EVALUATING INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN A DECENTRALISED GOVERNANCE SYSTEM: THE CASE OF YEI RIVER COUNTY, SOUTH SUDAN

BY

MATATA KHAMIS CHARLES (200808087)

A MINI-DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL-FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (MPA)

IN THE FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

SUPERVISOR: MR MM SIBANDA FEBRUARY, 2013

DECLARATION

I, Matata Khamis Charles hereby declare that, this mini-dissertation entitled: Evaluating Integrated Participatory Planning in a Decentralised Governance System: The Case of Yei River County, South Sudan, submitted to the University of Fort Hare, in partial-fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree of Master of Public Administration (MPA), has never been previously submitted by me, or any other person for a degree at this or any other university. This is my own work in design and in execution and all material therein, has been duly acknowledged by way of appropriate references and citations.

Signature

Date

29/01/2013

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this mini-dissertation to my wife Jendia Agnes Mike and my children Adoke, Ropani, Minialah and Joy, whose love for education and support remains my source of inspiration. I will also not forget my family-friends whose words of encouragement throughout my academic struggle kept me alive in the face of all adversity.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I appreciate and thank my supervisor Mr M.M Sibanda for his assistance, kind and valuable contributions. Without his caring and loving heart, I would not have been able to reach to this stage. May you live long so that you can witness your own model.

Secondly, I also express my sincere gratitude and thanks to my wife Jendia Agnes for supporting me throughout my studies and inspiring me to continue pursuing my studies despite the enormous challenges confronting me.

I further appreciate Africa Educational Trust (EAT) and General Bior D.A. the under secretary of the ministry of Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) affairs without whose support, this study would not have been possible

In conclusion, I thank all those who willingly and voluntarily participated in this research for sharing valuable information contained in this research project.

ACRONYMS

CBOs Community Based Organisations

CES Central Equatoria State

CLC County Legislative Council

CM Community Members

CPA Comprehensive Peace Agreement

D/ED Deputy Executive Director

ED Executive Director

GOSS Government of Southern Sudan

HD Head of Department

IAP2 International Association for Public Participation

ICSS Interim Constitution of South Sudan

ICGOSS Interim Constitution of the Government of Southern Sudan

IDP Integrated Development Plan

LG Local Government

LED Local Economic Development

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

PD Payam Director

PO Planning Officials

YRC Yei River County

PPP Public Private Partnership

RSA Republic of South Africa

SALGA South African Association of Local Government

UN United Nations

WB World Bank

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ACRONYMS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION: OVERVIEW AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD	1
1.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	1
1.2: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY	2
1.2.1: Main research problem	4
1.2.2: Research questions	6
1.3: THE STUDY AIM AND OBJECTIVES	7
1.4: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.5: LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	8
1.6: DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	8
1.6.1: Public Administration	8
1.6.2: Public participation	10
1.6.3: Decentralisation	11
1.6.4: County	12
1.6.5: <i>Payam</i>	12
1.6.6: Local government	12
1.7: CONCLUDING REMARKS	13
CHAPTER TWO	15
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	15
2.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	
2.2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	15
2.2.1: Citizen Participation at Local Government	16
2.2.2: Citizen Participation and Public Service	
2.2.3: Need for Public Participation	
2.3: PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: CONCEPTUAL ARTICULATION	19

2.3.1: Principles of public participation	20
2.3.2: Core values for the practice of public participation	21
2.3.3: Public participation in context: putting principles into action	22
2.3.4: Typologies of public participation	24
2.3.5: Comparative analysis of public participation as a means and/or as an end	25
2.3.6: Public participation strategies at grassroots level - strategic options to consider	27
2.3.7: Why does public participation work and why does it fail?	33
2.3.8: Advantages of integrated participatory planning	35
2.4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING	IN
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	35
2.5: POLICY AND LEGAL CONTEXT FOR INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING	3 IN
LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOUTH SUDAN	37
2.5.1: Legal framework;	37
2.6: PERSPECTIVES ON INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (IDP): SOUTH	
AFRICA	39
2.6.2: The mandate of local government in South Africa	39
2.6.3: Integrated development planning in South Africa	42
2.6.4: Composition of IDP in Republic of South Africa (RSA)	43
2.6.5: Community participation in the IDP	47
2.7: CONCLUDING REMARKS	48
CHAPTER THREE	49
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	49
3.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	49
3.2: STUDY DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES	49
The following section discusses the study design.	49
3.2.1: Study design	49
3.2.2: Qualitative research method	50
3.2.3: Quantitative research method	50
3.2.2: The questionnaire	51
3.3: STUDY POPULATION	52
Table 3.1	53
Summary of respondents sampled	53

3.3.2: Sampling procedures	53
3.3.2.1 : Snowball sampling	54
3.3.2.2 : Purposive/Judgmental Sampling	55
3.4: ENSURING INSTRUMENT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	56
3.5: PRE-TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE	57
3.6: ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	57
3.6.1: Confidentiality	58
3.6.2: Informed consent	58
3.6.3. Voluntary Participation	58
3.6.4: Avoidance of harm	59
3.7: DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES	59
3.8: CONCLUDING REMARKS	60
CHAPTER FOUR	62
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION	62
4.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	62
4.2: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	63
4.3: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF THE RESPONDENTS	64
4.3.1: Gender Distribution.	64
4.3.2. Age Distribution	65
4.3.3. Marital Status	65
4.3.4. Educational Qualifications	66
4.3.5: Status in the Community	67
4.4: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	68
4.5: ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	
4.6: CONCLUDING REMARKS	
CHAPTER FIVE	73
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	73
5.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS	
5.2 SUMMARY	73
5.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	75
5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS	77
5.5 CONCLUSION	79

REFERENCES	80
APPENDIX 1: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YEI RIVER COUNTY	88
APPENDIX 2: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY	89
APPENDIX 3: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YEI RIVER COUNTY	90
APPENDIX 4: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMNENTS	91

ABSTRACT

Local government is an important level of participatory democracy, where communities play an active role not only as the electorate, but also as end-users and consumers, and thereby holding their municipal councils accountable for their actions. Given the above statement, the interim Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan 2011, entrusts local government with the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner. It also provides for the promotion of social and economic development and the promotion of a safe and healthy environment. This also entails the need for a commitment to service delivery hence, public representatives and public officials must take seriously their obligation to render services to the people that could be in the form of ensuring that refuse gets collected, electricity being supplied and other services rendered which better the general welfare of citizens.

There are several definitions of public participation, but it can be defined as a process of empowering citizens by involving them in making decisions on all issues that concern them, which can be political, social or economic. The main aim of this study was to, investigate and identify the nature and extent of integrated participatory planning in Yei River County and the extent to which opportunities for public participation are accessible to the communities. The study sought to investigate: How different stakeholders in the community in Yei River County make use of public participation opportunities during the integrated participatory planning process? As such, the main objectives of the study were to; to assess the existing integrated participatory planning practices in Yei River County, to examine and evaluate how the existing integrated participatory planning practices influence service delivery in Yei River County and lastly to identify the barriers to effective integrated participatory planning in YRC and advance recommendations for improvement.

Purposive and snowball sampling methods were used and data was collected from a sample of two hundred and twenty-six (226) public officials, comprising of Local Government officials, County councillors and members of the public. Results from the data collected using open and close-ended questionnaires, showed that public

participation is very important in local government planning as it leads to incorporation of public suggestions and interests in the development strategies. The results further showed that public meetings and workshops were the only public participation mechanisms being used by Yei River County. The study therefore recommended among other things that, Yei River County should strengthen public participation in integrated participatory planning by providing adequate skilled human resources and establishing structures, as well as public participation mechanisms at the Payam and Boma levels. It was also recommended that the communities needed to utilise all available mechanisms of participation to ensure maximum participation during the integrated participatory planning processes.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION: OVERVIEW AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD

1.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Public participation in the local sphere of government is a major challenge. The Interim Constitution of the Republic of Sudan, 2005 and the Interim Constitution of the Government of South Sudan, 2006, gives authority to Local Government structures with regard to: the provision of democratic and accountable government for local communities; ensuring the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; the promotion of social and economic development; the promotion of a safe and healthy environment; and encouraging the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government. Counties are legally bound to involve communities and civic organisations in the formulation of Council integrated participatory planning processes and setting development priorities. This is largely done by means of establishing Medium Term Strategic Development plans (MTSDP). The MTSDP presents a framework through which such a culture can be established.

According to Kellerman (in Kotze 1997:53) community participation can be considered as both an end in itself and a means to sustainable development. He states that as an end, it rests on the fundamental ethical principle, that people should be allowed control over actions which affect them. As a means to promoting sustainable socio-economic development, aspects of empowerment, communication and gender are imperative. This mini-dissertation—seeks to investigate and identify the nature and extent of public participation in the preparation of integrated participatory plans in Yei River County, in South Sudan. It will further highlight some of the major challenges of the local Council governance system and propose solutions to some of the shortcomings.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the research study, by outlining the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, objectives and significance of the study.

1.2: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Cloete, (1998:1) is of the opinion that public administration is a distinctive field of activity, which consist of all the functions undertaken by officials in public institutions to provide the community with public services and goods. These functions are classified into three categories namely generic administrative functions, functional activities and auxiliary functions. Generic administrative functions can be classified into six main categories namely policy making, financing, organising, staffing, determining and rationalising work procedures and controlling.

The Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS), Local Government Act, (2009) section (5) interprets "County" as a territory in which the administrative jurisdiction of a local government council is established. According to the classification of County Councils, Yei River County is Council Grade "C", meaning a Rural Council with an emerging urban centre, which is not yet qualified to become a Town Council. Yei River County is in Central Equatoria State (CES), and it is one of the seventy eight (79) Counties found in South Sudan. Yei River County covers approximately an area of 9,290 square kilometers (km) (It is made up of five (5) Payams (second last tier of government in South Sudan) namely; Yei Town, Mugwo, Otogo, Lasu and Tore Payams. Further to this, Yei River County has twenty (20) Bomas (last/grass root tier of government in South Sudan). It is bordered by the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) to the west of Central Equatoria State (CES), Morobo County to the south and Lainya County to the east. It is bordered by Maridi County, to the North West, and Mundri County to the north.

The indigenous inhabitants of Yei River County are the Kakwa people, making up seventy-five percent (75%) of the population. The Avukaya, the Mundu, the Baka, the

Adio, the Kaliko and the Pojulu are the other inhabitant tribes of Yei River County. Many immigrant tribes and ethnic groups are also found in Yei town. The main occupation of the people of Yei is agricultural and petty trade. Yei River County is at the bi-sect of the roads linking Sudan to Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) into the interior of South Sudan. For its planning, Yei River County developed an integrated participatory development plan, for the years, 2012-2014. Among other things, this plan places emphasis on the involvement of all the people in governance, socio-economic and political development of the County. It also advocates community participation in economic development and in the management of local government affairs. Yei River County today has a population of 427,141 people (according to the traditional chief's registration conducted in 2010), which keeps on increasing, each day, as a result of the return and repatriation process, of South Sudanese from Khartoum (Sudan) and the diaspora.

Administratively, Yei River County is made up of five Payams. The South Sudan Relief and Rehabilitation Commission County Secretary Report, (2012) breaks down the populations in the Payams as follows: Yei Town Payam, 289 221; Tore Payam, 48 732; Mugwo Payam, 31 900; Otogo Payam, 32 068 and Lasu Payam, 25 220, which all add to a total population of approximately, 427 141. The disputed 2008, census results, indicates that, in terms of demographics, Yei River County has a total population of 427,141, which is about 38.7% of the Central Equatoria State population. Yei town has the highest population, comprising approximately sixty-eight percent (68%) of the total County population. Lasu Payam, has the lowest, at 6% of the total County population. Population sensity in Yei River County stands at about forty-six (46) people per square kilometre. In terms of age distribution, fifty-four percent (54%) of the population are younger than forty (40). Females, comprise fifty-nine percent (59%) of the total population of Yei River County. Migrant laborers from neighbouring Countries of Congo, Uganda, Kenya and Ethiopia also make up the population of the County.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Interim Report for South Sudan, show that the dependency ratio stands at 1:8, the population growth rate at 2.85%, adult literacy

twenty-four percent (24%), life expectancy at birth stands at forty-two (42) years and the HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is at 2.7% of the total population of Yei River County. In terms of HIV/AIDS prevalence, Yei Town Payam however has the highest prevelance, at 4.3% of its total population. These statistics are thus indicative of the fact that, Yei River County is faced with several challenges relating to high levels of poverty, under development and poor infrastructural development. This means that both the communities (the public) in Yei River County, as well as the local government public officials, need to focus on realistic integrated participatory development planning, so as to address the issues of unemployment, poverty and to establish a basis for the creation of a self-sustaining post-conflict community.

It can thus be deduced and argued that, the developmental challenges of Yei River County, manifest themselves in the prevalence of poverty, a high dependency rate, hunger and starvation, high unemployment rates estimated to hover around eighty percent (80%) as well as rampant malnutrition rates of 21.5%. The integrated participatory development plan of Yei River County for the period 2012 to 2014 is however still in draft form in Africa's newest nation, and it has not yet been passed by the legislative council. This legislative process however seems to be unfloding, oblivious of, the need to review and appraise the performance of the previous five year integrated participatory plan, for the period 2008 to 2012. Due to the fact that, formally the Republic of South Sudan, declared its independence on the 9th of July 2011, the plan was not measured, as no coherent records existed from both the County Legislative Council and the executive arm of Yei River County.

1.2.1: Main research problem

This study seeks to examine and evaluate integrated participatory planning in a decentralized governance system in Yei River County, South Sudan. It is meant to establish the nature and extent of integrated participatory planning processes and practices, provided in terms of section 134 (5a) of the transitional constitution of Central Equatoria State (CES) (2011) which states that local government structures shall promote self-governance and enhance the participation of the people and democratic, transparent and accountable system of governance. The same section also encourages

the involvement of communities and community based organizations in matters of local government. This implied the involvement and participation of the people at the local level of government in decision making during the planning process is very important. Given the history of the Republic of South Sudan, and that people have been living under oppressive regimes as from 1956, in which democratic rights and fundamental freedoms were denied and public participation in decision making process had been something unimaginable. Decision making with regard to service delivery has often been centralised by the ruling elite and class in Khartoum, Sudan. This muzzling of citizen "voice" was one of the triggers of the rebellion and long drawn war between the South Sudanese and the Khartoum (Sudan) governments.

The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, between the National Congress Party (NCP), which is the ruling party in Khartoum and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A), which now forms the government of South Sudan, ushered in a decentralised system of governance, in South Sudan. The declaration of independence restored the South Sudanese's democratic rights and fundamental freedoms, amongst which is the right to participate in decision making, in issues of governance, service delivery and public affairs. This has been witnessed when the people of South Sudan decided in a referendum for the independence of South Sudan in 2011.

In the new dispensation, local government has been assigned a key role in rehabilitating social, political and economic infrastructure, which had been destroyed by the civil war, which lasted for more than 21 years in the South Sudan. The CPA thus clearly spelt out the need to involve communities in decision making processes and in matters affecting their daily lives. This implies that; there is a basic need to nurture and uphold the principle of public participation at all levels and organs of government, of which the Counties are no exception. The County as a local government unit in South Sudan, therefore plays a pivotal role in service delivery. This is justified by the provisions in the South Sudan Local Governemnt Act (Act 6 of 2009) section (69), which establishes key ministerial departments in the Counties, with the aim of bringing

services nearer to the people. The same section provided for the application of integrated participatory planning approach in the local government units.

Before the Republic of South Sudan attained its full independence from the Khartoum government (Sudan), on the 9th of July 2011, the Republic of the Sudan had a centralised system of governance where power and resources were controlled in Khartoum. However, chapter three (III) of the South Sudan Local Government Act of 2009 provides for a decentralised system of governance in South Sudan. Section (14) of the above stated Act states that, local government councils shall be decentralised into administrative tiers and shall have devolved authority into which the traditional authority of the council shall be incorporated. The Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan (ICRSS) 2012 specifically provides for the establishment of the three tiers of governance being the National, States and Local government. In particular, Article 173 (1) of the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan (ICRSS), 2012, stipulates that the States are responsible for providing the "structure, composition, finance and functions" of local governments.

This study therefore seeks to investigate the nature and extent of integrated participatory planning in a decentralised system of governance, which advocates for participatory approaches in decision making processes. This mini-dissertation thus seeks to specifically evaluate the nature and extent of integrated participatory planning practices in the decentralised system of government, in Yei River County, South Sudan. The study unit, the County is the equivalent of a municipality, in the case of the Republic of South Africa.

1.2.2: Research questions

The broad research questions that this study intended to answer are below;

• To what extent do the communities participate in integrated development planning in Yei River County?

