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International Trends in Participatory Budgeting

Edited by

Michiel S. De Vries · Juraj Nemec

David Špaček



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Michiel S. De Vries • Juraj Nemec
David Špaček
Editors

International Trends in Participatory Budgeting

Between Trivial Pursuits and Best Practices

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Editors

Michiel S. De Vries
Institute for Management Research
Radboud University Nijmegen
Nijmegen, The Netherlands
Department of Public Administration
Kaunas Technological University
Kaunas, Lithuania

Department of Public Administration
University of the Free State
Bloemfontein, South Africa

David Špaček
Faculty of Economics and Administration
Masaryk University
Brno, Czech Republic

Juraj Nemeč
Faculty of Economics and
Administration
Masaryk University
Brno, Czech Republic

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CONTENTS

- 1 The Diffusion of Participatory Budgeting: An Introduction to this Volume—With an Intermezzo by Tarso Genro, the Mayor of Porto Alegre Between 1992 and 1996** 1
Michiel S. de Vries, Juraj Nemec, David Špaček, and Tarso Genro
- 2 Participatory Budgeting in Germany: Increasing Transparency in Times of Fiscal Stress** 27
Janina Apostolou and Martina Eckardt
- 3 Participatory Budgeting in Italy: A Phoenix Rising from the Ashes** 47
Francesco Badia
- 4 Participatory Budgeting in Sweden** 63
Iwona Sobis
- 5 Participatory Budgeting in Belarus** 89
Yuri V. Krivorotko and Dmitriy V. Sokol
- 6 Participatory Budgeting in Croatia: A Mixed Bag of Good, Bad, and Indifferent** 113
Jasmina Džinić

7	Project-Oriented Participatory Budgeting in the Czech Republic	131
	Lucie Sedmihradská, Soňa Kukučková, and Eduard Bakoš	
8	The Beginning of a Beautiful Friendship? Participatory Budgeting in Hungary	149
	Péter Klotz	
9	Participatory Budgeting in Poland	163
	Artur Roland Kozłowski and Arnold Bernaciak	
10	Participatory Budgeting in Romania	187
	Emil Boc and Dan-Tudor Lazăr	
11	Participatory (Initiative) Budgeting in the Russian Federation	205
	Mstislav Afanasiev and Nataliya Shash	
12	Participatory Budgeting in Serbia	229
	Miloš Milosavljević, Željko Spasenić, and Slađana Benković	
13	Participatory Budgeting in Slovakia: Recent Development, Present State, and Interesting Cases	247
	Mária Murray Svidroňová and Daniel Klimovský	
14	Participatory Budgeting in Slovenia	271
	Maja Klun and Jože Benčina	
15	Unraveled Practices of Participatory Budgeting in European Democracies	287
	Juraj Nemeč, David Špaček, and Michiel S. de Vries	
	Index	315

NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

Mstislav Afanasiev Doctor ès economics, is a professor at National Research University, Higher School of Economics (HSE) in Moscow, and chief research fellow at the Institute of Economic Forecasting, Russian Academy of Sciences (Ecfor RAS) in Moscow, Russian Federation. He is the head of HSE research seminar *Modernisation of Public Finance*. He received doctor honoris causa from John Cabot University. He has published almost 140 books and scientific articles on public finance, macro-economics and corporative finance, including well-known university textbook *Budget and budgetary system*, 6 ed. (2020).

Janina Apostolou is a research assistant and coordinator of an international economics and trade programme at the Hamburg University of Applied Sciences. She is also a PhD candidate at Andr ssy University Budapest and is currently completing her dissertation analysing the diffusion of participatory budgeting in Germany from a political economy perspective.

Francesco Badia in Business Administration, is Associate Professor at the University of Bari Aldo Moro, where he teaches Management of Tourism Organizations and Management of Tourism and Cultural Events. His main research interests focus on local governance, participatory mechanisms, management of cultural organisations and cultural heritage, cultural tourism strategies and corporate social responsibility and non-financial disclosure. He has published almost 100 scientific works as books, journal articles (among them *Journal of Management and Governance*,

Sustainability, International Journal of Arts Management), book chapters, and conference proceedings.

Eduard Bakoš is an assistant professor at the Department of Public Economics, Faculty of Economics and Administration, Masaryk University in Brno and consultant of the Institute of Public Administration at the same faculty. Previously, he had worked at the University of Defence, where he lectured on security and crisis management from the perspective of public administration. Currently, he focuses both professionally and pedagogically on public finance, intergovernmental cooperation, and local government. He was involved in several applied projects for various public authorities.

Jože Benčina is Associate Professor of Economics and Public Management in the Faculty of Public Administration at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. He is currently the head of the Chair of Economics and Management in the Public Sector at the Faculty of Public Administration.

Sladana Benković is a professor in the Faculty of Organizational Sciences at the University of Belgrade, and the head of the Financial Management and Accounting department. She has published a significant number of papers in international and national conferences, monographs, and journals. She was a scholarship holder of the US and UK governments, and from 2013–2019, she was a member of the Finance Committee of the UB. Benković took part in numerous scientific and research international projects, but her involvement in the process of higher education institutions programme evaluation in Serbia and as an external evaluator of the European HEIs programme should be highlighted.

