretations in writer's text representation, but to the readers, it appears that they share the same textual representation with the writer and therefore can be able to give the true identities of what the terms refers to. Brown and Yule note that the hearer (writer) will build a representation of discourse, which will contain representation of entities, introduced by the speaker (writer) through the use of referring expressions (1983:208).

Reference in the case study is used to signal the roles identified entities play. The demonstrative pronoun *"these"* relates to proximity in the sentence. The sentence also contains the notion of comparative reference where institutions are evaluated in terms of what they do. *"The"* is used in the sentence in unmarked demonstrative form implying that readers can identify its referent immediately without basing on semantic features. Halliday (Dijk & Petöfi 1977:189) notes that reference is a primary text-forming agency, since all endophoric reference contributes to the making of a text. It is a signal that the interpretation is to be sort elsewhere, and if the source lies in some other word or worlds in the text, cohesion is set up between the two passages in question.

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Proper names are also used by the writer to give a particular identity to an individual or institution as indicated in the following sentence:

8. _Mary_ had to end her assignment because it was time-up for her.
(Pg.: 6)

However, the difficult posed here through the use proper names relates to the identity of an individual within a specific context. Like in the above sentence, the proper name _"Mary"_ might refer to so many individuals in the situational context in which the case study is written, let alone in Kenya and the whole world. To avoid this, proper names in the case study are given roles as referring expressions to distinguish referents from other entities. Brown and Yule argue that individuals in the world do not have single, unvarying names or even tittles, and so the use of proper names to refer to an individual will typically pick that individual in a particular role (1983:211). _"Mary"_ in the case study context has been given the role of a GSI consultant, which can be identified anaphorically within the text. In this way, we could say that the case study writer uses proper names to uniquely identify individuals or institutions in particular role contexts.

Seuren (1985:469) argues that proper names are an ancient problem in philosophical semantics because they achieve reference without any significant descriptive lexical material and without any anaphoric help. They are essentially devoid of meaning and yet manage to arrive at the proper referent without any help from the adjacent context. They however sometimes contain materials that describe the lexical items. A lexical item refers to its reference via its meaning and proper names have no meaning only until when their reference is given and are hence rigid designators of entities in the case study. Stern (1965:35) argues that meaning relation comes about on the basis of a causal connection or an association but that these alone can only lead to the word becoming a signal for another item. To understand a word is therefore not enough for readers to make reference, but it is also necessary to understand the referent.

2.3.4 Textual Pronouns

Pronouns are used in the case study to act as the identity of referents. Of particular relevance to this study are the pronominals, which have a co-referential value since on their own, they have no semantic sense. The co-referential value is in terms of the relationship between the anaphor and the antecedent. Brown and Yule observe that in the use of the term anaphora, it covers any expression which the speaker (writer) uses in referring on the basis of which the hearer (reader) will be able to pick out the intended referent given certain contextual and co-textual conditions (1983:2150). Anaphora in this context is a term that is used on behalf of pronominal reference. Consider the sentence below:

9. *GSI had to think through seriously and carefully select a methodology that would be in concert with its core values: respect for human dignity, valuing self and the other etc. It started off with the generic participatory methodology but knew right from the offset that it would have to be modified in many ways to meaningfully support the people's aspiration. (Pg.: 9)*

The first underlined pronominals "*its*" and "*it*" refer back to their antecedent nominal "*GSI*" and second "*it*" refers back to its antecedent "*generic participatory methodology*". In this latter case, the pronominal "*it*" is predicatively influenced by the antecedent nominal, since a proper interpretation of the pronoun is only possible if the reader understands what a "*generic participatory methodology*" specifically refers to in contrast with the one that "*meaningfully support the people's aspiration*". In this context, although "*it*" refers only to one particular methodology (indicated by the definite article "*the*" in the sentence), the reader interprets them as two through inferencing.

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In addition to the above, the case study also contains instances where pronominals are used without their antecedent nominals in sentences in which they occur as in the text below:

10.   And because _she_ was not there when _it_ happened _she_ kept on asking and going back again. By the time _she_ concluded the analysis, _she_ was able to appreciate that _it_ is not the analysis alone. (Pg.: 6)

The underlined pronominals "_she_" and "_it_" do not have nominal antecedents for readers to co-refer to. How then are they to be interpreted by readers? Readers can only arrive at the nominal antecedents of the pronouns in the above text by referring back to the information that occur prior and after the sentence in the case study. Brown and Yule support this observation and argue that for any analysis of pronouns conveying "_given_" information, their interpretation depends on a referential assignment via the information in the preceding discourse (1983:218). This leads to the assumption that readers should interpret pronominals in the case study on the basis of antecedent nominals and antecedent information given predicatively or information that occur prior or after the pronouns in the text.

In sentence (9) and (10), pronominals are also repeated to elicit clausal relation. Winter in Hoey (1983:25) remarks that sentences are unable to carry all the information that might be given on a subject, they are by their nature selective. Repetition is accordingly away of "_opening out_" a sentence so that its lexical uniqueness may be used as the basis for providing, further related information. Consider the use of sentence initial "_and_" in (10). This usage requires the reader to identify its meaning from information given prior to its occurrence in the above sentence in the text. Look also at the way the animate NPs are positioned in the above set of sentences. Such a form of positioning of the NPs provide a solid contribution to connection in the text.

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Pronominal repetition in the above set of sentences make it easier for the reader to interpret them since they direct much of the readers attention to the information that appears to be changed or added (new information) in relation to the repeated pronominal referent. Sometimes this repetition is disguised. For instance in sentence (9), "*GSI*" is repeated inform of a pronoun "*it*".

Pronominal repetition in the case study matches the writer's intention on directing and focusing the readers attention on the new propositional information in the light of the information that readers already know. Hoey argues that repetition is used to show what the information in one sentence has in common with that in previous sentences [...] the repetition acts as a frame for highlighting new information which replaces old information (1983:113). According to Crombie, matching relations involve the comparison of two things, events or abstractions in respect of which they are similar (simple comparison) or different (simple contrast) (1986:18).

Repetition in the case study therefore connects sentences that have common or a shared meaning. This partly the reason as to why Hedge (1988:92) argues that repetition of words and phrases or the careful choice of synonyms or similar expressions can create unity in a piece of writing. In utilising this feature of repetition, the writer exploits language resources which copies the semantic features of the previous reference on the framework that they are necessary to remind the reader of what has been said before (Widdowson 1978:33).

2.3.5 Textual Conjunction

Conjunctions in the case study relate what has been said by the writer to what was said before. Consider the sentences below:

11.   *The impact which causes people to feel an inner obligation to go on and to manage PEP outcomes. (pg.:6)*

12.   *An attempt to separate them would be falling victim to the usual irrationality of compartmentalising things <u>and</u> not seeing them as an important continuum. (pg.:9)*

13.   *They have approached community technocratic <u>and</u> a particular problem team of experts <u>and</u> have tended to make themselves the focal point or centers around which communities coalesce (pg.:8)*

14.   *This analysis <u>and</u> discussion begins with the making of GSI itself as an event <u>and</u> process as a critical point of departure. (pg.:9)*

The underlined *"and"* in the above set of sentences has different semantic values. In (11), the semantic value of the *"and"* is *"and then"*, in (12), it has the value of *"and therefore"*, in (13), it implies *"and there"* and in (14), it means *"at the same time"*. Dijk in making an observation pertaining to the above phenomena of *"and"* notes that *"and"* may be used to express not only a conjunction, but also conditionals, causals, temporal and local connectives (1977:58). Hendricks (1976:55) remarks that traditionally, sentences or clauses without conjunctions are regarded as linguistically connected but only related in thought, a type of relation referred to as asyndeton.

The different readings of *"and"* in the above set of sentences indicate linkages between two propositions in the text. The causal relation is evident in (11), where the first proposition provides the necessary conditions that bear a particular consequence despite the lack of direct relationship between the two propositions. What binds the two sentential propositions together is the causal relationship.

Example (13) also exhibits a causal relationship, which is not expressed by *"and"*. In this case, the *"and"* only provides a closer link between the facts being expressed by the propositions. In sentence (14), the conjunction *"and"* offers a commutative usage and regarding this phenomena, Dijk argues that if the

antecedent and the consequent change place, the whole sentence becomes unacceptable even if it remains true (1977:61).

In short, the order in which conjunctions appear in relation to propositional facts pertaining to place, time, entities involved and their properties are quite important. According to Dijk, dependencies of facts and propositions are normally ordered linearly (left-right) whereby if the normal ordering is changed, it must be indicated by a specific grammatical structure (1977:61). The *"and"* antecedent creates a topic or adds some more information on the topic of the sentence in the possible world of participatory development which the case study highlights. According to Hedge, conjunctions do not link parts of the text but also make clear the logical nature of the connection, for example, comparison or addition (1988:92).

2.3.6 Disjunctive Relations

Use of disjuncts in the case study implies that one of the propositions in a disjunctive relation must be true. Crombie defines disjunctive relations as involving a choice, implicitly or explicitly, a positive/negative opposition [...] a choice between two things, events or abstractions which are not treated as opposites (1986:22). Consider the sentence below:

15. *They have changed their position from accepting their situation of poverty as fate or a way of life (pg.:15)*

The disjunct *"or"* provides a semantic condition that one of the proposition being linked is true and if this is not the case, the whole sentence becomes unacceptable. The above sentence can be true if only it is confirmed that either the identity of the entities referred to have accepted poverty as fate or a way of life. But if the entities have accepted both, then the sentence use will be correct while its proposition will be falsified.

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Dijk argues that in the use of disjuncts, one of the facts becomes true in that world, the other fact must be true in the alternative possible world, where accessibility is relative to the actual world (of utterance or sentence) because the cause of events may be such that at the intended time only one of the facts may become actualised (1977:63). The concept of necessary exclusion applies in the above sentence since poverty can not be realised as both a fate and a way of life. As a fate, it means that those afflicted are struggling to come out but they can't. As a way of life, it means that those affected are simply comfortable with poverty and are used to it despite its intricacies. Poverty in this case can only be realised as one of the disjuncts and not both.

Something worthy noting in the case study is that disjuncted propositions can also be established through the process of inferencing from other information in the text. Consider the sentence below:

16.   *Or simply to spare time to and visit their womankind in solidarity with whatever is the issue at hand, while the men sit together to discuss how much of the land in the community should be put under sunflower and soya bean production. (pg.:18)*

The reader would identify the disjunct *"or"* as referring to an entity with the feature < +*female*> owing to the shared background knowledge. The knowledge can be deciphered from the above text through inferencing from the word *"womankind"* that is contrasted with the word *"men"* (using the contrastive *"while"*) and the predicative information given in the proposition. Dijk notes that whereas only one of the disjuncts must be true (in some actual) or intended world, both disjuncts must be connected with some topic of information (1977:64).

It should also be noted that the use of disjuncts in the case study does not necessarily imply that the facts are related, as it is the case with conjunctions.

This is so because the facts in a disjunctive relationship exist in two different worlds. They are only options of the topic of information, which in the case study pertains to participatory development. Thus the truth of one propositional fact in disjunctive relationship causes the untruthfulness of the other fact, even though they are related to each through the same topic of information. The topic of information in this context is taken to be a set of propositions.

2.3.7 Conditional Connection

Since connectives provide a linkage between propositional facts, they do really sustain a relation of dependency between them. Such a dependency relation between facts is expressed by what are called conditionals. Dijk (1977:67) remarks that natural conditionals characteristically require the propositions they operate on to be connected. If propositional connection is based on conceptual and factual relations, such a relation is most clearly exemplified in relations of dependency, and much less so in relations of spatio-temporal co-occurrence and compatibility (conjunction) or non-co-occurrence and incompatibility (disjunction). Consider the example text below:

> 17.   *Therefore* "good manners" *embodied in their collective social values and civic engagement appears to be telling us that this is a pre-condition* for *economic development. In some learned development economics literature, this is called "social capital"* because *it undergirds good government and ensures economic prowess (pg.:16-17)*

If one semantically observes the underlined, which Dijk calls *actual conditionals*, the conclusion that propositional facts that are antecedent and the consequent appear to be true in the actual context (in which the case study was written) can be made and hence connected. This implies that if propositions connected by actual conditionals are not true, connection between them will not be evident. This is so because connection through actual conditionals is only

possible through causality conditions. Dijk argues that actual conditionals may be used to interpret not only events and actions, but also states of affairs and thus express dependencies of properties or relations (1977:72). Note that in the above initial sentential use of *"therefore"* is to an extend ambiguous since it denotes both a consequence and cause of the facts expressed by the sentential proposition in which it occurs. Observe the diagram below:
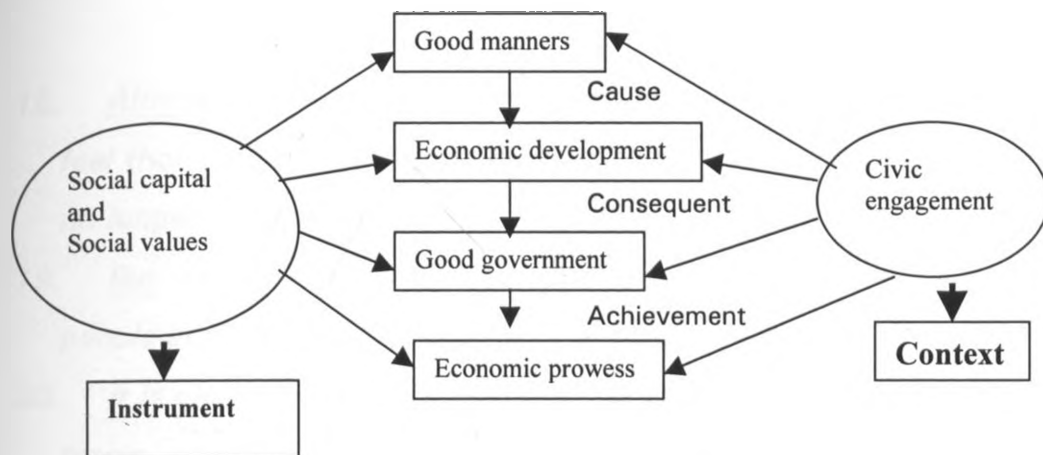
The above diagram indicates the logical sequence relations in which the main sentence shows a condition while the embedded sentence signalled by *"because"* and *"for"*, indicates instrument, cause and consequence. Their application in the above text is to emphasise cause-consequence relation between the clausal propositions. The text is connected by *"therefore"*, *"for"* and *"because"*, which exhibit a realisation of a paraphrase relation to each of the cause-consequence meaning.

In conclusion, development actions implied by the above text need good conditions (reasons), which are also needed by the events and consequences, all of which are related through the presupposed topic of information, *"participatory development"*. Other examples of actual conditionals used in the case study include *"so, since, due to, hence, thus, while, whilst"* etc.

2.3.8 Connection through Contrastives

In the case study, two different situations are being analysed, that of poverty and that of struggling to alleviate poverty. Such an analysis is a reflection of the varying structural circumstances or conditions. Connection between such propositional facts is accomplished through the use of contrastives such as *"but, although, yet, though, anyway, nevertheless, whereas, inspite of, not withstanding"*, etc. Consider the sentences below:

18. *Although these communities are far from alleviating poverty, they feel that they are making steps in the right direction because they are no longer intimated by poverty (pg.:15)*

19. *But to these communities, such little things mean a lot to the people in these projects and make a difference to them (pg.:14)*

20. *It is clear that poverty alleviation is far too complex and difficult for many agencies than they would have imagined and although institutions such as the Bretton Woods, the UNDP have in theory adopted pro-active civil society language including the notion of people centred development, these institutions have not yet defined how or evolved mechanisms for translating the people centred theory into practical poverty alleviation strategies (pg.:7)*

Observe the underlined contrastives in the above sentences. The conclusion a reader would make here is that facts expressed in the antecedent satisfy the conditions that warrant the consequent facts or propositions to be negated. In (20), a semantic combination of *"although"* and *"yet"* is allowed since the contrastive conditions are satisfied. A contrastive relationship is signalled in the above set of sentences through the underlined contrastives. But if one wants to be a little bit specific about the particular type of the contrastive situation or relationship involved in each case, then other clues must be identified in the text (Crombie 1986:7)

CHAPTER THREE

COHERENCE IN THE CASE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

Even though it has been established in the preceding chapter that the case study contains sentences or propositions, which are strongly connected, it does not necessarily imply that these sentences can easily be interpreted and therefore be understood by readers. The case study in this regard exhibits another property, the property of coherence, which facilitates easy interpretation by readers. Coherence lies in the minds of readers and with it, they are able to give meaning to the propositions within the case study. It is thus a cultural repertoire rather than being a linguistic one. Yule (1996:141) argues that it is people who make sense of what they read and hear. They try to arrive at an interpretation, which is in line with their experience with the way the world is. Indeed our ability to make sense of what we read is probably a small part of that general ability we have to make sense of what we perceive or experience in the world. Readers in this line, fill in the gaps that are found in the text so that they may understand them. This is through constructing ties or links that exist between words and sentential propositions that can easily be decoded by their minds.

