



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

SURNAME AND INITIAL	Solani, M
STUDENT NUMBER	200801364
NAME OF DEGREE	Master of Social Science in Rural Development
QUALIFICATION CODE	31011
NAME OF DEPARTMENT	Sociology
YEAR OF FIRST REGISTRATION FOR THE DEGREE	2013
TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT	Community capacity-building in question? Finding a “missing” variable in the Integrated Development Planning Process in Berlin, Eastern Cape, South Africa
MANNER OF OBTAINING DEGREE	Submitted in <u>partial fulfilment</u> of requirements for Master of Social Science in Rural Development
STATUS OF REGISTRATION	Full time
NAME OF SUPERVISOR	Professor Wilson Akpan
DATE OF DISSERTATION	April, 2017

Table of Contents

Table of Contents.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	v
Declaration of originality.....	vi
Statement by the Supervisor.....	vii
ABSTRACT	viii
CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The research problem	3
1.3 Research questions.....	5
1.4 Research aim and objectives	5
1.5 Significance of the study.....	6
1.6 Structure of the rest of the research report	6
CHAPTER 2: INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING: THEORETICAL AND SUBSTANTIVE FRAMINGS.....	7
2.1 Introduction.....	7
2.2 Theoretical debates on community participation	7
2.3 Why do the rural poor fail to participate?	8
2.3.1 Social circumstances.....	9
2.3.2 Cultural resources	10
2.3.3 Attitudes and social circumstances.....	11
2.3.4 Political system	12
2.3.5 Structural barriers.....	14
2.4 Empirical studies on participation.....	15
2.4.1 Effects of non-involvement of the community	15
2.4.2 Factors which inhibit community participation	16
2.4.3 Overcoming challenges to community participation	18
2.5 Capacity building measures.....	19

2.5.1. Capacity building conceptualization	20
2.5.2 Capacity building for enhanced public participation	22
2.6 Conclusion.....	28
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS	29
3.1 Introduction.....	29
3.2 Research paradigm.....	29
3.2.1 Mixed methods research.....	29
3.2.2 Research design.....	30
3.2.3 Survey research design.....	31
3.2.4 Interview	33
3.3 Sampling.....	34
3.3.1 The study area - Berlin	35
3.4 Ethical considerations	37
3.5 Conclusion	39
CHAPTER 4: INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS: PHASES, COMPONENTS, AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT	40
4.1 Introduction.....	40
4.2 Integrated Development Planning phases and components.....	40
4.2.1 Important components of the IDP.....	42
4.2.2 IDP and budgeting	43
4.3 Integrated Development Planning: Institutional and Legislative Context.....	44
4.3.1 IDP and the Constitution of the Republic Of South Africa.....	44
4.3.2 IDP, Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP).....	45
4.3.3 IDP and Municipal Structures act 117 of 1998.....	45
4.3.4 IDP and Municipal Systems act 32 of 2000).....	46
4.3.5 IDP and Promotion of Access to Information act 2 of 2000)	47
CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION	48

5.1. Introduction	48
5.2 Sample demographics	48
5.2.1 Demographic data.....	49
5.3 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to research question 1	51
5.4 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to research question 2	54
5.5 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to research question 3	57
5.6 Conclusion.....	59
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	60
6.1 Summary of the key findings	60
6.1.1 Key findings for research question 1	60
6.1.2 Key findings for research question 2.....	60
6.1.3 Key findings for research question 3	61
6.3 limitations of the study	64
6.4 Recommendations	64
6.5 Conclusions	64
References	66
Ethical Clearance Certificate	70
Letter of Request.....	72
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION	73
APPENDIX A: Interview schedule for community members of Nqonqweni Location in Berlin	74
APPENDIX B: Interview schedule for community members of Mncotsho Location in Berlin.....	75
APPENDIX C: Interview schedule for community members of Mntlabathi Location in Berlin.....	76
APPENDIX D: Interview schedule for community members of Mbolompeni Location in Berlin.....	77
APPENDIX E: Interview schedule for IDP officials.....	78

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All praise and humble thanks to the Lord Jesus Christ, the almighty and my saviour, for giving me the strength and wisdom to undertake and complete this dissertation.

To my supervisor, Professor Wilson Akpan, of the University of Fort Hare for his suggestions and encouraging criticism on the proposal and the dissertation itself, I value his patience, motivation, courage and continued guidance, thank you Prof.

Finally let me express my solemn appreciation to my wife Nondwe together with my two lovely daughters, Svuyise and Amvuyele. Your support and understanding is Priceless. Doing this dissertation meant that I spent most of my time away from home, but you continued to support me. I love you dearly and always will.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Malixole Solani, student number 200801364, hereby declare that the dissertation for Master of Social Science in Rural Development is my individual effort and it has not previously been submitted to another university or for another qualification. All secondary sources of information have been fully and correctly acknowledged.

Malixole Solani

April, 2017

Date

STATEMENT BY THE SUPERVISOR

I confirm that the dissertation of the candidate, Malixole Solani, student number: 200801364, has been submitted with my approval.

Professor Wilson Akpan
Acting Dean of Research
University of Fort Hare
East London, South Africa

April, 2017

Date

ABSTRACT

This study explored the measures adopted by Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality for capacity building of rural community members to participate effectively in the Integrated Developmental Planning (IDP) process. Focus was on the rural areas of Berlin. Existing studies suggest that, due to low literacy levels and lack of knowledge and understanding about local government issues and the benefits of participation, rural residents have little knowledge of their rights, roles and responsibilities in the IDP process, and do not know the structures designed to enhance participation. The present study was conducted against this backdrop. A mixed-methods research approach was employed, utilising quantitative and qualitative research techniques. A survey was conducted with members of four rural villages in Berlin in the Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality, Eastern Cape, South Africa. Questionnaires, with open and close-ended questions, were utilised, while in-depth interviews were conducted with IDP officials at Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality. The findings show that, while the Municipality did have community capacity-building measures in place; these were more about building the capacity of local government councillors and other local government officials and not rural community members. Whereas the municipality believed the capacity building of councillors would translate to building the capacity of rural community members, capacity building of rural community members did not happen. Community members appeared not to understand the IDP process, an indication that whatever capacity-building measures were targeted at them had no real effect in terms of engendering meaningful participation.

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The democratic elections of South Africa in 1994 presented a new system of government that emphasizes community involvement in public procedures in all spheres of government. The Department Local Government and Traditional Affairs (2011) states that “the new form of governance is also stated in the South African Constitution of 1996 which mentions that all public policy procedures in their formulation should include democratic involvement of the community”. At the local government level, it meant that there have to be new methods to development and planning. The Integrated Development Plan was then presented in 1996. This new Integrated Development Plan gives communities the opportunity to prioritize their needs and identify new resources.

Legislation such as the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 and the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 emphasizes that municipalities should develop an Integrated Development Plan in consultation with local communities. The legislation encourages meaningful participation in the Integrated Development Planning process of the local people residing in wards. According to the Draft Integrated Development Plan (2012), “there should be a full and active participation of the local people in each ward in the Integrated Development Planning process and its intention is to integrate economic, sectorial, spatial, social, institutional, environmental and fiscal strategies in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across the population in a manner that provides sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and the marginalized”. The plan is about ensuring participation and sustainable rural development. Municipalities have an obligation to ensure that there is sufficient and real involvement of the local people in each ward. In order to guarantee that available resources are used optimally towards the advancement of sustainable cost-effective development and social development, municipalities must implement Integrated Development Planning.

According to City of Cape Town IDP (2012) the “Integrated Development Planning focuses on the planning that helps in reaching developmental goals and it will also assist in the reduction of uneconomical expenditure, allocating of scarce resources and ensure funds are spent effectively by meeting these goals. Poverty and inequalities can be addressed at the municipal level and local municipalities can have a meaningful role to play in promoting local and social development”.

The Municipal Structures Act of 1998 and Municipal Systems Act of 2000 stipulates that “people participation forums and communal based planning should be part of the Integrated Development Planning process”. Sedibeng District Municipality, 2012 states that “despite these legislative requirements most rural communities do not have the knowledge, information they can use to participate meaningfully in local government affairs”. An important point here is that most rural communities may not understand their role in the IDP and its processes. This can only be achievable when there are enough resources but currently resources to empower rural communities are in most cases inadequate and it will always be a challenge for local government to build capacity of rural communities to participate effectively in the IDP process in their own localities.

The Local Government and Traditional Affairs Department (2011) recognizes and emphasizes the significance of empowering local people to participate meaningfully in the IDP processes. This study is of the opinion that it is useful to consider and investigate community capacity-building measures that are used by local administrators to strengthen the quality and level of participation of rural communities in the IDP procedure. The Department of Local Government (2002) recognizes and highlights the significance of allowing rural people to participate meaningfully in the IDP processes. This study explores community capacity-building measures that are used by local authorities to strengthen the quality and level of participation of rural communities in the IDP process. In the main the study questions the role of community capacity- building with a view to understanding its contribution to the success or otherwise of the IDP process.

1.2 The research problem

The lack of public involvement by rural communities in local government affairs and in the IDP process, in particular, is a common challenge in many municipalities. Evidence suggests that rural communities often have low literacy levels; hence they lack the knowledge and understanding of local development issues and of the benefits of participation. Hicks (2004:448) argues that “participation is tantamount to basic service delivery, policy formulation, maintaining good order at the local government level and because of low literacy levels rural communities do not realize the importance of their involvement”. They frequently do not understand their roles, responsibilities and what is expected of them in the IDP process, and do not know structures they can utilise for effective participation and how they can contribute successfully in the process. Friedman (2004) submits that “rural communities do not understand the importance of their contribution in local government affairs; it is therefore the responsibility and the function of local government to encourage the involvement of communities in the decision making process”.

Studies have also suggested that rural community members cannot access IDP-related information and there is often lack of resources for capacity building of rural community members. There is no doubt that absence of broad-based contribution by community members and information sharing by the municipality can create a sense of powerlessness, alienate the rural population from the development process and might even stoke public anger. Capacity building measures for people’s participation in the IDP process – or any development process for that matter - are sometimes missing, and where they are available, are not effective to create an environment where ordinary people can have meaningful engagements with their municipal structures on matters that affect them. Mngoma (2010:12) argues that “clear commitment amongst local government officials to provide capacity building support to individuals in local communities is absent and at times there is often a lack of co-ordination and overall commitment from those that are providing capacity building”.

Although there is a long-standing scholarly interest in grassroots development processes and mechanisms globally – and South Africa's IDP falls within this broad category – the imperative remains that of constantly evaluating the quality of public participation in such processes, as this is crucial to understanding grassroots development outcomes. In the case of the IDP, a growing body of research exists that sheds light on public participation in local government affairs. Houston (2001:12) suggests that “public participation in South Africa outlines a number of opportunities on the participation of civil society in the formulation of the budget; participation in legislative processes and in the integrated development planning processes of local government”. Naude (2001) agrees with the above statement by suggesting that “Public participation intends to provoke and evoke debates at the local government level focusing predominantly at disadvantaged communities”.

The writer argues further by suggesting that “the process of public participation in street naming in the KwaMashu Township was not an effective process because communities were not properly involved”. A point to note here is that non-involvement of community members resulted in processes not being effective. Mphahlele (2011:12) argues that “the challenges of public participation in the Integrated Development Planning Process in Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality confirmed the Municipality's failure to address certain areas in the community”. However, there seems to have been a preponderance of studies focused on the wealthiest areas of South Africa, where, one might argue, relatively little need exists for certain levels of grassroots community capacity-building. There have also been studies focusing on (semi-urban) townships. Letuka (2009:6) remarks that “in reality the process of community capacity-building for effective participation in the IDP is done in an uncoordinated manner in semi-urban township with restricted participation of the local communities”. However, concerns remain about whether rural dwellers can be expected to effectively participate in the IDP process without certain community capacity-building measures being specifically targeted at them. This, therefore, is the main rationale for the present study. If the research questions outlined in the next section were to be condensed into a single question, it would be this: How does the IDP process resonate with rural, grassroots dwellers, and

are they in a position to effectively participate in the process without specific capacity-building measures?

1.3 Research questions

- What is the level of understanding of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) process in the study community?
- To what do community members attribute such understanding, or the lack thereof?
- What are the measures utilised by Buffalo City Municipality in capacitating community members towards effective participation in the IDP process and how effective are those measures?

1.4 Research aim and objectives

The central aim of the study is to gain an understanding of how the IDP process resonates with the rural community members with a view to determining if indeed effective participation of ordinary people in this segment of the South African population can be realistically expected without specific capacity building measures. The study's specific objectives are as follows:

- To assess the level of understanding of the IDP process amongst rural communities in the Buffalo City Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province.
- To highlight the factors to which members attribute their understanding of the IDP Process.
- To assess the measures or strategies adopted by the Buffalo City Municipality for capacity-building of rural community members to participate effectively in the IDP process.

1.5 Significance of the study

Rural development is not sustainable without active and meaningful participation of the community in development programmes initiated by the local government. Effective capacity- building strategies can play a significant role in strengthening the participation of these communities in the IDP process and for sustainable rural development. Participation of rural communities in the IDP process in their specific areas is very important. This study is significant in that it seeks to provide data on a key, often missing, “variable” in the rural development/public participation equation. The study seeks to make this important contribution on both a theoretical and a practical (policy) level.