Arnold Bernaciak is associated professor in the Faculty of Finance and Banking at WSB University in Poznań, Poland. He is the vice-rector of Science. His research interests focus on environmental and ecological economics, sustainable development, and environmental management. He has published almost 100 journal papers, chapters in books and conference papers. He also cooperates with Polish local governments as an expert in the fields of sustainable development and environmental protection strategies. He is a member of the board of the Polish Association of Environmental and Resource Economists.

Emil Boc is an associate professor at Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania, member of the Department of Political Sciences. He

was the prime minister of Romania between 2008 and 2012. He is also Mayor of Cluj-Napoca, with previous mandates for the years 2004–2008 and 2012–present. Emil Boc is also European rapporteur of SEDEC—CoR on “brain drain in EU”.

Michiel S. de Vries is Professor of Public Administration, Radboud University Nijmegen, and studied Sociology at the University of Groningen. He worked previously at the University of Amsterdam, Thorbecke Academy in Leeuwarden, and the Free University Amsterdam. He has a PhD in Law (Utrecht University). In 2016 he received a Doctor Honoris Causa in Public Economics from the Masaryk University of Brno. Michiel S. de Vries is Full Professor of Public Administration at the Radboud University of Nijmegen, Distinguished Professor of Public Administration at Kaunas University of Technology, and extraordinary professor at the Free State University in Bloemfontein. He is past president of IASIA and member of the editorial board of numerous journals on public administration. His research concentrates on local government, policy evaluation, policy change and comparative public administration and has resulted in over 300 scholarly publications and over 20 edited volumes and monographs.

Jasmina Džinić is an assistant professor at the Chair of Administrative Science, Faculty of Law, University of Zagreb, Croatia. She teaches several courses in the fields of public administration and public management. She has published more than 40 scientific papers and book chapters, and one book in co-authorship. In 2011, she received the award for the paper *Regulatory bodies and regulation: some problems connected with issuing decrees for law implementation* and in 2015 she was awarded with the NISPAcee Mzia Mikeladze PhD Thesis Award. Her professional field of interest comprises public management, administrative reforms, organisational theory, and public administration education.

Martina Eckardt is full time Professor of Public Finance at Andrásy University Budapest, Hungary, and member of the Otto-Friedrich University Bamberg, Germany. She has been dean at the Department of International Relations (2008–2010) and served as member of the University Council from 2010 to 2018 at Andrásy University Budapest. Her research topics include social policy, law and economics, institutional economics, inter alia. Since 2014 she is board member of the German Law and Economics Association.

Tarso Genro is a lawyer and the president of the New Paradigms Institute (Instituto Novos Paradigmas). He was mayor of Porto Alegre, RS, Federal Deputy, Secretary of the Council for Economic and Social Development of the Presidency of the Republic, Minister of Education, Minister of Justice, Minister of Institutional Relations of the governments of President Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, the PT's national president, and is the author of several books and articles on law and political theory, such as: "Possible Utopia", "Individual Labor Law", "Contribution to the Criticism of Collective Labor Law", and "'The Future for Setting Up': Democracy and Socialism in the Global Age".

Daniel Klimovský is Associate Professor of Political Science at Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia. Besides political science, his background also includes public administration and public policy. His research and teaching activities are focused on public administration as well as political issues linked to sub-national levels. Phenomena of co-creation, citizen engagement, and innovations in decision-making at local level became main areas of his research activities recently. Concerning his international recognition, he has taken part in several important research projects, and published dozens of various publications in twelve languages. He has rich experience in lecturing abroad, and he has closely cooperated with the Council of Europe, Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe, Regional Studies Association, Social Watch, Open Society Foundation in Slovakia, Government of the Slovak Republic, Association of Towns and Communities of Slovakia, Association of Self-Governing Regions in Slovakia, Office of the Plenipotentiary of the Government for the Development of Civil Society, and so on. In addition, he cooperates with the Science and Research Centre of the Faculty of Economics and Administration, University of Pardubice in the Czech Republic.

Péter Klotz is currently an assistant professor and integrity management specialist at the National University of Budapest, Hungary. He is deputy head of the anti-corruption and integrity development project of the NUPS and at the same time, leader of the integrity advisor postgraduate training course at the University. Péter Klotz conducted several researches in the past in the topics of human resources management, integrity management, and local governments.

Maja Klun is a full time professor in the Faculty of Public Administration, University of Ljubljana. She was a guest lecturer at different universities across Europe. Her main fields of research are public finance and economics of public sector. She publishes in different journals and conference papers. She is co-author and co-editor of scientific monographs as well. From 2009 she is working as vice-dean for the research at the Faculty of Public Administration. She was also deputy of secretary general at EAPAA for a few years.

Artur Roland Kozłowski is WSB Professor with PhD and habilitation in Social Sciences with specialisation of International Relations. He is the head of Law and Security Science Institute and dean of the Department of Economy and Management in Gdynia at WSB University in Gdansk. He is an author of three books of CEE geopolitics and a co-author of two other books—one on Polish and Ukrainian diplomacy and another on higher education in Central Europe. He has also published around 40 scientific articles on CEE in international relations, political systems, development of populism, participatory budget. He is a member of the Congress of Political Economists (US) and the Polish Society for International Studies.