3.1 Coherence

Dijk (1977:93) observes that coherence is a semantic property of discourses, based on the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences. The notion of connectedness covers one aspect of discourse coherence vz the immediate pairwise relations between subsequent propositions taken as a whole. Underlying this proposition is the fact that sentences in a text are coherent even though connection between them can not identified. It then means that given a grammatical sentence, interpretation might not be that easy since more information that is not grammatical is needed. Coherence exists only where there is a link that is not linguistically marked by overt features which readers can identify and give them grammatical categories

like *"it"*. According to Blakemore, coherence relations are represented as a mental model that is close to the structure of events or states of affairs that are described in the discourse (1987:107). For Hobbs (Blakemore 1987:107-8), coherence is a set of structural binary relations between segments of a text, which depend on their propositional content. Underlying this view is the observation that speakers or writers whose objective is to make hearers or readers to understand their messages strive to ensure that messages stand out in relations with the preceding text. Recognition of such relations by readers or hearers is quite essential for their comprehension. Coherence relates linguistic units in a text and apart from governing the organisation of discourse, it also gives constraint to the writer's choice of appropriate sentences. Look at the sentence in the case study below:

1. *Six years ago (1993), Gender Sensitive Initiatives (GSI) was born and joined that sector referred to as the third sector, the NGO sector, the voluntary sector (Pg.: 6).*

The figure below has been derived from the above sentence:
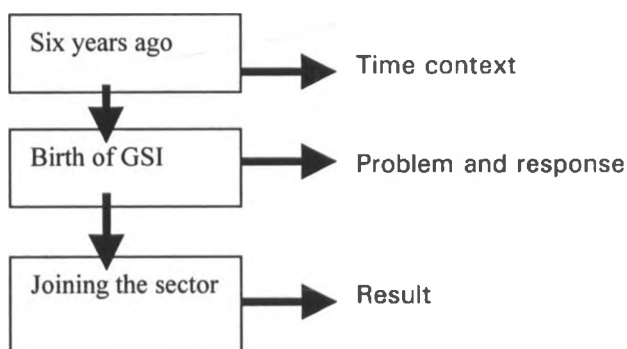
Relating the diagram to the first sentence of the case study implies that the writer organises it as a text using coherence relations in the sentence, through its structure and content. It thus establishes a cultural framework from which the text should be interpreted and initiates the reader's expectation through the time given. Blakemore (1987:120) argues that the principle of relevance provides the hearer/reader with a guarantee that the writer has aimed to produce

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a sentence that yields adequate contextual effects at a minimum cost in processing. As the text goes ahead, the reader is given new backgrounds or contexts, which are to be used to process new information.

The objective that the case study writer has in using the above first sentence is to make readers go ahead with the reading in order to identify what the sector referred to is and what has been accomplished since the *"six years"*. In coherence therefore, readers interpret information in the case study on the basis of the shared knowledge and prior knowledge on both the background and the context. In this case, propositional connection is not overtly expressed. Within a coherent discourse, connections are not always made explicit; the hearer or readers are expected to fill them in on the basis of their background or contextual assumptions. Indeed, unless they recognise that segments of the discourse cohere in some way, they can not recover any kind of message and the discourse will be ill-formed (Blakemore 1987:105). Consider the sentence below:

2. *They know that cash-cropping has caused a lot of poverty in their midst [...] (Pg.: 9).*

When readers come across (2), they will reconstruct a link between *"cash-cropping"* and *"poverty"* in their minds. The question they may ask pertaining to this is *"How does cash-cropping cause poverty, when in the really sense is the one that could be used to alleviate poverty?* They will then construct an answer to this question that cash crops in modern Kenya no longer earn income for the poor and at the same time, they occupy land which could have otherwise been used for growing food crops. This then shows that discourse is connected without the presence of overt cohesive links.

In a coherent discourse, sentences or parts of sentences may be connected either in virtue of the fact that the interpretation of the preceding sentence

includes propositions to be used to interpret the following sentence or in virtue of the fact that a proposition conveyed by one is affected by the interpretation of the other (Blakemore 1987:122). Brown & Yule (1983:224) remark that in addition to our knowledge of sentential structure, we also have knowledge of other standard formats in which information is conveyed. We also rely on some principle that although there may be no formal linguistic links connecting contiguous linguistic strings, the fact of their contiguity leads us to interpret them as connected. Interpretations of such kind demand effort from readers in order to arrive at the meaning, which the writer intends to communicate. As noted earlier, such interpretations are possible owing to the shared and prior knowledge on the background and context of the topic of information in the text. This is normally done through inferencing. However, as Brown and Yule argue, there is a wide range of possible inferences made by readers in interpreting discourse and it is not always easy to determine which were intended by the text-producer and which were not (1983:225). See the sentence below:

>   3. *Another pillar of the GSI PEP is having relied on what the local people know and how they understand and do things (Pg.: 18).*

In the above sentence and from the shared background knowledge, readers are able to interpret *"local people"* as referring only to a particular category of people who have been mentioned previously and not every local people in the world. They also know that these local people are the poor members of the society or communities being discussed in the text. Such a textual sentence is coherent to the extend that it enables readers to identify it as representative of the normal language use and the illocutionary acts it displays conforms to the known conventions (Widdowson 1978:44). Coherence then according to Widdowson is evaluated to the extent to which a particular instance of language use corresponds to a shared knowledge of conventions as to how illocutionary acts

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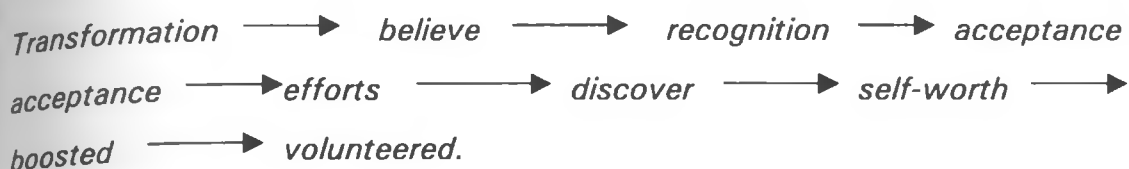are related to form large units of discourse of different kinds (Pg.: 45). Consider also the text below:

4. *Grace underwent a transformation. Seeing herself in one of the community photographs, Grace could not believe that a camera could also "choose" her. Recognition and acceptance during PEP meetings, together with efforts of the Good Manners Committee and the photograph helped Grace to discover her self-worth. It more than boosted her morale and believe that she is important and equal to the rest of the stakeholders at the Iguhu project. Grace, who is about three and a half feet tall, walks high, matching with the rest of community members to a meeting to discuss the possibility of growing sunflower and soyabean as a pilot cash crop. When she understood the benefit of growing sunflower/soyabean. She volunteered a portion of her land for her project partners to try out what she called "soya/flower". Due to lack of formal education she mixes the terms but in her mind, she knew what she meant. Even her fellow stakeholders knew what she meant. They were so amused at Grace's new term that it became the new community crop with Grace as the center. Such stories of transformation abound among GSI community partners (Pg.: 12-13).*

What contributes to the coherence of such paragraph from the case study? Most important of them is the identity of individuals in the paragraph:

(a)   Grace ⟶ herself ⟶ her ⟶ she ⟶ who

(b)   Community ⟶ Good Manners Committee ⟶ stakeholders ⟶ project partners ⟶ community members ⟶ they

All the above lexemes have a relationship of inclusion and membership. Grace, herself is part of the community in which stakeholders, partners and community members also live. Pronouns *"her"*, *"herself"* and *"she"* are female semantic features that refer back to "Grace". *"Three and half feet tall, walks high and matching"* are componential features of an entity which is $< +human >$. There is also a relationship expressed by concepts in the passage. Consider:

Transformation $\longrightarrow$ believe $\longrightarrow$ recognition $\longrightarrow$ acceptance

acceptance $\longrightarrow$ efforts $\longrightarrow$ discover $\longrightarrow$ self-worth $\longrightarrow$

boosted $\longrightarrow$ volunteered.

The concepts express a state of willingness to change from one condition to another and the concepts in the case study are closely related to the individuals who deserve such changes. This is an indicator of their semantic contiguity. Predicates in the passage on the other hand indicate a probable trend in which activities in the passage occur. It first starts with the recognition of the need for "change" and ends finally with the "change" itself. Dijk (1977:99) argues that an important cognitive condition of semantic coherence is the assumed normality of the worlds involved. That is, our expectations about the semantic structures of discourse are determined by our knowledge about the structure of the worlds in general and of particular states of affairs or courses of events.

Verbs as indicated above in the passage also signal a train of changes undergone by the poor who include Grace, from the states they found themselves in. Ross (Pike & Saint 1988:11) discusses verbal chronological linkage in which it is argued that chaining can serve to link two or more events in time. It can show sequential co-occurrence (event A happened before event B happened) or it can show simultaneous occurrence (event A happened at the same time as event B). That is, for one to undergo a transformation, believes, recognition and discovery must be engendered to facilitate change.

3.2 Background Knowledge and its Representation in the Case Study

Background knowledge is assumed to be knowledge that both the writer and readers of the case study have about a shared world. This is the knowledge that readers use in interpreting the case study. Representation of knowledge of this kind, as Brown and Yule argued, is found in psychological and computational approaches to discourse understanding and are mainly used to account for the type of information a writer/speaker can assume his hearer/reader has available whenever a particular situation is described (1983:236). Seuren (1985:16) argues that discourse domains (which he calls machinery of stores and substores) must be thought of as having open access to available stores of background knowledge and to available knowledge immediately derivable from the context of use. Look at the sentence below:

5. *The people and GSI have taken from each other what they needed in the past five years to fight poverty without burning the bridge or destroying the nature (Pg.: 17).*

The writer in the above sentence only provides pragmatic interpretation from which readers could use to understand its meaning. The writer does not tell the readers what poverty is and what kind of people it is affecting since the readers are assumed to know answers to these questions, which are represented in the lexical items of the sentence. Brown & Yule (1983:236) call the representations of this knowledge as *"default"* elements, which are assumed to be present even when not mentioned. Readers in this context provide default elements for the textual interpretation of the above sentence. These are stored in their memory. Thus when the writer talks about poverty in the case study, readers automatically understand its causes, the people being afflicted and even its characteristics. Brown & Yule, in this argument propose that understanding of discourse is essentially a process of retrieving stored information from memory and relating it to the encountered discourse (1983:236). For this purpose,

frames, scripts, scenarios and schemata discussed below represent background knowledge in the case study.

3.2.1 Frames

A frame is both used to produce and understand textual information. The idea of frames was first coined by Minsky from which he developed the *"Frame Theory"*. According to Minsky (Brown & Yule 1983:238), our knowledge is stored in memory in the form of data structures called frames and which represent stereotyped situations. Minsky argues that when one encounters a new situation (or makes a substantial change in one's view of the present problem) one selects from memory a structure called a "frame". This is to function as a remembered framework to be adapted to fit reality by changing details as necessary. Levinson on the other hand defines a frame as a body of knowledge that is evoked in order to provide an inferential base for the understanding of an utterance or sentence (1983:281). Dijk in Blakemore (1987:110) defines a frame as a representation of the knowledge people have of stereotypical events and situations although it does not account for the hearers or readers actual choice of context for the interpretation of an utterance or sentence in discourse.

A frame as defined above requires empty mental spaces *"slots"* to be filled by information from memory *"fillers"*. Brown and Yule give an example of the frame "HOUSE" in which they say has slots labelled *"kitchen*, *"bathroom"* and *"address"* etc. A particular house existing in the world, or mentioned in a text can be treated as an instance of the house frame, and can be represented by filling the slots with particular features of the individual house (1983:239). In this manner, the frame is a kind of fixed knowledge that users of a language have about the world and enables them to understand texts by incorporating what they know into what they are being informed by text writers. Consider the sentence below:

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6. *It did not matter who had the* <u>*bad manners,*</u> *starting from the household level to the delinquent youths or village drunkards or speeding* <u>*matatuists*</u> *who cause so many traffic road accidents (Pg.: 14).*

In the above sentence, *"bad manners"* is a frame in which all sorts of irrational behaviour (slot) can be filled. As one reads the sentence further, the writer tends to become more specific in terms of the frame. For instance *"bad manners"* which is a frame provides slots to be filled in by behaviour relating to *"delinquency"*, *"drinking"* and *"speeding"*. There is a semantic relationship of contiguity in the words since they express closely related meanings from which bad manners originate. Look at the word *"matatuists"*. How do readers interpret it? Using the frame argument, the reader will assert that since *"matatuists"* speed and cause road accidents, they must public transport vehicles, which have frames such as *"buses, mini-buses, taxis, couches* etc. In this way, the writer does not overtly tell the readers what *"bad manners"* or *"matatuists"* are, but provides a frame from which the reader could correctly interpret them.

Carefully observe the detached present participle in the above sentence *"starting from the household level to the delinquent youths or village drunkards or speeding matatuists"*. Such a detachment of the participle creates visual imagination in the readers since it evokes their minds to depict what *"bad manners"* are. According to Klein-Andreu a detached participle reflected in the above sentence allows the writer to present certain material as background against which other certain material can be put forth as a figure. Background here only means the material that serves to further explicate, amplify, or elaborate what is in the main clause, or that represents an event occurring simultaneously with or providing comment or motivation for the description in the main clause (1983:44). The detached participle in the above sentence therefore amplifies and elaborates the description of *"bad manners"*. This creates precision in the above text since it attempts to describe *"bad manners"* through creation of an image in the minds of the reader.

There are gaps in the above sentence which the writer expects readers to fill through the use of stereotypic knowledge for "*bad manners*" and the writer assumes that such knowledge is stored in the memory of the readers and would be brought to bear when circumstances requiring its use emerge. Such frames are important since they enable those who know to remember what they might have forgotten and also educates those who do not know. However the problem with the Frame Theory is that readers could give many frames. A solution to this is given by Wilks who argues that many frames are called, but only few can be chosen (1979:153).

Frames necessitate the use of explicative understanding in which words, sentences and sequences of sentences in the case study are comprehended through other meanings or through the relations they have with other meanings. Stern (1965:135) argues that the meaning of a stimulus word may be analysed (a characteristic of the referent or some individual instance of it, may be evoked) or related to other meanings (identified with other meanings, apprehended as belonging to a superior notion, or to some objective sphere, compared with subordinated or co-ordinated or otherwise related meanings), or it may be defined.

3.2.2 Scripts

According to Brown & Yule, the notion of script was first used to investigate the relationship between attitudes and behaviour and later applied to text understanding in which it incorporated a particular analysis of language understanding called conceptual dependency. Conceptual dependency was discussed in greater detail by Schank who called it a "*C- diagram*", which contained concepts that enter into relations described as dependencies (1983:241). Observe the sentence below:

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7. *The hitherto voiceless and faceless like Grace Ayuma, are now key stakeholders in the dialogues for pursuing a better future (Pg.: 12)*

It is a complex task for readers to understand the above sentence on the surface level, since a living human being capable of engaging in dialogues can not be voiceless and faceless. But on the basis of Schank's assumptions, the concepts used in the sentence represent an implicit interpretation, which the readers could give to the sentence. Look at the conceptual relationship in the sentence:

Voiceless ⟶ faceless ⟶ key stakeholder ⟶ dialogue ⟶better future

Such a relationship enables the reader to understand that the writer is talking about the poor whose views are never listened to or heard (voiceless) and are never allowed to speak in the open when others are speaking (faceless). The underlying assumption of the linkage above is that when development stakeholders remove *"voicelessness"* and *"facelessness"*, a better future is engendered for the poor. This is basically done through the use of the knowledge of the world of participatory development, that is over and above the syntactic and lexical information contained in the sentence.

The sentence itself also creates a desire in the readers to know more about its underlying propositions using conceptual dependencies. The sentence begins with a short situation proposition cushioned in evaluative terms. For instance, *"hitherto"*, *"voiceless"*, and *"faceless"* creates a conceptual expectation in the reader's mind. Such terms create an anticipation and desire in the reader. This makes him/her to read the text both forward and backward in order to understand why the existence of the voiceless and the faceless and how they have been enabled to regain their voices and faces and enabled to have a better future. Brown and Yule note that whereas a frame is generally treated as an essentially stable set of facts about the world, a script is more programmatic in

that it incorporates a standard sequence of events that describes a situation (1983:243).

3.2.3 Scenarios

The term scenario can be defined as the extended domain of reference which is used in interpreting written texts, since one can think of knowledge of settings and situations as constituting the interpretative scenario behind a text (Sanford & Garrod 1981:110). Look at the text below:

> 8. *This situation represents a potentially different indigenous NGO framework for engaging in service to the poor. It became a call to service with commitment with no funds (Pg.:9)*

The scenario given by *"service to the poor"* and *"service with commitment"* brings out the slot for poverty eradication and hence its representation in the case study. Such scenarios are signalled by lexical words in the text and are used to give focus on a particular relation which is taken to be rhetorically important and to create relations where otherwise they could not have been confidently been assumed to exist. The situation being described is that of poverty eradication which readers are able to identify in the above text using the scenario of engagement being described. Sanford & Garrod, still on this line of argument propose that the success of scenario-based comprehension is dependent on the text producers effectiveness in activating appropriate scenarios, and that in order to elicit a scenario, a piece of text must constitute a specific partial description of an element of the scenario itself (1981:129).

