



Decentralized Spaces for Change:

A Case Study of the Lunenburg War Room at eDumbe Local Municipality

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Declaration

I, Lungile Prudence Zondi declare that:

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Name of Supervisor

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Date

Dedication

Throughout my research journey, I have set the LORD always before me and he was my right hand. He promised that I will not be shaken.

He assured me not to fear, for He was with me.

He assured me not to be dismayed because He is my God.

He promised that he will strengthen, help and uphold me with His righteous hand (Psalm 16: 8 and Isaiah 41: 10).

I dedicate this dissertation to my twin boys Nqubeko and S'qiniseko Zondi, you guys gave me a reason to press on. Thanks for being patient and understanding while I was busy.

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I extend my gratitude unto the Lord Almighty whom without him I would have lost vision and dedication along the way. I also thank the following people for giving me the support throughout a demanding journey, without their love I would not have made it.

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- Nompumelelo Nzimande a lecturer/demographer at the School of Built Environment and Development Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Howard College) for editing my research paper.

God Bless each and every one of you, 2013 has been a long and a difficult year. Without your support I would not have faced the journey on my own.

Abstract

This research paper looked at a war room as a decentralized space for change through which public participation is to be enhanced and service delivery accelerated at a ward level. The Lunerburg community demarcated as ward one under eDumbe Local Municipality was used as a case study. The eDumbe Local Municipality falls under Zululand District Municipality located in the northern part of KwaZulu-Natal. Since the *take-off* of democracy in South Africa, national government has put programmes in place to fight the acceleration of poverty and attend to the backlogs of service delivery. Provincial government are always mandated to implement national programmes or improvised according to the needs of their provinces. In the province of KwaZulu-Natal, the former Premier Zweli Mkhize launched war rooms as a provincial strategy derived from the national war on poverty campaign (announced by former president Thabo Mbeki during the State of the Nation Address, 2008) in the attempt to create decentralized spaces for change through which *public participation is to be enhanced to achieve accelerated service delivery at a ward level*. The other significance of the strategy is that it takes provincial government to local municipality wards in a collaborative manner. It is also important to note that the use of war rooms in the attempt to enhance public participation and service delivery is not understood and accepted by many people. Currently there are discussions held by the KZN office of the Premier in collaboration with sector departments as well civil societies in the attempt to give war rooms a relevant name.

Literature on public participation, decentralization as well as on good governance supported by various diagrams and tables was used to argue in support that citizen's voices should be integrated in development plans that affect them directly. The study was empirical, employed qualitative methodologies and used triangulated means to collect the data. Content analysis was used to analyse the collected data. The focus of the research was to investigate the extent through which, war rooms as decentralized spaces for change, serve as a unique mechanism to achieve public participation at a ward level in respect to currently existing strategies at a ward level. The study intended to also highlight mechanisms that are used by the war room as well to diagnose the support that the war room is receiving from other government departments.

Study findings revealed that the Lunerburg war room executive committee members still lack proper training in relation to their roles and responsibilities within the war room. Members of the Lunerburg community didn't know where the war room is located and what it does at a ward level. It was also discovered that the Lunerburg war room is not resourced to enhance

public participation and accelerate service delivery on its own. Operations of the Lunenburg war room enable community members as beneficiaries of the war room to remain passive participants rather than active participants in the decisions that affect them directly.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANC	African National Congress
CCG's	Community Care Givers
CDW	Community Development Workers
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
DA	Democratic Alliance
DNPFPF	Draft National Policy Framework for Public Participation
EOs	Extension Officers
IDP	Integrated Development Planning
IAP	International Association for Public Participation
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NPFPP	National Policy Framework for Public Participation
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSS	Operation Sukuma Sakhe
OSSIM	Operation Sukuma Sakhe Implementing Model
PG	Participatory Governance
PP	Public Participation
PSC	Public Service Commission
PPP	Public-Private Partnerships
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SCPVs	Social Crime Prevention Volunteers
SVs	Sport Volunteer
TAC	Treatment Action Campaign
UDF	United Democratic Front
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
WCs	Ward Committees
WR	War Room
YAs	Youth Ambassadors

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide a background to the study; give a rationale behind the research inquiry; and outline the research questions. The chapter will further discuss the research design and provide an outline of the dissertation.

1.2 Background to the study

This chapter examines public participation which is manifested in War Rooms in the province of KwaZulu Natal particularly within eDumbe Local Municipality ward one (Lunerburg community). Cornwall and Coelho (2007: 18-19) contend that “In recent years innovations in governance have created a plethora of new democratic spaces in many countries in the world both developed and in transition to becoming developed countries.” War rooms are defined as invited spaces (participatory spaces) where private and public street level bureaucrats get an opportunity to collaborate with citizens in their geographical wards to discuss issues of service of delivery and influence change that directly affect them. To this extent, war rooms are defined as decentralized invited spaces for change. There is an existing committee that serves a gatekeeper in the Lunerburg war room.

Cornwall and Coelho (2007: 21) continue to state that “decentralized powers of government promoted in the 1990’s claimed to bring government closer to the people through various mechanisms of public participation that varies from country to country. The importance of public participation mechanisms allows citizens to collaborate with government or its representatives in decision making around developmental issues that affect them directly and indirectly.” Mubangizi (2010:156) does not dispute Cornwall and Coelho (2007) but she indicates that “public participation still remains a missing link through which the government can provide service delivery to its citizens.” Karamoko (2011) states that South Africa has become a city of massive protests because citizens are angry at their leaders, they question the nature of the democracy that they were promised by the leading government which was to

redress the challenges of the apartheid regime in providing exclusive service delivery to few people through racial segregation. Citizens complain that they are still being excluded in the decision making process, which is still confined within *white collar* workers in their boardrooms. Their voices are still being sidelined when tailoring an appropriate agenda, which is meant to address their service delivery challenges.

Supporting contributions of Karamoko (2011), Smith (2003) cited in Njenga (2009: 3) state that “the increased pressure towards public participation is projected by citizens who want to be part of decisions affecting their lives directly. Citizens don’t want to be voters only but they want to enjoy their votes through influencing their community’s developmental agenda.” Midgely (1986: 23) also cited in Njenga (2009: 3) state that,

.....“even non-governmental organizations (NGO’s) as watch dogs of government operations are putting pressure that public polices need to be influenced by citizens in appropriate spaces of public participation. NGO’s advocate for democracy as an integral element of good governance, they want hold government accountability and transparency to its citizens. Citizens are to be afforded spaces or platforms to influence their development agenda.”

Friedman (2000: 87) argues that, “local authorities are expected to encourage maximum participation of citizens in the decision making process, so people can take part in the development of the country and help build the nation.” Indeed the South African Constitution (no.108 of 1996) clearly states that the mandate of local government is to encourage the involvement of local communities and community organizations in decisions that directly affect them. The Constitution goes even further, stating that the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making process. This puts the responsibility onto local government to actively develop mechanisms to include the community in the decision making process. Chapter 4 of this research paper will delineate broadly of the legal framework as well on the institutionalized mechanism for public participation in South Africa.

The background intends to argue that public participation is still a missing link, which puts the state of a convincing democracy unbalanced in the context of South Africa.

1.3 Rationale

This study was encouraged by a debate which postulated that public participation remains a policy objective which is poorly implemented, and that it remains a political debate across all democratic and non-democratic countries. Gaventa (2004) state a general problem that is encountered by citizens in various parts of the world, whereby “electoral democracy has spread around the world, but citizens in most countries still perceive government as distant and uncountable”. According to Atkinson (2002: 45), the debate has been invoked by a lack of commitment from government, “insufficient recognition to the values of community participation” and lack of understanding by many people of their “rights to participate in municipalities.” In South Africa (and across the globe) citizens have embarked on violent protests cause by lack of service delivery and consultation in government decision making processes. The high number of riotous protest actions in South Africa has dented its image as a democratic state. Ramphela (2012) assert that the South African democracy is chaotic and far from being consolidated or deepened. She extend to state that many critics opposition parties, NGO sector, academia and so forth also blame the African National Congress (ANC) for having failed to use public participation effectively to rid the country of poverty and exclusion.” Helen Zille the Democratic Alliance leader during her party address uttered scathing attacks towards the ANC stating that “ the ANC has failed its promises to deliver people from the conditions that the apartheid era had previously conditioned and positioned them under.” (www.sabc.co.za/radio: 28 July 2012).

One of the major criticisms leveled against South Africa’s on public participation is that the mechanisms are poorly resourced and that officials mandated with the task to implement such strategies lack adequate training to execute duties associated with such mechanism. Emanating from such research findings of existing research, war rooms are institutionalized to enhance public participation at a ward level.

Sithole (2005) cited in Njenga (2009: 29) defines public participation “*as a democratic process of engaging people in thinking, deciding, planning and playing an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their lives.*”

Pring and Noe (2000) defined public participation as an all-encompassing label used to describe various mechanisms that individuals or groups may use to communicate their views on a public issue. They argue that public participation is used to build and facilitate capacity

and self-reliance among the people. Therefore, public participation is an involvement of the citizens in initiatives that affect their lives. White (1981) also defines public participation as an active involvement of the local population in decision-making concerning development projects or their implementation. White (1981) continues to state that in development planning and implementation, people as citizens and as consumers of the services are most valuable resources since they understand their needs and how such needs can be met. This definition is supported by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) which further highlights that in public participation, people themselves are afforded an opportunity to improve their conditions of living, with as much reliance as possible on their own initiatives (Davids, Theron and Maphunye: 2005).

In South Africa, public participation is defined as an open and accountable process through which individuals and groups within selected communities can exchange views and influence decision making (DNPFP: 2007). This definition is in line with one of the constitutional principles of the Republic of South Africa which encourages meeting people's needs and encouraging the public to participation in policy making and in program implementation. The common theme amongst various definitions of public participation places citizens at the center stage and the emphasis is on the active participation in their own development related matters to ensure sustainable livelihoods.

Having outlined the importance of public participation and the extent to which it contributes to the ideal state of good governance, this research intend to investigate the *extent through which, war rooms as decentralized spaces for change, serve as a unique mechanism to achieve public participation at a ward level in respect to currently existing strategies at a ward level.*

1.4 Specific objectives of this study are:

- 1.4.1 To determine the acceptance and accessibility of a war room in the Lunenburg community.
- 1.4.2 To assess mechanisms or strategies that the war room use to encourage public participation and achieve services for communities.
- 1.4.3 To find out how the war room prioritizes service delivery needs of the Lunenburg community.

- 1.4.4 To show how a War Room (WR) serve as unique mechanism from other existing strategies at a ward level. (such as izimbizo, ward committees, idp's and cdw's).
- 1.4.5 To determine the support that the Lunenburg war room receives from the local leadership, local municipality and other sector departments on a daily basis.

The study intended to gather empirical data that would allow the researcher to explore public participation through the lenses of war room as decentralized spaces for change the case study of eDumbe Local Municipality a Northern part of the KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa.

1.5 Research Questions

The study aimed to answer the following crucial questions:

1. What is the distinction between the war room and other existing mechanisms encouraging public participation as a ward level? (such as izimbizo, ward committees, idp's and cdw's?)
2. What is the acceptance and the accessibility of a war room in the Lunenburg community?
3. What are the mechanisms or strategies in place that a war room uses to encourage public participation and achieve services for communities?
4. How does a war room prioritize service delivery needs of the Lunenburg community?
5. What is the support that the Lunenburg war room receives from the local leadership, local municipality and other sector departments provide on daily basis?

1.6 Research design

The research was empirical in nature employing a qualitative research methodology, using qualitative techniques in collecting data. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 27) "qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, and phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them."

Gubrium and Holsten (2009) state that, “qualitative researchers collect data in the form of written or spoken languages, or in the form of observations that are recorded in language, and analyses the data by identifying and categorizing themes.”

A triangulation of data collection through structured interviews, focus groups and participant observation were deemed as relevant for data collection through which validity was to be ensured. Five days were spent collecting data within the war room. On the first two days, structured interviews between the researcher and five members of the war room executive committee took place. According to Patton (2001: 36) “structured interviews can also be used as a qualitative research methodology, these types of interviews are best suited for engaging in respondent or focus group studies in which it would be beneficial to compare/contrast participant responses in order to answer a research question. For structured qualitative interviews, it is usually necessary for researchers to develop an interview schedule which lists the wording and sequencing of questions. Interview schedules are sometimes considered a means by which researchers can increase the reliability and credibility of research data.”

The third day was dedicated to a focus group session with eleven war room beneficiaries as well as for observations within the war room. A recorded focus group was held within an early childhood development center where a war room is institutionalized. During observations field notes were taken in relation to the frequency of community members accessing services offered by the war room. The rationale was that, such institutions are accessible and they are at a close reach to communities. According to Barbie and Mouton (2004:67) “focus groups have a great advantage of gathering a large amount of information over a relatively short period in time. Focus group should be made of people from six to ten people with the maximum of 12. Participatory observations allow the researcher to be an observable person in the research site who observes targeted people in their natural settings.”

Observations continued from the third day to the last day of the week. While conducting observations, documents that capture operations of the war room were reviewed, paying special attention to the nature in which reported cases of service delivery gaps forwarded by community members, and detecting turn-around interventions from sector departments in relation to related cases. Again the researcher was observing the frequency departments

coming to the war room to provide support and reviewing service delivery needs according to their intervention mandates.

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) Pitney and Parker (2009) both agree that, “observation in qualitative research generally involves spending a prolonged amount of time in the setting. Field notes are taken throughout the observations and are focused on what is seen. Many researchers also record notes to assist in determining what the observed events might mean and to provide help for answering the research questions during subsequent data analysis.”

The sampling method for this intended research was non-probability sampling. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) assert that the, “difference between the probability and non-probability sampling is that, the non-probability sampling does not involve random selection which is a criterion for probability sampling.”

Purposive non-probability sampling was a preferred sampling technique because as a researcher there was a specific purpose for wanting to collect the data from the executive committee and war room beneficiary. The rationale was that the committee is there to make sure that the war room is realizing its objective of encouraging public participation. The purpose of targeting war room beneficiaries was on the fact that the targeted war room is situated within the community to encourage public participation and fast track the delivery of services by sector departments. Barbie and Mouton (2004) assert that, “purposive non-probability allows the researcher to identify and select the targeted population with a purpose in mind.” Targeted respondents were sampled because they are executive members of the war room and those that participated in the focus group are beneficiaries of the war room.

Content analysis as data analyzing technique was used to analyze the collected data. Krippendorff (1980) defined content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context. This is done by identifying common themes and drawing relevant commonalities from the data.

1.7 Scope

The scope of this study was limited to a war room within the Lunenburg community under the eDumbe Local Municipality. Lunenburg is demarcated as ward one under eDumbe Local

Municipality. eDumbe Local Municipality falls under Zululand District Municipality which is located in the northern part of KwaZulu Natal.

1.8 Overview of the research report

Chapter one introduces the research topic, back ground, rationale, objectives, research questions, research design and a methodology as well as the scope of the study and how the thesis is organized in chapters.

Chapter two focuses on a literature review capturing the politics of public participation in South Africa.

Chapter three elaborates on the theoretical and a conceptual framework of citizen participation through which guides this research paper. The chapter also captures debates from prominent researchers and theorists who have largely written about public participation in various fields of development and then a conclusion.

Chapter four presents a discussion of national and legislative mandates for public participation in South Africa generally and extend to highlighting legislated public participation mechanisms such as ward committees, integrated development planning and the role of community development workers and izimbizo to mention but a few. The chapter also discusses limitations experienced by the listed mechanisms and a conclusion.

Chapter five provides an illustrated case study of war rooms as a new public participation mechanism. It highlights public participation mechanisms used by the war room. The chapter also provides a list of supporting structures of the war room and extends to explain their roles as well as a conclusion

Chapter six basically presents the analyses of the collected data, allude to limitations, recommendations and then conclude.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the main literature on the current state of public participation in South Africa, looking at public participation within elements of good governance as well as through decentralized governance.