Yuri V. Krivorotko is a Doctor of Economic Sciences, professor, Head of Economics and Accounting at the BIP—University of Law and Social-Information Technologies. He is currently a member of the University Council and Economics and Law faculty. He is also an expert in Public Finance at the NGO “Lev Sapieha Foundation”. Krivorotko has authored and co-authored 23 books and published more than 100 articles and working papers. Yuri Krivorotko is an individual member of the Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee). He is also CoE expert in local government finance from Belarus on the project of local financial benchmarking (2015–2017). Since September 2017 he holds the position of Bank Independent Director recognised by the National Bank of the Republic of Belarus.

Soňa Kukučková is an assistant professor at the Department of Finance, Faculty of Business and Administration, Mendel University in Brno. She graduated in Finance from the Faculty of National Economy, University of Economics in Bratislava. She received PhD in Economic Policy from Masaryk University in Brno. Then for several years, she has worked for financial institutions (KPMG, Volksbank, and Sberbank) at different posi-

tions and focused on finance and accounting. She currently teaches public finance, and her research topics are behavioural economics, public budgets, and local government.

Dan-Tudor Lazăr is a professor at Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania, member of the Department of Administration and Public Management. He was the prime minister's adviser on economic affairs in the Romanian government between 2009 and 2010, and Secretary of State in the Ministry of Public Finance for the period 2010–2012. Dan-Tudor Lazăr has also been vice-rector for finance, digitalisation and the relation with students at Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania, starting from 2012.

Miloš Milosavljević is an associate professor at the University of Belgrade. He teaches financial management and accounting. His research interest covers public finance and public administration. Hitherto, he has been involved in a number of international and national projects (funded by Tempus, Erasmus, IPA, SDC, and USAID) as a manager, researcher, or trainer/teacher. The projects cover different topics related to financial management and public finance. He has published several books and monographs, and more than 100 articles in international and national journals and conference proceedings.

Juraj Nemec is full time Professor of Public Finance and Public Management in the Faculty of Economics and Administration at Masaryk University in Brno, Czech Republic, and part time professor in the Faculty of Economics at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Slovakia, with 38 years' experience in teaching at pre-graduate, graduate and doctoral levels. In 2016 he was elected as the president of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee). He is the vice-president of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration and the member of the Committee of Experts on Public Administration at United Nations. He has published over 400 books and scientific articles.

Lucie Sedmíhradská is an associate professor at the Department of Public Finance, Prague University of Economics and Business. Aside from teaching she has been involved in several local and international research projects focusing on public budgets, local government finance, and inter-municipal cooperation. She has published approximately three dozen journal articles and book chapters and a monograph on municipal budget-

ary process. She currently serves as elected finance official in one of the Prague city districts.

Nataliya Shash Doctor ès economics, is a full time professor in Financial Management Department at Plekhanov Russian University of Economics in Moscow, Russian Federation. Since 2015, she has been a member of the expert group of the Government of the Russian Federation in the field of improving the efficiency of budget expenditures and improving state programmes. Since 2019, she has been a consultant for the project on improving the efficiency of operations and implementing financial management tools in the public sector of the economy. She is the author of almost 130 books and scientific articles on public finance and macroeconomic development.

Iwona Sobis is an associate professor at the School of Public Administration at the University of Gothenburg in Sweden. Her main professional duties include lecturing and conducting seminars with 1st, 2nd, and 3rd cycle students. Her research from 1995 to 2010 focused on the Western advice to Central and Eastern Europe during transition from socialism to a market economy. Since 2011, she has conducted comparative studies on public reforms, municipal development, local democracy, care for the elderly, and EU's internal migration. She has published 50 research articles, book chapters and books. She is a member of few expert groups on the research proposal review of some European countries and a reviewer of several international scientific journals.

Dmitriy V. Sokol is an associate professor in Corporate Finance Department at the Economic Faculty of Belarus State University, Minsk, Belarus. With that, he is the vice-chairman of the Board of NGO "Lev Sapieha Foundation" (a non-governmental think-tank on problems of local self-government), where he acts as expert in local finance and budgeting issues. Since 2007, he has been actively engaged in analyses of effectiveness of local finance and budgeting in Belarus. He has repeatedly acted as a country and local expert in projects of the Council of Europe and the European Commission. He has more than 60 scientific and methodological publications.

David Špaček is an associate professor at the Department of Public Economics, Faculty of Economics and Administration, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic. He has participated in various national as well as international projects as a member of their research team, project coordi-

nator and project leader. In his research and lecturing, he concentrated on various aspects of public management and public administration—for example public administration reform, e-government and e-participation, quality and performance management and performance appraisal. He has also been involved in consultancy for the European Union and its projects.

Željko Spasenić works as a teaching assistant at the Faculty of Organizational Sciences, University of Belgrade. For two years he has worked as teaching associate at the Faculty of Economics, University of Belgrade, engaged for two courses: Business Economics and Principles of Economics. Afterwards, he pursued banking career in Erste Bank, UniCredit Bank, and Societe Generale Bank as a risk manager responsible for underwriting large corporates, financial institutions, municipalities, real estate, and structured finance deals. He also has experience as ERP consultant with focus on finance and production module of MS NAV. Currently, he is a PhD student at the Faculty of Organizational Sciences, University of Belgrade, in the field of quantitative management.