3.2.4 Schemata

Schemata refer to the knowledge that is conventionally structured in the minds of the users of language and is normally used to interpret what they read. Brown & Yule (1983:247) remark that story grammarians propose the existence of a socio-culturally determined story-schema, which has a fixed conventional

structure containing a fixed set of elements, one of which is the setting and an initial sentence of a simple story. They at the same time argue that schemata are not found in the stories themselves but in the memory of the people who use it to produce and comprehend simple stories. In this way, schemata reinforce readers to give fixed interpretations to texts. Brown & Yule give an example of racial prejudice in which they argue that, as the manifestation of some fixed way of thinking, newly encountered individuals are assigned undesirable attributes and motives on the basis of an existing schema for members of the race (1983:247). Consider the text below:

9. *In Oyugis however, the birth of GSI as a development organisation could not have happened at a more difficult and impossible time in Kenya's post-independence history. Not only were communities used to handouts, the birth of GSI coincided with the re-birth of a multi-party state in Kenya. No one new of what would come of the new Kenya after the elections (Pg.: 10).*

Given such a schemata, readers could use a shared background knowledge to tell when multi-partism was introduced in Kenya and therefore tell the time when GSI was formed. This background knowledge also gives them an expectation or the desire to know what happened after these arrangements came into being. Look at the last sentence in the text *"No one knew what would come of the new Kenya after the elections"*. Using background knowledge embedded in the schemata of events, readers of the text would give an exposition of what happened after the first multi-party elections in Kenya. The sentence therefore is used as a presupositional pool; in which writer assumes information that is likely to be known by readers. Presupposition in this line acts, as a camouflage since it assumes what is known by both the writer and the reader.

The schemata in the above sentence is determinate since it requires readers to give it a particular interpretation. Brown & Yule note that schemata can be seen

as the organised background knowledge that leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse (1983:248). However, it would be difficult for one to interpret the schemata in the above text if one comes from a different socio-cultural background. Anderson (1977:377) proposes that people's personal histories and interests (and sex perhaps) contribute to the creation of the higher-level schemata, which cause them to see messages in certain ways. Past experiences play a crucial role in the interpretation of schemata, which is done constructively by readers in their memory. It thus represents the background knowledge that is used by both the writer and the reader to produce and interpret texts respectively.

3.3   Implicature in the Case Study

Readers of the case study need to make inferences in order to meaningfully understand and interpret information being conveyed. Brown and Yule argue that inference is used to describe that process which the reader/hearer must go through to get from the literal meaning of what is written (or said) to what the writer or speaker) intended to convey. Writers of texts mean more than what they actually convey and it is only through inferencing that readers are able to arrive at what they really mean. According to Kempson (1977:70), implicatures emerge as assumptions over and above the meaning of the sentence used which the speaker (writer) knows and intends that the hearer will make in the face of an apparently open violation of the co-operative principle, in order to interpret the speakers/writers sentence in accordance with the co-operative principle. An implicature in this context is an additional meaning being conveyed by the writer of a text and could only be arrived at through inferencing. Consider the text below:

10.   *The tool has enabled ordinary people at the grassroots level to discover their individual and collective worth which they have come to value, harnessed and used in evolving visions and plans for poverty alleviation in their communities (Pg.: 20).*

The implicature in the above text is found in the clause *"ordinary people"*. Through inferencing, readers are able to make an observation that ordinary people are essentially the *"poor people"* who live in communities and that this is what the writer intended to convey. However, the task of inferencing takes some effort and the process of inferencing is referred to as forming *"a bridging assumption"*. Inferences are regarded as *"missing links"* and therefore are necessary to make an explicit connection between an implicature and its conventional meaning (Brown & Yule 1983:257). The writer also assumes that readers know what the "tool" referred to in (10) is. Observe the text below:

11.   The strategic visions for poverty alleviation today can no longer afford the quick fixes of yesteryears, which have continued to marginalise people everywhere. We have built hopes in a people who were on the verge of giving up, we have asked them cleverly, convincingly to hang in there, help is coming. We have done so mostly out of good will and well-meaning intention. But we have come "short of the glory" because we did not take time to look back to see what really became of what we have done in the past. We have all been part of it (Pg.: 20).

Several implicatures are present in the above text and can be identified by filling in the missing links through inferences. One of the inferences in the above text is that there are efforts to eradicate poverty by development stakeholders. Another one is that despite the good works of development organisations in eradicating poverty, they are also the major causes of poverty. *"But we have come short of the glory because we did not take time to look back to see what really became of what we have done in the past. We have all been part of it"*. The text contains the pronoun *"we"* which refers to the missing link *"development stakeholders or organisations"*, *"short of glory"* stands for the

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missing link *"we have achieved less"* and *"marginalise"* stands for *"increasing poverty for the poor people"*.

Identifying the missing links demands from the memory of the reader to do an additional processing, although this is not always the case for inferences that could be easily identified. It is in this line of argument that Brown and Yule argued that missing links are formally identifiable sentences which can be shown to provide a connection in formal cohesive terms, between texts [...] texts may have formal missing links, but it is readers and hearers who make inferences. However, identifying missing links is not the same as identifying inferences (1983:259-260).

Even though it is a little bit complex for readers to identify the actual inferences in the case study, they are still placed in a good position to predict them basing on some particular features that individual text contains. Such features are basically related to the concepts expressing the inferences, particularly through comprehension questions which readers are asked in the case study. Consider the questions below:

12. *What have we done?*

13. *How have we performed?*

14. *Have we been good stewards of public resources for development?*

15. *Have we been innovative, efficient, and shown value for money?*

16. *Have we been flexible, people-oriented, a cheaper mechanism of delivering development aid, serving the interest of people, ambassadors of goodwill, represented the people's voices and a tool for their empowerment?*

17. *At worst, did GSI fall in the category of "Nothing Going On" (NGO)? (Pg.: 6).*

Since enough information has not been supplied by the above questions, the maxim of quantity is flouted. But providing answers to them needs some extra efforts from readers, so that they can fill in the missing links. It is only after doing this that they are able to predict the inferences in the text. By filling in the gap *"what"*, *"how"*, *"we"* and the answer to the *"yes-no question"* in the above text, readers acquire partial knowledge representation of what the writer intended to convey particularly in terms of identity of entities (who are development stakeholders) and their activities to alleviate poverty. If answering some of these questions appears to involve the reader in additional work such as filling in gaps or discontinuities in his interpretation, then we may find a basis for predicting what kind of inferences will be required (Brown & Yule 1983:266). Hoey remarks that recognition of the sentence as answering the reader's question, recognition and non-recognition of the sentence as answering any question anticipated or otherwise, are all the offspring of expectation and signalling (1983:171). On the basis of Hoey's argument, such questions represent a hearer's or reader's interpretation of texts, strictly in terms of expectations and retrospective relations. For Habwe, they are a strategy, which the writer uses to convey messages indirectly (1999:88).

What is required for the interpretation of the above questions is elaborative and evaluative inferencing, which involve the reader in deciding the entity being talked about in the question, alongside its justification. Elaborative inferencing revolves around deciding on the entity while evaluative revolves around justifying the entity. In this manner, the writer uses the questions to clarify the organisation of the text. Pratt (1977:152) contends that any description of text interpretation and decoding has to make use of some concept of construction, reconstruction or *"filling in"*. For Fillmore (1974:4), a text induces its interpreter to construct an image or may be a set of alternative images. The image the interpreter creates early in the text guides his interpretation of successive portions of the text and these in turn induce him to enrich or modify that image. While the image-construction and image-revision is going on, the interpreter is

also trying to figure out what the creator of the text is doing- what the nature of the communication situation is and that too, may have an influence on the image creating process. Although Fillmore intended his ideas to be used only in the interpretation of literary works, they also have a bearing on the interpretation of participatory development literature, particularly where inferences are used.

According to Grice's co-operative principle (Pratt 1977:154), in a text as the case study, readers are able to interpret the writers sentences through deductions and inferences as long as readers could establish that the writer is observing the co-operative principle and its attendant maxims. Pratt maintains the idea that coherence of any conversation, text or extended utterance almost invariably depends on implicatures. In the case study, Implicatures enable the writer to supply multiple meanings and are used to indicate chronological and causal sequences.

For instance, in (10), implicature is evident in the order of actions:

discover ➡ value ➡ harness ➡ use

Implicature is present since *"ordinary people"* did things in the order outlined above and also the writer has not cancelled the implicature by saying that *"but not necessarily in the above order"*. Implicature is also through a causal sequence indicated by the word *"enabled"*. Implicature in (11) provides information that prepares what to come next. This information is both orientive and evaluative. The relevance of implicature to any text is therefore paramount and without it, it would be difficult for writers to say anything at all (Pratt 1977:158).

The questions create precision by eliciting answers of a certain kind from the readers. They also widen the scope of discussion on the side of the writer and deepen the writer's propositional development in the case study. They also

constrain the writer in terms of the content of the study to only talk about particular crucial themes in the world of participatory development. This is particularly important when related to their appearance in the first paragraph of the case study, in which they indicate what is to be discussed. Hoey observes that questions are a primary source of information about the meanings of sentences in sequences. They spell out explicitly the previously implicit communicative purpose of the sentence and assuming this communicative purpose makes use of the language context, the question will spell out the context at the same time (1983:38).

3.4 Inferencing through the Metaphor

Metaphors within pragmatic literature arise when writers exploit or flout the maxims of co-operation that emerge as a result of the implicature. Levinson (1983) argues that metaphor is not only central to poetry and indeed to a very large portion of ordinary language usage but also to realms as diverse as the interpretation of dreams and the nature of models in scientific thought. For Habwe, metaphor is falsity and is a breach of the quality maxim of the co-operative principle and is used to excite, ignite stir and evoke the feelings and emotions of the people (readers) (1999:67).

In this context, metaphors have some pragmatic value and the ones used in the case study can be interpreted within an interactionist framework. Levinson postulates the *"Interaction Theory"* for the interpretation of metaphors in which she argues that metaphors are special uses of linguistic expressions where one metaphorical expression (or focus) is embedded in another literal expression (or frame) such that the meaning of the focus interacts with and changes meaning of frame and vice versa (1983:148). Pragmatic knowledge is therefore required according to this view for the interpretation of metaphors in the case study. Consider the following metaphorical sentence in the case study below:

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18. *Celebrating the future can only be described as awakening the sleeping giant (Pg.: 6).*

The sentence can be interpreted as follows: *"celebrating the future"* in the above text is likened to the *"sleeping giant"*. Using semantic features, their meanings can be reduced to the following atomic concepts:

Celebrating the future	sleeping giant
<non-living>	*<living>*
<non-concrete>	*<concrete>*

Interpretation of such a sentence can not be easy as such since *"celebrating the future"* has *<non-living>* feature. The reading for *"sleeping giant"* requires the subject of the sentence to have a living entity, which is conspicuously absent in the sentence. This problem is solved through semantic construal rules, which maps the features of *"sleeping giant"* to those of the *"celebrating the future"*. But still the sentence would not be understood unless it is interpreted within the context in which it is written. That is, *"celebrating the future"* refers to efforts to eradicate poverty while *"sleeping giant"* refers to the poor people in communities. *"Awakening"* on the other hand refers to *"empowering"*. The whole sentence then means that participatory development is only possible when the poor members of the society are empowered since they have the "giant-like" potential/energy to develop. Stern (1965:143) remarks that context is important in interpreting figures of speech such as the metaphor, in which case, readers make inferences based on the knowledge they have about the topic and attitudes of the writer towards the use of the metaphor. They are able to apprehend them by saying that the writer meant this or that. The context in this regard prepares readers to interpret the case study correctly by indicating the direction in which metaphors point.

Metaphors in political speeches are pragmatic devices which politicians use in order to deny underlying propositions when circumstances demand (Habwe 199:77). Although this reflects the cancellability property of pragmatic implicatures, it is not the case with the case study. The case study writer uses metaphors in order to evoke deep thoughts about the potential of development that poor people have when empowered. The writer of the case study can not deny this pragmatic inference or assertion, since it is a true reflection of what is happening in the field of participatory development and is not meant to entice or to agitate anybody as it is the case with political rally speeches.

Levinson contends that the main attraction of such theories for the interpretation of metaphors is that they attempt to bring within the fold of standard semantics interpretative processes, which are not always clearly distinct from ordinary processes of language understanding (1983:153). The value of such a process of interpretation is also found in the argument by Kirsner (Klein-Andreu 1983:287) who remarks that the gap between abstract meaning and concrete message has profitably been viewed as being bridged through a process of inference- the basic human capacity to solve problems, to leap to conclusions compatible with, but only suggested by, the data given. Inference plays a crucial role in creating contexts that affect the interpretation of propositions in the text and thus command the reader to make linkages between sentences of the text and hence be able to interpret them.

The writers use of the metaphor in the case study has an intention to serve the expressive and purposive role of the sentences in text than plain statements. Stern's arguments about metaphors are based on this premise and he argues that metaphors are figures of speech in which a referent is designated by the name of another referent in such way that:

i.   The transfer does not involve an essential identity of the two referents,

ii.   The designation is taken from another sphere of experience than that to which the actual referent belongs and

iii. The process of transfer is not expressed (1965:298).

Metaphors in this regard enhance the meanings of propositions through a fusion process that links the two referents. In (19), *"poverty"* is equated to an *"elephant"*. There is a point of similarity between *"poverty"* and the *"elephant"*. The similarity may be in terms of barriers to be removed before poverty is eradicated or it might simply mean that it takes quite a lot of efforts to eradicate poverty. This interpretation is only possible when readers use their subjective apprehension of the referents. The fusion process between the above two terms explains one of the characteristics of poverty. Metaphors in the case study are therefore used to designate referents and at the same time give them colour and other associative meanings of the lexical items derived from their primary meanings and contexts. Stern argues that the metaphor aims at providing relief and expression for the speaker's feelings, and at impressing the hearer/reader in a definite way.

The metaphor carries along with it from its sphere (the sphere of the primary referent) elements of its primary meaning. The strengths and obtrusiveness of these elements depend on the circumstances and on the degree to which they are applicable to the actual referent (1965:307). The metaphor expresses shades of thought and feelings, which can not be expressed using plain language in the case study and adds new attributes to the referents for their vivid comprehension by the readers. Since language is an instrument for promoting purposes of development stakeholders in the alleviation of poverty, metaphors are a crucial tool in doing this. However, it is worthy noting that meaning is not equal to the sum of individual word meanings, a meaning is also made up of the writers subjective apprehension of the referent in the case study.

CHAPTER FOUR

CASE STUDY REPRESENTATION AS A TEXTUAL STRUCTURE

4.0   Introduction

The case study writer has structured words to form sentences, which have also been organised to make the entire case study a text. In doing this, the problem of linearity when reading the case study arises. The starting point of the case study is structured to affect the interpretation which readers will give to the subsequent sentences, sequence of sentences, paragraphs and the whole text. Refer again to the first and second sentence of the case study:

1. *Six years ago (1993), Gender Sensitive Initiatives (GSI) was born and joined that sector referred to as the third sector, the NGO sector, the voluntary sector.*
2. *Six years ago that sector was under scrutiny from civil society, from the sector itself, from the Government. (Pg.: 6).*

The attributive description given in the above sentences *"third sector"* *"NGO sector"*, and *"voluntary sector"* in (1) and *"civil society"* *"the sector itself"* and *"the Government"* are attractive and predispose the reader to keep on reading the text. Look at the sequence of activities in the sentence: first *"GSI"* which belongs to the sector is born, after which it engages in some activities of the sector. Such ordering provides an implicature, which can be interpreted by readers on the basis of sentential propositions. This chapter on the basis of this argument will investigate features adopted in ordering words and events within sentences and assess their effects on the communicative aspects in the case study. The process of linearisation that is valuable for communicative function will be discussed. In this line of argument, the case study is chunked together through a linearisation process in which there are beginning and ending points for clauses, sentences, paragraphs and the whole text. This will show how it is

has been made possible for the writer to arrange propositional content in the case study.

4.1 Theme and Rheme

"*Theme*" is an important feature to the linearisation process in the case study. Linear occurrence of elements in sentences or within sequences of sentences enables readers to interpret and comprehend propositions in the case study. The term "*theme*" refers to the first element to occur in a sentence. Brown & Yule (1983:126) define it as referring to a formal category, the left-most constituent of a sentence. They argue further that each sentence must have a "*theme*" as the beginning point of the utterance and a "*rheme*" as everything else that comes after or that talks about theme. Halliday (1967:212) calls it a point of departure. Sentences in English language have both the beginning and the end with special structural processes that position constituents in them. A process that positions constituents at the beginning of a sentence is referred to as thematisation and at the end is rhematisation (Brown & Miller 1980:357).

Declarative sentences have noun phrases as a "*theme*". The interrogative word is the "*theme*" for interrogatives and the imperative form of the verb is normally the "*theme*" of imperatives (Brown & Yule 1983:127). For Halliday (1985:36), a "*theme*" is a function in the clause as a message. It is what the message is concerned with the point of departure for what the speaker is going to say. The message in this context of Halliday's argument is therefore important to its communicative function. Sentences in the case study are structured as messages through thematising part of their constituents. Halliday argues that to achieve this, one element in the clause is enunciated as theme and latter allowed to combine with other elements of the sentences so that they constitute a message together. This sub-section will only deal with the thematic structure of declarative sentences. In the case study, noun phrases appear as themes almost everywhere. Consider the sentences below:

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3. _Mary_ had to end her assignment because it was time-up for her (Pg: 6).