1.6 Structure of the rest of the research dissertation

The rest of the research dissertation is organised as follows: In Chapter 2, existing literature that relates to the study is reviewed. This chapter reviews literature on capacity-building in local governance including the rationale for participation. Most importantly the chapter explores literature on various factors considered and challenges on capacity-building of rural communities to participate effectively in local government development planning. Chapter 3 presents a detailed research design, methodology and techniques used in the research. Chapter 4 presents Integrated Development Planning: process, components, and institutional context. Chapter 5 presents the findings generated from the semi-structured interviews with the different participants in the study area. Chapter 6 presents discussion of the findings, recommendations and conclusions of the study. This chapter also describes how the information generated is categorised in relation to the research questions presented in Chapter 1. It is in this chapter where some key recommendations with regard to community participation and capacity - building measures for improving the quality and level of the people’s participation in the IDP process are made and suggestions for future research are offered.

CHAPTER 2: INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING: THEORETICAL AND SUBSTANTIVE FRAMINGS

2.1 Introduction

This study is premised on the understanding that the concept of community participation as largely supported by the participatory development paradigm has not achieved its full expectation of ensuring the practical and significant involvement of the local community in development projects, especially in rural areas. In fact, community participation has been in the main rhetoric and remains hard to pin down in the sphere of practice in rural development. The phase has a theoretical popularity in the discourse of participatory development and yet in realistic terms it has grossly been imperfect in project implementation. Also the issues of capacity - building measures as they have emerged over the past few years have focused on improving the leadership, management and mostly the operation of an organization. Not often has anything been said about capacity-building of community members staying in rural areas. In my attempt to look at community participation and capacity-building measures in rural areas I review relevant scholarly literature and debates on the subject.

2.2 Theoretical debates on community participation

The concept of community participation in development gained prominence in development discourse in the 1970s and since then literature on the subject has grown significantly (Chambers, 1992). According to Brohman (2006:22) this was as a result of the influence of Paulo Freire's work on the concept of conscientisation and analysis of the structural obstacles to the development of Latin American peasantry which stressed the diagonal approach to development. Paulo Freire's argument was that the peasantry must be the subject not the object of development. His argument helped affirm the importance of participation. Supporting this argument Catannese (2004)

restated that the idea of community participation in planning had been a long standing and central part of the history of planning. According to Oakley and Marsden (1994) local participation became a major concern for the United Nations agencies such as the International Labour Organizations (ILO), the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). For example, in the 1980s in Nepal FAO identified participation as central to future strategies to tackle rural underdevelopment. Doku (1991) seems to agree with FAO by arguing that since then many resources in Nepal have gone into the promotion of participation in rural development.

Participation gained reputation in the 1990s with the hopes that it would help and emancipate the crises of collapsing livelihoods (Maser, 2007). This revival was marked by the International Conference on Popular Participation in the Recovery and Development Process in Africa which was held in Arusha, Tanzania in 1990 (Shaw, 1990). Incorporating local people in development has become a common phenomenon which almost every organization claims to embrace. However, according to Kanyenze (2004:7), this acknowledgement seems to be biased since it has not been the case in every organization; for example, the Economic Structural Adjustment Program for most developing countries is regarded as a mere imposition of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund since it was lacking local input and hence their failure.

2.3 Why do the rural poor fail to participate?

Many scholars have offered different explanations for why the rural poor do not participate in development. Wolfinder and Rosenstone (2003:9) argue that because of their social circumstances such as material resources, cultural resources and attitudes that are shaped by social circumstances, the poor fail to participate. However, for Putman and Robert (2004:11) the political system such as political mobilization, structural barriers and attitudes shaped by the political system contribute to non-participation of the poor. These different thoughts are explained further below.

2.3.1 Social circumstances

Putnam (2004:17) argues that in 1987 Lazars Feld and his colleagues stated that “non-participation is related to persistent social conditions having little to do with the individuals or issues of the moment”. They concluded that mobilizing people to participate plays only a slight role in motivating them and that stimuli should be emphasized instead. Rosenstone and Hansen (2013:12) argue that the poor people, by definition, have more immediate needs that take priority over participating in any development projects. Edward and Smiddie (2004:8) stated that as important and interesting as participation in projects may be, its significance is less important in comparison with paying the rent, maintaining the car, keeping children in school and putting food on the table. A point to note here is that poor people spend their time and energy attaining basic needs and that reduces their chances to participate. For people whose means are inadequate, participation is a luxury they cannot afford.

However, Verba (2004:2) looks at participation from a different point of view by stating that as financial contributions have increased as a mode of participation, lower income people participate less and even less when compared to the participation levels of the rich. Currently, having money does not allow people to put their time and energy into things like participating.

When Verba (2004:5) addresses the issue of free time and its connection with participation and the poor by saying “It is impossible to attend community meetings or work in a campaign without the free time to do so”. The important opinion here is that people have inadequate time and that those with more time have immediate needs and are forced to spend that time on those needs before participating in any activities. One’s free time does not necessarily lead to more participation.

However, for Wolfinder and Rosenstone (2003: 9) those with the freest time are those of the lowest socio-economic status and yet it is they who participate the

least. They further stated that “there is little evidence that free time is a factor in participation levels”. According to Hansen (2013:4) “there is no support for the argument that people with higher status participate more because they have more free time for non-essentials like participating in projects”. Furthermore, Edward and Smiddie (2004:6) point out that education is the material resource that acts as a factor to participation in projects. Verba (2004:9) further argues that “the less educated one is, the less likely they are to participate in projects, and it is well documented that the least educated tend to be poor”. Verba and Nie (2002:3) established “that those with the lowest levels of education were the most over-represented in “the in activities” in America and that education has the greatest single helpful influence in determining who will take part in projects, because it significantly reduces the costs of participating in government”. They assert that education is a resource that gives people skills “necessary for processing opinionated information and making decisions”. Milbrath (2007:6) contends that

“Schooling increases one’s capacity for understanding and working with difficult, theoretical and concrete subjects and occupational status has been viewed as an indicator of political participation, because the poor are most often working in jobs with less “stimuli” they are less likely to participate”.

An important point here is that when people are educated they become aware of their challenges and are able to deal with them using knowledge gained from education.

2.3.2 Cultural resources

Burns and Taylor (2008:9) are of the view that “cultural, rather than material, resources contribute to non-participation, interpersonal skills and ‘feelings of entitlement’ that fail to develop among poor people”. These social skills such as communicating one’s opinions clearly are unlikely to be learned in lower class where schooling is less accurate and the work place may not demand any form of public speaking. Feelings of entitlement are cultivated by experiences of

failure that occur more often in lower class atmospheres and produce laid-back expectations.

Putman and Robert (2004:13) use the term “societal assets” to describe the cultural resources one acquires through “networks of community engagement,” like involvement in civic activities. Putnam views “social capital” as creating an attitude which adopts norms that in turn encourages consideration of the welfare of everyone in the community. The creation of norms helps people to see how their destinies are linked with others in the community. When the people are involved with one’s extended family, Sunday school class, or a civic organization, a sense of belonging is formed. Putman and Robert (2004:16) contend that this community is not formed well in low-income environments. An important point here is that people with lesser incomes and those who are financially poor are much less engaged in all forms of social and community life than those who are better off. The less one feels integrated into the civic society, the less one is willing to participate. Furthermore, because the poor are less involved in civic society, they are less likely to have social ties that aid participation. Putnam explains that the poor are often the most isolated and “held back, not merely because they tend to be financially and educationally deprived, but also because they are relatively poor in social ties”.

2.3.3 Attitudes and social circumstances

In contrast to the argument that resources hold back one’s participation, Macfarlane (2003:2) accept as true that attitudes determine whether or not one participates. More recently scholars such Conway (2012:7) argue that the political realm influences attitudes; the traditional view has been that attitudes that lead to non-participation are formed solely by social influences. Verba and Norman (2007:3) articulate this idea clearly when they write, “Social circumstances generate sets of attitudes conducive to or inhibitory of participation”. Conway (2012:10) provides another understanding within this argument. She advances that social circumstances “affect social roles that

people play. An important point here is that when these roles are affected the beliefs they apply to themselves and others will be affected. For example, the poor people may believe that it is accepted in society that they do not participate so they decide to abstain. Verba (2004:11) writes that an attitude of civic responsibility must exist in order for participation to occur. This feeling of civic duty, as it is always referred to, is an example of an expectation that people apply to them. Therefore, some people believe participation is a civic duty and others do not. Those who are in lower social status may not develop community orientations like those who are in the higher social status.

Conway (2012:6) argues that “a feeling of personal inefficacy is created by social circumstances and that this inefficacy leads to decreased participation”. From Conway’s statement it can be said that the poor may see themselves as unimportant and are incapable of effecting change. Furthermore, it can also be said that when people have low self-confidence, as many lower social status people do, they are more likely to have an emotional state of ineffectiveness. This relationship is touched on by Croteau (2006:11) as well. Croteau writes that “working class people feel they have little control over areas of their lives outside the private sphere of family and home”.

2.3.4 Political systems

Stoker (2007:5) states that “the political system is primarily responsible for the low rates of participation by the poor people”. Some scholars such as Patel (2008:26) believe that “political elites and parties do not mobilize specific populations, such as the poor, and as a result those populations do not participate in development projects”. Patel further argues “that legal barriers discourage participation among the poor and have even created a political culture that demobilizes the poor”. Patel blames politics for not mobilizing or targeting the poor. Patel (2008:26) stated that “mobilization encompasses the idea that politicians, parties, or political ideas do not address issues necessary to stimulate mass participation by the poor”. A point to note here is that politics

may not be directed towards the poor people but politicians are interested to be in power so they decide to abstain from participating in development projects.

Rosenstone and Hansen (2007:12) argue that “not only do political elites mobilize people, but that they strategically target specific groups and avoid others, especially the poor”. Patterson (2004:5) adds to the profound mobilization field by arguing that “issues today are not simple and clear-cut and the poor have a more difficult time placing themselves within the uncomfortable situation of issues”. An important argument here is that when the poor people are struggling to understand or figure out developmental matters they will just not participate. This indicates the creation of a tragic cycle when it comes to the poor people. One can say the poor do not participate because their needs are not targeted and they are not targeted because they are understood as people who are unlikely to participate in development projects.

Verba (2004:12) states that attitudes created by the political sphere and not the individual's social circumstances explain why poor people do not participate in development projects. Piven and Cloward (2006:11) seem to agree with the above statement. They say, “Everyone would agree that attitudinal or demographic dispositions can be offset by more intense political stimuli”. This statement suggests that politics can create attitudes and influence decisions about whether or not one participates. This statement seems to suggest that citizens are satisfied with the ways in which politics addresses their needs and thus they abstain from participating.

In contrast to the above, Campbell (2008:7) states that “citizens are not satisfied but alienated from politics, either because they feel ineffective or distrustful”. When citizens are not satisfied with the alternatives, they become isolated. Scholars such as Campbell (2008) believe that “the poor do not see politics as pleasing enough to participate in because their participation would not be meaningful to their lives”. These are conclusions based on the belief that if people were truly dissatisfied they would attempt to change that dissatisfaction through action.

Patterson (2007:9) argues that “policy inefficacy refers to attitudes created by a government that is unresponsiveness to one’s participation”. Patterson sees this attitude most often occurring among the poor because of “their political-reality”. When people experience less political power than privileged groups they become less participatory. Patterson further argues “that the poor often have feelings of low self-confidence because they have experienced so many failures in their life and as a result they feel ineffective”. Stokes (2007:9) states that “mistrust is still an explanation for why poor people do not participate, just as much as it is an explanation for why people in general do not participate”. However, it has not been stated that mistrust is drawn along social class lines. Verba (2004:2) argues about isolation as an adequate explanation for why participation has not increased in America when education levels are so much high. Verba further states that “policies must be made more appealing and meaningful to the poor and if the poor feel that their participation would make a difference, they would participate”. When poor people feel that their participation is useless, they will reject the organization and abstain from participating.

2.3.5 Structural barriers

With regards to participation, for example in politics, some scholars such as Atkinson (2007:12) argue that “political participation, voting laws, specifically registration requirements, place a greater burden on the poor than on other populations, discouraging them to participate”. Atkinson (2007:13) argues that “before the 19th century, there were no requirements of citizen registration, but by the 1920s, reformers began to push for these requirements”. Currently all countries have some kind of registration law. A point to note here is that these laws act as structural barriers to the poor and may cause additional challenges to participating to a great extent. It can be said that registration laws have actually changed the political culture, whereby politics fail to target and appeal to the interests of the poor in such a manner that the poor see little inspiration to participate.

Heymans (1988:14) comes with another argument when he talks about the rules of participation that also act as a structural barrier. Heymans further states that “The rules of the game determine the requirements of success; whoever decides those rules decides who gets in the game”. An important point here is that when the poor cannot decide the rules they are excluded from the game of participation.

Wolfinder (2004:14) contends with the above by stating that “procedures like registration requirements limit the participation of the uneducated”. The writer is of the opinion that registration laws were introduced as a demobilizing mechanism by economic elites who had begun to become threatened by the culture that was resisting laissez-faire economics.