Mária Murray Svidroňová is Associate Professor of Public Economy and Services at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Slovakia. Her pedagogical and research activities are focused on the economics and management of the third sector, public and private nonprofit organizations, and civil society. She is particularly interested in social innovation issues in the area of public service provision, for example through co-creation, community building, participatory budgeting, and civic activism. She is active in several international studies and research projects dealing with public service innovation and civic engagement. In cooperation with the Office of the Plenipotentiary of the Government for the Development of Civil Society, she participated in the preparation of legislative changes in the field of financing NGOs. She runs her own civic association. She was the chairperson of the Mayor's Council of Banská Bystrica for non-governmental organizations. She is a member of the Accreditation Commission of the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic for Specialized Activities in the field of youth work.

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig. 2.1	German municipalities with PB processes (1998–2017). (Source: Own composition based on own research and data from Franzke & Kleger, 2010; Günther, 2007; Herzberg, 2009; Ruesch & Ermert, 2014; Ruesch & Wagner, 2014; Sintomer et al., 2010; Vorwerk & Gonçalves, 2018)	31
Fig. 2.2	PB according to the size of municipalities (2012–2018). (Source: Own composition based on open data downloaded from ‘List of municipalities’ on www.buergerhaushalt.org/en/list (last access 02/09/2020))	32
Fig. 2.3	Channels for participating in PB processes (2012–2018, $n = 181$). (Source: Own calculation based on open data downloaded from ‘List of processes’ on www.buergerhaushalt.org/en/list , last access 02/09/2020))	35
Fig. 2.4	Participation options granted in PB processes (2012–2018, $n = 184$). (Source: Own calculation based on open data downloaded from ‘List of processes’ on www.buergerhaushalt.org/en/list (last access 02/09/2020))	36
Fig. 2.5	Accountability (2012–2018, $n = 174$). (Source: Own calculation based on open data downloaded from ‘List of processes’ on www.buergerhaushalt.org/en/list (last access 02/09/2020))	37
Fig. 3.1	PB diffusion in the Italian municipalities (2001–2020). (Source: author, based on Bartocci et al. (2016) and own data)	54
Fig. 5.1	Thematic directions of project applications in frame of competitions in TANDEM-I, TANDEM-II, TANDEM-III, TANDEM-IV and TANDEM-V. (Source: Compiled by	

	authors on the basis of NGO “Lev Sapieha Foundation” data (Kobasa, 2020))	95
Fig. 5.2	Level of own revenues in regional local budgets in 2019. (Source: Authors, based on the data of Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Belarus)	105
Fig. 7.1	Share of PB expenditure in total expenditure and the size of the municipality (Source: Authors). Note: Data for the most recent case of PB in the given municipality (2018 or 2019), Brno with 380,000 inhabitants and share of PB in total expenditure 0.23% is not shown for sake of the figure clarity)	135
Fig. 7.2	% of proposals approved for voting in 2016–2019. (Source: Authors)	138
Fig. 7.3	Ongoing PBs: the share of upgrading and downgrading PBs in 2018 and 2019. (Source: Authors)	142
Fig. 7.4	Abandoned PBs (2014–2018). (Source: Authors)	142
Fig. 7.5	Classification of Czech PBs reflecting their duration and character in 2019. (Source: Authors. Note: Pre-form PB not fully implemented, for example proposal through online forms or emails without interactive discussion possibilities; Introduction: PB realised for the first or the second time; Continuation: PB realised for the third time or more times; Siding: the last PB was realised 2 years ago, at the moment there is no perspective to start again)	143
Fig. 9.1	Polish cities which implemented participatory budgeting in the years 2012–2017. (Source: Authors, based on Pistelok and Martela (2019))	167
Fig. 12.1	Participatory budgeting process in Serbia. (Source: Authors, based on Local Finance Reform (2020))	237
Fig. 13.1	Process of participatory budgeting in most of the Slovak local governments. (Source: Authors)	258

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	The spread of participatory budgeting worldwide in 2019	2
Table 2.1	Type of PB processes (2014–2017)	34
Table 2.2	Cluster analysis of PB adoption (per capita)	40
Table 2.3	Mean value comparison of municipalities with and without PB (in Euro per capita)	40
Table 3.1	List of the effects of the COVID-19 crisis on PB	56
Table 5.1	Project activity portfolio of PB by means of the re-granting models	92
Table 5.2	Implementation of TANDEM’s programme through PB	94
Table 5.3	Participation of local authorities and civil society organisations in Tandem-IV and Tandem-V programmes	97
Table 5.4	SWOT analysis of participatory budgeting in Belarus	104
Table 7.1	PB in Czech municipalities during 2014–2019	134
Table 9.1	The amounts per capita allocated to participatory budgeting in Polish cities in 2017	169
Table 9.2	Entities involved in the implementation of participatory budgeting in Poland	176
Table 11.1	Mechanisms for tracking existing initiative budgeting practices in Russia	212
Table 11.2	Procedures used in subjects of the Russian Federation for gathering project proposals from citizens and the number of acts of citizen participation within the framework of these procedures in 2019	213
Table 11.3	Procedures used in Russian federal subjects for selecting winning projects and the number of acts of citizen participation in these procedures in 2019	213