- What are the existing forms of public participation and consultative structures and how are they used to promote participatory integrated development planning in Yei River County?
- What are the key challenges of Integrated participatory Planning in Yei River County?
- What approaches/mechanisms or strategies should be used or introduced to strengthen and promote public participation in integrated participatory planning in Yei River County?

1.3: THE STUDY AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim of the study is to evaluate the nature and extent of public participation in integrated participatory planning in Yei River County, in South Sudan.

The specific objectives of this study are therefore to:

- Assess the efficacy of the existing integrated participatory planning practices in Yei River County.
- Examine and evaluate how the existing integrated participatory planning practices influence service delivery in Yei River County.
- Identify the barriers to effective integrated participatory planning in Yei River
 County and advance recommendations for improvement.

1.4: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant in that it evaluates the nature and extent of public participation in integrated participatory planning, in Yei River County, South Sudan- the newest nation in Africa which declared its independence from Sudan on the 9th of July 2011. It is anticipated that this study will acts as a springboard to other researchers who are interested in studying public participation in other Counties in South Sudan. The study could be beneficial to the communities Yei River County, who engage with their Legislative Council in their struggle to improve service delivery. It is anticipated that the study will further encourage both the communities and their Councilors to work closely with the Local Government officials in the process of service delivery and reduce

service delivery complains. The researcher also hopes that through this study the Local Government Managers, Heads of Department and the County Legislative Councilors (Local Government Councilors) will be sensitised on how integrated participatory planning in a decentralised system of governance works to ensure responsive services delivery. The study can thus potentially benefit Yei River County local government authorities, by drawing their attention to critical issues and practices they may need to adopt in integrated partcipatory planning as they endeavour to provide goods and services to citizens.

1.5: LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Financial and time constraints hinder the researcher to have access to all public officials at Yei River County (YRC); hence the research was only confined to some but not all public officials at Yei River County, members of the County Legislative Council (CLC) and some members of the community. Due to short time space in which this research was conducted, it only focused on a small number of officials and community members from the five Payams of Yei River County, from whom responses were solicited on the nature and extent of integrated participatory planning. Yei River County, the equivalent of a municipality in the South African local government system, maintains offices in five Payams, which administratively serves to provide services to the residents. The study area was however delimited to the County headquarters and the headquarters of the five Payams namely; Yei town, Tore, Lasu, Otogo and Mugwo Payams.

1.6: DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following terms will be defined in the context of this study as follows:

1.6.1: Public Administration

Grover (1998:10) stated that public administration is the process by which resources are marshaled and then used to cope with the problems facing a political community, but David (1986:6) sees it as "the use of managerial, political and legal theories and processes to fulfill legislative, executive and judicial governmental mandates for the

provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segments of it". Leonard (1955:3), considered as one of the pioneers in the field, has a broader definition. He defines it as "consisting of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy". Public administration has many definitions. According to some authors, public administration is centrally concerned with the organization of government policies and programmes as well as the behaviour of officials (usually non-elected) formally responsible for their conduct. Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:2) defines Public Administration as the systems of structures and processes operating within a particular society, as the environment with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy and effective and efficient execution of formulated policy. Bayat & Meyer (1994:16) defined public administration as Managing of public affairs geared towards meeting the needs of the citizens of a country (Bayat & Meyer, 1994:16).

According to UNDP (E/c/16/2006), public administration has two closely related meanings: The aggregate machinery (policies, rules, procedures, systems, organizational structures, personnel and so forth) funded by the State budget and in charge of the management and direction of the affairs of the executive government, and its interaction with other stakeholders in the State, society and external environment; the UNDP further defined public administration as the management and implementation of the whole set of government activities dealing with the implementation of laws, regulations and decisions of the government and the management related to the provision of public services.

Given the complexities of leadership and public administration in the South Sudan context which is emerging from war with military background, it becomes more confusing if the administration of local communities is laid only on the shoulders of the Central government. Drawing from the literature, public administration is the management of the scarce resources, that is, financial, human and material of a community by elected and unelected public officials to benefit the said community, region or municipality or a county.

1.6.2: Public participation

Brynard (1996:41) in Karel & Andries & Belinda (2001:59) view participation as 'an activity undertaken by one or more individuals previously excluded from the decision making process. Lisk (1985:15) in Karel & Andries & Belinda (2001:59) is of the view that participation is the active involvement of the people in the making and implementation of decisions at all levels and forms of political and socio-economic activities. According to Roodt (2001:470) participation is viewed as people involving themselves to a greater or lesser degree, in organisation indirectly or directly concerned with the decision making and implementation of development.

Public participation is therefore an act of involving citizens in the governance process, which mainly involves; informing the public of government intentions and engaging them in the process of government decision making, (Berner, 2001:23). These decisions will be for example on economic, social or political issues that the government will be intending to implement. Rather than being mere recipients of what the government plans for them the citizens become role players and partners to the government who must be consulted before decisions or actions are taken. Mogale (2003:223) warns that, development planners and practitioners have often undermined the need for decentralisation and participation of the public in their own development. This therefore calls from the part of the local government officials and planners to guide against such a practice. Public participation also includes matters such as globalization, the practical implication for the difference between the concepts of government and governance, local governance, poverty reduction and the relationship between all stakeholders of public participation (Mogale 2003:215-242). Kumar (2002:24) stated that the meaning of public participation differs depending upon the context in which it applies. This adds to the confusion in which the public participation debate is steeped, in South Africa as everywhere else.

For Rahman (1993:150), defining public participation should relate to the experience and exposure of that part of the process or intervention, which is the practical reality and context of the principle and strategy associated with it. As such the definition of public

participation should not be narrowed but what gives real meaning to participation is the collective effort by the people concerned in an organised framework such as in a county or municipality to pool their efforts and whatever other resources they decide to pool together to attain objectives they set for themselves. In this regard participation at the local sphere of government is viewed as an active process in which the participants take initiatives and actions that are stimulated by their own thinking and deliberation and over which they can exert effective control and this occurs during planning process at the local government level.

1.6.3: Decentralisation

In defining decentralisation, it is common to outline three different forms that emphasise one or the other of these elements as exemplified by Manor (1999:5); first is devolution (or democratic decentralisation) which refers to the transfer of power and resources to sub-national authorities that are both (relatively) independent of central government and democratically elected by the people. Secondly, is deconcentration (or administrative decentralisation), which is the transfer of authority to sub-national branches of the central state, often to line ministry officials based in local areas. Lastly is fiscal decentralization, which is concerned with authority over budgets ceded to deconcentrated officials and/or unelected appointees or to elected politicians.

Fox & Meyer (1995:33), posit that the dissemination of functions and authority from the national government to sub-national or sub-organisational units is regarded as a necessary component of democracy. It is a condition in which there has been a considerable amount of delegation and thus, a considerable vesting of responsibility and authority in the hands of subordinates. In public management it refers to the transfer of authority on, for example, planning and decision making, or administratively from a centralized public authority to its field organizations, local administrative units, semi-autonomous and parastatal organizations, or non – government organization. in the context of South Sudan, decentralization is manifested in the three tiers of government where there is the national government, the states governments and the local government which have distinct powers and functions though there are concurrent

powers. Fox & Meyer (1995:33), contend that, it refers to regionalised or sectoral planning as opposed to centralised planning

1.6.4: County

According to the interpretation in chapter one of the South Sudan Land Act (2009), a County means the administrative unit between the state and the Payam, as described in the Interim Constitution of South Sudan. The South Sudan Local Government Act, (Act No. 6 of 2009), defines a County as, a territory in which the administrative jurisdiction of a local government council is established.

1.6.5: Payam

According to the interpretation in chapter one of the South Sudan Land Act (2009), a Payam, means the administrative unit, between the County and the Boma. Boma refers to the coordinative unit of the county which exercises delegated powers within a council. It is from the Boma that members of the County legislative councilors are elected. A Boma is an equivalent of a ward in the South African context. The South Sudan Local Government Act, (Act No . 6 of 2009), defines a Payam as the second tier of the local government, which is the coordinative unit of a County and which exercise delegated powers from the County Executive Council.

1.6.6: Local government

Local government is defined by different authors as below;

Gomme (1987:1-2) defines local government as that part of the whole government of a nation or state which is administered by authorities subordinate to the state authorities, but elected independently of control by the state authority by qualified persons resident or having property in certain localities, which localities have been formed by communities having common interest and common history. Olowu (1990:12) defines it as, a product of devolution as a dimension of decentralisation. Meyer (1978:10) defines local government as local democratic governing units, within a unitary democratic system of a country, which are subordinate units of the government vested with prescribed, controlled governmental powers and sources of income to render specific

local services and to develop control and regulate the geographic, social and economic environment of a defined local area.

According to Section (5) of the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) Local Government Act (2009), "local government is defined as the level of government closest to the people within a State in Southern Sudan, as provided under Article 50(c) of the Constitution of South Sudan (2005). The Central Equatoria State Transitional constitution (2011) states that, local government is the third tier of government after the national and state levels of government. The local government tiers in South Sudan consist of; County, Payam and Boma in the rural areas where as city, municipal and town councils are established in urban areas. In general it may be said that, local government involve the conception of a territorial, non sovereign community possessing the legal right and the necessary organization to regulate its own affairs. This in turn pre-supposes the existence of a local authority with power to act independent of external control but with the participation of the local community in the administration of its affairs.

1.7: CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter briefly provided an introduction to the study, which highlighted what the study, was all about. It also highlighted the background of the research study, providing the reasons behind undertaking a study evaluating integrated participatory planning in Yei River County, South Sudan. The chapter has outlined the research questions, aims and objectives of the study, significance, limitations and the delimitations of the study. The key terms used such as public administration, public participation, decentralisation, local government and the local government structures existing in South Sudan such as county, *Payam* and *Boma* have been defined.

The following chapter will provide the theoretical and conceptual framework for integrated participatory planning. The chapter will also elaborate on the link between public participation, and public service. The chapter goes further to explain the different principles, levels, advantages and disadvantages of public participation in integrated participatory planning as well as the legal framework for public participation in the

South Sudan context. Integrated participatory development planning, which closely mirrors integrated participatory planning in South Sudan will be explored and reviewed within the South African context, as a case study

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The first chapter introduced the study, its background and context, the research problem, the research questions, research objectives and the significance of the study. Chapter one concluded by defining the concepts within the context of the study. This chapter reviews literature on integrated participatory planning in a decentralised governance system. Literature review is a critical assessment of what has been done in the past in a given discipline or field of study, more in the direction of revision and or reconsideration (Nkantin, 2005:26). Related literature on citizen participation in planning in Local Government is reviewed in this chapter. Literature was explored from relevant books, journals and other publications. Government policy documents related to integrated participatory planning, such as, the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan 2005, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement 2005, the Government of South Sudan Local Government Act, 2009, the Central Equatoria State Government Act of 2008 and publications on the rights of citizens and participatory democracy are discussed and reviewed in this chapter. The literature on citizen participation demonstrates that, the subject matter is not new (Brynard 1996, Meyer&Theron 2000, Oakley 1991, Bekker 1996, Cloete 1998). What is new is the reemergence of citizen participation within the context of a new world order where it requires re-definition of citizen participation (Karel, Andries & Belinda 2002:60-61).

2.2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Public participation in the governance is viewed as a way to promote development and improve the standards of living of people. However there is no single definition for public participation. In simple terms public participation can be defined as a process of empowering citizens by involving them in making decisions on all issues that concern them. These issues can be political, economic or social and the main aim for involving

the public is to enable them to decide on their destiny. Rather than being mere recipients of services. Public participation makes citizens to become role players and partners in making crucial decisions on any matter that may concern them. In this study the main focus was public participation in integrated participatory planning in Yei River County.

Rowe & Frewer (2005:255) argue that over the past decades or even centuries, the key concepts of public participation have not been well defined thus the definition becomes vague because the public may be involved in for instance policy formulation in a number of different ways at a number of levels. The paragraphs below provide an in-depth discussion about public participation at the various levels of government.

2.2.1: Citizen Participation at Local Government

Local government is an important level of participatory democracy, where communities play an active role not only as the electorate, but also as end-users and consumers, and thereby holding their municipal councils accountable for their actions. Service delivery is the primary function of local government. Section (173) subsection (6) of the Interim Constitution of the Government of Southern Sudan (ICGOSS), 2005 sets out the objectives of local government. Among others it; entrusts local government with the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; the promotion of social economic development, and the promotion of a safe and healthy environment. What this implies is that, there has to be a commitment to service, and that public representatives and public officials must take seriously their obligation and mandate to render services to residents (Booysen, 2008). It is necessary to realize that citizen's vote for a government, not simply because of its fancy election manifesto, but because of their (citizens') material needs. In this regard, it is important for councilors to take cognizance of the magnitude of the task facing them.

The primary function of local government of ensuring service delivery, entails among other things, commitments to whether refuse gets collected (or not), whether electricity is supplied (or not), and whether all residents within the jurisdiction of a municipality

enjoy the same quality services. Section (38) subsection (2) of the Interim Constitution of the Government of Southern Sudan (ICGOSS), 2005 guarantees citizens, among other things, the right to health care services, sufficient clean drinking water, good roads, better learning environment (schools), electric power and food. These rights are, for example, illustrated with regards to the right to water: the Department of Rural Water (Water Policy) which states that water sources must be within 1500 metres from residences, if it is either supplied through a communal standpipe or borehole. Furthermore, water must be affordable and within physical reach, particularly for people with disabilities, children and older persons.

2.2.2: Citizen Participation and Public Service

According to Pankhurst, (1998:2) it is assumed that civil society (and citizen participation) are intermittently connected with democracy in some way, but how it is conceived and assessed, varies considerably. This brings to the fore the long relationship between citizen participation and democracy. It is argued that governments are increasingly becoming less willing to use consultative policy-making procedures. Political parties remain accessible and to a degree internally democratic (OSISA, 2006:3). Ake (2000:12) concurs with the foregoing assertion by arguing that "...democracy has in some degree been reduced to an ideological representation which is well internalized". This implies that it is only at political level that people are consulted on matters mainly affecting the party and to a lesser degree affecting the country as a whole.

Officials have often justified lack of participation by arguing that participation undermines institutions of representative government, and therefore it should be left to government officials to make public decisions (Lynn, 2002 cited in Shah, 2007:59). Opponents of citizen participation suggest that political systems that have a record of poor governance may decide to foster participatory forums in order to increase the government's legitimacy (Moynihan, 2003; Olivo 1998, in World Bank, 2007:59). Citizen participation has been used to portray citizens as ignorant and therefore not worthy of consultation.

Navarro (1998), cited in Shah (2007:59) argues that even where participation is fostered, citizens may focus only on narrow issues that affect them directly and may be unwilling to make trade-offs. The exercise could eventually exclude some groups. Excuses have also been put forward as a reason to exclude people at grassroots levels. Complaints have also been leveled against those who are involved with public officials, asserting that only those with expertise, access to resources and those well-connected to government officials are given the opportunity to make inputs into the decision making processes. Crick (2002:65) maintains that "...to participate politically and to become full citizens, people need resources".

Arnstein (1969:3), through *The Ladder of Citizen Participation* noted that there are citizen participation variants ranging from non participation, tokenism and total citizen control. Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation envisages the existence of three forms of citizen participation, namely; *nonparticipation*, *tokenism* and *citizen empowerment*. In nonparticipation, Arnstein portrays a situation where government manipulates the system by implementing programmes without input from citizens. In such cases, the government only informs the citizens of its intentions without taking and incorporating contributions from the citizens.

The government officials tasked with executing such programmes hold the view that they are the representatives of the people and are therefore destined to make decisions for and on behalf of the people. Under *tokenism*, Arnstein argues that government officials make efforts to consult the people and listen to their problems with promises that these will be considered. It is an exercise that is meant to placate the fears and concerns of the citizens to some social problems. However the result is that the citizens' inputs are discarded and the problem(s) remain unresolved. The essence for tokenism is to make the citizens feel that their contributions and input are being considered. Andrew (2004) cited in World Bank (2007:64), maintains that "... officials claim that participation efforts are consistent with tradition of public consultation, but are actually characterized by a bias towards groups with technical or financial backgrounds and strong connections to government".

Government could, in some cases, form a joint consultative forum or partnership where government has an upper hand to dictate on one end of the continuum, and on the other end of the continuum, could allow citizen power, where either government delegates decision-making powers to communities and allows them to initiate or control programmes within their domain. Arnstein also refers to this level of the citizen participation continuum as citizen power, implying that through empowering citizens, the government has decentralised the decision-making process and given citizens the power to make informed decisions that benefit their communities.

2.2.3: Need for Public Participation

The rationale for direct public participation usually advocates the public to participate in formulating development plans at the formative stage, rather than after officials have become committed to particular choices. According to Brynard (in Bekker 2004: 44-45) specific objectives for community participation can be outlined thereby encouraging participants to:

- provide information to communities;
- obtain information from and about the community;
- improve public decisions, programmes, projects and services;
- enhance acceptance of public decisions, programmes, projects and services;
- supplement public agency work;
- alter political power patterns and resources allocation;
- protect individual and minority group rights and interests; and
- Delay or avoid complicating difficult public decisions.

