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# Public participation in the bus rapid transit system in Johannesburg

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# PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN THE BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM IN JOHANNESBURG

**By**

**SIPHO MOSES DIBAKWANE**

**A research report submitted to the Graduate School of Public and Development Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the Degree of Masters of Management in the field of Public Policy**

**SEPTEMBER 2011**

# ABSTRACT

The formulation and implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit Network system (BRT) or *Rea Vaya* in the City of Johannesburg (CoJ) was met with different views from the Johannesburg general public. Some sections of the public accepted the BRT, while others rejected it. The reason for the initial rejection was the lack of public consultation, while those with a positive view conceded that the BRT was a good concept in transforming the public transport system of Johannesburg. This study investigated how the public participated in the BRT. The study was conducted through the qualitative research methodological approach. Primary in-depth interviews and documentary analysis were undertaken to answer the research question.

The findings of the study indicate that public participation in the BRT was orchestrated haphazardly because of the lack of a proper governance system on public participation. The CoJ's only concern appeared to be meeting the deadline to provide efficient transport services during the Confederations and World Cup Soccer tournaments of 2009 and 2010 respectively. The study concludes that the processes of engaging the public to participate in BRT formulation and implementation were flawed. The study finally recommends that the CoJ should develop governance systems on public participation.The systems should include a tailor-made public participation policy and institutional mechanisms to support critical engagement with the public.

## DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own unaided work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Masters of Management (in the field of Public Policy) at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university.

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**SIPHO MOSES DIBAKWANE**

**30 SEPTEMBER 2011**

# DEDICATION

For my wonderful parents, my mother Mrs Refilwe Aletta Dibakwane and my late father Mr Bin Leonard Dibakwane, whose untimely departure from our lives dawned in the middle of undertaking this study. We miss you, Papa, and will always love you. Your spirit lives. May your soul rest in peace.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The study would not have been possible without the following:

The Almighty God giving me strength and the zeal to complete this study.

My ancestors from the Dibakwane, Ngomane, Mahumane and Mashaba clans for paving and gracing the way for me to embark on this journey.

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Thank you to my wife, Pabatso, for keeping the home fires burning during my absence. My children, Naledi “Ticha Makipi” and Lindokuhle “Chesalala Zizi”: Education is the solution to all social ills and a precursor to an eternal happy life. “Apa” has done it and you can do more.

The support of my brother, Mr Thabo Dibakwane, has been wonderful and much appreciated.

The selfless spirit and unwavering support from my colleagues at the National Department of Transport has been incredible and out of this world.

A big thank you to all my respondents who took time out of their busy schedules to share their experiences and knowledge with me.

# LIST OF ACRONYMS

| | |
|---|---|
| AIDS | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| ASALG | Australia South Africa Local Governance Partnership |
| BRT | Bus Rapid Transit |
| CBO | Community Based Organisation |
| CDE | Centre for Development Enterprise |
| CoJ | City of Johannesburg |
| CPP | Centre for Public Participation |
| CSVR | Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation |
| DoT | Department of Transport |
| DPLG | Department of Provincial and Local Government |
| FIFA | Federation of International of International Football Associations |
| GDRT | Gauteng Department of Roads and Transport |
| GJRTC | Greater Johannesburg Regional Taxi Council |
| HIV | Human Immunodeficiency Virus |
| IAD | Institutional Analysis and Development |
| IDP | Integrated Development Planning |
| IRPTN | Integrated Rapid Transit Network |
| ITDP | Institute for Transportation and Development Policy |
| JMTI | Johannesburg Minibus Taxi Industry |
| MOU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| NJWG | National Joint Working Group |
| NLTA | National Land Transport Act |
| SABOA | South African Bus Operators Association |
| SACO | South African Commuter Organisation |
| SANCO | South African National Civics Organisation |

| | |
|---|---|
| SANTACO | South African National Taxi Council |
| SATAWU | South African Transport and Allied Workers Union |
| TAC | Treatment Action Campaign |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UTAF | United Taxi Associations Forum |

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Public participation in government policy making, planning, programmes and projects is one the cornerstones of South Africa's thriving democratic society. The principle of public participation is enshrined in the 1996 Constitution of South Africa and various legislative prescripts, policy documents and strategies. The Constitution of 1996 of the Republic of South Africa requires that all state departments and public institutions must facilitate public participation in policy making. Section 195 (e) states that "in terms of the basic values and principles governing public administration – people's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making".