2.4 Empirical studies on participation

Even though the discourse on participation has been emphasized as a feasible substitute for unjustifiable downgrading of the local people in implementation of development initiatives, the term has sparked a great deal of debate and controversy (Chambers, 2000:4). Furthermore, despite its wide acceptance as a useful approach to rural development, its declaration has been more rhetorical than it has been practical in as much as there has been evidence of limited co-operation from local people due to their marginalization from participation in its proper sense.

2.4.1 Effects of non-involvement of the community

Chiome and Gambahaya (2000:5) point out a clear illustration of the negative effects of non-involvement of the rural people in local development projects in Bangladesh. Chiome and Gambahaya (2000:5) further state “that in Bangladesh the construction of pit latrine toilets without consulting the local community resulted in an unwelcoming response from the community since they were not consulted”. The agent that was implementing the pit latrine toilets was concerned about the outbreak of diseases since the community was using their rice fields to defecate. Chiome further states that

“The efforts by the agent were futile since they were met with violent resistance from the community by destroying the toilets arguing that it was their cultural practice to use their rice fields as toilets for the sake of increasing productivity”.

A point to note here is that, like the Bangladesh case as noted above by Chiome and Gambahaya (2000), they state that “the non-involvement of the local people results in unsuccessful implementation of the projects”.

In another project in Duhera, Zimbabwe, Chifamba (2013:9) states that

"Local assessment of community participation in Duhera suggests that most projects have not been successful in enhancing participation. Projects have not managed to supply even the minimum drinking water, food and other needs of the population”.

Lack of meaningful participatory development can result in participatory interventions not being able to generate significant impact. Parker (2005:4) seems to agree with the above statement as he states that “obscure land tenure systems inhibit meaningful participation in development initiatives and land is inequitably distributed and resource rights are bundled with landownership”. However, Macfarlane (1993:8) states that

“Existing rural development initiatives are not successful in stimulating poor people’s participation as they are unable to address their primary concerns such as a secure source of portable water, employment and access to resources for agricultural purposes”.

A point to note here is that Integrated Rural Development will not accomplish the anticipated intentions unless these issues are placed at the centre of a participatory process.

2.4.2 Factors which inhibit community participation

Cameron (2009:3) noted that “construction activities for example, were delayed to be accomplished because participation of the community in Limpopo which

was required as part of their contribution in such structures was not done". An important point here is that non-involvement of the community in activities resulted in the adjournment of such activities since they were not involved.

In his research conducted about non-participation Atkinson (2003:12) states that

"Respondents explained that while most government and donor agencies do not pay community members for attending meetings, workshops but development agencies provide some incentives such as food for work or money to community members for their involvement in rural development activities".

However, this would create confusion and tension amongst rural community members as others feel that they are being exploited in participating in rural development projects when they are not given incentives. Atkinson (2003:13) also states that "respondents explained that donor agencies and government policies were also mentioned as another factor that may be contributing to low community participation in development projects" when there is a contradiction about development policies that confuses community members. Atkinson further argues that "community representatives in ward committees explained that they are supposed to be the main decision making structures at the ward level but that does not happen". An important point here is that when some decisions are made for community members and they are informed at meetings, this does not give them a chance to voice their opinions as should be the case. In a study conducted by Hymans (2008:10) about non-participation in development projects, it was revealed that "some ward committee members stated that their presence in the district planning consultative processes does not represent effective participation but more of information distribution procedures by the council". Views of community members are not recognized when decisions about their development are taken.

Another study conducted by Parker (2005:7) revealed that "a resources constraint is limiting community participation in rural development initiatives". He further argues that "in order for rural communities to play an active role in rural development initiatives, it is essential for their members to have access to

resources such as adequate funding, government training programs, education, mentors, and volunteers to support rural causes and initiatives”. An important point here is that it becomes impossible for rural communities to have a meaningful role in rural development without access to necessary resources.

Cameron (2009:4) seems to agree with the above statement by stating that “lack of access to information about government and non- governmental organization programs and services leads to non-participation”. In a research conducted by Cameron (2009) the majority of the respondents revealed that “information that is available on rural development programs and services is difficult to obtain and to interpret”. It can be noted that community members wish to learn about access and information on government programs and services that is clear, to the point and appropriate. This seems to suggest that local government faces barriers and challenges in promoting participation of local communities in rural development projects. Rural development planning involves reducing these barriers to participation in rural development initiatives and addressing the challenges. Government, communities and donor agencies have recognized the need for creating ways to facilitate community participation in rural development initiatives and have taken initial steps toward removing obstacles that delay community participation. It is necessary that local government and other rural development agencies should appreciate that rural development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of the rural poor. Without achieving this fundamental goal, it will be difficult to achieve sustainable rural development.

2.4.3 Overcoming challenges to community participation

Parkers (2003:11) argue that “in order to guarantee sustainability and motivate the rural people, local government authority and planners need to formulate ways of ensuring more participation”. It is important that the participation is sustained and that it continues to rise. This can be regarded as an important intervention to ensure that challenges to community participation are dealt with.

The rural economy must be revived and rural communities must be guided towards their full participation in developments meant for their own welfare.

In another study conducted by Honadle (2004:13) he is of the view that “in order to overcome challenges to community participation, training and capacity-building programmes are needed to interact and exchange ideas with rural communities”. This is important and it will instil new ideas and training must be broad and tap on all areas concerning rural development, not just only on project identification and implementation. This also means that development of tools that provide rural communities with a voice and rural development organizations with a means to hear community concerns is necessary.

Owens and Kitchins (2005:12) state that “one way communities can speak with a louder voice is through the use of network kind organizations that have mechanisms to provide a forum to encourage dialogue, share information, and create strategies”. It is important that activities should promote rural development, a means to link rural communities and create partnerships with government departments, organizations, and agencies, keeping in mind the needs, concerns, and resources of the specific communities involved. Capacity-building measures for rural community members can play an important role to address the importance of participation.

2.5 Capacity- building measures

Smith (2004:7) states that “capacity-building has become an increasingly significant feature of local government in South Africa”. It is important to note that, when it comes to capacity-building, in theory local government provides capacity-building measures to local communities, groups and institutions. It also provides access skills and knowledge to councillors at local government level. However, whilst there is a clear commitment amongst officials to provide capacity -building support to individuals in local communities, it is also important to note that this commitment has been slow to turn capacity-building interventions to realization by local communities. At times there is often a lack

of co-ordination and overall commitment from those that are providing capacity-building. Smith (2004:10) goes further to argue that ‘there is a lack of criteria and principles by which local communities can assess capacity-building programmes’. When community members are unable to evaluate the effectiveness of these programmes, the impact will be unknown. It is also important to note that the term ‘capacity-building’ is used in an unclear and loose manner. In short, there is poor capacity within the local government itself to respond to the capacity-building challenge. This also indicates that this lack of capacity has its roots at different causal levels.

2.5.1. Capacity-building conceptualization

When it comes to capacity-building conceptualization, Lenz (2004:8) states that “capacity-building encompasses the country’s human, scientific, technological, organisational, institutional and resource capabilities”. The most important goal of capacity-building should be about enhancing the ability to evaluate and address the important questions related to policy choices and types of implementation among development opportunities. An understanding of the environment and the needs perceived by the local people must be of paramount importance.

A growing number of people claim to be doing something they call capacity building. They go into this activity in a variety of ways like consulting, training and development. According to Griggs (2003:11) “capacity-building tends to address specialized management issues, financial management, organization development, service integration and that usually depends on the purpose and intentions of the capacity builders”. Smith (2004:12) seems to agree with the above statement when he argues that “all these capacity-building characteristics are not necessarily bad however in too many cases it is conceived as an application of a particular approach to every management problem in any perspective”. With the above arguments it can be said that capacity- building can be seen as an improvement of a phase of management which can be associated with organizational capacity.

Lenz (2004:13) mentions that “capacity-building is about the capability of an enterprise to successfully undertake action that is intended to affect its long term growth and development”. This view of capacity-building may be proper for business organizations and may not be suitable for public organizations because it may ignore functions of public organizations. Honadle (2004:10) suggests that “public organizations may survive and perform a worthwhile function when they look at capacity-building from the perspective of public organizations”. However, Craig (2005:14) is of the view that “capacity-building focus on such qualities of administration as politics, informal processes and participation. In contrast to this, Griggs (2003:16) is of the view that capacity-building stresses rationality and the perfection of administration.

Smith (2004:13) uses the term “development” to infer that capacity-building means movement away from traditional structures based on custom and moving towards relationships based upon rules which achieve higher levels of rationality”. Craig (2005:17) suggests that “capacity-building is improving the ability of local government officials to make informed decisions supported by analytical material and programme information capable of describing objectives and priorities”. It can be noted that this notion of capacity-building corresponds with rational views of capacity such as the ability to make decisions and allocate resources more rationally.

Lenz (2004:17) states that “one of the most intriguing dichotomies in the realm of capacity-building debates is between capacity-building as the ability to attract inputs and capacity as the effective functioning of the total system”. Honadle (2004:19) further argues that “obtaining adequate resources to meet the basic needs of its citizenry is beyond doubt the ultimate test of the government’s viability”. From the above argument it can be noted that the general aim of capacity-building is to help the community build internal resources to take on its developmental plans with little assistance from outside.

Capacity-building measures that are conducted by local municipalities across the provinces have some challenges. Du Plessis (2004:4) states that “capacity-building measures at many local municipalities lack co-ordination and the measures dwell on different aspects of capacity-building but many of these measures duplicate each other in terms of both content and focus”. Duplication results in a waste of money and resources by producing the same material. A point to note here is that better co-ordination possibly will lead to the prevention of duplication and a reduction in the wastage of money.

Koma (2010:12) states that “there are is not enough time and resources to put on capacity-building measures and capacity-building is at times conducted over a limited number of days”. This can have a negative impact on the results because during these few days’ community members are bombarded with a lot of information which is supposed to be digested over a limited period. More time on capacity-building must be committed and follow up courses provided to refresh and update community members.

Nolutshungu (2004) debates the issue of lack of attendance since councillors are such an important agency in the whole local government nexus and capacity-building programmes are quite important for effective delivery. He further argues that “there is need to develop mechanisms to ensure compliance and maximum attendance when it comes to capacity-building”. When there is little compliance the workshops on capacity-building will be poorly attended, mainly because some community members do not attach a lot of significance to the importance of the programmes. Some are conducted at inconvenient times. Due to time constraints it may seem that the municipalities do not provide these programmes when they are poorly attended. In certain cases, it is because of poor planning on the part of the organisers. It is important to note that even on the part of councillors when they miss capacity-building workshops it is not just these councillors who miss out but community members since the information will be shared amongst the community.

2.5.2 Capacity building for enhanced community participation

According to Broaden (2007:19) “the advantage of capacity-building of rural communities is that the quality of public participation and public policy making will be improved”. This view is supported by Masango (2002:9) when he states that “an educated citizen is enabled to exercise his or her judgment, contribute to the debate about planning, and is aware of societal problems and the difficulties of finding solutions to them”. Masango (2002:11) further advocates for “public education, capacity-building for participation, reforming attitudes towards participation, and publicizing local government affairs”. There are some of the very important factors to be considered in any capacity-building programme aimed at improving and sustaining public participation. Masango (2000) further recommends a “training programme that includes workshops for rural communities, and advocates for an education programme for the people about nature and functions of their local authority”. An important point here is that training programmes that enhance citizen participation should be a long term strategy for every local municipality.

Concern (2001:15) argues that “to improve the participation of people staying in the rural areas in their own development, capacity-building strategies should include aspects of broadening their awareness of the factors that have impact on their situation”. When community members have broadening knowledge about their situation, they become conscious of their own capabilities and develop self-esteem in their abilities, awareness and know-how. This will increase their interest in local government affairs and make these communities to have the confidence and knowledge required to participate actively and meaningfully in development planning of their own communities. However, most rural communities have little knowledge about the affairs and policies of their local authorities and the implications of these policies to their lives, and some have little knowledge about local structures where they can participate meaningfully in local development affairs.

According to the SALGA report (2006:23) “one way of building the capacity of communities to participate effectively in local government is to put the people into social action groups”. They can continuously liaise with their constituencies to take mandates on issues that block social progress, and take action to challenge injustices and propose changes. It can be argued that this will happen only if people know their rights and understand how to exercise these rights. Without knowledge and understanding of their rights they will not challenge injustices at local municipality level. As noted by SALGA (2004:19), “it is therefore crucial that people should be conscientised about possible change they can achieve through active participation in democratic processes in their lives”. It can also be stated that people should be conscientised about their roles, rights and responsibilities in the whole development process. This is an imperative in the content of a capacity-building strategy. Communities elect people who represent them in various structures at local government level, IDP forums in particular, and it is therefore crucial that these elected representatives understand local government and development issues since they are a mouthpiece of the community.

According to Hughes (2005:15) “an effective capacity-building strategy for elected representatives should include strengthening their skills in support, fundraising, negotiation, networking, as well as rights awareness”. Another element of an effective capacity-building strategy is to ensure that the people are participating meaningfully in local and national decision-making, are raising awareness of power relations and are mobilized to work on issues of common interest.