•

2.3: PUBLIC PARTICIPATION: CONCEPTUAL ARTICULATION

Ambert (2000) states that the term "public participation" gained popularity from a growing recognition of the need to "involve" (both a problematic concept and strategy) stakeholders in development interventions. The debate on participatory development has now been part of development thinking for more than eight years (Cooke & Coelho

2001; Hickey & Mohan 2004; Cornwall & Coelho 2007), but it has not brought much clarity regarding the principles, theory, strategy and management of participatory development (Theron & Ceasar 2008:00-123).

The international and national (Republic of South Africa) rationale for the promotion of public participation (Manila Declaration 1989; World Bank 1996a, internationally) and partnerships (integrated Development planning (IDP), public private partnerships (PPP) and local economic development (LED), nationally rests on the belief that if the public (citizens/the people/the community) participate in development programmes/projects, then these programmes/projects will be seen as legitimate and will have a better chance of being sustainable. It is further argued by scholars such as Chambers (1997), Korten (1990) and Theron (2008) that if programmes/project beneficiaries are included in decision making, they will become self-reliant, empowered and assertive about their ability to become the masters of their own development, but what transpires in practice is unfortunately, however often completely different (Burkey 1993:40-70). Mogale (2003:215-242) explains how public participation should be understood against a larger, holistic point of departure (Kotze, 2008) which includes matters such as globalization, the practical implications for the differences between the concepts of government and governance, local governance, poverty reduction and the relationship between all stakeholders of public participation.

2.3.1: Principles of public participation

The Manila Declaration (1989) as articulated in David (2005) formulates four public participation principles as basic to people centered development and these include;

- Sovereignty resides with the people, the real actors of positive change;
- The legitimate role of government is to enable the people to set and pursue their own agenda;
- To exercise their sovereignty and assume responsibility for the development of them-selves and their communities, the people must control their own resources,

- have access to relevant information and have the means to hold the officials of government accountable;
- Those who would assist the people with their development must recognize that it
 is they who are participating in support of the people's agenda, not the reverse.
 The value of the outsider's contribution will be measured in terms of the
 enhanced capacity of the people to determine their own future.

The above idealistic principles are echoed in the African charter for popular participation in development and Transformation (1990).

2.3.2: Core values for the practice of public participation

According to Davids (2009:114) "the core values for the practice of public participation," formulated by the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2) (2002) are confined by global declarations and policy statements. These core values state that:

- The public should have a say in decisions about actions that affect their lives;
- Public participation includes the promise that the public's contribution will influence the decision;
- The public participation process communicates the interest and meets the process needs of all participants;
- The public participation process seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected;
- Public participation process involves participants in defining how they participate;
- The public participation process communicates to the participants how their inputs affected the decision; and
- The public participation process provides participants with the information they need to participate in a meaningful way.

It should also be noted however, that these core values state the unrealistic if, for example, measured against the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), arguably the most

ambitious public participation programme in South Africa (Theron, Ceasar & Davids 2007).

2.3.3: Public participation in context: putting principles into action

Putting public participation as concept and strategy into context calls for definition, or as stated in the Manila Declaration (1989) requires a re-clarification of the concept. As with other key concepts in the "development community", public participation as a concept defies attempts to package it in a single statement. This in itself is however positive, those definitions should not serve as blueprints, but should be dealt with as part of a social learning process, more so those which relate to the grassroots interaction. Coke & Kothari (2001), Cornwall & Coelho (2007), Hickey & Mohan (2004), Theron & Ceasar (2008) concur that, public participation is an elusive concept which acts as an umbrella term for a new style of development planning "intervention"/"facilitation"/"enablement". Today it is almost impossible to suggest a development strategy which is not in some way "participatory", but this does not mean that development strategists, policy makers or the public agree on what public participation is and how it should be implemented, or that participatory development actually delivers what was intended (World bank 1996a; IAP2 2000; Johnson 2003).

Kumar (2002:24) shows that the meaning of public participation differs depending upon the context in which it applies. This adds to the confusion in which the public participation debate is steeped, in South Africa as elsewhere. The Economic Commission of Latin America (1973:77-93) considers "contributions" by the public to programmes to the complete exclusion of any "involvement" in the decision making process as "participation", whereas Cohen and Uphoff (1977) argue that public participation includes the people's "involvement" throughout the decision making process (Kumar 2002;23-24). For Rahman (1993:150), defining public participation should relate to the experience and exposure of that part of the process or intervention, that is the practical reality and context of the principle and strategy associated with it.

In the classic definition of community development put forward by the United Nations (UN) Department of Economic and Social Affairs (1963:4), the linkage between public participation and development is clearly stated, as the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. These complex processes are also made up of two essential elements, which are:

- The participation of the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living, with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative; and
- The provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative, self-help and mutual help and make these more effective. It is expressed in programs designed to achieve a wide variety of specific improvements.

According to Rahman (1993:150) and Groenewald (1989), when the above two definitions and their philosophical points of departure are analyzed; the key issues that stick out in the definitions are that:

- Public participation is an organized activity of the people concerned. The primary unit of public participation is a collective of persons who stand in a relationship with the state;
- A central feature of public participation is the taking of initiative by the collective in gaining access to programs/projects;
- The origin of public participation initiatives for programmes/projects is based on the people's (beneficiaries of developments) own thinking and deliberations which direct their collective activities;
- The people control the process of action initiated. (This is highly problematic and most of the time a wishful ideal, as Theron & Ceasar (2008:100-123) and Theron, Ceasar & Davids (2007) warn); and
- The needs of a particular group of people called a "community" lie at the heart of programs/projects.

2.3.4: Typologies of public participation

As Theron & Ceasar (2008:100-123) argue that besides the fact that public participation as a concept differs from practitioner to practitioner and is therefore understood differently by different participatory stakeholders, the manner in which public participation is enlisted also varies. This has prompted researchers like Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1994) to develop "typologies" of public participation. Pretty, Guijet, Scoones & Thomson's (1995) seven typologies demonstrate the different conceptions with regard to public participation. They identify and describe them as:

- Passive Participation People "participate" by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. "Participation" relates to a unilateral top-down announcement by the authority or change agent. Information being shared belongs to outsiders and/or professionals. The community remains clueless, frustrated and powerless.
- Participation in information giving The people participate by answering
 questions posed in questionnaires or telephone interviews or similar public
 participation strategies. The public do not have the opportunity to influence or
 direct proceedings as the findings are neither shared nor evaluated for accuracy.
- Participation by consultation People participate by being consulted by professionals. The professionals define both problems and solutions and may modify these in the light of the public's responses. This process does not include any share in decision making by the public, nor are the professionals under any obligation to consider the public's view.
- Participation for material incentives People participate by providing resources such as labour, in return for food and cash. This typology typically takes place in rural environments, where for example, farmers provide the fields, but are not involved in the experiment or learning process. The people have no stake in prolonging the activities when the incentives end.
- Functional participation People participate in a group context to meet predetermined objectives related to the programme/project, which may involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organisations. This

- type of involvement tends not to occur at the early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather once the important decisions have already been made.
- Interactive participation People participate in joint analysis, the development of action plans and capacity building. Participation is seen as a right, not just a means to achieve project goals.
- Self-mobilization. People participate by taking initiatives independent of
 external institutions to change systems. This bottom-up approach allows the
 public to develop contacts with external institutions for resources and the
 technical advice they need, but they themselves retain control over how
 resources are used. Such self initiated bottom-up and self-reliant mobilisation
 and collective actions may or may not challenge an existing inequitable
 distribution of wealth and power.

2.3.5: Comparative analysis of public participation as a means and/or as an end

Oakley (1991:7) argues that the concept of public participation can be distinguished as a means to an end (passive participation) or an end to a means (active participation). Considering public participation as a means to an end entails that it is a social learning process (Kotze & Kellerman, 1997:41), which is deemed necessary for the success of a development initiative or intervention. The participation of the public is essential to improving the outcomes of a programme/project through cost sharing, increased efficiency and effectiveness. Whereas public participation is regarded as an end in itself, participation confers legitimacy to the development action by endorsing a political imperative. Public participation is perceived as an objective whose accomplishment denotes a more qualitative than quantitative achievement.

According to De Beer (2000), another distinction in addition to the above two is to analyse the kind of public participation desired or secured as system-maintaining or as a system transforming process. This distinction relates to public participation as **involvement** (weak) and as **empowerment** (strong). The weak interpretation of public participation according to De Beer (2000:271), equates participation with involvement. Involvement is probably the most problematic concept in the public participation debate,

as it has gained a negative reputation associated with co-option, placation, consultation, informing and similar slippery concepts. The strong interpretation of participation equates participation with empowerment, where there is social learning process, capacity building programmes, and a bottom-up decision making process. Public participation as empowerment implies decentralisation of decision making, the participatory role of civil society and it also entails self-mobilization and public control of the development process (Roodt, 2001:469-481).

Arnstein (1969:218) argues that public participation can differ in scope and depth and formulates eight possible levels of public participation that indicate the extent of the public's contribution. The suggested levels link with the earlier mentioned modes distinguished by Oakley & Marsden (1984) and Pretty, et al.'s (1995) typologies.

These levels are briefly described below:-

- **Public control.** The public has the degree of power necessary to govern a programme/project or institution without the influence of the powerful;
- Delegated power. The public acquires the dominant decision-making authority over a particular program/project;
- Partnership. Power becomes distributed through negotiations between the public and those in power;
- **Placation.** A few handpicked members of the public are appointed to committees while tokenism is still the main motivation for the powerful;
- Consultation. The public is free to give opinion on the relevant issues, but the
 powerful offer to assurance that these opinions will be considered;
- **Informing.** There is one-way, top-down flow of information in which the public is informed of their rights, responsibilities and options;
- **Therapy.** Instead of focusing on the programme/project, the public's attitudes are shaped to conform to those in power; and
- **Manipulation.** The public is part of powerless committees and the notion of public participation is a public relations vehicle for the powerful.

Given the background to the above levels of public participation, Watt, et al. (2000:121) warn that it is important for all participants to be clear about the degree of public

participation entrenching existing patterns of inequality. For this to occur, the formation of strategies and policies aimed at promoting sustainable human development needs should be premised on popular participation, that is the participation of citizens in all structures of government, at all levels, from agenda setting, through policy formulation, to implementation and evaluation.

2.3.6: Public participation strategies at grassroots level - strategic options to consider

Kumar (2002:27) following Oakley (1999) states that, public participation has become sought after the world over. There is a consensus that public participation has numerous advantages in development programmes/projects and this does not mean that it is without limitations. To move from rhetoric to reality, observers of public participation debate, such as Johnson (2003), warn that three obstacles to public participation need careful negotiation. They are structural, administrative and social obstacles. The examples of structural obstacles include; centralised, top-down decision making processes and prescriptive obstacles are part of the political system and are at variance with grass-roots, bottom-up public participation. Administrative structures are often control oriented and follow rigid, blueprint-style guidelines which do not allow room for public input into or control over the process. Social obstacles like hopelessness, the culture of dependency, marginalisation, poverty, dominance and gender inequality militate against public participation (Kumar 2002:29; Centre for Public Participation, 2003).

As pointed out earlier on, there are considerable differences of opinion as to what public participation is, and it follows that there will be as many disagreements about the best way to achieve it. Meyer & Cloete (2000:104-109), explaining public participation in the public policy-making process, state that authentic public participation normally takes place through the following four steps:

 The participation of legitimate, democratically elected political representatives act upon policy mandates in elections or exercise their discretion as elected representatives of the public. The representatives are expected to report back

- regularly to their voters, the large public, in order to obtain ratification of their decisions on behalf of the public.
- The participation of representatives of legitimate organisations which represent public interests (e.g. civic, cultural, religious, welfare and other organizations).
 This representation also entails regular feedback from the leaders to their constituencies in order to legitimize their actions.
- The participation of individual opinion leaders in the community. These individuals can influence opinions if they represent the will of the public.
- The direct participation of the ordinary community members at grass roots in mass activities (e.g. attendance at public meetings, participation in protest marches and consumer boycotts). Meyer & Cloete (2000:105) indicate that the number of individuals participating in these activities is indicative of the degree of support for the cause concerned.

In evaluating Meyer & Cloete's (200:104-109) four steps, more questions than answers arise such as; do the political representatives actually represent the community? Answering this is not as easy as arguing that the majority party's representative has warned. It is often the case that the interest that does not attract majority support can frustrate the development process. How are the public interests of those not representing majority interests accommodated in the policy process? Another question that emerges raises the issue of the legitimacy of the organisation which appears to represent community interests. Civic, business, trade unions, cultural, religious, welfare, recreational, youth and other organisations are scattered across the development landscape (Barnard & Terreblanche 2000). These organisations represent a diversity of interests in the community.

It should also be noted that public participation strategies should not be looked upon as "blueprints". Each situation calling for a public participation process will require a specific, relevant combination of strategies and there is no "best" strategy available in the development marketplace. Strategies to be considered, depending on what is expected by the change agent and community stakeholders, include numerous

possibilities (Davids, *et al.* 2005:127). Taking the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2 2000) as a guideline the DEAT (2002:78) argues that public participation (which they prefer to call "stakeholder engagement", thereby adding confusion surrounding the concept) relates to strategies which lead to a "spectrum of different levels of influence" of public impact on decision making which ranges from protest to informing, consulting, involving, collaborating, and empowering, through a process of public participation. DEAT (2002:14-24), suggests three levels of strategies for effective and efficient public participation process which are briefly described below:-

Level 1; Public participation strategies through; informing participants

- Legal notice; informing the public of a proposal or activity that is required by law
 to be displayed at particular locations, such as a municipal notice boards, for a
 specified period.
- Advertisements; paid advertisements in national as well as community newspapers to "inform" the public of a proposal or activity and the opportunity for participation, for example calling for a tender to build a bridge.
- Magazines, news articles and press releases; stories, debates and articles
 which provide information about a proposal or activity, or a municipal or
 community newsletter, i.e. "informing" the public.
- Background information material; such as fact sheets, personal handouts, competitions, brochures or flyers distributed with bills, through mail drops, direct mail, email or left at accessible locations, to provide feedback and updates on progress regarding a planned project
- Exhibits and displays; this refers to information provided at an accessible location, such as municipal buildings/library or road shows, to help raise public awareness regarding an issue, campaign or planned program/project (Meyer & Theron 2000:61).
- **Technical reports**; special studies, reports or findings made accessible to the public at libraries, through the municipal newsletter or electronically on a website of the municipality.

- **Field trips**; site tours to inform the public, officials, the media and other stakeholders about a specific issue or project to be planned in future (Meyer & Theron 2000:42).
- Press conferences; question-and-answer sessions at a community or municipal hall, to allow the media and public to obtain and share information about a proposal or future planning activity.
- Radio and television talk shows; the presenter of a programme aims to elicit
 information about a proposal or project on behalf of the public through questions
 posed to the municipal manager, project manager or developer, for example
 through community radio programs or talk shows and phone-in programs.
- Expert panels and educational meetings; conducting public meetings where
 the experts or planners provide information and the public and specific
 stakeholders are given an opportunity to pose questions to them (Meyer &
 Theron 2000:102).

Level 2; Public participation strategies through; consulting participants

- Public meetings; ideally well-planned and well-advertised formal meetings
 where the municipal manager, project manager/team, developer or donor meets
 the public or specific stakeholders at a public place, such as a community hall.
 Open discussion and question-and-answer sessions are normally conducted in
 this format (Meyer & Theron 2000:40).
- Public hearings; similar to public meetings, but more formal and structured.
- Open days and open houses; stakeholders are given the opportunity to tour the site or project and/or information is set up at a public location to make information available to stakeholders and the public - similar to field trips.
- **Briefings**; regular meetings of social and civic organisations to inform, educate, consult stakeholders.
- **Central information contact**; designated contact persons identified as official spokespersons for the public and the media (Meyer & Theron 2000:35).
- Field office or information centres; specific or multipurpose community centres staffed by officials able to answer questions, which distribute information and respond to enquiries, to encourage information interaction with the public.

- Comments and response sheets; Structured questionnaire distributed to the public in hard copy or electronically to gain information on the public's concerns and preferences and to identify key issues and priorities.
- Surveys and polls; specific information from a sample/representative group of the public or specific stakeholders is gathered and scientifically analysed and presented; can be done by phone and email, but this is less accurate than faceto-face interviews.
- Interviews or focus group discussions; one-on-one meetings with the public, or a selected sample/representative group of specific stakeholders. Based on semi structured interviews, and open-ended questions, data is analysed and presented scientifically by a researcher for future planning considerations. (Meyer & Theron 2000:49).
- Telephone hotlines or complains register; this is where telephone numbers of
 officials are supplied to the public in printed format by hand or email, for example
 in the municipal newsletter, lines or offices staffed by change agents who know
 the project or activity, or by an ombudsman. Calls are recorded and feedback is
 given to caller (Meyer & Theron 2000:54).
- **Electronic democracy**; the internet, web page "discussion room", tele-voting and online communications. Records are kept and feedback is given to participants.