Table 11.4	Dynamics of financial indicators of practices in federal subjects of Russia for 2015–2018, millions/rubles	218
Table 11.5	Typology of all types of IB projects carried out in Russian federal subjects in 2016–2018 (%)	223
Table 12.1	Analytical framework for the chapter	234
Table 12.2	Financial and other outcomes and results for the first participatory budgeting cycle	236
Table 13.1	Development of participatory budget in Banská Bystrica, 2014–2020	251
Table 13.2	Overview of municipalities according to the year of introduction of the PB (January 2020)	253
Table 13.3	Overview of municipalities that terminated their PBs (December 2019)	254
Table 13.4	Overview of selected local governments and their development of participatory budget	259
Table 13.5	Participatory budget in the Trenčín self-governing region, 2017–2019	262
Table 15.1	Summary of information of participatory budgeting in selected “old” democracies	295
Table 15.2	Main characteristics of CEE countries covered by this book	296
Table 15.3	The scale of participatory budgeting in selected countries	302
Table 15.4	Main processual aspects of participatory budgeting in selected CEE countries	304



The Diffusion of Participatory Budgeting: An Introduction to this Volume—With an Intermezzo by Tarso Genro, the Mayor of Porto Alegre Between 1992 and 1996

*Michiel S. de Vries, Juraj Nemec, David Špaček,
and Tarso Genro*

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As the saying goes, the sequel is never as good as the original and copies always contain flaws. That may be true for films, books, and paintings, but the question is whether it is also a valid remark concerning innovations in

M. S. de Vries
Institute for Management Research, Radboud University Nijmegen,
Nijmegen, The Netherlands

Department of Public Administration, Kaunas Technological University,
Kaunas, Lithuania

Department of Public Administration, University of the Free State,
Bloemfontein, South Africa
e-mail: m.devries@fm.ru.nl

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public policymaking. In public policy it might be the reverse, as pilots might contain imperfections to be removed when actors learn more from the first experimental case and the resulting innovative practice is repeated in an improved manner. Participatory budgeting (PB) was such an innovation, starting in Porte Alegre in Brazil as a result of efforts made by the Brazilian Workers' Party at the end of the 1980s. In that city, later referring to itself as the 'Capital of Participatory budgeting', it was seen as the first step from representative democracy towards that of direct democracy, calling PB a case of radically democratising democracy; a practice in which the until then marginalised people from poor neighbourhoods were allowed to deliberate with the municipality how to spend part of its budget. It proved to be a powerful instrument as was seen in the widespread diffusion of PB and becoming sometimes a standard practice in cities all over the world. Table 1.1 gives the number of PB processes in 2019.

Notwithstanding the impressiveness of the number, such figures can be deceiving. Europe seems to be the continent in which PB has spread the widest. However, almost half of those cases are to be found in Poland (1800 cases), which is due to a national law regulation concerning PB. This law from 2018 made PB compulsory in 66 cities and optional for the remainder of local governments. The same applies for South America in

Table 1.1 The spread of participatory budgeting worldwide in 2019

<i>Continent</i>	<i>Number of participatory budgeting cases</i>
Europe	4577–4676
South America	3061–3081
Asia	2773–2775
Africa	955–958
Central America and the Caribbean	134–142
North America	178
Total, 71 countries	11,690–11,825

Source: Authors, based on Dias et al. (2019)

J. Nemeč (✉) • D. Špaček

Faculty of Economics and Administration, Masaryk University,
Brno, Czech Republic

e-mail: juraj.nemec@umb.sk; david.spacek@econ.muni.cz

T. Genro

Porto Alegre, Brazil

which Peru is, for similar reasons, frontrunner with 1869 PB processes in local government and 2089 in total, which accounts for two-thirds of all such processes in South America.

Notwithstanding such ambiguities, Table 1.1 shows that PB has, in name, travelled all over the world. Its diffusion was a process well described by Osmany Porto de Oliveira (2017). He argued that in this process of the international diffusion of PB individuals played a crucial role, especially local Brazilian authorities in the beginning and then by international experts (de Oliveira, 2017, p. 6). Its diffusion in Brazil occurred above all through the action of mayors, activists, networks linked to the Partido dos Trabalhadores (PT), the Workers Party, and the action of civil society (de Oliveira, 2017, p. 10). The United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU), and the World Bank have been responsible for the diffusion outside Brazil. They have been fundamental in stimulating cooperation between municipalities with the purpose of spreading PB. A major impetus was experienced when Porto Alegre won the award for ‘Best Practice’ for Urban Management during the International Conference on UN-Habitat II held in 1996 in Istanbul. In 2000, PB was adopted by a number of municipalities in Europe with France and Spain being the frontrunners.

The introduction of PB in three European countries was well described by Anja Röcke in 2014. She paid specific attention to the developments in Germany, France, and the UK. She concluded that specific actors and factors are crucial in order to start the process of PB: it is necessary to have a clear political will or leadership strategy that deliberately aims at going beyond established practices of citizen participation; a strong power position for implementing these goals, as well as a certain level of administrative and wider political support; and financial resources (for having the possibility, for instance, to use different mobilisation strategies or employ external facilitators for the discussion) (Röcke, 2014, p. 169).