Sewell and Coppock (2007:6) argue that “strategies for public participation may be related to information dispersal, information gathering and promotion of interaction between the planning authority and the public”. An important point here is that, naturally, some strategies can achieve more than one objective, and some strategies might be inappropriate in the context of specific models of public participation. The use of community workers and existing political

structures and political parties as some of the strategies to be used to empower rural communities can also be effective. The representatives can then empower their own constituencies.

According to Lombard (2001:27) “improvement of community leadership and human potential is also another strategy for empowering other members of the community”. Kumar (2001:13) supports the above statement when he states that “in India, since 1994 after the Constitutional Amendment, more than 90% of the representatives of the Panchayati Raj Institutions were elected for the first time and they were mostly the previously marginalised, for instance, women”. For community participation to be effective it is crucial that interpersonal, communication and leadership skills be developed among the community members.

Buckley and Calpe (2001:22) argue that “training is not a once off and for all activity but a continuous process throughout working life and a great deal of learning takes place through on-the-job experience”. It can be said that mentors and coaches that can help ward councillors and ward committee members can play a significant role in the process of capacity-building of ward councillors and ward committee members. When they are capacity-building has occurred on ward councillors and ward committee members, they will be able to hold information sessions with the local people.

The Department of Provincial and Local Government (2002:12) report “UGu District Municipality in Kwa-Zulu Natal has included a Training and Capacity Building Strategy for small and micro businesses in the economic projects”. A point to note here is that in the report there is a capacity-building strategy but the strategy does not mention rural communities and how community capacity-building will occur. The report goes further and suggests that “the Municipality has several education programmes for elected councillors, wards committee members. The focus is on councillors and little is being said about rural communities. In another study conducted in Uganda Bartle (2005:29) indicates that

“Lessons to be learnt from the implementation of Uganda Community Management Strategy Training materials and awareness training programmes should clearly focus on the necessity of monitoring and evaluation by the community and all stakeholders, especially during implementation of the plans”.

This study indicates the importance of focusing on the community and ensuring that community members are involved in the implementation of the plans. In another study Midgley (2005:29) states that “In Scotland, the need for capacity-building for community participation was not only seen as an integral part of rural development, but also as an instrument of rural development policy”. Midgley further argues that “capacity-building programmes for councillors and the local people in Scotland was based on the belief that when the local people have more knowledge their decision making will be democratic”. When people have knowledge, they are able to make informed decisions about their lives.

According to Martlew (2008:13) “Scottish government developed a rural development policy that incorporated training strategy on functional, ideological, organisational, specialist and personal training for elected councillors and representatives”. A point to note here is that in Scotland training is provided to local councillors but no training seems to be given to the people in rural communities.

Martlew (2000:22) states that “discussion and group meetings among councillors and other community leaders in similar positions also reinforced information sharing among peers”. Martlew further mentioned that “as part of a capacity-building strategy for all newly elected councillors in Scotland, an induction seminar is conducted for new and returning councillors immediately after elections”. Midgely (2005:23) states that “the capacity-building and Training Strategy also includes education programmes around local government legislation and rights of the people in the development planning process”. For new members the main focus of the training should be about clarifying their roles, rights and skills development for local people on the ground. It is important to note that these may not be fitting in South Africa’s rural

context because of high illiteracy levels among people residing in rural areas. There would be a need for adult basic education programmes for illiterate rural community members to ensure that they participate effectively in the IDP. The use of other forms of information and communication in the South African context require that language should be taken into consideration.

According to Stoker (2004:16), “local authorities are the main actors in community capacity-building”. For Fudge (1993:19) “local authorities should embrace the responsibility of developing the capacity to provide appropriate leadership at village level, including the ability for leadership to identify community needs in order to exercise collective choice”.

Fudge (1993:21) further suggests that

“self, mentors, colleagues, political parties, local authorities, trade unions, professional associations, non-governmental organisations, provincial government, universities and colleges of higher education, adult education centres, press, television and radio, non-profit educational and research organisations as training providers for newly elected local representatives”.

But according to Phillips and Africa (2006:12), “if rural communities are not involved in selecting, prioritizing and management of IDP projects, there is the likelihood that the projects will not be sustainable”. Training and preparing development facilitators to assist rural communities to realize their own development agenda, rural communities themselves need to be assisted with some form of monitoring to determine whether what they are doing is what was planned.

However, according to Ntsime (2009:13), “the fact that rural communities have very low literacy levels presented challenges to those who were tasked to train them”. A finding of the research report by Ntsime (2009:17) at Kgalagardi Municipality’s integrated development planning process indicates that “most of the citizens require certain skills to participate effectively and to work efficiently and effectively in the projects”. The report further points out that while lack of

skills and the types of skills needed were easy to identify, what remained a challenge was how best to train such individuals.

2.6 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the importance of community participation in development planning. Different reasons such as social circumstances, cultural resources, political system and structural barriers were found to be strong in terms of why rural communities do not participate in development planning. Community capacity-building measures and lack of co-ordination and overall commitment from those that are providing capacity-building. Lack of criteria and principles to monitor and evaluate capacity-building measures has been found to be lacking.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology which was used in conducting the study. According to Neumann (2003:34) research methodology includes the decisions that a researcher makes about how the research is going to be conducted; fundamentally it is what makes social research scientific. It is important to outline the methodology of a study as it helps the reader to acquire confidence in the techniques used (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Deport, 2005). Therefore, this chapter will cover the methods and procedures that were followed in conducting the study and these include research design, data collection techniques, instruments of data collection, sampling and data analysis.

3.2 Research paradigm

Research paradigm sets down the intent, motivation, and expectations for the research. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1998:25) “the research paradigm influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted and, without selecting a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choice regarding methodology, methods, literature, or research design”. The commonly known paradigms are the quantitative and the qualitative paradigms. Creswell (2009:45) states that “quantitative research is an enquiry into a social or human problem based on testing theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures”. The inquiry is done in order to determine if the predictive generalization of theory held is true. Gravette & Forzano (2009:24) also define it as a “type of research that examines variables that typically vary in quantity (size, magnitude, duration or amount)”. They further highlight that it is based on measuring variables for individual participants to obtain scores, usually numerical values that are submitted to statistical analysis for summary and interpretation.

Another research paradigm is the qualitative research method. With regards to qualitative research De Vos et al. (2009:42) state that “it is a research strategy that emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data”. De Vos et al. (2009:23) furthermore, state “that qualitative research is the empirical study of the world from the viewpoint of the person under study, and this approach aims to understand and interpret the meaning that subjects give to their everyday lives”.

3.2.1 Mixed methods research

There is a third practicable choice, that of mixed methods. Mixed methods research involves combining quantitative and qualitative approaches (De Vos et al., 2011). According to Creswell (2009:47), the researcher collects and analyses both forms of data in a single study. This study preferred the use of the mixed method. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently, meaning that the researcher joined quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the level of understanding of the IDP process in the study community. The researcher thus collected qualitative and quantitative data at the same time during the study and then integrated the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Quantitative and qualitative methods all have limitations, therefore the researcher felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods. Furthermore, the quantitative method was used to obtain numeric data. A quantitative design also helped the researcher to get answers in a short period of time because the data collection instruments of the quantitative design are quick and less time consuming. Quantitative data alone was going to be biased because sometimes community members do not give away all information because of fear to express themselves. Therefore, the researcher chose to combine the quantitative and the qualitative methods. In this instance the researcher made use of the qualitative method through key informant interviews with IDP officials in the Municipality. Since the focus of this research is also on capacity building measures for improving the people’s participation in the IDP, the researcher also surveyed literature on public

participation and what improves community participation. Data was sourced from existing literature on the research topic, IDP booklets, notes of IDP seminars, training guides, workshop reports as well as IDP reports and other documents about the IDP. The purpose of the literature review was to explore, investigate and analyse capacity-building policies, measures and programmes used to capacitate the people to participate effectively in development planning processes at local government level. The knowledge gained from the literature review was used to analyse the research findings and to recommend effective capacity-building programmes and strategies for improving participation of rural communities in the integrated development planning process in South Africa. Mixed methods helped the researcher to acquire efficient facts to obtain some insights that are generalizable.

3.2.2 Research design

Definitions of research design are rather vague (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2009). Babbie & Mouton (2004:49) define a research design as a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research. Similarly, Kalichman, Simbayi, Kagee et al. (2006:65) define it as: “a measurement of the most adequate operations to be performed in order to test a specific hypothesis under given conditions.” It involves a set of conclusions regarding what topic is to be studied, among what population with what research methods for what purpose (Babbie, 2007 as quoted by De Vos, Strydom et al., 2011). Rubin and Babbie (2001) highlighted that a “research design” basically has two connotations. One connotation refers to alternative logical arrangements from which one or more can be selected. Examples are experimental research designs, correlational research designs and others. The other category deals with the act of designing the study as significant. This involves discussing all the decisions that are made on planning, not only about the type of design to practice but also sampling techniques, data gathering and data analysis.

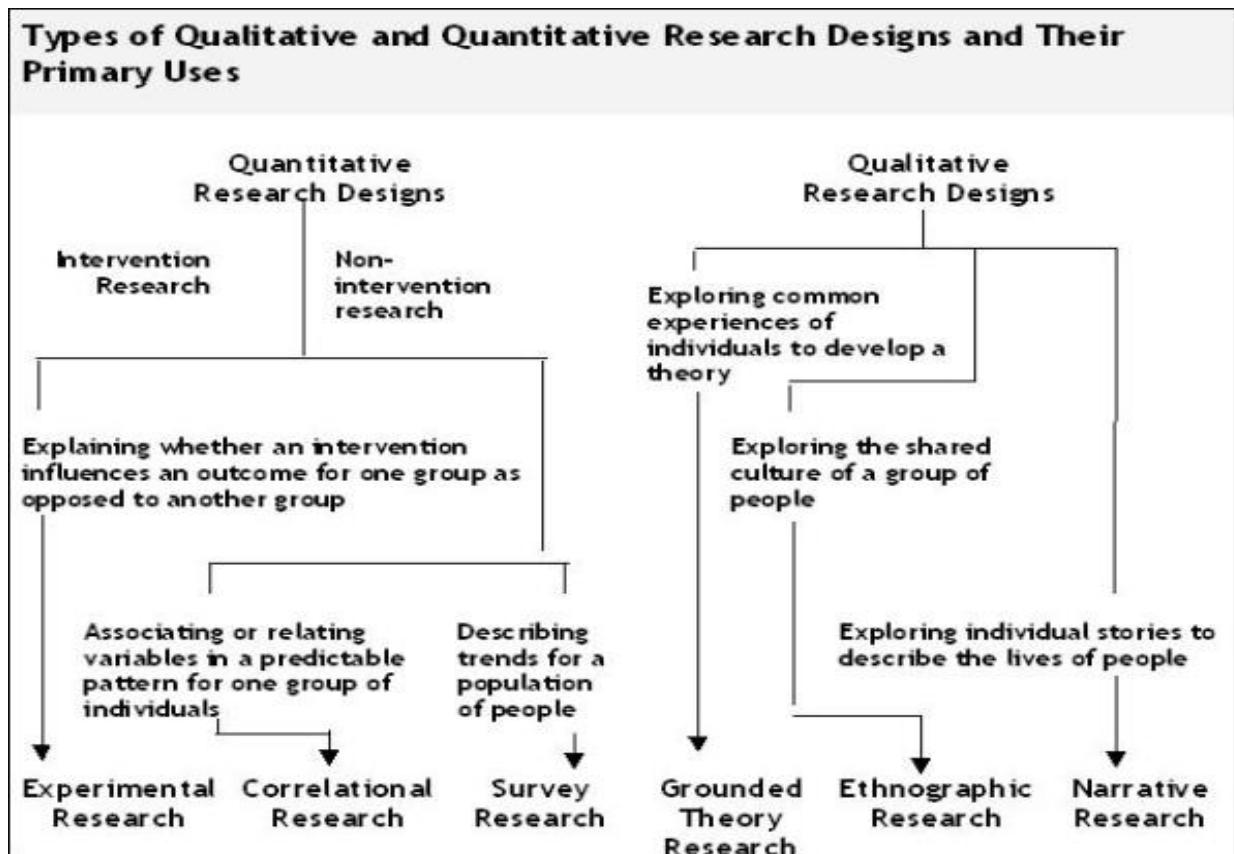
In summary research design is the procedure where the researcher identifies whether the study will involve groups or individual participants and how many

variables will be included in the study. It also highlights the procedures of data collection and the tactics which will be used in selecting the participants. Thus, the main function of a research design is to permit the researcher to foretell what the appropriate research decisions should be, so as to maximise the validity of the eventual result (Mouton, 2006). De Vos, Strydom et al. (2011) emphasize that every research project requires a research design that is carefully tailored to obtain appropriate data for investigating the specific research hypothesis and/or question. As emphasized previously, this study will make use of mixed methods, that is, both quantitative and qualitative methods. Therefore, for the quantitative method a survey design was used and for the qualitative component the interview method was used.