4. In _the GSI PEP_ model, one could not apply one to the exclusion of or detriment of the latter (Pg.: 9).

5. _The Oyugis_ project became the GSI field laboratory for its home-grown PEP following the community instead of the community following PEP (Pg.: 9-10).

6. But _Grace_ after attending every PEP meeting had understood that everyone was important, including herself (Pg.: 12).

NPs in the sentences occur as the left-most constituents. Such structural positioning of NPs as "themes" are valuable to the writer particularly in staging facts in the case study. Facts are staged in such way as to effectively convey the meaning to the readers. The structuring of this sort provides emphasis and precision on the propositional meaning. The writer first tells readers what the topic is and then provides comment on it. However, it is worthy noting that even though the left-most constituent of a sentence corresponds to the grammatical subject, it is not always the case. The left-most constituent is not always the grammatical subject (Brown & Yule 1983:131).

Sentential messages reflected in the above set are composed of both the _"theme"_, which occurs first in the sentence and the _"rheme"_ which occurs last. Sometimes the _"theme-rheme"_ distinction is equated to the _"topic-comment"_ convention. However, this should not be the case since _"topic"_ deals with only one type of _"theme"_ and also at times is used to refer to _"given"_ information. Halliday (1985:39) argues that _"theme"_ is the starting point for the message, it is what the clause is going to be about and part of the meaning of any clause lies in which element is chosen as its theme. Halliday confirms that the thematic organisation of the clauses expresses and so reveals, the method of development of a text [...] the theme provides the environment for the remainder of the message, the rheme (1985:67). Consider the sentences below:

7. *"Finally"* it has been observed that not only are there basic tensions and sharp divide amongst and between institutions around value [...] (Pg.: 7).

8. *"More often than not"* NGOs in the South and in Kenya specifically [...] (Pg.: 8).

9. *"Perhaps the hitherto limited"* impact or altogether failure of so many poverty alleviation programs [...] (Pg.:8]

10. *"Consciously and right from the beginning"* this framework of thinking, looking inwardly for a vision and mechanisms for poverty alleviation [...] (pg.: 9).

11. *"In Iguhu"*, the CMC started finding innovative ways or raising funds when GSI ran dry in 1997 [...] (Pg.: 15).

12. *"During the past five years"* using the PEP, the people have generated their own statistics, statistics that talk to them in a language they understand (Pg.:18)

13. *"In today's busy"* micro-chip world, even out there in the new world order, such relationships have been curtailed by the search for something and the notion that time is money (Pg.: 18).

14. *"Without becoming"* partisan at that particular time was critical and is one of the building blocks of process (Pg.: 10).

In the above set of declarative sentences, adverbs and adverbial phrases come before grammatical subjects. Adverbs and adverbial phrases in such cases provide connections between events that occurred before and those that are being expressed in the sentential propositions. Through thematisation of time adverbials as in (10), (12) and (13), the writer organises what she wants to convey about the topic of information on the basis of different time perspectives on the concerned entities. Theme in the case study therefore refers to the main actors in poverty alleviation in which the main referents are placed in the subject position. Brown & Yule (1983:132) argue that the direct link between what has

gone before and what is asserted in the main clause of the sentence is the adverbially expressed relationship. They further note that the constituent, which is thematised in a sentence, is what the sentence is about irrespective of whether or not the constituent is the grammatical subject.

Allied to the observations noted above, *"theme"* in the above sentences is also indicated by a clause and not necessarily a single nominal. Such a phenomenon is referred to as *"thematic equative"* by Halliday (sometimes called pseudo-cleft sentence) which he describes as simply being an identifying clause with a thematic nominalisation in it (1985:43). *"Theme"* is therefore made up of the elements constituting the clause and it is a feature that gives freedom to the writer to organise the message in the case study in any form or order to conveniently convey an appropriate meaning and also serves to exclude unintended meanings. Halliday goes ahead to argue that when *"theme"* and *"information"* are put together, they constitute internal resources for structuring the clause as a message - for giving it a particular status in relation to the surrounding discourse (Pg.: 286). Through the "theme", texts as reflected in the case study are carefully planned, executed and polished as per Halliday's point of views. Danes (Brown & Yule 1983:133) remarks that a theme in a sentence serves two purposes:

i. Connecting back and linking into the previous discourse whose objective is to maintain a coherent point of view,
ii. Serving as a point of departure for further development of discourse.

As explained above, theme is used for the linear organisation of information in the case study at the sentence level. But linear organisation is also evident at levels above the sentence and this is where thematisation comes in. Thematisation is discoursal rather simply being a sentential process (Brown & Yule (1983:133). Information occurring first in the sentence impacts on the reader's interpretation of the information that comes after. Brown & Miller

contend that the thematisation processes adds emphasis on the meaning or predisposes a reader to a particular reading in preference to some other possible reading (1980:364). In this way of interpreting discourses, titles and the first sentence of the case study (and of the paragraphs in the case study), then reduce or broaden the reader's interpretation of all the information that comes after.
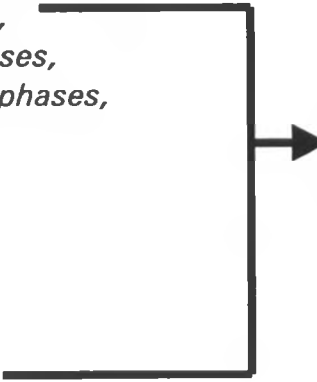
4.2   Thematic Structure

Consider the passage below:

15.   However, _the GSI PEP_ became the tool that would have to stand what the test of many dynamics and show why and how _it could facilitate_ poverty alleviation in Oyugis. Those who dared to take the risk did and enlisted for the _four PEP phases_. Surprisingly, more people came at each _subsequent PEP phase_ than the one before. One of the unique features of _GSI PEP model_ is its ability to pick and drop individuals as _it progresses_ in all _its stages_ and as it picks momentum. So indeed, _it dropped_ those who attended PEP 1 with expectations of hand-outs. PEP would pick them up again when they would see progress achieved by those who stuck with the process. _The process_ allows for people to join at any phase. Those who follow the process through have more knowledge about the process, but each individual is able to learn something and reap the advantage of the amount of knowledge gained. People volunteer time, some for longer periods than others, some contribute labour while others offer wisdom, knowledge, skills or some other needed ingredient in the mix. _The GSI PEP_ uniquely accommodated these varieties of skills, stamina/energy and disposition. The important thing is that in the end, the community moves together coherently (Pg.: 10).

Look at the sequences of the underlined clauses (which are also themes) in the passage above:

the GSI PEP (explained),
it could facilitate,
the four PEP phases,
subsequent PEP phases,   details
GSI PEP model,   pertaining
it progresses,   to the
its stages,   PEP process
it picks,
it dropped,
the process,
the GSI PEP.

Through thematic organisation exhibited above, the case study writer identifies the topic area. The paragraph is shown to be moving from a particular PEP process (GSI PEP). An explanation pertaining to the process is given, its characteristics outlined, and at the end of the paragraph, a generalisation about the whole GSI PEP process is provided in the last line *"the important thing is that in the end, the community moves together coherently"*. Hence we could summarise this by observing that in thematic organisation pertaining to the above paragraph, the writer presents arguments in such way that the reader would easily identify the topic area and the thematic structure of the case study. Brown & Yule suggest that thematic organisation is exploited by speakers/writers to provide a structural framework for their discourse which relates back to their main intention and provides a perspective on what follows (1983:143). In the paragraph, the writer relates sentential propositions to what has been explained before in order to provide a coherent structure to the case study.

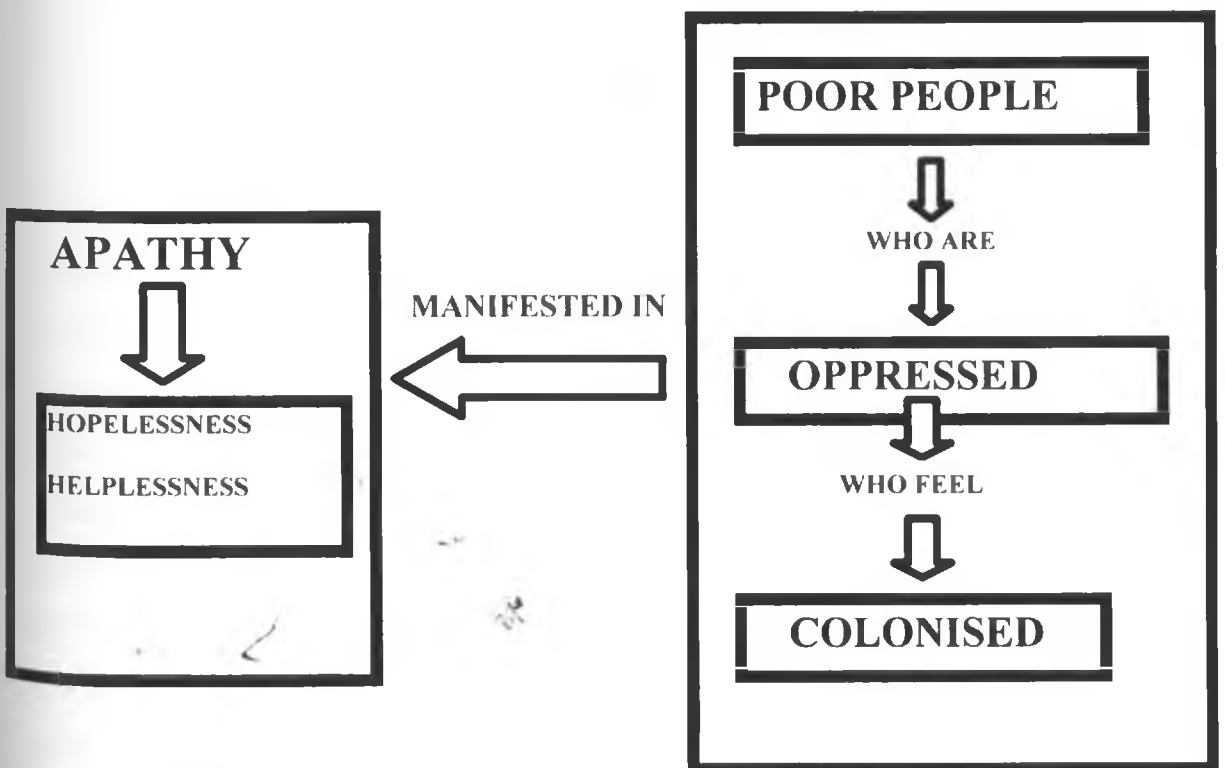## 4.3   Staging of Information in the Case Study

Grime was the first person to talk about staging and noted that every clause, sentence, paragraph, episode and discourse is organised around a particular element that is taken as its point of departure (Brown & Yule 1983:134). In the

line of Grimes argument, is the issue of how writers manipulate the features of linear organisation of texts in order to give more emphasis on some particular elements or events than others. For instance, consider once more the first sentence of the case study:

16.   *Six years ago (1993), Gender Sensitive Initiatives was born and joined that sector referred to as the third sector, the NGO sector, the voluntary sector (Pg.: 6).*
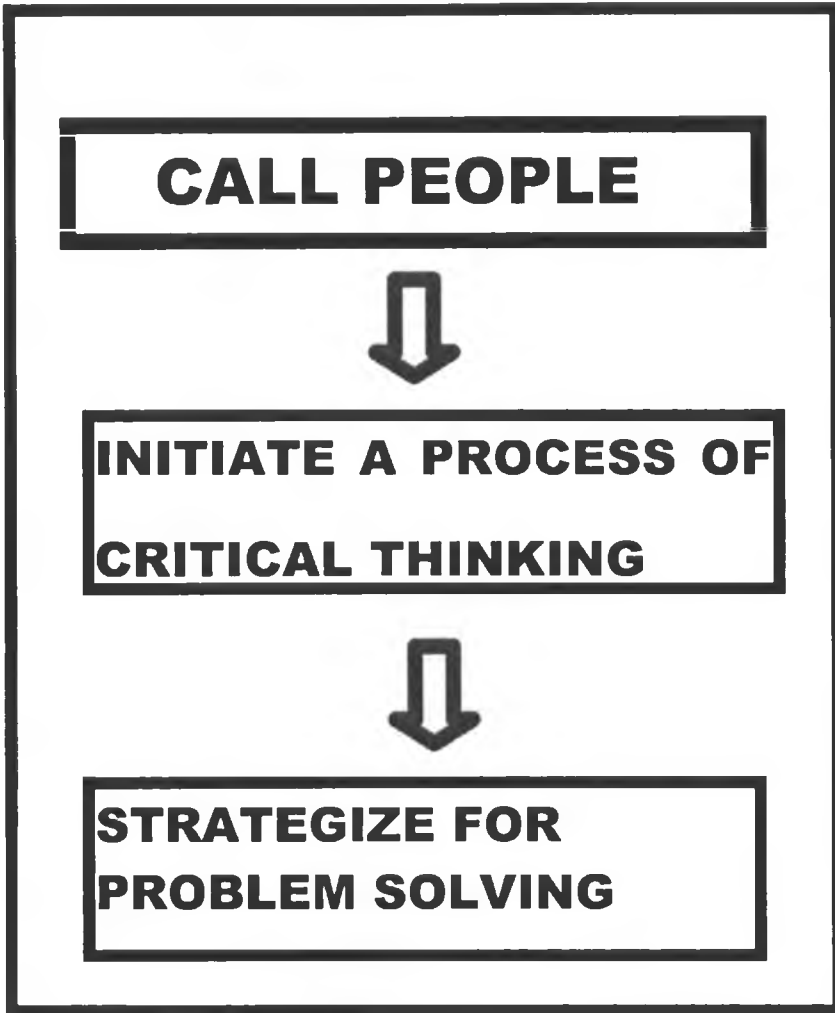
The above sentence refers to the most important event, which the writer is drawing the readers to: *"the birth of GSI and its incorporation into the NGO sector"*. The second sentence that follows it only provides some extra information about GSI. According to Clements (1979:287), staging is a dimension of prose structure, which identifies the relative prominence given to various segments of prose discourse. Consider the diagrammatic representation of staging in the case study shown below:

17. The situation of disempowered people.

(Pg.: 3)

18. *Steps to empowerment through PEP*

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────┐  │
│  │        CALL PEOPLE                 │  │
│  └───────────────────────────────────┘  │
│                  ⬇                       │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────┐  │
│  │  INITIATE A PROCESS OF            │  │
│  │  CRITICAL THINKING                │  │
│  └───────────────────────────────────┘  │
│                  ⬇                       │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────┐  │
│  │  STRATEGIZE FOR                   │  │
│  │  PROBLEM SOLVING                  │  │
│  └───────────────────────────────────┘  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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(Pg.: 4)

The diagrams provide a summary on how information is staged in the case study and the writer uses them as an effective strategy, which could enable readers to interpret subsequent information in the case study while relating them to the major theme of poverty alleviation. They thus provide information on the background of the people afflicted with poverty, elaborates on the process of empowering them and provides an institutional framework which could assist alleviate poverty. According to Brown & Yule, staging is to be seen as the speaker's or writer's overall rhetorical strategy of presentation which may be motivated by an intention to create suspense, to convince his listener/reader of

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the truth of what he is saying by adding credible supporting details, to persuade his listeners/readers to a course of action or to shock or to surprise (1983:148).

Look at verbs and adjectives used in diagram (16). *"Poor"*, *"oppressed"*, *"colonised"* and *"apathy"* all refer to the psychological states of the people affected by poverty. This, we could refer to as a process that will enable readers to select the subjects/themes which the writer is talking about in the case study. This is in accordance to the thematisation process, a discourse process by which a referent comes to be developed as the central subject of the discourse.

4.4   Titles in the Case Study

It is the view of Brown & Yule (1983:139) that demands readers not to equate the *"title"* of a stretch of discourse to the topic, and that it should be instead be taken as one possible expression of topic. They regard a *"title"* as a powerful thematisation device. Consider the overall title of the case study below:

19.   *Contextualizing Gender Sensitive Initiatives Participatory Evaluation Process (PEP) and Gender Analysis as Poverty Alleviation Methodologies.*

Gender Sensitive Initiatives in the above title is thematised and in the minds of the readers is expected to be the topic of the title. This explicitly depicts the relevance of thematisation process in giving more precision and emphasis to the title since the entity that is thematised gives the case study a beginning point upon which all the information in the case study is organised and around which readers have to base their interpretation.

Readers get to know that GSI is a development organisation utilising particular processes or methodologies that aid in reducing impacts of poverty. In this manner, the thematisation process constrains possible interpretations which readers would give to what comes after the title. This in one way or another

resembles schemata discussed in chapter three. An assertion of this kind also applies to the major headings and subheadings in the case study. Placing headings and subheadings within a text is a common thematisation device in technical or public information documents and this provides starting points for paragraphs in a text and contributes to dividing up a whole text into smaller chunks. The *"chunking effect"* is one of the most basic of those achieved by thematisation in discourse (Brown & Yule 1983:140).

