The Role of Public Opinion in the Post-Violent Protest Recovery in the Merafong Local Municipality, Township of Khutsong

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2013
The Role of Public Opinion in the Post-Violent Protest Recovery in the Merafong Local Municipality, Township of Khutsong

By

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Treatise presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Philosophae in Conflict Transformation and Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

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December 2013
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DECLARATION

I declare that the treatise:

Public Opinion in the Post-Violent Protest Recovery Process in the Merafong Local Municipality

is my own work and all sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I have not previously submitted this thesis for a degree at another University.

S. L. Ngada
Acknowledgements

Grateful thanks are extended to all of those individuals who contributed to the successful completion of this study. In particular, the assistance of the following are acknowledged:

- Mr Savo Helata, my supervisor, for the professional and patient manner in which he guided me through this study and shared his knowledge.

- Dr G Bradshaw, Senior Lecturer: Conflict and Transformation Management at the South Campus of NMMU for assistance with the background knowledge of theories of conflict.

- Dr Lyn Snograss, The Head of the programme for wonderful welcoming remarks during our first days at the University;

- My friends Moses Mkoni, Linda Obayi; Linda Steinland, Thembi Mntwapi and two friends from Sudan, Anyway and Marry, for their support and motivation.

- My daughter Onke and my son Sihle for sacrificing their time with me during my busy schedule.
Abstract

In order to eradicate the legacy of the past, the South African democratic government adopted a developmental approach to local government. The White Paper on Local Government (WPLG) (1998:17) defines developmental government as government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways of meeting their social, economic and material needs and of improving their quality of life. A developmental approach aims at enhancing the skills and capacity of community members by promoting their own development process (Theron, 2005a: 120). South Africa made provision for an Act of Parliament to authorise the establishment of a cross-boundary municipality. The Municipal Demarcation Board, after initial research, noted that there are a number of areas in South Africa where large tracts of land, including a number of different communities and settlements, straddle provincial boundaries.

A cross-boundary municipality refers to a situation where parts of a local municipality are located within the borders of two different provinces. For example, in the case of Merafong, the smaller part in the south was located in North West Province and the larger part in the east was located in Gauteng Province. This in effect meant that the governance of these municipalities was a shared political and fiscal responsibility of two different provinces.

The aim of the study was to determine the impact of public opinions on post-violent protest recovery processes in the Merafong Local Municipality. Both qualitative and quantitative approach was followed that included a review of documents from public administration and conflict theories literature; discourse analysis of interviews with municipal officials and councillors, and community members. The document review included a review of municipal documents that incorporated demarcation or describe development and use of public participation. It also included the legal frameworks and statutory requirements for community/citizen participation.

The key findings of the study indicated contrasting views between the community and the municipality perspectives in particular with regard to the role of the
community during the prioritisation of needs and the decision-making processes.

The researcher concluded that in order for community participation to have maximum impact, local government is obliged to create an enabling environment for participation which includes amongst others addressing the institutional obstacles and the capacity gaps within the community. The researcher finally recommended that these roles be implemented, evaluated and integrated in the current performance management system of Merafong Local Municipality.

KEY WORDS

List of Abbreviations

ANC: African National Congress
ANCYL: African National Congress Youth League
DA: Democratic Alliance
SACP: South African Communist Party
SADTU: South African Democratic Teachers Union
YCLSA: Young Communist League of South Africa
Chapter 1

Background and Rationale

1.1 Introduction

The evolution of the democratic system of government in South Africa gained momentum through the finalisation of the negotiated settlement of Provincial and National Spheres of Government in 1994. The 1995 democratic local government elections heralded the beginning of transitional local government systems in South Africa. That consequently saw the introduction of a developmental local government system which recognized its tenants as elected public-office bearers, appointed administrators and citizens who constitute communities within each municipal area of jurisdiction.

The following legislative framework makes provision for; inter alia, community participation in matters of local government in South Africa. In terms of Section 152 of the 1996 South African Constitution, community participation aims to:

- provide democratic and accountable local government for local communities; and
- encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.

Section 118(1) (a) states that provincial legislatures have to facilitate public involvement in the process of considering bills that alter provincial boundaries (Constitutional Court 2006). Public involvement or participation is one of the objectives of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) and, ‘together with participatory governance, constitutes a set of structural and procedural requirements through which this is to be realized’ (Barichievy, Piper and Parker 2003: 370).
Chapter 4 of the 1998 Local Government: Municipal Structures Act provides the establishment of ward committees with the object of improving participatory democracy in local government. Section 16 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act provides for municipalities to develop a culture of municipal governance that is compatible with a formal representative government, with elected leaders in a system of participatory governance; in other words with community participation. Furthermore, Section 17 of the afore-mentioned Act provides for the municipalities to develop mechanisms, processes and procedures for public participation.

Theron (2005: 138) argues that a basic principle of the Reconstruction and Development Programmes (RDP) is that it should be people driven, in other words, that members of the community should participate in defining their needs and contribute towards the satisfaction of those needs. Central to the RDP is the aim of democratising society politically and economically, thereby encouraging free political participation and facilitating equitable distribution of the fruits of development.

From the above discussion it could be inferred that the present South African Government has, since 1994, played a major role in creating an environment conducive to community participation in matters of governance. The adoption of a participatory governance system emphasizes a people-centered approach, that is, people’s participation in matters of development. It is against this background that this study will investigate the impact of community participation in the post-violent protest recovery processes.

The agenda of the cross-boundary municipalities of which there are sixteen in five of South Africa’s provinces, has been the focus of the Municipal Demarcation Board for the past years. Since the establishment of these municipalities, numerous problems have been experienced in respect of administering many of them. Several attempts at resolving the identified issues have largely failed. In an attempt to ensure that in future these sixteen municipalities would individually be located in one province only, whereby ultimately a more effectively integrated provision of services could be achieved, the
Constitution’s Twelfth Amendment Bill was adopted in 2005. My study will focus on the community participation on post-violent recovery processes in the Khutsong township of Merafong. Since the government passed this controversial cross-boundary municipality legislation, Khutsong, which ironically means *place of peace in SeTwana*, has been engulfed in violent protests. This township outside Carletonville had formed part of the Merafong Local Municipality (hereafter Merafong) in Gauteng, until it was incorporated into the North West Province (Bernstein and Johnston 2007 (cited in Botes and Matebesi 2011: 5).

1.2 Problem statement

In terms of Section 152 (a) and (e) of the 1996 South African Constitution states that local government should provide for democratic and accountable local government for local communities; and local government must encourage community involvement in its matters. Indeed, Section 3(2) (a) of the 1996 Constitution states clearly that all citizens are equally entitled to the rights, privileges and benefits of citizenship, which includes the right that citizens, in partnership with elected local government councillors and municipal officers, constitute a team reactively involved in development initiatives. Citizens can play a meaningful role in this regard (De Villiers, 2001: 7), such as taking part in decisions that affect their lives directly or indirectly through community participation.

With regard to the Merafong Demarcation Forum, the Khutsong Fraternity Forum and Carletonville Taxi Associations, the purpose of these structures was to broaden community participation in the democratic process and to assist ward councillors with planning; consultation dissemination of information; encouraging participation; and budgeting of the council during the violent protest (Botes and Matebesi, 2011: 14).

From the above it can be inferred that communities are aware of community engagement that is a right entrenched in the Constitution. Violent protests in Merafong as well as places such as Phumelela in the Free State; Matatiele in the Eastern Cape
and Bushbuckridge in Mpumalanga indicate a reality of exclusion of communities and their community organisation on issues that concern their welfare. It is imperative to investigate the impact of meaningful community involvement in the post-violent protest recovery processes. The study seeks to assess the impact of consultation process on post-violent recovery processes in the Khutsong township of Merafong.

1.3 Central research question
Considering the link between public opinion and violent protest recovery processes, the main aim of this study is to examine the role of public opinion in Khutsong. For this reason the question the study aims to answer is:

**What are the impacts of community participation on post-violent protest recovery initiatives at Merafong Local Municipality?**

The researcher based the research question in this study on Mohamed’s (2000: 2) statement that “…while community participation and deepening democracy are often spoken about, strong political leadership to ensure this happens has often been lacking. Building and mobilizing community co-operation and collective action to meet societal problems and enhance the development processes have taken a back seat to technocratic approaches focusing on administrative reform.”

The research questions that guide this study are as follows:

- What are the practices, shortcomings and potential of community participation in the municipality?

- What are the current debates and theoretical considerations in the literature of community participation in South Africa?

- What are the possibilities of employing communities during the planning processes (IDP); and monitoring processes? and
Is the municipality complying with any government legislation on issues that need the impact of communities?

1.4 Aims and objectives of the study

Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006: 49) define aims and objectives as exploring and describing, discovering, explaining and generating ideas or theories about the phenomena under investigation, and understanding and explaining social patterns. The main objective of the research is to investigate the effectiveness of public participation in post-violent protest recovery processes at Merafong Local Municipality as a strategy for peace-building and peace-keeping. The specific objectives of the research are:

- to explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of consultation of the local communities during the post-violent protest recovery processes in Merafong Local Municipality;
- to explain possibilities of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process of the post-violent protests recovery initiatives; and
- to define to what extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide public participation at the local government level.

1.5 Area of the study

Merafong City Municipality straddles the South-West of Gauteng and the North East of North West Province, 75 km from Johannesburg and 50 km from Potchefstroom. It owes its existence to its role as a Municipality in Carletonville. Merafong Local Municipality consists of two towns under its jurisdiction, i.e. parts of Gatsrand Rural Council which were situated within the boundaries of Gauteng Province with the then Fochville Transitional Local Council and the Wedela Transitional Local Council, as well as the surrounding farm portions which were situated within North West Province.
This explains why the Merafong Local Municipality functioned as a cross boundary municipality until 2005. Under this dispensation, most of its inhabitants lived in Gauteng and the other part of the North West. The Municipality consisted of the suburbs of Greater Carletonville, Fochville, Khutsong, Kokosi, Khutsong South, Wedela, Blybank, Welverdiend and the commercial farming areas surrounding these built-up areas (Merafong Municipality IDP 2003).
1.6 Chapter Overview

This research study is presented in Six (6) chapters. A brief outline of the chapters is as follows:

**Chapter 1** provides the introduction of the study which gives a brief overview of the study, the problem statement, aims, objectives and the research questions relevant to this study.

**Chapter 2** gives a literature review and focuses on the theoretical background and the conceptual framework of public opinion. It further provides definitions of the conceptual and legislative framework for public opinion and explores various role-players and their co-operative interaction in decision-making, as well as the post-violent protest recovery processes.

**Chapter 3** outlines theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks on conflict.

**Chapter 4** describes research methodology by highlighting the research design, instruments of data collection, sample and sampling procedures, and tools for data analysis, and the context of the study.

In **Chapter 5** the author presents the findings and conducts an analysis of the data. When appropriate the author refers to the literature review chapter in order to confirm or contradict the data collected through the interviews or bring in new arguments and views.

**Chapter 6** is the concluding chapter of the study and provides a summary of the study and recommendations arising from the research are presented.
Chapter 2

Community Engagement: The Legislative framework that Guides Public Participation at Local Government

2.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to discuss the literature on public participation and consultation that provides a legislative framework of the relevant legislation that guides public consultation at a local government level and describes the challenges relating to public consultation.

2.2 Pre-1994 Public Participation in Local Government

South Africa, in relation to other countries that have suffered consequences of skewed citizen participation, seems not to be immune to problems that occurred to them. During the last decade, many countries in Central and Eastern Europe have been undergoing major changes, both in their political and economic systems. Hold are and Zakharchenko (2002), cited in William (2006: 200), stated that among the challenges that these countries have been facing is the issue of incorporating citizens into the decision-making process. Very often citizens do not understand their rights and responsibilities and therefore are not able to express their opinions and concerns. Even though the process is slow and tiresome, the countries of this region are making great efforts to strengthen their democratic systems. Community participation is a key ingredient in the recipe for democracy. The South African story is that contemporary understanding of community participation in South Africa is informed by the memory of community struggle, a radical form of participation against the racist Apartheid State. The fact that most of the population had no political rights until 1994 demonstrates the total absence of participation of any sort. Instead the method of government was highly centralized, deeply authoritarian and secretive, which ensured that fundamental public services were not accessible to marginalized people (William, 2006: 200).
2.3 Post-1994 Local Government Restructuring in South Africa

It was after the first democratic election in 1994 in South Africa that the post-apartheid constitution provided for community participation in the construction, implementation and evaluation of integrated development planning at local level. The 1996 Constitution paved the way for the introduction, adoption and legitimization; legislations of policies which provide for and support community participation.

Local Government in South Africa is accorded a distinct sphere in the 1996 Constitution Act 108, and all subsequent laws of a country should therefore continue to propagate the culture and democratic values for its transformation and that has been the case in South Africa. William (2006: 212) further stated that “the post-1994 process of adopting new policy on local government involved a wide range of departmental and extra-departmental (for instance, local government, task force and NGO) actors and stakeholders. Departmental stakeholders and participants in the White Paper process included a Political Committee, with departmental, Parliamentary and Provincial Government players, as well as representation from the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and the Working Committee, which incorporated Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), parastatals and departmental players. Direct stakeholders designated for consultation in the White Paper Process were mainly local government councillors, council officials, national and provincial departments dealing with local government affairs, local communities, business and trade unions. Local governments across the country were represented through the nine provincial SALGA associates, and traditional leaders were represented through both the provincial and National Councils of Traditional Leaders, when their particular case was under consideration.”
2.4. The principles of co-operative government

It is clearly stated in the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa that government is are constituted as National, Provincial and Local spheres of government, which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. All spheres of government must observe and adhere to the principles of co-operative government and intergovernmental relations. According to the White Paper on Local Government (1998), all spheres of government are obliged to observe the principles of co-operative government put forward in the 1996 Constitution. Co-operative government assumes the integrity of each sphere of government. But, it also recognizes the complex nature of government in the modern society.

No country today can effectively meet its challenges, unless the components of government function as a cohesive whole. This involves: collectively harnessing all public resources and services and decisions behind common goals and within the framework of mutual support. Rationally and clearly dividing between them the roles and responsibilities of government, so as to minimize confusion and maximize effectiveness.

One function of co-operative governance is to ensure that the three spheres of government fulfill their specific roles. It encourages healthy debate to address the needs of the people they represent by making use of the resources available in government, since they are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. There is a need to clear and effective communication and closer co-operation among the spheres of government, in order to achieve the objectives of the 1996 Constitution of South Africa.

It is the responsibility of the national, provincial, and local governments to achieve the objectives of the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, (Act 13 of 2005). This harmony should be achieved by the settlement of the intergovernmental disputes, in terms of section 40(1), to avoid intergovernmental disputes when exercising their statutory power or performing their statutory functions.
According to Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997: 139), Co-operative government is an innovative concept to resolve problems related to intergovernmental relations. It attempts to address the difficulties experienced by most large bureaucracies in coordinating their government functions and streamlining their administrative activities. In order to monitor and regulate the relationships between the three spheres of government, the competency of each is stipulated in the 1996 Constitution. In terms of the Intergovernmental Relations of Policy of Merafong Municipality, the primary objective of co-operative government is, therefore to provide effective and efficient government. Co-operation between the three spheres of government must, therefore, be geared towards sustainable, integrated delivery of public goods and services and the effective implementation of legislations. These overall objectives are to be achieved by intergovernmental system that ensures mutual consultation on policy and legislation, coordinated strategic planning and accountability for performance and expenditure in terms of legislation.

Malan (1997: 101) writes. “no sphere of government can function effectively without co-operation with others, because of interdependency and interrelatedness of some governmental functions”. These issues comprise spill overs in services, scarce resources, poor economic conditions and popular accountability, as well as grassroots pressure. There is a conceptual difference between co-operative government and intergovernmental relations. Co-operative government is a fundamental philosophy of government.

Bringing the argument to the issue of Khutsong as the case study, several lessons can be learnt from the Khutsong experience, at the national sphere of government, the determining role played by the state in demarcation and boundary-dispute processes should be revisited. The state failed to establish a true partnership with residents of Merafong, who could influence the final outcome of the demarcation process. In fact, national government should have played a more proactive role in harmonising the conflicting viewpoints between the state and the community. The case of Khutsong further highlighted that participatory mechanisms and structures, if not monitored, may reinforce the personal interests of strong leaders. It also provides evidence, for state
actors, on how to prevent similar situations from arising in future. At the community level, the study provides the members of civil society (specific communities) with an opportunity to reflect on the appropriateness of some of their more aggressive responses. It can be concluded that the public participation process in the case of Khutsong was a failure. The government was not open or responsive to the wishes of the community of Khutsong. The belief that public involvement cannot be meaningful if there is an absence in the willingness to consider all views expressed by the public. Public participation in the legislative process, which the 1996 Constitution envisages, is not supposed to be at the receiving end of democracy, but is meant to be an integral part of the process. When the system fails in this respect, there remains no reason for communities to be patient something which leads to protests and outrage.

2.5 The concept of Participatory Democracy

The South African government has committed itself to instituting wide ranging participatory process in the different spheres of government and institutions of government in the country. The attempt to introduce participatory and direct democracy is evident in institutions and processes at national and provincial level, and in the planning processes and policy formulation of local government structures (Putu 2006: 4). The choice to adopt participatory democracy in South Africa since 1994 had not been by accident. There had to be an anti-thesis to the previous apartheid form of separate development in order to mobilize opinion and resources for integrated and sustainable development.

Participatory democracy means the provision of service based on the existing legislative framework that facilitates consultation, involvement and mobilization of especially civil society in the formal processes of policy-making and implementation. Southall (in Nyalunga 2006: 44) adds that participatory democracy entails a high level of public participation in the political process through variety of institutional channels. For that matter, participatory democracy can only come into being when ordinary men and women, young and old are afforded an opportunity to actively and meaningfully contribute to their own development and well-being. Brynard,(1996: 41) however
cautions that what constitutes participatory is relative in that many acts have the potential to shape in some way participatory, and consequently defines participation as an activity undertaken by one or more individuals previously excluded from the decision-making process in conjunction with or more other individuals who were previously the sole protagonists in the process. Participatory democracy is, therefore, a process of inclusivity, a joint process that cuts across racial, privileged and status profiles. The objective is to give recognition to the ethos that the input process is best driven by those who are affected by a problem (Hanekom 1987: 34). Inclusively in decision-making is therefore the bedrock of democracy, the tenets of which involve the existence of a system with freedom of speech, association and assembly, as is the right to stand for office, a free press, and a secret ballot. Further, these tenets are strengthened by a stronger economy, the presence of credible political opposition, and, in the context of the study existence of pluralism based on a strong civil society, and the need to distinguish between the state and the ruling party (Thomson 2000: 218). In this regard ward committees as civil society organizations functioning well in the role of participatory democracy in that they are an innovative legislative vehicle, and cater for or facilitate mass representation that deal with matters that affect their localities in relation to policy-making by a municipality. In underscoring the outmost need for inclusivity in government decision-making, David and Maphunye (2005: 129) point out that participation before and after decision-making are fundamental to improve the quality of decisions and to improve compliance. With participation prior to decision-making, authorities have an opportunity to reflect on public opinion and to gain commitment for participation in projects after decision-making.

The most commonly known forms of participatory democracy are elections and referenda. Elections do much more than simply determine who will win the form the next government. The primary role, of course, is to provide a routine mechanism for recruiting and selecting individuals to occupy seats in representative institutions. Regularly held elections also provide citizens with periodic opportunities to review the government’s record, assess its mandate, and replace it with an alternative (Jackson & Jackson 1997: 366). A further form of popular participatory democracy is the referendum, the means by which a policy question can be submitted directly to the
electorate rather than being decided exclusively by the elected representatives. The problem here is that such a referendum on a specific issue may easily be converted into a plebiscite, a vote of confidence or not, in the government proposing the vote (Tansey 2002: 178). One may postulate if that is what has turned Khutsong into an Achilles heel of the Government and residents of Khutsong. There is no doubt that ward committees are innovated to fulfil the functions of participatory democracy.

2.6 Meaning of Community Participation

The literature on community participation demonstrates the point that the subject matter is not new (see Oakley, 1991; Bekker 1996; Brynard 1996; Ismail 1997; Meyer and Theron 2000 and the Republic of South Africa 2000 local government: Municipal Systems Act). What is new is the re-emergence of community participation within the context of a new world-order (Manila Declaration on People’s Participation and Sustainable Development in (Meyer and Theron 2000: 161).

2.6.1 Community Conceptualisation

Van der Waldt (2007: 27) states that a citizen is someone who is broadly seen as a member of the state and has particular rights and duties. Citizens play a crucial role in the governance/local arena: as worker, tax payers; residents and consumers of services. Kuye (2002: 13) shares the same sentiments and posits that initiatives to strengthen government institutions and civil societies form the foundation of good governance, and as such, attempt to create a transparent, accountable and democratic government. Therefore, it can be stated that for local government to function efficiently, it needs to create strong ties with all relevant stakeholders and also take the views of such stakeholders into account when making decisions. The consideration of the input made by civil society is of paramount importance and municipalities should not merely consult them without actually having an interest in the points or concerns.

Community participation can be defined as a process wherein the common amateurs of a community exercise power over decisions related to the general affairs of a community (Brynard, cited in Bekker 1996: 40). On the other hand, Levy (2007: 71)
emphasizes that public engagement, underpinned by access to high quality information, forms an outermost and possibly the most important element of a national system of checks and balances.

Fourie (2002: 121) argues that accountability encompasses a three-tiered definition:

- To be responsible for the execution of activities;
- To be responsible for compliance or non-compliance with the set of requirements; and
- To be responsible for reporting on the progress of compliance or non-compliance with the set of requirements.

The aforementioned definition by Fourie makes an important point since the elected politicians need to account to their constituencies with regard to decisions that were taken by them on their behalf and through public participation. The above conceptualization concludes that community participation refers to an active involvement by people who have a sense of belonging to the policy processes and who have an active role in determining the outputs of governments.

2.6.2 Public Participation Theories

Despite theoretical disagreement about the proper definition and the practice of participation, the literature reflects consensus about a variety of additional techniques, which can enhance the process and result in more effective and democratic plans. The experience of the limited participation during urban renewal and the debate surrounding maximum feasible participation in the 1950s and 1960s sparked an intense professional interest on the topic of public participation in planning (Arnstein, 1971: 2). This author contributed one of the most important and influential theories on public participation, in which participation is described as a ladder. Arnstein, a former United States Department of Housing and Urban Development official, regards public participation as an eight-rung metaphorical ladder. The rungs are organized into three levels: non-participation (manipulation and therapy), tokenism (informing, consultation, and placation), and citizen power (partnership, delegated power, citizen control). Interlaced
with this description are anecdotal stories describing both flawed participation and successful examples where power was delegated to community representatives (Arnstein, 1971: 2).

However, this theory has been criticized on a number of grounds. Firstly, it offers little guidance for planners seeking to design processes that conform to the standards proposed. Secondly, the citizen control section describes one approach as giving grants to grassroots organizations. However, the author concedes that full neighborhood self-government seems unlikely in the future. Thirdly, aside from criticizing the usual methods used by formal planning to incorporate citizen input like public meetings and special committees, Arnstein has little to say about how these processes can be improved. Fourthly, criticism springs from the little provision supplied to those who might disagree that citizen control should be the proper goal of citizen participation. Finally, Arnstein’s theory radically eliminates any role for the rational or technical expertise of planners and assumes citizen power will result in good planning decisions. In addition, four principles underpin the theory, namely: de-professionalization, decentralization, demystification and democratisation. Although this theory did not get much criticism, its application is limited because of its emphasis on methodology and scientific data collection (Arnstein, 1971: 2).

From the theorist’s point of view this is a new area where there is not enough evidence to offer in the way of advice on how this form of participation is used more effectively. But it is worth time to tune in the bulletin boards or list of services that focus on related topics (Creighton 2005: 9). Despite the diversity in Creighton’s theory and other approaches, some researchers have identified the prevalence of numerous common themes, and a study that proposed clearer regulation of participation organizes these themes into five areas. This framework provides a contemporary summary as to which of these forms of participation should take place according to stated professional theories:

- Objectives: provide information for, as well as listen to, citizens; empower citizens by providing opportunities to influence planning decisions;
- Timing: involve the public early and continuously;
• Targets: seek participation from a broad range of stakeholders;
• Techniques: use a number of techniques to give and receive information from citizens and, in particular, provide opportunities for dialogue;
• Information: provide more information in a clearly understood form, free of distortion and technical jargon (Creighton 2005: 9).

The collaborative approach hypothesis is another theory on public participation worth mentioning. In this theory, Innes and Booher (2004: 564) urge the abandoning of the existing model of participation, for a collaborative approach that should be understood as a multi-way set of interactions among citizens and other players who together produce outcomes (Innes and Booher 2004: 419). These authors argue that the legally required methods of public participation, in particular public hearings and review and comment procedures do not work, and antagonize the public, pit citizens against each other, polarize issues, and discourage participation. Recognizing that governance is no longer only about government but now involves action and power distributed widely in society, the theorists advocate a set of approaches that are inclusive of stakeholders and that put dialogue at their core (Innes and Booher, 2004: 420).