Level 3; Public participation strategies through empowering participants

- Workshops, focus groups and key stakeholders meetings; conducting small group meetings with stakeholders in an interactive forum to share and provide information, through mutual social learning, about a particular topic or issue. May be preceded by presentations by stakeholders (Meyer & Theron 2000:45,100).
- Advisory committees and panels; their main purpose is to advise the decision
 makers and to debate specific issues. Often composed of stakeholder groups
 such as community leaders, NGOs, CBOs and scientific experts or consultants
 representing the public.

- **Task force**; a group of specific stakeholders or experts that is formed to develop and implement a specific proposal.
- **Citizen juries**; a small group of public representatives/stakeholders, brought together to learn and exchange information regarding an issue, cross-examine witnesses or experts and make recommendations.
- Charettes and consensus conferences; conducting meetings or workshops with the purpose of reaching an agreement or resolving conflict on particular issues.
- *Imbizos*; interactive governance aimed at partnership between planners and stakeholders.
- Participatory appraisal/participatory learning and action; appropriate people
 and issue-centred research methodology, through which the concerned people
 conduct their own research in partnership with the researcher or official to get
 facts about a specific issue, so as to develop relevant solutions (Meyer & Theron
 2008:202:219).

Public participation in local government, "the level of government closest to the people", is a huge challenge in South Sudan, where no culture of public participation currently exists. Taking the notion of developmental local government (White Paper on Local Government, 1998; Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000), as a point of departure, Parnell, *et al.* (2002) views public participation as a strategic tool for local government to become "developmental" in orientation. Each government department needs to formulate a comprehensive public participation strategy (that does not contain statements and proposals that overlap and conflict with those of other departments) within the ideal of cooperative and integrated governance, sending a coherent message to their stakeholders, the public with which they will engage (Mogale 2003:215-242; Edigheji 2003:69-113; Habib & Kotze 2003:246-270).

2.3.7: Why does public participation work and why does it fail?

The international and grassroots realities for public participation are daunting (World Bank 1996a; IAP2 2000; Cooke & Kothari 2001; Hickey & Mohan 2004; Cornwall & Coelho 2007). There is thus a raging debate concerning the concept, strategies and felt benefits of the process (Meyer & Theron 2000; DEAT 2002; DWAF 2001); as well as the complicated legal requirements (DWAF 2001:10); and the principles on which public participation is constructed, which might promise more than what can be delivered/implemented (DWAF 2001:15; Francis 2002:400-407; Rahnema 1997:116-131). Theron (2008:100-123) shows, that, added to the opportunities for capacity building through public participation are often more challenges. The following are some of the challenges which emerge from philosophical, theoretical, strategic, managerial and policy issues;

- Clarifying, however irrelevant it may sound, the definition of what a "community" is or means (Chipkin, 1996:217-231; Liebenberg, & Theron 1997:28-41);
- Clarifying the confusion surrounding the concept of public participation (Theron 2008:100-123);
- Identifying the so-called "authentic" public, stakeholders, clients, concerned individuals, interested and affected parties, role players, lead authorities and proponents in the public participation debate and process (DEAT 2001:30-31; DWAF 2001:iv; Municipal System Act, 2000);
- Deciding at which levels (national, provincial or local government) public participation engagement and intervention will be consolidated (whose responsibility is it?);
- Identifying the role of IDP offices and officers as change agents (Theron 2008:1-22) in relation to public participation, pinpointing who is "in charge" of public participation;
- Compiling, at local government level, an interdisciplinary public participation team
 (possibly located in the IDP office) of local government change agents and
 stakeholders in the community who posses indigenous knowledge and people
 skills to collaboratively plan for public participation;

- Re-orientating the public, after many years of apartheid social engineering of functioning within a top-down, system maintaining, rigid culture of nonparticipation, to the opportunity to engineer their own destiny by making decisions which will affect their lives and empower them; and
- Re-training and re-orienting local government officials to become change agents,
 Theron (2008:1-22) and engaging with stakeholders/beneficiaries as mutual
 planning and implementing partners, assisting them to shift from a top-down
 planning approach (Theron 2008:232-233).

In summary, the foregoing sections pointed out that, although many people (particularly decision makers) are not comfortable with the idea of public participation, it offers valuable opportunities to rectify the inequality of past and current top-down, prescriptive development planning approaches and improves the chances of achieving sustainable development. The idealistic "feel good" idea behind public participation leads to an expectation that transformation in the socio-political system will take place. If and how public participation will work or fail has to do with agreement on its principles, as set out in the Manila Declaration (1998) or its core values, as identified in IAP2 (2000). Reality on the ground however tells a different story, in that development often fails because there are methodological and process differences between authentic public participation processes on one hand and informing, consulting, involving and engagement processes masquerading as public participation on the other.

All these concepts have different meanings and implications. How they are interpreted and applied will impact on the quality and outcome of public participation process (Davids et al 2005:132). Development cannot become sustainable unless the public participates in the conceptualisation, planning, implementation and monitoring of development programmes/projects. Although the principle of public participation is accepted as part of international, decentralised decision-making and democratisation processes, the culture of public participation has not yet been established in South Sudan, as the case may be with many other countries.

2.3.8: Advantages of integrated participatory planning

The following advantages of integrated participatory planning as adapted from Smith & Cronje (1992:91-92), can be identified:-

- Integrated Participatory Planning promotes cooperation between the various departments and individuals in an institution. If objectives are formulated clearly and suitable, plans are prepared, tasks and resources can be allocated so that everyone can contribute effectively to the achievement of the objectives.
- Integrated Participatory Planning gives direction to an institution in that it helps formulate objectives and shapes plans that indicate how to achieve the objectives.
- Integrated Participatory Planning forces managers to look to the future. This
 eliminates crisis management, since management has to anticipate threats in the
 environment and take steps in good time to avert them.
- The increasing complexity of public institutions and the interdependence of the different functional management areas, such as financing, where decisions are not be made in isolation, emphasises the necessity of Integrated Participatory planning.
- The constant change in the macro- and micro-environment is a factor which makes Integrated Participatory planning indispensable. Integrated Participatory Planning therefore encourages proactive management.

2.4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Mafunisa, (2003:86) defines public administration as the provision of goods and services to members of the public with the aid of administrative and auxiliary functions. Administrative functions include policy-making, organising, financing, personnel provision and utilisation, determination of work procedures and control. Auxiliary functions include research, public relations, record-keeping, providing legal services and decision making. In addition, Cameron defines administration as the neutral implementation of policy by bureaucrats in a non-partisan, technical fashion (Cameron,

2003:7). In support of Cameron's view, Thornhill (2005:180) asserts that, administration is primarily concerned with the establishment of an enabling framework for the performance of duties. Hence Dye (1987:324) writes that the term Public Administration has always meant the study of the public service. Public administrators need to be concerned with both theory and practice; hence practical considerations are at the forefront of the field, even though theory is the basis of best practices. Public administration is considered a science because knowledge is generated and evaluated according to the scientific method (Singelmann & Singelmann 1986).

According to Weber, in Fly & Negro (1996:37), a dichotomy exist between politics and administration, he argues that the role of political office bearers in a democratic local government is to give direction to policy and expression to common interest. The honour of political office bearers, Weber argues, lies in their personal and ethical responsibility for their actions. They take a stand and are passionate on political matters. This role is opposed to that of public servants (administrators) who are to engage only in the impartial administration of their offices. Weber further states, that the honour of administrators is vested in their ability to execute conscientiously the lawful orders of superior political authorities. Politics and administrative distinction has long been recogniszed by administrative theorists as an artificial one. The serious criticism came from Waldo, in The Administrative State of 1948. He argued that bureaucrats were becoming too loyal to the profession rather than the public (Cameron, 2003:56). For instance, if there is dichotomy, administrators will tend to concentrate on the separation between them and the politicians, whilst compromising service delivery. Hence, it is practically impossible for us to separate these two-complimentary phenomena. Implicitly, what makes the dichotomy artificial is the interface, which basically disgualifies the supposed divisibility of politics from administration.

It comes as no surprise that Cloete (1998:1) states that administration is found whenever two or more people take joint action to achieve an objective. Administration takes place wherever people work or play with a common goal in mind and, thus, it is found in all spheres of human activity where joint action is required to achieve a goal.

Administration does not take place in a vacuum and has its aim as the realisation of effective and efficient goals. Simon, Smithburg & Thompson (1968:4) describe administration as cooperative group action with emphasis, not only on the execution of any activity, but also on the choices describing how the activity was implemented.

2.5: POLICY AND LEGAL CONTEXT FOR INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOUTH SUDAN

The literature especially on the legislation gives the guidelines on how the local government integrated participatory planning should be conducted. The legislation emphasises the involvement of the citizens in the planning processes.

2.5.1: Legal framework;

The three tier system of governance in Southern Sudan is explicitly referred to in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA, 2005) and recognised in more detail in the Interim_Constitution of Southern Sudan (ICSS, 2011), which espouses decentralisation in the form of devolution, as the key principle of decentralised governance at the State and local government levels. In particular, Article 173 (1) of the Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan (ICSS, 2011) stipulates that the States are responsible for providing "structure, composition, finance and functions" of local governments.

The South Sudan: Local Government Act (2009), provides elaborations on the systems, powers and functions of local governments. Several provisions of the Local Government Act (2009) provide for requirements and procedures for planning and budgeting. Section 47 (1), sets out powers and functions of the Executive Council at the county level that is responsible for; undertaking the general planning and administration of the Local Government Council; providing services to the people; preparation of annual budget and reports to the Legislative Council; and exercise of powers and competencies are as specified in schedules I, II, III and IV of the South Sudan: Local Government Act of 2009.

Section 69 of the South Sudan: Local Government Act of 2009, provides for the principle of integrated participatory planning, which provides that: the preparation of the

Council plans shall be based on an integrated participatory approach, which encompasses the departmental plans of all the units of the Council; and that the Council plans shall be made up of annual, medium and long-term plans. Section 70, further provides for the establishment of the Council Planning Unit which shall be charged with the preparation of all service delivery and socio-economic development plans; and within its mandate plan for the provision of primary services, in conformity with the State and Government of South Sudan (GoSS) sectoral plans and policies.

Further to this, section 71 of the South Sudan: Local Government Act of 2009, sets out the functions and duties of the Planning Unit which include; Identification, analyzing and prioritization of the needs of the Council; preparation of the Council Plan and budget for approval by the Legislative Council; monitoring and supervising the implementation of the Council Plan and Budget; Coordinate and monitor the activities of all development partners in the implementation of the Council projects; and Performing any other functions and duties as may be assigned to it.

The foregoing legal provisions imply that; it is mandatory for all Counties to engage in integrated participatory planning and budgeting where the ministries are being represented by the department at the local government level (County). Integrated participatory planning in the above context imply different departmental planning as independent entities, but at the same time being merged at the end of the day into one single document before being approved by the County Legislative Council. It is also a legal requirement in Southern Sudan, that all local governments prepare plans and budgets. Local governments are responsible for the provision of basic services (primary health care, primary education, pre-school, agricultural extension, community-mobilisation for self-reliance activities, among others) through its sector departments. Local governments are required to employ participatory approaches in its planning processes and initiate, complete and implement the plan and budget. The State government is responsible for ensuring that the necessary structures are in place in local government for their functions to be performed. The State government is also

responsible for availing finances to their respective departments being replicated at the for local government level so as to enable them to deliver basic services to the people.

2.6: PERSPECTIVES ON INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (IDP): SOUTH AFRICA

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 establishes local government as a sphere of government for the purposes of promoting social and economic development at municipal-based jurisdictions. It provides specifically for developmental duties to be assumed by municipalities towards which end, as organs of the state, they must structure and manage their administrations, budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the communities, promote social and economic development of the communities and participate in national and provincial development programmes. The local government sphere plays a significant developmental role in the provision of public goods and services to the communities of South Africa. The effectiveness of municipalities in this sphere, to deliver on their mandate is largely dependent on their ability to plan and allocate public resources in a developmental and sustainable manner.

2.6.2: The mandate of local government in South Africa

The mandate of local government is to be found in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (the Constitution). Section 152 of the Constitution sets out the objects of local government which include, providing democratic and accountable government for local communities, ensuring the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner, promoting social and economic development and encouraging the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government. In addition, each municipality has a specific developmental role which includes structuring and managing its administration, and budgeting and planning processes to, inter alia, promote social and economic development of the community. The mandate for local government is further articulated in the preamble to the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998), which provides that:-

...there is fundamental agreement in our country on visions of democratic and developmental local government in which municipalities fulfill their constitutional obligations to ensure sustainable effective and efficient municipal services, promote social and economic development, encourage a safe and healthy environment by working with communities in creating environments and human settlements in which all our people can lead uplifted and dignified lives...

A set of fundamental public administration values and principles also underpin the activities of local government administration and management in South Africa. These values and principles are enshrined in section 195 (1) of the Constitution, 1996 to ensure the following:

- promoting and maintaining a high standard of professional ethics;
- promoting efficient, economic and effective use of resources;
- Development orientation;
- providing services in an impartial, fair, equitable manner and without bias;
- responding to people's needs and encouraging the public to participate in policymaking;
- ensuring public accountability;
- fostering transparency through the provision of timely, accessible and accurate information;
- cultivating good human-resource management and career-development practices to
- maximising human potential; and
- ensuring the broad representativity of the South African people, with employment and personnel practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past.

National, and (to a lesser extent) provincial government spheres set the overall strategic agenda (public policy) for local government administration and management in the country. However, the fact that the national government sets the overall mandate for municipalities does not imply that all councils will share a common vision.

Section 155(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa establishes three categories of municipalities (categories A, B and C), with a total of 278 municipalities subsequently demarcated for the whole of the country. Of these, 8 are metropolitan municipalities (Category A), 44 are district municipalities (Category C) and 226 are local municipalities (Category B). While metropolitan municipalities have exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority over their area of jurisdiction, Category C municipalities share their authority with Category B municipalities (*Local Government Municipal Systems Act* 32, 2000). Thus, a cluster of Category B municipalities, typically found in small towns and rural areas, makes up a Category C municipality. Section 151(1) of the constitution recognises a municipality's right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community and the importance of involving communities in matters of governance (Municipal Systems Act, 2000).

Section 155(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa establishes three categories of municipalities (categories A, B and C), with a total of 278 municipalities subsequently demarcated for the whole of the country. Of these, eight (8) are metropolitan municipalities (Category A), forty-four (44) are district municipalities (Category C) and two hundred and twenty-six (226) are local municipalities (Category B). While metropolitan municipalities have exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority over their area of jurisdiction, Category C municipalities share their authority with Category B municipalities (*Local Government Municipal Systems Act* 32, 2000). Thus, a cluster of Category B municipalities, typically found in small towns and rural areas, make up a Category C municipality. Section 151(1) of the constitution recognises a municipality's right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community and the importance of involving communities in matters of governance.

The circumstances pertaining in each of the 278 municipalities in South Africa undoubtedly differ, and variations therefore exist. A number of priority focus areas have been adopted by the national government as service delivery target areas (SALGA, 2004:29). These include: eradication of the bucket system; provision of basic water;

basic sanitation; housing; basic electrification; and roads and infrastructure. The successful attainment of the foregoing service delivery priorities is highly dependent on the ability of each individual municipality to strategically plan, budget and co-operate with other local municipalities, district municipalities, provinces and national government departments, as well as other institutions and organs of the state, whose activities have a bearing on the municipality. Therefore, the principles of co-operative government as well as intergovernmental relations are critical determinants for measuring the ability of a municipality to discharge its mandate.

2.6.3: Integrated development planning in South Africa

Integrated Development Planning is a process through which municipalities prepare a strategic development plan for a prescribed five year period. The Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is a product of the integrated development planning process. The IDP is therefore, a principal strategic planning instrument which guides and informs all planning, budgeting, management and decision-making in a municipality (DPLG, 1998/1999:6). The IDP adopted by a council is the principal strategic planning instrument which guides and informs all planning and development, and all decisions with regard to planning, management and development, in the municipality and *binds* the municipality in the exercise of its executive authority (Section 35 of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000). Furthermore in terms of section 36 of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000, a municipality is required to give effect to its IDP and conduct its affairs in a manner which is consistent with its IDP. Therefore, the IDP is a legal requirement that must be undertaken and adopted within the strict confines of the legal provisions, and it is a reportable matter in terms of accountability and compliance.