4.5   Given and New Information in the Case Study.

"Given" and *"new"* are textual terms referring to the information that has literally been *"given"* in the preceding text and information that is *"new"* to the sentence immediately under consideration (Brown & Miller 1983:360). *"New"* information is always provided in full to enable the reader to understand it in the case study. Information that is *"given"* in the case study is taken for granted, and is provided through pro-forms or cross-referencing words. Observe the sentences below:

> 20.   *The people took themselves to task through a process of inquiry about the impact of their action on this or the other, about the fate of so and so, etc. (Pg.: 12).*
>
> 21.   *They would even think of the poorer homesteads or individuals and would assign themselves the task of finding out about the fate of other community members (Pg.: 12).*

The two sentences follow each other in the case study. In (20), new information is introduced by the clause *"people took"* while in (21), *"they"* cross-refers back to *"people"* in (20) and therefore can be taken as given information and still there is consistence in not mentioning *"the people"* in (21).

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20.   [...] people [new] [...] themselves [given] [...] their action [new]
      |_____| |_____|

21.   They [given] [...] poorer homesteads [new] [...] themselves [given] [...] community
      |_____| |_____| |_____| |_____|

members [new]

There is suspension in (21) as opposed to (20), until the connection between the *"people"* in (20) is established with *"community members"*. There is also sentence-combining between the two by the use of connectors and this creates a link between them. Sentence (21) picks up the real copy of the new information in (20) as *"given"*. The relationship between *"people"* in (20) and *"community members"* in (21) is that of inclusion and that with *"they"* in (21) with *"people"* in (20) is anaphoric relationship. In this regard, new information simply extends the meaning of propositions in the case study. Brown & Miller argue that the *"given"* need always referred to in the text. It may be information *"given"* in the sense that both participants share it as speakers of the same language, it may be cultural information shared between members of a linguistic community or it may be information privately shared between two individuals (1980:360). Consider what would happen to the interpretation if the above sentences continue as in the passage below:

> 22.   At their strategic planning meetings, they would insist that their neighbours in the adjacent communities to be given an opportunity to be part of the GSI project. They felt uncomfortable with their progress while their neighbours in adjacent locations remained in their usual state of "darkness" as they called it (Pg.: 12).

Since the reader and the writer have a shared background knowledge on *"strategic planning meetings"*, *"communities"*, *"GSI project"* *"progress"* and *"darkness"* in the case study, they all know that for any development activity to succeed, inclusion of all members of the community is necessary since *"given"* information is thematised while *"new"* information is rhematised. Widdowson

(1978:25) notes that propositions are organised in such a way that what is known or given comes first in the sentence and what is unknown or new comes second. According to Rutherford (1987:76), it is physically impossible for more than one item to occupy the initial position of any sentence at the same time, it follows that it may sometimes be necessary to choose what should start the sentence off from among competing candidates in propositional content, all of which can qualify as given.

According to Brown & Yule (1983:169), new information is characteristically introduced by indefinite expressions and subsequently referred to by definite expressions in English. In the above paragraph, the syntactic forms used to indicate *"given"* information are the pronominals, which are used anaphorically to refer back to entities, identified by the lexical units. They are the ones underlined in the above paragraph from the case study. The underlined lexical NPs in the text also play a role of *"given"* information

The occurrence of both the pronominals and NPs can be interpreted as occurring in free variation because of their ability to replace each other in the positions in which they occur. Halliday (1967:211) remarks that given information is specified as being treated by the speaker or the writer as recoverable either anaphorically or situationally while new information is said to be focal, not in the sense that it can not have been previously mentioned, although it is often the case that it has not been, but in the sense that the speaker or the writer presents it as being recoverable from the preceding discourse or text. Halliday distinguishes *"given + new"* and *"theme + rheme"* and argues that the *"theme"*, is what I, the speaker or the writer chose to take as my point of departure. The *"given"* is what you, the listener or the reader already know about or have accessible to you. *"Theme + rheme"* is speaker or writer-oriented, while *"given + new"* is listener or reader-oriented (1985:278). This is always the case despite the fact that they are all chosen by the speaker or writer. The writer utilises this conceptual framework to give structure and texture to the sentence

in the case study to enable readers to apprehend them against the background of what has already been said. Sentences in the case study are therefore informationally organised so that the "*theme*" coincides with "*new*" information and the "*rheme*" with "*given*" information.

4.6   Topic as Content Representation

The notion of topic is a little bit confusing owing to its different interpretations. Sometimes it is regarded to as a psychological subject of a sentence and sometimes it is equated to "theme" of a sentence. However, in this sub-section, it will be taken to be a perspective from which a sentence is viewed or what a sentence is about (Brown & Miller 1980:360). Dijk (Blakemore 1987:109) defines a topic as a proposition that is non-trivially and jointly entailed by the ordered sequence of propositions expressed by the sequence of sentences in a text. Look at the sentence below:

> 23.   *Chief Shabaya or any committee member of the resource centre will not pass anybody, known or unknown without a word of hello (Pg.: 14).*

"*Chief Shabaya*" is the topic and the other extra information in the sentence is about the topic, and is therefore termed as the comment. Even though the topic coincides with the "*theme*" in the above sentence, it is not always the case. Consider the sentence below:

> 24.   *The following analysis and discussion is based on selected variables which are believed to be the major pillars, outcomes and impact of the GSI PEP (Pg.:8)*

In (24), "*GSI PEP*", which is the topic has been end-focused. The writers aim for doing this is to delay the topic to some extent, in such a way that when the reader finally identifies it, a particular communicative impact could have been

achieved. Identification of a topic requires information from the context that might even lie outside the scope of sentences in question. Barry (Grossman et al 1975:2) characterises topics (in contrast to subjects) as having no selectional restrictions with verbs and which do not govern clause-internal phenomena such as reflexivization. They are logical subjects however in the sense that they *"take"* predicates- while a subject can only take a verb as its predicate, topic can take sentence predicates. Barry goes ahead to argue that as a grammatical slot, *"topic"* like subject and object can not be defined by the meaning of its fillers, we can only understand why it exists, however by reference to the semantic function it is (generally) used to fill (1975:6). In this line of argument, an observation that it is readers who have topics and not writers can be made (Morgan 1975:434).

According to Keenan & Schieffelin (1976:380), a discourse topic is not a simple NP but a proposition (about which some claim is made or elicited). Such an assumption makes it difficult for a discourse analyst to identify a topic of a particular sentence. However it is not the aim of this study to train readers on how to identify topics in texts.

In spite of this, one could identify a topic by asking the question: "why is the speaker/writer saying/conveying in the utterance/sentence in a particular situation. Coulthard (1977:76) remarks that there is a constant analysis in conversation of what is said in terms of *"why that now and to me"*. Operating on these assumptions, readers can identify topics in the case study by giving information on what the writer has written about. This is based on the knowledge they already have about what the writer is expressing in the case study. Brown and Yule argue that part of the process of analysing discourse in terms of *"topic"* is an attempt to make explicit the basis for our intuitive ability to recognise why what is said or written is appropriate in a particular discourse or text fragment (1983:78). Consider the sentence below:

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25.   *Therefore, values these communities have cultivated over the past five years have and continue to afford them the openings and spaces which have enabled even the poorest of the people to present their ideas/views, fears, dreams and aspirations confidently in Oyugis, Iguhu, Muranga and Karai (Pg.:12)*

On coming across such a sentence, readers would easily identify its topic as being *"poverty alleviation"*. Why then this topic? This is because, they are able to use contextual features derived from the physical contexts (communities in Oyugis, Iguhu, Muranga and Karai) in which there are people and places where they live. There are also entities, events and facts about the people, all of which provide a textual domain from which readers would infer and derive the topic of the above sentence. Readers in doing this, posses a shared knowledge with the writer through identification of the topic.

Consider the phrase *"over the past five years"*. This implies that the aspect of time has a bearing on the topic that the writer wants readers to identify in the above text. The notion of time and use of place words as in (25) points towards the worlds in which the events being described happen to be true and therefore occupy positions in the sentences from which the topic can be derived. Barry (Grossman et al 1975:7) remarks that everything about language is emphatic and contrastive, from the choice not to speak at all through all choices of one item over another to fill a particular position. The topic construction partakes of this contrastiveness in that it chooses one universe in contra-distinction to other possible universes.

The notion of topic in texts plays a crucial role. First it creates a frame upon which reference can be made and it occurs in the introduction or occurs anaphorically. In this manner, the topic establishes links between sentences by organising information in the text into a linear structure, to facilitate smooth transitions of propositions.

The second function of the topic in the case study is that it is used to indicate human behaviour and activity (Grossman et al 1975:7). Consider terms like *"values these community have cultivated"*. The term *"values"* relates to human behaviour and *"cultivated"* relates to human activity, which implies that the meaning of the sentence pertains to what people do and how they behave and not only the content of sentential propositions.

In (25), the topic sentence provides an exposition, which elaborates the propositonal content, and hence constrains the writer's choice of the first sentence. This observation is critical in providing unity to the topic of the case study. Topic in the case study is also represented by joint propositions through a set of items of world knowledge. Seuren argues that if a topic is what the discourse is concentrating on at any given moment, then the element or elements in the sentence denoting that topic must of necessity belong to the domain of the given, but need not, of course, be identical with that domain (1985:17). The notion of topic is important because it helps to explain how sentences tie together into chunks (Habwe 1999:184).

4.7   Paragraphs as Topic Boundary Markers

Through paragraphs, the case study writer gives a structure to the information being conveyed. In this case, paragraphs are formal markers of topic shift in the case study. In trying to elaborate what a *"topic shift"* is, Brown and Yule argue that between two contiguous pieces of discourse which are intuitively considered to have two different *"topics"*, there should a point at which the shift from one topic to the next is marked (1983:94-5). Identifying topic-shifts in the case study is done through the technique of paragraphing, in which every new paragraph reflects a new topic. However this should not always be the case since the orthographic paragraph can result from a writer's stylistic concerns partially dictated by eye appeal, or from printing conventions such as an indentation for {change of speaker (Longacre 1977:83). In the case study,

paragraphs are partitioned on the basis of thematic participants, which appear as NPs that are about particular individuals or group of individuals. Consider the paragraph below:

26. *One lady from Muranga said that she did not need money from GSI or from anybody else because she has gotten enough knowledge and wisdom to make all the money she needs. She said that from PEP2, she started making the Kikuyu baskets (ciondo) and from this, she is able to meet her family needs. Another person said that from the savings she makes as a result of good stewardship of her family income and now that her husband (old man, mzee) does not drink anymore, they are able to live decently. They insisted that the only input they still need is more enlightenment. The rest they will achieve on their own. In Oyugis, CMC has continued to contribute its labour and money for the running of the Oyugis Community Resource Centre, because they believe in this resource centre and know that beyond any reasonable doubt, it belongs to them (Pg.: 15).*

The paragraph is structured around individuals pursuing a common goal. It has two participants living in the same circumstances and is therefore linked by one topic. The passage looks felicitous, owing to the linear structuring of information, in such way that what we read is connected to what is already familiar or what has already been given. Rutherford (1987:70) observes that smoothly flowing discourse is characterised among other things by the extent to which new and given information form a chain [...] what is introduced in one sentence as new starts the next sentence as given thereby establishing its relevance to what has preceded. A paragraph is a convenience the writer provides for his readers and it helps the reader to follow the writer's organisation of the text (Schwab 1967:135). A paragraph gives unity and development of a topic in a text through connecting sentences into one whole. Its meaning is made up of the meanings derived from sentences comprising it. The overriding

thesis in the above paragraph is *"knowledge"* and *"wisdom"* introduced in the first sentence of the paragraph which the writer believes that the two can lead to useful skills and dispensations that lead to development.

This is then amplified in the second sentence of the paragraph where the lady *"she"* referred to in the first sentence uses the acquired knowledge and wisdom to make *"ciondos"* (traditional baskets) seen as an economic development activity by her. The second sentence also provides a conclusion that *"the lady was now able to meet the needs of her family"*, which provides unity and therefore makes the paragraph an effective text.

The first sentence in this regard acts as the topic sentence, which groups the subsequent sentences together in the paragraph and gives them the meaning and relevance, which they require in the context in which they occur. It thus gives them progression and proper linkage and the overall composition of the paragraph.

Texts that are communicatively effective have a solid plan of paragraphing in which every paragraph has a topic sentence that is linked to other sentences, whose function is to support the development of a topic (Maley 1988:91). According to Schwab (1967:139-140), a topic sentence is made up of a statement that requires definition, elaboration or analysis and occurs almost anywhere in the paragraph though perhaps most commonly at the beginning or end. However its presence does not make the paragraph to look good. It enables the writer to revise and organise sentences that make up the paragraph properly. Halliday (1985:56) remarks that in organisation of paragraphs in written discourse, the topic sentence of a paragraph is nothing other than its theme.

Consider the paragraphs below, which appear in that order in the case study:

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27.   *Their statistics measure all these things. Mostly their statistics measure the fulfilment of minimum human needs as they know them and some of it has nothing to do with money. For example having a granary, a particular kind of granary for storing maize outside in the homestead signifies that the homestead has food. They made an important point of emphasis because today there are no such granaries. People do not have enough to store or they simply sell off all the grain and turn around to buy the same grain at prices they can ill afford. It is those people's plan that constitute GSI's mandate and strategic plan for next five years.*

Additionally, from their faith/trust, the mustard seed has showed signs of yielding fruit-bearing trees and birds are already perching on the branches. The stakeholders feel that these achievements are significant and are worthy of praise. They are counting their blessings in the little things as they draw their plans for the bigger things. But for those that have not yet reaped any physical benefit, they know that one day they will or someone else will reap the benefits of the seeds they are sowing today for poverty alleviation/wealth creation. This in itself is a template for more co-operation for the common good.

*The other interesting lesson is that success in one area, even if unrelated to the poverty alleviation committees, serves to be an illustration that the people can do it. This is what the philosopher, Albert O. Hirschman calls a "moral resource", that is, a resource whose supply increases rather than decreases through use and which unlike physical resource, becomes depleted if not used. But daring to believe and eventually discovering the power of the value of self worth is perhaps the biggest asset. From their humble beginnings, the people who dared to believe, to dream that they have what it takes to banish poverty from their midst are soaring, like the phoenix in **The Thorn Birds**. The sky is their limit and GSI and its PEP has to follow them. (Pg.: 19).*

The topic in the first paragraph is about *"satisfaction of the needs"* of the members of the community and is marked by the adverb *"mostly"* and the fulfilment of the needs is measured by the *"people's statistics"* outlined in the topic sentence. The topic in the second paragraph is about *"achievements"* that members of communities have realised. It is marked by the adverb *"additionally"* in the topic sentence. The topic is further developed by giving hope to members of the community who have not achieved anything from the whole process. It does this by informing them that they will still achieve or others will help them alleviate poverty through wealth creation on their behalf and this is marked by the contrastive *"but"* in the fourth sentence of the paragraph. The topic of the third paragraph is about "people's ability" and is introduced by the topic sentence. The sentences that follow it elaborate the topic further and regard people to be a *"moral resource"*.

The above paragraphs are organised around topics such that the transition from one paragraph to another reflects a change in the topic. Essentially they are conceptual paragraphs and assist the writer to discuss convincingly the topics or issues under consideration. The formal markers of paragraphs in the case study are majorly temporal sequence adverbs as indicated in the above paragraphs. Hence they are the ones that indicate topic shifts in the text. According to Hedge (1988:91), effective pieces of writing show a clear paragraph plan, each paragraph with a topic sentence leading into support sentences, which develop the topic further.

Hepner (Pike & Saint 1988:23) notes that paragraphs organise stories into manageable chunks which a reader or a hearer can handle more easily than the entire story all at once [...] and help a reader or hearer keep track of where he is in the story. Paragraphs help to convey the full import of a message by reducing confusion or distortion, which could result without such organisation. Paragraphs in the case study and in this line of argument are important for its

thematic unity and the role of themes on this function is to group or chunk sentences together. The writer provides clues to the readers, which enable them to identify topics in paragraphs of the case study. These clues may include grammatical features or even repetition. One of the most obvious way of doing this is through the first sentence of the paragraph, which in the above case states and develops the entity to be discussed. This is despite the fact that the whole case study may be having a global topic/theme, with the local topic/themes being restricted at the level of a paragraph.

Other formal markers in the case study include NPs, prepositional phrases, conjuncts and disjuncts such as *"but, furthermore, however, so"* etc. Brown & Yule argue that on the basis of such genre-specific descriptions of *"topic-shift"* markers, it should be possible to make linguistic, as opposed to literary, statements about the structure of English written discourse which reflect the writers purpose (1983:100). There is more than the adjacency of sentences to be taken account of when analysing or (re) constructing a discourse. This means that some of the factors that affect the acceptability of discourse must operate over a large field than adjacent sentences (Hoey 1983:9). In textual analysis, a paragraph is not taken as a tool for punctuation; it is rather taken as strategy for organising propositional content of sentences. Paragraphs as exhibited in the case study emerge as the topic changes and are defined by the external relation existing between them.