They further describe differences between currently legally required participation methods and the proposed collaborative approaches as one way talk vs dialogue; elite or self-selecting vs diverse participants; reactive vs involved at the outset; top-down education vs mutually shared knowledge; one-shot activities vs continuous engagement; and the use for routine activities vs for controversial choices. While the theorists acknowledge that the two approaches can coexist, the practical obstacles for replacing the existing techniques with collaborative ones are significant, and the list includes everything from open meetings, laws, costs of collaborative efforts, and the hubris of elected officials (Innes & Booher, 2004: 422). In addition, this theory suggests the next steps for advocates, which include developing an alternative practice framework a daunting task that may not be possible given the significant expense and lack of specificity in the proposal.
Besides the theories mentioned above, there are several others dealing with public participation. However, the theories above were selected because of popularity and influence in the study of public participation. Nonetheless, despite the professional consensus about good public participation, its practices range according to local preference, availability of funds and the values of government officials. Despite the proliferation of theory, techniques, and evaluations, the legal requirements of participation remain the same in many communities.

2.7 International context of public participation

It is important to look at the international and local statutory instruments separately in an attempt to contextualize the legal framework of the process in South Africa. This is due to the difference in scope and intent, with international laws largely acting in a facilitating framework while local laws are regulative. International laws and treaties, with some reference to public participation, have bearing on South Africa. Since 1994 the country has become party to most relevant international human rights and other treaties relevant to delivery of public services, including the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights and other international human rights instruments. The notable exception is that of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. South Africa has submitted reports to the treaty monitoring bodies, though not always on time (Peterson, 2006: 5). In addition, South Africa has ratified the African Union (AU) Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption and similar documents at the United Nations (UN) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) level, as well as the SADC protocols on education and health (Peterson 2006: 6).

South Africa also spearheaded the development of other non-binding documents relating to the functioning of the public service, including the Charter for the Public service in Africa, the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD), and the NEPAD Declaration on Political, Economic, and Corporate Governance. Furthermore, South Africa has committed itself to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and the Dakar Framework for action on Education for all (Open Society Foundation for South Africa, 2007: 1). It is important to note that no international statutory instruments specifically govern how member states should implement public
participation policies. This is because of the overwhelming difference between member states and the varying policies, as well as the level of importance attached to the public participation. Therefore, the international treaties provide an enabling environment under which member states can implement public participation policies in a manner that specifically suits each local environment. However at international level, many countries have initiated processes of strengthening public participation schemes, following the adoption of principle 10 of the Rio Declaration in 1992 at the Earth Summit. Principle 10 promotes public participation in environmental decision-making and access to information and justice in environmental matters (Peterson, 2006:9). Even though public participation is legally significant, the principle is at the best still emerging as a binding norm of international law.

Provision to ensure public participation is now standard in nearly all treaties on sustainable development. Moreover, it is broadly recognized that decision-making quality will improve if public access to information, participation and justice are secured. However, the “right” to public participation, access to information and especially to justice (with responding duty upon state) is still being recognized in human rights law related to sustainable development; and has only just begun to be broadly implemented in practice. Similarly, in most countries, at national level, specific provisions in legislation permit and encourage participation and access to information and justice, rather than a general constitutional principle.

Yet, without being defined as a principle of customary law, the requirement that states shall provide effective avenues for public participation could be normative in the sense of a guide for a practical decision-making process at both international and domestic levels. In this context, the processes that have generated a legitimate expectation, derived from international discourse over the last three decades, that is states and other actors, should ensure some avenues for public participation in international processes related to sustainable development (Masango: 2009: 14).

It is both possible and legitimate for some norms to remain solely at the pre-legal stage of development, yet provide moral suasion for types of behaviour or serve as steps towards the development of substantive legal norms. Although there are international
treaties governing and promoting public participation, public participation activities are still few and divided along sectoral lines. Firstly, the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (United Nations General Assembly, 1966) declares that every citizen has the right to participate in “the conduct of public affairs, directly or freely through representatives to vote and to be elected at genuine periodic elections, which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret ballot and guarantee the free expression of the will of the electors. Secondly, the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights illustrates the importance of access to information, stating that “education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society”.

Thirdly, the 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity specifically mentions the need for participation by women “at all levels of policy making and implementation”, together with public participation in environmental impact assessment, in the inclusion of non-governmental bodies or urgencies as observers in the meeting of the conference of the parties (COP). According to the Climate Change Convention, it is the duty of the state to “promote and facilitate” public participation to address climate and develop adequate responses (United Nations General Assembly, 1992: 2).

Fourthly, the 1994 Convention on Combating Desertification and Reiterates many of the elements of the Biodiversity Climate Change Convention, though it is more explicit in highlighting public participation. It specifically noted:

- The importance of participation of women and youth in all levels;
- That decision-making is to involve local communities; and
- The role of non-governmental organizations in facilitating and promoting awareness (United Nations General Assembly 1994: 1).

Fifthly, the 1998 Convention of Access to Information, Public Participation and Decision-Making and Access to Justice into Environmental Matters provides that “access to information, public participation in decision-making and access to justice in environmental matters are necessary for the fulfillment of the right to live in an...
environmental adequate for personal health and well-being” IUCN’s draft international
covenant on environment and development, notes the rights of all persons to
“participate in a relevant decision-making process” (United Nations General Assembly
1966: 1). The 1994 draft UN declaration on a genius people recognises the right of the
indigenous people to participate in the political, economic, social and cultural life of the
state” and that this right exists “at all levels of decision-making in matters which may
affect their right lives and destiny” (United Nations General Assembly 1966: 3). The
ways in which people participate can be determined through “procedures determined by
them in devising legislative or administrative merges that may affect them”, if the people
so choose.

2.8 Topologies for Public Participation

Pretty, L., Casijit, I., Scoones, I & Thomson, J, (1995), states that the topologies illustrate
the different conceptions with regards to public participation, these topologies are:-

- Passive participation, this relates to a unilateral top-down announcement by the
  authorities. Information being shared belongs to outsiders;

- Participation in information giving. People participation in answering questions
  posted by questionnaires strategies. The public do not have the opportunity to
  influence proceedings as the findings of the research are neither shared nor
  evaluated for accuracy;

- Participation by consultation. People participate by being consulted as
  professionals, consultants and planners listen to their views. The disadvantage
  with this topology is that professionals define both problems and solutions and
  may modify these in the light of people’s responses. Most worryingly is that this
  process doesn't include any sharing in decision-making by the public, nor
  professionals are under any obligation to consider the public views;

- Participation for material incentives. People participate by providing resources
  such as labour in return for food or cash. People are the executors of projects,
though not included in the initiation and planning of the project so that public can learn;

- Functional participation. Here people participate in a group context to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. But the problem is people are not involved in the early stages of the project (for example project cycle and planning) they are involved once important decisions have been already been taken;

- Interactive participation. People participate in a joined analysis, the development of action plans and capacity building. Here participation is seen as a right not a means to achieve project goals; and

- Self-mobilisation. People here participate by taking initiatives independently from external institutions to change systems. This bottom-up approach allows people to develop contacts with external institutions for resources and the technical advices they need though the people remain with control over how resources are used.

2.9 Legislative Framework for Public Participation and Engagement in South African Local Government

In June 1955, all the leaders of movements that strove to end apartheid rule in South Africa met in Kliptown, near Johannesburg. The meeting was called the Congress of the People, which agreed to adopt a list of rights, called the Freedom Charter. In terms of the Freedom Charter, South Africa belongs to all who lives on it. Black and White, and no government can justifiably claim authority unless it is based on the will of the people. The Freedom Charter pledges that the people shall govern, have equal rights and be equal before the eyes of the law. It also contains a list of demands and rights that the majority of South Africans did not have, as a result of the Apartheid regime. However, the principles of the Freedom Charter could not take effect until they were promulgated into law through the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996).
It is clear that the Freedom Charter of 1955 already envisaged a new era of participatory democracy in which the people shall govern, through public participation and consultation, which is a cornerstone of developmental local government. It could therefore be argued that the Freedom Charter of 1955 was the origin of developmental local government. To regulate interactions between the state and the public, the South African government has created policies, legislations and, mechanisms to create an enabling environment for meaningful participation. Each government department needs to formulate a comprehensive public participation strategy within of co-operative and integrated governance, sending a coherent message to their stakeholders, the public which they will engage (Theron in Davids 2005b: 129).

According to Van der Waldt (2007: 40), legislation can be regarded as a collection of rules devised and enforced by a government that has authority over the public. Legislation ensures that government bodies adhere to the spirit and stipulations of particular legislation in the design and execution of policy programmes. One of the requirements of the legislation was to promote democracy at the local government sphere (Thornhill in De Villiers 2001: 71). The next session deals with legislation that enhances participation.

When the new government came into power in 1994 it dedicated its effort on transforming and developing decentralized institutions, such as local government with the separate autonomy and legal status distinct from other spheres of government to create an enabling environment for community consultation. Community participation in South Africa is achieved thorough pieces of legislation and policies. These are:-

**The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996**, the preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) emphasizes the need for the improvement of the living conditions of all citizens. Currie and De Waal (2001: 27) state that the constitution also advocates inclusivity, in that it envisages the establishment of the South African society based on democratic values and social justice. Section 152 (1) (a) obliges municipalities to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in local government. The Act, through section 152 (objects of local government), stipulates that government shall engage with citizens when making
decisions that affect their lives, and the citizen can also participate in choosing a government of their choice, in terms of section 195(e), (Basic values and principles governing public administration) people’s needs must be adhered to and the public must participate in legislative and policy-making processes, which goes well beyond the right to vote in periodic elections. Furthermore, the 1996 constitution emphasises the principles of accountability, transparency and openness. This has relevance for public participation, in that it imposes a general obligation on government, particularly its elected representatives, and creates a climate that encourages and promotes interaction.

The 1996 constitution sees local government as a key fostering democratisation. In terms of section 152(2) municipalities must strive within their financial and administrative capacity, to achieve the objects set out in section 152(1), which emphasize, inter alia, the need to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in municipal matters.

The 1996 constitution clearly refers to the new developmental role of local government and hence a new mandate for local government. Although the Constitution does provide for a new developmental mandate for local government, it does not stipulate the structural framework within which public consultation and participation should take place. It was the White Paper on Local Government (1998), with its strong emphasis on public participation, which provided a basis for developmental legislation.

**Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000**, in the preamble of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32(2000), a reference is made to the engagement of communities in the affairs of local government with regard to planning, service delivery and performance management. The Municipal Systems Act defines a community as a body of persons comprising the residents of a municipality, the rate payers of a municipality, civic organisations involved in local affairs and visitors who make use of the facilities and services within that municipality. It is therefore the responsibility of municipalities to ensure that these groupings participate in local governance to complement formal representative government. The Municipal Systems Act defines “the legal nature of a municipality as including the local community within
the municipal area, working in partnerships with the municipality’s political and administrative structures to provide for community participation.”

Section 16(1) requires a municipality to develop “a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative’s government with a system of participatory governance”; to contribute to the building of capacity of the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality and councillors and staff to foster community participation. Public participation takes place through political structures, public meetings, and consultative sessions, report back sessions with the local community and through the mechanism of izimbizo (informal gatherings with councillors where questions can be asked on any issue related to municipal matter) (Craythorne 2006: 171).

Section 4 of the Act states that a council has a duty to:

- Encourage the involvement of the local community; and
- Consult the community about the level, quality, range and impact of a municipal services provider.

In terms of Section 5 of the Act, members of the community have the right to:

- Contribute to the decision-making processes of the municipality and submit written or oral recommendation, representations and complaints to the municipal council;
- Be informed of decisions of the municipal council; and
- Receive regular disclosure of the affairs of the municipality, including its finances.

In Section 42, a Municipality, through appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures, 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 settings of appropriate key performance indicators and performance targets of the municipality.
Local Government Municipal Systems Act 117 of 1998, in Section 17 of the Municipality Systems Act, which provides for mechanisms, processes and procedures for community, participation. In terms of Section 17(1) of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000, participation by the local community in the affairs of a municipality must be effected through the following:

- Political structures for participation, in terms of the Municipal Structures Act (1998);
- The mechanisms, processes and procedures for participation in municipal governance, in terms of the Municipal Systems Act (2000);
- Other appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures established by the municipality;
- Councillors generally applying the provisions for participation, as provided for in the Municipal Systems Act.

In terms of Section 17(2) of the Municipal Systems Act, a municipality must establish appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures to enable the local community to participate in the affairs of municipality and must provide for the following:

- The receipt, processing and considerations of the petitions and complaints lodged by any members of the local community;
- Notification and public comments procedures, when appropriate;
- Public meetings and hearings by the municipal council and other political structures and political office-bearers of the municipality, when appropriate;
- Consultative sessions with locally recognized community organisations and, when appropriate, traditional authorities; and
- Report back to the local communities.
Section 21 of the Municipal Systems Act promotes the use of local media for communication with the public to ensure that all sections of the local community are reached. This should take into account the main languages that are spoken in the local area. Although the Municipal Systems Act deals with the establishment of ward committees as a public participation structure, it does not provide for related procedures and processes.

Section 18 states that whenever mechanisms have been put in place to promote community participation, these should be communicated to the community, together with the processes and procedures to be followed. The communication of the information should take into account language barriers and people with special needs.

Section 19 states that council meetings should be accessible to the public and that notices announcing Council meetings must appear in the media, clearly stating the relevant date, time and venue.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998), reviewed the state of local government at the time (1998), making several recommendations. In terms of section B of the above White Paper, developmental local government is defined as government committed to work with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives. In order to realise the concept of developmental local government, section B of the White Paper on Local Government stipulates the following key components:

- Characteristics of developmental local government;
- Developmental outcomes of local government; and
- Tools of and approaches for developmental local government.

The characteristics of developmental local government listed as follows:

- Maximising social development and economic growth;
- Integrating and coordinating;
- Democratising development, empowering and redistribution; and
- Leading and learning.

With regard to democratising development, Section 40 of the White Paper prescribes that the municipal councillors should promote the involvement of citizens and community groups in the design and delivery of municipal programmes. It can therefore be argued that developmental local government hinges on public consultation and participation. The White Paper further provides for the following tools and approaches for development local government:

- Integrated development planning (IDP), budgeting and performance monitoring;
- Performance management; and
- Working together with local citizens and partners.

One of the strengths of IDP is that it recognises the linkages between development, service delivery and democracy. In Sections 53 to 55 of the White Paper on Local Government (1998), municipalities require public participation at the following four levels:

- As voters, to ensure the maximum democratic accountability of the elected political leadership for the policies they are empowered to promote;

- As citizens who express, via various stakeholder associations, their views before, during and after policy development processes in order to ensure that such 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 mobilization of resources for development via for-profit business, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community based organization.
According to Houston, Humphries and Liebenberg (2001: 211) the White Paper on Local Government requests municipal councils to involve communities in the design and delivery of municipal programmes. It suggests ways in which municipalities across the country can engage the public and community institutions in the affairs of the municipality in their capacities as voters, citizens affected by municipal policies, consumers and end-users of municipal services, and partners in mobilising resources for the development of a municipal area.

The Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 (1998), states that as a result of the fact that local government is regarded as the sphere of government closest to the people, the core of all related legislation is to establish ways to ensure that citizens give input into the decisions that local municipalities make. It is the first piece of developmental legislation that dealt in specific terms with the structures and processes required to affect public consultation and participation in South Africa. Chapter 4, Part 4 of the White Paper in Local Government: deals with the establishment, functions and powers of ward committees in the South African local governance system.

According to Thornhill (in De Villiers 2001: 72), a ward committee consists of a ward councillor who will act as a chairperson and include not more than 10 members from the ward concerned. The ward committee offers ordinary citizens who may not be interested in campaigning or being fully involved in municipal matters and opportunity to contribute to their communities by way of representation on ward committees. The ward participatory system of municipal government allows for the establishment of ward committees to facilitate citizen participation in the matters of local governance.

Section 72 of the Act, specifies that only Metropolitan and local municipalities of a certain type may have a Ward Committee’s participatory system. In terms of Section 72(3) of the Act, the object of the Ward Committee is to enhance participatory democracy in local government. This, in practice, is carried out through public participation.
The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery (1997) considers the Citizen Public as customers who must be given priority in terms of the Batho Pele (People First) principles. Section 1.3.3 stipulates the enhancement of public participation. This implies listening to their views and taking account of them in making decisions about what services should be provided, treating them with consideration and respect, and making sure that the promised level and quality of service is always of the highest standard. In terms of Section 4 of the White Paper, there are eight principles of transforming public service delivery.

The Provision of the Municipal Demarcation Act, 27 of 1998 was promulgated on the 3 July 1998 to provide for criteria and procedures for the determination of municipal boundaries by an independent authority. The Act gives effect to the provisions of Chapter 7 of the 1996 Constitution. It should, however, be noted that the Act is clear or specific as to the role of Ward Committees in the demarcation processes.

In terms of Section 24(a)(i), one of the objectives of the Act is the provision of democratic and accountable government for local communities. Section 26(1)(b) and 28(1) both provide for involvement of the communities affected in the demarcation processes. As such, it is evident that the Municipal Demarcation Act is developmental legislation that encourages public consultation and participation in local government affairs.

The Act also makes it optional, in terms of Section 28(1), for the Demarcation Board to hold public meetings during the municipal demarcation process. Municipalities must hold meetings with their communities to discuss the proposals of the Demarcation Board and submit what that entails and its impact.

The Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2, of 2000 was promulgated to give effect to Section 32 of the South African constitution, i.e. the right of citizens to access information held by public or private bodies. The Act seeks to foster a culture of transparency and accountability in public institutions. A secondary purpose of the Act is to promote a society in which the public have access to information, in order to empower them to exercise and protect their rights.
The Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act 41 of 2003, stipulates that traditional leaders should be part of democratic leadership and governance structures at the local government spheres. In this co-operative relationship with municipalities traditional leadership should facilitate public participation, especially in policy and service delivery decisions that affect rural communities. The above mentioned legislation and policy framework have been formulated to facilitate the processes of public participation and engagement. The value of such participation is critical for sustaining democracy.

2.10 The value of Public Participation in Local Governance in South Africa

The issue of public participation is of crucial importance in a democratic government such as South Africa’s. It touches a core of the relationship between the citizen and their municipality. This relationship is supposed to be uniquely close and interdependent (Brynard in Bekker 2006: 49). Kalu (in Kakabadse & Kakabadse 2006: 75) has this to say to emphasise the value of public participation:

...administrative leaders have generally been receptive to the idea of public participation or engagement in governance through public meetings. The underlying ethos is that popular public participation is the most acceptable route to encourage participatory democracy in the hope of making government more directly accountable to the public interest.

King (cited by Kroukamp 2002: 52) argues that public participation is costly, time consuming and frustrating. But it should be retained because of the following reasons:

- Firstly, public participation, in and of itself, constitutes affirmative activity, an exercise of the very initiative, the creativity, the self-reliance, the faith that specific programmes such as education and others seek to instill. Participation is, in fact, the necessary concomitant of our faith in the dignity and worth of the individual. It implies that the public wrestle with the meaning of normative and practical concerns as social equity, citizenship, social conflict, co-operation,
The denial of effective participation, including the opportunity to choose, to be heard, to discuss, to criticize, to protest and to challenge decisions regarding the most fundamental conditions of existence is a denial of the worth of the individual;

- Secondly, public participation, properly utilized, is a means of mobilizing the resources and energies of the poor. In the South African situation, those that are in the informal settlements surrounding many cities and towns are a living example of passive consumers of the services to producers of those services. Citizen participation thus exerts pressure to increase mass production for mass consumption;

- Thirdly, public participation constitutes a source of special insight, of information, of knowledge and experience that cannot be ignored by those concerned, and their efforts should fulfill their aims. In South Africa comprehensive action programmes, devised by professionals and accepted by the dominant social, political, education and economic institutions represent consensus of the majority on how to solve social problems;

- Fourthly, vigorous, continued public participation is indispensable to consolidating democracy. When the future of the very regime espousing democracy is at stake because it is a new and uncertain experience, the basic objectives should be ensured through experiencing it at first hand. This might be in a procedural, formal sense when participation for many is confined to electing their representatives periodically and regularly.

- Finally, public participation in governance has an instrumental purpose too. If, by participating, the public are able to satisfy their needs and even their demands by observing the rules of the game of democracy then there is all the more reason to support the game and indeed nurture it. Lawrance and Stanton (cited in Kroukamp 2002: 54) say the emphasis in this instance falls on the tangible opportunities and resources having resource to the former and acquiring the latter.
2.11 Modes of community participation in South Africa

In South Africa, government is divided into three spheres, namely, the national, provincial and local spheres of government. In order for these spheres of government to function actively, participation of community members in the affairs has become necessary, especially on the matters directly affecting them. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act argues in favour of accountable, transparent and consultative government through community participation on intergovernmental relations (IGR) matters. It is further argued that at this level, IGR makes provision for the interface of local needs and concerns. However, bringing about the satisfactory involvement of communities is challenged by the scope and nature of government in South Africa, which are wide and complex. The involvement of communities is intended to increase the transparency of how government decisions are made. Currently the following are different methods of community participation that are used by government when consultation processes are undertaken, and they are further discussed below:

2.11.1 Izimbizo

Traditionally, when members of the community assemble at community meetings to discuss issues of common interest that gathering is called or termed imbizo in Nguni (plural is Izimbizo). It is important to note that while this term is Nguni, other aboriginal African languages in South Africa and elsewhere in Africa are familiar with this practice. Mabelebele (2006: 105) posits that izimbizo should be defined as a popular platform for policy debates, discussion and performance of the implementation of the government problems and this approach has been adopted by the government since 2001. Its main purpose is to facilitate face-to-face communication between government leaders and community members. The President, Executive Mayor, Premiers and the members of the executive council of the provinces of South Africa are also engaged in imbizo activities.

However, one important concern is how government officials should be held accountable by the community with regard to the promises they make during izimbizo in
particular. This method of izimbizo, just like any other method, has its own shortcomings. Therefore, the need to formalise government izimbizo in order to hold officials accountable for promises made, becomes more pressing. **Taking the legislature to the people** is an initiative aimed at taking sittings of the legislature outside the legislative precinct. A venue is identified for a sitting of the legislature and MECs are invited to interact with the members of the public. Members of the public are actively encouraged to raise service-delivery issues pertinent to them. Members of the Legislature conduct their debates in a venue that has been identified away from the legislature precinct. This gives members of the public an opportunity to get to know the people who represent them in government. This can be done by means of public hearings. Sector parliaments are an important tool for enhancing public participation and deepening the process of democracy. Sector parliaments were established with the aim of providing sector parliamentary debates among the youth, women, workers, senior citizens and people with disabilities. These debates coincide with national days of recognition of these sectors. Such sessions provide for representative structures to convene and conduct mock parliamentary debates, assuming the roles of parliamentarians in order to raise issues of concern that confront them.

Participants are encouraged to debate based on an identified theme. At the end of the debate, participants are encouraged to formulate resolutions. These resolutions are then forwarded to the relevant members of the executive council (MEC) for the attention. At the following sitting of a particular Sector Parliament, the relevant MECs will then give responses to the resolutions raised in the previous setting of the Sector parliament Putu (2006: 7).

### 2.11.2 Community Ward Structures

It should be borne in mind that, at the municipal sphere category A and B as the only municipalities with wards preparatory systems (Cameron and Stone 2005: 335). Sections 8, 9 and 10 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act, 1998,
make provision for the different type of municipality and the different type of government system that should be in place in all different types of municipalities.

Chapter 4 of the Act indicates the types of internal structure and functioning which are supposed to assist the municipal functioning regarding the achievement of the objectives, needs and priorities of the municipality. These structures make provision for the involvement of the community. However, there is no specific criterion that has been identified to ensure that the input from the community is consolidated into the activities of the municipality. Chapter 4 of the Local government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 stipulates aspects relating to community participation in terms of the processes, development of culture and communication of information, among others. This participatory approach is limited to municipalities, thus it is important to acknowledge the fact that such opportunities should be used optimally by community members.

However, community wards are also used as political extensions by certain councillors or political parties. Thus, ward structures are usually politically charged, instead of being apolitical. Putu (2006: 9) states that while the ward councilor is regarded as the chairperson of the ward committee, community members form part of the committee to facilitate a formal channel of communication with the municipality. The purpose of the creation of the wards should be clarified to committee members to ensure that all members of the community participate in their ward activities without being discriminated against on the basis of political or any group affiliation.

Another method of public participation used by the people of Merafong was public consultation, meetings or hearings (Moodley 2007: 831). In this case, the municipality or government department publishes the date and time, as well as topic, on which the community’s input should be solicited. Invitations are also sent to members and relevant structures of the community to ensure that different views from the community are petitioned. This is done primarily to consolidate input from the stakeholders who are affected or interested in the issue. The government should ensure that the records of
stakeholders attending the meetings are kept so that in future invitations are sent to existing stakeholders, as well as possible new ones. In this regard, there is also a need to make provision for feedback on the developments and decisions taken after deliberations between government and stakeholders (IDASA 2002). In some other provinces like Kwazulu-Natal, **Public hearings** are usually held. They remain one of the most important tools in enhancing public participation in the law-making processes. During public hearings on pending legislation, interest groups, stakeholders and individuals are invited to make submissions. According to Section to 115(a) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the provincial Legislature or any of its committees may receive partition, representations, or submissions from any interested persons or institutions. The KZN legislature has the mandate to hold public hearings on Bills or other related pieces of legislation, and these public hearings aim at obtaining public input on legislative decisions regarding matters of policy, including Section 76 Bills which are those Bills that directly affect provinces. For the benefit of the study, it is important to mention that a consultative approach, an interactive approach and izimbizo were on the top of the list in the mechanisms that were used by the Merafong Municipality when meeting the communities of Khutsong.