3.2.3 Survey research design

A survey is a research study that uses a survey to obtain a description of a particular group of individuals (Gravette and Forzano, 2009). Used in describing trends in a given target population (see Figure 1 below), it is one of the most popular research techniques in the quantitative research approach. In survey research design people's responses to questions about behaviour and attitudes are described. Punch (2005:20) also highlights that "surveys are done mainly to describe proportions and percentages of people who respond in some way to different questions and uses scientific sampling and questionnaire design to measure characteristics of the population with exactness". The purposes of survey research include description, explanation, prediction and exploration. Surveys are used extensively in the behavioural sciences as relatively efficient ways to gather large amounts of information (Gravette & Forzano, 2009). The researcher chose a survey because he felt that it is the best method for describing the research population. Therefore, a survey was deemed appropriate for the study, and was particularly useful for obtaining data for answering the first two research questions (see Table 1 below). Through the survey design, the researcher was able to ask standardised questions and generate information from participants in a way that can be analysed statistically. Responses were summarised quantitatively and a clear picture

could be gained about the study sample. A survey helped the researcher to measure the level of understanding of the IDP process and the extent of community capacity-building, and respondents' attributions of that understanding.



Qualitative and quantitative research designs (Source: Creswell 2005)

Table 1: Research questions linked to research methods

Research questions	Data collection methods	Justification
Research question 1 What is the level of understanding of the IDP process in the study community?	Questionnaire Survey n=200	A survey helps the researcher to reach a cross section of community members and obtain their responses.
Research question 2 To what do community members attribute such understanding, or the lack thereof?	Questionnaires Survey n=200	A survey helps the researcher to reach a cross section of community members and obtain their responses.
Research question 3 What measures does Buffalo City Municipality utilise in capacity-building for community members towards effective participation in the IDP process and how effective are those measures?	In-depth interviews of IDP Officials n=5 Review of relevant policy documents	In-depth interviews are useful for gaining an authoritative insight from relevant officials. Policy documents yield authoritative, published information about the IDP policy and process.

3.2.4 Interview

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2001:27) define an interview as a “conversation with a purpose” which is used to “determine individuals’ perceptions, opinions, facts and forecasts and their reactions to initial findings and potential solutions”. As shown in Table 1, survey data from the community members alone was not going to be enough to yield data for answering all three questions of this research. The third research question – about how BCMM determined the effectiveness of the capacity-building strategies in local communities – could only be answered by means of in-depth interviews of relevant officials and by perusing relevant policy documents, and this is what the researcher did. Five municipal officials with good knowledge of the IDP

process were interviewed. This helped the researcher to cross-validate the information obtained through a survey of community members.

3.3 Sampling

Sampling, according to Gravette & Forzano (2009:14), is the “process of selecting individuals to participate in a research study”. Non-probability and probability sampling are two approaches used to select a research sample (Zechmeister & Shaughnessy, 2001). Probability sampling was used in the study to select the survey participants. In probability sampling each individual in the target population has the probability of being selected, and sampling occurs by a random process based on probabilities (Gravette & Forzano (2009:18). Each person in the population had an equal chance of being selected to become part of the study. There are several types of probability sampling methods which include simple random sampling, cluster sampling, stratified sampling and others. This study used a modified form of simple random sampling in selecting respondents in the four rural communities studied – ‘modified’, in the sense that the probability sampling protocols of obtaining a ‘sampling frame’, using random numbers to represent all members of the target population (table of random numbers), selecting participants based on the ‘random numbers’, converting the numbers back into actual names of respondents, and so on, were not strictly followed for practical reasons.

Sampling of community members for the survey

In selecting the sample for the survey, the researcher chose rural villages in Berlin, namely, Mntlabathi, Nqonqweni, Mbolompeni and Mncotsho. A total number of 200 community members were chosen. Individuals were approached in a ‘random’ manner in each of the villages to take part in the survey.

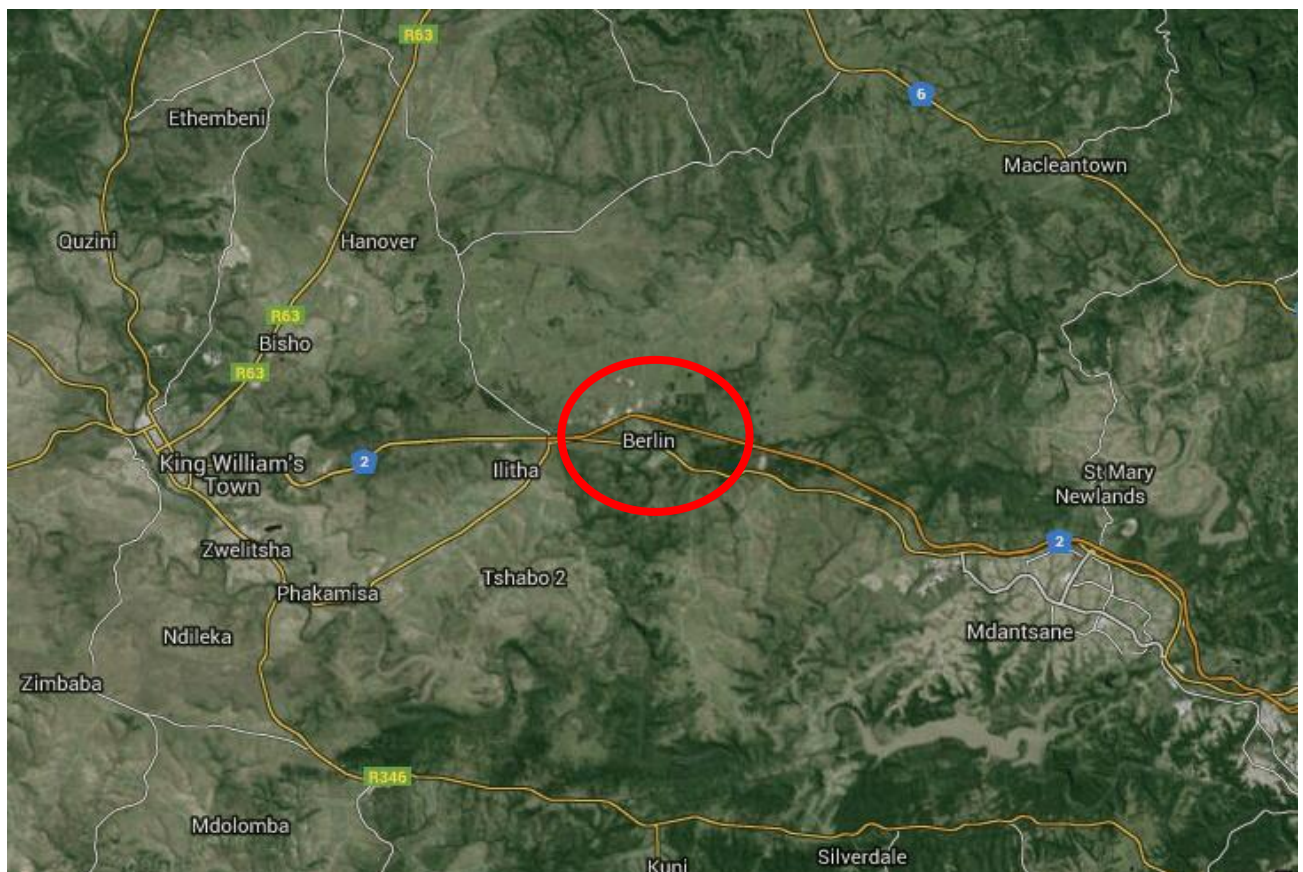
Sampling participants for the in-depth interview

Non-probability sampling was also used for the selection of research participants, but this was restricted to the selection of in-depth interviewees – in this case municipal officials. Purposive sampling is a method whereby units

from a pre-specified group are purposively sought out and sampled. According to Welman *et al.* (2005), in purposive sampling researchers rely on their experience. The researcher intentionally selected the participants with characteristics which complement the phenomenon of the study. The rationale behind selecting this sampling strategy was to choose only people who were knowledgeable with the IDP. A total of five municipal officials were interviewed.

3.3.1 The study area – Berlin

Plate 1: Map of Buffalo City showing the Study area (Berlin)



Source: Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality

According to the Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality IDP report (2012), “Berlin is one of a scattering of village on the rolling hills between East London and Bisho, now capital of the Eastern Cape and previously capital of the then

Ciskei, one of South Africa's homelands". Houses are spread out over the weather-beaten soil. The Bantustan legacy of overcrowding, lack of groundwork and insufficient education is apparent everywhere as people try to find survival together with their livestock. The population of this area continues to carry the burden left by a century of the migrant labour system that saw most men leave to work in the urban centres, while those left behind were condemned to ever-increasing poverty. In Berlin there are child-headed family units as a result of the increase in the number of deaths from HIV/AIDS. Berlin and its surroundings are congested and environmentally ruined. Government assistance with ploughing and the vaccination and dipping of livestock is almost non-existent (Social Assistance Trust, 2005). This was a setback to these rural families at present struggling to survive as people are dependent on a cash income to buy food and pay for services. The majority of community members now survive on government grants, a pension, child support or disability grants. Services are slowly being delivered. There are taps and most villages have electricity. Many households continue to use wood and paraffin as the cost of electricity is too expensive for some community members. The newly built low-cost (RPD) houses are a blessing. Although they are warmer and drier than shacks, they bring with them much higher costs because of the charges for rates, water and waste collection. The number of shacks continues to grow. Also increasing numbers of farm workers have been evicted after being dismissed because commercial farmers are unable or unwilling to pay the newly legislated minimum wage. It is one of many that have grown up out of failure of rural job creation and the inability of crowded urban centres to absorb people. The modern and innovative use of government-funded projects is an inspiration. There are a number adult-education sites that are widespread in this area (Social Assistance Trust, 2005).

3.4 Ethical considerations

Research ethics places an emphasis on the humane and sensitive treatment of research participants who may be placed at varying degrees of risk by research procedures (Bless et al., 2006). The Constitution of the Republic of South

Africa, 1996 (No.108 of 1996) requires that human dignity and the advancement of human rights and freedom be upheld. Ethics is the foundation of the committed service of humankind and should not be considered a deterrent (Pera & Van Tonder, 2005). Every citizen has the right to be protected against any harm, whether to his name, person, identity or property. The researcher ensured that every effort was made to ensure that no harm was caused to any of the participants exposed to the study. According to Kumar (1999), 'ethical' means principles of conduct that are considered correct, especially those of a given profession or group. The principles of conduct are the most important ones, as they address the issue of the content of ethical behaviour in a profession

Voluntary participation

No one was forced to participate in the research and the participants were informed that no special prizes should be anticipated. For the purpose of this study, the participants provided shared information with the researcher on a voluntary basis.

Informed consent

Informed consent entails explaining to participants the purpose of the research and ensuring that they understood it before taking part in the study. No coercion was used in deciding on respondents for the study (Bless et al., 2006). The researcher also emphasized in the covering letter of the questionnaire that, although the objectives of the study were clearly stated, participation was entirely voluntary. Cohen, Marion and Morrison (2007) elaborate that Diener and Crandall (1978) describe informed consent as "the procedures in which the individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions". This definition identifies four elements that need to be present for informed consent. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) "participants should be informed of the nature of the study to be conducted and given the choice of either participating or not participating". In this regard, they must be provided with an informed consent form with all the applicable details on it. For the purpose of this study, the

participants were given an informed consent form that briefly defined the nature of the study, what partaking involved, vulnerabilities involved, moral issues and the contact details of the investigator. After being informed of the potential threats and benefits of participating, the prospective respondents were required to give written permission agreeing to participate.

Confidentiality

Siebert (1982) as quoted by De Vos et al. (2005) defines confidentiality as “that which is not intended to observe or analyse”. In this study evidence provided by the respondents was held confidential. Furthermore, to ensure confidentiality the researcher did not ask for the respondents’ identifying particulars such as names or any other details which would make it easy for someone to identify where the answers on the questionnaire came from. It is important to evaluate how much confidentiality researchers can assure, as participants often share private involvements and views. Researchers must also consider how the confidentiality of individuals will be preserved when the data is scrutinized and reported. Related issues include who has access to the data and who “retains” it (Sewell, 2008). Anonymity and confidentiality were very important in this study as the participants may fear pressure, discrimination and persecution by others.

Overall, the study was conducted in strict adherence to the Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines of the University of Fort Hare.

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research methodology and design for the study were discussed, the strategy applied was explained, and the process of survey research was discussed. The aim of this chapter was to describe the research methodology that was applied during the empirical section of this study. Features of the design, together with the groundwork of the methodology, were discussed in order to validate the quality and importance of the procedures that were applied. A research design is the plan according to which the researcher obtains subjects, i.e. a sample and collects information from them. In the study, the researcher was able to explore the best method suitable to obtain answers

to the questions raised in the proposal. Basically, two methods were discussed in depth, namely the quantitative and qualitative research methods in this chapter, as well as how each was employed in the study.

CHAPTER 4: INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS: PHASES, COMPONENTS AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the Integrated Development Planning process, detailing all the phases involved. The chapter will also explore the budgeting processes within IDP as well as the institutional and legislative context.