Conceptual paragraphs as opposed to physical paragraphs are exploited by the writer to create, establish and sustain specific points, ideas and generalisations about efforts to eradicate poverty. Readers are able to identify particular connections between sentences since they are coded in language.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The most important observation to be made about this analysis is that language in the case study provides a set of shared meanings. It is the primary mode of sharing the reality in participatory development and confirming that reality with readers through sentential propositions. This is made possible through the use of cohesive ties that advance propositional development and interpretation. Such an observation confirms the first hypothesis, that sentences in the case study have local cohesion. Connection in the case study makes it a text since sentences depend on each other to derive meaning and for interpretation. The ties project the reader of the case study both backwards and forward from one segment of the case study to a succeeding one, using the text production processes. Cohesive links chunk the case study into a single text and they signal the relationship of ideas that readers have to make and provides clarity on the writer's intended meanings.

Communication is made possible when readers base their interpretation of sentences to others within the case study irrespective of where they occur. Anaphors such as *"these"* refer back to their antecedent nominals in the case study. Lexical connection is evident in the case study through concepts such as *"pre-packaged solution, poverty, restructure, economy, system, corresponding technologies, people centred approach"* that have shared or complementary meanings. Connectors such as *"on one hand, from this, and, and then, on the other hand, at the same time"* etc. are used to show the order and relationships of events in the case study. Tenses on the other hand links events that happened in the past with the present. The causal-consequence relationship in the case study is strong. This observation is based on the assumption that poverty as depicted in the case study is caused by several factors.

Endophoric relations reinforce readers to look back and forward while reading the case study in order to identify meanings of sentences. Such relations enable readers to decipher information that is missing in the given sentence/sentences in order to understand it fully. When one element or lexical item replaces another in the case study, a cohesive relationship of substitution is expressed, although the semantic quality of the referent reflected in the substitutive words may also change. Pronouns and adverbs are the most used substitutive elements in the case study and are used to stand for the referents.

Textual reference is another cohesive relationship in the case study and requires readers to base their interpretation on something else. Readers need to identify appropriate reference in order to interpret the case study correctly based on the possible world knowledge that they have about participatory development. Textual pronouns such as *"it, these, its, she"* etc. in the case study are used to designate reference since they are semantically redundant on their own. This is normally done by identifying the relationship between an anaphor and its antecedent. Interpretation is possible when readers understand antecedents of anaphors. However, in the case study, there are instances where anaphors are used without their antecedent nominals as in *"and because she was not there when it happened"*, in which *"she"* and *"it"* do not have antecedent nominals. Interpretation of this kind of phenomena is possible when readers appropriately refer to information that occurs elsewhere in the case study. Repetition of pronominals also adds meaning to the case study via the new information and provides connections between sentences that have a shared meaning.

Textual conjunctions such as *"and, and then, and therefore, and there"* provide linkages between propositions in the case study. The linkages may be causal and relate propositions to place (and there), time and entities involved. Disjunctive relations are important in the truth-values of propositions since they provide a semantic condition that only one of the propositions being linked is true and the other is false and if this is not the case, then the whole sentence should be

unacceptable. Inferencing is also needed on the part of the reader to identify referents in disjuncted propositions in the case study. The disjunct that is used is *"or"* and has the above values. Conditional connection through *"therefore, for, because"* indicates the logical sequence of occurrence of events within sentences or sequence of sentences and their causality. Connection through contrastives such as *"although, but, yet"* involves two different worlds under analysis. Propositions being analysed under this cohesive relationship must satisfy the contrastive conditions.

Despite the presence of highly cohesive ties in the case study, interpretation is still not all that easy. What facilitates its interpretation further, is the notion of coherence. Coherence is possessed by readers in their minds and they use it to fill gaps in the case study. Coherence in the case study is implicit unlike cohesion that is explicit and which depends entirely on propositional content. Coherence directs the writer's organisation of the case study and constrains the choice of appropriate sentences. It sustains the reading and interpretation process through connections that are not overt and which can be identified on the basis of shared contextual information and background knowledge representative of the normal language use in the world of participatory development. This confirms the second hypothesis that sentences in the case study depend on each other to convey their full information. The writer and readers have a shared background knowledge in the world of participatory development and this is called discourse domains and is always resorted to for interpretation of the case study.

Background knowledge is stored in the minds of readers through frames, scripts, scenarios and schemata. Using frames, readers are able to make inferences on the basis of what they can remember from their minds. Frames such as *"bad manners"* and *"matatuists"* in the case study evoke critical and appreciative thinking in the minds of readers. In doing this, they amplify and elaborate on the meaning of sentences in which they occur through image creation. Meaning of

sentences could therefore be arrived at by identifying meanings of other sentences in the case study through image creation. Concepts depend on each other for meaning through scripts, when given implicit interpretation by readers on the basis of background knowledge. Scripts such as *"voiceless, faceless, key stakeholder, dialogue, better future"* in the case study thus create conceptual expectation. In scenarios, readers use the knowledge they have about settings and situations to interpret the case study. Scenarios are signalled by lexical words such as *"service to the poor"* and *"service with commitment"* in the case study. Schemata on the other hand are in the memory of the readers and it is knowledge that is conventionally structured. For instance, *"no one new what would come of the new Kenya after the elections"* in the case study can be given fixed interpretation by readers on the basis of schemata. It enables readers to give fixed interpretation to sentences in the case study.

Implicature and use of metaphors are also creative ways of giving meaning to and facilitating interpretation of the case study. This is normally done by the reader through filling gaps or inferences for words like *"ordinary people"* in order to make explicit connection between propositions. To do this, readers use an additional processing of the text to establish the missing links and hence identify sentential connections. For example, *"but we have come short of glory because we did not take time to look back to see what really became of what we have done in the past"* can be interpreted by readers to mean the fact that development organisations have achieved less and instead have increased poverty. This interpretation is arrived at through inferencing. Comprehension questions such as *"how have we performed? what have we done? Have we been good stewards of public resources for development?* etc. are used provide coherence to the case study through flouting the maxims of quality and quantity and give rise to expectation and signalling. Readers use elaborative and evaluative inferencing to arrive at connections established by such questions. Implicatures therefore provide strong connections within the case study and create precision in interpreting the case study by utilising contextual information.

Through the use of metaphors as an inferencing strategy, the writer transfers features of no-living entities such as *"celebrating the future"* to living entities such as *"sleeping giant"* in order to enhance meanings of propositions. In summary, discourse features in the case study that relate to cohesion and coherence indicate how meanings of sentences in the case study depend on the meanings of other sentences. All these are discourse features relating to sentential interrelationships in which sentences are structured in such way as to convey meaning in the most effective way.

The case study exhibits a textual structure through its organisation. It is structured using clues and principles that affect its meaning and interpretation. Words, clauses, sentences, sequences of sentences, paragraphs, information and events are ordered in a such way as to affect the communicative aspects/functions of the case study. This observation confirms the third hypothesis, which states that the case study contains underlying organisational clues and principles, which enable readers to perceive and decode accurately its meaning as a text. Theme, as a linearisation aspect in the case study enables readers to comprehend sentential propositions through its initial occurrence in the sentences. In the case study, it is mostly NPs such as *"Mary, the GSI PEP, the Oyugis, Grace"* that are used as themes, with other sentential components occurring as rhemes. Theme is the point of departure for any message in the case study and therefore its use is a reflection of the text development process. Adverbials such as *"finally, more often than not, perhaps the hitherto limited, consciously and right from the beginning, in Iguhu, during the past five years, in today's busy, without becoming"* have also been thematised to create time linkages. Themes in the case study have also been marked by clauses and not only single nominals for the sole purpose of conveying an appropriate meaning while excluding the meanings that are not intended. Theme provides a thematic structure to the case study through the underlying organisational principles and also enables the writer to stage information around particular entities or events that gives them prominence. In the thematic structure, the case study writer

selects a topic area, then gives an explanation to it, which is concluded by a generalisation at the end of the paragraph. The writer uses staging to give emphasis to specific issues. For instance, *"six years ago (1993)"* in the first sentence of the case study draws readers to the most important event which the writer wants to discuss. Readers in line with this use staging to interpret subsequent information in the case study in relation to theme. Thematisation is also reflected in the tittle of the case study and this gives a summary of what is to be discussed. The title of the case study *"Contextualizing Gender Sensitive Initiatives Participatory Evaluation Process and Gender Analysis as Poverty Alleviation Methodologies"*, thematises Gender Sensitive Initiatives in order to make it the topic of the title. In doing this, the writer accords precision and emphasis to the title. The thematised element provides a beginning point upon which information in the case study is build and organised.

Given and new information, as textual properties of written discourse as in participatory development are used create precision, emphasis, suspense and ease in understanding the case study particularly when readers establish linkages between them. The case study writer organises sentences in such a way that theme coincides with new information and rheme with given information. Topic is a crucial organising principle in the case study and is specifically used to represent its content. Topic identification by readers requires them to be conscious of contextual information, some of which might even lie outside sentences under consideration. Topics in the case study are sets of propositions/meanings that reflect the writer's intention of the choice of sentences in particular contexts. They are in the minds of the readers and are used to establish links across sentences through linear organisation, to engender smooth transitions of sets of assumptions or meanings in the case study. They are also used to mark human behaviour and activities. Topic boundaries are marked by paragraphs to the extent that as readers move from one paragraph to the next, there is a shift in the topic. Paragraphs in the case study are conceptual and are marked by thematic participants, around an individual or

individuals pursuing shared or common agendas. Use of topic sentences provides an organisational clue, meaning and relevance to the subsequent sentences. Paragraphing in the case study corresponds to a strategy of effective communication since they organise sentences into manageable chunks and gives them a full import of the message through reduction of confusion and distortion. In doing this, the writer provides clues to the readers, which enable them to identify topics and meanings in the paragraphs of the case study. Discourse features such as theme and rheme, thematic structure, staging of information, titles, given and new information, topic as content representation and paragraphs as topic boundary markers provide an underlying structural plan, compositional techniques and devises that give meaning to the sentences used in the case study.

Potential Areas for Further Research

- Since this is a text based description, there exists an enormous potential a discourse (spoken/conversational) based description of the language used in participatory development fora such as seminars, sharing forums, conferences and workshops.

- This is only a pilot study pertaining to a discourse analysis of a participatory development case study. Further research is also needed to test the theoretical/conceptual implications of this study on other participatory development literature.

- Another potential area of research is to criticise the theoretical and conceptual standpoints emerging from this study in relation to the corpus (case study) data that has been used.

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CONTEXTUALIZING GENDER SENSITIVE INITIATIVES PARTICIPATORY EVALUATION PROCESS (PEP) AND GENDER ANALYSIS AS POVERTY ALLEVIATION METHODOLOGIES

A CASE STUDY PRESENTED AT THE PATHWAYS TO PARTICIPATION WORKSHOP ORGANIZED BY PAMFORK

GERTRUDE KOPIYO

SEPTEMBER 2000
REEF HOTEL, MOMBASA

CONTEXTUALIZING GSI PEP AS A POVERTY ALLEVIATION METHODOLOGY

THE SITUATION OF DISEMPOWERED PEOPLE

APATHY

⬇

HOPELESSNESS

HELPLESSNESS

MANIFESTED IN ⬅

POOR PEOPLE

⬇

WHO ARE

⬇

OPPRESSED

⬇

WHO FEEL

⬇

COLONISED

STEPS TO EMPOWERMENT THROUGH PEP

CALL PEOPLE

⬇

INITIATE A PROCESS OF CRITICAL THINKING

⬇

STRATEGIZE FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

GSI ORGNIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND STAKEHOLDERS/PARTNERS RELATIONSHIPS

DONORS AND OTHER EXTERNAL

GENDER SENSITIVE INITIATIVE

RESOURCE CENTRE

CENTRAL MANAGEMENT

COMMITTEES

COMMUNITY

COMMITTEE

DEVELOPMENT PROJECT STAFF NAIROBI

CENTRAL OFFICE

PARTNER

Stock

ars ago (1993), Gender Sensitive Initiatives (GSI) was born and joined that sector referred
the third sector, the NGO sector, the voluntary sector. Six years ago that sector was under
ny from civil society, from the sector itself, from the Government. And from Northern
taxpayers, Governments, the Bretton Woods and other power brokers. Six years later, GSI
ecting on itself. What have we done? How have we performed? Have we been an engine
mmunity development? Have we been good stewards of public resources for development?
we been innovative, efficient and shown value for money? Have we been flexible, people-
ed, a cheaper mechanism of delivering development aid, serving the interest of the people,
ssadors of goodwill; represented the people's voices and a tool for their empowerment? At
did GSI fall in the category of Nothing Going On' (NGO)?

six years that GSI spent with the community were invaluable. Beyond accounting, beyond
menting, beyond film. Beyond capture, explanation and understanding. The best of story
s would not be able to adequately reconstruct the events and the goings-on in those
nunities. The people themselves still stand mesmerized by their own abilities, capacities and
e magnitude of their own scope. The analysis presented in the early chapters are but a snitch
e top. Celebrating the future can only be described as awakening the sleeping giant. It takes
ck to the principles and philosophies which motivated the work of GSI.

onsultant 's Objective Analysis of GSI PEP Model

y Okumu, the consultant who dared to undertake an analysis of the process that GSI and the
er communities took upon themselves had to continuously reflect back. And because she
not there when it happened she kept on asking and going back again. By the time she
luded the analysis, she was able to appreciate that it is not the analysis alone. It is the
ysis, and the discussions of the GSI PEP model and its impact on poverty alleviation in
ya. The impact which causes people to feel an inner obligation to go on and *To Manage PEP*
comes. Mary had to end her assignment because it was time-up for her. But she learned that
and its consequences cannot end. She identified the following questions as having formed
framework of analysis of the GSI PEP in poverty alleviation interventions:

ding Questions for Framework of Analysis

The needs within the communities: how were these identified and defined?

Find from the communities how they heard about GSI? Why and how they got involved?

What were the existing development structures in the community (family, community
systems, communication, economic, political, social) at project inception?

How has GSI PEP model addressed the needs in the communities (how did it enter the
community; what was the first activity undertaken and subsequent activities; by who and why;
what came out of this activity; what were the resources used, in what amounts for which
interventions and from where were these obtained?

What were the subsequent activities undertaken and how?

How do the community individually and collectively participate and in what aspects of which
activities? How is representation ensured; and by whom? How has the resource center model
worked; why and for whom? What difference has this model made?

6

- What were the outcomes (intended, unintended), how were these dealt with and using what mechanisms, tools/frameworks?
- What were the constraints; emergent needs/gaps/describe the experiences (what were the best moments and why)?
- What has been done for each of these and how? (describe the process in detail)
- Describe community participation processes
- Describe the values communities ascribe to gender; their fears or reservations and practical difficulties with it; how have they walked with gender, using what processes?
- Relationships within the project structures, at resource center level; at sectoral/issue based community level, at the CMC and Central Office level
- What are the small achievements during the past five years?
- Breaking the five years into three broad growth and development stages, what are the broad/collective achievements that you can remember?
- What three adjectives would you use in summarizing those broad growth and development stages?
- What were the worst moments and why?
- What would you like to carry forward with you into the next five years? What would you like to leave behind?
- Is the idea of GSI PEP model sustainable; why and how? Lessons learned.

The Preamble

It is clear from the foregoing GSI experiences that a mission for poverty alleviation is a social movement mission which cannot sustainably respond to the welfarist approaches or quick fix approaches prescribed by for example, the Bretton Wood Institutions or the Bilateral Aid packages. These institutions and the development packages they bring carry their own cultural and political biases and agenda to the mix, often limiting their support to organizations that subscribe to or exemplify their external analysis, conceptual frameworks or beliefs.

Secondly, it is clear that poverty alleviation is far too complex and difficult for many agencies than they would have imagined and although institutions such as the Bretton Woods, the UNDP have in theory adapted pro-active civil society language including the notion of people-centered development, these institutions have not yet defined how or evolved mechanisms for translating the people-centered theory into practical poverty alleviation strategies. This is because they are far too removed from where poor people interact with poverty. At the same time, there is an inherent lack of clarity hence confusion among and between those institutions about the meaning of development and poverty; the very supposed foci of development aid.