**2.11.4 Traditional Leaders**

Traditional leaders are the custodians of the culture and customs of most communities in South Africa. The role of traditional leaders in government affairs is recognised in Sections 211 and 212 of the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The involvement of these leaders in public participation and management affairs on behalf of their communities is encouraged to preserve community values and traditions. Furthermore, Section 819(1)-(5) of the Municipal Structures Act, 1998, not only acknowledges traditional leaders, but also makes provision for them to actively participate in municipal affairs. The Traditional Leadership and Governance Act, 2003 (Act of 2003) is an important document that defines the functions of traditional leaders. Accordingly, without the full participation of traditional leadership, rural development and the entire local government development agenda would not be fully realized. This
indicates that there is a need to harmonize the activities of municipalities and those of traditional leaders in matters of common document interests.

The question arising in this regard is whether these legislative guidelines have a place in the traditional system of governance, as practiced by the traditional leaders regarding the existing legislation. There is a no easy answer to this problem, because local government councillors often undermine the work of traditional leaders in terms of issues such as land and other community disputes. The roles of municipalities and traditional authorities should be redefined continuously in order to ensure that these two powers function co-operatively for sustainable rural development (Putu 2006: 30).

2.11.5 Conferences, workshops and events

It is important that some events should allow for community participation through educational opportunities. These events are in the form of conferences and workshops. From the above it may be deduced that the framework for community participation in South Africa has been established. This means that guideline and these modes to community participation must be adhered to by government activities to provide opportunities to ensure a useful input whenever policies are developed. Accordingly, the relationship between government and civil societies should be encouraged to promote maximum community participation and open discussion on matters of concern. The facilitation of regular meetings between government and such stakeholders is necessary to keep abreast of developments with regard to the implementation of decisions taken. The following are the goal posts for community participation:-

- Facilitating and information gathering to improve the public understanding of the role of government (or department);
- Assuring the dissemination of reliable, timely and useful information on the work of the government department;
- Contributing to public understanding and education, as well as empowerment, for maximum participation by community members;
o Promoting opportunities for the public to participate in all relevant activities; and

o Enhancing the understanding of the government (or departments) and the public by including and considering sectors of the public which are not active.

Furthermore, the legislature has introduced symposia to reach out to the other sectors that fall outside the sphere of influence of sector parliaments. The KZN Legislature held an inter-faith symposium for the first time in April 2011. The aim was to:

o Provide a platform for the inter-faith leaders to be heard on issues that affect them;

o To determine the role that inter-faith leaders can play in deepening democracy through public participation in legislative processes;

o To identify challenges that inter-faith leaders face in deepening democracy;

o To promote a culture of mutual acceptance and socio-religious cohesion among the citizens of the province of KwaZulu-Natal;

o To realize the importance of peace-making, peace-building and peace preservation, as well as the promotion of socio-stability and national reconstruction;

o To achieve socio-economic, environmental and gender justice.

Participants were drawn from all religious groupings throughout KwaZulu-Natal, including Christians, Muslims, Jews, Hindus, and followers of other indigenous religions. These goals for community participation are essential for the promotion of democracy and vibrant engagements between government and community. In order for the KwaZulu-Natal legislature to fulfill its constitutional mandate, it has come up with the following number of public participation initiatives:

**Petitions:** the KwaZulu-Natal Petition Act, 3 of 2004, gives members of the public an opportunity to submit petitions to the legislature. The Act allows for people to submit their petitions as individuals or in groups. The standing committee of Public Participation
and Petitions plays a prominent role in ensuring that all petitions which are received are duly processed and finalized.

**Legislative Tours:** the legislature conducts a lot of tours annually. Most of its visitors are school pupils. Groups of school children are taken on tours of the legislature to learn more about how it functions. People are also encouraged to come and listen to sittings when politicians debate issues of importance.

**Public Education:** the legislature conducts a number of public educational initiatives in the form of educational workshops and outreach initiatives. The Legislature recently launched community radio educational campaigns. These programmes are broad cast in seven community radio stations every Thursday. This initiative has created awareness among communities regarding the role and functions of the KZN Legislature and also reaches out to the rural communities in far flung areas. The response from the targeted audience to this programme has been overwhelming.

2.12 The advantages of public participation

When analyzing the theoretical contributions of participation in development, it is commonly agreed that, due to the different interpretations attached to participation, arguments for and against participation have turned the subject into a broad field, which is not easy to cover. These contributions are therefore grouped in terms of dimensions such as empowerment, efficiency and effectiveness, accountability and sustainability in order to analyse the importance of participation. These dimensions will be discussed briefly below, with the point of departure being the theoretical origins and history of participatory development outlined in the previous paragraphs.

The 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa contains several provisions for public participation through various modes mentioned above. However, in some respects the effectiveness of such public participation may be questioned. For instance, according to Buccus (2008: 54), in spite of the fact that members of the public have the opportunity to make an input in forums such as public hearings, it could be questioned
whether that provides meaningful input; hence the need to provide for clear means to solicit meaningful input from communities that are tailored to the interests and needs. Subsequently, Buccus (2008: 54) recommends the inclusion of public education as a prerequisite for public participation. One of the building blocks upon which democracy stands consists of the opinions and attitudes of society (Ippolito, Walker and Kolson 1976: 302). The fact that the elite and the masses (ordinary members of the public) may hold different views on basic values could have negative implications for democracy since it may not encourage public participation.

Public opinion reinforces and sustains democracy since it contributes towards legitimacy and stability of the democratic process. An informed public plays a crucial role in strengthening democracy. Rawnsely (2005: 66) confirms that community participation mediates between citizens and their state institutions and all governments and most politicians treat community participation as a powerful force. This is in keeping with the fact that although the relationship between public opinion and policy actions is neither simple nor direct; policy makers do not appear to be unaffected in their choices. However although government should react to the views of the communities as a guide to policy-making, this does not imply that people should always receive the services or commodities they say they require (Rawnsely 2005: 71).

Participatory theory points out that participation empowers the primary beneficiaries of development programmes or projects by helping them break away from dependency mentality, as well as promoting self-awareness and confidence (Burkley 1993: 53). When contributed to the poor, it can find solutions to their problems that they are having, because poverty is one of the major causes of powerlessness and exclusion from participation on the part of the poor. Powerlessness expresses itself in the form of discrimination, isolation and lack of human rights. Empowerment is therefore crucial in poverty alleviation as it enables people to have direct access to productive resources, thereby increasing their earning to secure the goods and services needed (Masango: 2009: 4).

Efficiency is normally regarded as a measure of how economically a process of intervention has been delivered in respect of results or output produced in relation to
costs and timing. It is the general assumption that by taking part the beneficiaries will help to improve the process of development and as such reduce costs. Participation assumed to promote efficiency where local rather than external resources are employed in a programme or project. Another contribution of participation stems from the theory that development interventions in the past have failed because of lack of primary stakeholder participation. The effectiveness of a development intervention can be understood as the extent to which an intervention is successful in achieving its objectives. In other words, despite the fact that an intervention delivered an appropriate service or goods, it is still necessary to understand what the outcomes of such a performance have been. If local people participate actively in the planning, implementation, control and evaluation of a programme or project, they become more committed and thus increase its success (Oakley, 1991: 17).

One condition that is crucial for the effectiveness of development activities is that, through participation, local people will ensure that these activities are based upon indigenous knowledge and are more relevant to local needs (Theron 2005c: 138). He further stated that if local communities are allowed to participate in the monitoring of programmes or projects, it helps to detect problems early before they develop into serious conflicts, which in the end become destructive (Theron 2005c: 35).

2.13 Challenges to public participation

While citizen participation is legislated for South Africa, it is not without limitations (IDASA, 2002). Greyling (cited in Bradshaw, 2007: 48) pointed out that participation is not necessary aimed at building consensus, but rather at generating a diversity of opinions and views. This in itself presents a huge challenge. It is furthermore problematic that public participation is too often just conducted as a type of therapy for stakeholders, while the crucial decisions have already been taken. Jansen (2002: 208) noted that, internally, the processes of participation have a number of significant limitations: not all groups are able to participate equally due to differentials of access,
power and expertise; and the views expressed in various final reports often did not reflect exact opinions of stakeholders and participants.

Creighton (2005: 2) emphasizes that there are many challenges in converting the concept of public participation into a different reality of everyday interaction among the state, companies and the public; for example, the reality of budgets and legal constraints. There is sometimes a need to make quick decisions, and decisions should be based on the best available scientific and technical information. These are some of the external political realities compounding the challenges relating to public participation. There is a negative attitude toward participation, which stems from two chief sources: lack of clarity in the definitions used to describe public (or citizen) participation and the use of inappropriate strategies to achieve it (Theorn, David, and Maphunye, 2004: 2).

**Legislative limitations on participation:** participatory government should not permit interference with a municipal council’s right to govern and exercise the executive and legislative authority of the municipality. The municipal council, which is the product of representative democracy, has the sole legal mandate to govern. More importantly, it has the political legitimacy to do so, since it is brought about through the will of the people (www.idasa.org.za).

Political democracy is there to complement politically legitimate and legally responsible structures. A community participatory structure, such as Ward Committee, for an instance, may add to the formal structures of government, but may not replace or substitute them (Source:www.idasa.org.za).

There are other limitations to public participation, apart from the legislative limitations mentioned earlier. Bekker (1996: 71) has identified the following limitations:

- Government normally involves citizens in areas in which they know they will get a positive response;
- There is generally a problem of apathy in local government, with the result that only a handful of citizens participate;
Inflexible institutional arrangements and work procedures designed for efficiency rather than for responsiveness to public participation usually hamper public participation;

The perception of the public that it is not worthwhile to participate, since their views will not be taken seriously, leads to apathy and little public participation;

There is a general lack of government response to or feedback on issues raised by the communities, which renders them despondent and demotivates them from further participation in local government;

Often, citizens are not provided with sufficient information to equip them for participation channels, and approaches at the local government sphere in South Africa reflect a shift from participation by the elite towards a community oriented “Bottom-up” approach, although progress has been made in terms of legislations. However, with time and community empowerment, the ideas of community participation will be realized (Bekker, 1996: 41).

The more obvious limitations of citizen participation present themselves in the current dilemmas outlined below by Meyer and Theron (2000: 64). Although participatory democracy encourages popular participation, reality shows that not every citizen is interested, or has the capacity, to participate in public affairs:

A diversity of languages in a community can cause problems if, for example, interpreters communicate wrong interpretation;

In the event that the needs and requests of citizens are not being addressed, reluctance to participate may result;

Bureaucracies in developing countries are not structured to facilitate citizen participation, which hampers constructive citizen-input;

In conflict-ridden societies, citizen participation may be limited due to fear; and
Some activities of government are technical and may be in conflict with community values and preferences (2006: 64).

2.14 Ways to improve citizen participation in local government planning and policy processes

Although citizen participation in national issues receives media attention, the same cannot be said about local efforts to influence public policy making. This part of the study examines a way of improving participation at local government planning and policy processes. South Africa, beyond the first democratic elections, revealed that much needs to be done to put the 1996 Constitution into action. South Africans soon came face-to-face with challenges of good governance sound institutional development and effective resource management. In this search for pragmatic approach to improve local governance, the following are some of the ways to improve citizen participation in local government.

2.14.1 Encouraging formal Education and Awareness about Public Affairs

Education for citizenry in the understanding of the functioning of the state and state process, inclusive of public institutions in democracies, is of great importance. Education increases levels of awareness and understanding of state structures, institutions and processes. In order to develop and sustain public participation there must be a particular level of education and intellectual sophistication present in most members of the society.

Bratton, Mattes & Gyimah-Boadi (2005: 40) on the fact that theorists generally agree that public opinion has a cognitive element and, accordingly, that democracy and markets operate when the people are well informed. An example is when government officials are subject to answer any misdeeds that they have done, in order for the communities to hold any government official to account, they need to be educated and informed on certain areas of Finance Human Resources and Information Technology.
The quality of citizenship improves as they learn to identify their leaders, understand how the political system works, and become exposed to contemporary policy debates. In this regard Ippolito *et al.* (1976: 302) maintain that an educated, well informed, interested, intelligent public can be expected to prompt sound, prudent, and effective governmental policy.

An education system which does not provide for a national, specific and systematic form of citizenship training in schools may result in learners who are unaware of the values, institutions, processes and functions of the institutions of a parliamentary democracy, or of their own rights, obligations and opportunities within a democratic system. Education provides a wide range of relevant skills: how to read; write and calculate and how to critically evaluate information provided by the mass media, and it can increase popular knowledge on a range of relevant topics (Bratton *et al.*, 2005: 41). Awareness among voters about issue differences between political parties and candidates may lead the members of the electorate to vote on the basis of these differences (Ippolito *et al.* 1976: 237). In this regard voter education and political campaigns play a crucial role as they inform citizens about various manifestos.

### 2.14.2 Avoiding and Eliminating Apathy

Eligible voters may be reluctant to participate in elections and claim that there is simply no point; and that their one vote makes no difference since the politicians will do whatever they want (Rawnsley 2005: 65). People should be encouraged to participate in public affairs in order to avoid apathy and reduce or eliminate it when it already exists. Voter education, political campaigns, and the advertisement of government programmes should be used effectively. Dissemination of information that not only encourages public participation in public affairs but also indicates its importance should be an ongoing exercise since apathy has negative implications for democracy.
2.14.3 Promotion of responsiveness to public needs

There are three important requirements to obtain the responsiveness of policy makers and public officials to public needs:

- The public should express the needs;
- There should be adequate perception of the expressed public needs by policy makers and/or public officials (Kaufmann 1991: 75); and
- Policy-makers and Public Officials should not only have the will to take expressed public needs into account during policy-making and implementation processes, but should also actually take them into account.

Democracy is built on the assumption that the government elite will listen to the people and respond to it. Therefore, unless the opinions of the people are transmitted to and received by the nation’s political leaders, public opinion has little significance. Hence, for public opinion, to have any impact it must be expressed (Ippolito et al 1976: 301). Through various methods of public participation which include letter writing, voting in elections, direct contacting, public hearing and public demonstrations, public opinion can be expressed.

2.15 Community Participation within Merafong Municipality

The proposal and adoption of a Community Participation policy is a significant milestone for Merafong Municipality to honour the Freedom Charter’s provision that the people shall govern. Merafong community participation policy makes provision for mechanisms and processes to facilitate community participation in all the wards under the Merafong Municipality. The aim is to build on the commitment of the democratic government entrench democracy, which is embedded in the Constitution. Community participation in essence allows for an open and accountable process through which individuals and groups within the selected communities can exchange views and influence decision-making of the municipality. Thus is a democratic process where people engage, decide,
plan, and play an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their lives (Merafong IDP 2008).

In terms of communication policy an environment to promote active citizen participation has been created within the municipality. The channels and mechanisms include structures mainly at ward level. In terms of its approved participation policy the following are noted:-

- rules will be developed by the municipality which it will adopt in order to regulate the establishment and operation of ward committees;
- the legitimate statutory platform for community participation will be ward committees with the object of ensuring that participatory democracy in local government is enhanced;
- ward committees to act as advisory bodies, must be independent and impartial and their functions will have to be performed without fear, favour or prejudice; and
- community based planning and other local development projects will have to be driven through ward committees.
2.16 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated that various participatory mechanisms which have become part of the ethos of post-apartheid government thinking seek to promote the country’s constitutional ideals of entrenching participatory democracy. Paradoxically, it has also indicated participatory governance’s potential for tyranny, showing how it can lead to the unjust and illegitimate exercise of power. The preceding analysis would suggest that the demarcation process in Merafong was not adequately participatory, nor inclusive, nor in line with democratic ideals. What was regarded as a participatory process was, in fact, tantamount to what Kimemia (2007: 1) terms ‘manipulation’. According to the CSVR (2006: 9), genuine public participation in governance bestows legitimacy on policy decisions, there by reducing the potential for general disaffection. The contrary seems rather to be true that the Khutsong case study illustrates that opportunistic government participatory mechanisms and structures, initiated for the sole purpose of securing democratic legitimacy, both undermine and limit the impact of participatory governance.

Several lessons can be learnt from the Khutsong experience. At the national sphere of government, the determining role played by the state in demarcation and boundary-dispute processes should be revisited. The state failed to establish a true partnership with residents of Merafong, who could influence the final outcome of the demarcation process. In fact, national government should have played a more proactive role in harmonising the conflicting viewpoints between the state and the community. The case study further highlighted that participatory mechanisms and structures, if not monitored, may reinforce the personal interests of strong leaders.

The researcher believes that public involvement cannot be meaningful in the absence of a willingness to consider all views expressed by the public. Public participation in the legislative process, which the Constitution envisages, is not supposed to be at the receiving end of democracy, but is meant to be an integral part of the process. When the system fails in this respect, there remains no reason for communities to be patient –
something which leads to protests and outrage. Theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks on conflict will be discussed on the next chapter.
Chapter 3

Theoretical Perspectives and Conceptual Frameworks on Conflict

3.1 Introduction
The previous chapter examined the conceptual and the theoretical framework of community participation in South Africa. This chapter sets out the theoretical and conceptual framework of conflict. Conflict is explained as a concept. Different forms and types, views and effects, functional and dysfunctional aspects of conflict will be explained. This chapter will also provide details about the causes, triggers and parties in the Merafong Local Municipality.

3.2 Definitions of conflict
According to Schmidt and Kochran (1972: 357) conflict can further be explained as a struggle between two or more opposing parties and is characterized by overt expressions of hostility and/or international interference in the goal attainment of the opposing party.

Lippitt and Robbins (1982: 68) share the same idea, arguing that conflict is the process beginning with the perception by one party that another party negatively affects, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about. The above example presents conflict as an active attempt to block one’s group goal attainment. It can be passive whereby employees in an institution become stressed and their performance decreases significantly. This could be attributed also to a breakdown of communication between members of an institution or a situation where decisions are not well understood, hence causing difficulty in selecting an alternative action.

Pruitt and Kim (1994: 7) summarize conflict as “perceived divergence of interest”. This definition implies that conflict is a subjective phenomenon and that the situation itself may not necessarily be conflicting, but the interpretation by involved parties may be mutually exclusive, and leading to conflict.
Although conflict can be described as the state of disagreement, disparity, or incongruent between two or more individual or groups engaged in the allocation of resources/development of scarce resources, logically conflict is about gaining relative advantage or control in the struggle over who gets what, when, and how (Franke, 2007: 11). Many writers have posited that conflict is an intrinsic component of social relations and as an expression of the multiplicity of interests values; and belief, it could be unavoidable determinant of development and underdevelopment social change or social stagnation (Coser, 1956: 8).

Anstey (2010: 36) defines conflict as a situation when parties believe that their aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously, or perceive a divergence in their values, needs or interests (latent conflict) and purposefully employ the power in an effort to eliminate, defeat, neutralize, or change each other to protect or further their interests in the interaction (manifest conflict).

In the case of Khutsong Township communities, communities perceive that being incorporated to the Southern District of North West with its lack of services will have a negative impact on their welfare. Opposition parties and other role players strongly believe that the ruling party had never communicated and properly engaged with communities in the issue of demarcating the entire municipality to the North West province.

From the definition of conflict by Anstey (2010: 4), conflict can be defined as a relationship in which parties believe that their goals are mutually exclusive and therefore cannot be achieved simultaneously. Mutually exclusive perceptions lead people to employ tactics that will neutralize the other party, in order to ensure that their goals prevail (Anstey 2010: 4).

From Schmidt and Kochran (1972: 357) definition of conflict that is an overt expressions of hostility in goal attainment, this can be seen by the results of the violent protests that took place between 2005 and 2009 in Khutsong Township, were communities of
Khutsong express their hostility to attain their goal of refusing to be re-demarcated to the North West.

3.3. Forms of Conflict
As illustrated, conflict is a complex phenomenon both in government institutions and in the society at large. Conflict may take one or more forms as discussed below.

3.3.1. Goal conflict
It is a result of incompatible preferred or expected outcomes. It includes inconsistency between the individuals or groups’ values and norms and the demands on tasks assigned by higher levels in the institution (Galabawa, 2000: 72). It usually occurs when the subordinates’ view of performance indicators becomes incompatible or totally contrary to the view of their managers. In general terms, goal incompatibility refers to a situation in which an individual or group’s goals are at odds with the capacity to achieve the goals.

3.3.2. Cognitive conflicts
It is a common form of conflict among individuals that occurs when there is an incompatibility of ideas and thoughts within an individual or between individuals. In some cases it is referred to as inter-individual conflict. It often occurs when an individual has two different ideas on solving a problem, where it becomes difficult to decide on which idea to adopt. In this case, if the situation is prolonged, a cognitive conflict occurs. The same may be the case between two individuals having two different views on how to make a decision (Galabawa, 2000: 72).
3.3.3. Affective conflict

When government department experience and emotions are incompatible within an individual or between individuals affective conflict occurs. Although it is difficult to openly experience differences of feelings and emotions between individuals, it is very common that two individuals may have different feelings about the same situation. For example two or more employees could experience different feelings when discussing issues in their department. One could experience positive feelings about the decision and another could feel threatened. This would certainly result in affective conflict between these two employees (Galabawa, 2000: 72).

3.3.4. Procedural conflict

It is very common that in some situations the management and employees may differ in the methods, ways, and means of making decisions or solving problems. These are difference amounts of procedural conflict. It means that in all cases, where employees or other people differ over the process of resolving matters, a procedural conflict occurs. The most common procedural conflict occurs in negotiations between trade unions and managements in South Africa (Galabawa, 2000: 73).

3.3.5. Scarce resource conflict

(Babyegeya, 2002: 220) classifies conflict according to resources. A scarce resource conflict is the conflict which takes place when there are insufficient resources available. This happens when some members in certain departments start complaining that other departments are favored in resource distribution while others are disfavored or ignored.
3.3.6 Authority conflict

It is a conflict which emanates from improper use of authority by the administration, or the subordinates question the appropriateness of the authority. Some of the administrators resort to authorization powers in their operations. They believe that every member of the group should listen to and obey orders. The subordinates for various reasons may resist these orders and the result is a clash between the administrator and the subordinates. On the other hand, subordinates challenge the administrator or the authority, not because they do not believe that the institution should have the superiors, but because the manager may be considered incapable or unfit for the position. Offensive and defensive behaviors become the order of the day between the manager and the staff (Babyegeya, 2002: 220).

3.4 Views and effects of conflict

There are various perceptions regarding conflict. It is a reality in everyone’s life and should be considered as a natural process that occurs daily. As a group performs its assigned task, conflicts inevitably arise (Robbins, Bergmann, Stagg & Coulter; 2003: 421). For most, conflict has negative connotations, invokes negative feelings and often leads to destruction. Whether the effect of conflict is good or bad depends on the strategies used to deal with it (Rahim, 1986: vi).

The traditional view argues that conflict must be avoided because it indicates problems. The behavioral view sees conflict as a natural and inevitable outcome of people working together in groups and teams. Thus, conflict needs not necessarily be viewed negatively, but rather positively as a potential force in contributing to the performance of individuals. According to the interactionists, not only is conflict a positive force, but it is also necessary for an individual to perform effectively. Resolving conflicts means challenging normal processes and procedures in an effort to improve individual productivity or introduce innovative systems (Robbins, Bergman, Stagg & Coulter, 2003: 421).
The following authors share the same view about the definition: McShane and Von Glinow (2003: 386) define conflict as disagreeing about task and issues; Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1993: 430) show that conflict is both positive and negative depending on its scale or magnitude; Pondy (1967: 320) who pointed out that conflict is not necessarily good or bad, as long it remains focused on the issue, new ideas may emerge and the conflict can remain controlled. It can force participants to address some of their assumptions and override their attempts to achieve premature unanimity, thus leading to better performance.