4.2 Integrated Development Planning phases and components

The Department of Provincial and Local Government (2005) states that “Integrated Development Planning is a process through which municipalities prepare a strategic development plan for a five-year period”. The DPLG (2005) further states that “the process involves the whole municipality and its people in finding the best solution to achieve effective sustainable development”. It is important to note that the outcome of this process is developmental planning. The IDP is the principal strategic planning instrument that guides and informs planning, budgeting, management and decision making in a municipality (DPLG, 2005). The Integrated Development Plan is taken as the strategic planning document of the municipality. Significantly, it guarantees co-ordination and incorporation amongst projects, programmes and undertakings of the municipality with other levels of government. Promotion of sustainable development and improved service delivery at the municipal level is enhanced. The IDP helps the municipality to develop communities in a co-ordinated manner. The South African Local Government Association (2006) states that “the IDP process consists of five phases, which is analysis, strategies, projects, integration and approval”.

Phase 1: Analysis

The purpose of the analysis phase is to ensure that development decisions target real needs and problems of the people. The analysis phase focuses on identifying the needs and problems as diagnosed by local communities, finding

out available resources and those that can be accessed for intervention purposes and studying dynamics that may impact on development activities in a municipality (SALGA, 2006). An important point here is that the community must participate in identifying its own challenges and become part of the decision making processes.

Phase 2: Strategies

This is a phase of making choices. With the broad information gathered in the analysis phase, possible solutions are explored and debated with a view to deciding what will have the most impact on the problems gathered. This happens via an intensively participatory exercise (SALGA, 2006). The decisions that are taken with regards to the choices are done in collaboration with the community members. Since the choices and decisions will have an impact on the local communities, it is therefore important that communities must be part of the decisions.

Phase 3: Projects

Professionals in various relevant fields play a leading role in this phase because specialized planning has to take place. Beneficiaries are not left out, though. Projects are planned based on the inputs of the beneficiaries. A long-term developmental vision is formulated during this phase of the IDP (SALGA, 2006). The concerns of community members are taken into consideration during the planning of these projects and local communities must benefit.

Phases 4 and 5: Project implementation and monitoring

These phases involve the rearrangement of the proposed projects, and checking them against the development vision. Interrelationships are pinpointed and corresponding is done for maximising usage of resources for greater impact. Consolidation, financial planning and institutional positioning occur at this stage so that implementation could be possible (SALGA, 2005). Phase 5 is the approval phase and it involves an official adoption of the plan as a decision making tool (SALGA, 2005). When this phase is completed, the plan is adopted for decisions and implementation.

In this study, integrated development planning means the approach to planning of local government as stipulated in the Municipal Structures Act (1998) and the Municipal Systems Act (2000) in which all the municipalities in South Africa should participate. The focus of this study is on the participation and capacity-building of rural communities in phase one (the analysis phase), phase two (strategies), phase three (approval), phase four (project implementation) and phase five (monitoring) as well as project implementation and monitoring. Therefore, the IDP process in this study refers only to analysis, strategies, approval, project implementation and monitoring phases of integrated development planning.

4.2.1 Important components of the IDP

The Municipal Systems Act (no. 32 of 2000) talks about important components of Integrated Development Plans as follows:

“An integrated development plan ought to reflect:

- The municipal council's vision for the long term development of the municipality with special emphasis on the municipality's most critical development and internal transformation needs;
- An assessment of the existing level of development in the municipality, which must include an identification of communities which do not have access to basic municipal services;
- The council's development priorities and objectives for its elected term, including its local economic development aims and its internal transformation needs;
- The council's development strategies which must be aligned with any national or provincial sectorial plans and planning requirements binding on the municipality in terms of legislation;
- A spatial development framework which must include the provision of basic guidelines for a land use management system for the municipality;
- The council's operational strategies;
- Applicable disaster management plans;

- A financial plan, which must include a budget projection for at least the next three years; and
- The key performance indicators and performance targets determined in terms of section 41.”

According to the South African Human Development Report (2003), “development has to be sustainable, which will reflect a process that meets the needs of present generations, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. The South African Development Report (2003) further states that “It is multidimensional and encompasses complex interactions between economic, social, political and environmental issues”. It represents a development framework that makes the reduction of poverty, the goal of full employment and the fostering of a stable, safe and just society the overriding objectives of developmental policy and interventions.

4.2.2 IDP and budgeting

According to Houston (2007:19), “Integrated development planning involves new and complex governance and planning processes for local authorities. Local authorities are therefore obliged to involve civil society organisations in the formulation of budgetary planning and developmental priorities”.

IDPs should inform all other key institutional policy documents, including the Budget and the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan also referred to as SDBIP. An IDP is a municipality’s principal strategic planning instrument. In addition, the IDP ensures horizontal and vertical co-ordination and integration across the three spheres of government and provides a platform for community and stakeholder participation in the planning processes of municipalities. As the key guiding planning documents of municipalities, it is important that IDPs be credible and realistic. The SDBIP comprises two layers. The upper layer is the one that must be presented by the Executive Mayor for approval within 28 days of passing of the budget to Council and be made public after approval. Once

this is done, no targets may be changed without Council approval (MFMA, Circular No. 13, January, 2005).

The lower layer applies to directorates and forms the basis of their performance plans and agreements. This layer consists of additional indicators that support the indicators in the upper layer. The lower layer is the responsibility of the Executive Directors and Directors, who develop it in consultation with their staff. Legislation does not require lower layers to be approved by the Executive Mayor or Council (MFMA, Circular No. 13, January 2005).

The IDP should have achievable targets and deliverables that can be periodically measured, monitored and evaluated through the implementation of a credible performance management system.

4.3 Integrated Development Planning: Institutional and Legislative Context

South African development policies governing integrated development planning that will be discussed in the study include the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1994, Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), the White Paper on Local Government (1998), Municipal Structures Act (Act 117 of 1998), Promotion of Access to Information Act (Act 2 of 2000), and Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000).

Section 16(1) of the Municipal Systems Act (Act no. 32 of 2000), Section 152 of the South African Constitution (Act no. 108 of 1996) and Chapter 4, Section 152 (1) (e) of the Municipal Systems Act (Act no. 32 of 2000).

4.3.1 IDP and the Constitution of the Republic Of South Africa

Local Government (1998) Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) requires “that local government should encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in local government matters”. According to the White Paper on Local Government (1998), like the

Constitution, the role of local sphere of government is to build local democracy. It therefore requires that “municipalities should continuously involve the people, business and community groups in a participative manner”. An important point here is that rural communities must be involved in local government affairs and in the IDP process.

4.3.2 IDP, Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The RDP as defined by the ANC (1994) and the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development is “an integrated, coherent socio-economic policy framework that seeks to mobilise all people and resources of the country towards the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future”. RDP is a framework to address transformation issues, imbalances and inequalities of the past and it is most critical at local government level as a delivery system through community participation. According to the ANC (1994) one of the core objectives in meeting basic needs and improving the people’s socio-economic situation is “a commitment to grassroots, bottom-up development which is owned and driven by communities and their representative organisations”. Community participation is therefore an important part of development at local government level. Bond and Khosa in MacKay (2004) are of the opinion that, if government can facilitate effective participation, it must introduce capacity-building programmes to enhance the capacity of community organisations.

They further recommend that, in order for the RDP to achieve the widest possible consultation and full participation of civil society, government should remove obstacles to the public participation process.

4.3.3 IDP and Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998

According to Section 19 of the Municipal Structures Act (Act 117 of 1998), all Municipalities are required to develop systems that enhance effective community participation in local government. Section 72 (3) of the Municipal Structures Act stipulates that ward committees should be established to

strengthen public participation at local government level. Representation of ward committees should include civic, business, women and youth, religious, cultural and other interest groups (MacKay, 2004). The ward councillor is the head of the ward committee and is also the chair of the committee.

The membership of a ward committee is limited to ten members elected from community members of the ward (SALGA, 2004), that is, the ward councillor and nine other ward committee members. The ward councillor in consultation and together with the community elects the ward committee members and each ward committee member heads the respective portfolio within the ward (City of Cape Town Municipality, 2006). This system of allocating ward committee members' portfolios ensures that each ward committee member has a particular role to play within the ward. According to DPLG (2005), this system also allows them to develop experience and understand issues related to their portfolios. The portfolio arrangement allows members to engage with both the municipal line departments and the sub-committees of council that is relevant to their portfolios (DPLG, 2005). According to the DPLG (2004), the purpose of a ward committee is to promote participatory democracy by assisting communities and community organisations in the municipal processes such as municipal budget, integrated development planning and review process, municipal performance management system, by-laws and provision of municipal services.

4.3.4 IDP and Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

The Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000) makes provision for core mechanisms and processes, which are necessary to enable municipalities to socially and economically uplift local communities (MacKay, 2004). The preamble of the Act states that "the fundamental aspect of the Act is the active engagement of communities in the affairs of municipal planning and service delivery". An important point here is that communities must be involved about developments that are central to them. MacKay (2004) further states that "participatory measures should include informing members of local

communities in good time about meetings, by using appropriate communication measures". According to Municipal Systems (Act 32 of 2000) "provision must be made for comments, consultation sessions and report back sessions, and public hearings must be held to enhance participation processes". In terms of Section 17 (2) of the Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000), community members with special needs such as the illiterate, the disabled, women and the youth, must be taken into account to allow them to participate meaningfully in the IDP process. The Municipal Systems Act also requires municipalities to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with participatory governance. The Act stipulates that "the municipality, ward councillors and ward committees should encourage and create conditions for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality". Through the Municipal Systems Act (2000) all municipalities should foster community participation in local government by building the capacity of the local community to enable it to participate effectively. The Act further encourages municipalities to use its resources and allocate funds in its budget for the purpose of achieving effective participation of local communities on the affairs of the Council, and creating an environment for this culture to thrive.

4.3.5 IDP and Promotion of Access to Information Act 2 of 2000)

The Promotion of Access to Information Act (Act 2 of 2000) fosters and promotes a culture of transparency, accountability, freedom of information to the people (MacKay, 2004). The Act recognizes the right of all people to have access to information and requires that if government institutions want to withhold the information it should be justified (MacKay, 2004). Through the Act the people will be involved in public debate on issues that affect them. These issues will be tabled on the agenda for IDP related discussions. Planning and resources must be channelled increasingly towards dialogue with affected communities. Supporting MacKay's (2004) argument and based on this legislation, it is evident that the new system of local government offers opportunities for all the people to become actively involved in local government

issues and makes it compulsory for each municipality to create an environment and to set up systems that makes people participation in local governance possible and effective.

4.4. Conclusion

This chapter presented the legislative framework. The framework gives some guidelines to approach planning at local government level. Capacity-building and community participation in the phases of the IDP, project implementation, components of the IDP, budgeting and monitoring of developmental planning at local government are paramount.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to marshal the empirical data to answer the three research questions outlined in Chapter 1, namely:

- What is the level of understanding of the IDP process in the study community?
- To what do community members attribute such understanding, or the lack thereof?
- What measures does Buffalo City Municipality utilise for capacity-building of community members towards effective participation in the IDP process and how effective are those measures?

In this chapter empirical data are organised as follows: Sample demographics, data presentation pertaining to research question 1, data presentation pertaining to research question 2, and data presentation pertaining to research question 3. The discussion of the findings is done in Chapter 6 of this study.

5.2 Sample demographics

A total number of 200 questionnaires were distributed to respondents but only 176 respondents (88%) answered and returned the questionnaires. In addition, two IDP officials from Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality were interviewed. The quantitative data analysis is therefore based on the sample size of 176.

Table: 1: Number of questionnaires distributed and returned

No. of questionnaires distributed	No. of questionnaires returned	Valid percentage
200	176	88%

5.2.1 Demographic data

The demographic information that was of relevance to the researcher was age, gender and educational level, as analysed below.

Age group

The highest number of respondents (85) fell within the age group 20-29 (48%). In the 30-39 age group were 53 respondents (53%), while 27 respondents (15%) were in the 40-49 age group. Those aged 50 years and above were 11 (6%) (Table 2).

Table 2: Age group and the number of respondents

Age	No. of respondents	Valid percentage
20-29	85	48%
30-39	53	53%
40-49	27	15%
50- above	11	6%
Total	176	100%

Gender

With regard to gender, 97 (55%) of the respondents were females, while males were 79 (45%), as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Gender distribution of the sample

Sex	No of respondents	Valid percentage
------------	--------------------------	-------------------------

Males	79	45
Females	97	55
Total	176	100

Educational level

A majority of the respondents had no formal schooling (52%). Those with grades 8-12 were 64 (36%). Only 20 respondents (11%) reported having a degree/diploma (Table 4).

Table 4: Educational attainments of respondents

Educational level	No. of respondents	Valid percentage
Did not attend school	92	52%
Grade 8-12	64	36%
Degree/diploma	20	11%
Total	176	99%

Some of the data presented in the following sections, pertaining to the three research questions, are cross-tabulated with the above demographics.

5.3 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to research question 1

As outlined in Chapter 1, the first research question was as follows:

- *What is the level of understanding of the IDP process in the study community?*

Community members were surveyed on the question: “Do you understand what the IDP is all about?” The survey revealed very low levels of understanding of the IDP process. Altogether 68 (39%) of the respondents indicated that they understood the IDP and its processes against 108 (61%) who reported that they lacked such understanding (Table 5).