Notwithstanding this knowledge, the question about the quality of sequels and copies remains an important one as the scholarly literature mentions that ‘PB is being implemented in very different ways, largely as a result of legal, social, political, and historical traditions that exist in different countries’ (Harkins & Escobar, 2015). Concerning Europe, Röcke was critical about the actual participation of participants, their procedural power in monitoring and controlling the process, and the deliberative quality (Röcke, 2014, p. 166).

She is not alone in this criticism. From a critical perspective, many scholars mentioned that such community-based meetings are often dominated

by certain groups/people while other groups are [still] marginalised (Fung, 2006; Irvin & Stansbury, 2004; Kuruppu et al., 2016; Lowndes & Wilson, 2001; Musso et al., 2011; Nyamori et al., 2012). Holdo mentioned that ‘empirical studies have often been less encouraging for participatory democrats (Baiocchi & Ganuza, 2014). PBs do not necessarily empower civil society to self-organise independently of the government if such ability is lacking at the outset (Holdo, 2016, p. 1). Furthermore, he states that it ‘offers opportunities for manipulation. ... PB plays a strategic part in partisan power struggles, and therefore does not have empowerment as its primary political goal’ (Holdo, 2016, p. 3). Regarding a Sri Lankan case, it was concluded that ‘the practice of PB was just a symbolic means of monopolising power and exerting domination and symbolic violence’ (Kuruppu et al., 2016); for a case in Laos it was concluded that the PB process had no intrinsic value at all (High, 2009) and for Latin American cases Goldfrank concluded that ‘participatory budgeting has not generally led to poverty reduction, more accountability, and participation, or to better municipal government’ (Goldfrank, 2007, pp. 94–98). This is rather different from what was concluded about the original case in Porto Alegre. There it was said to have resulted in measurable benefits, including the expansion of access to basic public services such as sewerage systems, water, and paved roads (Moynihan, 2007, p. 68). During the period 1989–1996, the first seven years in which PB was practiced, the proportion of households with access to water services rose from 80% to 98%; the percentage of the population served by the municipal sewerage system increased from 46% to 85%; the number of children enrolled in public schools doubled; and, on average, an additional 30 km of roads were paved every year (Gonçalves, 2014, p. 108). PB directed more investments to regions that were generally poorer (Melgar, 2014, p. 129), and the process fundamentally changed the relationship between the citizens and the state. It was claimed to have improved the functioning of government and to have led to improved public services and infrastructure. ‘It changed not just “where” public money was spent (spatially) but also on “what” the money was spent (functionally)’ (Calabrese et al., 2020, p. 1385). In Porto Alegre the achievement of substantive goals for poor neighbourhoods was crucial, with secondary effects in improving the relationship between the citizens and the state. This is seen in the intermezzo presented below, in which the mayor of Porto Alegre at the time PB started in that city, Tarso Genro, at our request, talks about the objectives thereof, the procedures followed, the opportunities it offered, and the challenges faced.

Intermezzo: The Political Genesis of Participatory Budgeting
 Tarso Genro, Mayor of Porto Alegre between 1992 and 1996

Based on democratic political theory, I discuss the political and institutional policy genesis of Participatory Budgeting (OP). I am doing this as one of the active 'formulators' of its implementation and as a collaborator in diverse academic works, some of them as an interviewee, others as an informal 'consultant.' The hundreds of works about OP have already shown that it can be critically analysed as a victorious democratic experience, with its magnitudes and limits. The present contribution moves in another direction, as it looks for its ideological and political assumptions, until now 'invisible', that are not contained in those researches that contributed to its worldwide recognition.

Both in the celebration of the 200th anniversary of the French Revolution and the destruction of the Berlin Wall, hundreds of intellectuals 'celebrated what would be an eternal marriage of capitalism with human rights, through a democratic and representative way (...), but, after thirty years, the couple finds themselves in the shadow of divorce (Spitz, 2019). I adduce: with its illegitimate children evoking fascism, anti-science, xenophobia, indifference to death and the agony of the excluded and the poor.

In the climate that preceded the implementation of Participatory Budgeting in Porto Alegre, at the 'end of communism' festivals, the celebrations were not seen by us as though they were signs of a new future for the left, but rather as the start of recovery of a collapsing utopia. We were, therefore, distant from the liberal-democratic optimism expressed right after the historic explosion and were instead closer to being a rebellious orphanage.

In November 1989, a breakdown of the 'real' experiences of the East and the liberal turning point of the European democratic social contract added to the destruction of the Wall, signalling, however, to the left of the world, the imperative of reflecting on the roots of our socialist ideology. Without an encounter with a past considered to be heroic (which was fading) the present of this past would fall into the void, and the dialogue of the left, on socialism and on the 'de-democratic issue', would lose its meaning.