Dealing with conflict between and among individuals can be one of the most frustrating and uncomfortable experiences for administrators. Schmidt & Tannenbaum (1960: 107) confirm that when conflict occurs strong feelings are frequently aroused, objectivity flies out of the window, egos are threatened, and personal relationships are placed in jeopardy. On the other hand, understanding society benefits from conflict because such behavior helps to create and modify norms and assists its continuation under changed conditions. Coser (1956: 137 & 157) notes the following positive aspects:

- Conflict helps to establish one’s identity and independence. At the earlier stages of one’s life, it helps assert one’s personal identity as separate from the aspirations, beliefs and behavior of those around you;

- Intensity of conflict demonstrates the closeness and importance of relationships. Intimate relationships require one to express opposing feelings such as love and anger;

- The coexistence of emotions in a relationship results in tension when conflicts arise. While the intensity of emotions can threaten the relationship, if dealt with constructively it can help in measuring the depth and importance of the relationship;

- Conflict can build new relationships. At times, it can bring together people who did not have a previous relationship. During the process of conflict and its resolution, conflicting parties may find that they have common interests and they can work together to maintain ongoing relationship;
Conflict can create coalitions, similar to building a relationship. Sometimes adversaries come together to build coalition to achieve common goals or fend off a common threat. During the processes, previous antagonism is suppressed to work towards these greater goals;

Conflicts serve as safety-valve mechanisms, which help to sustain relationships. Relationships which repress disagreement or conflict grow rigid over time, making them brittle. Exchanges of conflict at times through the assistance of the third-party, allow people to vent pent up hostility and reduce tension in a relationship;

Conflict helps parties to assess each other’s powers and can work to redistribute power in a system of conflict. Since there are few ways to measure the power of the other party, conflict sometimes arises to allow parties to assess one another’s strength. In cases where there is an imbalance of power, a party may seek ways to increase its internal power. This process can often change the nature of power (or regulate power relations) within the conflict system;

Conflict can establish and maintain group identities. Groups in conflict tend to create clearer boundaries, which help members determine who part of the in-group is and who part of the out-group is. In this way conflict can help individuals understand how they are part of the certain group and mobilise them to take action to defend the group interests;

Conflicts enhance group cohesion through issue and belief clarification; when a group is threatened its members pull together in solidarity. As they clarify issues and beliefs, renegades and dissenters are weeded out of the group, creating a more sharply defined ideology on which all members agree; and

Conflict creates or modifies rules, norms, laws and institutions. It is through the raising of issues that rules, norms, laws and institutions are changed or created. Problems or frustrations left unexpressed result in the maintaining of the status quo.
Low and moderate levels of conflict are functional and consistently demonstrate a positive effect on the individual’s performance (Robbins, et al., 2003: 423). Successful institutions encourage mild forms of task conflict without having the situation escalate into an emotional battle between employees or work units. The key is to create task conflict and to prevent it from escalating into a conflict relationship (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003: 386).

Sometimes conflict is competitive in nature as it is based on a principle of competition between participants and is seen as dysfunctional. The main characteristic of competitive conflicts is that the participants have a win-lose orientation. This is the belief that the conflicting parties are drawing from a fixed pie and the more one party receives the less the other party receives (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003: 394).

Conflict can also be cooperative. This is also seen as functional, as experiences of this kind of conflict are important antecedents for individual and team effectiveness. The win-win situation between participants is an integral part of cooperative conflict. The parties believe that they will find a mutually beneficial solution to their disagreement. In addition, the parties discuss concerns quickly and openly, seek their partner’s opinions, and explain their course of action fully. It works best when the parties do not have perfectly opposing interests and when they have enough trust and openness to share information (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003: 394).

Discussing whether conflict is good or bad, Wood et al., (2003: 599) argue that the integrationist view is not suggesting that conflict is good. In terms of the intensity of the conflict, it distinguishes between functional and dysfunctional conflict. Functional conflict is of a constructive nature. For instance, it supports the goals of a work and thus improves the performance of its individuals. Dysfunctional conflict is destructive and can decrease work productivity and job satisfaction and contribute to absenteeism and job turnover, and even collapse of the organization.

The fact that there is too much conflict in an institution then the negative effects are obvious because too much conflict results in stress on the part of the employees and
other stakeholders like communities. The conflict is manageable when an institution experiences a positive contribution from the conflict relationships and experiences.

### 3.4.1 Functional Conflict

Robbins Bergmann, R, Stagg I. & Coulter M(2003: 385) defines functional conflict as that which supports the goals of the group and which improves its performance. The argument is that if conflict leads to normal competition among groups and the groups work harder and produce more, then it is advantageous to the group and the institution.

Adaptation requires changes in the producers, priorities and perhaps even in the institutional goals. It is also true that conflict in an institutional setting, especially at the resolution level, may lead to constructive problem solving. For instance, the need by the people to resolve conflict can enable them to search for ways of bringing change. The conflict resolution process can be a stimulus for positive change within an institution. The productivity of confrontations arises from the fact that conflict can lead to change, which can lead to adaptation, and adaptation can lead to survival and even prosperity.

### 3.4.2 Dysfunctional conflict

Wood et al., (2003: 597) define dysfunctional conflict as relationship conflict or socio-emotional conflict due to the fact that it is a conflict based on interpersonal relationships. It involves inter-personal difficulties that arise over feelings of anger, mistrust, dislike, fear and resentment. This type of conflict is usually dysfunctional because it can drain people’s energies and distract them from other important priorities. McShane and Von Glinow, (2003: 388) wrote that it appears that the friction and hostilities inherent in relationships increase personality clashes and decrease mutual understanding, thereby hindering the completion of institutional tasks.

Dysfunctional conflict refers to the negative aspects of conflict which occur due to its disruption in communication, cohesiveness and cooperation. The productive activity of
each party to conflict will further be reduced by the diversion of the time and energy to
winning a conflict. Individuals engaged in conflict typically experience stress, frustration,
and anxiety. These in turn reduce job satisfaction, impair concentration on the task,
create apathy and encourage withdrawal in the form of absenteeism or turnover.

It is therefore important to manage conflict because, at its worst, it can divert efforts
from goal attainment, deplete resources, especially time and money, affect the
psychological well-being of employees, and cause stress. Severe conflict in terms of
conflicting thoughts, ideas, and beliefs may lead to resentment, tension and anxiety.

3.5 **Sources of Conflict**

Conflict in community settings often stems from relations between conflicting parties,
personal characteristics as well as from underlying structural organization based-
factors. The following are sources of conflict that can be associated with the situation at
Merafong:

3.5.1 **Individual Characteristics**

Every individual is unique due to differences in family background, education and value
systems. These factors are greatly responsible for shaping our values, attitudes and
beliefs. Individual differences are usually a source of conflict whenever people interact
with each other. Different values and beliefs can create tension between individuals and
groups in organizations. For instance, differences in values, attitudes and beliefs can be
some of the causes of conflict. Tosi *et al* (2000: 440) state that differences in values,
attitudes and beliefs contribute to feelings about what is right and what is wrong and to
the predisposition to behave positively or negatively in reaction to an event. When
people interact, the potential for conflict is high due to differences in people’s needs and
personalities. People with high achievement needs may be less willing to co-operate
with others.
The way a person perceives others usually determines his/her relationship with them. When one feels threatened, one may become aggressive, or resort to confrontation, thus increasing the potential for conflict, due to perceptual differences and error in judgment; one party may blame another for a problem, and attribute the cause of the problem to the other person’s motives. In the case of Khutsong communities, people of Khutsong perceived that if they were incorporated to the North West Province which was ailing in terms of service delivery, their state of welfare would take a turn downwards, and their contribution to the wealth of Gauteng would not be recognized in another province.

3.5.2 Situational Forces

From Tosi et al (2000: 443), situational conditions encourage conflict when they define and affect the process of interaction with each other. According to Ivancevich and Matterson (1999: 328) working interdependence occurs when two or more organisational groups depend on one another to complete a task. When people are physically separated and do not interact, conflict is less likely to develop. As the association between parties or groups increases, so does the possibility of conflict. Quite often in organizations conflict will result in a situation where the output of one unit may be the input of another unit. There are times when consensus is needed for decisions to be made. Decisions that are affecting an organization as a whole will always need support from all departments. Usually conflict occurs over quality, size, colour, or location when pressure for consensus exists. When people act or are asked to act in ways incongruent with their status, conflict can occur. The different status standards in organizations result in status hierarchies. In the case of Merafong Local Municipality, quality, location and size play a very important role.

Failure to communicate effectively leads to information deficiency and is a major source of conflict in any community. When people fail to communicate effectively, it means that communication is not complete because it does not result in understanding. Misinterpreted messages can lead to disagreements and increase the possibility of conflicts. Areas of concern regarding communication are reflected in factors such as
semantic differences, cultural values, family background, past experiences and channels of communication. At times communication may also be ineffective because one party lacks enough information on a subject of relocation processes. For the purpose of this study the conflict tube developed by Bradshaw (2007) proved to be a useful model that can explain conflict tube and move a step further by packaging the suggested six basic sources of conflict as illustrated in the figure below:

![Figure 3.1, Conflict tube](source: adapted from Bradshaw Seminar notes (2011))

There are various causes of conflict among communities, i.e. Individual and situational causes of conflicts and they can be traced back to interests, values, needs, relationships, structural and data (Bradshaw, 2007 class notes). He further claims that the multifaceted and complex phenomena that characterize conflict mean that each conflict can be seen as a result of more than one of the following six sources of conflict:
3.5.3 Data-based conflict

This type of conflict revolves around the misinterpretation of data that will lead to lack of or inadequate communication with the potential to cause conflict. In most cases misconception, misunderstanding and miscommunication end up causing conflict (Bradshaw, 2007: 5).

3.5.4 Structural-based conflict

Some conflict emanates from structures and institutions, be they social, political or economic factors that are in place. These structures and institutions impinge upon the relationships of individuals, groups or even nations and create negative perceptions that breed conflicts (Bradshaw, 2007: 290) - structural violence in the context of societal structures is the violence that allows violence to occur vertically. Vertically in these structures implies inequality and exploitation administered from the top down, resulting in needs of the persons at the bottom being deprived either through marginalization or segregation. Structural violence can be caused by cultural aggression, human rights abuses and imperialism (Galtung, 1996, 2002). Bradshaw (2007: 5) talks of obsolete and inappropriate structures in the contemporary world which simply cannot respond to current needs such as colonial systems and outdated workplace models.

3.5.5 Value-based conflict

This type of conflict is anchored in individual, group or community values which are political, economic, religious, cultural and ideological which can be significantly different among various groups (Bradshaw, 2007: 28). Communities of Merafong value their contribution to the Gauteng Province wealth in terms of their contribution as miners in Carletonville Mining Industries.
3.5.6 Relationship-based conflict

It hinges on the type of relationship between individuals, and groups that can cause conflict. Service delivery conflict in all South African Municipalities can be generated by past circumstances where memories of the past lead to poor human relationships. The past circumstances can create serious levels of tensions, animosity and mistrust between and among different individuals or groups (Bradshaw, 2007: 298).

3.5.7 Interest-based conflict

It is manifested where different groups scramble for scarce resources that may be in great demand to the extent that it has detrimental effects or hinders others (Bradshaw, 2007: 28). Communities are in constant competition over the same resources such as water and land. However, their interests over such resources may actually differ, particularly on issues of benefits and access.

3.5.8 Needs-based interests

Conflict is underpinned by the denial and frustration of both physical and psychological basic human needs as defined by Maslow. These needs include basic needs such as food, shelter, security, social acceptance, identity, and control. These are basic needs that are common to all humans, and are not negotiable. When needs are severely frustrated, people who are bothered by their inability to afford the things that their families need, are likely to show aggressive behaviour and conflict, because they are disturbed by the failure of their self-esteem (Bradshaw, 2007: 18). Bradshaw further noted that social conflict is normally the result of frustrated human needs, as human beings have no choice but to pursue the fulfillment of their needs (Bradshaw, 2007: 45). Bradshaw further stated that no threat can deter when there are human behavioral needs at stake; hence there is an association between poverty and conflict. In expanding the needs-based conflict debate it arises due to three principle factors. These area multiplicity of needs, whereby one wishes to satisfy several needs that are incompatible; congruency of needs which refers to a situation where needs can be
conflicting and needs-based satisfaction where one need means foregoing the satisfaction of another. On needs-based satisfaction, if needs remain dissatisfied, affected individuals become frustrated and this generates conflict.

Conflict is about the need to change. Its role is to prevent stagnation by identifying social problems which need to be resolved and can help individuals and groups to define and maintain their identity and it often fosters their cohesiveness and unity. It allows groups to establish norms to govern their interaction and to define the balance of power which exists between them. Anstey (2006: 12) noted that scarcity of resources puts pressure on every country. Tensions between individuals and groups are very likely in nations that cannot provide essentials such as basic resources for their populations. As awareness of scarcity increases; the need for the limited resources also increases; thus lightening the likelihood of conflict among the parties (Pruitt and Rubin 2004: 21). It is further noted by Anstey (2010: 45) that conflicts over resources tend to be complex and long, especially when there is no willingness to compromise among the parties or a substitute for the scarce resources. Such perceptions are related to scarce resources were Merafong Local municipality would be located. This can create competition over scarce resources, which was an important source of conflict in Merafong.

3.6 The Galtung’s Attitude-Behaviour-Context Triangle

Galtung’s ABC conflict triangle is a diagrammatic way of understanding conflict and violence. Galtung (1990) maintains that all conflicts have three main features. First of all there are the attitudes of people who are implicated in conflict, which seem to become aggressive towards each other as the conflict intensifies. The conflict parties’ attitudes and practices have to change in order to achieve the conflict settlement. He defines it as the process of peacemaking. Fisher et al (2005) confirm the ABC triangle is based on the assumption that conflicts have three main factors: the context or situation, the behaviour of those involved and their attitudes. These three elements influence each other. For example, a situation that ignores the claims of one group is likely to lead to an attitude of dissatisfaction, which in turn may result in protests. This behaviour might then
lead to the situation of further denial of rights, causing disappointment, perhaps even anger, which could erupt into violence. Work that is done to transform the situation (by making sure that claims are approved), to decrease the level of disappointment (by enabling people to focus on the long-term nature of their struggle) or provide opportunities for behaviours that are not violent will all help decreasing the levels of tension. This is explained in the figure 3.1 in the figure overleaf.

In figure 3.2, these three factors (behaviour, attitude and context) are shown as interconnected. An action proposed to eradicating violent behaviour, vital as it is, needs to enhance by actions focussed at both context and attitudes if real positive peace is to be attained. A negative peace or absence of violent behaviour, will not take long unless other elements are addressed. Working on all three factors is required to encourage positive peace (Fisher et al., 2005).

In applying the ABC triangle it is important to know whose opinion the analysis is based upon. You can entirely base the analysis on your own perception of the realities in the conflict if you are closely involved in it. Otherwise, it will be important to put yourself in the shoes of each of the main parties and look at the issues in conflict as they see it in terms of ‘context’, ‘behaviour’ and ‘attitudes’ (Fisher et al., 2005).
Attitudes in conflict situations are very much influenced by the conflicting parties’ behaviour. Rising of hostility make it more difficult to see the benefit of ending a conflict. Therefore it is important to understand how to deal with violence itself in order to degenerate the situation and enable the peacemaking process to develop. Galtung identifies this as the task of peacekeeping (Galtung, 1996).

Galtung (1990) differentiates direct violence (people are killed), structural violence (people die because of lack of means) and cultural violence (things that blind us to this and try to approve it). People get rid of direct violence by transforming attitudes, behaviour, cultural violence and eradicating structural injustices. To transform a conflict is possible when changing conflicting attitudes and behaviour. It is also important to pay attention to the destructive dynamic of the conflict in order to transform it and proceed in a positive direction.

There is, however, another deeper level to our comprehension of violence. This links with less perceptible, mental activities: feelings, attitudes and values that people have. These can easily become the roots of violence, or at least permit violent behaviour and violent constructions to operate. Hate, fear and mistrust are feelings which enable us to classify people as inferior, or superior, in terms of classifications such as race, gender, religion, ethnicity, mental ability, physical ability, political ideology or sexual orientation. These feelings may cause some groups of people to become intolerant of anyone who is different from them (Fisher et al., 2005).

Finally, there is an issue that causes the conflict. This is the source that generates the conflict, and without dealing with that reality, transformation of attitudes and behaviour will not be successful. Dealing with the actual roots of the conflict is what Galtung identifies as peace building. If a conflict comprises all three of these aspects namely attitude, behaviour and context, then it conveys that all three approaches to peace work are important. Peacekeeping is considered as a requirement to peace building, constructing a safe environment in which to make the important long-term work. To make progress, peacemaking has to relate to the other two in order to generate and sustain the wish of having peace and reaching a political agreement that can begin to de-escalate the situation. Thus, Fisher and Zimina (2009) recommend that peace-
building and conflict transformation certainly have also the ability to provide feasible
alternatives, tackling conflicts and their causes.

Galtung improved the concepts of peace and violence by bringing in structural or
indirect violence, and this was a direct challenge to the fundamental ideas about the
nature of peace. The broadened definition of violence guides to a complete
understanding of peace. According to Galtung, peace research is an investigation into
the conditions for going closer to peace or at least not marching closer to violence.
Therefore, negative peace “is the absence of violence, absence of war”, and positive
peace “is the unification of human society” (Galtung, 1964: 2). Further, these two types
of peace are considered as two distinct components, where one is possible without the
other.

To clarify these three concepts (direct, cultural and structural violence), Galtung (1996)
employed the concept of power and distinguishes four aspects of power relating to
positive and negative peace: cultural, economic, military and political. Galtung believes
that the escalation of violence can be broken with peace streaming from cultural peace
through structural peace to direct peace. This process would bring about positive peace.
He distinguishes positive to negative peace. The main characteristics of positive and
negative peace can be understood as follows: Negative Peace: Absence of violence,
pessimistic, restorative, peace not always by peaceful means. Positive Peace:
Structural assimilation, optimistic, preventive, peace by peaceful instruments. It also
involves direct positive peace, cultural positive peace and structural positive peace.
Fisher et al (2005: 12) maintain that absence of war is often described as negative
(‘cold’) peace, and is contrasted with positive (‘warm’) peace, which encompasses all
aspects of good society that we might envisage for ourselves. Most people consider
peace to be the absence of violent behaviour. While this is, of course, vital, others see it
as only first step towards a fuller ideal, using definitions such as; a link of relationships
between individuals, groups and institutions that value diversity and foster the full
development of human potential.

The understanding of violence is important as it demonstrates that violent behaviour, in
most cases, is only a small part of what generates a conflict. It also shows the
interconnectedness of all three dimensions, an intervention in one area has ripple effect in the others (Fisher et al., 2005).

Galtung (1996) describes cultural violence as symbols that are found in ideology, religion, linguistic, art, law, science, media, education whose purpose is “to sanction direct and structural violence.” Indirect violence results from social structures. Direct violence reveals physical violence consciously perpetrated by a sending actor. Galtung (1990: 294) considers the concept of cultural violence as those characteristics of culture that can be applied to endorse and encourage cultural and direct violence. He also considers violence as “unnecessary insults to basic human needs and more generally to life.” Cultural violence has been considered as a type of violence in conjunction with direct and structural violence.

### 3.6.1 Conflict Attitudes

Anstey (2010: 10) is of the opinion that conflict attitude refers to the psychological states which accompany and arise from the parties’ involvement in the conflict situation. Conflict attitudes include the assumption which parties hold about the other party and these form the basis of their expectations of what the other party is likely to do. These include perceptions of mistrust and stereotypes. Conflict leads to individuals expressing higher levels of stress, and the natural reaction in this situation is to attempt to keep this stress at a tolerable level. In order to cope with stress, the decision-makers within various parties may begin to rely increasingly on the behavior and attitudes of the other party as selectively interpreted so as to reinforce perceptions with any evidence which challenges these views being rejected (Anstey 2010:10). He further notes that attitudes and perceptions influence the way in which parties interpret the behaviour of others and condition their response to any actions initiated. Thus any efforts at conciliation or offers of negotiation from one side are likely to be treated with suspicion by the other. Attitudes arise out of the perceptions (i.e. the way in which one views the world) which parties hold of one another and which are often transferred from generation to generation.
In the case of Merafong Local Municipality, relocation processes the behaviour of the ruling party (ANC) to relocate the entire municipality was done with poor consultation of opposition parties. Poor citizen consultation was received by opposition parties with a bag of mixed feelings. The Merafong Anti-Demarcation Forum perceived that it was undermined by the ruling party (ANC), and most members of the community, including working and retired miners, perceived that leaving all that wealth to Gauteng and relocating to the poor province would be a slap in the face considering their contribution to the wealth of the province of Gauteng, which would not be recognized in North West. The travelling distance between Khutsong and the centre of service delivery i.e. Mafikeng, an eight-hour drive with a bad network of taxis, as compared to Gauteng which is only forty-five minutes with a good network of taxis. In addition to the above mentioned reasons, this act brought conflict between Merafong Local Municipality and Merafong Anti-Demarcation Forum supporters and other oppositions like Young Communist League and Democratic Alliance.

3.6.2 Conflict Behaviour

According to Anstey (2010: 10) conflict behaviour refers to those actions undertaken by a party to achieve its objectives. These actions are intended to make the opponent change or modify their goals. Parties may employ various types of tactics in order to achieve these goals, ranging from rewards and other attempts at persuasion, to the use of coercion and threat. The use of tactics often leads to an escalation of the conflict. The tendency of a conflict to escalate is tied to the use of tactics. The making of threats and the use of violence are clear factors which encourage this process. The escalation of conflict is usually accompanied by the addiction of parties and issues to the conflict, often to the extent that the parties lose sight of the underlying causes which give rise to it. Although it is easy to escalate a conflict, the process of de-escalating is more difficult to undertake because parties become wedded to their positions. Cohesion within the group is placed under new strains when elements within them begin to advocate new strategies such as negotiation with the other side. At this stage, intra-group conflict
might increase as the party splits between the hard lines and the doves who wish to sell the idea of negotiation to their constituencies Anstey (2010: 10).

Anstey further stated that Attitude, Behaviour and Contradiction are three factors that can interplay and reinforce one another. The parties’ perceptions of the conflict situation reinforce their suspicions and attitudes which in turn condition their behaviour. This situation affects the physical environment and usually reinforces attitudes. As the conflict escalates, their attitudes towards, and perception of, the other parties become more important in shaping their behaviour. The polarization of attitudes acts as an important stimulus towards violence.

Furthermore, it is a fallacy to assume that conflict exists only when there is violence. Conflict precedes violence acts, and there are a number of stages and factors which contribute towards conflicts becoming violent. This makes moves towards negotiation difficult to bring about since compromise is difficult for the parties to sell the idea to their constituencies.
3.7. Conflict Escalation and de-escalation curve

Rubin & Sung's (1994: 152) model of mutually hurting stalemate is noted both in the civil organization in Khutsong and the Local government, where conflict reached stalemate, a situation in which neither side can win but neither side wants to back down or accept loss either. Stalemates emerge for a number of reasons, such as failed tactics, depletion of available resources to fuel the conflict by group members or the allies, or costs becoming too high to continue. Despite realizing that the conflict is going nowhere, it is often difficult for parties to transform the nature of it and consider a settlement. Many individuals on both sides build up vested interest in the perpetuation of the conflict. If the conflict is bringing political power or economic opportunities, they may want to keep it going rather than working towards de-escalation or settlement.
Leaders also fear the loss of face that would ensue if they had to admit that pursuing the conflict was a mistake. Eventually, the conflict reaches a point at which a sort of equilibrium sets in, in which neither side is getting any closer to achieving its goals and where no one is happy with the situation. Conflicting parties realize that the costs of continuing the struggle exceed the benefits to be gained. In the case of Merafong, despite the stalemate, the ruling party went ahead with the process of re-demarcation of Merafong to the North West; while all the opposition parties were waiting for the court ruling, in late November 2009 the court ruled in favour of the communities and the municipality was back in the Gauteng Province.

3.8 Conflict Management, Conflict Resolution and Conflict Transformation

Conflict is a common feature of human interaction and can be both a positive and a negative force. Conflict is inherent, for example, in the democratic process. Violent conflict is inherent in human interaction; rather, it is dependent on particular and preventable cultural and environmental conditions. The objective of conflict management of any kind is not to eradicate conflict, but rather to deal with it successfully so that it does not become a destructive force (Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995).

Many of the ideas that direct conflict management are more a result of habitus than of logical decision making and, moreover, are founded on facts of conflict that are no longer relevant of present circumstances. The physical state that supports the use of conflict settlement strategies and largely pays no attention to transformative ones (Bourdieu, 1990; Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995).

The main problem in the comparative analysis of conflict management practices is the broad combination of methods used in some cultures for dealing with conflict. For example, a study that finds differences in conflict management styles across countries may overlook the fact that direct handling of conflicts is not always relevant and the culture has developed means of containing confrontation (Kozan, 1997-2002).
It is important to understand that war is not a biological imperative but a cultural possibility. The means of resolving conflict cannot be concentrated to natural laws but are based on ways of thinking and behaving that adhere to a specific time, place, history, and culture. Questions regarding the conduct of war, the appropriate use of force, or the best way to solve destructive conflict are shaped within a cultural milieu.

Although one can question whether the management of conflict has ever followed such simple and clear-cut lines, we can say with certainty that such models do not provide an effective response to the complexities of many ongoing conflicts. Understanding the dynamics of antagonisms as well as their connection to conflict management strategies is crucial in solving conflicts (Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995).

It is no surprise when one looks beyond the strategies of conflict settlement that contradictions and uncertainties become apparent. This practice experiences a serious lack of attention to concepts and conceptualizing, interest of which would at least help to make interveners aware of complexities and contradictions. Awareness, especially of habitus, in thinking about conflict management is not only an important first step in a process of tackling and dealing with such limitations but could provide a useful tool for continual evaluation and development. Without some type of clear theoretical base from which one’s own assumptions can be examined, and through which interventions can be designed and executed in direct relation to the complex and multileveled conflict environment, interventions are far less likely to have any stable affirmative impact (Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995).