2.2 The state of public participation in South Africa

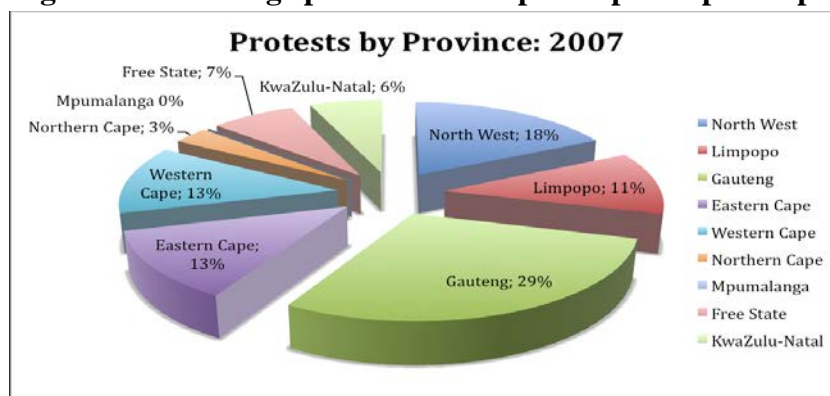
Public participation across all democratic states remains an important aspect of democracy. Nevertheless even though there is consensus of the crucial role it plays, the existing literature indicate that it is still a *missing link* and a political challenge (Mubangizi, 2005). It is a political agenda item that is still not properly implemented yet it carries a potential value towards *deepening* of democracy. Citizens feel excluded and dictated with developmental programs that fail to demonstrate pro poor strategies to responding to their urgent service delivery needs. Smith (2003) acknowledges that some countries have begun to institutionalize public participation as they respond to service delivery gaps and challenges; some are still struggling to achieve a proper implementation of policies that relates to public participation. Karamoko's (2011) research findings have indicated that public participation has been largely replaced by a top-down approach as a strategy of executing or implementing programs that have not be approved by citizens in their geographic settings. The poor implementation of public participation by leaders does not only shackle the tangible grounds of democracy, it discourages the essence of the public policies in place.

Fortuin (2010:55) argued in her research paper that the international development community is claiming that 'without due attention to citizens' rights" to participation in designing and delivering national and local policies and collaborate in decision making, the efforts to achieve elements of good governance and sustainable development risk failure." Mayo (2003) also argues that because "public participation has not been a benefit for citizens the rising groundswell of citizens globally is questioning the equity, integrity and sustainability

of the democratic philosophies, values and institutions inherited from the 20th century.” Karamoko (2011: 45) posits that the groundswell simply means “that democratic pronouncements are being contested. There is an observable continuum of civil disobedience which has increased over time; sit ins, community unrest, uprisings and finally revolutions have marked this first decade of this new age.” People are voicing their disillusionment with increased impatience reactions and violent protests globally calling for the creation of a world which, in Freire’s words (as cited in Mayo, 2003:42), is “menos feio, menos malvado, menos desumano [less ugly, less cruel, less inhumane].

Many research findings depict that in many parts of the world, citizens have been denied spaces for public participation towards development initiatives, and that service delivery provisions have been largely a top-down approach and seemed irrelevant to addressing community social problems and service delivery expectations of citizens at a ward level (Masango, 2002 and Miraftab, 2004). Masango (2002:44) state that challenges of the top down approach have been eminent; citizens have opposed the provisions of service delivery by means of protests and marches because they have not been consulted to participate in the deliberations of such interventions. Citizens are voicing that they have been deprived a right to meaningfully participate in influencing programs that are relevant to their service delivery expectation. Karomoko (2011: 19) state that the failure to integrate citizen’s voices into developmental plans results to uncontrollable protests as it has been evident in the South Africa context.

Figure 1: Percentage presentation of public participation protests



Source: Karamoko (2011:19)

South Africa is in a crisis, in the sense that public participation as an element of participatory governance is still a missing link even in after 20 years into democracy. The *missing link*

suggests that voices of citizens will never be recognized in issues that affect them directly. Several spaces question whether the leading government still struggling through past regress, or whether the period of 20 years is a sign that the ANC government has failed to realize their promises of democracy and of their political manifestos. Cogan, Sharpe and Hertberg, (1986:35) argue that “public participation is not only a constitutional right but it qualifies the consolidation of democracy. Therefore the participation by both men and women is a key cornerstone of good governance.”

2.3 Public Participation with elements of Good Governance

Diamond (1994) state that the notion of good governance is relatively new and “it is defined as the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management a country’s affairs. It encompasses the traditions, institutions and processes that determine how power is exercised, how citizens are given a voice, and how decisions are made on issues of public concern.” Ronald and Henry (2000), cited in Kiwanuka (2012: 50) state that concept of ‘governance’ has been applied to the processes through which public decisions are attained collectively.” Gaventa (2004: 77-88) defined electoral democracy on the basis of its promises to achieve service delivery and promote public participation as a system of good governance, but citizens in most countries, government is still perceive as distant and unaccountable to its citizens.”

In the context of South Africa, with its apartheid history, good governance serve as a corrective measure that seeks to bring government closer to the people and people closer to government. Weiss and Steiner (2006: 149) note that good governance has eight characteristics which will be elaborated below. Public participation will be located within each element.

2.3.1 Participation

As stated already, public participation is an important element of good governance which still remains unrealised. The absence of this indicator of good governance shackles the *consolidation of good governance*. Hemson (2007:66) claims that “participation as the first element of good governance reveals that non-discriminatory participation platforms for both

men and women are a cornerstone of good governance. Participation could either be direct or through a legitimate intermediate institutions or representation. Public participation has an inherent capability to open up opportunities of freedom of association and expression, and also advocate for the establishment of organized civil society.” Diamond (1994: 58) assert that the “legitimation of participation allows for the establishment of civil societies which can be defined as “a pluralist realm of organized social life that is voluntary, self-generating, autonomous from the state, and bound by a legal order or a set of shared rules where people act collectively in a public sphere.”

2.3.2 Rule of law

In principle the rule of law as an important characteristic of good governance translates and requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced fairly and are enjoyed by all citizens. No persons by virtue of any characteristics should be deprived from the opportunity to participate (Gaventa: 2005). However in spite of South Africa’s rich and convincing legislative framework relating to public participation, it is ironic that the citizens are still being excluded in the arenas of decision making. Logically, the rule of explains that existing structures of governance are expected to make sure that democracy and democratic rights and privileges are enjoyed by everyone without fear.

2.3.3 Transparency

Literature in development and in good governance argues that decision making process should be transparent enough in spaces for public participation so that people could see what is about to implemented for their benefit. According to Cheema and Rondinelli (2007: 56) “transparency means that decisions taken and their enforcement are to be done in a manner that follows rules and regulations that are clear to all parties involved.” In a recent research, Karamoko (2011) argued that the South African government is still not yet transparent about its channels of decision making. The absence of the transparency within bureaucracy triggers uncontrollable protests as it has been evident in South Africa across all provinces. Scott (2009) claim that in good governance, decisions should be largely on the by-in of citizens because they are affected by socio-economic problems.

2.3.4 Responsiveness

According to Gaventa (2005: 66) “good governance requires that institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe. The failure to meet this element damages the essence of good governance. Being responsive also means integrating citizen’s voices when tailoring responding development interventions or plans.”

2.3.5 Consensus oriented

This element is evidently absent because South African citizens in the period of 20 years into democracy are still feeling excluded in the development discussions that affect them directly. Protests across all South African provinces convey that government does not collaborate with citizens to reach to a collective decision making. The realization of a consensus in good governance means the acceptance of ideas from all parties to be affected by a final decision. On the flip side MirafTAB (2004) argues that in South Africa spaces and mechanisms are in place but not utilized for public participation to achieve consensus in matters of service delivery. Instead decisions are still taken by “*white collar [workers] in their executive suites.*”

2.3.6 Equity and inclusiveness

Public participation is easy to achieve if it is rooted on equitable levels and where everyone is included (Crow and Allan, 1994). If equity and inclusiveness is attained citizens will begin to feel a sense of belonging. Studies conducted by Karamoko (2011: 19) indicate that this element is still it is lack of equity and inclusiveness that have provoked uncontrollable protests in South Africa. During the protest the anger is prompted by lack of consultation and exclusion during decision making relating to issues of service delivery that affect them directly. Mubangizi (2005) argues that in the context of South Africa there are elements of government institutions attempting to become responsive but the challenge is that they seem to use a top-down approach and in most cases exclude the voices of citizens to influence the responsive agenda. The top-down approach discourages the essence of good government. Citizens feel their voices are excluded in tailoring a responsive developmental agenda.

2.3.7 Effectiveness and efficiency

Scott (2009:45) pointed that “good governance means that processes and institutions should produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best use of resources at their disposal.” Fortuin, (2010) contends that there are limited traces of government being effective in responding to the needs of people. Government institutions are still very far from ensuring efficiency in the delivery of services to people. Karamoko (2011: 20) claim that a large number of protests have also been about questioning government effectiveness in the provision of service delivery and instigating for value for money on the other hand.

2.3.8 Accountability

Diamond (1994) claim that accountability is a key requirement of good governance. Not only in governmental institutions but also the private sector and civil society organizations must be accountable to the public. Accountability cannot be enforced without transparency and the rule of law. Mubangizi (2010) argue that democratic states still lack accountability to their constituencies. He adds that levels of poor accountability or no accountability dent the maturity or the deepening of democracy. Poor accountability on the side of government destroys citizen trust and state legitimacy. This often leads to citizens collaborating to overthrow the government instead of supporting and protecting. It further reduces levels of patriotism and sense of belonging in the process of cementing the process of forming the nation state.

Evidently, South Africa as a democratic country has failed to realize the adequate implementation of this element of good governance. This evident failure of *good governance* pause a major setback for South Africa to become a developmental state.

2.4 Public participation in decentralized governance

The existing literature claims that public participation and decentralized governance has a symbolic relationship. According to Zakari (2012: ix) “decentralization has won global praise for its perceived ability to bring about development with the active involvement of the ordinary people. Decentralization destroys the barrier between electorates and centralized governments by encouraging citizen participation in government decisions making, provided

that the society possesses basic political and civil freedom to express its opinion.” Louis, Rodrigo, and David (2005:5) defines “decentralized governance as a systematic and harmonious interrelationship resulting from the balancing of power and responsibilities between central governments and other levels of government, constituencies, non-government actors, and the capacity of local bodies to carry out their decentralized responsibilities using participatory mechanisms.” Widianingsih (2005:240) state that “decentralization leads to transparency in policies, responsiveness of the policy makers, and accountability of implementers, openness and enhanced flow of information.”

Mubangizi (2010) and Cornwall (2002) asserts that participation and decentralization have a *symbolic* relationship. They continue to state that processes of decentralization enhance opportunities for participation by placing more power and resources closer to constituencies, as these are more familiar and easily influenced level of government. Where there are poor practices of citizen participation, decentralization can be an important first step in creating regular, predictable opportunities for citizen-state interaction.

Samaratungge (1998), Rondinelli and Cheema (1983) agree that the institutionalization of good governance as a form of governance has opened the chance for the public to be involved in decision making processes, where people’s voices are to influence the development agenda and influence change. Reddy (2005) assert that decentralization and good governance are essential parts of sustainable development. Democratic decentralization is vital for the overall development and leads to improved governance and better service delivery, hence improving livelihoods and alleviating poverty.

The above contributions have presented a convincing relationship between public participation and decentralized governance. However, their application in the context of South Africa remains not clearly articulated. Citizens within 20 years into democracy have not fully seen change in their live that ought to be brought by decentralized systems of government. The only evident decentralized form that has affected South Africa is the devolution of powers to three tiers of government. Again, within such tiers of decentralized governance, citizens have not enjoyed fruits of having a sphere of governance that provides support to mechanisms of public participation and effectively respond to their service delivery cries.

2.5 Different types of decentralization

Many forms of decentralisation exist and are worth discussing here in order to identify the different -type that exist for South Africa and how such decentralisation should be designed and implemented. According to Cohen and Peterson (1999) cited in Stanton (2009:31-32) “Decentralization supported by increasing local participation is seen as one aspect of a strategy for ending the inefficient and ineffective heritage of statist-based command economies while downsizing bloated, costly and ineffective public sectors. It is also seen as key to the emergence of responsive local government leaders and more effective service to local clients.”

Cohen and Peterson (1999) cited in Stanton (2009:45) continue to argue that public participation was more than a general feature of good governance, “it was pushed as much for its potential to make the public sector more accountable as for its relationship to democratization.” Grindle (2007:7) stated that “centralized governments were increasingly being criticized for having limited levels of accountability. Decentralization was seen as a means “to redress decades of statist development strategies that had resulted in high levels of corruption in the production of public services. Cheema and Rondinelli (2007) indicate that decentralization can exist politically; administratively and fiscally. These forms are elaborated further in the next sub-sections.

2.5.1 Political decentralization

Political decentralization is one of the main forms and most advocated form of decentralisation, which aim to provide citizens or their elected representatives more power in public decision-making (Cheema and Rondinelli, 2007). Diamond (1994) claim that political decentralization “is often associated with pluralistic politics and representative government, but it can also support democratization by giving citizens, or their representatives, more influence in the formulation and implementation of policies.” Cheema and Rondinelli (2007: 347) continue to assert that “advocates of political decentralization assume that decisions made with greater participation will be better informed and more relevant to diverse interests in society than those made only by national political authorities. The concept implies that the selection of representatives from local electoral jurisdictions allows citizens to know better

their political representatives and allows elected officials to know better the needs and desires of their constituents.”

On the contrary, Karamoko (2007) contends that the large amount of protests which portray South Africa as the state of protest have been primarily because citizens, after several years into democracy, have not enjoyed benefits of this form of decentralization. He states that by virtue of political decentralization often requires constitutional or statutory reforms, the development of pluralistic political parties, the strengthening of legislatures, creation of local political units, and the encouragement of effective public interest groups which has not been enjoyed by citizens.

2.5.2 Administrative Decentralization

According to Holtmann (2000: 131) “administrative decentralization seeks to redistribute authority, responsibility and financial resources for providing public services among different levels of government. It is the transfer of responsibility for the planning, financing and management of certain public functions from the central government and its agencies to field units of government agencies, subordinate units or levels of government, semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations, or area-wide, regional or functional authorities.”

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Mubangizi (2011) and Karamoko (2011) both agree that this form of decentralization has been the weakest form of decentralization which in its implementation has resulted into the abuse of power, which has led to corruption and other forms of misconducts. The high incidents of protests are indicative of corruption by local municipality officials which delay the delivery of services (Karamoko, 2011). Citizens have claimed that administrative decentralization leads to self-enrichment by those within local municipality offices. In his speech as the Secretary General of the Congress of South African Trade Union (COSATU) on the 23rd September 2010, Zwelinzima Vavi was very clear in linking corruption to the

undermining of democracy suggesting that “corruption within government administrative systems threatens the foundation of democracy (www.cosatu.org.za).”

2.5.3 Fiscal Decentralization

According to Cheema and Rondinelli (1983) “financial responsibility remains a core component of decentralization.” Neven (2002:16) state that

.....if local governments and private organizations are to carry out decentralized functions effectively, they must have an adequate level of revenues –either raised locally or transferred from the central government– as well as the authority to make decisions about expenditures. Fiscal decentralization can take many forms: a) self-financing or cost recovery through user charges, b) co-financing or co-production arrangements through which the users participate in providing services and infrastructure through monetary or labor contributions; c) expansion of local revenues through property or sales taxes, or indirect charges; d) intergovernmental transfers that shift general revenues from taxes collected by the central government to local governments for general or specific uses; and e) authorization of municipal borrowing and the mobilization of either national or local government resources through loan guarantees. In many developing countries local governments or administrative units possess the legal authority to impose taxes, but the tax base is so weak and the dependence on central government subsidies so ingrained that no attempt is made to exercise that authority.”

Karamoko (2011) argues that, the Municipal Finance Management Act (Act 56 of 2003) requires citizens to be informed about the spending of municipal finances through various means of communications and public participation mechanisms. However, research on local municipalities seem to show that citizens are either denied access or are not informed and encouraged to exercise their right to financial expenditure by officials within municipalities. The lack of service delivery that citizens complain about and often end in uncontrollable violent protests results from the absence of financial transparency.

On the flip side, there are arguments against decentralisation and sentiments suggesting that the importance of decentralisation to democracy is sometimes overstated. Ntsebeza (2006:67) agreed that indeed, “mechanisms and forms of decentralization to enhance public participation at grassroots levels have been witticism.” As early as the 1980s, at the beginning of the democratization process outside Europe and America, Cheema (1983) cited in Cheema and Rondinelli (1983) boldly contended that decentralization is not a panacea.

Decentralization has its own potential disadvantages as it may not always be efficient, especially for standardized, routine, network-based services. His reasons are that;

- (a) Administrative responsibilities may be transferred to local levels without adequate financial resources and make equitable distribution or provision of services more difficult.
- (b) Decentralization can sometimes make coordination of national policies more complex and may allow functions to be captured by local elites.
- (c) Decentralization can lead to corruption, maladministration and abuse of power.