Finally, it has been observed that not only are there basic tensions and sharp divide amongst and between these institutions around values, polity and policy, there are sharp contradictions in the conceptual frameworks, these institutions advance for poverty alleviation. The contradiction arises out of two basic diametrically opposed factors. On one hand, these institutions prescribe a demand/supply conceptual framework in which basically **a pre-packaged solution to poverty is prescribed, including the need to restructure the economy and putting in place efficient systems. That is, preparing a solution and then looking for the perfect problems to fit the**

solutions. **From this pre-packaged solution there are corresponding technologies** **include professionals; and on the other;** talk about a people-centered approach at the ame. The two are mutually exclusive as a starting point for poverty alleviation because, the d/supply framework assumes that poverty, the communities and people who experience y are homogenous and have therefore prescribed homogenous solutions to not only ceted problems, but also complex ones.

esult of the ambivalence and lack of consensus on a basic conceptual framework for poverty ation, the subject has suffered constraint in finding a breakthrough and moving forward. The ity of NGOs which are the main stewards of poverty alleviation have equally suffered fate. Having emerged out of the Bretton Woods/Bilateral framework of development aid, have naturally and unfortunately employed a welfarist/quick fix response to poverty ation/development in general due to the readily available resources from the North for er/relief operations. This has constrained the development of alternative and relevant is for poverty eradication in Africa.

often than not, NGOs in the South and in Kenya specifically, have responded to interests a development agenda driven externally by donors without a second thought on how their entions are resolving issues of poverty. Such NGOs have focused on the immediate ing of the symptoms of poverty or the consequences of a disaster, having brought to such rty situations, pre-packaged solutions. In such cases, the NGOs have moved on to the next gency area paying little attention to what might become of communities after the er/relief is over.

other category of NGOs have been characterized by a focus on unilateral problems such as onmental conservation, family planning, economic entrepreneurship, networking, advocacy, They have approached community technocratic and a particular problem team of experts and tended to make themselves the focal point or centers around which communities coalesce. organizations have been constructed to do a particular job, e.g. give credit, plant trees, lobby something on behalf of the poor people, etc. As has been demonstrated by GSI in the going, prescribing and designating experts, not only undervalues but also overlooks genous people's knowledge and values and by design, de-motivates and excludes their hingful participation in poverty alleviation.

aps, the hitherto limited impact or altogether failure of so many poverty alleviation programs tinue to find their link to this pre-packaged, quick fix approach inherent in a lack of new on or relevant theory for achieving development in Africa. Unfortunately these institutions e power and influence over third world systems that tend to keep the third world dependent only on their money but also on their thinking and values.

following analysis and discussion is based on selected variables which are believed to be the or pillars, outcomes and impact of the GSI PEP. They are seen as the connectors that weave ughout the link, bring all the poverty alleviation interventions together. It is important to ember that GSI's definition of poverty is the community's definition of poverty as presented e foregoing.

The Variables and Analysis
• Belief in and practicing the respect for the dignity of people
• Facilitating the discovering and valuing of self and others
• Facilitating the building and nurturing of relationships and fostering cooperation
• Discovering and investing in indigenous knowledge for their sake
• Fostering the acquisition of complementary skills
• Fostering critical linkages/coalitions including learning exchange visits
• Providing energy and morale boosters to the stakeholders and for GSI project teams
• Promoting people-ownership of their research and knowledge

These variables re-enforce each other. In the GSI PEP model, one could not apply one to the exclusion of or detriment of the other. They are therefore discussed jointly in order to maintain their joint value and mutual complementarity. An attempt to separate them would be falling victim to the usual irrationality of compartmentalizing things and not seeing them as an important continuum. However, exception has been made where there is an indication to express the impact of a particular example (to help to focus specifically on one).

The making of GSI: This analysis and discussion begins with the making of GSI itself as an event and process as a critical point of departure from traditional ways of establishing an NGO. Usually, there are donor funds and an NGO is created to implement a project or program. In some cases, donors come with the funds and directly implement projects. In the case of GSI, what propelled its creation was lack of funds after a donor pulled out. Therefore, there was a commitment to addressing poverty issues in GSI's first project site, Oyugis with or without money at hand or within sight. This situation represents a potentially different indigenous NGO framework for engaging in service to the poor. It became a call to service with a commitment with no funds at hand. Out of extreme disappointment, a broken heart and disillusionment with external donor funding as the only source of community development in Kenya, was a born a new framework, a different framework of thinking about community development. Not knowing what it would face both immediately and in the future, GSI took a risk that the people would find ways of addressing their poverty needs.

Looking inwardly as strategy: Consciously and right from the beginning, this framework of thinking, looking inwardly for a vision and mechanisms for poverty alleviation, became an over-riding theme and an anchor of the subsequent processes that GSI and the stakeholders evolved. Therefore, the making of GSI is treated as an important variable in the conceptual framework and must of necessity, form an important part of the variables of analysis in its poverty alleviation strategy in its project catchment areas.

The choosing of tools: The second factor and variable of analysis is to be found in the choice of tools, methods/mechanisms for supporting poverty alleviation, a social change agenda. GSI had to think through seriously and carefully select a methodology that would be in concert with its core values: respect for human dignity, valuing self and the other, etc. It started off with the generic participatory methodology but knew right from the offset that it would have to be modified in many ways to meaningfully support the people's aspirations. GSI modified the generic PEP adding components, inventing, creating and adjusting, to fit into the community structure, the mood in the environment, the politics in the air. The Oyugis project became the

field laboratory for its home grown PEP, following the community instead of the community owing PEP.

Oyugis however, the birth of GSI as a development organization could not have happened at a re difficult and impossible time in Kenya's post-independence history. Not only were munities used to hand-outs, the birth of GSI coincided with the re-birth of a multi-party state Kenya. No one knew what would come of the new Kenya after the elections. There was the phoria of multi-partism and in a country where political leaders are used to bribing, manipulating and buying voters, what could an infantile, penniless organization like GSI really e to achieve in this environment, by merely talking to a hungry, poor, disenfranchised and iticized community about poverty alleviation? GSI had a lot to reckon with and was attacked m many corners as a political tool by numerous politicians from all parties.

wever, the GSI PEP became the tool that would have to stand the test of many dynamics and w why and how it could facilitate poverty alleviation in Oyugis. Those who dared to take the k did and enlisted for the four PEP phases. Surprisingly, more people came at each subsequent P phase than the one before. One of the unique features of GSI PEP model is its ability to pick d drop individuals as it progresses in all stages and as it picks momentum. So indeed, it pped those who attended PEP1 with expectations of hand-outs. PEP would pick them up in when they would see progress achieved by those who stuck with the process. The process ows for people to join at any phase. Those who follow the process through have more owledge about the process, but each individual is able to learn something and reap the antage of the amount of knowledge gained. People volunteer time, some for longer periods n others. Some contribute labor while others offer wisdom, knowledge, skills or some other ded ingredient in the mix. The GSI PEP uniquely accommodates these varieties of skills, mina/energy and disposition. The important thing is that in the end, the community moves gether, coherently.

Oyugis, the 5,000 people who turned up for PEP3 was indicative of something new, different d that people wanted to be part of it. By this time, the political temperature was different. It as not party politics, but development work for basic needs. After two years of implementation the GSI PEP model in Oyugis, and after GSI having survived political turbulence and after PEP ving demystified some beliefs; those members of the community who stayed actively with the ocess settled down to start *Managing PEP Outcomes*. Although later project sites in akamega, Muranga and Karai went through similar evolutionary experiences with PEP, GSI had opportunity to refine the PEP.

ostering people's cooperation around commonly shared values: Without becoming partisan that particular time was critical and is one of the building blocks of the process. The model came that tool for fostering equal partnership for participation for equity. Both GSI and the imary stakeholders invested in an adventure whose limits and horizons were unknown. These uld have to evolve. There would have to be trust in this union and a commitment to bearing e responsibility, no matter what the outcome(s) would be. This framework demonstrates from conception that the task of addressing poverty is a task of redefining and building relationships d fostering greater levels of conscientization that insist on the notion of self-reliance, looking

inwardly to possible solutions. It is such a strong value that right from the beginning, GSI has always referred to the communities it works with as primary stakeholders and partner communities. The choice of language GSI uses in relation to the people it works with is part of the design of a process of social transformation and therefore, poverty alleviation.

Translating theories into practice: GSI deliberately calls the community people it works with Astakeholders@ and not (beneficiaries). It also calls them Avolunteers for poverty alleviation@ and not Atargeted communities@. GSI consciously decided by design that the relationship between itself and the stakeholders would be a partnership, on a co-equal basis. Having made this deliberate choice, GSI had to evolve not only a methodology but also a language that accommodates, facilitates, nurtures and builds relationships along the ideological lines including equality as a fundamental principle. Since language is one of the vehicles of communication and socialization, the stakeholders and GSI alike have had to consciously work on and derive what is acceptable language/terminologies to them in referring to certain subjects in day to day project and community interactions. The language they use reflects the people's views and values and is part of the social transformation goals. This responsibility of keeping the checks and balances on manners including the language is borne by the Good Manners its equivalent, the Social Education Committees in Iguhu, Muranga and Oyugis. For all practical intents, community members in these communities refer to themselves as GSI, especially those members who have followed the process from beginning to end. To identify with the ideology, the community refers to itself at public fora as "we GSI".

The amoebic nature of PEP; following the community: By design GSI could not establish boundaries or terms of its participation in the relationship for poverty alleviation with the stakeholders that it set out to be part of. This is because the partners, the primary stakeholders needed to determine how they would participate in this venture, although their terms for participation were not automatic in the beginning, they emerged out of long interaction with GSI PEP.

Fostering an enabling environment: GSI has struggled to evolve the task of enabling the stakeholders to foster an enabling environment first, for respect and achieving the dignity of people. Helping people to discover and value their self-worth has been a task demanding different ways of doings things, a practical way that helps people to experience and evaluate the experience and then make informed decisions. This process of valuing has permeated many layers, from the self to valuing members in a household, to homestead and to the wider community. This is how GSI helped the stakeholders to build relationships throughout their social networks.

The fostering of building relationships has brought in support from all categories of leaders. Political, social, religious, administrative. In a society ripped apart along so many divides, especially along the prevailing political and ethnic overtones, and where poor people have been victimized for exercising what they thought were their democratic rights, through the vote, the ability to help ordinary people to rise above such political manipulation and force their elected leaders to do the same for the sake of the common good is an important milestone towards political reconciliation, stability and growth. These are important ingredients for social stability for peace and for development. This achievement should therefore find credence in

odological considerations and should form part of an analytical framework for poverty
iation.

ding communities of value: This conscientization and empowerment process has motivated
at the same time, challenged the people to a level where they themselves believe that every
must be heard. It began with the conscientization of the self-worth. Once people value
selves as individuals, they were able to value the self-worth of the other person. From
ing and respecting one's self-worth and dignity, it was easy to extend these values in practice
e other person. In conjunction with the other social norm that the stakeholders generated and
red to, many human rights, democracy and governance issues began to be addressed,
rally. The people took themselves to task through a process of inquiry about the impact of
action on this or the other, about the fate of so and so, etc. They would even think of the
er homesteads or individuals and would assign themselves the task of finding out about the
of the other community members.
their strategic planning meetings, they would insist that their neighbors in adjacent
munities be given an opportunity to be part of the GSI project. They felt uncomfortable with
progress while their neighbors in adjacent locations remained in their usual state of
rkness" as they called it.

refore, values these communities have cultivated over the past five years have and continue to
rd them the openings and spaces which have enabled even the poorest of the people to present
r ideas/views, fears, dreams and aspirations; confidently in Oyugis, Iguhu, Muranga and
ai. The hitherto voiceless and faceless like Grace Ayuma, are now key stakeholders in the
ogues for pursuing a better future. About a year ago, at Iguhu, Grace would dare not sit on a
ir at community meetings in the presence of other people because when she did once, another
men after the meeting had asked her callously whether Grace considered herself a person
rthy to sit on a chair where "important or real" people were. Grace had dirty, torn clothes and
uld not wear shoes even if she owned a pair because she suffered from an infestation of jiggers
her toes. But Grace after attending every PEP meeting had understood that everyone was
portant, including herself. She would normally sit on the grass at the back of the crowd. But
P facilitators had their eyes on Grace, just as they did on everybody else. They realized
crimination against Grace was based on her level of poverty, not her gender. The Good
nners Committee took up the issue of Grace to her improve her situation. The members would
and clean Grace's house and clothes, remove jiggers from her toes and get her medical
ention. Grace became a member of the Good Manners Committee.

ace underwent a transformation. Seeing herself in one of the community photographs, Grace
uld not believe that a camera could also **"choose"** her. Recognition and acceptance during
P meetings, together with the efforts of the Good Manners Committee and the photograph
lped Grace to discover her self-worth. It more than boosted her morale and belief that she is as
portant and equal to the rest of the stakeholders at the Iguhu project. Grace who is about three
d a half feet tall, walks head high, matching with the rest of the community members to a
eeting to discuss the possibility of growing sunflower and soya bean as a pilot cash crop. When
e understood the benefit of growing sunflower/soya bean, she volunteered a portion of her land
r her project partners to try out what she called, "SOYA/FLOWER". Due to lack of formal

education she mixes the terms but in her mind, she knew what she meant. Even her fellow stakeholders knew what she meant. They were so amused at Grace's new term that it became the new community crop with Grace as the center. Such stories of transformation abound among GSI community partners.

This is a very long way of showing how the GSI PEP has helped the communities to evolve a mechanism for identifying and focusing on the poorest of the poor and for including them in the dialogues or opportunities for poverty alleviation.

On gender issues: This process has enabled popular and informed civic participation and an intuitive inclusion of women in all aspects of community dialogue for poverty alleviation/development projects. And although gender equality is far from being achieved, there are imprints in many people's minds that women are an important part of humanity and have a lot to offer to a community's welfare. This thinking has emerged most in Oyugis and Muranga. Kakamega and Karai still continue to struggle to make it an automatic part of their value system and terms of reference in their development endeavor. All project structures in these communities are 50% gender balance representation.

Fostering cooperation at community and all levels: *"Your corn is ripe today; mine will be tomorrow. Tis profitable for us both, that I should labour with you today, and that you should aid me tomorrow. I have no kindness for you, and you have a little for me. I will not, therefore, take any pains upon your account; and should you have as little for me. I will not, therefore, take any pains upon your account; and should I labour with you upon my own account, in expectation of a return, I know I should be disappointed, and that in vain depend upon your gratitude. Here then I leave you to labour alone; You treat me in the same manner. The seasons change; and both of us lose our harvests for want of mutual confidence and security"*. David Hume, (Robert D. Putnam).

The predicament of the farmers in Hume's story above is all too familiar. It is one of the plaguing characteristics and legacy of the capitalist political economy. It is a plaguing feature of many communities including the ones GSI chose to work with. Parents in those communities want better schools for their children, farmers want better yields and market returns for their produce, communities want safe drinking water, hospitals, roads and security, etc. But over and over again the world over, joint action falters. Cooperation all too often, proves fragile and eventually falters. The people are left with only their desires or the conflict which erupts from disagreements on how to proceed to tackle such basic community problems.

"Failure to cooperate for mutual benefit does not necessarily signal ignorance or irrationality or even malevolence as philosophers since Hobbes have underscored, says Robert Putnam. Hume's farmers were not dumb or crazy, or evil; they were trapped", (Putnam: The Prosperous Community).

Through the GSI PEP, the stakeholders have been able to move a few inches above the dilemma of social contract, the collective action gap. In the course of five years, the stakeholders have identified what breaks their unity and what threatens their cooperation in achieving safe drinking water, or better access roads, good health, adequate food, etc. They have identified the physical and conceptual biblical *Sanballats* who opposed Nehemiah's initiatives to facilitate the

lding of the broken walls of Jerusalem, the same way they sometimes face opposition which
ts their cooperation. They identified wise women and men, highly regarded in their
unities to look in-depth at why they were not achieving progress. The wise women and
after careful research and analysis, came to the conclusion that **bad manners** was the major
em. In response, they embarked on flashing the protagonists as a starting point to squarely
with bad manners in their communities. Bad manners includes very many things such as
-eating, while others are going hungry, hoarding, gossip, impoliteness, drunkenness, lose
l conduct, unreliability, laziness, bad language, impatience, discrimination, lying, lack of
ern, wife-beating, rape and incest, loitering, not being responsible, stealing, etc.
d not matter who had the bad manners, starting from the household level, to the delinquent
hs or village drunkards or speeding *matatuists* who cause so many road traffic accidents.
ther it was a community member, the chiefs, District Officers (DO), religious or political
ers, they were expected to reform and inculcate good manners in themselves so that the
munities could prosper. The people formed the Good Manners/Social Education Committees
der to rehabilitate what was collectively seen as bad manners.

se differ from project to project, but the point is, the stakeholders organized themselves to
aim some of their rich civic heritage as a strategy for enhancing poverty alleviation. They
e invested incredible amount of time in inculcating good manners within their communities.
d it is yielding good results. Several chiefs and religious leaders have said that they do not
nd much time these days in counseling wayward husbands lost with *Gachungwa* or youths
ause of the Good Manners /Social Education Committees. A chief in Iguhu has not evoked
chief's clause of corporal punishment of petty offenders since 1996 because they are no
ger there. Instead, the youth and other community members who used to avoid him "like the
gue" now seek him out to discuss how to achieve development in their location. Chief
baya has not missed one single community development meeting or training held by GSI. He
learned to foster cooperation with the people in his location. The people in Iguhu regard him
super chief because he works hand in hand with them.

ief Shabaya or any committee member of the Resource Centre will not pass anybody, known
unknown without a word of hello. This may be such a trite example to quote. But to these
mmunities, such little things mean a lot to the people in these projects and make a difference to
m. They have moved significantly and steadily managing such little steps with bigger things
e walking to the Provincial Roads Engineer's office to demand for a tractor to repair their rural
ess roads. Because some of them became researchers, they were able to learn and know that
re are funds, regularly allocated to a government constructed health center which has not been
mpleted, and as a result, has not functioned for the past twelve years. And because they had
operation, the relevant information and confidence they have gained over the past two years,
y traveled to the Medical Officer of Health (MOH) to know why every year money was
ocated for their health center which had not functioned for twelve years, and what the money
s being spent on!

om little successes the stakeholders have been able to imagine and dream of bigger things.
ey have been repairing the broken walls and mending their leaky grass-thatched roofs or
ply mending the holes in their ordinary clothes. Each one has taken a step towards improving

something, individually and collectively. In conventional development terms, the stakeholders have barely tackled any of the many issues of poverty. However, in their own languages, they have been reconstructing a piece, and their portion of the broken walls which will eventually lead to the complete wall. A wall or hedge that will in their own words, "punish and banish" poverty from their midst. They truly believe that and they are working towards it.