Any decision in conflict management is founded on a sequence of assumptions both derived from and produced by practice. To deal exclusively with the problematical level without examining those assumptions means relying on habitus produced in relation to conflict contexts that no longer exist. The profound, protracted, culturally and socially fluid, and highly complex nature of ongoing conflicts indicates the deficiency of such an approach. Conflict settlement approaches are no longer even minimally sufficient to meet present challenges (Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995).
In managing conflict, Gobet (2005) compares it to the skill of thinkers who had to solve problems, such as chess players, and on that of Howard-Jones (2002) who notes that much creative thinking was based on a combination of analysis and what he called generative reasoning (seeing the skill, in a different way). To deconstruct the skill (stage one) we have to know what we can assert or declare about the business of conflict management, to identify the processes that we use to tackle conflict and to appreciate the knowledge that underpins this. It then follows that conflict management does not have to be based on winning or losing (where the most powerful gain the most and the least powerful lose the most) but instead can be based on solutions that support human development and structural transformation. The aim is to create a conflict transformation process that is self-generated, self-perpetuating, and long term (Fetherston and Nordstrom, 1995). If conflict is a natural part of interpersonal relations, it follows that any major theory of human behaviour must have some relevance to conflict and conflict resolution, if not explicitly, then implicitly (Sweeney and Carruthers, 1996).

In connection with the term, conflict resolution, (Sandole and van der Merwe, 1993) indicate that conflict resolution is a new concept and still not part of any acceptable understanding. The few definitions that exist generally describe a "process" of resolving conflicts. Maurer (1991), for example, describes resolution as "a process whereby the conflicting parties work out their disagreements to bring the conflict to a successful conclusion" (p. xiv). Duryea (1992: 5) shows that dispute reconciliation is an interest-based settlement process for generating consensus. Sweeney and Carruthers (1996) indicate that some basic notions about conflict resolution processes are that there are various ways in which conflicts can be resolved and different consequences that result based on how conflicts are handled. This general conceptual definition differs from the typical use of the term in practice, to describe nonviolent methods such as negotiation or mediation, but our general definition is a better instructional tool. The general definition allows one to discuss different types of conflict and place different methods of conflict resolution along various continua or within various schemes such that one can compare and contrast these different forms by any number of variables.
Most authors writing about conflict resolution processes equate the term with constructive processes such as problem solving through communication rather than with destructive processes such as physical aggression. In the aforementioned definitions, note Maurer's use of the word successful and Duryea's emphasis on consensus. For a conceptual definition, however, it is our preference to use the term in its most general sense; that is, conflict resolution is the process used by conflicting parties to reach an agreement. This process can employ various approaches such as warfare, contest, flipping a coin, mediation, and negotiation (Sweeney and Carruthers, 1996).

Consequences of conflict and its resolution are usually broad and complex. Consequently, the criteria used in assessing effectiveness of conflict resolution have varied, depending on which section of consequences is highlighted (Thomas, 1992). Conflict Resolution allows using peaceful means of resolving interpersonal conflict and teaches people the ways and means of nonviolent, cooperative, and constructive conflict resolution processes such as negotiation and mediation (Carruthers and Carruthers, 1995).

To bring development course of action in conflict, peace-builders suggest taking account to the following most important factors such as financial, injustice, rejection of rights, and environmental destruction as fundamental causes of violence. They discuss about systems, and how big transformations can be initiate instigated by small strategic interventions. For constructive change in attitudes and behaviour to happen, Lederach (2003: 30) differentiates conflict resolution and conflict transformation in the following terms: conflict resolution often focuses our attention on the presenting problems. It is content-centered. Conflict resolution sees the development of process as centered on the proximity of the relationship where the symptoms of crisis and disruption take place. On the other hand, conflict transformation includes the concern for content, but centers its attention on the context of relationship patterns. It sees conflict as rooted in the web and system of relational patterns. Conflict transformation visualises the presenting problem as an opportunity to engage a broader context, to investigate and understand the system of relationships and patterns that gave birth to the crisis. It seeks to address
both the immediate issues and the system of relational patterns. This requires longer-
term vision that goes beyond the anxieties of immediate needs. Transformation actively
pursues a crisis-responsive approach rather than one that is crisis-driven. Lederach
(2003) argues that relationships present visible positions, but they also have sites that
are less visible. To encourage the positive potential inherent in conflict, people should
concentrate on less visible extent points of relationships, rather than concentrating only
on the content and substance of the fighting that is often much more visible. The
matters over which people fight are crucial and necessitate practical response.

Conflict transformation is not satisfied with a quick solution that may seem to solve the
immediate problem; transformation aims at creating a framework that addresses the
content, the context, and structure of the relationship. Transformation as an approach
intends to create constructive transformation processes through conflict. Those
processes provide opportunity to learn about patterns and address relationship
structures while providing concrete solutions to presenting issues. Lederach believes
that conflict transformation entails the expansion of change routes which clearly focus
on generating positives from the difficult or negative. It promotes greater understanding
of fundamental interactive and structural patterns while generating productive solutions
that enhance relationships (Lederach, 2003).

Fisher et al (2005) maintain that conflict transformation theory assumes that conflict is
caused by real problems of inequality and injustice manifested in competing to cultural,
social and economic frameworks. According to Fisher et al, conflict transformation is
effective if it seeks changing structures and frameworks that lead to inequality and
injustice, including economic redistribution, encouraging longer-term relationships and
attitudes among people in the conflict, and evolving processes and approaches that
endorse empowerment, peace, justice, tolerance, reconciliation, and acceptance.

Transformation at the descriptive point of change involves examining the social
conditions that escalate to conflict and the way that conflict influences change in the
existing social structures and patterns of making decisions. At a prescriptive position,
transformation requires deliberately participation in order to get the understanding of the
fundamental causes and social conditions which generate and encourage violent
conditions of conflict. In addition, it openly advocates nonviolent means to decrease adversarial interaction and seeks to lessen and ultimately eliminate – violence. This includes nonviolent advocacy for change (Lederach, 2003: 26).

To bring change in male attitude and behaviour towards female requires more education and training. Reardon (1998) notes that the main objective of peace education is to encourage the development of a genuine global consciousness that enables people to act as global citizens and to change the current human situation by transforming the social constructions and patterns of thought that influence it. There are two clear approaches to the development and use of actual peace education curriculum substance. This can either be implemented as a distinct curriculum (an “autonomist” approach), or it can be integrated throughout existing curricula (an “integrationist” approach). Most peace educators prefer the second approach or even to see the second approach as the only true option (Bar-Tal, 2002: 6; Evans et al., 1999: 2).

There is another approach that resembles the two mentioned above. Non-violence which is one of approaches, seeks to reach and boost or awaken the common humanity of all involved in a conflict, including one’s opponents. It tries to increase the potential for truthful communication, while seeking also to stop or prevent destructive behaviour by everyone involved (Fisher et al., 2005). The mentioned above approaches are important in Merafong context in reducing public violent and violent protest.

### 3.9 Peace Education

Peace education is a term which cannot easily be defined and, in fact, means many different things to different people and organisations (Catholic Education Office and New South Department of Education, 1986). Just as the term “peace” itself holds many different meanings for different people. In the literature on peace education the difference is apparent between educating for peace and educating about peace. Educating for peace includes the affective way of learning, and educating about peace deals more with the acquisition of Knowledge. While educating for peace deals with attitudes and a transformation of behaviour, educating about peace has more to do with
presentation of information and building of knowledge. It is easier to work with information meant for knowledge building than to engage students through questions and activities that guide to a rethinking of stereotypes and a transformation of attitudes (Brock-Utne, 2009).

Other peace education researchers have also focussed on the different form of peace education takes in different contexts. Harris (2002) gives an overview of peace education in Japan, Northern Ireland, the United States of America and Great Britain. Bar-Tal (2002: 28) looks at the United States, Australia, and Japan. In reflecting on the differences between models of peace in these contexts in terms of ideology, emphasis, aims, contents, curriculum and preparations, Bar-Tal concludes that peace education is “a mirror of the political-social-economic plan for a given society”.

Peace education can also be described as ‘a process of conflict resolution that is self-generated, self-perpetuating and long term’ (Harris 1992: 167) and one that aims to eliminate the violence in present conflicts to continually build and rebuild socioeconomic environments which minimize new sources of violence (Kaman, 2010). The following describes what the writer proposes as the key element of this proposed peace education curriculum. The focus on a peace education curriculum begins with defining peace, the study of peace and the concept of peace education (Kaman, 2010). Peace is associated with absence of war and any overt acts of violence. This definition of peace is described as negative peace. Peace education in the developed countries focuses more on negative peace or indirect violence. The study of peace in the Third World focuses on violence, both direct and indirect or structural acts of violence and the need to critically address root causes of these types of violence to promote real peace. In the developed countries, peace education is concerned about absence of war or negative peace. Peace education in the Third World that is more to do with indirect or structural violence embedded in the structure of society that gives rise to violence should be changed or eliminated (Galtung 1995).
An increasingly militarised world amplifies the challenge of inculcating the values of non-violence and effective problem-solving. To counter this challenge, educators need to explore innovative ways to draw lessons from, and transmit, peaceful ways of solving problems (Hutchinson 1996; Harris 2002). For this reason, the importance of educating for peace cannot be underrated. The kind of world that we as human beings construct in the future will be based on our ability to deny violent and militaristic techniques for solving problems. Peace education should therefore be a central pillar to getting better human relations in the family, in schools, at the workplace, within countries and across borders (Murithi, 2009).

In recent decades, most critical educators as well as those in development education claimed for a more holistic structure of increasing self-awareness through peace education. Although the fact that the main difficulties of underdevelopment and worldwide inequality remain central to constructing a more peaceful environment, people must deal with a variety of other problems in cultural, political, and social life. Therefore, peace and global educators (Burns and Aspeslagh, 1996; Selby, 1993) maintain that development issues cannot be understood when isolated from other problems including militarization, human rights abuses, cultural conflicts, environmental destruction, and personal or inner peace. Peace education - provided formally in classrooms, informally in communities, as well as in room for board meetings - tries to address the globalization issues.

One of the fundamental values upon which peace education is centred on is people welfare. Reardon (1988) states that:

The value of humankind requests us to train people to be able of creating a nonviolent, just social order on this planet, a global civic order offering equity to all Earth's people, providing protection for universal human rights, just social order on this planet, a global public order offering justice to all Earth's citizens, providing safety for universal human rights, providing for the resolution of conflict by non-violent processes, and ensuring admiration for the planet that yields life and security for its people.
This insight is more used by Reardon in association with the other fundamental standards she examines the importance of kind relationships which commences "with connections between the human order and the natural order and emphasizing a human order of positive relationships...that make it possible for all to pursue the realization of individual and communal human potential" (Reardon, 1988: 59). Peace education needs to reduce the issues of the violation of human rights, environmental degradation, structural violence, and to guarantee peace in countries. Peace education can help in the development of social concord, equity, and social justice as alternatives to tensions and wars (Leistyna, 2002; UNESCO, 2002).

The empowerment element that rests in the heart of peace education instructs people to use their social, political, and economic rights (Floresca-Cawagas, & Toh, 1989). This enables people to acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes that may liberate them from hunger, from abuses and exploitation, and from structural violence as they take greater control over the direction in which their lives are headed (Selby, 1993). Hicks (1993: 20) observes that peace education gives more importance on interactive and experiential methods of learning, which promote both pupil independence and the improvement of analytical thinking skills. Efficient learning is seen as deriving from affirmation of each pupil's individual worth, the development of a great selection of cooperative skills, the ability to discuss and debate issues, to reflect critically on everyday life and events in the wider world, and to act as responsible citizens”. People are empowered when they are allowed to participate in the decision-making developments, especially on those that directly affect them.

There is value in examining different cultures to understand how they educate for peace. African cultures are depositories of a substantial body of knowledge on how to promote peace and maintain harmonious communities. It is just typical, then, that the continent continues to be afflicted by significant levels of violence. However, it also true that there is a need to communicate the knowledge of African cultures of peace to present and future generation of Africans (Murithi, 2009).

Hence, a deeper meaning of peace is about tackling the root causes of poverty, injustices and inequality among the people. This is what is often referred to as positive
peace where the desire is to search for alternative systems or ideologies to counteract injustices and inequalities in society to experience real peace through non-violence and human development. A further development to positive peace is Christly peace, that is, peace in view of a relationship with God or someone greater. It explores ethics, morals and values in view of not only God’s Law, but the Law of Nature. Human beings are born good, and therefore they are rational beings and can make ethical decisions distinguishing right from wrong with compassion and empathy, necessary prerequisites to peace at all levels of society (Kaman, 2010). Peace education is grounded in philosophy that instructs non-violence, love, trust, equality, collaboration and respect for the human beings and all life on our planet. Skills include communication, listening, understanding different perspectives, cooperation, problem solving, analytic thinking, decision making, conflict resolution, and social accountability (Kaman, 2010).
Conclusion
This chapter has discussed the concept of conflict, focusing on the nature, causes, forms, elements, principles, levels, symptoms, theoretical frameworks demonstrating how conflict resolution, conflict management, conflict transformation, and peace-building as core peaceful theories may play significant role to address the underlying factors which are sources of violence and attitudes that give rise to violence, such as unequal access to employment, discrimination, intolerance, mistrust, hostility between groups. It is therefore required to continue their application through all stages of a conflict. The conflict parties’ attitudes and practices have to change in order to achieve the conflict settlement. However, peace education should deal with attitudes and a transformation of behaviour. Educating about peace has to do with presentation of information and building of knowledge. Most people assume that conflict is something that should be avoided. It is only when the causes of the conflict are understood that effective strategies can be employed to resolve or transform conflict.

Conflict is often perceived to be negative and a sign of an unhealthy relationship. However, conflict can be constructive or destructive. Depending on the number of factors, conflict either creates a better situation for all involved or it is destructive. It is not necessarily something terrible to be avoided but is often an opportunity to create new solutions to problems, to learn about oneself and to come closer to other people.

The Merafong municipality conflict can be understood by using the theories that have been explained in the chapter. These theories are not strong enough to reveal if there is a relationship between community conflict and citizen politics but it can be deduced from the theories chosen that the unmet needs that result in conflict can be service-delivery related.
4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the research methodology that was applied during the empirical component of this study. Aspects of the design, together with the underpinning methodology, will be discussed in order to justify the quality and significance of the procedures that were applied. This will be achieved by addressing the following:

- The term methodology will be explained and the steps in the processes will be defined;
- The research methods that were followed will be explained;
- The possible influence of bias on the data will be discussed;
- Survey method: data collection instruments will be discussed, and the chosen method for this study will be explained in greater detail;
- Measuring instruments used in the study will be explained; and
- Survey population: the population, as well as the sampling methods used in the study, will be explained.

A research design is the plan according to which the researcher obtains a sample and collects information from it. In this study, the researcher explored the best method suitable to obtain answers to the questions raised in the proposal. Basically, two methods will be discussed at length in this chapter, namely qualitative and quantitative research methods; and in addition to these research methods, triangulation will be discussed as a method used by the researcher. In a sense, the research design is the blueprint of the research, dealing with at least four problems: what questions to study; what data is relevant; what data to collect; and how to analyse the results (Yin, 1994: 95). It is more than a work plan, because the main purpose is to help avoid a situation in which the evidence does not address the initial research questions. It can describe a
flexible set of guidelines that connects theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry and methods for collecting empirical material.

This chapter deals with the research approach used, the design of the main research instruments and the sample, data collection methods used to collect the primary data, and data analysis. It will further indicate how issues of validity and reliability were addressed through the triangulation approach.

4.2 Research Design

Research design is the basic “plan for the research” (Punch, 2009: 112; Thomas, 2009: 70) that amongst other things “concerns the tools and procedures to be used for collecting and analysing empirical materials” and a “logical rationale for answering the research questions” in a manner that has reliability and validity (Punch, 2009: 112).

In line with the argument in the preceding deliberations, the study was approached in an inductive and exploratory way (qualitatively); which eliminates the need to formulate a hypothesis. In addition to the qualitative enquiry, the quantitative method was also used to incorporate questionnaires to collect data and include the use of statistics in data analysis.

The questions were formulated according to the information gleaned during the literature review. The questionnaires comprised two sections. The first section A, requests biographical data from the respondents. The second section B, concentrated on the respondent’s views about post-violent recovery processes, systems procedures practiced in local government consultation.

Reliability refers to the extent to which a research measurement has both consistencies over time and internal consistency (Punch, 2009: 244). Firstly, consistency overtime means that a research instrument will give the same results on different occasions when it is administered to the same respondents. Secondly, internal consistency relates to the extent to which multiple research items are consistent with each other in that they are all
working in the same direction (Punch, 2009: 244). Reliability, as Hudson (1981) in De Vos (1998: 85) puts it, deals with the consistency with which the instrument evaluates. For this to realized, the instruments were administered in the same way in a consistent fashion to all subjects of the research; and the standardization (categories and themes) were established as criteria that dictated the researchers judgments.

Validity is another important quality of research instrument and means the extent to which an instrument measures what it has claimed to measure (Punch, 2009: 246). In order to establish validity in the instrument used to collect data on the study, an extensive study was undertaken to determine the aspects of post-violent recovery processes, systems procedures practiced in local government consultation. Accordingly, the questionnaire posed questions that are relevant to the concept of consultation, a pilot study was conducted, in which two departmental managers, two assistant managers, six operational staff (workers), municipal councilors in one of the wards which does resort within the Merafong were given questionnaires and interviewed to comment on terminology used, understandability, clarity of items, instructions and to what extent additional items were necessary to put the phenomenon into perspective.

4.3 Research Paradigms
The choice in different research methods and measurement techniques can be informed by an understanding of different theoretical assumptions that represent fundamental differences in assumptions about social science research. Hence, this section reviews different theoretical assumptions about social science research by which a study can proceed in order to answer its research questions. Bassey 1990 in Burton and Bartlett (2009: 18) terms a set of research ideas a ‘paradigm’ which is defined as “a network of coherent ideas about the nature of the world and of the functions of researchers.” Furthermore, within each paradigm there is “a general consensus on the research methods that are appropriate” (Burton and Bartlett 2009: 18). In the following section three research paradigms and their associated research methods will be discussed: positivist or quantitative paradigm, the interpretivist or qualitative paradigm and the mixed method paradigm.
4.4.1 Interpretative or Qualitative Approach

In contrast to the positivist or quantitative paradigm, the interpretivist or qualitative paradigm is based on the principle that there is no one objective reality that exists outside of the respondents’ explanations, but there are different versions of events (Burton and Bartlett, 2009: 21). For instance, tourists might have different views on what happens in cultural events and will act according to how they interpret events. The role of a researcher within the interpretivist paradigm is to seek to ‘understand’ these actions using ‘naturalistic’ forms of data collection, such as “making use of individual accounts and biographies and often including detailed descriptions to give a ‘feeling’ for the environment” (Burton and Bartlett, 2009: 21).

Individual accounts can be obtained by providing participants with an open-ended way of presenting their views, which they do in their own words (Creswell, 1994: 4; Denzel and Lincoln, 1998: 8; Henning, Van Rensburg, and Smit, 2007: 5). The most common methods of data collection in the interpretivist or qualitative paradigm are interviews and observations (Neuman, 1997; Punch, 2009). In this sense, a researcher who adopts the qualitative approach is interested in the “qualities of the phenomenon” (Henning, 2004: 3) as perceived and understood by the participants of a particular situation or event (Burton and Bartlett, 2009: 22). Researchers should “interpret the expressed views and behaviour” as participants in their “research situation” (Thomas (2009: 75). However, Thomas cautions that the researcher’s level of involvement does not absolve them “from the imperative to approach the question in a fair and balanced way” (2009: 75). This requires that the researchers should at least recognise and acknowledge that their position might affect their interpretation of findings in a subjective way.

4.4.2 Positivist or Quantitative Approach

Positivism is based on the premise that for quantitative research, “knowledge about the social world can be obtained objectively” (Thomas, 2009: 74). To achieve this, the positivist will conduct experiments, “producing findings that are unaffected by the opinions and hopes of the researcher” (Burton and Bartlett 2009: 19). This often involves having two identical groups; a control group to which nothing is done and the
experimental group which is subjected to some changes in conditions. In so doing, the aim is to identify differences between the two groups that are as a result of changes in variables that are being studied. However, in cases where it is not possible to have two identical groups, the same group can be subjected to some changes in condition and examined at different times.

The data collection approach favoured in the positivist paradigm by many applied researchers is the quantitative research method (Neuman, 1997: 63). This is defined as a social inquiry that relies on numerical measurements to conduct a comparative statistical analysis of different variables using a prepared questionnaire with specific items to which subjects must respond by choosing from a predetermined set of scaled responses so as to determine if the predictive generalisations of one’s theory hold true (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000; Creswell, 2003; Denzin and Lincoln, 1998; Henning, 2004; Neuman, 1997). In particular reference to quantitative sociolinguistics, it is a “paradigm in which researchers want to gather data on language use from which its general rules can be induced” (Cameron, Fraser, Harvey, Rampton and Richardson, 1992: 201). The rationale behind the use of quantitative research is that linguistic variables can often be counted or quantified (Wray, Trott and Bloomer, 1998:79). In the process of measuring the ways that variables varied and in drawing conclusions, researchers should however try to be “as objective and neutral as possible” (Thomas, 2009: 74-75).

4.5 Research Methodology

Research Methodology involves the application of a variety of standardized methods and techniques that will increases the likelihood of attaining the validity and in the scientific endeavor (Mouton, 2006: 35). Brynard and Hanekom (1997: 25) states that research methodology address the issues of; research design, sources of data, procedure for collecting the data and data analysis. They further stated that research methodology is also about identification and description of the target population and sampling techniques used presentation of instruments and techniques for measurement, design, procedures and explanation of the data. The researcher performed interviews both focus groups and face-to-face interviews together with
surveys in all the wards of Merafong Municipality including Foshville and Wedela. The contribution of the study will be in the form of a framework that will be developed and used when ever there is any resurgence structural conflict in the area.

The methodological approach for the study was the combination of both the qualitative and quantitative approach i.e. mixed method. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) broadly define mixed-method research as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. The above definition indicates that there are few limits to what can qualify a study as mixed in its approach. The definition includes the simple use of different languages which suggests that a study that uses a questionnaire composed of more than one language qualifies as mixed research. However, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 20) further clarifies that there are two different instances according to which a study can be described as mixed; mixed-model designs and mixed-method designs.

The researcher can, for instance, mix the two approaches to evaluate, using different methods, on how the tourists, communities, and businesses react on certain changes or policies on or before an event. Triangulation approach can provide significant data that can have implications for the success or failure of the implementation of the policy in question or triangulation. Qualitative and quantitative approaches are complementary, and yield a richer, more valid and more reliable, findings which could be acceptable to adherents of either method (Mouton, 2006: 35).

4.5.1 Mixed Method Approach

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) broadly define mixed-method research as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. The above definition indicates that there are few limits to what can qualify a study as mixed in its approach. The definition includes the simple use of different languages which suggests that a study that uses a questionnaire composed of more than one
language qualifies as mixed research. However, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 20) further clarifies that there are two different instances according to which a study can be described as mixed; mixed-model designs and mixed-method designs.

On the one hand, mixed-model designs are constructed by mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches within and across the stages of research. In this respect McDonough and McDonough (1997: 220) indicate that the kind of social science research that uses both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis strategies may be linked to evaluation studies with implications for education policymaking. The researcher can, for instance, mix the two approaches to evaluate, using different methods, how the participants in a particular society react to a new policy. Such an approach can provide significant data that can have implications for the success or failure of the implementation of the policy in question.

On the other hand, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 20) explain that mixed-method designs require the researcher to make two primary decisions:

- whether to operate largely within one dominant paradigm or not, and
- whether to conduct the phases concurrently or sequentially.

In (a), the assumption is that the researcher can conduct the study within one paradigm, e.g. quantitative, using mainly questionnaires. In addition to this, the researcher can gather another set of data, e.g. focus group interviews, which is associated with the qualitative paradigm. Punch (2009: 296) refers to this approach as embedded mixed design because “one data set plays a supportive secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data type.” In such circumstances, statistical information can be compared with qualitative information obtained from the same group of subjects to assess if there is consistency in their responses.

The assumption made in (b) is that the researcher can use quantitative and qualitative methodology at different stages of the research process or concurrently. For instance, the initial stage might be quantitative and the second stage qualitative. In this two-phase mixed-method approach, the second set of data is used to build upon the initial
set (Punch, 2009: 296). The context of the study is very specific and focuses on the controversy surrounding the re-demarcation of Merafong and its hinterland to the North West Province.

4.6 Data Collection

Several methods could be used to collect data, namely, questionnaires, interviews, observations, documents, tests and unobtrusive assessments. Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 184) define data collection methods as an integral part of the research. Normally researchers use one or more of these data collection methods, depending on the restrictions of each methods (Henning, et al., 2004: 103). The use of appropriate research methods enhances the value of the research. In this study the questionnaires were used to collect the primary data, while interviews were conducted to authenticate data collected through the questionnaires to formulate an opinion about the impact of community engagement on post-violent recovery processes.