Acknowledging, that the state of public participation as an element of good governance and decentralized governance is still a *missing link* in the South Africa, the former President Thabo Mbeki cited in Nel and Van Wyk (2003-50) in his speech implicitly acknowledged that “public participation in policy making and in policy implementation is not yet what it should be. He emphasised that the:

... “task that is still awaiting South African government is to defend and further entrench public participation as an important gain of our citizens. In order to build on what we have already achieved as a country. We must work to activate the masses of the people more directly to participate in our systems of governance. We must translate into reality our vision of people-driven processes of change as well as the fundamental principle that the people are their own liberators” (President Thabo Mbeki cited in Nel and Van Wyk, 2003-50).”

On the same note of valuing public participation as a responsibility that needs to be achieved by democratic leaders, the South African President Jacob Zuma at the 14th Nedlac Annual Summit in September 2009, motivated for “a stronger social dialogue which is underpinned by a sense of cooperation and responsiveness. We need as government of South Africa to find new ways of rendering services to the people and prioritize public participation across all developmental agenda across tiers of government (www. Nedlac.org.za).” In 2004, the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC) (as cited in Cornwall and Coelho, 2007: 134) advocated that,

... “the government of South Africa down to the local municipality should provide spaces for public engagement where all people irrespective of race,

gender or physical attribution in their geographical settings will voice their service delivery needs and hold government accountable to service delivery promises.”

From the literature reviewed, it is clear that public participation has been the main *missing link* in of the process of providing relevant services to citizens as we have seen on the media that citizens have embarked on uncontrolled protests. Effective public participation has been highlighted as a major element towards the acceleration of service delivery to citizens and the enhancement of democracy.

2.6 Conclusion

This research is inspired by the recommendations of Siphuma (2009) and Fortin (2010) who suggested the need for continuing in-depth research on mechanisms enhancing public participation and service delivery through partnerships. This research paper looks at public participation through the lenses of war rooms as decentralized spaces for change with specific reference to the Lunenburg community under eDumbe Local Municipality. The core question asks “*To what extent would war rooms distinctively bring about successful public participation that escalates service delivery at a ward level.*” Conclusively, public participation is a constitutional and a democratic requirement to be implemented and enjoyed by citizens. However, in the context of South Africa, the implementation of a public participation driven development agenda still faces many challenges. Beyond this literature review, the following chapter considers public participation within a broad theoretical and a conceptual framework depicting what is public participation and how it should benefit citizens.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the concept of public participation within its broad theoretical and conceptual framework as it is used in South African policy and every day programme implementation. The role of a theoretical framework in social science research is important on the basis that theories are formulated to explain, predict, and understand phenomena and, in many cases, to challenge and extend existing knowledge, within the limits of the critical bounding assumptions (Torraco, 1997: 114-137). Public participation as a concept will be largely delineated within the provisions of a theoretical framework as well as that of a conceptual framework.

3.2 Theory of Citizen Participation

Within a broad theory of citizen participation, Rousseau (1950: 328) argues that, “participation plays an important role in producing rules that are acceptable to all. Without participation, citizens are not free and the state is dead.” Putnam (2000: 338-340) agree that “the theory of citizen participation enables people to engage in social associations, civil organisations that allows individuals to express their interests and demands on government. It makes peoples, individuals and other quiet voices heard.” Schumpeter (1997: 269) assert that “the theory of citizen participation is a vital aspect of democracy because it allows people to have a role to produce a government.” Participatory democrats as indicated by Barber, (1984:67) believe that “citizen participation theory has several functions in democracy such as an educative function, integrative function and contributes to a greater legitimacy of decisions.” According to IAP2 (2013: IV) “public participation means to involve those who are affected by a decision in the decision-making process. According to Cogan, Sharpe and Hertzberg (1986:283) the broad theory of citizen participation specifies benefits to be enjoyed and be accessed by citizens in public participation spaces such as:

3.2.1 Information sharing of ideas on the public issue

The process of sharing of information is important in the functioning of democracy as suggested by Simon (1997:245) who argued that “shared information is a powerful resource and continued to state that an informed society is less chaotic and development driven. He indicates that this benefit appears to portray the first stage within the policy cycle which is problem identification and definition as well identifying items for agenda setting.” Rossi and Freeman (1989:222) claim that when “citizens and stakeholders collaborate they can begin to collectively identify and define social problems such as environmental problems, poverty, air or water pollution, solid waste disposal/landfills, poor sanitations, high crime rates, violent crime, drugs, hate crimes etc. strategies how to respond to such service delivery or social problem concerns.” This clearly indicates that when citizens are informed and allowed to participate in decision making, they can also set both the local and national development agenda as well as be part to solutions for national development.

Angranoff & McGuire (1999) and Hill & Hupe (2002) argue that communication is one important aspect in ensuring adequate implementation of policy objectives. Different levels of communication are to be made accessible to all stakeholders involved. Weiss (1997:27) argue that “in information sharing spaces, the provision of reliable baseline information contribute to tailoring positive and sustainable interventions. If the essence of communication is overlooked developmental plans can result into a failure or a disaster. Policy implementers are to recognize that the process of implementation should be influenced by the responses of those affected by the policy/program to be implemented.”

The South African government must live up to its legislated mandate to provide spaces for meaningful and engaged communities within its constituencies. This is because the constitutions of South Africa specifically state that a development agenda will only gain its legitimacy through the voices of its citizens. Chapter 7 of the constitution of South Africa (1996) mandated local municipalities to establish mechanism through which government and citizens can utilize to discuss and communicate issues that affect citizens in the geographical settings.

3.2.2 Public planning and deliberative decisions

Chazan (1993:14) defines “public participation as a deliberative process through which interested or affected citizens, civil society organizations, and government actors are involved in policy making before a political decision is taken.” By deliberation, it is meant that participation is a process of thoughtful discussion based on the giving and taking reasons of choices. Public participation recognizes the pluralism of aims and values, and enables collaborative problem-solving designed to achieve more legitimacy in a decision. Cohen and Fund (2004) reasons that deliberation and participation are related to the concept of radical democracy which explains that public participation benefits are expected to afford citizens some levels of deliberation or planning engagements. This is done in accordance with the supply and the demand of current services provided and those that are still planned. Rossi and Freeman (1989: 255) claim that when stakeholders, including citizens, collaborate they could begin to prioritize interventions and come up with amicable decisions that are supported by all citizens. Various stakeholders (private and public) can begin to formulate partnerships in order to collectively assist citizens to make a change in their living conditions. Grindle (1997: 255) argue that the legitimation of public participation and the rise of public-private partnerships is the by-product of good governance which is aimed at increasing accountability, professionalism, and reliability in the delivery of public services public private partnerships. Within good governance, PPP’s are alluded to be decentralization strategies of state power to local government, where non-state actors contribute in resolving *wicked problems* that the state is not able to resolve independently and as well to provide technical expertise to deliver public goods and services.

Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002: 51) assert that “the significance of valuing public participation in policy deliberations is that it is an integral element of democratic governance hence *street-level bureaucrats* in many parts of the world in public and in private sectors are held accountable to facilitate public participation.”

Hajer (1995: 199) argues that when groups and stakeholders are collaborating, various learning loops takes place i.e. a single learning loop and a double learning loop. Schon & Rein (1994: 13) argues that in single loop learning, “stakeholders inclusive of citizens can identifying their interdependence and develop more effective way of solving their problem

than they had before. In case where there are intractable problems with no immediate solution that could become satisfactory to all diverse stakeholders, the single loop learning allow citizens and stakeholders to incrementally tackle issues and implement decision/interventions.”

Again Hajer (1995:222) state that “double loop learning may occur and may in fact be the only way to get out of stalemate. In double loop learning, actors involved rethink what it is they want to do in the first place. They may reframe the problem or decide that they need to apply different values or that their interests might be met by something quite different from what they originally anticipated. Actors can discover that the original way they looked at the problem and the values they brought to it should be changed and new objectives outlined. This can happen without the stakeholders changing their interests, which are deeper and more basic such as that of trust, showing empathy, and that the discourse should be authentic, not rhetorical or ritualistic.”

Schon & Rein (1994: 20) expound by saying that “citizen must ensure authenticity as they begin to diagnose and define social problems i.e. what they mean should mean what they say.” Hajer (1995: 223) claims that “to be authentic, a dialogue must meet certain conditions i.e. each speaker must legitimately represent the interest for which he/she claims to speak; each must speak sincerely; each must make statements that are comprehensible to others; and each statement must be accurate.”

The implied understanding gathered from cited theorists mean that proper conceptualization and the operationalization of problems contribute to a proper tailoring of a development agenda. Citizens and service provider collaborate, citizens become clear about what will affect them. Therefore service delivery does not become a give and take set-up, rather a meaningful and relevant tool to addressing the specific needs of citizens. In this regard citizens are empowered to continue to sustain their development even after service providers have pulled out.

3.2.3 Avoidance of protracted conflicts and costly delays

Njenga (2009) and Ntlemeza (2007) share a belief that when citizens' concerns are not given adequate attention, citizens begin to be disillusioned and/or have conflicting debates with their public executives. Njenga (2009: 55) argues that "if public participation is implemented adequately to the satisfaction of all citizens there will be an observable avoidance of protracted conflicts and costly delays."

Contrary to Njenga (2009), Freeman (1984: 39) debates that "this belief is echoes strings of over reliance in public participation as a holistically approach which is perceived to be without any faults." Freeman (1984:44) contends that "it is common that where a group of stakeholders converge in a space their perspectives might differ from one person to the other. It is not that they deliberately start conflicts which incur costly delays in the provision of services, but there are various reasons that provoke conflicts." Freeman (1984:55) claims that "conflict 'is firmly embedded in construction literature and is generally viewed as the starting point for the exploration of disputes and dispute resolution. This means that conflicts are not to be subjected to causing delays but as means of defining matters of concerns adequately enough to achieve sustainability in the implementation of programmes as well as in the process of attaining informed decisions."

Hajer (1995: 230) argues that in order for stakeholders to avoid protracted conflicts and costly delays, "they need to be able to gain trust and collectively agree on the programme of action. All actors involved should give legitimation to the agenda that guides their collaboration." This quote implies that costly delays could be avoided when stakeholders (government and citizens) share a similar vision and clear goals in relation to a development initiative. Citizens become empowered to put measurable indicators in place that will gauge the success or the failure of the opted intervention.

3.2.4 Established trust between the agency and the public

Literature on collaborative governance state that the development of trust between government and citizens is essential for legitimacy of government which often facilitates good service delivery conversations and choices. Hajer (1995) advocated for the establishing trust as a "fundamental element in getting the development agenda tailored and implemented." Bourdieu (1986:248) argues that "trust should be viewed or be seen as an

expression of social connectedness.” Lin (2001: 189) asserts that “community trust relations are an expression (possibly the principal expression) of a community’s capacity to achieve a better quality of life than would otherwise be available if its members acted merely as individuals.” The role of trust is that it makes possible the achievement of community objectives that would not be attainable in its absence (Coleman, 1990:234).

According to Smith (2003: 44) “it is trust that keep stakeholders glued to each other even in times where conflicts and dispute emerge. Through trust, stakeholders are able to converge where it has been dented by arising disputes. It is the trust that entrenches a sense of belonging between the agency and the public.”

These theorists limited themselves and did not address situations where trust has been bruised by historical transitions. They do not talk about copying mechanisms in cases where mistrust between the state and citizen cannot be reversed.

3.2.4.1 Reciprocity

As citizens engage in collaborative dialogue, they develop an understanding of their interdependence, and build up reciprocal relationships that become the glue for their continuing work (Hajer, 2003: 231). Citizens begin to identify transferable skills amongst themselves and mutual exchange of ideas and interventions. They begin to realize that they have a responsibility of making a development intervention meaningful for future generations. Owners of the free land may decide to give up some portions of their land for a development intervention to be executed.

3.2.4 2 Relationships

One of the most important outcomes of deliberative dialogues towards decision making is that new relationships and social capital are built among players (citizens and government) who would not ordinarily talk with one another, much less do so constructively (Schon & Rein, 1994: 15). A good relationship between the state and citizens is a perfect indicator that citizens are happy with their state and there is room that the regime will be consolidated towards fostering a collaborative nation.

3.2.4.3 Learning

Both Hajer (1995) and Schon & Rein (1994) agree that a third crucial outcome of collaborative dialogues is learning. People learned not just by listening or asking questions of the experts, but also by interacting with one another around an issue. To empower a society is to empower the entire nation. An informed group will reason better than the uninformed.

3.2.4. 4 Creativity

Rossi and Freeman (1989) and Hajer (1995) assert that in the effort to solve a problem or find a workable solution, tremendous creativity can be generated within a group. This happens through brainstorming, collaborative scenario building and sharing of ideas that are generated because each member is getting a different and evolving picture of the world as the dialogue continues.

3.2.4.5 Innovation

Bommert (2010) and Borins (2008) in relation to innovation to public policy, illustrate that the persistence of wicked problems prompted innovative forms of collaboration between public and private organizations hence public-private partnerships as ideal innovative strategies to attend to issues of service delivery. Specialized innovative knowledge was therefore needed in order to respond to the complexities of service delivery problems.

Rossi and Freeman (1989: 259) contends that “innovation is a dynamic process that begins during the phases of diagnosing social problems through which problems and challenges are defined, new and creative ideas are developed, and new solutions are selected and implemented. Innovation also takes place when tailoring a possible intervention to the problem.”

3.2.4.6 Reservoir of good will

Cogan, Sharpe and Hertberg (1986:240) suggest that in order to “achieve a reservoir of good will through which one can carry over to future decisions. Citizen participation programs

must: meet legal requirements; clearly articulate goals and objectives; command political support; be an integral part of the decision making structure; receive adequate funding, staff, and time. Identify concerned or affected publics; and delineate clear roles and responsibilities for participants in order to achieve meaningful public participation and be able to reach mutual decisions.” Pfeffer (1992:188) argues that “we need not to forget that reaching a decision is not a clear cut or a cut and dried process. This is because one will need to be mindful of contextual and environment factors within the processes of decision making.”

Pfeffer (1992: 201-205) contends that programme facilitators should make sure that the following impetus consideration become in favor of all parties involved in the decision making process:

3.2.4.6.1 Social acceptance

This spells out that citizens and interest groups should feel that decisions taken reflect their important values, e.g., fairness; equity; consistency and justice.

3.2.4.6.2 Political viability

Stakeholders involved in collaborative discussions should participate without the fear of being threatened. Political viability is achieved when stakeholders have a clear common goal and have gained trust. They may be areas of conflicts as they engage in development discussions but those conflicts are not serving as threats but determinants of legitimizing agenda items for development.

3.2.4.6.3. Technical Correctness

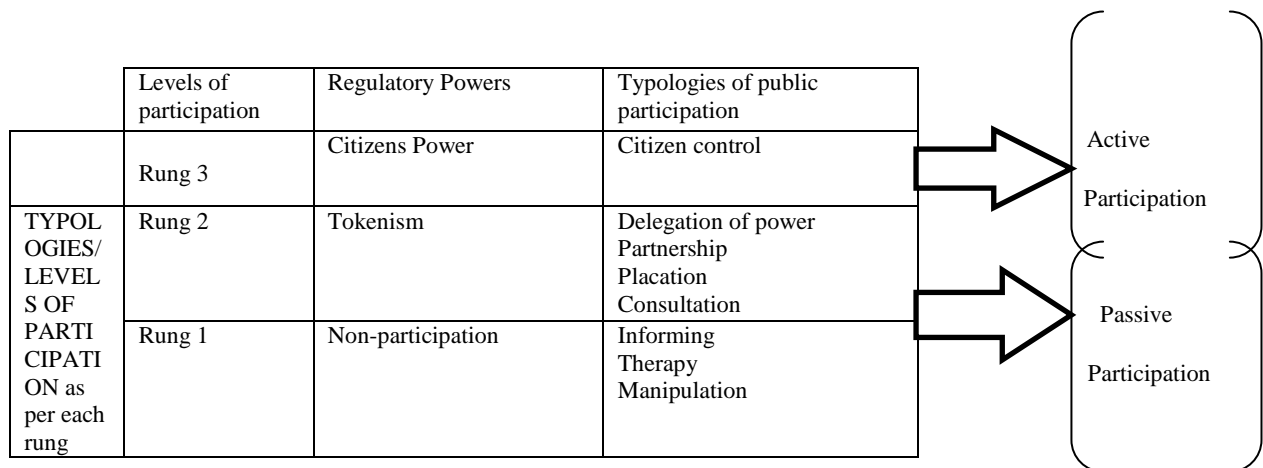
It is essential that public policies meet scientific or technical criteria that have been established to guide or support the decision. Values of individuals; groups and greater society are the foundation of public policy. The challenge of choosing and affirming some values and not others must be acknowledged and discussed openly in a democratic society.