The IDP strives to set the overall strategic direction for a municipality. Legislation prescribes that every new council that comes into office after the local government elections has to prepare its own IDP which will guide them for the five years that they are in office. The IDP is therefore linked to the term of office of councilors. The new council has the option either to adopt the IDP of its predecessor, should it feel it appropriate to do so or develop a new IDP taking into consideration already existing planning documents (DPLG, 1998/1999:6). In terms of section 25 of the Local

Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000), a municipal council, must after the start of its elected term, adopt a single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality which links, integrates and co-ordinates plans and takes into account proposals for the development of the municipality, aligns the resources and capacity of the municipality with the implementation of the plan and forms the framework on which annual budgets must be based. Therefore, the vision of a Council is established through the IDP process, and the IDP is the document which depicts how, when and within whatever limits may prevail, the vision will be enacted.

2.6.4: Composition of IDP in Republic of South Africa (RSA)

The IDP articulates a council's vision for the long term developmental duties of the municipality. The significance of this is clear, as it serves to bind the council to a determined (and agreed) course of developmental action during its elected term of office. Furthermore, not only does this create the consensus required in the party political arena, but also enables the community to hold the council accountable for the attainment of the goals and targets set in the IDP. After all, the content of the IDP must represent consensus reached with the community through various community participation processes. The following rudiments can be distinguished from an IDP (Davids, 2005:167).

It sets the priorities and objectives for the Council's elected term, including local economic development; the process requires that the Council determine a set of objectives to be accomplished during the elected term of the Council. As indicated above priority areas require to be agreed upon. This therefore has a direct impact on the provision of appropriate resources through the budget process. It contains an assessment of the existing level of development in the municipal area including identification of communities which do not have access to basic municipal services. One of the key areas for a Council remains the provision of services. This entails the consideration and identification of the community's access to basic municipal services. Basic levels are set out in government policy.

The assessment, however, is necessary to develop a local flavour as not all municipalities have the same problems and circumstances differ from area to area. As an example, municipalities with large rural components (or entrenched levels of poverty or underdevelopment) have problems which differ markedly from municipalities with no rural components. As such the priority areas will inform but not dictate the objectives to be achieved. It contains a spatial development framework, including basic guidelines for land use management. The design of land management strategies is an important part of planning for the structured and orderly development of the municipal area. Without this structured geographical arrangement, social and economic development may be an illusion. It is a single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality. There can be only one IDP for the term of office of a Council, but revisions or reviews occasioned by developments within the municipality must be taken into account on an annual basis. These revisions should largely be informed by the performance reviews conducted. This implies that over the term of office of a Council there must be broad agreement over the content (objectives and strategies) to include in the IDP.

Over and above this, the IDP must be inclusive i.e. all sectors must be covered. This does not imply that all will receive equal attention (or funding), but merely that the strategic plan must take into account the impacts which particular strategies may have on other sectors. As an example, the building of houses must take into account the impact these estates will have on the electricity, wastewater and water networks as well as public transportation, not to mention those activities which do not form part of the municipal competencies such as medical and educational facilities. In additional, the plan must not focus solely on social activities, but must have a socio-economic bias in terms of establishing the required environment to promote economic development and employment opportunities within the municipal area. While the IDP may propose a micro focus on the locality of a municipality, it has to be aligned to the macro development perspectives of the district municipality, provincial and national governments.

It must link and integrate with all proposals for the development of the municipality. As set out above the IDP must focus on socio-economic principles to foster and promote business and employment opportunities within the local as well as adjoining municipal areas. The municipality must establish its unique comparative advantage within the broader regional, national and even global scope. The socio-economic sustainability of a municipality is also determined in this regard. It must be realistic and aligned with the resources and capacity of the municipality. As the Council is bound to implement its IDP, it will be obvious that the formulation of an unrealistic IDP would be counterproductive as the Council will then be seen to have attained little during its elected term of office (with fairly obvious consequences). This is perhaps the element which links most closely with the budget, as for the IDP to be realistic; it must be within the financial and operational performance capabilities of the municipality. The budget is in effect the tool through which the IDP is given form. Without the allocation of resources appropriate to the strategy, the strategy cannot be achieved. For this reason, section 9 (1) (a) of the Local Government: Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations, 2001 requires key performance indicators, including input, output and outcome indicators in respect of each of the development objectives set by a municipality. If the strategy is not attained, the objectives of the IDP and as a result the vision of the council cannot be attained. The converse is also true, namely that the expected outcomes in the IDP (and by reference the Council's vision) must be driven by the resources which can realistically be made available.

It establishes a framework (or plan) on which the longer term and annual budgets must be based. The IDP sets overall parameters for the construction of budgets (both short and medium term). The rationale for this is to ensure that the budget (operating and capital) supports the achievement of the objectives (strategies) set in the IDP. This assists in ensuring the attainment of the overall vision of the council. It serves to ensure that projects are linked to the attainment of the objectives set in the IDP. It must be noted here that the IDP sets the framework for the budgets and not vice versa. It contains operational strategies and a financial plan, which includes budget projections for at least the following three years (also referred to as the Medium Term Revenue and

Expenditure Framework). The IDP therefore sets the overall parameters for the construction of medium term budgets. The rationale for this is to ensure that the IDP is affordable and consistent with budgetary constraints. It serves to ensure that projects are linked to the attainment of the objectives set in the IDP. This assists in ensuring the attainment of the overall vision of the Council. Of crucial importance are the operational strategies, which by definition, must support the attainment of the objectives set in the IDP.

It sets key performance indicators and performance targets. It is important that tools or mechanisms exist to enable the Council (and the community) to determine to what extent the objectives set in the IDP have been achieved. The rationale behind the setting of performance indicators and targets is not to control the process as much as it is to evaluate the success (or failures) of the adopted strategy and so assist with the revision or review of the IDP. There is a need to define measurement sources and targets. This requires careful thought as measurements must be comparable year on year. If the source of measurement is not clearly defined, then data sets can be manipulated to give almost any desired output. It is submitted that this is pivotal point, as a mistake could result in the policy objectives and strategies being incorrectly stated. An illustration of the importance of this step may be likened to the sight on a rifle which, if just a fraction of a millimetre out of alignment, will result in a bullet missing a target at six hundred metres by more than ten metres.

The IDP sets out principles which require to be analysed into processes capable of implementation (strategies, plans and projects) for the purpose of achieving the objectives set in the IDP. A clear understanding of the requirements for the successful implementation of the IDP – legal, financial, human, economic, as well as technical is required. The resources to obtain this understanding can, by and large, be resourced internally from amongst the officials or it can be outsourced from professional service providers. Stakeholder participation including specialised government institutes, academic, non-governmental organisations, and expert service provider input are vital to garner information which is not apparent to officials or politicians. This enriches the process. Craythorne (1993: 62-64) is of the view that the- them issues should replace

the word needs. This view is supported as the multitude of conflicting interests evident in society cannot all be met, nor should they be met. The essence is to discern by analysising the true issues which if resolved through policy initiatives will have the most meaningful impact on society as a whole.

Over ambitious policy objectives and strategies should for this reason generally be avoided. Resources are finite and this is one of the reasons why input from pressure groups requires to be carefully dealt with. It is also an area where the realities of budget constraints must be considered. Implementation of policy is the ultimate goal. It is therefore submitted that an over ambitious policy or one which is not capable of proper implementation is counter-productive. The provision of adequate budget to achieve the objectives set in the IDP is therefore vital.

2.6.5: Community participation in the IDP

In general terms, perception exists that consultation is well performed in the municipal context. After all, there are public participation programmes such as IDP Representative Forum Meetings, Community IDP Hearings, *Izimbizos*, Ward Committees and various other community-based fora. However, the researcher's general observations indicate that the consultation process is often followed more for the sake of compliance than for its intended purpose. As an illustration, legislation requires that the community be involved in the setting of indicators and targets to measure the implementation of a Municipality's Integrated Development Plan. While an IDP Representative Forum meeting may be convened for this purpose, the indicators and targets would have already been formulated at management (official) level. As if this was not enough, the forum may only see the indicators and targets at the meeting and would not have time to consult with their constituencies (as required by legislation).

In a report on an internal audit of the Buffalo City Municipality Institutional Performance Management System – October 2006, it was stated that: Council has created the IDP, Budget Integration and Performance Management Representative Forum as a consultation tool (as required by legislation) but this forum has not been involved with the development of the Framework ..., the system itself ... or the Key Performance

Areas and targets. While the Institutional Scorecard was presented at this Forum, participation in the setting of targets was not apparent. From the foregoing discussions on the elements, it can be seen that the processes to compile an IDP are not always as thorough as may be wished for, resulting in a distortion of the budget process.

2.7: CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter provided a discussion of the literature related to this study, and the theoretical framework for participatory integrated planning. It provided the linkages between public participation in public service delivery and public administration, the forms of participation. The rights and responsibilities of the stakeholders in integrated participatory planning were also discussed. The chapter also discussed Integrated Development Plan (IDP) in the perspective of the Republic of South Africa, as a case study. The next chapter will provide an account of the research design and methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Chapter 1 provided a general introduction to the study in terms of background and rationale of the study, problem statement, research questions and objectives, clarification of concepts as well as an outline of the chapters in the study. Chapter 2 provided literature review on integrated participatory planning in a decentralised governance system, an in-depth understanding of the concept of integrated participatory planning, the theoretical and the legal frameworks for integrated participatory planning in South Sudan. Chapter three discusses the research design and methodology. Scope of the study, consisting of the survey area; target population and sample used all form part of the chapter. The chapter concludes by clarifying the data analysis techniques and by providing an insight of what will be covered in chapter (Chapter 4).

3.2: STUDY DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

The following section discusses the study design.

3.2.1: Study design

Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005:52) define research design as, "the plan according to which we obtain participants (subjects) and collect information from them". Kumar (2005:84) defines a research design as a strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions or problems. He further stated that a research design is adopted by the researcher to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically. Research design entails the plan by the researcher on what research instruments are to be used by the investigator, how data is going to be gathered and possibly how it will attempt to provide logical answers and solutions to the research problem. In this study the researcher used quantitative and qualitative methods.

3.2.2: Qualitative research method

According to Mouton & Marais (1992:156) qualitative approaches are those approaches in which the procedures are not strictly formalized, while the scope is more likely to be un-defined, and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted. The qualitative approach stems from the interpretative approach; it is ideographic and thus holistic in nature, and it aims mainly at understanding social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:1-2). Qualitative research method according to Backer (2007:70) is the non-numerical examination and interpretation of data for the purposes of discovering underlying meanings, patterns or relationship. The assumption is that reality is socially constructed.

Qualitative research assumes that there are intimate relationships between the researcher and the researched, leading to the point of departure where insider's perspectives on social action are considered. The main objective is to understand and give meaning to social actions. It involves identifying the participant's belief and values that underlie the phenomena under study. Qualitative research is therefore concerned with understanding rather than explanation; naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement; and the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider as opposed to the outsider perspective that is predominant in the quantitative paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:1-2).

Qualitative investigators are not only interested in the number of items or statements falling into each category, their major concern is usually in the variety of meanings, attitudes, and interpretations found within each category. Hence using this approach, information was collected through open-ended and closed ended question items on the self-administered questionnaires. This study therefore deemed the qualitative approach appropriate, since there was information or data that could not be quantified, but expressed only in words to describe social phenomenon.

3.2.3: Quantitative research method

Barbie (2010:71) describes quantitative research method as an inquiry into social or human problems based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory is valid. Creswell (1994:1-2), also defined quantitative study as an enquiry into social or human problems, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold the truth.

The distinction between quantitative research and qualitative research is that In quantitative research, the information obtained from the participants is expressed in numerical form, the number of items recalled, reaction times, or the numbers of aggressive acts are recorded whereas in qualitative research, the information obtained from participants is *not* expressed in numerical form. The emphasis is on the stated experiences of the participants and on the stated meanings they attach to themselves, to other people, and to their environment. In this research the researcher utilised questionnaires, in which closed-ended questions were computed and graphically analysed.

3.2.2: The questionnaire

According to Kumar (2005:126) a questionnaire is a method used for collecting data by means of written questions which calls for responses on the part of the respondent. De Vos, et al. (2005:89) also asserts that a questionnaire is an instrument with open or closed questions or statements to which respondent must react to, and is used in the quantitative research. In this study structured self-administered questionnaires will be designed by the researcher and completed by the respondents. The structured questions will consist of both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions will enable respondents to fully express their views freely and to give detailed and precise information. De Vos, et al. (2005:175) writes that closed-ended questions enable the respondents to understand the meaning of the questions better, questions are answered within the same framework and responses can consequently be compared with one another.

However, the researcher is also aware of the following disadvantages of questionnaires: the respondents might provide responses they thought would please the researcher and this might not reflect their true perceptions and attitudes, thus distorting the facts. Some

respondents may choose not to answer all questions and no reasons would be given for the omission. Valuable information might therefore be lost as the answers would be usually brief especially in close-ended questions (Kumar, 2005:130).

The structured interviews will contain a series of very specific questions that are to be read and interpreted to the respondents, along with a set of predetermined response categories. The reason of being interpreted is the high rate of illiteracy in the communities. No forms will be translated into home languages because there are too many local languages and the time for this research is relatively short. The questionnaires will be given to community members, County Legislative Councilors, planning and budgeting officials, heads of department and Payam Directors so as to find out on how they conduct integrated planning at their respective levels of government and how they relate with other line ministries.

3.3: STUDY POPULATION

According to Nkatini (2005:38) target population is the actual population that can be studied. Bless & Higson (1995:87) defines target population as a set of elements that the researcher focuses upon and to which results obtained by testing the sample should be generalised. Mouton (1996:34) also defines the study population as a collection of objects, events or individuals having some common characteristics that the researcher is interested in studying. The target population in this study consists of the Executive Director, Planning Officials, Heads of Departments, members of the County Legislative Council and community members.

Table 3.1
Summary of respondents sampled

		SAMPLE		
STATUS	POPULATION	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL
ED	1	1	0	1
D/ED	1	1	0	1
ILG	1	1	0	1
PD	5	5	0	5
HD	20	14	6	20
РО	7	5	2	7
MCLC	35	19	16	35
СМ	250	150	100	250
TOTAL	320	196	124	320

N = 320

ED: Executive Director

D/ED: Deputy Executive Director

PD: Payam Directors

HD: Heads of Departments

PO: Planning Officials

MCLC: Members of the County Legislative Council

CM: Community Members

3.3.2: Sampling procedures

Sampling is the method of selecting the observations (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:164). A sample is defined as a subset of the population observed in order to make inferences about the nature of the total population itself. According to Nkatini, (2005:38) sampling

should be understood as a technical counting or measuring device that is used to explain how specific information is selected and collected from which data will be drawn.

According to Babbie & Mouton (2001) the main purpose of sampling is to make generalisations to people and events that have not been observed. Probability sampling is a process that utilises some form of random selection; each unit is drawn with known probability or has a nonzero chance of being selected in the sample. Such samples are usually selected with the help of random numbers. In probability sampling, each element in the population has an equal and independent chance of selection in the sample (Kumar 2005:169). This implies that, probability of selection of each element in the population is the same, and the choice of an element in the sample is not influenced by other considerations such as personal preference.

Non-probability sampling is any sampling method where some elements of the population have no chance of selection (these are sometimes referred to as 'out of coverage and under covered'), or where the probability of selection cannot be accurately determined. It involves the selection of elements based on assumptions regarding the population of interest, which forms the criteria for selection. Hence, because the selection of elements is non-random, non-probability sampling does not allow the estimation of sampling errors. Non-probability sampling suggests that chances of all elements to be included in the sample are not even and are unknown (Bless & Higson, 2002:87). In this research non-probability sampling techniques will be used, specifically, purposive/judgmental sampling and snowball sampling.

3.3.2.1 : Snowball sampling

Adams (1991:166) writes that snowball sampling may be defined as obtaining a sample by having initially identified subjects who can refer the investigator to other subjects with like or similar characteristic. Hence, De Vos Strydom, *et al.* (2005:85) are of the opinion that snowball sampling involves the approaching of a single case that is involved in the phenomenon to be investigated in order to gain information on other similar persons. In this study the Executive Director was used by the researcher as a single case and it is

through the Deputy Executive Director that other respondents made up the sample were identified.

3.3.2.2 : Purposive/Judgmental Sampling

Purposive sampling is the type of sampling that is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher, in that a sample is composed of the elements that contain the most characteristics, representative or typical attributes of the population (Singleton, *et al.* 1988:104). Researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity and previous research findings to deliberately obtain participants in such a manner that the sample obtained may be regarded as representative of the relevant population. Adams (1991:164) points out that purposive sampling is a procedure based on cases, individuals or communities judged as being appropriate or very informative for the purpose of the research underway. Cases are handpicked to achieve some specific characteristics that will illuminate the purpose of the study. Purposive sampling is the type of a non–probability sampling in which researchers select a sample with a purpose in mind.