While I write this text, capitalism is bound up, not with democracy, but with global financial capital, besieged by the coronavirus pan-

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demis. The world's poor and miserable remain 'on the margins of life', at the mercy of what capitalism has become after the fall of the Wall: Trump representing the humanist crisis of capitalism and Merkel representing its guilty enlightenment conscience. The spectrum of 'communis' does not hover in any part of the world and the lack of a humanistic (and possible) democratic counterpoint to neoliberalism unleashes market forces to their maximum level of fetishism in the global order.

The city of Porto Alegre was a fertile ground for debate in 1989. The dictatorship's political action, more repressive where attempts at armed struggle were intense, had not defused the left that operated in the region: liberation theology Christians, heterodox and traditional communists, 'autonomists' and social democrats, with their discrete or clandestine organisations, survived. Most of its cadres, then, were already part of the Workers' Party, which intended to build itself as the 'moral reserve' for a left, even if it was generally socialist, ready to recompose the old utopias.

When the 1988 Constitution came into force, whose assembly was agreed upon between the 'consenting' opposition and sectors of the military regime, the left again took on a relevant public role. That was when it put on another outfit and opened itself, successively, to new forms of struggle and organisation. The idea of a socialist revolution, through the different routes that the left proposed in the fight against the military dictatorship, began to collapse, obstructed by the clarity of the democratic political struggle that demands other forms of contention and more sophisticated views to understand the new questions of State and government.

Part of this military left in the neighbourhoods 'infiltrated', along with the city's social movements, defending community demands for basic sanitation, public electricity, day-care centres, improvements in public transportation and infrastructure works, such as paving the streets. In this new period, the left would also revive its influences with the universities and the trade union movement, as well as returning to be present in the representative organisations of the liberal professionals active in the resistance movements against the regime of exception.

In the democratic restoration, whose decisive moment was the promulgation of the Constitution of 88, the left maintained its momentum, to try to radicalise the emerging democracy. It was in this context that

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OP became the common project of a plural left, which emerged from hiding with its more hardened militants but had also already been integrated by young social struggle activists from the early 1980s onwards. Its principal ideas on politics were developed in direct opposition to the traditional parties of that time which were tolerated by the dictatorship and which had also reorganised after the political amnesty in 1979.

In this environment, the government programme of the first Popular Front Nominated (1988) in Porto Alegre was composed and which would prove capable of winning the direct elections for City Hall. This slate had the signatory of this text as a candidate for vice-mayor, under the leadership of bank-unionist Olívio Dutra as candidate for mayor. At the time, Olívio was an avant-garde union leader and had become the most influential figure in the state of Rio Grande do Sul in organising the Workers' Party.

These are the specific conditions in which the 'anti-system' idea of the Participatory Budget arises, through the social and political left, which proposes to encourage an imagined popular participation, but with a form far from what it would be in the future. Our inspiration came from the examples of the Paris Commune, the Soviets, the German Social Democratic Councils, the spontaneous popular plenary sessions of the community movements in the city which had remained alive albeit in a reserved and sometimes clientelist manner during the military dictatorship.

In assuming, in the 1989 elections, commitments to governance 'on the left' through what we called Popular Councils, we initiated a practical movement in search of a model of popular participation and, afterwards, we opened a theoretical debate about the normative form of our project, which was still undefined. The discussion, which travelled extensively through the plural bases of the PT, was not internalised by the other left-wing parties, indifferent to a movement that began with little chance of becoming a national and world example.

The practical movement was naturally supported in community movements (organised or in nucleation), which allowed it not to have to start from 'zero' and encouraged us to capture the energy of the existing community struggle which had survived the authoritarianism of

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the military regime. We proposed new forms of organisation to communities for their valorisation before the State, assuming the commitment that they would have a privileged impact on the composition of the public budget so that their demands would be met.

In the ongoing elaborations we defended direct democracy, idealised by traditional conceptions of the left, which saw the institutions and the political spaces of democracy as spaces of struggle, refusing to be endowed with a 'universal value.' In the process of its implementation, direct democracy became, however, a democratic instrument of public management, integrated into the ongoing legal order, pushing its limits, but truly reorganising the institutional life of the city.

The normative model that was perfected would come from a peculiar form of understanding of public law which proposed to constitute through a dialogue with the General Council of the OP an internal regulation which in turn would regulate the operation of the OP in a negotiated way with its regional city councils. This form of regulation was agreed upon with the elected government and therefore governed a political-legal contract of local scope, as of a non-state public right, agreed upon by the political delegation via electoral vote and the regional councils of the OP.

This contract, in order to 'work', would have to be respected by governments that, by ideological conception, assimilated democratic radicalisation and understood that the production of the budget 'should go down' to the lower classes.

The next moment would be the objectification of a fraction of the Social State at the local level, not as the preliminary moment of a socialist project as we unrealistically wanted. The democratic conciliation that had won in Brazilian society, with the Constitution of 88, recommended that we put aside the most immediate illusions and absorb entirely the new democratic political process, the result of the conciliation that had removed us from the dictatorship.

Here, that which has been formulated by Boaventura de Souza Santos is a good fit for understanding our itinerary: 'The problem of democracy in non-hegemonic conceptions is closely linked to the recognition that democracy is not a mere accident or a simple work of institutional engi-

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neering. Democracy constitutes a new historical grammar. This is not the case, as in Barrington Moore Jr., of thinking about the structural determinations for the constitution of this new grammar. It is about realising that democracy is a socio-historical form and that such forms are not determinable by natural laws' (Boaventura de Sousa Santos, 2002).