The first part of this chapter concentrated on the broad theory of public participation in a fairly in-depth analysis. This discussion explained that public participation is a fundamental benefit and a right; however the implementation relies on the external and internal contributions. Both the state and citizens have a role to play. Boyte (2005: 537) also claim

that “the conceptions of civic life in democratic societies move from viewing citizens as mere voters, volunteers, clients, or consumers to problem solvers and co-creators of public goods. This implies a growing interest in direct citizen participation in governance.” Kohout (2002: 37) also argues that, “without doubt, citizen participation is essentially for a vivid democracy; no democratic theory can do without the ideal of government of the people.”

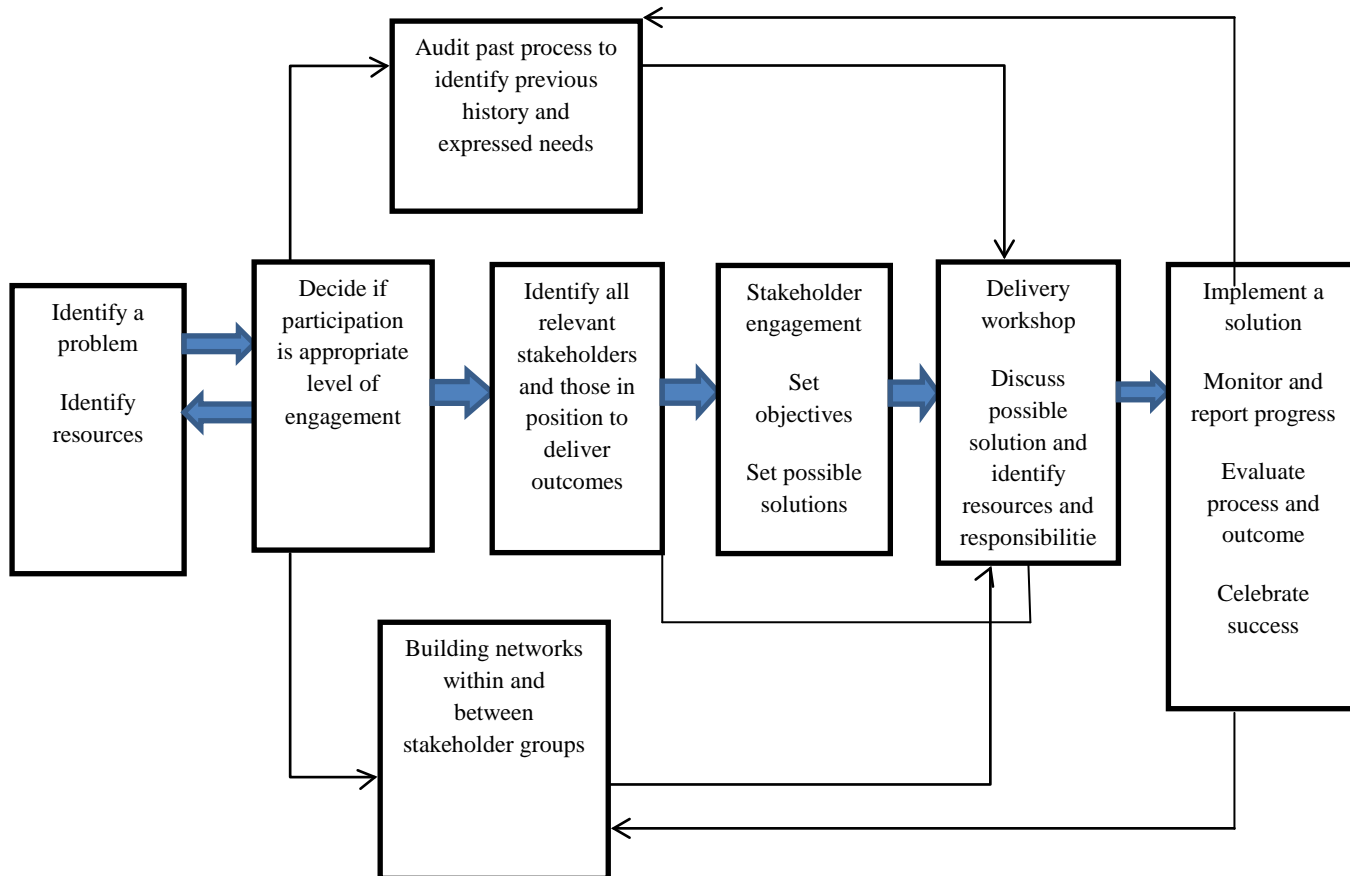
The Public Service Commission for South Africa (2008:4) provided the following typologies of public participation as well as the understanding that is embedded in each and every typology.” Arnstein (1969) debated these typologies in what she calls a ladder of participation.” The following table depicts power relations within public participation typologies.

3.2.4.6.3.1 Figure 2: Understanding typologies of Public Participation



Source Arnstein (1969)

For Richards, Blackstock and Carter (2004:15), the placement of citizens in some rungs of the ladder is not necessarily the results of power that is projected to citizens. The ladder also shows that citizens may decide to place themselves in various rungs for many reasons. This is because public participation is flexible, citizens may decide to engage as and when they find it relevant in the deliberations. The following figure depicts outcome based public participation process.

Figure 3: A Normative Outcome based Public Participatory Process

Source: Richards, Blackstock and Carter(2004)

Richards, Blackstock and Carter (2004: 29) state that the demand for participation reflects broader social trends, particularly the quest for sustainable development, and the support for partnership in shaping a responsive development or a service delivery agenda, resulting from a greater civic voice. Despite the increasing demand for participatory processes/ mechanism as well as legislations or policy frameworks, experience illustrates that following best practice guidance without addressing wider issues of a political context will not guarantee satisfactory outcomes. The above figure shows that the implementation of the theory of citizen participation should be largely embedded on the result based outcome kind of public participation. This is because empowerment is fundamental to participation.

3.2 Conceptualizing Public Participation

From the beginning of this research paper, public participation is illustrated as a legitimate human right as well as an essential element of good governance. Previous chapters also illustrates that the value of a policy/ program to make a difference in people's lives only gains

legitimacy through public participation (Grindle, 1997: 255). In the event where public participation remain a missing link within the debates of policy/program formulation, adoption and implementation, the democratic position of the country becomes doubted (Mubangizi, 2010:45). Scott (2009:57) continues to state that “development plans and policy implementations become irrelevant, chaotic/contested and its processes automatically become flawed.” For this research paper the conceptualization of public participation is important since the research paper specifically looks at the role of public participation within war rooms as decentralized spaces for change to enhance public participation and achieve effective and transversal service delivery for citizens as a ward level.

According to IAP2 (2013: iv) “public participation means to involve those who are affected by a decision in the decision-making process. It promotes sustainable decision by providing participants with information they need to be involve in a meaningful way, and it communicates to participants how their inputs affect the decision.” In the context of monitoring and evaluation where the performance and the accountability of the government is under the scope, Nickson (2011: 12) defines “citizen participation as a way of improving performance in service delivery by introducing greater transparency into municipal resource allocation as to better reflect the broad interests of the population.”

Creighton (2005: 17) delineates “public participation as a process through which public concerns, needs, and values are incorporated into governmental and corporate decision making. It is a two-way communication and interaction, with the overall goal of better decision making that are supported by the public.”

Mubangizi (2010: 67) argue that “Public participation creates a new link between the public and the decision-makers in a bureaucracy. At most basic level, public participation is a way of ensuring that those who make decisions that affect people life’s have a dialogue with the public before making decisions. For the perspective of constituencies, public participation increases their influence on the decisions that affect their lives.”

Creighton (2005: 18) state that that “from the perspective of government officials, public participation provides means through which contentious issues can be resolved by citizens collectively. Public participation is a way of challenging these differences into genuine

dialogues among people with different points of view. It is a way of ensuring genuine interaction and a way of reassuring the public that all viewpoints are being considered”.

The contributions cited above by many theorists explain that the theory of citizen participation, advocate that citizens do not only become beneficiaries/ recipients but they become influencers as well as drivers of the programme that will respond to their living conditions. It has been argued that:

.....”if this is to happen, public participation becomes a normative outcome based mechanism. Citizens begin to claim democracy as an ideal intervention that bridges the gap between citizens and government. It is this gap that triggers an uncontrollable anger that citizens have shown towards the government in countries where citizens feel excluded in participatory governance. Public participation becomes meaningfully defined and accelerates citizens to the top rung of citizen participation ladder where citizens have been given spaces to gain full control (Richards, Blackstock and Carter 2004: 33).”

Many theorists have argued on numerous accounts that public participation is an integral part of democracy. Brynard (1996: 53) cited in Scott (2009) adopted the definition of democracy suggested by Ranney (1971: 76) where democracy is defined as “a form of government organized in accordance with the principles of popular sovereignty, political equality, popular consultation and majority rule.” If normative beliefs of this definition are implemented the government gets closer to the citizen. There are no “us and them referrals”, citizens and the government in planning collaborate and begin to use “we” as the centre of deliberations.

The World Bank (cited in Bucuss et al. 2007: 6) quoted from Njenga (2009: 29) further defines public participation as “a process through which stakeholders (planners, government and citizens) influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and the resources which affect them.”

Mubangizi (2010) complimented Njenga’s (2009) definition by stating that “the significance of this definition by the World Bank is that it highlights the notion of power with regards to participation in development processes. This definition suggests that power relations should be well defined and be equally distributed to all stakeholders involved be it constituencies and government. It extends to recommend that communities should not only have influence

over decisions but should also have the power to control their development.” It suggests that when people feel involved, they accept the development as theirs.

Davids (2005: 15-29) emphasises that public participation is “an inclusive process aimed at deepening democracy through formal participatory mechanisms”. The South African Public Service Commission (PSC) report (2008: 2) proposes that:

“the involvement of citizens in matters of service delivery is important in a democratic society. PP is a mechanism for entrenching democracy and it promotes social cohesion between government and the citizens, particularly in the provision of quality and sustainable services. People, both as citizen and consumers of services should be allowed and be encouraged to express their views on governance and service delivery matters. Linear communication occurrences are discouraged both bottom uppers and top-downers find a common ground for collaborative dialogues.”

Lemieux (2000) cited in Phillips and Orsini (2002:4) assert that “good governance is due to the change of mind set from vertical to horizontal governance which required collaboration with government to create space and mechanisms for citizens to play a meaningful role in public decision-making. Vertical government was seen more rigid, with no room for government collaborating with citizens.”

Agranoff and Mc Guire (1999: 20-25) cited in Njenga (2009: 30) contends that “structures of interdependence involving multiple organizations or parts thereof, where one unit is not merely the formal subordinate of the other in some larger hierarchical arrangements. In horizontal governance, negotiations and consensus are seen as important factors in the policy implementation process.” As argued by Bourgault and Lapierre (2000:234):

... “horizontal governance is an umbrella term that covers a range of approaches to policy development, service delivery issues, and management practices. It replaces hierarchical leadership with collaboration, coordination, shared responsibility for decisions and outcomes, and a willingness to work through consensus Horizontal governance embodies core values of public participation.”

This research paper adopts the definition of the IAP2 (2008) which considers public participation as “the involvement of those who are affected by a decision in the decision-

making process.” The IAP2 listed some core values of public participation as listed in 3.4.1 below.

3.4.1: Core Values for Public Participation

- Public participation is based on the belief that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process.
- Public participation includes the promise that the public’s contribution will influence the decision.
- Public participation promotes sustainable decisions by recognizing and communicating the needs and interests of all participants, including decision makers.
- Public participation seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision.
- Public participation seeks input from participants in designing how they participate.
- Public participation provides participants with the information they need to participate in a meaningful way.

Source: International Association for Public Participation (IAP2:2008).

Sithole (2005: 4) cited in Siphuma (2009:51) also state that there are benefits in public participation as it:

- Helps to address the concerns of all interested and affected parties.
- Encourages citizen-focused service delivery.
- Brings citizens closer to the designing and shaping of local public services.
- Develops a clear sense of direction for communities.
- Facilitates the utilization of a whole range of resources in the community.
- Identifies alternatives to be considered when addressing issues.
- Improves government credibility with the public.
- Reduces levels of misconceptions/information about programmes/service delivery.
- Create a better understanding of a development/service delivery agenda and its objectives.

3.5 Public Participation time-line in South Africa

The existing literature on public participation state that prior to the 1994 elections in South Africa, the apartheid government blocked all forms of public participation especially among the black communities. Race served as an element that rated white people more superior, more deserving than black people who were regarded as inferior. It is to be noted that in South Africa during the apartheid era as well in a democratic context, citizens still believe that their collaborative movements and voices should be heard.

Williams (2006: 198-199) claims that “the understanding of public participation in South Africa is informed by a memory of community struggle --- a radical form of participation---- against the racist apartheid state and the delays in the provisions of promised service delivery in the democratic context. Community participation in South Africa can be divided into six interrelated phases.”

The relevance of the following community/public participation time-line in this research paper is provided to honor the extent through which public protests as a radical mechanism for public participation has played an important role in lobbying for a radical change in the manner in which the state had perceived citizens. The time line provides a track record of the voices of citizens demanding change and wanting to be integrated in the decisions that affect them directly and indirectly. The following time line is quoted from (Williams, 2006: 198-199).

- 3.5.1 The **pre-1976** period: resembles a strategically dormant participatory phase where the largely passive dream of liberation within unspeakable forms of operation and exploitation resulted in imaginary spaces of participation.
- 3.5.2 The **1977-1983** periods; marked the death of Steve Biko in September 1977 which signaled the need not only for community organization and mobilization at the grassroots level, but also community control. Hence, in subsequent years, the multi space of community organizations and mobilization throughout South Africa especially after the 1980's, eventually culminated in the birth of the United Democratic Front (UDF). The UDF claimed operational spaces against the Apartheid State throughout South

Africa, sustaining community forms of liberatory struggles at the street and in neighborhood levels, often in the name of the banned liberation movements such as the African National Congress (ANC).

- 3.5.3 The **1984- 1989** period: was characterized by an intensifying struggle against apartheid state from the local to the international arenas, resulting in a range of divestment campaigns and cultural boycotts aimed at any sector connected to the Apartheid State. This period resembled a phase of un-governability throughout South Africa.
- 3.5.4 The **1990-1995** period: largely featured by the legitimization of liberation movements and the beginning of consensual politics of negotiation leading to the negotiated settlement of an range of promissory spaces of participation such as the 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the 1996 Constitution of South Africa. The former was the outcome of public participation/ community participation and the latter established the public right to participate in local government planning programmes.
- 3.5.5 The **1996-2000** period: represented the needs for visible, experientially significant forms of social change that gave rise to the establishment of various types of 'development' partnerships mediated by socio-historical relations of power and trust resulting in largely truncated spaces of participation.
- 3.5.6 The **2000-2004** period: interpreted democratic practices based on an experiential index of the past ten years since the birth of democratic Republic of South African (RSA) in 1994 from the euphoria of democracy to disappointment, from generative hope to existential despair: hence the birth of transformative spaces such as Treatment Action Campaign, Jubilee 2000 and a myriad of other local initiatives that seek to democratize the politically liberated spaces in South Africa.

The time-line highlights that public participation in most instances is driven by a specific agenda that seek to ensure a *better life for all* especially for those who have been historically marginalized during the apartheid era in South Africa.

Conyers (1990:34) argue that “decentralized governance is produced by good governance who advocate for inclusion, transparency in planning and in implementing processes. Conyers (1990) research findings found that more than 62 developing countries have been implementing decentralization processes which basically offer ‘open spaces’ for community people to be involved in planning development processes and in decision making.”

Equally, Cheema & Rondinelli (1983:14), Samaritungge (1998:2) argue that “benefits of public participation in planning cut the gap between local authority and community”. Cheema & Rondinelli (1983:14) state that “decentralized planning, is believed to overcome all the limitations created by centralized planning where citizens were excluded and decisions that affect them are made by *white collars* in the executive suites.” Benefits of participatory planning identified by Rondinelli (1981: 135-136) are:

- Accommodating local need: people shape their service delivery/ development agenda.
- Cutting bureaucracy process: there process of the delivery of services is known and understood by citizens
- Creating more effective and realistic planning: citizens participate in the tailoring/planning of developmental programmes that would affect them.
- Giving greater political and administrative effect to remote areas: citizens begin to prioritizes areas which need immediate interventions within the list of their service delivery needs.
- Greater representation in policy making process: everyone within the community is involved and represented.
- Greater administrative capability for local government in managing development,
- More efficient, political dynamics, controlling decision making process: citizens begin to be politically informed and are able suggest innovating and creative administration strategies that will effectively and efficiently respond to their situations.