Oyugis, the incubator of GSI work has over the past five years had a stab at poverty, hardly enough to create an impact in conventional terms. For Kakamega, Muranga and Karai, it has been only two years. "Although these communities are far from alleviating poverty, they feel that they are making steps in the right direction because they are no longer intimated by poverty. They have changed their position from accepting their situation of poverty as fate, or a way of life. In their own views and words, Awe already feel rich, very rich".

One lady in Muranga said that she did not need money from GSI or from anybody else because she has gotten enough knowledge and wisdom to make all the money she needs. She said that from PEP2, she started making the Kikuyu baskets (*ciondo*) and from this, she is able to meet her family needs. Another person said that from the savings she makes as a result of good stewardship of her family income and now that her husband (old man, *mzee*) does not drink any more, they are able to live decently. They insisted that the only in-put they still need is more enlightenment. The rest they will achieve on their own. In oyugis, the CMC has continued to contribute its labor and money for the running of the Oyugis Community Resource Center, because they believe in this resource center and know that beyond any reasonable doubt, it belongs to them.

In Iguhu, the CMC started finding innovative ways of rasing funds when GSI account ran dry in 1997. Each stakeholder contributed one chicken. A big chicken auction was held. Thirteen thousand Kenya Shillings were raised from the chicken auction. This money paid partial staff salaries and met some of the running costs of the Resource Center. Iguhu started an agricultural project for raising income to supplement funds from GSI for running the Resource Center.

The question is why would poor communities part with even the little they have in the name of some perceived social good? After all, all too often they have been forced into donating from their meager incomes for some community development venture which never yielded any fruit. So why would these people believe GSI?

They have been inspired by their discovery that they can do it, whatever it is. They have seen from their small efforts that they can achieve bigger things, only if they cooperate. They have been immensely assisted by GSI to find their own ways/strengths/fears/knowledge/aspirations, their own nexus and praxis for their own poverty alleviation.

From the cooperation they have nurtured and achieved since 1992 from the GSI PEP, they prepared a Five-year (1998-2003) Strategic Poverty Alleviation Plan. From this plan, the stakeholders project homesteads without poverty. They envision homesteads with big stone houses, double parking garages. On one side, a family vehicle; on the other side, the latest model of a tractor for improved farming, driven by a woman.

committees work on a voluntary basis and have done so for five years in Oyugis. Sometimes question of their payment or allowance has arisen, but the people themselves have deliberated it and provided the answer. They know that sometimes as committee members they have to vel long distances, which has a cost to it by way of transport. The committee members also rk long hours and have to eat. Sometimes they have to even stay away from home and incur commodation costs. However, they have answered themselves through their own deliberations recognizing that the work they do in the committees is benefiting them and is for their own mmon good. So while they have real constraints of funding some of these practical needs, they ve looked to themselves for solutions. Sometimes, the community has provided food, shelter or en transport, a bicycle or fare for committee members who are seen as the driving force for the source Centers and work in the community. Occasionally, GSI has helped with transport mbursement whenever it was able.

far, the issue of voluntarism has not derailed the programs they have been running for the past e years. The stakeholders continue to grapple with how to meet these real practical needs. ing flexible, the GSI PEP model also ensures that it accommodates the various needs of fferent people as necessary. Individuals can drop off and join the process at any point and still an integral part of the dynamics. Therefore, individuals volunteer for as long as their energies ow and as their expertise is needed by the process.

this way, there is a constant need for induction to PEP. The good thing is that those who have en with the process longer become teachers to new comers within the project. This mechanism erefore gets participation and leadership revolving. This dynamic has had a tremendous impact group cohesion and continuity. In this regard, the community sees its contributions even in rms of time (voluntarism) and labor in the roads repair, water projects, etc. as assets not costs. hese are new and qualitatively different concepts in community development.

addition to the qualitative achievements from the processes discussed in this section, the akeholders have recorded various tangible quantitative achievements for example the four source centers; construction of speed breakers/bumps on dangerous sections of their roads here they had lost lives of community to speeding vehicles, water tanks health clinics, istallation of new management at the coffee cooperatives.

essons learned from experience with GSI PEP
he re-discovery of the social values including people's self worth, the respect of the self and thers, looking inwardly for solutions, building relationships and fostering cooperation betwixt, mongst, across and without the Oyugis, Iguhu, Gaitheri and Karai communities projects appears bring out some significant and powerful practical implications for poverty alleviation in the ur projects supported by GSI, and perhaps for poverty alleviation in general.
ne such implication is the simple fact that these communities are feeling rich without ecessarily having actual money. This has implication for a new community world order. The eling did not come from having money but from having cultivated good values. Because they re and feel civil in their relationships and the alliances they are building, they foresee money at he end of the tunnel. Therefore, "good manners" embodied in their collective social values and vic engagement appear to be telling us that this is a precondition for economic development. In

some learned development economics literature, this is called "social capital" because it undergirds good government and ensures economic prowess. At Oyugis, Iguhu, Muranga and Karai, they are simply called good manners.

New networks of collaboration on many specific issues are emerging within and without each project location and across the GSI supported projects. Muranga has seen that it can learn from Oyugis to fish and groundnut farming and from Kakamega, it can learn soil conservation. It is also planning to learn from Karai, how to train Traditional Birth Attendants (TBA) and use them in their goal of health improvement. Oyugis on the other hand has targeted to learn about zero grazing and increasing dairy farming from both Kakamega and Muranga. It is also interested in macadamia nut farming from Muranga. Iguhu has planned to strengthen its CMC from the Oyugis Resource Center. This is helping people to cultivate opportunities.

Sometimes, going an extra mile is an imperative: GSI has demonstrated that poverty alleviation is a complex enterprise that is far more difficult in practice than in theory. Its PEP as a tool has been even more complex and demanding because it prescribes the position that PEP follows the community wherever it goes. It calls on GSI team to literally live, eat, sleep, walk, plough or work physically; cry, laugh, and wonder with the people in Oyugis, Iguhu, Muranga and Karai frequently as needed. The training sessions sometimes would go until midnight. Not because GSI PEP team did not know how to manage time, but because the stakeholders wanted solutions. They worked late, all the time, looking for solutions. The GSI training team had no choice. Not only does this take a toll on the GSI physical energy, it drained the planned resources; but it has set a precedent that will perhaps be difficult to replicate, balancing commitment with corresponding resources.

From their interaction with the community, GSI has come to know for example how the communities identify the most affected or vulnerable persons in the community. Above all, it is this interaction that has enabled GSI and its PEP model to understand and respect the people's plans for alleviating the poverty in their midst, which from their own indicators they define as lack of granaries in the compound because there is no food to store in them; washing one's hands only once a day only because often there is only one meal a day; leaking roofs; thin and badly dressed people, children not going to school because the parents lack school fees; idle youth who have dropped out of school; fallow barren gardens or with lean crops; land without trees; impassable road networks and broken down bridges; very small foot paths over-grown with grass leading to homesteads, a drunken men soliloquizing as they grope in the dark trying to find their way home, etc.

GSI believed in the first place that the people had what it takes to turn their untoward situations around. This is reciprocity, civility, building relations. Like traditional cultures across the world, Asia, Latin America, Africa, traditional people believed in taking what it needed from nature and protecting their natural environments because it was the source of their livelihoods. The people and GSI have taken from each other what they have needed in the past five years to fight poverty, without burning the **bridge** or destroying the nature. No amount of statistics can capture some of these dynamics. However, they have been important to the people in their own terms in helping them fight poverty and it is the process that has helped GSI learn and grow; receiving more than it has given.

ust lubricates social life: The trust and respect for the people by GSI and the trust and respect the people of GSI can not be over-emphasized as a significant pillar in the entire learning cess of social reconstruction for poverty alleviation for both the stakeholders and GSI. Many amples abound when the factor of trust in the relationship became a resource rather than a cost. mention but one: when all four resource centers were threatened with closure due to lack of ds from GSI, GSI simply told its partners that there was no money. The committees managing Resource Centers and the other primary stakeholders believed GSI. They consulted each er and reached a decision that the Resource Centers were theirs, that GSI had done enough to ng them thus far. The stakeholders took the decision that they would each contribute funds to the resource centers.

ey purchased stationery from their own pockets. They paid their own transport and food costs the committee meetings. They did not wait for GSI to find money. They believed in their ilities to make the right choices, right decisions and trusted GSI to believe them and vice versa. is remains a new scenario in poverty eradication and development programming in Kenya. cause they relied on reciprocity as an important value, the stakeholders became more efficient looking for alternatives rather than spending time on gossip and distrust.

ust facilitated good communication, accurate information flow about the situation of funds and peditious pro-active action was engaged in, rather than in gossip/lies which would have killed e projects. Each stakeholder trusted the other to bring a chicken for auction, or to find money in sh for rescuing their resource centers which were on the verge of total closure.

n relying on what people know and building on it: Another pillar of the GSI PEP is having lied on what the local people know and how they understand and do things. The people in the SI project sites knew about development concepts. They also had incredible past experiences. iven the right framework, they proved this. They knew what the root causes of poverty are. hey knew why past projects had failed. They know what the right time to do what is. They now definitions of poorest of the poor and how to measure poverty. Bu they know these things their own ways. It is just that no one in the past cared enough to find out what they know, and ow what they know can become the pillars of facilitating their own growth.

uring the past five years, using the PEP, the people have generated their own statistics, statistics at talk to them in a language they understand. Their statistics measure their success in ddressing poverty in different ways, in ordinary terms. It measures the fulfillment of coming ogether and designing their plans for development, while intermittently singing and dancing ogether. They know that they are making progress when today, they can again visit a homestead here a new born baby has arrived and particular culturally valued foodstuffs to help the lactating nother get enough mild to breast-feed her new born. Or simply to spare time to go and visit their vomankind in solidarity with whatever is the issue at hand; while the men sit together to discuss ow much of the land in the community should be put under sunflower and soya bean production. n today's busy micro-chip world, even out there in the new world order, such relationships have een curtailed by the search for something and the notion that time is money.

They know that a leaky grass thatched roof is a sign of poverty. They know that infestation with jiggers is a sign of poverty. They know that when a man is poor, he cannot acquire a wife. He cannot father children. They know that such a man is among the poorest of the poor.
They also know that they are losing some of their traditional food crops because they are no longer growing them. They know that cash cropping has caused a lot of poverty in their midst because there is no more land to plant food crops for their subsistence, and that the cash crop does not bring cash any more.

Their statistics measure all these things. Mostly their statistics measure the fulfillment of minimum human needs as they know them and some of it has nothing to do with money. For example, having a granary, a particular kind of granary for storing maize outside in the homestead signifies that the homestead has food. They made this an important point of emphasis because today, there are no such granaries. People do not have enough to store or they simply sell off all the grain and turn around to buy the same grain at prices they can ill afford. It is those people's plans that constitute GSI's mandate and strategic plan for the next five years.

Additionally, from their faith/trust, the mustard seed has showed signs of yielding fruit-bearing trees and birds are already perching on the branches. The stakeholders feel that these achievements are significant and are worthy of praise. They are counting their blessings in the little things as they draw their plans for the bigger things. But for those that have not yet reaped any physical benefit, they know that one day they will or someone else will reap the benefits of the seeds they are sowing today for poverty alleviation/wealth creation. This in itself is a template for more cooperation for the common good.

The other interesting lesson is that success in one area, even if unrelated to the poverty alleviation committees, serves to be an illustration that the people can do it. This is what the philosopher, Albert O. Hirschman calls a "moral resource", that is, a resource whose supply increases rather than decreases through use and which unlike physical resource, becomes depleted if not used. But daring to believe and eventually discovering the power of the value of self worth is perhaps the biggest asset. From their humble beginnings, the people who dared to believe, to dream that they have what it takes to banish poverty from their midst are soaring, like the phoenix in *The Thorn Birds*. The sky is their limit and GSI and its PEP has to follow them.

Just like no amount of statistics can capture the impact of poverty amongst poor people, no amount of statistics (except the people's views as told by them, if only...) can capture ordinary people's visions of their future, confidence in their ability to conceptualize and solve the underlying causes of poverty in their midst. The stakeholders in Oyugis, Kakamega and Muranga could go on without GSI if they had to because they know all the right things to do. They know all the management principles because of the GSI PEP model. The Oyugis CMC was able to recruit their resource center manager on its own, and now it supervises him. They have the desire and plans to take over several aspects of the day to day program management. However, they still can not generate adequate resources needed to run their resource center on their own. They know where to get what but still need a connector. The same is with Iguhu and Gaitheri. So, they see GSI as that connector, a bouncing board for their new ideas, a technical resource that re-energises them.

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and its stakeholders have used PEP, a homegrown tool which they have continued to refine. tool has enabled ordinary people at the grassroots level to discover their individual and ective worth which they have come to value, harnessed and used in evolving visions and plans poverty alleviation in their communities. This process has enabled people to develop a wider erstanding of issues of cause and effect and they have identified what roles they can play with at tools in their development endeavor. They now know how the leadership can/should pond to their basic human needs and rights and they have forced that leadership to respond to se needs in a qualitative way.

1 PEP has brought out two new concepts that might further community development roaches in Kenya. Labor as an asset and the question of *managing relationships* including wer relations. The stakeholders manage the outcomes of PEP as opposed to managing ivities.

conclusion, GSI and its partner stakeholders at Oyugis, Iguhu, Gaitheri and Karai through ir PEP model is pushing the development world to re-think more basically but critically out what the strategic responses could be/should be in poverty alleviation and in development general.

e strategic visions for poverty alleviation today can no longer afford the quick fixes of steryears which have continued to marginalize poor people everywhere. We have built hopes a people who were on the verge of giving up. We have asked them cleverly, convincingly to ng in there, help is coming. We have done so mostly out of goodwill and well meaning ension. But we have come *short of the glory* because we did not take time to look back to see at really became of what we have done in the past. We have all been part of it.

ow we must try to search for clues from the specific contexts about how we really can be better gents of change, better stewards of public funds, better vehicles of poor people's empowerment. e Third World Countries are feeling the pinch of globalization. Some, more than others. When ople who have normal health, some land and hoes and are not malnourished because they do t produce food for themselves to eat, when they opt to be malnourished and even starve to eath, yet we are "giving them development assistance", good taxpayers' money; we must stop think or at least wonder how what we are doing is making what difference. The NGO sector as e third sector has both a moral and legal obligation to wonder and provide answers. After all, e believe that we do things better than the governments, at least in Africa.

or example, NGOs must answer why they choose one strategic option over the other and help eople understand how that option will lead to the social change agenda. In relation to poverty, e have learned from the foregoing that poverty and hunger have a lot more to do with unequal istribution and access to essential resources than lack of food per se. Therefore, proposed terventions for poverty alleviation by NGOs need to do more than pave the way to poverty lleviation, they need to demonstrate how and why poverty is being alleviated.

SI's strategic interventions ought to be a topic for in-depth discussion providing information on ow methodological choices respond to both ideological and content areas of poverty; how these lans are poised to deal with the devastating effects of market economy paradigm in practice,

what will link or how will the multiplicity of factors that cause poverty be linked and to what end? Who will play what role in what, and who will be responsible for what aspects; what is the current gap between reality in the field and the future envisioned options; how will NGOs handle issue of diversity within and without communities, in their plans and in the field; how will NGOs facilitate the realization of the goals of equity, in gender, in participation, in accessing essential resources, etc. Many more questions abound about how NGOs will work in ensuring sustainable, equitable and just development.

Not all the questions need to be answered because searching for solutions to man-made poverty is a life long endeavor. The point is to ask the relevant questions to the local context and be seen to be responsibly responding, making an effort to find solutions. However, like GSI, NGOs should know when to get worried and honestly seek for help. NGOs should know that poverty alleviation is a complex and constantly changing area which requires concerted efforts to be meaningfully tackled. The more NGOs form partnerships the better, and like GSI, more NGOs and donors alike should join hands when a dilemma is reached. From concerted effort, GSI was able to get more brains to thoroughly address the outcomes and effects of PEP when it grew at a pace GSI could not have anticipated.

From several months of consultations with the stakeholders, the donors and friends of GSI, what appeared to have been a stalemate, an elephant, has been cut to size for GSI and the stakeholders to continue carrying over the next five years. GSI has not nearly answered all the relevant questions even after five years of tackling issues of poverty. It has only answered a small portion of the myriad of questions which need to be asked. However, it has asked a few more relevant questions which have arisen out of its experience with poverty alleviation programming over the past five years. Some of these, it can. Some others it cannot. What it promises to do in the next five years is to honestly look for answers it can find with the stakeholders. The past five years of GSI PEP model can be thus summarized as containing seeds of efficiency, replicability and sustainability through human capacity building".