4.6.1 Questionnaire

Dornyei (2003: 6, citing Brown, 2001) defines a questionnaire as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.”

Burton and Bartlett (2009: 75) assert that a well designed questionnaire can provide “useful information on respondent’s attitudes, values and habits.” Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2001: 119) concur that surveys are conducive to gathering data that are aimed at describing the nature of existing conditions. In addition, Romaine (1995: 302) notes that questionnaires have been used in various kinds of sociolinguistic research due to the fact that they are easy to distribute and collect, and the results can be more reliably compared and analysed than can data obtained from open-ended discussions. In measuring attitudes the Likert Scale that was devised by the psychologist Rensis Likert (1932) is usually used in questionnaires to allow respondents to indicate their levels of agreement to statements provided by the researcher (Thomas, 2009: 178). This scale uses a five-point range with answers from strongly agree, agree, unsure/neutral, disagree, to strongly disagree.
Burton and Bartlett (2009: 75) warn that it is sometimes “difficult to obtain in-depth personal responses” when using questionnaires because “both questions and answers will often remain superficial.” Burton and Bartlett (2009) attribute this to the fact that statistical data gathered by the questionnaire will tell you what people think, for example on a policy, but, it will not allow the respondents to raise specific issues they might have with the policy. This can be addressed by using closed and open questions in a questionnaire. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992: 242-243) describe a *closed question* as a type of question that provides respondents with a set of answers and requires them to choose the one that represents their view most adequately. Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998: 174) argue that this type of question limits respondents in that they have to choose from the provided options. They also argue that another drawback to closed questions is that “they can be so directive as to be patronising” (Wray et al. 1998: 174). Despite such criticisms, Wray *et al.* (1998: 174) indicate that it is sometimes necessary to use closed questions as they “remain a valued means of gathering data that can be easily processed and scored,” particularly when dealing with large numbers of respondents.

In contrast to the closed question, an open question is not followed by any kind of specified choice. Instead, respondents’ answers are written out and recorded in full (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 243). Fasold (1984: 192) asserts that the main advantage to open questions is that they give the respondent “maximum freedom to present her views.”

However, there are two main drawbacks of questionnaires as a method of data collection. Firstly, when participants complete questionnaires they are engaged in what is known as the method of self-report (see e.g. Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1998: 103). This method requires participants to look within themselves and to identify their attitudes, feelings, perceptions and beliefs in response to set questions. These questionnaires provide subjective data, which can be controversial. The validity of self report data may be questioned as participants may provide answers that the respondents thought the researcher wanted rather than their honest opinions. As such, the findings may have very little connection to the respondents’ actual behaviour (Neuman, 2007: 168). To
address this shortcoming, observation can be a very useful means of gathering data on what is happening in classrooms and other learning situations, particularly on a study that deals with language of instruction and learning.

4.6.2 Observations

Observation as a research tool is supported by Hopkins (1993, cited in McDonough and McDonough, 1997) who describe observation as a ‘pivotal activity’ with a crucial role to play in classroom research, teachers’ personal-professional growth, and school development as a whole. McDonough and McDonough (1997: 101) assert that “observation with its associated techniques is also often embedded in a larger-scale research plan as one method among others, when perhaps a variety of data sources is appropriate.” This suggests that a researcher can, for instance, use questionnaires and supplement them with observations. The type of observation where the observer is involved in the activities of the group under investigation without disturbing their natural behaviour has come to be known as participatory observation (Henning, et al., 2007: 42; and Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000: 104). As McDonough and McDonough’s (1997: 105) indicate however, “observing one’s class is difficult, but not impossible, to reconcile with teaching it at the same time”. In this regard, they recommend video- or audio-recording for later analysis. These recording tools can however still interfere with the classroom activities as they have the potential to distract students’ attention from the lessons. The other weakness that a practitioner researcher has to guard against is the question of objectivity (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000: 104). Being directly involved in the investigation and students poses a danger that the researcher might not lose detachment from participants and events. There are also power implications in the use of observation and in the way it is conducted (Burton and Bartlett, 2009: 105). The presence of an observer who has a position of authority has the potential to affect the behaviour of the participants. At the same time, some colleagues might not welcome the idea of being observed by someone who is either at their level or above, they might see the presence of an observer as intrusion.
An alternative method is oral interviews as they have been widely used as survey research tools in applied linguistics (see e.g. Nunan, 1992: 149) and because they are believed to allow a degree of in-depth information gathering, of free response and flexibility that cannot be obtained through questionnaires and observations (Terre Blanche and Kelly, 1999: 128 and Seliger and Shogamy, 1990: 166). There is also a wide variety of forms of interviewing, such as individual, group, focus group and telephone surveys, to explore depending on the nature and objectives of their investigation (see Punch 2009: 144-152). It has been observed by the researcher in all the wards at Merafong and the surrounding areas that were affected by the violent protest that government departments like Clinics; Schools; and Censor Rehabilitation Centre; and Swimming pool that were burned down during the violent protest were being erected again with the use of local contractors owned by local cooperatives. Bushes along the roads from Khutsong and the old Potchefstroom where drug traffickers and prostitution were taking place were cleaned and community policing is visible on the area only with the help of communities and the local municipality.

4.6.3 Focus group interviews

A focus group interview is defined as a discussion that is organised and facilitated by the researcher so as to allow for group interaction among people who share a similar type of experience or are similarly affected by a proposed change (Kelly, 1999; Gibbs, 1997). The main purpose of focus group research is to obtain responses that would not be feasible using one-on-one interviews or questionnaire surveys (Morgan and Kreuger, 1993: 102). Focus group interviews also have the potential to provide data on views shared by a broad community since they allow respondents to freely interrogate their attitudes among themselves rather than with the researcher (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Kelly, 1999; and Thomas, 2009). The collected data can be useful if the researcher wants “to compare the group attitude with a set of individually assessed attitudes” (Thomas, 2009: 170).

In this approach, the researcher can facilitate the focus group by providing probing questions such as: “Any different opinions?” and “Do you all share the same view?”
This line of questioning can allow an in-depth information gathering process since it can ensure that as many participants as possible contribute to the discussion. Asking these questions can be important in a situation where students might be reluctant to talk in using a second language in which they feel incompetent. In such a case, the researcher can also allow students to use a language shared by the group. As the discussion takes place, it is important that the facilitator records the deliberations in the form of note-taking or audio and video recording (Kelly, 1999).

One disadvantage of the focus group interview or any interview is that the reliability of its data can be affected by the subjectivity and bias(es) of the facilitator (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Mason and Bramble, 1997). The facilitator’s opinions can influence the choice of questions and the manner in which they are asked. In addition, the perceptions of the facilitator can affect the way in which the collected data is interpreted and presented. This is possible if the subject under investigation has a political undertone to it, such as language education policy. It is for this reason that it is important for researchers to be upfront about their subjectivity (Thomas 2009).

4.6.4 Research tools pre-test

According to Neuman (1997: 141) research tools should undergo a pre-test or pilot stage “before applying the final version in a hypothesis-testing situation” to improve reliability. This can be done by asking a small group of students to complete the questionnaire during its development stage which will allow the researcher to assess if the questions are understood as intended and make amendments where necessary. It is however still likely that during the data analysis, the researcher would find that there are shortcomings in the research tool or there was some misunderstanding on the part of the respondents.

Once the research tools are ready, the decision on how to administer survey questionnaires will depend on the size and location of respondents. If there are many respondents who are located across a wide area it might be necessary to obtain assistance with the collection. It is also possible to send questionnaires electronically.
But it is advisable that “the researcher should stay in control of the data collection procedure, rather than leave it to others or to chance” (Punch, 2009: 250). As mentioned in section 4.2 page 78 that a pilot study was conducted were two departmental managers, two assistant managers, six operational staff (workers), municipal councilors in one of the wards which does resort within the Merafong were given questionnaires and interviewed to comment on terminology used, understandability, clarity of items, instructions and to what extent additional items were necessary to put the phenomenon into perspective.

4.7 Sample and Sampling method
A sample is defined by Seaberg (cited in Strydom and Venter (2002: 199)as a small portion, subset of measurement of the total set of objectives, events or persons that together comprises the subject of the study, and what the researcher is interested. Kerlinger (1986) in De Vos (1998: 190), Best and Kahn (2003: 12) and Williman (2005: 276) postulate that sampling is a process of selecting a portion of the population or universe. Walliman (2005: 276) further indicated that sampling should be done whenever a researcher can glean data from only a fraction of the population or a phenomenon under study, and further more, a researcher should try to select a sample that is free from bias. According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim, K. (2013: 139) the convenient or purposeful sampling does not depend on any statistical principle of randomness.

The sample was selected using the convenient and purposeful sampling technique of non-probability sampling of all members of the population who were in some way involved in violent protests or post-violent protests recovery processes. The sample drawn for this study consists of Acting Municipal Manager, twelve (07) departmental Managers, (05) members of the department of Education, eight (8) Operational staff (including nurses, clerical staff in local Clinics around Forchville), and one Assistant manager. It was assumed that the characteristics of the population selected. Different community members were elected consisting of (10) Taxi owners that belong to Carletonville Taxi Association (CATA) that includes long-distance, local and Forchville
associations under CATA, (12) Carletonville Street Vendors Association (CASVA), (12) Communities members affected by dolomite living in the informal settlements around Zonderwater, Tankini and Chawela, and (10) members of the Khutsong Combine Churches were interviewed. This sample was big enough to continue with the study. Two focus groups one consisting of six community members and other group consisting of municipal officials working at community participation department in Forchville were interviewed.

4.8 Data Analysis

De vos (1998: 203) and Mouton (1996: 161) stated that data analysis basically is a research activity in which a researcher breaks down data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions. Supporting this position, Leedy and Ormond (2012: 150) indicated that the researcher begins with the large body of information, he/she should, through inductive reasoning, sort and categorize it and eventually break it down to small set of abstract, underlying themes. Therefore, the aim of the data analysis in research is to discover the relationship between cases and variables as well as between variables and variables (Williams, 2003: 125). Relevant documents were perused by the researcher in order to have a full grasp of the number, documents like legal frameworks for community participation in local government, the review of relevant literature on conflict management and transformation inside and outside South Africa including Africa, related policies, manuals and records. Minutes that gave a guide to some of the actions taken by the municipality during and after violent protest.

In order to guarantee the functionality of questionnaires, practical requirements of questions need to receive attention at this stage. The questionnaire used in this research instruments of the qualitative research approach, have been based on the design of Van Heerden and Roodt (2007: 23). The questionnaires were used to solicit the opinions of the focus group interviews that were tape recorded and later transcribed for the purpose of analysis, Municipal Manager, Assistant Managers, operational staff on the issue of involvement of public opinions on post violent recovery processes. The
answers are presented verbatim below each question. Non-verbal communication that might have transpired during the discussions has not been recorded.

Creswell (2003: 153), solidify that data analysis requires that:

- The researcher be comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons and contracts; and
- The researcher be open to possibilities and seeing contrary or alternative explanations for the findings.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

In order to prevent harm to the subjects and to obviate bias, the researcher abides by the ethical guidelines that seek to avoid harm to the respondents or to the organisations. Strydom and Venter (2002: 62) define ethics as a set of moral principles that are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently widely accepted, and offer rules and behavioral expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. To ensure that the researcher remains ethical at all times, Sieber (1998: 128) suggested that an investigation into the perspectives and cultures of the participants and their community early in the process of research designs is important to avoid violating their needs and interest.

In order to ensure that the researcher’s actions are deemed ethical, subjects must provide informed consent to participate (Henning; Van Rensburg, W. & Smit B, 2004: 73). According to Henning et al., (2004: 73) the participants’ informed consent is required at two levels, namely the utilization of the research findings and their privacy and sensitivity and how these would be protected.

The researcher obtained permission from the Merafong Local Municipality to conduct the study (see Appendix 1). The request for permission indicated the need to interview respondents from the municipality, as well as to access municipal documents that bear relevance to the study. Upon approval of the research proposal, the researcher provided the municipality with the procedures of the study. This includes the list of documents required for the study. Once respondents had been identified, permission for
the participation was requested via the letter sent to the Director of Corporate Services and the Municipal Manager, the data gathering methods, including the use of tape recorders, as well as how information obtained would be used (Appendix 2). Once the respondents had granted their permission, they were requested to sign a consent form which has also highlighted the right to withdraw from the study at any time if they so wished. Further to this, the study obtained ethics clearance from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Faculty Higher Degrees Committee. The ethics reference number is H/12/ART/PGS-0040 (Appendix 3).

Another key ethical consideration crucial to the research is that of privacy and confidentiality and anonymity (Babbie, 2013: 440); Durrheim & Wassennar, 2013: 68). Anonymity is an ability to identify a respondent from a given response (Babbie, 2012: 440). In this study, the researcher kept the respondents’ identities anonymous in that only views expressed by the respondents were shared and nothing about their identity.

Confidentiality means that information may have names attached to it but that the researcher holds it in confidence or keeps it secret away from the public. Information is not released in a way that permits the linking of specific individuals to responses (Neuman, 2012: 99). To assure confidentiality, Babbie (2012: 441) recommends that the researcher should undertake not to reveal information that might expose the identity of a respondent. Durrheim (2013b: 68) advocates that respondents should be informed of the parameters of the information to be provided and that they should be told how data will be recorded, stored and processed for released.

The researcher emphasised that the information provided was confidential and that the respondents’ names were kept and not mentioned in the research report or later publications. Information collected from the study was stored in tapes and some filled-in questionnaires were shredded with the shredder. Upon completion of the study the researcher would discuss the findings with the relevant departments and offer them with the copy of the study after graduation. The findings were made known to the respondents, since the study aimed at the impact of public opinions in post-violent protest recovery processes in Merafong Municipality especially Khutsong Township.
A covering letter and the invitation to participate voluntarily in the study were attached to the questionnaire to inform all the respondents and the managers about the purpose of the research (see Appendix 4). The letter was used enlighten the respondents about their contribution in fulfilling the researchers' findings. The respondents were provided with a consent form that requested their willingness to take part in the study after being informed about the study. Respondents were not coerced to participate in the study. This was to avoid violation of the research ethics. They were also informed about their confidentiality and anonymity. The letter identifying the institution, and the research title, with details of the researcher were also provided.

4.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher provided the goals of the research which, in turn, determined the methods that would be employed. Mixed-method analysis and semi-structured interviews would be the most suitable methods. This section discussed research processes, sampling procedure, the research procedure, data analysis and ethical consideration.
Chapter Five

Empirical study and Research Findings

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews are discussed and analyzed in detail. The characteristics of the participants are discussed. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the aim of the research is to establish the perceptions of the respondents on questions set out in the questionnaires and provide possible solutions to the problem statements. The responses by the councilors and Senior Officials in the Municipality are discussed at length. Challenges that were faced by the municipality in addressing the issue of relocation from Gauteng to the North West are also discussed.

With the community in Khutsong, face-to-face interviews were conducted by the researcher in English with the help of interpreters to Setwana, Xitsonga and Sotho. Ward councilors completed the questionnaires on their own in English. Where there were areas that required clarity to the questions, it was explained to participants by the researcher.

5.2 Biographical findings from Questionnaires

The biographical data of the two respondent groups, i.e. community respondents and municipality respondents, is presented below.

5.2.1 Biographical information of community respondents

The information was collected at the beginning of the face-to-face interviews based on a questionnaire with the respondents (Appendix 5). As already indicated, the community responded as a group gathered from various ward committees in Khutsong according to the selection criteria mentioned in section 4.5 of Chapter 4. Sampling methods in same
section were used due to the fact that all community members present at the meeting were involved in the demarcation processes either as students at Badirile High School, unemployed respondents or members of the forum.

Findings were gathered from the communities around Merafong, in completing the biographical information of three mentioned questionnaires. Questions reveal that the majority of community members are between the ages of age category 20-29, 30-35 years. This is a group where councillors and other officials of government departments within the Merafong Municipality usually are elected. They are the most economically active group. In their responses they complained about local politics and being sidelined; i.e., only card carrying members of the ruling party are informed of any meeting.

Nine were between the ages of 40-44 years old. Some of these people are no longer economically active because they have been retrenched from the local mining industries.
like Deelkral; Doringfontein, Western Deep Level number 1 and 2 shaft and Blyvooruitzig. They indicated that they were part and parcel of the violent conflict claiming that their contribution to the wealth of Gauteng through working in mining industries is worth nothing in the North West Province. They were very keen to talk about their contribution to the wealth of the province. They talked of being sidelined by the local politicians concerning their development.

The last group of people aged between 45- and above years (6%) complained of their age as the reason of not being involved in these processes. Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997: 7) maintain that local government should promote citizen participation in its search for solution to local problems. In a nut-shell, it was shown that in Merafong community participation was lacking. In fact, the way re-demarcation of the municipality was communicated to the communities of Khutsong was very poor.

The researcher divided the questions and the answers of respondents according to their categories - that is community members and public officials.
5.2. Educational background of community members

![Diagram showing educational backgrounds]

5.2 Educational Qualifications

**Figure 5.2** shows the educational background of the community members. The researcher noticed that the Merafong Municipality Integrated Development Planning (IDP) document is written in English and this could have made it difficult for everyone to read it. The better the level of education among the community members, the greater is their understanding of all the semantic jargon in the IDP document and greater their participation in all municipal activities. Even if there are limitations for public participation in governance matters, South Africa as a democratic country must ensure that it consolidates and maintains democracy by encouraging public participation. The idea to check educational background was to check if the lack of participation was due to language used in the IDP document.

The respondents’ educational level ranges from four with primary education, 18 with secondary education; 12 with college education, and 10 with tertiary education. The level of education of the respondents according to the Education Management
Information Systems (EMIS) is less than any other municipalities under the jurisdiction of the West Rand District Municipality.

**Question: 5.3** which one of the following modes of communication was used by the Municipality when consulting Khutsong communities to discuss the relocation plan?

According to the findings, a slight majority of the respondents during the interview schedule confirm the following results and illustrate in the form of graph.

![Modes of communication in the municipality](image)

**Fig 5.3 Modes of communication in the municipality**

According to Figure 5.3, respondents demonstrated various participatory mechanisms, with public consultation hearing and meetings ranging at the top of the list with 18 Izimbizo; 15 public consultation hearings and meetings; and 10 ward committees. Least used were Conferences/Workshops and Events ranging at 02 that were evidently used by Merafong Local Municipality to engage communities on matters of urgency like
demarcation of the municipality to North West. These processes were used with the objective of obtaining feedback from the community through the process of public participation. They have become part of the ethos of post-apartheid government thinking that seeks to promote the country’s constitutional ideals of entrenching participatory democracy.

In terms of the Public Participation Framework of 2005 (South Africa, 2005), accountability is a key principle of public participation Ward Committees are accountable to communities by participating in the monitoring and evaluating of community projects and providing consistent feedback on the progress made, via Izimbizos.

According to the Guidelines for the Establishment and operation of Municipal Ward Committees (South Africa, 2005: Notice 965 of 2005), Ward Committees are required to meet at least quarterly, and public or ward meetings should be convened regularly.

It is clearly that the protests that took place in Merafong were informed by the lack of involvement of the communities in the monitoring and evaluation of the performance of the municipality in terms of decision that were made in terms of demarcation processes.

Ward committees in the Merafong were functional but required additional resources and support to enable them to perform their tasks more effectively.
Question 5.4: How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the stakeholders (MDF; Business, Taxi Association, Street Vendors and Ministerial Fraternity) within the municipality?

According figure 5.4 finding, the majority of the respondents felt that the relationship between different stakeholders in Merafong was not good, which implied that the service delivery was not as quick and/or smooth as it should be. But the fact that 25% of the respondents saw the relationship as good means that in their view there is a potential for improve service delivery in all the sectors of government because there is a cordial relationship between the stakeholders.

According to the municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, municipalities must provide communities with, inter alia information on municipal governance and management so that the communities are able to make informed inputs into the participatory processes. Merafong must take into account the different languages and special needs of different stakeholders.

Clearly from the responses one can infer that there seems that there was no relationship between the municipality and the communities. Even the fact that 5% of the respondents were uncertain meant that there was no answer to this question. However
there is a room for improvement which would indirectly improve service delivery to the community.

**Question 5.5: To what an extent do these relationships impact on the service delivery in all sectors of government?**

The purpose of the question was to solicit information that would enable the researcher to establish whether the nature of the relationship (good or bad) between stakeholders indeed had an impact on the delivery of better decisions on the municipal demarcation process in Merafong, and if so, to what extent. Respondents were given four responses to choose from: (i) greater extent (ii) lesser extent (iii) no effect and (iv) not sure. The breakdown:

![Bar Chart](chart.png)

Figure 5.5 shows that the majority (11) of the respondents felt that they were not sure of the link between the nature of the relationship between stakeholders and decisions made for demarcation of the municipality, which means that the success of service delivery (demarcation at Merafong) depends largely on the relationship that exists between the different stakeholders. However, 6 respondents who stated that there is no
effect or the effect was minimal alluded to the fact that the there are other factors that need to be considered when addressing the issue. The General Secretary of SACP Khutsong branch concurred with this view, stating that some problems that have negative effects on Khutsong re-demarcation do not necessarily come from the demarcation board and the Gauteng provincial government per se, intimating that there should be cooperation and co-ordination across all government sectors.

**Question 5.6: Are any of the prescribed government legislations on public opinions, and consultation during the re-demarcation processes?**

![Bar Chart](Image)

*Fig 5.6 Use of government legislations by the municipality

The rationale behind asking this question was to solicit information concerning the use of government legislations that would enable the researcher to establish whether use of legislation is good or bad and its impact on the decision-making process in Merafong if so, to what an extent. Respondents were given two responses to chose from (i) Yes or (ii) No. The breakdown of the respondents is shown in Figure 5.6. The majority of government officials consults legislations and consults communities whenever there is
any development objective that needs their contribution. However, 5 respondents did not participate, and mentioned their privacy as an excuse.

Section 152(1) (e) of the 1996 Constitution, and Section 16 (1) (a) of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 2000 state that any government entity including municipalities must develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory democracy. To this end the municipality must encourage and create conditions for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality. Chapter 5 of the Act requires specifically that citizens must participate in the preparation, implementation and review of the IDP. The White Paper on Local Government visualizes a process where communities will be involved in governance matters, including planning, implementation and performance monitoring and review. Communities would be empowered to identify their needs, set targets and, thereby, hold municipalities accountable for their performance regarding service delivery.

The deduction that was made from the findings is that government legislation and communities were consulted, and it is argued that the sequence of events, decisions and communication intended to give effect to the incorporation of Merafong to the North West were both confusing and haphazardly executed. Secondly, it argues that such public participation with the communities was not effective and that, to some extent served largely to grant legitimacy to a predetermined policy agenda.
Question 5.7: Are there any possible challenges that were facing the Municipality in implementing community participation programmes and projects?

![Figure 5.7 Possible challenges in the implementation of community participation programmes and projects](image)

The reason behind asking this question was to get a sense of the kind of problems different stakeholders have to contend with when executing their various duties. This was particularly important because rushing to find a strategy to foster stakeholder participation and co-corporation without establishing the need thereof would have been a futile exercise.

The results in Figure 5.7 reveal that 14 of the municipal officials who responded on the questionnaires agreed that they had not been aware of the challenges faced by communities in terms of community engagement and consultation, particularly in the
process of re-demarcation of their municipal offices to the North West. Only 6 of the respondents attested that they had been aware of the challenges faced by the communities while 4 were unsure. This was, therefore, of alarming concern since ward committees should know about the community challenges in their respective wards.

In terms of the White Paper on Local Government, 1998, in Section (b)(1), one of the characteristics of developmental local government is to working with communities to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives.

Clearly, the Merafong Municipality did not fully implement all the programmes and strategies that could have promoted more effective participation of its inhabitants in the governance of the municipality.

5.8 Findings from interviews

The researcher analyzed the data through the following five stages, as outlined by Creswell’s model (2008).

- Collecting and managing data: through an interview discussion, the researcher elicited data in various areas of the study and used a tape recorder to capture discussions in respondents own words. The researcher took handwritten notes which served to remind her of the various aspects needed to pursue. The interviews were conducted in Xhosa; Setswana and English, understood by both the researcher and the respondents. After the interviews, the researcher used the tapes to create transcripts which, together with the handwritten notes and the bibliographical information of the respondents, were stored. Data derived from the transcripts was then developed into an electronic format using the Microsoft Word computer program.

- Reading and memoranda: the researcher read the transcript in order to get a sense of the themes that had emerged. During this reading process, the
researcher’s role was to make notes of significant phrases, key concepts and ideas;

- Classifying: as the text was been scrutinized, the researcher highlighted the themes and phrases that carried the same meaning. Using colour coding, different themes were identified;

- Interpretation: the researcher considered the various pieces of information to create a holistic picture of the meaning of the described situation;

- Representing and visualizing: in this chapter, the researcher presents the findings of the study. The findings are presented in text which includes the words of the respondents. The biographical details of both respondent groups are presented in graphic format.