- Local leaders can locate services and facility more effectively: this is where citizens and stakeholders begin to map existing resources and facilities within the community that could be used to enhance service delivery.

3.6 Public Participation spaces as forms of decentralized governance.

Chapter two, above, provided fundamental elements of good governance which illustrated that decisions should be in favor of citizens because they are largely affected by socio-economic problems and that it is their constitutional rights that their voices should be integrated in development planning.

Wampler and Avritzer (2004) assert that “participatory institutions allow existing civil societies (CSOs) and “participatory publics” to enter into the formal policy making process. “Participatory publics” consist of citizens and CSOs who mobilize themselves around democratic values and then promote the adoption of state institutions that mirror these new practices. When participatory programs are institutionalized, citizens begin to see the creation of “participatory governance publics.”

Cornwall (2002: 25) argues that:

....”across the world, as new democratic experiments meet with and transform older forms of governance, political space for public engagement in governance appears to be widening. A renewed concern with rights, power and difference in debates about participation in development has focused greater attention on the institutions at the interface between publics, providers and policy makers adding that] some opportunities would cast the move towards more direct forms of citizen engagement in governance as a means of addressing the “democratic deficit” by strengthening liberal democratic institutions: urging politicians to listen more to those who elect them and bureaucrats to become more responsive to those they are meant to serve.”

Prominent theorists such as Fung and Wright (2003) as well as Hajer and Wagenaar (2003) suggest that public participation constitute a more radical reconfiguration of relationships and responsibilities, one that extends beyond citizen–state interactions to encompass complex alliances of actors and networks across permeable institutional boundaries and an expanded vision of the public domain. It is through collaboration of all actors where agenda items gain legitimacy for adoption and implementation.

Cornwall (2002:30) elaborates that to “think about participation as a spatial practice highlights the relations of power and constructions of citizenship that permeate any site for public engagement. He goes on to define “a space as a concept rich with metaphor as well as a literal descriptor of arenas where people gather, which are bounded in time as well as dimension. A space can be emptied or filled, permeable or sealed; it can be an opening, an invitation to speak or act Cornwall (2002:31-33).”

Brock, Cornwall and Gaventa (2001:37) inform that “spaces can also be clamped shut, voided of meaning, or depopulated as people turn their attention elsewhere”. According to Cornwall (2002:34) “invited spaces serves to convey the origin of many intermediary institutions provided by government whether in response to popular demand, donor pressure or shifts in policy. Some are more transient in character policy moments where public space is opened up for deliberation or communication, before being closed again as authorities return to business as usual.”





Gaventa (2005:39) also state that “other invited spaces are more durable, often taking the shape of regularized institutions modeled on enduring templates such as the welter of co-management committees and user groups that have proliferated in the wake of sector reforms.” Cornwall (2002:36) argue that “the second set of spaces we have come to call “popular spaces”, allow citizen come together at their own instigation/initiating – whether to protest against government policies or the interventions of foreign powers, to produce their own services or for solidarity and mutual aid.” Gaventa (2005:40) continue to state that “popular spaces may be regularized, institutionalized in the form of associations or groups; they may also be transient expressions of public dissent, as passions about the issues that bring people together wax and wane.” Lastly, Cornwall (2002:55) argue that “boundaries between “invited” and “popular” spaces are mutable, rather than fixed; “popular spaces” can become institutionalized, with statutory backing, and “invited spaces” may become sites for the articulation of dissent, as well as for collaboration and compromise.”

3.7 Dynamics of participation in “invited spaces”

Cornwall (2002: 234) maintains that much is expected of arenas for participation such as to involve those who lack presence or voice in conventional political arenas. The resources to engage and a feeling of belonging; mattering; and of being able to contribute or gain, continues to present an enduring challenge.” Njenga (2009:30) argue that “some citizens are still being restrained from becoming visible participants. Power is still used to place citizens within lower rungs of the ladder of public participation.”

Gaventa (2005) emphasizes that all spaces for public participation should ensure adequate implementation of the following ladder of participation which differs from that of Arnstein (1996). The following figure reflects how Gaventa (2005) postulate the implementation of public participation within spaces of participation.

3.7.1 Figure 4: The Ladder of Participation in Spaces for Public Participation

Citizen control	Street-level bureaucrats should facilitate that citizen’s do what they want
	
Joint action	Government and citizens should not only decide together but should also implement decisions together
	
Joint Decision Making	Government should encourage citizens to provide options and jointly decide the best way forward.
	
Consulting	Government should offer a number of options, take feedback, justify and communicate final decisions which have been collectively approved by citizens and government
	

Informing	Citizens should be constantly informed, let citizens know what is planned for them so that they may suggest change or make priorities
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Source: (Gaventa: 2005):

Supporting a vital contribution from Gaventa (2005) ladder of public participation, Meyer and Theron (2000:3) cited in Siphuma (2009:44) maintain that, ‘public participation should indeed be an all-inclusive concept that can be distinguished through approaches such as means to an end rather than simply by definitions.’ Meyer and Theron (2003:44) further argue that “participation as a means to an end is largely based on a social learning process and it is considered necessary for the success of an initiative.” In this regard, Meyer and Theron (2003:46) maintain that the “participation of communities is considered necessary for, among others, improving the outcome of a project/programme through cost sharing, increased efficiency and improved effectiveness.” They also claim that:

... “if public participation is used as an end in itself, beneficiary participation gives legitimacy to projects through endorsing a political imperative. In this way, participation is seen as an objective whose accomplishment symbolizes a more qualitative than quantitative achievement. As a result, the primary concern becomes not what public participation contributes to an end product, but what long-term gains are made to social advantages and sustainable development (Meyer and Theron, 2003: 47).”

3.8 Figure 5: The public participation means and end schema

Participation as a means	Participation as an end
Implies the use of participation to achieve some predetermined goal or objective. The agenda as a responsive strategy is clear and known by everyone involved.	Attempt to empower people to participate in their own development more meaningfully. The intervention made by government is not to create levels of dependency but to empower citizens to be the drivers of their development which could then lead to intervention being sustained and relevant to

	the people.
Attempts to utilize existing resources in order to achieve the objective of programme/service delivery. The identification of resources is undertaken during the design effects of the programme that is to respond perfectly to the living conditions of citizens in their geographic areas.	Attempts to ensure the increased role of people in development. Citizens don't become passive participants rather they become active participants in the delivery of programmes/services that are to change their living conditions.
Emphasises achieving the objective rather than the act of participation. The participation of citizens should have a positive impact. The participation should result in tangible outcome based evidence.	Focuses on improving the ability of the people to participate rather than just achieving the predetermined objectives of the programme/service. Citizens are constantly being empowered with adequate skills while participating in the programme so that by the time the external stakeholders pull out, citizens would have empowered to continue with the implementation of the programme in a sustainable manner.

Source: Theron (2005c: 117) cited in Siphuma (2009: 44)

3.9 Public participation challenges

The South African Public Service Commission (2008: 11) report argue that while the global drive towards promoting public participation holds considerable promise and benefits for sustainable development, the implementation of public participation approaches is not without challenges. According to Sisk (1996:101), the World Bank research report on public participation identified the following key barriers to effective public participation in planning which are commonly experienced by both developed and still developing countries:

1. *Lack of government commitment to adopting a participatory approach:* Public participation is often seen as a time consuming process.

2. *Unwillingness of the project officials to give up control over project activities and directions:* Officials are often not receptive and do not acknowledge the importance of citizens' views. This is because officials consider themselves experts in their field.

3. *Lack of incentives and skills among project staff to encourage them to adopt a participatory approach:* Public participation requires a set of skills amongst officials to be able to interact with diverse communities and understand dynamics of the society. Without incentives, officials do not go an extra-mile to involve the public. Lack of community engagement skills also compromises effective public participation.

4. *Limited capacity of local-level participation and insufficient investment in community capacity building:* Community members require information about available platforms for participation. They need to be capacitated on how to get involved in matters that affect their lives so that they appreciate the importance thereof and make a meaningful contribution.

5. *Participation starting too late:* Often communities are not involved at the beginning of programmes or projects, they are only brought on board when development initiatives have not succeeded in order to manage the crisis and rectify the processes.

6. *Mistrust between government and communities:* lack of transparency and openness often disrupts public participation. Due to past experiences, certain communities have lost trust in government departments.

It is important that the above-mentioned barriers are considered when designing any public participation initiative, in order to avoid them. Public participation should not be seen as an act of kindness by government and citizens (Sisk, 1996:102). These challenges have been cited to inform that while public participation is portrayed as an important catalyst to bring about positive change, there are challenges which one can learn from and be able to avoid in future public participation deliberations.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided a theoretical and philosophical framework within which public participation is considered in South African policy and practice. It provided a credible base on what is public participation and what public participation should achieve for citizens. The importance of this particular chapter motivate to looking into the legislative mandates (chapter four) that seek to institutionalize public participation where it will also be seen if there is a gap between the theory and the implementation of public participation. Both the theoretical and a conceptual framework have also empowered the researcher with valuable information to diagnose if war rooms are real decentralized spaces for change that are able to enhance public participation and achieve transversal service delivery at a ward level.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK ON PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 Introduction

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996 No. 108 of 1996) requires institutions of state to ensure that they mainstream public participation in all government programmes. Lately, the integration of citizen's voices in tailoring development agenda remains a fundamental catalyst. An agenda that is not influenced by citizen's voices is rated as void and not as a specific response to the specific needs of citizens. This chapter explores the broad scope of public participation in the legal and policy framework of the republic. The chapter will also establish and elaborate on existing mechanisms that are institutionalized to bring about effective public participation at a ward level. Lastly, the chapter will highlight challenges that arise within mechanisms of public participation and then provide a conclusion.

4.2 Historical traces of public participation legislative mandates in South Africa

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, the South African Legislatures has been focused on repealing unconstitutional laws; passing transformatory laws; building democratic and transparent legislatures responsive to the demands of the transformation agenda; and overseeing the establishment on new institutions to promote democracy and human rights. Strong emphasis was placed on the role of lawmaking. [<http://www.sals.gov.za>]

In the second South African decade of democracy, the focus shifted to the effective implementation of policies and laws, and overseeing delivery on the ground. In the 3rd democratic parliamentary term (2004-2009) there was an active move towards strengthening the core functions by developing strong oversight and public participation strategies within the Legislative Sector in line with its constitutional mandate (Mubangizi, 2010). The overt intention is to enable the transformation of South Africa into becoming a representative and a democratic state. The South African Public Commission Report (2008:4) puts it clear that "given our past, where prior to 1994, the practice of critical engagement between citizens and government was frowned upon by an insular and self-perpetuating state, the new democratic government emphasized the need for critical engagement between itself and its citizens."

Putting policies in place is one of the characteristics of good governances that were extensively discussed in chapters two and three of this research paper.

Davids (2005: 19) cited in Fortuin (2010: 16) contends that “the first South Africa’s first democratically elected government of 1994 adopted people-centred development in the Reconstruction and Development programme as a means to deal with injustice of past development efforts.” As stipulated with the constitution of South Africa, the South African government is committed to a form of participatory governance which is genuinely empowering, and not a token consultation or manipulation. South Africa has therefore enshrined the participation of citizens in development initiatives through legislative and policy. A trend that is evident across literature is that public participation is contextualized across the globe. In the late 1990s, when local government legislation was first promulgated by the post-apartheid state in South Africa, such legislation contained policies not only for economic growth and New Public Management but also for participatory governance. These policies were, in turn, influenced by the “third way” thinking of the time that originated in the United States and United Kingdom (Harrison 2006a, van Donk and Pieterse 2006). Third way politics accepted the basic principles of neoliberalism—conservative fiscal and monetary policies, welfare-to-work policies, and commitments to privatization—but it also emphasized the state’s social obligations to enable community building, poverty alleviation, and citizen involvement in policy making (Harrison 2006a).

Calland, (1990: 61) declared that “the RSA constitution affirm that public participation is a cornerstone of democratic government. The National Policy Framework for Public Participation (2007: 5) defines “public participation as the participation of all residents of a country including citizens and non-citizens, in the decision-making process of all three spheres of government.” While Minister of Provincial and Local Government, Minister Mufamadi (2002) quoted in the NPFPP (2007: 7) pronounced that:

“Government does not only view public participation as an end in itself. Rather the purpose of participation is the very essence of a people-centred approach to development. In this context communities should not be viewed as passive participants but as active agents of change and development. Participation processes should develop people to become more resourceful themselves in as much as it should be aimed at ensuring that services and infrastructure delivery is enhanced through public participation”.

The pronouncement by the former Minister Mufamadi illustrate that by virtue of being South African citizens (including the weak, the vulnerable, the illiterate, and the disabled), citizens have equal rights to participate in policy decisions that affect them directly. It is the duty of community or local leaders to create a welcoming, enabling and conducive platform for all citizens and to make sure that they embrace a sense of belonging-beyond episodic participation at election time.

4.3 The roots of public participation within the South African Constitution

The notion of public participation in South Africa is embedded within the constitution (Siphuma,2009). When the democratically elected government came to power in 1994 in South Africa, it dedicated its effort on transforming and developing decentralized institutions, to create an enabling environment for public participation (Nyalunga, 2006:3). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa is underpinned by the principles of good governance. As highlighted earlier, public participation is an essential element of successful good governance. Without proper implementation of public participation, the democracy of the country will not be deepened. Diamond (1999) proposes that democracy actually becomes deepened only when democratic regimes have provided and guaranteed competitive political institutions; attended to constrains on political power; ensured equal and inclusive participation; and protected citizens political and civil rights.

The South African PSC Report (2010:2) highlight that the principle behind public participation is that all people affected by a public authority's decision or action have a right to be consulted and contribute to such decision. Within the report the importance of public participation is captured in Section 195 (1)(e) of the Constitution¹, which states that "people's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policymaking." Sections 59, 72 and 118 of the Constitution further mandate both the national and provincial levels of government to facilitate public participation. The involvement of citizens in policy-making and implementation is important to strengthen and deepen democratic governance. It is through active public participation that evidence-based policy-making and responsive service delivery can take place.

4.4 National and Provincial legislative provisions of public participation

In terms of the devolution and decentralization of power, South African government is located at three broad tiers; national, provincial and municipal (district and local). At all these sites of service delivery and governance, the participation of the citizens is considered sacrosanct. As such, the South African Constitution addresses and provides for public participation at each of the tiers of government. For instance, sections 59, 72 and 118 charge both houses of the National Parliament and all provincial legislatures with the responsibility of facilitating public participation. There are also other constitutional provisions that allow for parliamentary processes to be open and transparent:

- Section 17: state that everyone has the right, peacefully and unarmed, to assemble, to demonstrate, to picket and to present petitions.
- Section 59 (1): illustrate that the National Assembly must enable and facilitate public involvement in the legislative and other processes of the Assembly and its Committees.
- Section 70 (b): promulgate that the National Council of Provinces may: make rules and orders concerning its business, with due regard to representative and participatory democracy, accountability, transparency and public involvement.
- Section 72 (1) (a): requires that the National Council of Provinces must: facilitate public involvement in the legislative and other processes of the council and its Committees
- *Section 118 (1)* makes provision for the public to have access to provincial legislatures and to be involved in legislative processes. It states that provincial legislatures must facilitate such public involvement. It also maintains that legislatures must conduct their business in an open manner and may only block access on reasonable grounds.

It is therefore clear that the South African Constitution is informative on how levels of government cannot operate outside public participation. One can suggest that an attempt to

handle the affairs of government outside participatory framework is unconstitutional and therefore undesirable and a threat to democracy.

4.5 Local government legislative provisions of public participation

Davids (2005c: 20) cited in Siphuma (2009:54) assert that “the South African government has implemented an impressive number of statutes dealing with local government that demands public participation in municipal decision making, planning and finance.”

4.5.1 Local Government and the Constitution (No. 108 of 1996)

Chapter 7 Section 152 of the RSA Constitution (no. 108 of 1996) stipulate objectives of local government among which encourage public participation:

- a. to encourage the involvement of communities and civil society organizations in the matters of local government.

This constitutional provision enforces transparency and accountability on the level of local municipality to their constituencies. When local municipalities fail to properly implement this provision, it spell out that the operations of municipalities are not democratic and fail to realize elements of participatory governance.