In the debate on how to compose the Budget, the question of participation that had gone through electoral dissent was now presented as a concrete question of governance, and this need for governance would have a decisive influence on the concept of popular participation that we inaugurated. It would, in fact, turn to the democratisation of local political management (in the city), and no longer to the 'subversion' of formal state institutions. This political and theoretical formulation effort for the new times, in which we would no longer be in systematic opposition to the military regime and its governments, occupied our revolutionary imaginary and called us to the real, ongoing policy, originating from the controlled 'opening' that became an open road from the Social Constitution of 88 onwards.

In our first two governments in the city (1989–1992; 1993–1996), we faced issues that would influence the format of OP in Porto Alegre, giving the city a worldwide projection, not only before the leftist governments, but with all of the governments that bet on some level of innovation in the liberal-representative agenda in the local environment. This innovation was brought about by the political restructuring of city management, at the municipal level, through the absorption of direct democracy combined and integrated into representative democracy.

The process carried out there promoted a meeting in that space between different social groups that crossed the city's class structure, at a specific moment of 'non-revolutionary conjuncture', when 'the OP of the capital of Rio Grande do Sul in 1989–2004 became the experience that best illustrated a radical-democratic solution in the direction of a political pedagogy of self-emancipation' (Marques, 2005).

The evolution of the number of demands in our first three governments (Olivio Dutra, Tarso Genro and Raul Pont) clearly demonstrates the degree of confidence that the process had acquired in the city's poorest communities and in its lower middle classes; the demands had

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evolved 87.71% since the beginning of the OP in 1990, having started with 230 demands reaching 440 in 12 years. The demands were met, totally or partially, by the government, with the execution of each budget in this period.

The final 'baseline' dilemma, which would involve the nature of a left-wing government, within a new legal order which opened spaces for a combination of direct and representative democracy would be the following: would the workers and their allies, having been elected to Government by democratic means, govern the city only for the workers and the excluded or did they govern for 'the whole city?'

Would the inversion of the hierarchy in public investments, prioritising the lower income classes, be enough to characterise a leftist government within the city? However, the axial theme to be answered was more complex; the workers govern for the whole city, but how to transparently privilege the needs of the 'low' in the public budget? It was a question then of establishing regulated budgetary privileges, based on the weight of the direct participation of the communities in the discussion of the public budget, which would be absorbable by the local legislative power, as an organ of the political representation that voted on the budget and transformed it into a legal norm.

This transparent budget privilege is what would drive contractual regulation, between government and councils through the OP's internal regulations, and its consequent success with the popular classes. As investments in public works and investments in health and education appeared as real fruits of popular decision in the lives of the communities, confidence in the march of direct democracy articulated with the electoral delegation was visibly increasing.

This view of management, as a task of the left, implied the formation of a new 'ruling group', implicit or agreed upon within the Workers' Party and the government itself, to expand its support. The conscious institution of a direct democracy, as 'seed of a new State', allowed a process of popular participation combined with respect for political representation.

After 16 years in force by the PT governments, which reorganised the city of Porto Alegre, OP gradually weakened and lost its decision-making power, without being fully dismantled, until its liquidation in

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2020 by the extreme right-wing city government. Such liquidation took place under the indifference or the applause of the local media oligopoly, which perceived the OP as harmful to its influence in the formation of opinion and had always acted in defence of the 'business' vision of public management, with the State being 'managed' as a private company.

In our first and second governments (between 89 and 96), traditional communist parties and the parties that had configured themselves as being from the 'popular' field (workers, above all), did not only sympathise with the forms of direct participation that according to them competed with parliamentary representation in the City Council (Municipal Legislative Power), as well as because, in their view, they empowered the Workers' Party among the city's most popular strata.

In the winning perspective in our country, in which 'place would become a privileged space, (to) make the relationship between government and society more practical', Castells' vision made perfect sense; 'the municipality (...) is the state organ most permeable to a political representation of the dominated classes (...). It was this (view), in opposition to the left, that gave municipal policy its avant-garde character in the long permeability of the left's march through democratic institutions' (Castells, 1980, p. 1269; Larangeira, 1996).

The successive centrist and right-wing governments, which succeeded one another in Porto Alegre, gradually broke with that political contract that granted reliability to the OP, as this relevant information reports: 'in 1989, there were 13 municipalities that adopted the policy of participation in the budget. In 1993, 36 cities adopted the policy; in 1997 (the year that expanded the implementation of OP in medium and small cities) 103 cities; in 2001, 177 cities; in 2005, 203 municipalities; in 2007, 353 municipalities; in 2009, 437 cities; and finally, in 2014, 482 cities had adopted OP in the 26 states of Brazil. In 2017, according to a survey by the Municipal Planning Secretariat of the prefecture of Rio Grande (then the coordinating city of the BR OP Network), only 120 municipalities adopted this policy, and of these, only 24 are in full operation' (encurtador.com.br/dpxEL).

The degradation of OP, until its political death in the hands of the extreme 'managerial' right, is also clear in these data:

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