Nel (2001:345) clarifies this point by arguing that, sampling procedures must be designed so that samples of the actual population are collected accurately and consistently and reflect the concentrations of the population at the place and time of research. Thus the objective of choosing a sampling procedure is to select a sample that is representative of the population from which they are drawn. The researcher intends to use purposive sampling because; the selected respondents from Yei River County were considered to be appropriately informed to provide the researcher with the required and relevant information that would seek to solve the problem identified. Questionnaires will be administered to the residents within Yei town and to those outside the town as part of the study.

Generally the larger the sample, the more accurate the estimate becomes. As alluded to earlier, the sample for this study consists of the Executive Director, the Deputy Executive director, the Inspector of Local Government, Heads of Departments, Planning

Officials, *Payam* Directors, Members of the County Legislative Council and the community members, as summarized in Table, 3.1.

3.4: ENSURING INSTRUMENT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Babbie writes, "Validity refers to the extent to which we think an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration" (1990:133). In this study, the researcher paid attention to ensuring that the data collection instruments adequately reflected the focus of the study "Integrated Participatory Planning in a decentralised system of governance in Yei River County, South Sudan. In the social sciences there are two approaches to establishing the validity of a research instrument: through logic and statistical evidence (Kumar 2005:154). Establishing validity through logic implies justification of each question in relation to the objectives of the study, where as the statistical procedure provides hard evidence by way of calculating the coefficient of the correlations between the questions and the outcome variables.

According to Kumar (2005:154), validity consists of two components; internal and external validity and for the results of an experiment to be trustworthy, the experiment should have a high degree of both internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to the extent to which casual conclusions can be drawn and where there is a high degree of internal validity, it means there was sufficient control over variables other than the treatment (Terre Blanches & Durrein 2004). The researcher was aware that there exists threats to internal validity (Campbell &Stanley, 1963) which include; history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, biased selection of subjects and experimental mortality as such, care was taken in dealing with the above situations in order to minimise their effect on the study. External validity on the other hand refers to the degree to which results can be generalised to events outside the experiment that is the findings should not only be true in similar experiments, but also in real life.

To ensure reliability the researcher clearly conceptualised all constructs, thus developing clear theoretical definition of public participation as well as integrated participatory planning. Public participation was theoretically defined. The use of multiple indicators of a variable was also used as procedure to ensure reliability of an instrument

and this was done by using two or more questions in a questionnaire to measure each aspect of public participation. Questions were also used to determine the extent to which public participation avenues were being used by different stakeholders from both the community and the county administration in the integrated participatory planning process and beyond.

3.5: PRE-TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire pretesting can generally be defined as testing a set of questions or the questionnaire on the members of the target population. De Vos, et al. (2005:163) argues that pre-tests are used to increase the reliability of an instrument. Blumber, et al. (2011:414) states that pre-testing is the final step towards improving survey results is. They further argue that, pretesting is meant to improve participant interest, revise the meaning of previous researches, and transform questions, show continuity and flow of questions and to gauge length and time of questionnaires or interviews, especially operating on a minimum budget for the research. De Vos, et al. (2005:163) further argue that pre-tests are used to increase the reliability of an instrument. In this study, the questionnaire was sent to an external expert to study and identify any irrelevant constructs on the questionnaire. The feedback from expert was used to strengthen the reliability of the questionnaire as a data collecting instrument. The researcher could not embark on participant pre-testing where the questionnaire could be filled by sample participants or participant surrogates because of lack of ample time but instead sent out the questionnaire for review by an expert and some few were filled in by master's class colleagues to determine error.

3.6: ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Hussey, (1997:35) "it is difficult to conduct much research at all without running into ethical arguments (Coalican,1992:249), One has to consider a number of different issues and find out what rules there may be for conducting research at an early stage". Any research that involves people must show an awareness of the ethical considerations and an agreement to conduct the research in accordance with ethical procedures (Bak, 2004:28). In this study, the ethical issues which will strictly be

observed and adhered to are; confidentiality, informed consent, voluntary participation and avoidance of harm.

3.6.1: Confidentiality

Welman, et al. (2005:181) states that the principles underlining research ethics are universal and they concern issues such as honesty and respect for the rights of individuals. Laws and statutes are in place to protect the privacy of participants and to ensure that the information is released only when necessary. Participants in this study were guaranteed of confidentiality, no identifying information was disclosed in any part of the study. Thus the respondent's rights to privacy were protected by means of confidentiality.

3.6.2: Informed consent

De Vos, et al. (2005:60) acknowledges that informed consent ensures the full knowledge and co-operation of subjects. Parties to the research should be briefed about the risks, if any, of being a part of the research. A researcher can also pronounce the benefits of the research, but however he/she should not do it in the manner that smacks of bribery. Subjects to an investigation must not be deprived of their right to knowledge and information about the investigation they are going to take part in. Thus, in this study respondents were fully informed about the study, its aims and purpose. The respondents were also informed about their choice to decline participation and to withdraw from the study at anytime.

3.6.3. Voluntary Participation

No one should ever be forced into participating in research projects because the process has to be voluntary. However Babbie & Mouton (2002:521) maintain that though the norm of voluntary participation is important it is often impossible to follow it, this comes in the face of some compelling situations where by if a researcher seeks the voluntary participation of subjects it might compromise the information collected and thus effectively it will nullify the findings. In this study the respondents were not be coerced into participating as participation was to be voluntary. This allowed the researcher to collect data from the respondents who were willing to contribute to the

topic under investigation, integrated participatory planning in a decentralised governance system in Yei River County, South Sudan.

3.6.4: Avoidance of harm

Babbie (2007:28) states that avoidance of harm is a fundamental rule of research. Harm can either be physical or emotional and emotional harm is difficult to determine and to predict its occurrence. Bryman & Bell (2003:542) are of the opinion that one of the problems with the harm-to-participants is that it is not possible to identify in all circumstances whether harm is likely, though that point should not be taken to mean there is no point in seeking to protect participants. The researcher has to be careful in examining whether the involvement of subjects is likely to harm them in anyway. If there is a possibility of harm, the researcher has to see to it that it is minimised. According to Kumar (2005:214), minimum risk means that the extent of harm/discomfort in the study is not greater than that which is ordinarily encountered in daily life. It is imperative for a researcher to inform the respondents if there are any prospects of the occurrence of harm. To this end measures aimed at minimising the risk of harm were undertaken. In this study harm was e minimised by avoiding the violation of the rights to which every respondent is entitled. Respondents were informed beforehand about the potential impact of the investigation and this offered the respondents an opportunity to withdraw from the investigation if they wished to do so.

3.7: DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Data analysis helps establish how participants make meaning of a specific phenomenon by analysing their perceptions, attitudes, understanding, knowledge, values, feelings and experiences in an attempt to approximate their construction of the phenomenon (Maree, 2010:99). Data analysis is a practice in which raw data is ordered and organized so that useful information can be extracted from it. The process of organizing and thinking about data is key to understanding what the data does and does not contain. There are a variety of ways in which researchers can approach data analysis, and it is notoriously easy to manipulate data during the analysis phase to push certain conclusions or agendas. For this reason, it is important to pay attention when data analysis is presented, and to think critically about the data and whether the conclusions

which are drawn are reliable. The most satisfactory approach is to see whether the findings obtained from a qualitative analysis can be replicated. This can be done by comparing the findings from an interview study with those from an observational study.

Data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively using different ways to interpret this data in relation to the research design used where content analysis was used to analyse the data. According to De Vos, *et al.* (2005:218) data analysis in the quantitative research design does not in itself provide the answers to research questions. However the answers are found by way of interpretation of the data and the results. Statistics were used to describe some characteristics of a sample group, but also to test for similarity or differences between groups, (De Vos, *et al.* 2005:218). Kumar (2005:245) argues that statistical measures such as percentages, means, standard deviations and coefficients of correlations can reduce the volume of data, making it easier to understand.

Therefore, and to this end, in this study text, tabular and graphic presentations were used to present data. Graphical presentations were informed by the fact that it made it easier to see the pertinent features of a set of data and graphs could be constructed for every type of data, that is, qualitative or quantitative. The qualitative data from interviews and secondary documents were analyzed. Tables and Graphs were thus used in this study because they presented data in a way that was easy to understand and interpret. The graphs showing the frequency of responses from the respondents on quantitative data collected. Themes were also used on qualitative data to show the major recurring issues raised by respondents.

3.8: CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter provided an account of the methodology used in the study. Both quantitative and qualitative methods used were discussed. The chapter described the sampling procedures and data collection techniques used. Ethical issues to be observed described, were also explained and justified. The chapter pointed out how the qualitative data from interviews and secondary documents was to be analysed. It

explained that, the quantitative data analysis technique to be used was to be the frequency distribution and percentages, which were used to determine the percentages of respondents choosing the various responses. The next chapter will present analyse and discuss the data collected using the methodology described in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The first chapter introduced the study, its background and context, the research problem, the research questions, research objectives and the significance of evaluating integrated participatory planning in a decentralised governance system: the case of Yei River County, South Sudan. Chapter one concluded by delimiting the study and clarifying concepts by defining them within the context of this study. The second chapter focused on literature review on integrated participatory planning in local government, an in-depth understanding of the concept of participation, the theoretical and the legal frameworks for integrated participatory planning in Yei River County. The third chapter provided an account of the research design and methodology used in this study. It explained and motivated quantitative and qualitative methodologies used in the study. The sampling procedures as well as data collection techniques were also explained and described. The chapter, further described, explained and justified ethical issues to be observed in the course of this study. In other words the research design and methodology made it possible to collect empirical data.

This chapter seeks to process collected data into an acceptable form, that is to say, the chapter analyses, interprets and discusses the data which was collected using the research design and methodology described in chapter three. Data analysis is thus a process of interpreting and making sense of what respondents would have said about the topic under investigation. Data analysis is also the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. In this chapter, both qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods were used. The data was analysed and interpreted at the same time. In this study the coding procedure was used to reduce the information into different themes.

4.2: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

After a researcher had conducted experiments and/or surveys, the information he/she is left with is known as quantitative data. This type of information is measurable and focuses on numerical values, unlike qualitative data which is more descriptive. Once the quantitative data is collected, the researcher performs an analysis of the findings.

Chapter three (3) indicated that self administered questionnaires were distributed to respondents in Yei River County. The respondents consisted of the Executive Director, the Deputy Executive Director, and the Heads of Departments, Planning Officials, Payam Directors, Members of the County Legislative Council and Community members. The selected respondents were used by the researcher to represent the larger population. Not all respondents returned their filled questionnaires. The response rate of the questionnaires distributed and received can be shown in table 4.1 below:

Table, 4.1

Questionnaires distributed and received

Questionnaire	Distributed	Received	Response Rate (%)
One	35	21	60%
Two	250	183	73%
Three	35	22	63%
Total	320	226	65%

It can be deduced from the above table that, the response rate for questionnaire one (1) was sixty percent (60%). Questionnaire two (2) had a response rate of seventy three percent (73%) and questionnaire three (3) had a response rate of sixty three percent (63%). This indicates that out of a total number of three hundred and twenty (320) respondents used in this study, two hundred and twenty six (226) respondents returned

their completed questionnaires. This signifies a total response rate of sixty-five percent (65%). According to Bailey (1982:165) a response figure of at least fifty percent (50%) should be sufficient for analysis of the data, a figure of sixty percent (60%) can be seen as "good" and a figure of seventy percent (70%) can be seen as "very good". It is clear from the above (Table, 4.1), that the research had a good response rate for further interpretation.

4.3: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF THE RESPONDENTS

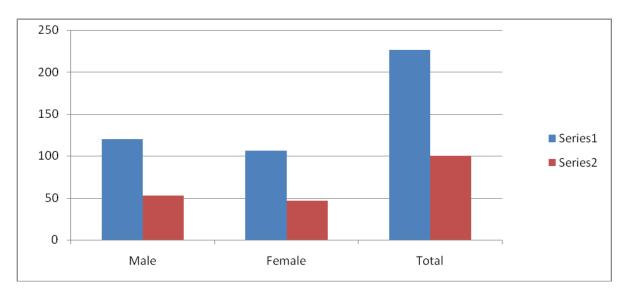
The following diagrams show the gender, age, marital status, highest qualification and status in the community of the respondents.

4.3.1: Gender Distribution.

The respondents used by the researcher consisted of both males and females. Within the respondents that returned their filled questionnaires, one hundred and six (106) respondents were female and one hundred and twenty (120) were male. This then translates to forty seven (47%) female respondents and fifty-three percent (53%) male respondents sampled in Yei River County. It is clear from the above that the researcher was gender diversity sensitive in his data collection. The gender composition of the respondents is represented graphically as shown in figure 4.1.

Figure, 4.1

Gender Distribution

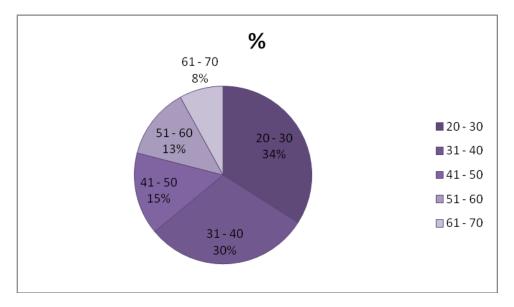


4.3.2. Age Distribution

The age of the respondents indicates that they were all mature, with the highest age range being 61-70 and 20-30 being the lowest age range, in the age distribution. Thirty-four percent (34%) of the respondents had ages that ranged from 20-30, thirty percent (30%) had ages which ranged from 31-40, fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents had ages ranging from 41-50, and thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents had ages ranging 51-60 and only eight percent (08%) of the respondents' ages ranged from 61-70. The age distribution of these respondents is represented graphically as shown on figure 4.2.

Figure, 4.2

Age Distribution



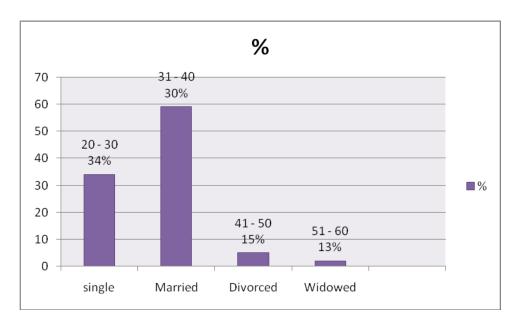
4.3.3. Marital Status

Fifty-one respondents (51) out of two hundred thirty-one respondents indicated that they were single. This then translates to a total of twenty two percent (22%). One hundred and fifty-four respondents (154) indicated that, they were married and this translates to sixty-seven percent (67%) of the total respondents. Seventeen (17) respondents, comprising of seven percent (7%) of the respondents, indicated that they were divorced and only nine (9) of the respondents, which as a percentage translates to four percent

(4%) revealed that they were widowed. The marital status of the respondents can be represented graphically as shown in figure 4.3.

Figure, 4.3

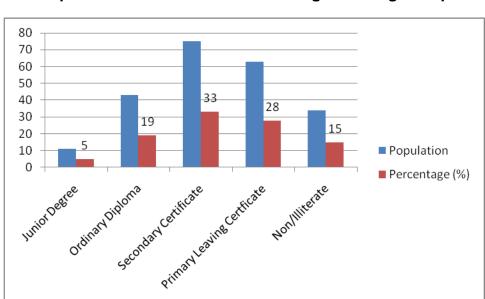
Marital Status



4.3.4. Educational Qualifications

The education levels of the respondents ranged from junior degree to people who have not stepped in any classroom (illiterate). Eleven (11) of the respondents had junior degrees, forty three (43) had ordinary diplomas, seventy-five (75) had secondary education certificates, sixty three (63) had primary leaving certificates and thirty four (34) had no schooling (were illiterate). This indicates that five percent (5%) had junior degrees, nineteen percent (19%) had ordinary diplomas, thirty-three percent (33%) had secondary certificates, twenty-eight percent (28%) had primary leaving certificates and fifteen percent (15%), had no schooling at all (were illiterate). It was not surprising to note that an ordinary degree was the highest qualification obtained by the respondents sampled. This could be attributed to the more than twenty (20) years of war between the SPLM/A (which later formed the South Sudan, Juba government) and the Sudan in Khartoum. This indicates that the majority of the sampled respondents were not highly

qualified academically. The educational qualifications of the respondents can be graphically presented as shown in figure 4.4 below:



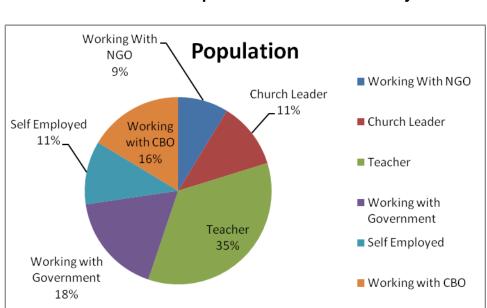
Figure, 4.4

Educational qualification distribution according to the highest qualification

4.3.5: Status in the Community

The respondents used in this study were from different professions/occupations which included church leaders, teachers, people working with the government, people working with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and those self employed. The church leaders who responded to the questionnaire were twenty one (21), which translates to eleven percent (11%) of the respondents. Sixty-four (64) respondents were teachers; representing thirty-five percent (35%) of the respondents. Thirty two (32) respondents were people working with the government, which comprises of eighteen percent (18%) of the respondents being public officials.. Twenty (20) respondents were people who were self-employed, representing eleven percent (11%) of the respondents. Only sixteen (16) respondents were people working with NGOs, representing nine percent (9%) of the respondents. Thirty (30) respondents were people working with Community Based Organizations (CBO), representing sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents.