5.9 Summary of findings from focus groups

In this section, the findings of focus groups are presented in summary and, where applicable, supported by the extracts from the respondents own words and the literature.

Focus group interview that was held at the Merafong Municipality department of Community Participation board room at Fochville on the 22:05: 2012

Question 5.9.1: What do you think should be done to foster stakeholder co-operation in Merafong?

The reason for asking this question was to identify some strategies that could be used to ensure that there was co-operation between different stakeholders, thus improving decision-making and service delivery to the affected communities in the Gauteng and North West. Respondents presented fascinating suggestions, which, if applied, could produce positive results beyond North West and Gauteng. A member of SADTU argued
that municipal and provincial governments should change their mentality, whereas each of the stakeholders perceived the rest of the stakeholders as competitors. The leader from the ANC youth league reiterated this view, arguing that there should be regular meetings between stakeholders, even outside collective bargaining structures. Leaders of teachers’ unions from provincial of North West in Kokosi Township and Khutsong under Gauteng made a very intriguing point that the different teachers’ unions from these provinces should have a common understanding among them and convince their members to do likewise so that at least some of the problems could be addressed without the involvement of the education department.

Other suggestions that came out of the interviews include the following: there should be a meeting between teachers in the North West and Gauteng Province in which each party can voice its concerns concerning their refusal to be re-demarcated; School administrators, educators, and learners should protest against the authorities working for the Department of Education so that they consult with them before taking any decisions on educational matters; all stakeholders should form part of the decision-making process; communication channels between stakeholders should always be open so that problems do not accumulate; and councillors should be trained and be capacitated properly so that they can perform their duties more efficiently and effectively.

**Question 5.9.2 Are communities able to engage with Municipal Officials?**

The driving motive behind this study was to influence policy formulation and implementation of redemarcation. The purpose of this question was to solicit answers that could help the provincial government and the municipality to improve its relationship with the other stakeholders. Asking an open question was the deliberate decision aimed at giving respondents a platform to air their views freely. Participation is an active process whereby participants take the initiative and action stimulated by their own thinking and deliberation and over which they can exert effective control, and is the way of receiving information about local issues (Brynard, 1996: 2). More than 75% of respondents highlighted several problems. Therefore, instead of listing challenges according to the stakeholder that mentioned them, the various challenges that impede
participation of communities were consolidated into one list. Each challenge was mentioned once even if more than one stakeholder mentioned it. The problems were: Political/administrative dichotomy in the North West, department inability to build schools and good communication systems; inability of the province to offer better services for its people, e.g. Home Affairs and Health services, including better road networks; poor communication between stakeholders; disjunction between schools and department views on what needs to be done; and shortage of staff because of PPN.

Question 5.9.3: Were there any positive outcomes in the method used by the municipality in engaging with communities?

The reason behind asking this question was to get a sense of the kinds of problems in the method used in the engagement of communities to discuss their issues, whether the meeting was called by municipal officials or politicians for conformity by communities. It has been discovered that most methods that were used to engage communities were helpful but their contribution were not taken into consideration and were not incorporated into the solution of the problem. There were no positive outcomes of meeting between government representatives and communities on issues of demarcation, because government was there to implement the pre-determined policy.

The *Gauteng Star* (dated 20-March 2009: 9) reported that the only outcome in Khutsong was a loss on the side of the municipality because nine houses and several vehicles belonging to councillors were destroyed. Some councillors were reported to be admitted and were hospitalized after being attacked by a group of angry communities; the Gugulethu Community Centre housing a library and computer centre with internet facilities is no longer there; the South African National Cancer Association premises for the benefit of the community was destroyed. Other facilities like the Khutsong Stadium, swimming pool, roads and infrastructure were badly damaged. The main library in Khutsong was destroyed and all electronic equipment was stolen and the others were vandalized, and the municipal services were affected.
The following summary was done immediately after the focus group concerning the reasons for Khutsong conflict.

- ambiguous use of government legislation;
- forced incorporation and scarce resources in North West Province;
- province rural in nature with lack of resources like health services, education and infrastructural services;
- Legislative oversight and greediness among national ANC members. The decision to incorporate Merafong into the North West had been a high-level political decision, and thus something over which the Merafong Council and Local ANC branch had had little to say. The Local ANC branch members were just sold out by their national office; and
- Relocation to the North West from Gauteng will put communities in a tough competition over basic human resources which were easily available to them in the previous province.

**Question 5.10: Summary of the interviews with the community members at Merafong Local Municipality at Tswana section (Dated 30 to the 31/05/12)**

All most Khutsong Community members that were interviewed on the above mentioned date strongly believe that they are the people of Gauteng Province. They are far more likely to work and consume in Gauteng. If their services will be taken to North West, which is almost eight hours’ drive with the public transport to Mahikeng - far more than the forty-five minutes’ drive to Johannesburg with transport network that includes buses, trains and underperforming taxis from Carletonville to Mafikeng in the North West.

They further stated that their contribution to the wealth of Gauteng, when the incorporation of Merafong into the North West was going to ignore the local miners’ historical contribution to Gauteng’s economy and if they were incorporated to another province nobody would care about their contribution to another province.
Summary of interviews with the Youth Leader (YCL and DA) dated 1st and 3rd of June 2012

Two youth leaders from DA and YCL were interviewed in separate occasion both of them believe that ANC as a ruling party will bring nothing for them, they only people community members to vote for them during national and local elections and then forget about all the promises they have made. The DA leader made a reference to matchboxes houses given to the communities to live in, and open toilet saga. They believe that demarcation process and service delivery issues were also common elements in some areas of Khutsong as they also mentioned during an interview, because some areas in Khutsong are not provided with basic services such as running water, refuse removal and sanitation. Furthermore, they also mentioned services that are provided by the municipality are of such a low standard. Khutsong’s infrastructure is also worse compared to that of other neighbouring towns. Township poorer socio-economic standing in the municipality can be partly explained by the fact that other areas are closer to the mines; there are more important feeder areas for jobs in the mines and draw more benefit from this proximity. Yet this creates resentment and feelings of exploitation, whereas areas such as Krugersdorp, Randfontein and Kagiso are benefiting from the mining activities around here.”

Summary of interviews held with High school and Primary School Teachers in Khutsong, Wedela, and Kokosi Townships under Merafong (Dated 23, 24, 26 May 2012)

The centrality of service delivery and social development-based arguments in residents’ justifications of their preferences for Gauteng reflect the importance of existing and projected material conditions in shaping the resistance. The overarching perception is that service delivery and prospects for social development are brighter in the Gauteng Province compared to those in the North West Province.

Gauteng’s provision of education is perceived to be richer in content, more advanced in terms of use of technology and adequate infrastructure, more resourceful, and more effective. Khutsong and Carletonville schools have been provided with computers and
benefit from Gauteng’s online program. Regular supervisory visits in schools; special attention to child-headed families; orphans and needy learners; provision of temporary teachers; quicker filling of vacant positions; and better financial aid opportunities for learners are some of the Gauteng benefits. In the North West Province an example schools in Kokosi (a township in a nearby town of Fochville under Merafong) under the jurisdiction of the North West Province are ‘without computers and like most schools in the North West Province are lagging behind with information technology due to the province poor financial status.

Branches of Teacher Union in Carletonville (SADTU), Wedela and Carletonville branches confirmed this and pointed out in their submission that the Gauteng Department of Education is way ahead of its North West counterpart when it came to curriculum issues, human resources management, and infrastructure development. Currently the process of CAPS; implemented in 2009 is at an advanced stage in Gauteng whereas in the North West they are battling with the staffing of teachers. The nutritional programme for all schools in Gauteng has been introduced and it was doubtful whether North West would have a similar programme on a sustainable basis. The Teachers’ Union submission further stated that it depends on the effectiveness of the manager of the school in terms of submission for additional services, whereas in the North West schools have to apply for such services from the department and wait for some time. Services of the North West province’s Department of Education reveal poor results from poor management and administration.

**Summary of interview with the Deputy Director of Empilweni Clinic in Khutsong (25 June 2012)**

The director of Health and Emergency services said that Gauteng is better as compared to North West, pro-Gauteng residents argued. There are enough clinics in Carletonville and Khutsong whereas in Kokosi which is under North West, only two clinics exist without ‘medicine and staff to provide services after hours’. No hospital exists in Kokosi, resulting in pregnant women being always referred to Carletonville or Potchefstroom
The majority of Merafong residents access secondary and tertiary health care in Gauteng and will continue to do so even if the municipality was to fall under North West for functional reasons. This would constitute an additional burden on Gauteng Province if the municipality does not fall under its jurisdiction. Emergency services such as fire brigade and ambulances are run by the Gauteng West Rand District Municipality which serviced even areas of Merafong that fell in the North West under the cross-municipality dispensation. Residents believe that it is unlikely that North West will provide them with similar services and that ‘it is unthinkable that accident victims on the N12, R28 and N14 where it currently runs through the West Rand District in the Westonaria and Merafong City areas, would be taken to secondary and tertiary medical facilities in the North West Province in Potchefstroom’. The distance was then mentioned by the Director between the Capital Town of North West and Gauteng that North West is under-resourced position aside, efficiency demands that emergency services be provided by Gauteng given the short distance and functional link to its major cities such as Johannesburg.”

Interview held at Carletonville Home Affairs Offices with Admin Assistant (24: May 2012)

Concerning home affairs services, Merafong residents are happy that Gauteng has offices in Khutsong and Carletonville where registration for identity documents is done daily in an effective and efficient manner. The same benefit is not available to Kokosi residents who are said to be ‘suffering because their Government in North West cannot afford to bring services closer to them’. Identity documents are a necessary requirement for accessing welfare and other Government services. Access to home affairs services in the North West part of Merafong municipality is perceived to be difficult, as attested by this testimony: ‘Officials from Potchefstroom are sent every Tuesday to register manually people without ID. If a person does not get an opportunity to register on that day, he or she will wait for the next Tuesday’. A similar scenario applies to Government social services; there is no dedicated office for these services. ‘In Gauteng, the pension grant pay outs process takes place almost three days a week, whereas in Kokosi, under
North West the pay out process takes place once per month. If you fail to avail yourself on the pay day, you must wait for next month,’ they add.

Besides, Merafong-Gauteng is said to have enough staff for social services whereas in Merafong-North West communities are serviced by only one social worker and volunteers. As Merafong was integrated in North West in 2006, residents noticed that certain community structures, including the Mothusampilo, the home based care, Tshepo Thembisa Development centre and all the crèches suffered from absent or inadequate funding. The existence of a multipurpose community centre and eradication of the bucket system in Merafong-Gauteng are also celebrated as benefits one would not leave to go to North West where such a multipurpose centre does not exist and the bucket system is still prevalent.”

In addition to the service delivery and social development concerns, residents also justified their attachment to Gauteng on economic considerations. The local economy of the Merafong is hard hit by the down-scaling of the mining sector as a result of the financial crisis. This creates significant job losses with associated increasing levels of poverty. The crisis caused by a declining mining sector is not helped by the dolomitic challenge which prevents establishment of industrial or agricultural activities on a large scale in order to absorb mining sector job losses. In this difficult socio-economic context, residents ask ‘to what extent would the North West Province be able to absorb such job losses into its provincial economic dynamics and to what extent would the North West Province provide the economic base or impetus for the survival of the communities of Merafong city?’

For them it is unlikely that the North West would be able to help the local economy to cope and reinvent itself. Scepticism about the North West’s capacity to re-launch Merafong local economy is unambiguous: “The material probability that the North West Province would not be able to provide a dynamic and empowering economic environment to counter the down-scaling of the mining sector and to absorb its impact in the long term is cause for grave concern.” But so is the residents’ acceptance that “The
City region of Gauteng provides a far more feasible empowering economic environment to counter the steadily declining mining activities of the West Rand.” Indeed, existing poor material conditions in Khutsong, the driving force behind the border dispute, and concerns over service delivery and local economic development greatly shaped the uncompromising and violent rejection of Government’s policy. This explanation would be overly materialistic if insufficient attention was paid to ideological underpinnings of the resistance—namely local notions of democracy and development.

**Interview responses by Municipal Officials held on the 7th June 2012. Immediately after the announcement that Khutsong was demarcated to the “wrong” province, what did your community do?**

After the announcement of the re-demarcation of the municipality to the wrong province the civil societies took a range of actions aimed both raising awareness of their concerns and at pressurizing government to reverse its decision. Actions like consumer boycotts; stay-aways; legal resources and pressure by political parties were the order of the day. Several houses belonging to councillors were burned down; some government institutions in Khutsong like the library were looted, the centre for the rehabilitation of cancer sufferers was looted and burned down, and swimming pool and stadium were badly damaged. Some members of the police force during the protests strike were reported to be badly wounded and their family homes were destroyed and looted.

5.11 **What remedies are available for post-violent recovery processes in the Municipality?**

**Debt counseling project:** this is a project responsible for the counseling communities who owe municipal fees, either water, electricity, municipal rates or refuse removal. It is important for a small municipality like Merafong to collect its revenue from municipal services in order to deliver its own sustainable duties to the same community.
If communities are not paying for services, the municipality will not be able to offer sustainable services to its community. The municipality sees it possible and important to engage communities of Khutsong in this campaign. When communities are engaged in a problem like this one, it is easy for them to contribute in decision-making and abide by the decision they have made. For the municipality of Khutsong through decisions made in workshops and consultation meetings, communities agreed to pay for the services and allow the municipality officials to visit those who do not and terminate their services. For the regular payers rebate will be given, in water and free litres of water every day.

**Back to School Campaign**: to all the youth who missed schooling during the four years of social unrest, back to school campaigns were necessary, especially for all those who were affected during their primary levels. One of the most important projects that were done by the municipality was the relocation of the Grade 12 learners that were due to write examinations to Taung to prepare. Buses were made available by the Municipality for the parents and guardians to visit them. Teachers and specialists from various areas in the province were hired by the Gauteng Provincial Government to assist Grade 12 learners.

**Street cleaning campaigns; cutting down of bushy areas**: Communities who were not afforded the opportunity to go back to school were accommodated in other projects to generate income i.e. the removal of illegal dumping and cutting down of bushes along the R74 the main road between Potchefstroom and Carletonville, to prevent the ongoing mugging, prostitution, human, child and drug trafficking.
5.12 Conclusion

Political interference and poor co-ordination during the process of incorporating Merafong into the North West Province were among the answers from the majority of respondents. Communities in Khutsong saw the neighboring province snail pace delivery of services, increasing their anger towards government department and those whom they perceived were standing in their way to stop the incorporation processes. It is difficult to conceptualize public participation /consultation and even more difficult to get communities to understand it. The data from the respondents confirm that it was public consultation rendered by the local government officials that was never done correctly and at the core of the conflict. This however, does exclude some other causes that might have played a role in this violent protest. The summary of the findings will be presented in the next chapter.
Chapter Six

Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher will indicate how the research goal and aims and objectives of the study were achieved and will discuss the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The aim of the study was to explore the impact of public opinions on post-violent protest recovery processes in Merafong. The assumptions that supported the study were that if public opinions were incorporated in all local government decision-making processes, the conflict could have been curbed. It was further assumed that if government officials and community leaders played their role by facilitating the engagement processes, the conflict could have been prevented.

6.2 Research goals and objectives

This section will discuss and conclude on the findings, according to the objectives that have been set out in Chapter One. The objectives of the study were to:

- Explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of consultation of the local communities during the post-violent protest recovery in the Merafong Local Municipality;

The objective was achieved by both the literature review (section 2.8 to 2.12) and by means of the findings of the empirical study indicated in (section 6.3; and 6.5).

- Explore the possibility of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process in post-violent protests recovery initiatives.

The objective was achieved by means of empirical studies where the researcher investigated the employment of community participation in post-violent recovery processes in (section 6.9).
• Explore to what extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide community participation at the local government level.

This objective was achieved through the literature review contained in Chapter 2 in (section 2.6) and by means of empirical studies whereby the researcher investigated the usage of government legislation by municipal officials (in section 6.4).

The findings of the study confirmed that the empowerment component of public participation was absent from the participation processes. It was found that public participation activities were implemented as an obligation on the part of local government and not necessarily to ensure meaningful participation from communities. Furthermore, it became evident that local communities did not actively participate in determining development initiatives and decisions as programmes are pre-determined by National Executive of the ruling party (ANC).

The research has identified and discussed the main causes of social unrest in Khutsong Township. It concluded that the community participation process in this case was a failure, and the provincial was not open or responsive to the wishes of the community of Khutsong. The study argues that the sequence of events, decisions and communications intended to give effect to the incorporation of the Merafong Local Municipality into the North West Province were both confusing and haphazardly executed. The author argues that the involvement of communities served largely to grant legitimacy to a pre-determined policy agenda.

The author further believes that if public involvement was meaningfully considered and all the views expressed by the public were taken into consideration; the conflict could have been curbed. It was further assumed that if the Gauteng Provincial Government had not compromised the outcomes that favoured the Khutsong Community, the conflict could have been prevented. This assumption brought to the forefront the significance of community participation as
The public participation processes communicate the interests and meet the process needs of all participants. A local government that is responsive to the basic needs of its citizenry is the local government that strives to facilitate governance to an extent that all participating groupings in the locality are given an opportunity to present their needs based on the available resources at the municipality's disposal.

The public participation process seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected. Participation is acknowledged in the governance and development discourse, as a mechanism for building capacity for the rural poor in the quest for poverty reduction and good governance.

The public participation process involves participants in defining how they participate. In promoting local governance, legislation and other municipal policies give effect to public participation. This helps the public to actually understand reasons why they should participate in a manner that promotes their interests. IDP: Local Pathway to Sustainable Development in South Africa provides for all residents to have a responsibility to be actively involved in municipal affairs. The IDP process offers residents including organized stakeholder groups, an opportunity to shape the development decision-making process at the local level, because, in one way or another, he or she will be influenced by the policies implemented by the government.

The public participation process communicates to participants how their inputs affected the decision. Public participation increases transparency in the decision-making process. If citizens are involved in the policy development, they will be able to make government officials more accountable for their decisions. Therefore, individuals must be involved in the decision-making process because their input can help create useful solutions to problems, such as community housing or education, which are an integral part of their everyday lives.
The public participation process provides participants with the information they need to participate in, in a meaningful way. Unless otherwise, the information is classified as confidential by the municipality. Information must be made available for citizens to familiarize themselves with so that they can meaningfully engage relevant officials with community key issues. People involvement in local government affairs is beneficial in ensuring local governance in local government. Individuals and groups that are involved in the process of influencing decision-making are defined as stakeholders. These are people who have some interest in the policy and thus want to express their opinion.

6.3 Summary of findings

The findings of the study include the following:

The existence and types of conflict in Merafong

The findings revealed that the types of conflict existing in institutions and the society embrace goal conflict, cognitive conflict, affective conflict, procedural conflict, scarce resource conflict, authority conflict and independence conflict. Regarding the question asked whether other types of conflict existed in the Merafong Local Municipality, the responses were positive, mentioning lot of different types of conflict. What was new on the respondents’ responses was an issue of political-administrative dichotomy.

Role of community in public participation on re-demarcation

The findings reveal that the role of community participation in the demarcation processes was mainly the submissions of their refusal to be in-cooperated into North West (see 6.3).

It shows that even though local communities of Merafong were consulted, their input was ignored because it contradicted the wishes of the national executive of the ruling. This can also imply that the government did not engage the community with the honest attitude of wanting to find out what they need and respecting their needs. Instead, it
suggested that the decision was made prior to consultation and community participation for public opinions was a mere formality.

**Challenges that were faced by the municipality (meetings)**

The literature review findings revealed that reluctance of communities to participate in community meetings and izimbizo is the incapacity of ward councillors to control meetings that end up being political arena for the ruling party (see 2.9.2). This means that it can be concluded that the success of the meetings should not be measured by mere attendance but by its ability to transform needs and wants into tangible solutions. The community becomes committed to participation if their participation yields results and, in this case, needs of the community of Khutsong were compromised.

Community respondents who were themselves members of the ward committee felt undermined by the flow of information from the municipality to the community on the issue that concerned demarcation processes. This was because of their limited knowledge and understanding of the demarcation processes despite that they were expected to facilitate and take part in them. It was concluded that the role of ward committee members during the time of re-demarcation was unsatisfactory. Members seemed to be restricted or unaware of their role on issues that are of primary concern to the community. It was so unfortunate that the decision to incorporate all the areas of Merafong that fall within the boundaries of North West was not a municipal decision or that of any ANC branches in Khutsong Town, it was just a National decision to trade parts of Merafong to the South Western District Municipality in return for the Winterveld Municipality which was already in the Gauteng Province. Ward councillors in Khutsong were just there to agree on the pre-conceived policy by the National Executive of the ANC.

Even though it is a political will to engage the public on a continuous basis in respect of issues affecting them, there needs to be commitment from both the politicians and the municipal officials to ensure that community participation processes are carried out
effectively and efficiently. The absence of ward committees since 2009 has also had a negative impact on the effectiveness of community participation since these committees are closest to the people on the ground and could therefore relay the issues or challenges as experienced by the latter to the municipality for mitigation.

The reports emanating from the public and ward committee meetings are disseminated to the various directorates within the Municipality but there are concerns around the time it takes directorates to attend to the issues raised by the public. Therefore, a mechanism needs to be put in place that would monitor the progress and time it takes for directorates to respond to the issues raised by the public at the community participation meetings.

The Municipal Systems Act extends the definition of municipality to include residents and communities within the municipal area, working in partnership with a municipality’s political and administrative structures. This relationship is fundamental to sound and effective governance, and the long-term sustainability of local government. Therefore, community participation is the governance process that would enable the Merafong Municipality to foster a sound relationship between the role-players in the delivery of sustainable services.

6.4 Limitations of the study

The literature study revealed that there are still discrepancies in terms of process, procedures and systems that should be implemented in order to achieve effective meaningful post-violent community participation in the brokering of peace-building initiatives in South African municipalities. Literature study as well as the empirical study revealed that the following:

- According to the literature study, the municipalities should establish and implement the peace-building system in order to monitor measure and review the strategies used to manage conflict in order the conflict not to resurface again with other new causes as resurgence territorial conflict, conversely, empirical findings indicate that all the respondents (departmental managers and assistant managers) revealed that municipalities do not implement the
monitoring and evaluation of methods that they are using to resolve conflict that always resurface;

- It is also found through literature study that municipalities are obliged to develop their human resources capacity to a level that enables them to perform its functions and powers in an economical, effective, efficient and accountable way. Empirical study findings revealed that the majority of respondents also revealed that they are not empowered to take control of their own development in order to perform effectively;

- Literature study indicated that the management-leadership task should focus on the monitoring, training, and equipping group members and focusing them on goals to generate an environment that motivates peace among the municipality and opposing political parties. Unfortunately, empirical study findings indicate that majority of respondents (operational staff) revealed that managers are not creating an environment where staff members can strive to do their best because their efforts are not recognized.

6.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

Local government is obliged to create an enabling environment that allows space for communities to interact with municipality on an equal footing. In view of the above conclusions, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

- The municipality should use joint decision-making in deep-rooted conflicts that are caused by fundamental human needs for security, identity, recognition and development. The mentioned causes cannot be compromised, and they need to be accommodated through problem-solving rather than power-sharing bargaining. Khutsong’s violent conflict was an example of deep-rooted conflict where the communities of Khutsong did not want to be incorporated into the North West Province because of lack of development and insecurity in the province; and poor economic conditions. Some authors in the literature like Pruitt and Kim (2004: 190) maintained that using problem-solving to negotiate the end of a deep-rooted conflict calls for a joint effort which includes public opinion to
find mutually acceptable solutions for all parties. The author believes that the public opinions approach is the best way to solve social unrest and violent conflict in South Africa.

- The Merafong Municipality should embark on the municipal assessment of public participation and Integrated Development Planning, using more qualitative methods. The assessment should focus on levels of participation from different sectors of the community, the awareness of public participation and Integrated Development Plannings amongst residents, integration mechanisms for inputs from communities, capacity requirements to ensure meaningful participation and monitoring and evaluation of the outcomes of public participation processes. The outcomes of the assessment should inform a review of public participation in the municipality;

- There should be a review of public participation policy as the current policy does not meet its stated aims and objectives. Public participation policy should place more emphasis on the empowerment components of public participation and also include the need for capacity building amongst the different stakeholders. The policy should encompass the developmental goals of participation which promote change in the socio-economic and political position of residents and place greater emphasis on implementation of the policy.

- The existing Performance Management Systems (PMS) should be strengthened to ensure proper collation of data collected from public participation events. Such should be analysed, prioritised and forwarded to the responsible service delivery departments and the Integrated Development Planning Unit for integration and implementation into broader planning process. Most importantly the PMS should have a monitoring mechanism that would enable residents and officials to follow up the extent to which the Municipality has responded to the needs expressed by the community. The PMS should further enable officials to provide feedback to communities regarding service delivery issues and local community needs raised by communities;
- The Municipality Public Participation Unit and Integrated Development Planning Unit should develop a capacity building programme for residents on the importance of public participation and its developmental benefits. Furthermore, the capacity building programme should encompass technical skills and knowledge required for public participation, i.e., how to do written submissions, petitions, information regarding the budget process and its link to IDP. Special attention should be placed on ward committees as a key component of public participation, ensuring communities' voice in the affairs of the local government and a mechanism for accountability of the ward committees, councillors and other local government institutions.