4.5.2 The Municipal Systems (Act 32 of 2000)

Chapter 4 of the Municipal Systems Act, (sections 16-22) is entirely devoted to community participation and addresses the following aspects:

- development of a culture of community participation;
- mechanisms, processes and procedure for community participation;
- communication of information concerning community participation;
- public notice of meetings of municipal councils;
- admission of public to meetings;

Section 17 (2) of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000), suggests that a municipality must establish appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures to enable the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality subsection (3) further

provides that, when establishing mechanisms, processes and procedures in terms of subsection (2), the municipality must take into account the special needs of:

- People who cannot read or write;
- People with disabilities; and
- Women; and other disadvantaged groups.

Section 4 of the Systems Act state that the council has the duty:

- Encourage the involvement of the local community;
- To consult the community about the level of quality, range and impact of municipal services provided by the municipality, either directly or through another service provider

In section 5, members of the community have the right;

- To contribute to the decision-making processes of the municipality and submit written or oral recommendations, representation and complains to the municipal council;
- To be informed of decisions of the municipal council;
- To a regular disclosure of the affairs of the municipality, including its finance.

Section 5 of the Systems Act addresses the rights and duties of members of the local community and provides as follows:

(1) Members of the local community have the right –

(a) Through mechanisms and in accordance with processes and procedures provided for in terms of this Act or other applicable legislation to –

(i) To Contribute to the decision-making process of the municipality; and

(c) To be informed of decisions of the municipal council, or another political structure or any political office bearer of the municipality, affecting their rights, property and reasonable expectations;

Section 6 of the Systems Act addresses the duties of the municipal administration and provides as follows:

(b) The administration of a municipality must-

(d) Establish clear relationships, and facilitate co-operation and communication between it and the constituencies;

- (e) Give members of the local community full and accurate information about the level and standard of municipal services they are entitled to receive, and
- (f) Inform the local community how the municipality is managed, of the costs involved and the persons in charge.

Section 42 of the Municipal Systems Act (2000) states that: A municipality through appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures established in terms of Chapter 4, must involve the local community in the development, implementation and review of the municipality's performance management system, and, in particular, allow the community to participate in the setting of appropriate key performance indicators and performance targets for the municipality.

The emphasis of the Act demonstrates that public participation deepens democracy by recognizing their rights as citizens within the country and again allowing constituencies to have a direct say in a range of decisions that affect them directly. The failure to properly implement this act, simply spells out that, in a long run the consolidation of democracy will be contested. Citizens will not find democracy as the only game in town.

4.5.3 Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations, (2001)

There is a close connection between the Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations and the Municipal Systems Act. The Act requires that a municipality must involve the community in setting indicators and targets and reviewing municipal performance.

Section 15 of the Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations further says that if there are no other municipal-wide structures for community participation, a municipality must establish a forum. The forum must be representative and enhance community participation in the IDP. In addition the forum must enhance public participation in monitoring, measuring and reviewing municipal performance.

This regulation lobbies for a people-centered agenda which guide the performance of municipalities when rendering services to its citizens. It discourages municipalities to thumb suck programmes and make decisions on behalf of citizens without consulting them directly.

4.5.4 The Promotion of Access to Information Act (2000)

This Act gives people the right to get access to all kinds of government information that were previously hidden from the public. It spells out that if your rights or access to government services are affected by a public service decision or a government or municipal policy, you have the right to see the information that government used to make those decisions. The Act is meant to protect people against corruption and unfair action by government and should make government more transparent and accountable.

Furthermore, this Act seeks to discourage secrets within the operations of municipalities in relation to how they spend allocated public funds. It seeks to alert citizens about cases of corruption and maladministration that happen within local municipalities. It allows citizens to hold their local municipalities and government accountable on their promises to bring timeous delivery of services.

4.5.5 The Municipal Structures (Act 117 of 1998)

Chapter 2 (Section 19) of the Act requires a municipality to strive, within its capacity, to achieve the objectives set out in Section 152 of the Constitution, namely to:

- Develop mechanisms to consult the community and community organisations in performance of its functions and exercising its powers,
- Annually review the needs of the community and municipal priorities and strategies for meeting those needs and involving the community in municipal processes.

Chapter 4 (Part 4) is the section of the Act that requires the establishment of ward committees. The objective is to enhance participatory democracy in local government.

The provisions of this Act are to create an enabling environment or the institutionalization of spaces for public participation at the heart-beat of communities. The intended outcome is to improve service delivery by bridging the gap between the respective communities and the municipal structures. The result of not realizing provisions of this Act promulgates that public participation is still remain a missing link at local government level. The service or a developmental service delivery agenda still excludes the voices of people who will be affected by such decisions. The proper realization of the provisions of this Act with mean that participatory governance has been achieved and there is a room for deepening democracy.

4.5.6 The White Paper on Local Government (1998)

In section B paragraph 3.3 provides a clear guidance on how municipalities had to work with citizens. Municipalities require active participation by citizens at four levels:

- As voters – to ensure maximum democratic accountability of the elected political leadership for the policies they are empowered to promote.
- As citizens who express, via different stakeholder associations, their views before, during and after the policy development process in order to ensure that the policies reflect community preferences as far as possible.
- As consumers and end-users, who expect value-for-money, affordable services and courteous and responsive service.
- As organized partners involved in the mobilisation of resources for development via for-profit businesses, non-governmental organisations and community-based institutions.

This Act holds government accountable to institutionalize mechanism and spaces of interactions which bridge the gap between government and citizens. Through these mechanisms and spaces, citizens begin to collectively voice their concerns in public affairs that affect them directly.

4.6. Batho Pele Principles enforcing public participation

According to the Batho Pele Handbook (2003: 8) quoted from www.dpsa.gov.za/batho-pele/docs. “Batho Pele is derived from the Sesotho name which means ‘People First’”. It is the name given to the government’s initiative to improve the delivery of public services, get public servants to be service oriented, and strives for excellence in service delivery and to commit to continuous service delivery improvement. It aims to improve delivery of public services based on the principles of putting people’s interests first such as ensuring that:

- Citizens are consulted about the level and quality of the public service they receive and, where possible, should be given a choice about the service that are offered.
- Citizens are to be told about standards of service they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect.
- All citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled.
- All citizens should be treated with courtesy and considerations.

- All citizens should be given full, accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive.
- There should be openness and transparency, meaning that citizens should be told how national and provincial departments are run, how much they cost and who is in charge.
- That there should be redress, meaning that if the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, a full explanation and a speed and effective remedy; and when complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response.
- There should be value for money meaning that public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money.

4.7 Legislated public participation mechanisms

4.7.1 Role of the ward committees (WCs) for sustainable, effective service delivery

Chapter 4 of the *Municipal Systems Act*, 32 of 2000 enacted the establishment of ward committees in all ward levels across all local municipalities.

The former Minister Mufamadi for Provincial and Local Government defined ward committees as ordinary workers, playing a critical role in ensuring the necessary contact between the people and our institutions of government. The placement of ward committees at a ward level was to achieve one of the aims of developmental local government mentioned in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, which is to encourage the involvement of communities and civil societies in matters of local government. The primary objective of a ward committee is to enhance participatory democracy in local government. They can also identify and initiate projects to improve the lives of people in the ward (A handbook for ward committees, 2005) www.dplg.gov.za.

4.7.2 Challenges facing ward committees

Ward committees are a prominent channel for communication through which communities inform municipal councils about their needs, expectations and problems. Naidu (2008:86) is

of the opinion that the present structure and form of ward committees in South Africa are dysfunctional. Furthermore, Naidu believes that it has weakened the role that participation plays within the municipal structure.

Buccus et al. (2007:23) provided the following challenges relating to ward committees

- Ward committees' lack of credibility to influence decision-making.
- Ward committee members' lack of commitment in their endeavors.
- There is an evident lack of training for ward committees some ward community members perceive ward committees as a mere steppingstone towards realizing their political ambitions.
- Power relations (i.e. political interference) undermine the role of ward committees – a ward councillor is a politically elected representative, and by default s/he is chairperson of a ward committee that has the potential of promoting partisan interests.

4.7.2 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT WORKERS (CDWs)

The South African Handbook on Community Development Workers (2007) www.dplg.gov.za indicate that despite efforts to decentralize through the three spheres of democratic government with each sphere in its own way striving to be responsive, it still remained a challenge for the community to communicate effectively with their elected representatives and government officials. In his State of the Nation address on 14 February 2003, President Thabo Mbeki identified the need for a new public service echelon of multi-skilled community development workers to establish community development workers as ordinary workers, playing a critical role in deepen democracy both to enable communities to shape government service delivery to meet their needs as well as to empower communities to make more effective use of existing government services.

4.7.2.1 Roles and tasks of CDWs

According to the handbook (2003) for CDW highlights the following roles among other tasks

- Is to link communities with all government spheres and departments.

- Facilitate public participation in government development projects (e.g. IDP, LED, infrastructure and service delivery projects etc.)
- Find solutions to identified needs and blockages by interacting with national, provincial and local government structures.

4.7.2.2 Challenges experienced by CDWs

Buccus et al. (2007:23) state the following challenges in relation to CDWs:

- Ward councilors do not support community development workers in performing their function.
- CDWs experience exclusion within municipal matters because they are perceived as government informants.
- Sector departments don't prioritize development cases that brought by CDWs in their attention.

4.7.3 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (IDP)

The White Paper on Local Government (RSA 1998a) suggests a change in the way municipalities function, to be able to meet outcomes of developmental local government. IDPs are thus seen as vehicles to meet this mandate (DPLG 2000: 19). Section 35 of the Municipal Systems Act (RSA 2000) defines the IDP as the "principal strategic planning instrument which guides and informs all planning, and development, and all decisions with regard to planning, management and development, in the municipality." Njenga (2009) argue that IDPs helps to:

- ensure the effective use of scarce resources in municipalities;
- ensure ward based planning;
- speed up service delivery;
- attract additional funds;
- strengthen democracy;
- overcome the legacy of apartheid; and
- promote co-ordination among Local, Provincial and National Governmental institutions.

4.7.3.1 Challenges within the integrated development planning

Buccus et al. (2007:23) state that IDPs face the following challenges:

- They are viewed by citizens to be irregular and largely meaningless in nature.
- They have a partial operation in responding to the service delivery backlog.
- They limit the role of ward committees.
- They mostly embrace a political agenda when distributing resources and services to citizens.

4.7.4 Izimbizo (Public meetings)

According to Buccus et al. (2007:19) “izimbizo are the most common mechanism through which ordinary citizens experienced public participation.” Carrim (2001:14) assert that the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 requires that municipalities “develop a culture of governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance.” Hartlief (2008: 138) defined “imbizo” as term derived from the South African Zulu Language, meaning “gathering”. Imbizo is the singular form while izimbizo is the plural form of the same word. Hartlief (2008:44) the term izimbizo is not new to the South African context. It has formed part of the African indigenous knowledge for many years and carries the traditional association of a gathering. In principle Hartlief (2008:44) claim that izimbizo are to:

- Strengthen the relationship between the state and citizens.
- Instill civism and people-centered governance.
- Intended to provide members of the public with opportunities to receive direct communication about government programmes; and hold government leaders accountable for service delivery.

Buccus et al. (2007:23) assert that izimbizo face the following changes in enhancing public participation because they are:

- Irregular.
- They have little opportunities for meaningful input.
- They lack of continuity or follow-up of issues.

4.8 Conclusion

In conclusion the chapter discussed legislative frameworks and mechanisms that institutionalize public participation at a ward level. The chapter also highlighted limitations or challenges that seek to hinder meaningful public participation at grassroots level. The intention of discussing both the legislative framework and existing public participation mechanisms was to establish a credible foundation to discuss the relevance of War rooms as a new public participation mechanism to enhance public participation at a ward level.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE CASE STUDY OF WAR ROOMS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides detailed information about the institutionalisation of War rooms in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. It provides war room definitions, state supporting structures as well mechanisms used by war rooms to enhance public participation through which service delivery is achieved. It also provides pieces of legislation that institutionalises war rooms.

5.2 The establishment of War Rooms (RM)

Since the *take-off* of democracy in South Africa, national government has put programmes in place to fight the acceleration of poverty and attend to the backlogs of service delivery. Provincial government are always mandated to implement national programmes or improvised according to the needs of their provinces. In the province of KwaZulu-Natal, the former Premier Zweli Mkhize launched Operation Sukuma Sakhe as a provincial strategy derived from the national war on poverty campaign which was announced by former president Thabo Mbeki in the State of the Nation Address in 2008. As captured within the Operation Sukuma Sakhe Implementing Model (OSSIM, 2012: v) the Director-General for the Province of KwaZulu-Natal Mr NVE Ngidi shared that “the literal meaning Operation Sukuma Sakhe means lets us stand up and build a society that is free from the chains of poverty and other socio-economic factors. The gist of programme/ project or campaign Within Operation Sukuma Sakhe war rooms were launched as ward-based strategies as an attempt to create decentralized spaces for change through which *public participation is to be enhanced to achieve accelerated service delivery at a ward level where provincial government will collaboratively work closely with electorate*. The programme considers that “the entire programme of government needs partnership with the community to work together to rebuild the fabric of our society and rebuild our nation”. War Rooms are institutional community platforms/spaces within wards that should bring relevant community stakeholders, field workers, local leadership, civil society and government together to discuss, plan and drive their own community social discourse (OSSIM, 2012).

According to the OSSIM (2012). The War Room concept is anchored on amongst others to achieve the following

1. Public Participation
2. Integrated Development Planning & Implementation
3. Cooperative Governance

Primary beneficiaries of OSS are the most vulnerable groups within poor households. The most vulnerable groups are defined as women, children, youth, unemployed adults who are either jobless or earn below minimum wage, unskilled and illiterate adults, the chronically sick, disabled persons and the elderly.

5.3 What is a war room?

It is to be acknowledged that there is a limited literature base that talks about war rooms and the relevance and the labelling of this public participation spaces is still not understood by many people. Most people find the use of war rooms in a development context confusing and irrelevant as they claim that it depict *military approach* which then skew the meaning that is attached to these war rooms. Existing documents are located within the Office of the Premier in KwaZulu-Natal. Documents which provide an illustration about War Rooms do not contain a fixed or a specific definition of war rooms. Various departments and municipal offices have defined war rooms based on specific developmental and service delivery debates. Within the OSSIM (2012: 4) “war rooms are a developmental strategy, institutionalized at a ward level to bring government closer to people and it allows people to participate in the decisions that affect them directly at a ward level. War rooms are located within government facilities/ community structures such as clinics, halls and offices.” The OSSIM (2012) state that the office of the Premier in KwaZulu-Natal has mandated government departments, district and local municipalities to facilitate and monitor the successful establishment of war rooms as decentralised institutional community platforms within wards. War rooms are decentralized spaces to enhance participatory governance and public participation through which community stakeholders, field workers, local leadership, civil society and government together to discuss, plan and drive their own community social discourse. War rooms are defined as decentralized invited spaces (participatory spaces) where private and public street level bureaucrats will collaborate with people to influence change

that affect them directly. War Rooms are defined as integrated service delivery structure comprised of government, municipality, Community Based Organisations, private businesses and other stakeholders at ward level. They allow for an organized community meeting which seeks to vigorously respond into the difficulties of the helpless. They have been credited as a major breakthrough mechanism in rural communities. Through war rooms citizens can begin to be informed by government and the types of services they can expect at the same community in turn can provide government with feedback on the services they receive (OSSIM, 2012:5).

5.4 What war rooms seek to achieve?

According to the former Premier for KZN Mkhize quoted from the OSSIM (2012: iv) “War Rooms will resolve issue of accessibility of government services, where services can be at close proximity with communities. War rooms are to serve as public participation flat forms for an improved dialogue between citizens and government as required by the Constitution. This is where citizens need to be supplied with information that will enhance effective decision-making, support continual service delivery and include citizen’s voices when shaping a development agenda. He said the community must also be represented at the War Rooms, because they all have a role to play in resolving issues affecting their ward.” The OSSIM (2012: 14) highlight that citizens in a war room are to benefit the following.

- Citizens must become active participants in their development.
- Citizens are to become active recipients of services delivery by government,
- Citizens must have a role to play in service delivery especially in determining the type, quantity, place and focus of such services.
- Citizens are to be able to take part in both decision making processes and in the delivery mechanisms.

The OSSIM (2012: 2) state that because war rooms are institutionalized to realize the vision and the mission of OSS, sector departments should make sure that they attend to cases of service delivery that have been brought to a war room within three priority levels. Communities should be engaged to ensure that they contribute to their own development and

they are able to get out of the poverty trap when they exit the war room. The war room collect such cases from various groups who serve as public participation mechanism between the community and the war room. They put them on a register and then submit all collected cases to each and every indicated department for action. All government departments, civil society organisations and the private sector are mobilised to contribute to service delivery in an integrated manner through War Rooms as official spaces for public participation. The following levels elucidate how cases of service delivery are prioritized for a proper intervention within a war room.