This shows that even though the highest number was from the people working with the government, mixed occupations/professional groups were used in this study. The status of the respondents in the community can be graphically represented as shown in figure 4.5.



Figure, 4.5

Status of the respondents in the Community

4.4: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The qualitative approach stems from the interpretative approach, it is ideographic and thus holistic in nature, and aims mainly to understand social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:1-2). In its broad sense it refers to research that elicits participants' accounts of meaning, experiences or perceptions. The qualitative research is therefore concerned with understanding rather than explanation and it is embedded in naturalistic observation, rather than controlled measurement.

This section of the analysis outlines the views of the Local Government officials represented by the Executive Director, the Deputy Executive Directors, Payam Directors, Planning Officials, Heads of Departments, Community representatives and the County legislative Council members. The respondents within the above stated

categories had the same set of questions and their responses were coded and categorised into themes.

4.5: ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

In the community biographical data, the researcher had intended to triangulate the responses from the respondents by pausing questions with predetermined answers in order to test the validity and reliability of the responses. The following paragraphs will be presenting the responses and the analysis.

To the planning and budgeting officials of Yei River County, the interview questions were meant to find out if the officials and head of departments of the County conducted integrated participatory planning with the departments that existed in Yei River County and at Payam levels. Their responses revealed that the planning and budgeting officials, the Heads of Departments and the Payam Directors met with the community once in a year to develop an annual integrated plan and at the same time, budgeting for the next budget cycle (coming/next year at the same time). Respondents pointed out that, there were instances, when Senior Managers of the County (that is the County Commissioner who heads the political office and the Executive Director who is the Chief Finance Accounting Officer/Senior Civil servant) would organise rallies, to generally brief the communities on what has been planned and accomplished which had very little to do with or impact on the integrated participatory planning process.

The County planning officials responsible for championing the integrated participatory planning indicated that in some of their participatory planning processes, the attendance was usually poor. This was witnessed by the researcher when he attended the annual planning and budgeting session where out of forty-five participants invited, only twenty seven attended, but that would not stop the process from continuing. The questions to the County Legislative Councilors sought to find out how often they convened meetings in their Bomas? The respondents indicated that indicated that, they have not been convening meetings at the Boma (grass root/village level), since they were elected six This was also echoed by some respondents, from respondents at the years back. who with community, when asked about their relationship the County

Executives/officials concerning, County integrated planning processes, they responded that they did meet in meetings. However, findings tended to suggest that, they do wait until when the County Executives/officials have decided and called for the next planning cycle.

Contrary to the above, the researcher wanted the members of the community to express their understanding of how integrated participatory planning was conducted. The researcher concluded that, most communities do not know about the existence of the County integrated Participatory Development Plan, but at least the communities in Yei Town showed some knowledge and understanding of the process leading to the preparation of the integrated participatory planning, but emphasised that the time taken is often not enough. Some communities did not know the process of integrated participatory planning, to enable them to determine the services to be delivered to them, when and what level of services are to be delivered by Yei River County to them.

There were counter accusations, between the County Legislative Councilors, the Executives and the communities. The community accused the councilors of not disseminating to them information and the absence of feedback from the councilors, on development issues, which since the councilors were elected six years ago. The councilors counter-accused the County Executives of not cooperating with them, and of under-rating their authority. They further accused the executives of non service delivery to the communities in Yei River County, whereas the executives accused the councilors of inexperience and inability to formulate proper policies. Respondents further revealed that the councilors deserved to be trained on their roles and responsibilities, if they were to function as a policy formulating body. This was supported by the view that since the Medium Term (three years plan), was submitted to the County Legislative Council, seven months ago, it has not been deliberated upon by the council and thus not passed into a legal working document. The councilors revealed that they were made to beg for spaces to exercise their roles; from the County executives and that their roles and exercise of those roles depended to a large extent on the mood of the executive officials. Other responses from some communities were that they were made to know of the developments in Yei River County by some Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs), who had the chance and opportunity of attending the integrated participatory planning meetings, through workshops.

The Heads of Departments representing the various ministries like; Education, Health, Agriculture, Public Works and others, indicated that the framework for integrated participatory planning was not followed by the planning officials. On the contrary though, the planning officials indicated that they were constrained by finances in following the integrated participatory planning framework. Some respondents from departments in Yei River County further stated that they were getting little or even sometimes no financial support from the County Chief Accounting Officer (Executive Director), in their endeavour to deliver services required by the communities. Furthermore, they also indicated that their mother ministry offices do not provide them with any other finances, other than salaries. The office of the Executive Director indicated that it was overstressed to cater for all departments, including the army and other organised forces, given the meager taxes they collected from the citizens. This office further confirmed that most plans remained on paper as; they do not have enough finances to activate policy implementation.

4.6: CONCLUDING REMARKS

The chapter presented and analysed the data that was collected from the Local Government officials represented by the Executive Director, the Deputy Executive Directors, Payam Directors, Planning Officials and Heads of Departments. The County legislative Council members as the stakeholders representing the citizens were also respondents in the study. The study used both quantitative and qualitative data. Coding enabled data to be reduced into different themes. Data was presented in graphs and interpreted; the researcher used graphical analysis for purposes of displaying numerical data. The main objective for this was to present data in a way that was easy to understand and interpret. The results suggested that integrated participatory planning needed to be improved to promote effective service delivery to the public. The next

chapter summarises and concludes the study and proposes recommendations that Yei River County may need to consider so as improving integrated participatory planning for effective service delivery.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1: INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Chapter four focused on data presentation, analysis, and discussion collected using questionnaires from local government officials represented by the Executive Director, the Deputy Executive Directors, Payam Directors, Planning Officials, Heads of Departments, community members and the County legislative Council members, as the stakeholders representing the communities. This chapter summarises the study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations for the improvement of integrated participatory planning in Yei River County, South Sudan.

5.2 SUMMARY

The mini-dissertation consists of five chapters:

Chapter one introduced the study, its background and context, the research problem, the research questions, research objectives and the significance of the study, aims and objectives, delimitation as well as the definitions of key terms. The objectives of the study were to; to assess the existing integrated participatory planning practices in Yei River County, to examine and evaluate how the existing integrated participatory planning practices influence service delivery in Yei River County and to identify the barriers to effective integrated participatory planning in Yei River County and advance recommendations for improvement. As South Sudan is a new nation, emerging from a long conflict and war, the main issue of discontent to the community members has been service delivery. Local government has so far been unable to deliver services to the residents, to meet people's high expectations, following the declaration of independence on the 9th of July 2011, so this research sought to investigate the nature and extent of public participation in local government integrated participatory planning in Yei River County.

Chapter two discussed the conceptual and theoretical framework for integrated participatory planning. The chapter further elaborated on the link between public participation and service delivery, why public participation is important in local government service delivery, the principles of public participation, the core values for the practice of public participation, the typologies of public participation and the strategies to adopt for successful public participation at the grassroots level. The chapter went further to discuss and explain the different levels, advantages and disadvantages, methods and the policy and legal context of integrated participatory planning in South Sudan. Chapter further examined literature on integrated development planning in South Africa, as a case study.

Chapter three outlined the research design and methodology. It clarified the scope of the study, consisting of the survey area; target population and sample used. In the chapter, the data collection instruments were also described and it concluded by clarifying the data analysis techniques. Ethical issues which were observed were also explained and described.

In chapter four, an account of the research methodology used in this study was provided. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used (triangulation). The chapter further described the sampling procedures used, which were snowball and purposeful/judgmental sampling techniques, which fall under the non-probability sampling design. In this study, open ended and closed ended questionnaires were used as data collection tools. Ethical issues were observed, highlighted and justified. Data analysis techniques were also discussed and motivated.

Chapter, (5) focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the research data, which was collected using the methodology described in chapter, 4. In this chapter, the results and discussions of the data analysis used to test respondents' perceptions on integrated participatory planning were presented. Close-ended questions were further used to test perceptions of respondents on the consideration of public interests and decisions in integrated participatory planning. Open-ended questions were also used to test respondents' perceptions on extent of accessibility of public participation in the integrated planning. From the analysis on integrated participatory planning in Yei River

County, a number of findings emanate from this study and these can be summarised as follows:

5.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The study findings are summarised in the following sections, as follows:

Legal framework guiding integrated participatory planning

The study established that the Republic of South Sudan, has shifted from a centralised system of governance to a decentralised system of governance and this led to the development of various legal enactments, that promote public participation in integrated participatory planning at the local government level. Examples of such laws include; the South Sudan Local Government Act 2009 and the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan 2011. Through these legal enactments focus has been directed towards social and economic development at the local government level. The South Sudan Local Government planning guidelines (2009) provide further detail as to how to conduct integrated participatory planning, at the local level of government.

• Public participation as an integral part of integrated participatory Planning

From the literature study and empirical study in Yei River County, it is evident that public participation is an integral part of the integrated participatory planning. Suitable public participation strategies in integrated planning are important to local communities, local government officials in Yei River County and the community stakeholders. There is therefore a dire need to prioritise public participation, as a tool that promotes service delivery. It was also established that in 2012, local government officials worked together, with the support of a Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) to improve the participation of the communities in their planning process.

Public participation mechanisms used in Yei River County

The results obtained indicate that there are limited public participation opportunities as well as strategies used in Yei River County, to promote integrated participatory planning. The most common methods used were, consultative meetings and workshops, however these were mostly being conducted once a year, as reflected in available documentary evidence. Yei River County however, has other useful

mechanisms such as conducting community meetings at the Boma level with the stakeholders, having radio talk-show on the existing three F.M stations, using the councillors to communicate with the community that could improve input from the public, but these were not being utilised, which is worrying.

Consideration of community interests and decisions

The results further show that, Yei River County local government officials do not consider public decisions and interests, in promoting integrated participatory planning. Communities are not being taken as useful partners in establishing development strategies, which is important and beneficial to both parties. This results in an increase in blaming each other, which promotes distrust of local government officials in Yei River County by local communities. This partly explains why the County Commissioner, for Yei River County appointed in 2010 by the State Governor of Central Equatoria State, was removed virtually after spending a year in office. It is thus worrying and disturbing to note that public decisions were not being considered, in integrated development planning, which critically becomes a matter of concern, which needs to be urgently addressed in Yei River County.

• Financing of the integrated participatory development plans.

The researcher noted the general complains presented by the Heads of Department in Yei River County, which prominently feature among them, lack of finances to fund their plans. Respondents attributed this to the local government officials and finance department which was reluctant to support local government development initiatives financially. This was viewed as an anomaly, given that the mother ministries also did not send financial support to enhance the implementation of their development plans. This tends to explain why most of the integrated participatory plans, remained on paper, with very little implementation taking place.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made for Yei River County (YRC) to assist in improving public participation in integrated participatory planning;

- The Yei River County local government officials, Head of Departments and the Legislative Councillors, must be encouraged to utilise all available public participation mechanisms to ensure optimum public input and contribution in the integrated participatory planning process. This will promote the notion of people centred development at the grassroots. When public input is nurtured and harnessed, blames and mistrust are minimised, as a result of mutual development initiatives which ensure collaboration between Yei River County officials, the Legislative Council and local communities. Mechanisms such as interest groups, public notice boards, consultative meetings, and drop-in centres can further be fully utilised, so as to gain as much contributions and public input as possible from the residents.
- Yei River County should function within the various legal enactments that have been established by the government, in order to transform communities through their participation in integrated planning processes. This will legitimise the services being rendered and promote the sense of ownership among the communities
- Yei River County must strive to consider public interests and decisions to a large extent by increasing interaction between the Legislative Councillor's officials, local government officials and the public in general. This will minimise suspicion and mistrust among the different stakeholder groups in integrated participatory planning.
- The planning structures as provided by law must be established and strengthened at the County, Payam and Boma levels, so as to increase their contribution and impact in championing public participation. This can be done by

increasing capacity and human resources in the planning department in Yei River County.

- The local government officials need to streamline their budgeting, so as to strategically direct the spending of public money towards the delivery of public goods and services, rather than on operation costs as this affects the implementation of the integrated participatory plans.
- To achieve meaningful public participation, it is important that the County administration and its development partners respect and develop the capacity of the community, so that the communities will be able to demand accountability and monitor it, more so in terms of the delivery of services at the local government level.
- The Yei River County officials and its development partners should initiates in the training of the Legislative Councillors, especially on matters relating to their roles, responsibilities and obligations, as envisage in various enabling local government legislative frameworks, so as to improve their performance.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter summarised the study, drew conclusions and made recommendations for the success of integrated participatory planning in Yei River County, in South Sudan. The main findings of the study were that public participation is an integral part in promoting integrated participatory planning. Public meetings and workshops were also identified as the main public participation strategies and mechanisms being used by Yei River County. It was also found that public decisions and interests were not being considered and it was most worrying to find out that this was not being done. The main recommendations made were that; Yei River County should function within the available legal enactments that have been established by government to ensure effective service delivery to the communities through public participation in the integrated participatory planning process. Human resources at the Department of Planning must also be further capacited and planning structures must be introduced and fully utilised at the lower levels, such as at the Payam and Boma. The use of all available public participation mechanisms has to endeavour to encourage partnerships between the councilors, local government officials and community, so as to promote integrated participatory planning. The study thus strongly urges that local government considers public interests and decisions so as to reduce conflicts, and mistrust between the public and Yei River County officials.

REFERENCES

Ambert, C. 2000. Participatory processes for municipal planning in post-apartheid South Africa. University of Witwatersrand. Available at: http://www.wits.ac.za/urbanfutures/papers/ambert.htm.

Arnstein, S., R. 1969. A ladder of citizen participation. Vol. 35(4), pp. 216-224.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2002. *The Practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Backer, L. 2007. Research Methods for Public Administrators. Longman Inc: New York.

Barbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2001. *The Practice of Social Research*. Oxford University Press: Cape Town.

Barbie, E. 2010. *The practice of Social Research.* Oxford University Press: Cape Town.

Bak, N. 2004. Completing Your Thesis: A Practical Guide. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Barnard, D. & Terreblanche, Y. (Eds). 2000. *The South African development directory,* Pretoria: Programme for Development Research: HSRC.

Bayat, M.S & Meyer, I.H. 1994. *Public Administration:concepts, Theory and Practice.* Halfway House. Southern Book Publishers

Berner, M. 2001. Citizen Participation in Local Government Budgeting. *Popular Government Spring*, 8(3), pp. 23-30.

Bless, C. & Higson, S. 2002. Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective, Landsdowne: Juta.

Bless, C. & Higson, S. 1995. Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective. Juta: Lansdowne.

Buffalo City Municipality, 2006. Internal Audit Report: Institutional Performance Management System. East London: Buffalo City Municipality.

Brynard, P.A 1996. 'Realities of Citizen Participation', in Bekker, K (ed). Participation in Local Government, Pretoria: JL van Schaik Publishers.

Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2003. *Business Research Methods*. (1st ed), Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Cameron, R. 2003. Politics-administrative Interface: The Case of the City of Cape Town. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*. 69 (3):

Cannell, C., Lawson, S.A., &Hausser, D.L. *A. 1975. Technique for Evaluating Interviewer Performance*. Ann Arbor, MI: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

Central Equatoria State, 2008. Local Government Act, 2008, Juba, Rhino Publishers.

Central Equatoria State, 2011. Transitional Constitution, Juba, Rhino Publishers.

Centre for Public Participation. 2003. Available at: http://www.cpp.org.za/objectives.htm

Chambers, R.1997. Whose reality counts? Putting the first last, London: Intermediate Technology Publications: ITDG Publishing.

Chipkin, I. 1996. Contesting community: the limits of democratic development. Urban forum, 7(2): 217-231.

Cloete. J.J.N. 1998. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria; Van Schaik.

Comprehensive Peace Agreement, 2005. Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) Between the Government of the Republic of the Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLM/A). Nairobi, Kenya.