- Community structures like the Merafong Democratic Forum (MDF); Khutsong Ministers’ Fraternal (KMF), Carletonville Taxi Association, and Street vendors Union can be the best civil organisations that can be recommended, encouraged, and be incorporated into the Municipality in the sustainable long-term in order to address ongoing and long-term development of the people of Khutsong.

- The policy documents, by-laws, budget and Integrated Development Planning documents that are referred for public comment should be simplified. They should be written at a level of language that is easily understandable for residents with low literacy levels. Policy used by government officials and political office bearers should be in local vernacular language, when communicating with communities or an interpreter should be used if there is another group who does not understand the language. This will create a better understanding of community roles and encourage the community to take an active involvement in community issues. Political leaders should not give preferential treatment to their political acquaintances.

- A skilled audit amongst officials and councillors is important. The purpose is to assess the levels of understanding, knowledge and competence of officials and councillors with regard to public participation, Integrated Development Planning and service delivery. The outcomes of the audit should feed into the development
of a capacity building programme that would deal with weakness and build on strengths in order to ensure effective public participation in Merafong.

Areas for future research

Based on the findings, conclusions and recommendations emanating from this study, the suggested areas of future research are:

- A national audit to assess capacity requirements of officials, civil society organisations, councillors and communities;

- More in-depth research into alternatives for improvement of existing mechanisms for public participation in South Africa to ensure greater citizen participation; and

- Examinations of better intergovernmental relationships and co-operative governance between all spheres of government.
6.5 Conclusion

This mixed method study has critically explored the impact of public opinion on post-violent conflict recovery processes. The author has used first-hand information gathered through interviews with community members, political representatives and municipal officials and additional data about the conflict and public/community participation through an extensive literature analysis to portray the impact of community involvement in developmental initiatives in municipalities. The author has presented key findings about the causes of Merafong conflict from the data collected in the study by means of literature review and face-to-face interviews. This last chapter has reflected on the study and the process of data collection and analysis, presented the summary of the research findings, and discussed limitations and significance of the study. The author has given recommendations for further research.
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Participant’s full name: _____________________________________________________

ID number and physical address: _____________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

I was invited to participate in the below-mentioned research project undertaken by Leon 
Ngada, an MPhil candidate in Conflict Transformation and Management at the Nelson Mandela 
Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

Title of the research project:

**Public opinion in the post-violent protest recovery in the Merafong**

**Local Municipality**

Principal Researcher: Leon Ngada
Address: 170 Moore Road. 14 Crannely Mansions, Davenport, Durban
Phone: 0832046232

**The following aspects of the study have been explained to me, the participant:**

**Objectives of the research:**

- Explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of consultation of the local communities during the post-violent protest recovery in Merafong Local Municipality township of Khutsong;
- Explore the possibility of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process of recovery initiatives;
- Explore how best the community can try to heal the social relationships destroyed during the social unrest; and
- Explore to what an extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide public opinion at the local government level.

**Procedures:**

I understand that the researcher will use mixed method and literature analysis to gather information about post-violent protest recovery and its practices, shortcomings and potentials.
The data gathered through the interview will be used for the MPhil dissertation. I understand that the results of the research study may be presented at conferences, published in specialist publications in the future.

Possible risks:
- Participants revealing information that may harm them.

The principal investigator has advised me not to reveal any sensitive information that can put me in jeopardy.

Possible benefits:
- Better understanding of the field of post-violent protest recovery in South Africa;
- Contribution to the academic debate about the post-violent protest recovery;
- Offering recommendations to improve current practices.

Confidentiality:
My identity will not be revealed in any discussion, description or publications by the investigator.

My participation is voluntary and my decision whether or not to participate will in no way affect my present or future career/employment/lifestyle.

The information above was explained to me (the participant) by Leon Ngada in the English/Tswana language and I am in command of these languages. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and all questions were answered satisfactorily. No pressure was exerted on me to consent to participation and I understand that I may withdraw at any stage without penalization. Participation in this study will not result in any additional cost to me.

I HEREBY VOLUNTARILY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE ABOVE-MENTIONED PROJECT.

Signed in ______________________   Date ______________________

Name of participant _____________________   Signature ______________________

Name of witness ________________________   Signature ______________________
Questionnaire for Community Members of Khutsong Township

To:

- Explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of public opinions in post-violent protest recovery in Merafong Local Municipality;
- Explore the possibility of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process of the post-violent protests recovery initiatives; and
- Explore to what an extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide public opinion at local government.

Questions

1. Biographical Information

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<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
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2. Age Group

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>30 – 34 years</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>35—39 years</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>40—44 years</td>
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<td>45 and above</td>
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2.1. Are communities able to engage with Municipal officials in those meetings?

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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>No</td>
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</table>
2.1.1. Comment on the statement ----------------------------------------------
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2.1.2. Does the councillor call meetings before any major decisions are taken?
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3. How often do you meet with the officials -----------------------------------
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4. Are the communities willing to attend these meetings?

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<td>Yes</td>
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4.1. Comment---------------------------------------------------------------
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5. Are there any positive outcomes in the method by the Municipality in engaging communities?
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2
6. How often do you receive feedback from Municipality officials?

7. What were the major causes of conflict between the Khutsong community members and the Municipality?

8. Are there any valid reasons why communities are refusing to go to North West Province?
9. What was the level of service delivery in Merafong?

10. What are your fears of moving to the North West Province?

11. Are there any interventions by the Municipality in preventing any simmering conflict to erupt again in the area?

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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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11.1. If yes, give reasons for your answer

12. What is the community involvement in those plans?
14. Is the community aware of any post-violent conflict recovery projects by the Municipality, where communities or community representatives are taking part?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not Sure</td>
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14.1. Give reasons for your answer?

End of questionnaire
Questionnaire for Merafong Local Municipality Officials

To find out:

- Explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of public opinions in post-violent protest recovery in Merafong Local Municipality;
- Explore the possibility of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process of the post-violent protests recovery initiatives; and
- Explore to what an extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide public opinion at local government.

Questions

1. If you answered yes to the above question, which mode of participation did you use when involving communities?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modes of Participation</th>
<th>Type</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Izimbizo</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ward committees</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Traditional Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Department Responsible Committee Participation</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Never</td>
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2. How often do you interact with communities in this process?

3. Who are the key roles – players in community meetings?
4. What was the response of the community?
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5. What are the challenges faced by the Municipality in community participation?
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6. Are you consulting any of the prescribed government legislations on public opinion?
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7. What were the reasons of demarcation of Merafong to the North West Province?
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8. Was the Municipality experiencing challenge in retaining Merafong under the Gauteng Province?
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9. Are there any post recovery plans that are in existence?

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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>No</td>
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9.1. are the communities involved
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9.2. Are the communities responding to the post recovery plans by the Municipality?

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10. What are future plans of the Municipality in employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision making process?

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End of Questionnaire
Appendix 2

Open-ended interview questions

1. Immediately after the announcement that Khutsong was demarcated to the “wrong” province, what did your community do?

2. Is it accurate to state that in the aftermath of prolonged instability and violence, public opinions and consultation are the best remedy to involve communities in their own healing?

3. Why did the National Assembly start the process of adopting the legislation that had the effect of re-demarcating certain municipalities (Constitution twelfth amendment Act and the cross-boundary municipalities repeal Act) while the Municipal Demarcation Board was still in the process of consulting with municipalities with regard to those changes?
Leon Simphiwe Ngada
MPhil Candidate in Conflict Transformation and Management
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
Port Elizabeth, South Africa

Date:

Subject: Letter to potential research participants

My name is Leon Simphiwe Ngada. I am an MPhil candidate in the Department of Conflict Transformation and Management at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) in Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

I am currently working on a research study that critically explores the impact of public opinions on post-violent conflict recovery processes. My aim is to explore and assess the practices, shortcomings and potential of post-violent protest recovery processes in South Africa. Apart from an extensive literature review, I plan to collect first-hand information from the community members and local officials in the Merafong Township of Khutsong through in-depth interviews and the administration of questionnaires.

This study is supervised by Savo Heleta from the Department of Development Studies at NMMU. The ethical integrity of the study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

I would appreciate if you could participate in this study and answer my questions about post-violent protest recovery process in Khutsong Township. Questionnaires and interviews will be based on informed consent and conducted on a voluntary basis. The participants will be able to refuse to answer any questions and leave the process at any time. To participate in the study, the participants will have to sign a written consent that they understand and agree to the conditions. The identity of participants will at all times remain confidential.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration!

Sincerely,
Leon. Simpiwe Ngada
ngada@mut.ac.za
0832046232
Leon Simphiwe Ngada
MPhil Candidate in Conflict Transformation and Management
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
Port Elizabeth, South Africa

Date:

Subject: Letter for institutional permission

My name is Leon Simphiwe Ngada. I am an MPhil candidate in the Department of Conflict Transformation and Management at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) in Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

I am currently working on a research study that critically explores the impact of public opinions on post-violent conflict recovery processes. My aim is to explore and assess the practices, shortcomings and potential of post-violent protest recovery processes in South Africa. Apart from an extensive literature review, I plan to collect first-hand information from the community members and local officials in the Merafong Local Municipality through in-depth interviews and the administration of questionnaires.

This study is supervised by Savo Heleta from the Department of Development Studies at NMMU. The ethical integrity of the study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

I would appreciate if the Merafong Local Municipality would allow me to conduct interviews / administer questionnaires with the officials from the Municipality about the post-violent protest recovery process within the municipality. Questionnaires and interviews will be based on informed consent and conducted on a voluntary basis. The participants will be able to refuse to answer any questions and leave the process at any time. To participate in the study, the participants will have to sign a written consent that they understand and agree to the conditions. The identity of participants will at all times remain confidential.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration!

Sincerely,
Leon Simpiwe Ngada
ngada@mut.ac.za
0832046232
Dear Mr. Bredekamp,

I’m writing to you about Simphiwe Leon Ngada, who is a Masters student in the Conflict Transformation and Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth. He has chosen to conduct research in the Merafong Municipality and his treatise is entitled:

“Public opinion in the post-violent protest recovery in the Merafong Local Municipality”

The purpose of the study is to explore and assess the practices, shortcomings and potential of post-violent protest recovery processes in South Africa, with focus on Merafong. Apart from an extensive literature review, the student will collect first-hand information from the community members and local officials in Merafong through in-depth interviews and questionnaires.

I would like to inform you that Mr. Ngada is working under my supervision and is required to abide by the ethical procedures of the university. He is required to get your written permission to conduct this research in Merafong in order to ensure ethics compliance.

I thank you in advance for any assistance you may afford Mr. Ngada in his research endeavors. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you should require any additional information regarding the study and the research process.

Sincerely,

Savo Heleta
savo.heleta@nmmu.ac.za
078 644 1101
APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL
NMMU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HUMAN)

SECTION A: (To be filled in by a representative from the Faculty RTI Committee)

<table>
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BEFORE YOU FILL IN THIS FORM PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING DOCUMENTS:

- “Research Ethics (Human) Application Process” (http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4619&bhcp=1)
- “Code of Conduct for Researchers at NMMU” (Students: http://portal.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=71&sp=0&bhcp=1 or Staff: http://my.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=308&bhcp=1).

WHO NEEDS TO FILL THIS FORM IN?

Any project in which humans are the subjects of research (hereafter called a study) requires completion of this form and submission for approval first to their Faculty RTI Committee (FRTI). The FRTI will refer projects to the Research Ethics Committee (Human) (REC-H) where deemed necessary.

WHEN SHOULD THIS FORM BE HANDED IN?

The research proposal should first have been approved by the FRTI before Ethics approval may be given. It should also have first been reviewed by the FRTI for Ethics clearance before it is referred to the REC-H.

HOW TO FILL THIS FORM IN:

1) Complete Sections 1 to 8 in typescript (Tab between fields, select from pull-downs, information may be pasted from existing Word® documents), and save (filename must contain your name). Handwritten forms will not be accepted.

2) Use the “Save as” option to save the application form with a filename containing your name (e.g. “J Smith REC-H Application Form.doc”).

3) Complete Sections 1 to 8 in typescript (Tab between fields, select from pull-downs, information may be pasted from existing Word® documents), and save (filename must contain your name). Handwritten forms will not be accepted.

4) Append the necessary information e.g. Research methodology, informed consent form, Written information given to participant prior to participation, Oral information given to participant prior to participation (examples of these may be found on the Research Ethics webpage: (http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4619&bhcp=1)

5) **Electronic copy:** Email all the files (including any appendices) to the Faculty RTI Committee representative in the relevant Faculty.

6) **Hard copy, signed:** Print the document, get each page initialled on the lower right hand corner and get Sections 9 and 10 signed by the relevant parties. **Hand the signed hardcopy and attachments in** to the Faculty RTI Committee representative in the relevant Faculty.

*Please delete this instruction block before you save and print.*

1. GENERAL PARTICULARS

**TITLE OF STUDY**
**a) Concise descriptive title of study (must contain key words that best describe the study):**

An assessment of the impact of public opinion on peace-building process in a post-violent protest recovery in the Merafong Local Municipality, township of Khutsong

**PRIMARY RESPONSIBLE PERSON (PRP)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b) Name of PRP (must be member of permanent staff. Usually the supervisor in the case of students):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type PRP name here</strong> Dr L Snodgrass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| c) Contact number/s of PRP: |
| 0786441101 |

| d) Affiliation of PRP: |
| Faculty Arts Specify here, if “other” |
| Department (or equivalent): Politics and Governmental Studies |

**PRINCIPLE INVESTIGATORS AND CO-WORKERS**

| e) Name and affiliation of principal investigator (PI) / researcher (may be same as PRP): |
| Ngada Simphiwe Leon Hopewell Gender: Male |

| f) Name(s) and affiliation(s) of all co workers (e.g. co-investigator/assistant researchers/supervisor/co-supervisor/promoter/co-promoter). If names are not yet known, state the affiliations of the groups they will be drawn from, e.g. Interns/M-students, etc. and the number of persons involved: |
| None |

**STUDY DETAILS**

| g) Scope of study: Local |
| h) If for degree purposes: Master's |

| i) Funding: No specific funding |
| Additional information (e.g. source of funds or how combined funding is split) Not applicable |

| j) Are there any restrictions or conditions attached to publication and/or presentation of the study results? No |
| If YES, elaborate (Any restrictions or conditions contained in contracts must be made available to the Committee): Not applicable |

| k) Date of commencement of data collection: 2012/07/31 |
| Anticipated date of completion of study: Sept 2012 |

| l) Objectives of the study (the major objective(s) / Grand Tour questions are to be stated briefly and clearly): |
| The specific objectives of the research are as follows: Explore the practices, shortcomings and potential of consultation of the local communities during the post-violent protest recovery in Merafong Local Municipality township of Khutsong; Explore the possibility of employing the opinions of the communities affected in the decision-making process of the post-violent protests recovery initiatives; Explore how best the community can try to heal the social relationships destroyed during the social unrest; and Explore to what an extent the municipality adheres to the legislative requirements that guide public opinion at the local government level. |

| m) Rationale for this study: briefly (300 words or less) describe the background to this study i.e. why are you doing this particular piece of work. A few (no more than 5) key scientific references may be included: |
| The study is worth undertaking in view of the fact that some South African municipalities involved in relocation of a part or entire municipality were deeply involved in protracted violent protests and conflicts. The researcher main interest in this study is the impact the public opinion can have on recovery and peace-building and the importance of involving local communities in peace and recovery processes. It is believed that the findings will benefit Merafong Municipality and the entire West Rand District Municipality in matters of peace-building between communities. The researcher holds the opinion that allowing all the marginalised communities within the Khutsong Township to voice their dissatisfaction or to put their voices across in all post-recovery initiatives that affect them directly would be a step towards better solutions for all. |
2. RISKS AND BENEFITS OF THIS STUDY

a) Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment or offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, third parties or to the community at large? **No**
   If YES, state each risk, and for each risk state i) whether the risk is reversible, ii) whether there are alternative procedures available and iii) whether there are remedial measures available.
   **Not applicable**

b) Has the person administering the project previous experience with the particular risk factors involved? **No**
   If YES, please specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

c) Are any benefits expected to accrue to the participant (e.g. improved health, mental state, financial etc.)? **Yes**
   If YES, please specify the benefits: participants wont benefit in this study, but the overall potential benefits are going to be: better understanding of the field of post-violent protest recovery in South Africa; contribution to the academic debate about the post-violent protest recovery; and offering recommendations to improve current practices.

d) Will you be using equipment of any sort? **Yes**
   If YES, please specify: **tape recorder will be used during interviews, only with the permission from the respondents**

e) Will any article of property, personal or cultural be collected in the course of the project? **No**
   If YES, please specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

3. TARGET PARTICIPANT GROUP

a) If particular characteristics of any kind are required in the target group (e.g. age, cultural derivation, background, physical characteristics, disease status etc.) please specify: **no**

b) Are participants drawn from NMMU students? **No**

c) If participants are drawn from specific groups of NMMU students, please specify: **Not applicable**

d) Are participants drawn from a school population? **No**
   If YES, please specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

e) If participants are drawn from an institutional population (e.g. hospital, prison, mental institution), please specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

f) If any records will be consulted for information, please specify the source of records: **Not applicable**

g) Will each individual participant know his/her records are being consulted? **Not applicable**
   If YES, state how these records will be obtained: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

h) Are all participants over 18 years of age? **Yes**
   If NO, state justification for inclusion of minors in study: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**
### 4. CONSENT OF PARTICIPANTS

| a) | Is consent to be given in writing? **Yes**  
  If YES, include the consent form with this application [Appendix 2].  
  If NO, state reasons why written consent is not appropriate in this study. **Type response here** |
|---|---|
| b) | Are any participant(s) subject to legal restrictions preventing them from giving effective informed consent? **No**  
  If YES, please justify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”** |
| c) | Do any participant(s) operate in an institutional environment, which may cast doubt on the voluntary aspect of consent? **No**  
  If YES, state what special precautions will be taken to obtain a legally effective informed consent: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”** |
| d) | Will participants receive remuneration for their participation? **No**  
  If YES, justify and state on what basis the remuneration is calculated, and how the veracity of the information can be guaranteed. **Type response here or select “Not applicable”** |
| e) | Which gatekeeper will be approached for initial permission to gain access to the target group? (e.g. principal, nursing manager, chairperson of school governing body) **Speaker, Mayor, Political Leaders and Municipality Manager** |
| f) | Do you require consent of an institutional authority for this study? (e.g. Department of Education, Department of Health) **Yes**  
  If YES, specify: **Merafong Local Municipality Municipal Manager** |

### 5. INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a)</th>
<th>What information will be offered to the participant before he/she consents to participate? (Attach written information given as [Appendix 3] and any oral information given as [Appendix 4])</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Who will provide this information to the participant? (Give name and role) <strong>Sl. Ngada – Researcher</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| c) | Will the information provided be complete and accurate? **Yes**  
  If NO, describe the nature and extent of the deception involved and explain the rationale for the necessity of this deception: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”** |

### 6. PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA

| a) | Will the participant be identified by name in your research? **No**  
  If YES, justify: No respondent names will be used during any report writing, only false names i.e. pseudonames will be used to illustrate any outcomes only if it is necessary to do so. |
|---|---|
| b) | Are provisions made to protect participant’s rights to privacy and anonymity and to preserve confidentiality with respect to data? **Yes**  
  If NO, justify. If YES, specify: The respondents will be provided with informed consent that described willingness to take part in the study after being informed of all the information about the study influencing their decision. Respondents won’t be coerced to participate in the study, this is to avoid the violation of the research ethics, and they will also be informed about their confidentiality and anonymity. Each and every respondent will be given a guarantee that when ever he or she feels like withdrawing at any moment of the interview are allowed to do so, especially if they feel that their confidentiality is no longer protected. |
| c) | If mechanical methods of observation be are to be used (e.g. one-way mirrors, recordings, videos etc.), will participant’s consent to such methods be obtained? **Yes**  
  If NO, justify: a tape recorder will be used to record any information needed, only with the permission from the respondent |
d) Will data collected be stored in any way? **Yes**
   If YES, please specify: (i) By whom? (ii) How many copies? (iii) For how long? (iv) For what reasons? (v) How will participant’s anonymity be protected? All the data collected from different candidates by means of questionnaires and interviews schedules will be stored by researcher in the safe lockable place for as long as the researcher is still working on the project. After the project has been finished all the data from interviews and questionnaires will be shredded. Because of the nature of the study respondents won’t be coerced to participate, to avoid the violation of the research ethics, and they will also be informed about their confidentiality and anonymity.

e) Will stored data be made available for re-use? **No**
   If YES, how will participant’s consent be obtained for such re-usage? **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

f) Will any part of the project be conducted on private property (including shopping centres)? **No**
   If YES, specify and state how consent of property owner is to be obtained: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

g) Are there any contractual secrecy or confidentiality constraints on this data? **No**
   If YES, specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

7. **FEEDBACK**

a) Will feedback be given to participants? **Yes**
   If YES, specify whether feedback will be written, oral or by other means and describe how this is to be given (e.g. to each individual immediately after participation, to each participant after the entire project is completed, to all participants in a group setting, etc.): **Written feedback will be given to the participants and to the Merafong Local Municipality in the form of final findings of the study**

b) If you are working in a school or other institutional setting, will you be providing teachers, school authorities or equivalent a copy of your results? **No**
   If YES, specify, if NO, motivate: **Type response here**

8. **ETHICAL AND LEGAL ASPECTS**

The Declaration of Helsinki (2000) or the Belmont Report will be included in the references: **Yes**
If NO, motivate: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

a) I would like the REC-H to take note of the following additional information:
   None

9. **DECLARATION**

If any changes are made to the above arrangements or procedures, I will bring these to the attention of the Research Ethics Committee (Human). I have read, understood and will comply with the *Guidelines for Ethical Conduct in Research and Education at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University* and have taken cognisance of the availability (on-line) of the Medical Research Council Guidelines on Ethics for Research ([http://www.sahealthinfo.org/ethics/](http://www.sahealthinfo.org/ethics/)). All participants are aware of any potential health hazards or risks associated with this study.

I am not aware of potential conflict(s) of interest which should be considered by the Committee.
If affirmative, specify: **Type response here or select “Not applicable”**

---

**SIGNATURE:** **Savo Heleta** (Primary Responsible Person)  
**Date:** 01 April 2014
### 10. SCRUTINY BY FACULTY AND INTRA-FACULTY ACADEMIC UNIT

This study has been discussed, and is supported, at Faculty and Departmental (or equivalent) level. This is attested to by the signature below of a Faculty (e.g. RTI) and Departmental (e.g. HoD) representative, neither of whom may be a previous signator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME and CAPACITY (e.g. HoD)</th>
<th>SIGNATURE</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME and CAPACITY (e.g. Chair:FacRTI)</th>
<th>SIGNATURE</th>
<th>Date</th>
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### 11. APPENDICES

In order to expedite the processing of this application, please ensure that all the required information, as specified below, is attached to your application. Examples of some of these documents can be found on the Research Ethics webpage ([http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4619&bhcp=1](http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4619&bhcp=1)). You are not compelled to use the documents which have been provided as examples – they are made available as a convenience to those who do not already have them available.

**APPENDIX 1: Research methodology**

Attach the full protocol and methodology to this application, as "Appendix 1" and include the data collection instrument e.g. questionnaire if applicable.

**APPENDIX 2: Informed consent form**

If no written consent is required, motivate at 4a). The intention is that you make sure you have covered all the aspects of informed consent as applicable to your work.

**APPENDIX 3: Written information given to participant prior to participation**

Attach as "Appendix 3". The intention is that you make sure you have covered all the aspects of written information to be supplied to participants, as applicable to your work.

**APPENDIX 4: Oral information given to participant prior to participation**

If applicable, attach the required information to your application, as "Appendix 4".

**APPENDIX 5, 6, 7: Institutional permissions**

Attach any institutional permissions required to carry out the research e.g. Department of Education permission for research carried out in schools.
15 SEPTEMBER 2012

Mr S L H Ngada
170 Moore Rd
14 Crannely Man
DAVENPORT
4001

Dear Mr Ngada

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC OPINION IN THE POST-VIOLENT PROTEST RECOVERY IN THE MAREFONG LOCAL MUNICIPALITY, TOWNSHIP OF KHUTSONG

Your above-entitled application for ethics approval served at the RTI Higher Degrees sub-committee of the Faculty of Arts Research, Technology and Innovation Committee.

We take pleasure in informing you that the application was approved by the Committee.

The Ethics clearance reference number is H/12/ART/PGS-0040, and is valid for three years, from 25 September 2012 – 25 September 2015. Please inform the RTI-HDC, via your supervisor, if any changes (particularly in the methodology) occur during this time. An annual affirmation to the effect that the protocols in use are still those for which approval was granted, will be required from you. You will be reminded timeously of this responsibility.

We wish you well with the project.

Yours sincerely

Mrs N Mngonyama
FACULTY ADMINISTRATOR

cc: Promoter/Supervisor
    HoD
    School Representative: Faculty RTI