- Immediate level: this level command that services delivery cases that need immediate interventions should be resolved within 90 days.
- Medium-term level: this level commands that cases that do not need an immediate intervention must be resolved within 91 to 180 days); and
- Long-term level: this level acknowledges that some cases brought to a room would somehow vary and will take more than 180 days to be resolved (OSSIM, 2012).

5.5. War room supporting structures (gate keepers)

5.5.1 District Municipality level

As stated within the OSSOIM (2012: 34) a DTT should provide mentorship support to the Local Task Team and to the War Room through the following activities:

5.5.1.1. Support the establishment of the Local Task Team and War Rooms;

5.5.1.2. Support the development and implementation of the local plans;

5. 5.1.3. Address challenges experienced by all task teams from the District, Local, and War Room Levels;

5.5.1.4. Take responsibility for recruitment, allocation and training of CCG fieldworkers to conduct Household Profiling;

5.5.1.5. Facilitate skills development sessions for LTT and War Room members;

5.5.1.6. Provide guidelines and training for Local Task Teams and War Rooms on the procedural requirements of OSS and format of reports to the District Task Team; and

5.5.1.7. Monitor progress of the implementation of the programme at LTT and War Room level.

5.6 Local Municipality level

At a Local municipality level, the local task team has to provide mentorship support to War Rooms through the following:

5.6.1 Support the establishment of War Rooms;

5.6.2 Assist with the developing guidelines for the War Room's operational activities;

5.6.3. Address challenges experienced by War Rooms;

5.6.4 Mobilise resources for the War Rooms;

5.6.5 Facilitate skills development sessions for War Room Members;

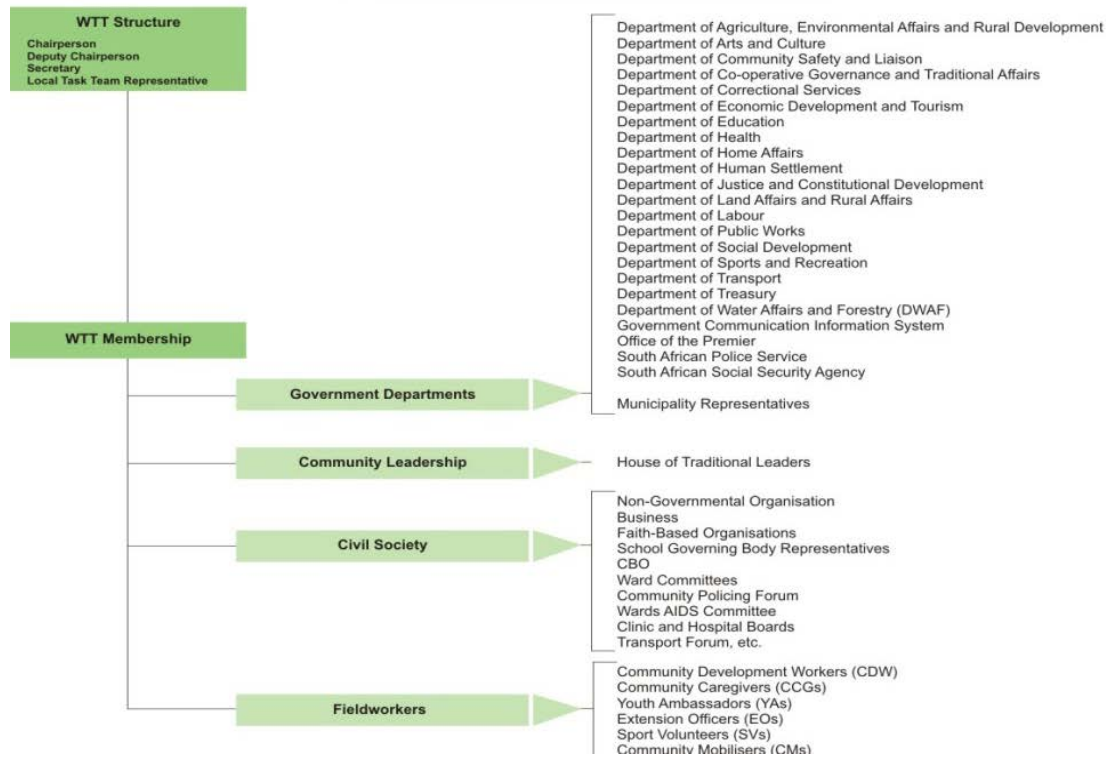
5.6.6 Provide guidelines for War Rooms on the submission requirements and format of reports to the Local Task Team; and

5.6.7. Monitor progress of the implementation of the programme at War Room Level;

5.6.8. Keep a record of all household profiles in the ward to be documented in a spread sheet.
(OSSIM, 2012: 34)

5.7 Ward Task Team (WTT)

Figure 6: A structure of a ward task team



Source (OSSIM, 2012)

The ward task team also known as an executive committee is the body that makes a functioning war room. In principle the committee or the ward task team has to be made of six people only. At a ward level the ward task team/ committee has to:

- Take full responsibility for the efficient management of the War Room.
- Ensure that Amakhosi, Non-Government Organizations, Faith Based and Community-based organisations as well as any other relevant stakeholders are invited to participate at meetings.
- Ensure that the War Room has the appropriate resources for optimal functioning.
- Ensure that weekly and monthly meetings are held and that all stakeholders and community members are invited to attend.
- Take responsibility for the allocation and facilitate training and management of fieldworkers.
- Provide guidance, support and mentoring to fieldworkers through training and debriefing sessions.

- Support the standardized data collection, data management and data analysis processes at ward level.
- Ensure that the Household Profiling Tools and data are appropriately capturing, recorded and stored in a manner that is easily retrievable for reference purposes.
- Ensure that support is provided to the relevant Government Departments in the process of resolving the issues raised and to assist with the service delivery interventions and programmes at a ward level.
- Ensure that weekly War Rooms Meetings, monthly extended War Rooms meeting and Quarterly Community Feedback Meetings are held. (OSSIM, 2012: 35-36)

As quoted from OSSIM (2012: 18) “war rooms provide opportunities to different stakeholder and they also influence public participation:

5.7.1.1 Government

- Government is an important stakeholder in the OSS Programme as well within war rooms because government get a platform from which to deliver essential and long-term services to communities.
- Sector departments use war rooms as a public space that show that government cares about its people. They are able to provide communities with a holistic package of service delivery. War rooms offer government departments opportunities to communicate directly with communities at a grass root level.”

5.7.1.2 Community Leaders

The OSSIM (2012: 18) claim that within a war room “community leaders are individuals who play a leading role in community affairs and this includes traditional leaders, Amakhosi, Induna, Ward Councillors and other individuals who are respected within the community.

- Community leaders get opportunities to participate in a democratic process and are able to influence Provincial Government processes and planning procedures. War

rooms serve as a platform where community leaders bring community needs to the forefront when developing community plans.”

5.7.1.3 Civil Society Organisations

The OSSIM (2012: 18) state that “civil societies such as non-governmental organisations, community-based organisations, business and community forums provide critical services directly to communities at ward level. Within a war room, civil societies have the ability to facilitate networks and partnerships with government departments and other stakeholders operating in the ward. They have the ability to coordinate information through joint reporting and communication to the communities. At a ward level they have the identify service delivery gaps and to create opportunities for new development opportunities.”

5.7.1.4 Community Fieldworkers

According to the OSSIM (2012:19) “community fieldworkers are individuals who play an important role in affecting social and behavioural change at community level. Community fieldworkers within a war room are community development workers, community care givers, youth ambassadors, Agricultural Extension Officers, Sport volunteers and community mobilisers. Each of these field workers provides essential services at different levels within the community. They link the community with the war room. They have the ability to provide services through various departments.”

5.8 War room public participation mechanisms.

The constitutional stipulated principle behind public participation is that all the stakeholders affected by public authority’s decisions or actions have a right to be consulted and contribute to such a decision. The war room uses the following mechanism to enhance public participation at a ward level. It is to be noted that various departments deploy the following mechanisms at a ward level to do household visits, profiles and report the collected information to a war room. The OSSIM (2012: 20) highlight the following mechanisms used by a war room to enhance public participation and accelerate service delivery:

5.8.1. Community Development Workers (CDWs):

Within war rooms, CDW serve as convenors. Where there are no CDWS in the ward where the war room has been institutionalized. CDW do house hold visits, house hold profiling as well as community profiling. A home visiting tool or a profiling tool is developed by the Department of Social Development, the Office of the Premier, Rural Development and the Department of Cooperative Affairs and Traditional Affairs. They also encourage community members to participate in all the meetings/gatherings of the war rooms. During those meetings, CDW are expected to take minutes. After having collected information from visiting households, CDW also take the report back to the community relating to how and when their cases of service delivery will be resolved.

5.8.2. Ward committees (WCs):

Ward committees collect information relating to issues of service delivery from communities to be discussed within war rooms. They also encourage citizens at a ward level to make use of war rooms and also to participate in war room meetings. Within the war room executive committee, ward committees sit as additional members.

5.8.3. Community Care Givers (CCGs):

They also do household, community and community profiling using the same tool that is used by CDW when collecting the necessary data. They cascade the collected information to be analysed within a war room. CCG does also make follow ups to cases that were referred to various departments. They are also expected to cascade the response from various departments back to the community. They also encourage community members to make use of the war rooms and also attend invited meetings.

5.8.4. Youth Ambassadors (YAs):

Youth ambassadors work with the community to meet with the youth at households, schools, churches, clubs to jointly identify needs and challenges of the youth. They collect information that relates to youth issues. They are to compile a data base which elucidates educational levels and employment statuses pertaining the youth at a ward level. Youth ambassadors are placed at a ward level and within a war room to address the needs and challenges of the youth. A collected report is cascaded to a war room for analysis and for proper referrals.

5.8.4. Extension Officers (EOs):

The role of extension officers within war rooms is to encourage citizens to start community gardens in order to alleviate poverty.

5.8.5. Sport Volunteers (SVs):

These volunteers encourage particularly the marginalized and afford them access to participation and a share in wider sport community. They are to establish sustainable club development systems within wards. They are also expected to establish sustainable sports and recreation programmes at a ward level. They can also become training coaches of different sport codes within the community. They also compile reports which are discussed at a war room. They also encourage the youth to participate voluntarily within the war room as well attend invited meetings.

5.8.6. Social Crime Prevention Volunteers (SCPVs):

They are ambassadors that discourage crime within communities. They encourage peace and social cohesion within communities. Importantly, they are to establish and render behavioural change programmes with communities. They are to identify people that need rehabilitation interventions and refer them to proper institutions.

5.9 Legislative frameworks guiding War Rooms

According to the OSSIM (2012: 34) War rooms as strategies within Operation Sukuma Sakhe are expected to realize the following pieces of legislation.

- South African Constitution
- Batho Pele Principles
- KZN Citizen's Charter
- Millenium Development Goals (MDGs)
- 5 Priorities of Government

- 12 National Outcomes

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided information relating to war rooms however it is noted that documents that speak to war rooms have traceable gaps that don't provide enough information for someone who has never been to or visited a war room. Chapter six of this paper will provide an analysis based on the questions that we used during the data collection.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by interpreting cross-cutting debates that have been presented and supported by many theorists that have been quoted throughout this research paper in relation to public participation. The chapter will also cover the analysis of the collected data and allude to limitations experienced during the data collection, cite recommendations and then conclude.

6.2 A review of cross-cutting debates in relation to public participation in South Africa.

Among many definitions of public participation that been conceptualized throughout chapters of this research paper, this research paper opted to base all the arguments on the definition quoted from IAP2 (2013:iv) “where public participation has been found to mean the involvement of those affected by a decision in the decision making processes.” The war room executive committee defined public participation *as a good platform where people share their challenges. They also defined a war room as space that attend to all the service delivery challenges, bring government closer and enhance public participation at a ward level.*

Contrary to the cited definition, opinions from various scholars such as Mayo (2003), Smith (2003), Mubangizi (2005), Fortuin (2010) and Karamoko (2011) in relation to the politics of public participation, that suggest that governments and their agencies globally are still grappling with the problem of how to involve citizens in decisions-making processes that affect them, e.g. in policy formulation, programme planning, formulation and implementation. They continued to state that government institutions and employed street-level bureaucrats are currently facilitating the implementation of public participation. However they acknowledge that the implementation is undertaken in an uncoordinated way which is without a dedicated institutional arrangement to popularize it within and outside government so that all stakeholders (government, government representatives and citizens) can appreciate its full benefits and potential to promote sustainable community development in their geographic settings.

Scholars such as Gevanta (2004), Mubangizi (2005) continued to state that the poor implementation of public policy is still continuing even in the presence of national and local legislations and other supporting documents through which fundamental benefits of public participation are listed. Sithole (2004) and Siphuma (2009) claim that public participation does not only benefit citizens democratic rights but also contributes towards the deepening of democracy. They extend to say if public participation remains a missing link, the democracy will wobble and electorates will not find it the only game in town. They will contest it and continue to seek for other ideologies to affiliate with. Putu (2006), Pateman (1970) and Mubangizi (2010) among other scholars have questioned the use of existing public participation mechanisms posing the following questions “To what extent do these mechanisms bring up meaningful public participation? Where are those public participation mechanisms? Hemson (2007) asked if participation can make a difference-Ntlemeza (2007), Nyalunga (2006) and Putu (2006) have found in their research endeavors that public participation mechanisms face a list of challenges such as that of political controls (political cooptation) and challenges of illiteracy especially among committee members of some of those public participation mechanisms. Secondly scattered municipal demarcations have been found as major negative contributory factor which discourages existing public participation mechanisms to reach other villages or wards. These mechanisms are not fully supported by government structures at a local municipality level. Lastly, they have stated that some of that public participation are poorly resourced and lack adequate trainings.

A great concern from other scholars and politicians is that these observable errors continue to happen even while there are tangible benefits that could be yielded when government and electorates begin to shape development plans collaboratively. The existing literature in public participation extends to state that public deliberations allow an exchange of information electorates become drivers of their development endeavors. Public participation creates platforms through which electorates and government can formalize trust for each other.

6.2 Data analysis

Having presented a cross-cutting debate in relation to public participation as an area which has largely been researched by many researchers in the above paragraph, the scope of this research paper was on war rooms as decentralized spaces for change launched in each and every ward in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The intended interest investigates the *extent to*

which, war rooms as decentralized spaces for change serve as a unique mechanism to achieve public participation at a ward level in respect to currently existing mechanisms at a ward level. Chapter five of this research paper provided a background through which the OSSIM (2012) has defined “war rooms as decentralized spaces for change launched across all wards in KwaZulu-Natal to enhance public participation, bring government closer to people and accelerate the provision of service delivery.”

For this research paper content analysis as data analyzing technique was used to analyze the collected data. Krippendorff (1980) defined content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context .A triangulation of research methods as indicated in chapter one was used to maximize the reliability and the validity of the responses from both targeted respondents (the war room executive members as well as beneficiaries). The researcher prepared a single data collection tool that was used for structured interviews as well as during the focus group discussion. Both the researcher and sampled respondents engaged in an informed consent contract as stipulated by research ethics which is also attached as an appendix in this research report. Structured interview questionnaires were coded (1-6) in order to quote direct responses without mentioning names of respondents. During a focus group discussion with war room beneficiaries, all eleven respondents were allocated numbers (1-11) to quote when responding also to avoid the mentioning of names of respondents. The data analysis is drawn from the interviews and direct observations. It is important to explain that not all questions were answered by respondents and that not all questions were then found relevant for data analysis due to the quality of responses. The content of the analysis is drawn from five key questions that are outlined on chapter one of this research paper.