Table 5: Overall understanding of the IDP process among respondents

Response	Frequency	Valid percentage
Understand the IDP and its processes	68	39%
Do not understand the IDP and its processes	108	61%
Total	176	100%

On further interrogation of the data, it seemed that, on average, females were better acquainted with the process than males (Table 6). The number of male respondents that “understood” the process was 29 (43%) of the total number that gave this response, while the number of females was 39 (57%). Of those who said they did not understand the process, 37 were females (34%), fewer than males, 71 (66%) (See table 3). The disparity in understanding between males and females can be attributed to the fact that during IDP meetings there were always more females than males attending. A response by one municipal IDP official (an in-depth interviewee) pointed to this:

“In IDP meetings females were always attending in big numbers than males, they are vocal about their involvement in development planning and they always emphasize that there must be proper consultation by the municipal councillors”.

Table 6: Gender disparity in the understanding of the IDP process

Response	Male		Female	
	Frequency	% of respondents who understand/ do not understand	Frequency	% of respondents who understand/do not understand
Understand the IDP and its processes	29	43%	39	57%,
Do not understand the IDP and its processes	71	66%	37	34 %

The survey revealed that understanding of the IDP process among participants varied positively with levels of education. Of those who understood the IDP process, the highest number were those with higher levels of education - 32 (47%), followed by the respondents that completed basic education, 21(31%) and lastly respondents with no formal education at all 15 (22%) – Table 7. The majority of the respondents that indicated that they did not understand the IDP process were persons with no formal education 57(53%), followed by respondents that completed basic education 32(30%) and lastly individuals that completed higher education 19(17%). It can be noted that persons with higher education understood the IDP process better than those with no formal education. This seems to corroborate the findings of a study conducted by Masango (2005:12). The author states that “education contributes positively to individuals, it also empowers communities to make informed decisions on matters of importance and it encourages participation in activities that will improve their lives”. It appears that those with higher education were better

informed about developmental planning in their area than those with no formal education at all.

Table 7: Crosstab - Educational levels of respondents and levels of understanding of the IDP process

Educational attainment	Understand the IDP process		Do not understand the IDP process	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
No formal education	15	22%	57	53%
Grade 8-12	21	31%	32	30%
Diploma/degree	32	47%	19	17%
Total	68	100%	108	100%

A breakdown by age shows that the respondents who understood the IDP process were mostly those aged 30-39 with 29 (43%) followed by those in the 20-29 age group with 19 respondents (28%), 40-49 age group with 15 respondents (22%), and lastly people aged 50 and above with 5 respondents (7%). Of the respondents that indicated they do not understand the IDP process the older persons were in the majority, 41 (38%). Respondents from 40-49 were 32 (30%) and 30-39 year olds were 20 (18%) and, lastly, 20-29 were 15 (14%). It can be noted that the older persons seem to have less understanding of the IDP process compared to all other age groups. It also appears that the 30-39 years old group understood the IDP process better than other age groups.

Table 8: Age groups of respondents and levels of understanding of the IDP process

Age group	Understand the IDP process		Do not understand the IDP process	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%.
20-29	19	28%	15	14%
30-39	29	43%	20	18%
40-49	15	22%	32	30%
50 and above	5	7%	41	38%
Total	68	100%	108	100%

Respondents that indicated that they did not understand the IDP process also reported that they had very little idea about how to participate in the IDP process, and that they were not being “educated” about how to participate or about the importance of the IDP. Many community members insisted that information about the IDP was very limited, and that available information was mainly in English and displayed on the walls in the community halls. Such mode of outreach was, for them, very problematic and hampered understanding. Respondents also indicated that they did not know what the IDP process requires. In contrast to this, municipal IDP officials informed the researcher that there were “structures” for participation in the IDP. According to one official:

“During the initial stages of the IDP process, meetings are organised by the ward councillor whereby community members are given an opportunity to voice their feelings about particular developments in the community”. The IDP official went further and indicated that “during the strategic phases of the IDP process the representative forum hold debates on what can work best in solving a problem, also the forum works through the monitoring and implementation stages the IDP process”.

5.4 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to research question 2

The second research question, as outlined in Chapter 1, was as follows:

- *To what do community members attribute such understanding, or the lack thereof?*

In the event that respondents reported any understanding at all about the IDP process, the researcher was interested in knowing what they attributed such understanding to. As noted earlier, 68 respondents (39%) said they understood what the IDP process was about, against 108 (61%) who reported otherwise. The question then was: to what did the respondents attribute their levels of understanding?

Most respondents attributed the poor understanding (and lack of understanding) of the IDP process to lack of information about the IDP in the community. Respondents particularly blamed their ward councillor for not disseminating information to the residents. The key informants had indicated that capacity-building for ward councillors is needed in order to encourage participation of communities on issues that affect them. According to one IDP official:

“Capacity-building of ward councillors is important in order to find ways of structuring participation and are expected to become active in encouraging and promoting participation, especially when it comes to the participation of marginalised groups and women”.

The IDP official further stated that *“Participation in the decision-making processes of the municipality is understood to be a right of communities and citizens”*. It appears that integrated development planning at the local government level is regarded as an important arena for public participation.

It seems the municipality believed that it was the ward councillors who should be considered for capacity-building first, so that they could do capacity building in rural communities. However, despite the councillors being conversant with

the IDP process, capacity-building of the community appeared to be in question. The researcher learnt that there was no proper communication between the communities and ward councillors.

When communities have poor understanding of the IDP processes which is attributed to poor communication, this impacts negatively on community participation in development planning, as some respondents, quoted earlier, alluded to. In other words, the formula for capacity-building of councillors so that they would in turn do capacity building in the rural community appeared not to be effective.

Respondents also indicated that when meetings were held community members were allowed to register their concerns, but they did not receive feedback. Instead, municipal councillors would come back and ask them about the same concerns that were previously registered. Respondents found this to be discouraging; hence, many would simply boycott IDP meetings.

Community members' non-attendance at meetings could also mean that they were disappointed about their views not being seen as important. The respondents stated that they did not see their ward councillor as often as they should. There was little doubt that the poor role of the councillors had an effect on community capacitation. This is because ward councillors were tasked by the municipality with the responsibility of ensuring that capacity-building took place in the community.

Overall, understanding and lack of understanding of the IDP process were both a function of the councillors' visibility in the community and effectiveness in a facilitative role in the community capacitation role vis-à-vis the IDP process.

Table 9: Respondents' ranking of factors affecting their understanding/lack of understanding of the IDP process

Rank	Attribution	Frequency	Valid percentage
1	Lack of information about the IDP	83	47%
2	Non-visibility of ward councillor	67	38%
3	Poor communication	42	24%

5.5 Data analysis and presentation pertaining to Research Question 3

Research question 3 went as follows:

- *What measures does Buffalo City Municipality utilise for capacity-building community members towards effective participation in the IDP process and how effective are those measures?*

The key informants mentioned that the Buffalo City Municipality used a variety of measures and currently existing structures for community capacity-building. Among these were: community meetings, community and stakeholder meetings, social clubs and stokvels, clan meetings and traditional gatherings. According to one IDP official:

"In these existing structures and meetings the local councillor uses the opportunity to communicate IDP related information and to educate people about how they can participate in the IDP process".

The IDP official additionally explained that *"local councillor furthermore uses community meetings that are called by the local chief to distribute IDP related information"*.

However, the researcher had earlier learned that there was a lack of understanding of the IDP amongst community members and that the majority

of the respondents attributed the lack of understanding generally to lack of information, non-visibility of the ward councillor and poor communication. According to one IDP official:

“Community members have access to relevant information about new developments in their areas and also ward councillors are capacitated to engage their communities on all activities of the Municipality”.

The IDP official additionally indicated that *“citizens participate by means of Imbizo’s, meetings and other gatherings and are able to share their concerns about developmental issues”.*

The accuracy of the IDP official’s statement could not be substantiated, vis-à-vis responses obtained from the community members.

While the IDP officials indicated that the municipality did have a capacity-building policy which was aimed at enhancing community participation in the IDP processes, one of them lamented as follows:

“We are struggling in terms of ensuring that the policy reaches its anticipated targets because of resource limitations and that has a negative impact on the rural communities”.

The IDP official additionally stated that:

“The policy was established in order to ensure that capacity related matters are addressed and they are doing their best to ensure that the intended purpose is achieved”.

The key informants also stated that when capacity building measures were designed, a number of issues were considered, with one of them specifying as follows:

“A number of issues [are considered] when designing capacity-building measures, such as community’s access to meetings and the availability of information, especially to persons with no formal education, women and people with disabilities”.

However, local residents surveyed on the subject informed the researcher that information about IDP was mainly written in English and was often displayed on the walls of the community hall. It was an approach, they reported, that they found difficult to understand.

The key informants further indicated that there were challenges in community capacity-building especially rural communities; in fact, community capacity-building in general. One IDP official blamed the apparent ineffectiveness of the process on “resource constraints”, such as lack of transport and poor roads infrastructure:

“From one rural community to the next, it is quite far, which disturbs the work of officials. There is a need, therefore, for the provision of transport and other necessities to facilitate community participation”. Resource constraints have a negative impact in community capacity-building because they are unable to reach communities as much as they should and the Municipality is trying to find ways in addressing the challenge in order to meet the needs of the people staying in rural areas”.

With regard to how the municipality measured effectiveness of the capacity-building measures at Buffalo City Municipality, the key informants had little to say, except to pronounce that:

“Effective capacity-building of rural citizens will contribute positively in reducing overcrowding in urban areas because rural citizens will be conversant in developmental planning and participation in the IDP will improve but at times the effectiveness is not always promising”.

The officials could not confirm the effectiveness of the capacity-building measures; instead, one of them conceded that:

“The municipality needs to monitor the capacity-building measures to know the effectiveness of the measures because currently there are no clear policies on ensuring the effectiveness of the measures”.

5.6 Conclusion

The chapter discussed empirical data to answer the three research questions of the study. Rural community members that indicated that they did not understand the IDP process and also had very little idea about how to participate in the process. Community members indicated too that they did not know what the IDP process requires. However, municipal IDP officials stated that there are enough structures for participation. The municipality is of the view that capacity-building is for councillors first, then community members.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Summary of the key findings

From the findings presented in the previous chapter the following stands out:

6.1.1 Key findings for research question 1

Community members had little understanding of the IDP and its processes. There appeared to be lack of meaningful information-sharing initiatives by the municipality in order enhance effective community participation. The reliance on ward councillors for community capacity-building towards meaningful participation in the IDP processes seemed to be a faulty approach, as no meaningful capacity-building was taking place. Information, education and communication seemed to rely on the use of English and the use of posters sporadically displayed on the walls of community halls – both of which respondents found to be inappropriate and ineffective.

6.1.2 Key findings for research question 2

Communities attributed the lack of understanding about the IDP and its processes to lack of information about the IDP, non-visibility of the ward councillors and poor communication. The municipality believed that capacity-building for ward councillors first important, so that they could play a role in capacity-building of communities. Despite the councillors being conversant with the IDP process, capacity-building of the community appeared to be in question. The formula of ensuring capacity-building for councillors so that they would in turn ensure community capacity-building appeared not to be effective.

6.1.3 Key findings for research question 3

The Buffalo City Municipality appeared to have in place capacity-building measures as well as an enabling policy, but such measures seemed to be mainly for capacity-building of ward councillors and other municipal employees, who, as it turned out, were unable to community capacity-building for rural citizens. In other words, the measures in place were not tuned towards capacity-building of ordinary citizens. The monitoring of the effectiveness of capacity-building measures by the municipality is poor.

6.2 Discussion of the findings

Taken together, the study reveals that the framework for the capacity-building of community members to effectively participate in the IDP process is faulty. This was evident in community members' poor understanding of, or lack of understanding about, the IDP and its processes. Indeed, many respondents indicated that they did not know how to participate in the IDP process. The findings show that community members were not being educated about participation and the importance of the IDP.

Even though there were structures for participation in the IDP process as confirmed by key informants, there seemed to be uncertainty in terms of the effectiveness of these structures, besides the poor monitoring. The poor/lack of understanding of the IDP by the community members is attributed to lack of information on IDP, non-visibility of councillors and poor communication about the IDP in the community. The IDP was introduced so that municipalities could achieve planning processes to give primacy to basic necessities of the community and encourage social and economic development.

As suggested by Parker (2005) in Chapter 2 of the study that "lack of meaningful participatory development structures can result in participatory interventions not being able to have a significant impact". Putnam (2000:34) in his book *Bowling Alone* also emphasizes "the importance of bonds between individuals which

brings them together in society to enable effective participation". An important point here is that when people are united as part of society, that has a positive contribution in the wellbeing of society as whole. Rural development initiatives are not effective in motivating poor people's participation in development projects to address their important concerns. The findings of the study suggest the theory of community involvement as mainly held by the participatory development paradigm has not been sustained to its full expectation of ensuring the concrete and significant participation of the indigenous communities in development projects, especially in rural areas. Community participation exists theoretical in the discourse of participatory development and yet in realistic terms it has been lacking in development implementation.