Cohen, J. & Uphoff, N.1977. Rural development participation: Concepts and measures for project design, implementation and evaluation. Ithaka: Cornell University.

Cooke, B & Kothari, U. (eds). 2001. *Participation: the new tyranny?* London Zed Books. Cornwall, A. & Coelho, V. (eds). 2007. *Spaces for change. The politics of citizen participation in new democratic arenas.* London: Zed Books.

Creswell, J.W. 1994. Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative. London. Sage.

Davids, I. 2005. *Making developmental government work. South Africa* Reconciliation Barometer, 3(4):

Davids, I., Theron, F. & Maphunye, K.J. 2009. *Participatory development in South Africa: A development management perspective.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

DEAT, 2002. Stakeholder engagement: integrated environmental management information series 3. Pretoria: Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism.

De Beer, F. 2000. *Conclusion,* In De Beer, F & Swanepoel, H. (eds), *Introduction to Development Studies.* (2nd ed), Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

DeMaio,, T., Ciochetto, S., Sewell, L., Beach, M.E., & Glover, T. 1991. Report on Results of Cognitive Interviewing for the CPS Tobacco Use Supplement for the ASSIST Evaluation, Unpublished Census Bureau Report.

DeMaio, T., Mathiowetz, N., Rothgeb, J., Beach, M.E. & Durant, S. 1993. *Protocol for Pretesting Demographic Surveys at the Census Bureau*, Census Bureau Monograph, Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. 2000. Handbook of Qualitative Research. London: Sage.

De Vos, A.S; Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2005. *Research at the Grassroots For The Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. (3rd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

DWAF, 2001. *Generic public participation guidelines*. Pretoria: Department of Water Affairs and Forestry.

Dye, T.R. 1987. *Understanding public policy.* Englewood Cliffs. New Jersey. Prentice Hall.

Edigheji, O. 2003. State-society relations in post-apartheid South Africa: the challenge of globalization on cooperative governance. In Mhone, G. & Edigheji, O. (Eds), governance in the new South Africa: the challenge of globalization. Cape Town. UCT Press.

Ericsson, K.A. & Simon, H.A. 1984. Protocol Analysis. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

Esposito, J.L., Rothgeb, J.M., Polivka, A.E. Hess, J., & Campanelli, C. 1993. *Methodologies for Evaluating Survey Questions: Some Lessons from the Redesign of the Current Population Survey*, Paper presented at the International Conference on Social Science Methodology, Trento, Italy.

Esposito, J.L. & Rothgeb, J.M. 1997. Evaluating Survey Data: Making the Transition from Pretesting to Quality Assessment, in L. Lyberg, P. Biemer, M. Collins, E. de Leeuw, C. Dippo, N. Schwarz, and D. Trewin (eds), *Survey Measurement and Process Quality*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Fowler, F. & Roman, T. A.1992. Study of the Approaches to Survey Question Evaluation, Center for Survey Research, University of Massachusetts.

- Fox, W. & Meyer, I.H. 1995. Public Administration Dictionary. Cape Town: Juta.
- Fly, B.R. & Negro, L.C. 1996. Max Weber and the US Public Administration: The Administrator as a Neutral Servant. *The Journal of Management History*. 2(1):37-46.
- Francis, P. 2002. Community participation and decision making. In Kirkatrick, C., Clarke, R. & Palidano, C. Handbook on development policy and management. Northampton: Edward Elgar Publishers.
- Groenewald, C.J. 1989. *Community development.* In Kotze, J.K. (ed.), *Development is for people.* Johannesburg: Southern Books.
- Groves, R., Berry, M, & Mathiowetz, N.1980. *The Process of Interviewer Variability: Evidence from Telephone Surveys*, Proceedings of the Section on Survey Research Methods, American Statistical Association.
- Habib, A. & Kotze, H. 2003. *Civil society, governance and development in an era of globalisation:* the South African case. In Mhone, G. E Edigheji, O. *governance in the new South Africa: the challenges of globalization.* Cape Town: UCT Press.
- Hess, J. & Singer, E. 1995. *The Role of Respondent Debriefing Questions in Questionnaire Development, Proceedings of the Section on Survey Research Methods, American Statistical Association.*
- Hess, J., Singer, E., & Ciochetto, S. 1996. *Evaluation of the April 1995 Food Security Supplement to the Current Population Survey*, Internal Census Bureau report.
- Hickey, S. & Mohan, G. (eds). 2004. Participation from tyranny to transformation in Development, London: Zed Books.
- IAP2 2000:2002. *International Association for Public Participation*.available at http://www.iap2.org/corevalues/corevalues.htm.
- Johnson, A. 2003. *Politicians must be pushed. Civil participation starts at elections.* Cape Times, 29 September.
- Korten, D.C. 1990. *Getting to the 21st century: voluntary action and the global agenda.* West Hardford: Khumarian Press.
- Kotze, D.A & Kellerman, G.E.J. 1997. *Participation and managerial approaches to development*. In Kotze, D.A. (ed.), *Development administration and management: a holistic approach*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Kotze, D. & Kotze, P. 2008. *Understanding communities and enabling people: a holistic approach.* In Theron, F. (ed.), *the development change agent: a micro-level approach to development.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Kumar, R. 2005. Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners. (2nd ed). London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Kumar, S. 2002. *Methods for community participation: a complete guide for Practitioners*, London: ITDG Publishing.

Liebenberg A.L. & Theron, F. 1997. Exploring the myths of community development: a call for a new approach, *Administratio Publica*, 8(2):28-41.

Mafunisa, M.J. 2003. Separation of Politics from the South African Public Service: Rhetoric or Reality? *South African Journal of Public Administration*. 38(2) 85-101.

Manila Declaration on people's participation and sustainable development, 1998.

Maree, K. 2010. First Steps in Research. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Meyer, I. & Theron, F. 2000. Workbook: public participation in local government. A framework for action. Bellville: SOPH, University of Stellenbosch.

Meyer, I.H. & Cloete, F. 2000. *Policy agenda-setting.* in Cloete, F. & Wissink, H. (eds), *improving public policy.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mogale, T.M. 2003. Developmental local government and decentralized service delivery in the democratic South Africa. In Mhone, G. & Edigheji, O. (Eds), Governance in the new South Africa: the challenges of globalization. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Nel, E. 2001. Local Economic Development: A Review and Assessment of its Current Status in South-Africa, *Urban Studies*. Ashgate: Aldershot.

Oakley, P. & Marsden, D. 1984. *Approaches to participation in rural development.* Geneva: ILO.

Oakley, P. (ed.), 1991. Projects with people – the Practice of participation in rural development. Geneva: ILO.

Olowu.D. (1990). The failure of the Centralised State Institutions and self governance in Africa. Boulder, Co: West view press.

Parnell, S., Pieterse, E., Swing, M. & Woodridge, D. (eds). 2002. *Democratizing local government: the South African experience*. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Pretty, J.N., Guijit, I., Scoones, I & Thomson, J. 1995. A trainers guide for participatory learning and action, London: IIED Participatory Methodology Series, IIED.

Pretty, J.N.1994. Alternative systems of enquiry for sustainable Agriculture. AIDS Bulletin, 25(2): 37-48.

Rahman, M. A. 1993. People's self development: perspectives on participatory action research: A journey through experience, London: Zed Books.

Rahnema, M.A.1997. *Participation, In Sachs*, W. (ed.), *The post development reader.* London: Zed Books.

Redline, C., Smiley, R., Lee, M., DeMaio, T., & Dillman, D. 1998. Beyond Concurrent Interviews: An Evaluation of Cognitive Interviewing Techniques for Self-Administered Questionnaires, Paper presented at the Annual Meetings of the American Association for Public Opinion Research, Rothgeb, J. "Summary Report – MDS.

Republic of South African. 2000. Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000), Pretoria Government Printers.

Republic of South African, 1998. White Paper on Local Government (Notice 423 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa, 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa, 1998. Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (Act No 117 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa, 2000. Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (Act No 32 of 2000). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa, 2004. South Africa Local Government Association (SALGA). Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa, 2001. Local Government: Municipal Planning and Performance Regulations, 2001 (Government Gazette, 24 August 2001).

Roodt, M.J. 2001. Participation, civil society and development, In Coetzee, J.K., Graff, J., Hendricks, F & Wood, G., Development theory, policy and practice, Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Schuman, H., & Presser, S. 1981. Question and Answers in Attitude Surveys: Experiments on Question Form, Wording, and Context, New York: Academic Press.

Southern Sudan (Government), 2005. The Interim Constitution of the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS), 2005. Juba: South Sudan.

Southern Sudan (GOSS), 2009. Local Government Act, 2009, Juba: South Sudan.

South Sudan Centre for Statistic and Evaluation, 2004. *Millennium Development Goals. Interim Report for South Sudan*, (Unpublished Report).

Sudan (Republic) 2005. The Interim Constitution of the republic of the Sudan. 2005. Khartoum Sudan.

Southern Sudan (Government), 2005. The Interim Constitution of the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS), 2005. Juba: South Sudan.

Southern Sudan (Republic), 2009. Local Government Act, Juba: South Sudan.

Southern Sudan (Republic), 2009. Land Act, Juba: South Sudan.

South Sudan (Republic) .2012. Relief and Rehabilitation Commission County secretary population report. Not published.

South Sudan (Republic). 2012. Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan. Juba: South Sudan.

Sudman, S., Bradburn, N.M., & Schwarz, N. 1996. *Thinking about Answers: The Application of Cognitive Processes to Survey Methodology*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Theron. F. 2008. The development change agent: a micro-level approach to Development, Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Theron. F & Ceasar, N. 2008. *Participation: a grassroots strategy for development*, In Theron, F. (ed.) *The Development Change agent; a micro-level approach to development*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Theron, F. Ceasar, N. & Davids, I. 2007. Participation according to IAP2 principles: opportunity or challenge for Integrated Development Planning in South Africa? *International Journal of Public Participation 1(1) {online}.*

United Nations, 1990. The African charter for popular participation in development and Transformation, UN.

United Nations Economic and Social Council committee of experts on public administration fifth session (2006) agenda item 5 E/C.16/2006/4 Compendium of basic terminology in governance and public administration. New York

World Bank. 1996. World Bank participation sourcebook. Washington: World Bank.

Watt, S., Higgins, C & Kendrick, A. 2000. Community participation in development of services: a move towards community empowerment, Community Development Journal, 35(2):120-132.

Yei River County. 2010. Traditional Chiefs population registration report. Not published

Yei River County. 2008-2012. Integrated Participatory Development Plan document. Not published.

APPENDIX 1: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YEI RIVER COUNTY





12 4955

School of Public Administration

Faculty of Management and Commerce

August 15th 2012.

Executive Director

Yei River County,

Dear Sir,

Subject; PERMISSION TO CONDUCT AN ACADEMIC

RESEARCH IN YEI RIVER COUNTY

I humbly wish to request for the above cited subject from your esteemed Office.

I am a student of the University of Fort Hare pursuing Masters in Public Administration.

My Academic Research topic is; Evaluating Integrated Participatory Planning in a Decentralized Governance system in South Sudan; case study of Yei River County.

Sir, I intend to conduct this Academic Research in Yei River County Headquarters, its departments and in the five Payams of Yei River County

Your approval will be appreciated with thanks

Yours sincerely

Matata Khamis Charles

APPENDIX 2: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY

University of Fort Hare

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Office of the Chair & Head of Department:

Professor Edwin Ijeoma

Bsc (Hons) Lagos, MBA. Honolulu USA, PhD (Pret.)
Professor of Policy & Public Sector Economics

P.O. Box X1153, King William's Town, 5600, RSA Tel: +27 (0) 40 608-3403 • Fax: +27 (0) 40 608-3408



TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

REF: REQUEST TO ALLOW STUDENT, TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE TOPIC: "EVALUATING INTEGRATED PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN A DECENTRALISED GOVERNANCE SYSTEM: THE CASE OF YEI RIVER COUNTY, SOUTH SUDAN

Mr. MATATA Khamis Charles (200808087) is a registered student for the degree of Master of Public Administration (MPA). As part of the requirements of this degree programme, the student is expected to conduct a research study and submit a minidissertation to the Department of Public Administration. The mini-dissertation is solely meant to be for academic purposes.

We therefore, humbly request your office to allow this student to conduct the above-named research study in your institution and to interact with relevant selected office-bearers and officials. We have instructed the student to observe the highest standards of professionalism and ethics as well as to seek consent and maintain anonymity of the participants where necessary. The student has also been instructed to maintain strict confidentiality in his/her interactions with the sampled respondents.

Once the research is complete, it can be availed to your institution on request. We hope that the findings of the research will benefit your institution as a whole, as well as your stakeholders. Your support in this research endeavour is greatly appreciated.

We thank you in advance.

Kind Regards

MM SIBANDA- (D/HQD-Public Administration & Supervisor)



CI ---

www.ufh.ac.za



APPENDIX 3: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YEI RIVER COUNTY



THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH SUDAN

CENTRAL EQUATORIA STATE YEI RIVER COUNTY





YRC/CES/17.E.1

19th August 2012

TO WHO IT MAY CONCERN

SUBJECT; APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

IN YEI RIVER COUNTY

Mr. Matata Khamis Charles is a Master's student of the University of Fort hare-South Africa and is currently in Yei River County to conduct an academic research project on the topic

Evaluation of integrated participatory planning in a decentralized governance system: the case of Yei River County, South Sudan.

He will be gathering/collecting data/information in the County Headquarters, County departments and the five Payams to enable him complete his Research project

Therefore, render to him the necessary assistance and support

1 U JAN 2013

Regards

John Mogga Ezekiel

Executive Director

Yei River County

Cc; Matata Khamis Charles

Cc; file

APPENDIX 4: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMNENTS

5.1: QUESTIONS TO COUNTY PLANNING OFFICIALS

- 1. Do you have an integrated participatory development plan? Yes/No,
- 2. If yes, who were the stakeholders involved in the preparation of the integrated participatory development plan?
- 3. Do Payam Officials and heads of department attend integrated participatory development planning meetings both at County and at Payam levels? Yes/no.....
- 4. Are there any community education programmes to ensure that community is aware about the County integrated participatory Planning process and its importance? Yes/no
- 5. If yes, how do you get the needs of the community that are in the integrated development plan?
- 6. How often do you consult with the communities concerning the implementation of the integrated participatory development plan?
- 7. If no, how do you deliver services to the community?
- 8. How do you measure the participation of the community in the preparation of the integrated development plan process?

0%	25%	50%	75%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	------

9.

- 10. How many languages do you use in compiling the integrated participatory development plan t?
- 11. How do you respond to those who cannot read and write?

5.2: QUESTIONS TO COMMUNITY MEMBERS

- 1. What do you understand by word participatory integrated development plan?
- 2. Is there any role that you play during the preparation of participatory integrated development plan? Yes/No
- 3. If yes, what role, and if no Why?
- 4. Do you attend any community meetings? Yes/No

 If yes, how do you know when there is going to be a meeting? If not, why?
- 5. How do you voice your needs to the County or Payam?
- 6. What do you know about the County legislative Councils?
- 7. Do your representatives in the County legislative Council tell you about participatory integrated development Plan in your County? If NO what do you think is the cause?

5.3 A: QUESTIONS TO COUNTY LEGISLATIVE COUNCILLORS

- 1. Do you convene public meetings in your Boma? If yes how many times in a year if not why?
- 2. Which communication methods do you use meetings?
- 3. Do the community members attend these meetings in big numbers? Yes how many per meeting if not why?
- 4. If not what do you think is the reason?
- 5. Do you think that the community understands the concept of participatory integrated development planning and its importance? Yes/No
- 6. If Yes, justify
- 7. When issues are raised in the consultative meetings of participatory integrated development planning by the community, but not implemented, do you give explanation to the community why it is not done?
- **8.** Do you work with the County Executives/Officials concerning participatory integrated development planning? if yes when did you start if not why
- **9.** How do you make the community participate in the matters concerning their welfare and development as a member of the County Legislative Council?

5.3 B; COUNTY LEGISLATIVE COUNCILLORS

You are kindly requested to participate in this interview. All information given will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity and will only be used for the purpose of this study. You need not to answer questions that you are not comfortable with.

Questions; what do you understand by the term community participation?
Answer
Question; what role do you play in ensuring that community participation is taking place
in your Boma/Payam/?
Answer
Question; Do you think as a legislative councilor you are addressing the needs of the
community in your Boma? If yes, in what way?
Answer
Question; how do you conduct meetings with your community in your Boma?
Answer
Question; what do you understand by participatory planning and what role do you pla
in this processes?
Answer
Question; how do you work with the County officials/Executives and the communit
concerning participatory planning ?
Answer
Question; do you find a difficulty in community attending the meetings?
Answer

Question; are you satisfied with the time given for notices of the consultative meeting
by Count Executives/officials?
Answer
Question; do members of your Boma attend the participatory planning meetings?
Answer