6.2.1 How was the war room introduced in the community?

In relation to the question, responses from the executive committee did not converge. Other members claimed that the war room was formally introduced in the Lunenburg community. While others stated that the war room as never formally introduced to the community. A major divergence was noticed when one member of the committee responded by stating that *only 10% of people know about a war room. 90% of community members don't know about a war room.* About 90% of focus group participants also did not know about the war room. They even said “*We are confused because it is the first time we hear about this war room.*”

Provided responses echoed that the kind of public participation that takes place within the Lunenburg war room is not the participation that creates collaborative dialogues between government, street-level bureaucrats and citizens. Responses indicated that the Lunenburg community is not featured in any of Arnstein (1969) and Gaventa (2005) Citizens Ladder of Public Participation illustrated in chapter three of this research paper. Responses depict that community members are were not involved in the discussions that confirmed the institutionalization war rooms at a ward level. This alone destroys the significance and the relevance of the war room in a community because citizens will not be able to make use of it. The illustrated scenario situates that citizens of the Lunenburg community are still denied access to platforms of tailoring service delivery programmes and plans affect them. From the perspectives of development, it is clear that the institutionalization of a war room in the Lunenburg community was a *top-down approach* which was and still largely abolished by citizens in South Africa as it has been seen on the media where citizens have protested against such practices. Karamoko (2011) has strongly asserted that it is this exclusion and the absence of a *bottom-up approach* or a *collaborative approach* that motivates people to engage in uncontrollable protests. Generally, one could say that war rooms will end up being *white elephants* which are quite common in places where development agenda items were not influenced and accepted by citizen's voices. There are other reasons that could turn war rooms to becoming *white elephants* through observations it become evident that the current location of the war room is not central and accessible to all Lunenburg villages. It was observable that the failure to locate war rooms at a central place accessible by all community members will contribute to citizens not being able to know about them and to make use of them. Focus group discussions confirmed this observation when respondents were voicing that even the current location was not reachable and still not know by many people.

In the aspect of elucidating war room's net effects (impact) as a fundamental development intervention at a ward level, people of the Lunenburg community are still not be able to narrate any stories of betterment in relation to the existing war room. Net effects are defined as changes that are directly attributed to a public intervention (Rossi et al., 1999:234). Again it will not be a false claim if the Lunenburg community can begin to say that the war room is not add any value to their current service delivery situations. Chapter one, two and three of this research report have largely alluded that development interventions in South Africa down to a ward level are still not motivated by citizen's voices. Literature extend to state that even in the years of democracy in South Africa *white collars* in their executive suites are still

making decision for their constituencies. They continued to state that the absence of voices of people in decisions that affect them has negative consequences in relation to the deepening of democracy in South Africa. Hajer (1995) have significantly emphasized that it is important that white collars collaborate with their constituencies when tailoring development strategies because that is where an agenda item gains its legitimacy.

6.2.3 What are mechanisms or strategies in place that a war room uses to encourage public participation and achieve services for communities?

Chapter four of this research paper captured a list of existing mechanisms (ward committees, izimbizo, community development workers and integrated development plans) as well as national and local legislations through which public participation is seen as an integral right to be enjoyed by citizens. Many researchers have acknowledged the significance of these legislations. On the other hand researchers have found the very same mechanisms bloated by many challenges such as that of political cooptation, illiteracy, poor support from various supporting structures and that they are not sufficiently resourced. The importance of this question was posed to establish the uniqueness of public participation mechanisms used by war rooms to enhance public participation as well as to detect the extent to which they may differ from other existing mechanism at a ward level. In relation to codified responses there was again an observable divergence provided by the war room executives. Other members stated that the war rooms do have mechanisms while the others were stating that the war room does not have. What came forward in relation to this question was that not all executive members of the war room have read the war room implementing model through which a list of war room public participation mechanisms are listed. Secondly war rooms do not have public participation mechanisms of their own. They rely on mechanisms that are contracted by government departments. In this case, the role of a war room in the Lunenburg community is not clear in enhancing public participation. Again the impact to be made by war rooms is also not clear. It could be argued that war rooms on their own will not function as spaces to enhance public participation. This is leveled on the grounds that, without the provision of government mechanisms and that of non-government organizations, war rooms will not be able to function on their own. Actually, what is the real role and the relevance of a war room in communities? If war rooms are indeed decentralized spaces for change, to what extent do they really enhance public participation? If they are decentralized spaces change how what would make them to function independent from government resources. The

observable dependency is perceived to risk the autonomy of war rooms from government department control as they might begin to think that war rooms are monitored by them yet they are expected to provide them with support. Again it was observable that there is no uniqueness of war rooms simply because they rely on government contracted mechanisms to enhance their performance.

In relation to the accelerated service delivery, a divergence of responses again leaped out as some executive committee responded to the question as if the war room has made a difference in relation to experiences of service delivery that were overwhelming the Lunenburg community. Their responses were describing that there has been an observable change in the society because of the existing war room. On the flip side, war room beneficiaries stated that the war room has not done anything for them. They were still responding as people who are still within the cycle or chains of challenges as they were saying that *“we are travelling long distances to report and access services from government. If you want to access grants you need to a travelling fee to go to Bilanyoni where the Department of Social Development is located. You get there you are told to come the following money. We don’t have the money for travelling. If you have problems with your identity document you have to travel to Vryheid and it is expensive.”* These sentiments on their own conclude that indeed there is no observable change in relation to the existence of war rooms. One may even extend to say that the Lunenburg war room has not facilitated the acceleration of promised service delivery at a ward level as indicated in the Operation Sukuma Sakhe Implementing Model (2012). Questions, what is delaying war rooms to begin to make a positive change in the Lunenburg ward? Who has not done his or her work properly to introduce war rooms in communities in order for the community to begin to know about them? This again spells out that implemented development interventions in South Africa are still not relevant and in line to what citizens are expecting from government. In as much as the community has never benefited from the war room, they still trust that if the war room could be properly institutionalized within their community, it will contribute a positive change in their cry to be developed.

6.2.4. How does a war room prioritize service delivery needs of the Lunenburg Community?

Chapter three of this research paper captured the importance of public participation in the process of tailoring development plans. Theorists like Rousseau (1950), Cogan and Sharpe

(1986) and Mubangizi (2011) have emphasized that a meaningful prioritization of development agenda items become proper and acceptable only when they have motivated by citizens voices. Scholars like Mubangizi (2005) and Karamoko (2011) have written about consequences of excluding citizens in the decisions that affect them directly. This question was posed to evaluate the manner in which voices of the Lunenburg communities are valued in prioritizing service delivery at a war room. Again the other motive was to detect how and where the war room executive members as well government departments places citizens in Arnstein (1969) ladder of citizen participation when prioritizing issues or cases of service delivery. It evidently came up that war room is not empowered to engage citizens when prioritizing services to be rendered. Through observations, it is argued that war rooms are serving as a reservoir for government departments. This is because the war room only keeps a register with all the listed cases of service delivery and may only highlight the urgent intervention. The prioritization of services to be rendered remains the responsibility of government departments. Evidently the prioritization of those cases does not involve people concerned. Currently the Lunenburg war room is working as a clinic where the diagnosis is done by them but the treatment remains the responsibility of government departments. It gain resonate that, the Lunenburg community will find it difficult to link their service delivery change through the lenses of a war room but that of a government departments.

6.2.4 What is the support that the Lunenburg war room receives from the local leadership, local municipality and other sector departments on a daily basis.

The OSSIM (2012) elucidated that war rooms are to be supported by many structures be it private or public. Beneficiaries of the war room did not respond to this question because, they had never seen a war room and they did not know how is functioning and how the war room should be supported. Members of the executive committee indicated that the war is dominantly supported by the local municipality (eDumbe Local Municipality), the Department of Social Development, Department of Health and the Department of Home Affairs. They continued to state that other departments have not provided support to the war room. Through observations, it was realized that those departments who have never provided support to the war room could be those that might have deployed public participation mechanisms in the Lunenburg community and they do see reasons to visit the war room.

6.3 Limitations of the study

- The sampling of 11 beneficiaries who participated in the focus group was not a complete coverage of the Lunenburg community. This was because focus group rule of thumb does not want more than 12 people. Secondly the researcher did not have the money to transport other village members.
- Not all posed questions were answered because war room beneficiaries happened not to be aware about the existing war room. Only a few questions seemed relevant to the study because respondents were providing responses without hesitations.
- Documents that have been written about war rooms seem to be vague to an extent that they create a room for the next people to generalize the core function of a war room. This is evident on the basis that war room documents do not provide fixed definition of war rooms. Documents have not defined public participation that is to be achieved by war rooms. Supporting legislative pieces of the war room are not specific to enable war rooms to realize their potential value. There seems to be an over reliance on war rooms which resonate an error of failure in a long run.

6.4 Recommendations

- It is recommendable that the Lunenburg war room be located in a central place within the community. If the central location is not possible, the main war room should have satellite offices especially in the villages that would find it difficult to access the war room.
- It is recommendable that all members of the Lunenburg executive committee should be trained continuously on their roles and responsibilities as well as on the functionality of a war room.
- It is recommendable that war rooms should be thoroughly researched across the KwaZulu-Natal Province to adequately generalize if they are indeed decentralized spaces for change to enhance meaningful public participation and accelerate service delivery.
- In the relation to documents that have written about Operation Sukuma Sakhe War Rooms, it is advisable that they should be reviewed or simplified with

clarity to accommodate people who want to know about war rooms before wanting to visit them. Important concepts like war rooms and public participation should be well defined. The motive of war rooms should be convincingly written and their impact should come across clearly.

6.5. Conclusion

In relation to the functionality or the operation of the Lunenburg war room as decentralized space for change or as spaces that brings government closer to people, it is observable through responses that the war room was not properly institutionalized within the Lunenburg community. Executive members of the war room are still grappling with the functions of the war room because some of them have not been trained. Again it is noted that the war room is just a space with no powers to influence change and enhance public participation at a ward level. This is because war rooms rely on government structures to provide public participation mechanisms to enhance public participation within the community. The Lunenburg war room as a decentralized space cannot claim that it enhances public participation and accelerate service delivery. This is because the war room is not fully resourced and equipped to render these services on their own. The observable functionality of the Lunenburg war room seems to be in line with the sentiments of Cheema (1983) who asserted that decentralization is not a panacea. His reasons are that;

- (a) Administrative responsibilities may be transferred to local levels without adequate financial resources and make equitable distribution or provision of services more difficult.
- (b) Decentralization can sometimes make coordination of national policies more complex and may allow functions to be captured by local elites.

One could argue that the Lunenburg war room is currently serving as a reservoir or a satellite office for government departments not as a decentralized space for change that enhances public participation. The scenario of the Lunenburg war room also proves that a proper implementation of public participation is still a missing link and this is largely contributed by the fact that people who are trusted to ensure the adequate functionality also lack proper training and the necessary information. Monitors of the war room should to ensure that war rooms really function as decentralized spaces for change by so doing public participation will

be enhanced; the theory of citizen participation will be realized. Lunenburg community members will also begin to enjoy public participation benefits. The Lunenburg community will begin to use war rooms as decentralized spaces for change where they will hold government transparent, responsible, responsive and accountable to service delivery promises.

Appendix 1:

➤ **Informed Consent: Background and introduction**

My name is Lungile Prudence Zondi. I am a Masters student registered with the University of KwaZulu Natal Pietermaritzburg Campus. My student registration number within the university is 201 300 704. I am doing a Master's Degree in Policy and Development Studies within the school of Social Science. Policy and Development Studies as a discipline falls within International and Public Affairs cluster. I am supervised by Mr. Mark Rieker who could be contacted on 033 260 5619 or through riekerM@ukzn.ac.za. The authenticity of this research endeavor could be validated with the HSSREC Research office on 031 260 3587 or send an e-mail to ximbap@ukzn.ac.za . The research topic is titled: **Decentralized Spaces for Change: A case study of Lunerburg War Room at eDumbe Local Municipality**. The interest regarding this title lies on the fact that the Province of KwaZulu-Natal has launched war rooms as decentralized spaces for change across all community wards. As a researcher I am interested in *investigating how do war rooms enhance public participation and achieve an accelerated provision of service delivery at a ward level*. I also gain interest in doing this research with the Lunerburg War Room because Lunerburg as a community is rated as a deep rural community that seems excluded from the provisions of developmental resources. I am interested in wanting to find out how will this launched war room bring positive change in the life's of people who have seemed excluded in development opportunities.

The interest of targeting you as person whom I want to conduct this research with is because, communities have been outlined to be beneficiaries of this war room. I subjected you to be a perfect person to provide me with the previous development state of the community before the launch of war rooms and also inform me about change if any since the launch of a war room within this community. I value that your response will enable me to argue and analyze if these are war rooms are really decentralized spaces for change or not.

I have designed data collection instruments that will guide the probing of structured interviews as well as to conduct a focus group. Questions have been crafted in the manner that does not contain any vulgar or use of strong language.

As invaluable participants the following are your rights.

- You have a right not give consent to be part of this research project as a respondent.

- You have a right to give consent to be part of this research voluntary.
- You have a right to inform me as a research if particular questions make you uncomfortable or if it triggers unpleasant emotions.
- You have a right to withdraw at time during the structured interview or during the focus group discussion. Your withdrawal will be respected.
- The nature of this research is not interest in people's names there your name will not be required.
- The naming or direct referral of people's names is also discouraged from this study during structured interviews or during the focus group.
- Please be informed that your participation is voluntary there will no payment given to you at the end of the research.
- Your responses during structured interviews will be treated with confidentiality.
- Your responses during a focus group session will be treated with confidentiality.
- Please know that the focus group discussion will be recorded. Therefore as a respondent, you are requested to make use of an assigned number every time you wish to respond to a question. The mentioning of people's names will disqualify the conversation.
- I wish to inform you that your direct name will not be quoted anywhere within the research report.
- I will to inform you that your responses will not be falsified to suite the researcher's expectations.
- Please be informed that I will not take offence if you decide not to give consent to participate in the research.

If you decided to participate in structured interviews I request to spend 15 to 20 minutes with you. Structured interviews will be guided by a questionnaire in separate room where the conversation will be between me and yourself. If you decide to participate in a focus group discussion, the group will made of 6 to 12 people who will be assigned numbers that they will used to respond on to tabled questions. I will request 45 minutes of your time. Please be informed that the focus group session will be recorded. Recorded voices will be kept by the university because the research that I am doing will remain the assert of the university. People who may want to have access to the research document will have to be granted permission or access by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg Campus. I will seek the supervision of my supervisor Mr. Rieker as well that of the HSSREC office with

regards to appropriately dispose structured interview responses as well as voice recordings from the focus group discussion.

If you give consent please sign the attached consent form. Please take few minutes to read the consent form before you could put your signature.

Consent Form

I (your full names)

..... hereby confirm that I understand the content of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research report.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

I consent/ do not consent to this interview being recorded (if applicable).

Please sign here.....

date.....

Thank you

Appendix 2:

➤ Data collection instruments

Structured interviews

1. Are you an executive committee member of the War room?

Yes	
No	

2. What is your executive portfolio?

War room champion	
War room convener	
Secretary	
Deputy Secretary	
Additional member from the ward committee	

3. Gender

male	
female	

4. How long have been serving with the war executive committee

Less than a month	
Between 1 month to 6 moths	
1 year	
More than a year	
Other	

5. What age category do you fall under?

0-14 years	
15- 29 years	
30-35 years	
36-45 years	
46-60 years	
More than 60 years	

6. How was the war room introduced to the community?

7. In your own opinion, how has the community at large accepted the war room?
-
-

8. Before the launching of war rooms, what were the challenges of service delivery within the community?

9. How does the executive committee ensure and guarantee the accessibility of the war room by community members?

10. Would you say, the community is grateful of such as development intervention?

Yes	
No	

Why.....

11. How do you as an executive member of the war room define public participation?

12. What are the mechanisms used by the war room to enhance public participation?

13. How does the war room receive, prioritize and respond to the service delivery needs of the community?

14. What are the existing mechanisms that encourage public participation other than the war room at a ward level?

15. How is the war room distinctive from mentioned mechanisms?

16. How is the involvement of local leadership, the local municipality and other sector departments in support of the war room?

17. Now that, you have been serving within the war room, how would you define it?

18. What are the voices of community members in relation to the existence of war rooms?

19. Is there anything else you would like to say about the war room or recommend?

-----Thank You-----

Focus group data collection instrument

1. How was this particular war room introduced to the community?
2. Was the community greatly in need of such a development intervention, why?
3. How does the community show the acceptance of the war room, what are voices of people in relation to the existence of the war room?
4. Prior to the launching of a war room, what were the challenges of service delivery within the community?
5. How does the community get to access the services the war room?
6. What are the mechanisms in place within the war room that encourage public participation?
7. How does the war room receive, prioritize and respond to cases of service delivery that benefit the community?
8. How is the war room distinctive from mentioned mechanisms?
9. How is the involvement of local leadership, the local municipality and other sector departments in support of the war room?
10. Would you say that, this war room is an ideal mechanism to enhance public participation at a ward level, why?
11. Now that, the war room has been in existence within the community for almost 3 years, how would you define it?
12. Is there anything else you would like to say or recommend about the war room and your participation in it?

-----Thank You-----

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