It is important to note that when it comes to capacity-building measures, in theory local government provides capacity building measures to local communities, groups and institutions. There is a strong commitment amongst officials to provide capacity-building support to individuals in local communities. It is also important to note that this commitment has not been yielding fruitful results. When capacity-building programmes are not evaluated, the municipality will not know their impact.

The findings suggest that the municipality and the community members attach different meanings both to the capacity-building measures and the IDP process itself. George Herbert Mead in Haralombos and Holborn (2008:881) states that "the process of role taking involves one person taking on the role of another by imaginary placing themselves in the position of the person with whom they are interacting". An important point here is that, for capacity-building to be effective, the municipal officials and community members must have the same understanding. Buffalo City Municipality ensures that there is capacity-building for ward councillors and other officials who are not community members with the hope that understanding will be the same. However, ward councillors and ordinary community members have got different roles; therefore, they attach different meanings to capacity-building.

Furthermore, when these roles are affected, the beliefs they apply to themselves and others will be affected. Rural community members may believe that it is accepted in society that they do not participate so they decide to abstain.

As shown in Chapter 4, one of the main ideas behind the design of the IDP was to ensure that community needs are prioritised in the development process. For this to happen, rural communities must be able to understand the IDP and its processes so as to participate effectively in their development. As the study shows, community members do not seem to understand what the IDP requires. Legislation requires that they understand the IDP and its processes to enhance participation.

A somewhat questionable approach is that of believing that ward councillors can effectively organize capacity-building for rural communities, and hence that once the councillors have capacity building, then that means capacity-building of local communities was guaranteed. The study shows that, although some capacity-building of local councillors is claimed to have taken place, it has not translated into community capacity-building. In a way then, community capacity- building remains in question. Proper communication between the communities and the ward councillors was found to be lacking. While, in reality, ward councillors are regarded as a link between the community and the municipality, when it comes to effective community participation in the IDP process, that link seemed broken.

In terms of a variety of legislative prescriptions including the White Paper on Local Government (1998), municipalities are required to promote public consultation and participation in the local sphere of government. Furthermore, the *Freedom Charter* of 1955 previously mentioned the importance of participatory democracy in which the people shall govern through public consultation and participation which is the cornerstone of developmental local government.

The municipality has a capacity-building policy but it is mainly for capacitating councillors and other municipal employees for developing their skills in order to improve service delivery and not specifically for rural citizens. Monitoring of capacity building measures is poor. It seems that the municipality and community members attached different meanings to the whole issue of capacitation.

6.3 Limitations

The results of this study cannot be generalized to all municipalities in South Africa as the Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality served as a case study for the purpose of the research. Each local municipality has its own challenges and restrictions. The researcher chose only one area (Berlin) within Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality as a case study.

6.4 Recommendations

The communities, not councillors and officials, should be consulted on the Integrated Development Plan. It is clearly mentioned in terms of a variety of legislative prescripts that municipalities are required by law to consult with their communities on IDP.

The municipality must show greater commitment to engage with local communities about the IDP process. There should be improved dissemination of information by the municipality and monitoring of capacity-building measures must be improved. Greater consideration should be given to the language used in print material and in meetings with all the categories of the people.

6.5 Conclusions

The study investigated capacity-building measures used by the Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality for rural communities to participate effectively in the Integrated Developmental Planning (IDP) process. The study showed that, due to low literacy levels and lack of knowledge and understanding about local government issues and the benefits of participation, rural residents did not know their rights, roles and responsibilities in the IDP process. The finding demonstrates that while the municipality did have capacity-building measures these were associated with empowering local government councillors and other local government officials and not rural community members. The study concluded that the municipality and the community members attached different meanings both to the capacity-building measures and the IDP process itself. Thus, when it comes to effective local participation in the IDP process, community participation was in question.

References

African National Congress (1994) Reconstruction and Development Programme: A Policy Framework, Johannesburg.

Arnstein, S.R. (1969) A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *American Institute of Planners: Journal*, 35, pp. 206–214.

Arnstein, S.R. (1971) A Ladder of Citizen Participation in the USA. *Journal of the Royal Town Planning Institute*, 57, pp. 176–182.

Bartle, P. (1996) *Building Capacity for better Cities: Concepts and Strategies*. Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies: Netherlands.

Baum, H.S. (2002) Citizen Participation. In *International Encyclopaedia of the Social and Behavioural Science*, University of Maryland, College Park, USA.

Broaden, N. & Bruton, M.J. (1987) "Public Participation in Local Services" (Book Review). London: Liverpool University Press.

Bryden, J (1995) *Community Involvement and Rural Policy: Research Report to the Scottish Office, Arkleton Trust*.

Brynard, D.J. (1996) Public Participation in Local Government and Administration: Bridging the Gap. *Politeia*, 15(2) p. 123.

Buckley, R. and Calpe, J. (1991) *One-to-One Training and Coaching Skills* New York: Kogan Page.

Burkey, S. (1993) *People First: A Guide to Self-Reliant, Participatory Rural Development*. London: Zed Books.

Cameron, R.G. & Stone, A.B. (1995) *Serving the Public: A Guide for Practitioners and Students*, Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Cloete, J.J.N. (1996) *Accountable Government and Administration for the Republic of South Africa*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Coetzee, J.K. and Graaf, J. (1996) *Reconstruction, Development and People*. Johannesburg: International Thomson Publishing Company.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994) *Research Methods in Education*. Thousand Oaks: Rutledge, Taylor and Francis.

Concern (2001) *Worldwide's Capacity Building Policy*, London.

Crook, R.C., and Jerve, A.M. (1991) *Government and Participation: Institutional Development, Decentralisation and Democracy in the Third World*, Norway: CHR Michelson Institute: Department of Social Science and Development.

Cullen, B. (1989) *Poverty, Community and Development*. Dublin: Combat Poverty Agency.

Curtin, C. (1996) *Back to the Future? Communities and Rural Poverty*. London. Oxford University Press.

Davidson, F., & Peltenburg, M., (1996) *Capacity Building for Better Cities United Kingdom*. Wikely Publishers

De Beer, F. & Swanepoel, H. (1996) *Community Capacity Building: A Guide for Fieldworkers and Community Leaders*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Department of Health (2006) *Rural Health Strategy: Draft for Discussion*. Pretoria: Department of Health.

Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) (2002) Case Studies on Sustainability in Local Governance, Pretoria: DPLG.

Department of Provincial and Local Government (2004) A Handbook on Community Development Workers in South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Provincial and Local Government (2005) Making Ward Committees Function: Ward Committee Resource Book. Pretoria: DPLG and GTZ South Africa Department of Provincial and Local Government, Integrated Development Planning for Local Government. Retrieved from www.dplg.gov.za, 13/07/2016.

Department of Public Service and Administration (1997) Batho Pele – People First. White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Friedman, S. (2004) A Voice for all: Democracy and Public Participation. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Fudge, C. (1983) Training for Elected Representatives: Problems, Needs and Providers, London: Allen and Unwin.

Gilbert, N. (1997) UniS: Social Research Update, Issue 19. England: University of Surrey, Guildford.

Gray, A. & Jenkins, B. (2000) Democratic Renewal in Local Government: Continuity and Change. Renewing Local Democracy. London: Frank Cass.

Hemmati, M. & Whitfield, R. (2004) Capacity Building for Sustainable Development. Rotterdam: Earth Summit Report

Hicks, J. (2004) Assessing the Effectiveness of Community based Involvement: A Critical Dialogue. Public Participation Review.

Houston, H. (2001) Public Participation in the Democratic South Africa. Human Science Research Council.

Hughes, A. (2005) PRSPs, Minorities and Indigenous Peoples: An Issue Paper, Minority Rights Group International: Rural Development: Lantapan Pamphlet, Philippines: International Centre for Research in Agroforestry.

Kumar, A. (2001) Encyclopaedia of Decentralised Planning and Local Self Governance. New Delhi: Prem Rawat.

Local Government (1998) White Paper on Local Government. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Local Government (1998) Municipal Structures Act (Act No. 117 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Local Government (2000) Municipal Systems Act (Act No 32 of 2000). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Lombard, A. (2001) Community Work and Community Development: Perspectives on Social Development. Pretoria: Research Report to Centre for Rural Development.

MacKay, J. (2004) A Study of Public Participation of the Integrated Development Planning Process in the City of Cape Town. University of Kwa Zulu Natal.

Masango R. (2002) Public Participation: A Critical Ingredient of Good Governance. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Mngoma, S. (2010). Public Participation in the Informal Trading By Laws Amendments. Johannesburg. South Africa.

Mphahlele, S. L. Assessing the Challenges of Public Participation in Capricorn District Municipality. 2007. University of Limpopo.

Naude, W. A. (2001). South Africa's Local Government Transformation: An Economic Development Perspective. University of Leipzig Press.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: AKP051SSOL01

Project title: **Capacitation in question finding “the missing variable” in the Integrated Development Process in Berlin, Eastern Cape.**

Nature of Project: Masters

Principal Researcher: Malixole Solani

Supervisor: Prof W Akpan

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

07 September 2015



Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of Sociology

Dear Sir/ Madam

My name is Malixole Solani. I am currently studying for Master of Social Science Degree in Rural Development at the University of Fort Hare. As part of my degree I am conducting research on the community participation and capacitation in the Integrated Development Process at Buffalo City Municipality. The research is conducted in the area of Berlin. I wish to invite you to participate in the study. Please note that your participation is voluntary and that non-participation will have no negative consequences.

Please note that you can withdraw from the study at any time should you feel that you do not want to continue. If you feel that certain questions are personal or if you feel uncomfortable answering them, you have the right to refuse to answer. Your responses are also confidential and anonymous.

Thank you

Yours faithfully

Mr M. Solani

(Researcher)

040 6573181

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

PLEASE MARK THE APPLICABLE BLOCK WITH AN "X"

Age group

20-29 years		40-49 years	
30-39 years		50 years and above	

Gender

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

Educational Level

Grade 8-12		No formal education
Diploma/Degree		

**APPENDIX A: Interview schedule for community members of Nqonqweni
Location in Berlin**

Mark the applicable block with X

1. Do you know what the IDP is?

Yes	
No	

2. Do you know what the IDP process entails?

Yes	
No	

3. Do you know how to participate effectively in the IDP and are there any structures for participation?

Yes	
No	

4. Is there enough information about the IDP for you to participate in your municipality?

Yes	
No	

5. Are you well informed about participation in the IDP process?

Yes	
No	

6. Which of the following affect your understanding/lack of understanding of the IDP process? Please tick all those that apply.

Lack of information about the IDP	
Non visibility of ward councillor	
Poor communication	

APPENDIX B: Interview schedule for community members of Mncotsho Location in Berlin.

Please mark the applicable block with X

1. Does the municipality give you information about the IDP?

Yes	
No	

2. Do you know what the IDP process entails?

Yes	
No	

3. Are there any structures for participation in the IDP at the municipality?

Yes	
No	

4. Do you understand the IDP?

Yes	
No	

5. Are you well informed about participation in the IDP process?

Yes	
No	

6. Which of the following affect your understanding/lack of understanding of the IDP process? Please tick all those that apply.

Lack of information about the IDP	
Non visibility of ward councillor	
Poor communication	

APPENDIX C: Interview schedule for community members Mntlabathi Location in Berlin

Please mark applicable block with X

1. Do you know what is the IDP and how did you get to know about it?

Yes	
No	

2. Do you know what the IDP process entails?

Yes	
No	

3. Do you know how to participate effectively in the IDP and are there any structures for participation?

Yes	
No	

4. Is there enough information about the IDP for you to participate in your municipality?

Yes	
No	

5. Are you well informed about participation in the IDP process?

Yes	
No	

6. Which of the following affect your understanding/lack of understanding of the IDP process? Please tick all those that apply.

Lack of information about the IDP	
Non visibility of ward councillor	
Poor communication	

APPENDIX D: Interview schedule for community members of Mbolompeni

Location in Berlin.

Please mark applicable block with X

1. Do you know what is the IDP and how did you get to know about it?

Yes	
No	

2. Do you know what the IDP process entails?

Yes	
No	

3. Do you know how to participate effectively in the IDP and are there any structures for participation?

Yes	
No	

4. Is there enough information about the IDP for you to participate in your municipality?

Yes	
No	

5. Are you well informed about participation in the IDP process?

Yes	
No	

6. Which of the following affect your understanding/lack of understanding of the IDP process? Please tick all those that apply.

Lack of information about the IDP	
Non visibility of ward councillor	
Poor communication	

APPENDIX E: Interview schedule for IDP officials

1. Does the municipality have a capacity building policy for enhancing participation of rural citizens in the IDP processes and activities?

If yes, is the policy effectively implemented?

.....
.....

2. What measures does the municipality have to empower rural citizens to participate effectively in the IDP and its processes?

.....
.....
.....

3. Which factors do you consider when designing capacity building strategies and policies for rural citizens to participate effectively in the IDP process?

.....
.....
.....

4. What are the challenges in capacitating rural citizens to participate effectively in the IDP processes and activities and what is the municipality doing to address these challenges?

.....
.....
.....

5. Does the municipality have enough resources that can be used to capacitate rural citizens to participate effectively in the IDP?

.....
.....
.....

6. What other comments do you have on capacitating rural citizens to participate effectively in the IDP process?

.....
.....
.....