In an effort to entrench and implement the ideals of the 1996 Constitution in the public transport system of South Africa, the Department of Transport promulgated the White Paper on National Transport policy in 1996. The White Paper pronounces that "public participation in decision-making on important transport matters, including the formulation of policy and the planning of major projects, will be encouraged". In terms of the focus of this report, the National Public Transport Strategy, which is one of the implementation tools of the White Paper on National Transport policy, identified the need to establish Integrated Rapid Public Transport Networks (IRPTN).

IRPTN pertains to the implementation of Rail Priority Corridors and Bus Rapid Transit Corridors in the cities of South Africa. The Bus Rapid Transit Corridors have been identified for implementation in the cities of

Johannesburg, Tshwane, Ethekwini, Ekurhuleni, Cape Town, Polokwane, Mangaung, Buffalo City and Mbombela municipalities. The Johannesburg Metropolitan municipality has, through its urban development policy which seeks to establish a fully integrated public transport system, formulated and implemented phase 1 A of the Bus Rapid Transit system (BRT) during the period of 2006-2010.

This report outlines the findings of the research study undertaken to understand the issue of public participation in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg during the period already mentioned.

The following section outlines the background to the study, which is followed by the problem statement, purpose statement and research question, significance of the study and structure of the report.

## 1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1.2.1 Development of Bus Rapid Transit systems

In 2004, the Federation of International Football Associations (FIFA) awarded the Republic of South Africa rights to host the 2010 Soccer World Cup tournament. The South African government identified the issue of an adequate and efficient public transport system as one of the key areas that would make the hosting of the soccer tournament a success. The South African government tasked the National Department of Transport to develop an adequate and efficient transport system to be ready for the 2010 soccer World Cup tournament.

The National Department of Transport, under the guidance of the former Minister of Transport, Mr Jeff Radebe, published the National Public Transport Strategy in 2007 in an effort to address the issue of inadequate

and inefficient public transport in South Africa and also to honour the country's obligations to FIFA. The Public Transport strategy of 2007 articulates that the 2010 Soccer World Cup tournament in South Africa will necessitate the use of high quality mass public transport systems to cater for the high demand in public transport.

The strategy identifies the establishment of the Integrated Rapid Public Transport Networks in South African cities. Integrated Public Transport Networks pertains to the formulation and implementation of high quality transport networks of Rail Priority Corridors and Bus Rapid Transit Corridors.

There are various BRT projects underway in South African cities, with those in Cape Town and Nelson Mandela Bay being the most advanced in their planning, after Johannesburg. Cape Town public transport plans include a variation on the BRT theme, which will start with the introduction of a number of West Coast routes with 12 feeder services. The plans also include a bicycle lane master plan, station revitalisation, investment in rail, inner city transport and green space plans, and a pedestrian network.

The City of Johannesburg started with the conceptualising of its Bus Rapid Transit system in 2006 and named the system "Rea Vaya" which means "we are going".

The term *Bus Rapid Transport* is an internationally used technical term. The *Mass Rapid Transport* usually refers to rail subway or above-ground systems.The central feature of the BRT is that it approximates a rail network but the vehicles are on rubber tyres. They run along dedicated road lanes, usually but not necessarily in the centre if the road. Enclosed ticket stations make for safe and rapid movement of passengers on and off vehicles, and time-tabling ensures that even at off-peak times, nobody has to wait longer than 10 to 15 minutes for transport.

According to the CoJ (2008), the Johannesburg Rea Vaya is modelled on the South American Bus Rapid transit systems, particularly the TransMileno of Bogota, Colombia. A feature of the South American BRT systems is that the vehicles tend to be privately owned, largely because existing taxi and bus owners have been brought into the system as owners. The service is strictly regulated by a public authority, including regulation of the ticket prices, wages, and timetabling. Infrastructure, including depots, is entirely publicly owned.

This is the model most closely being followed currently in South Africa, largely because of a desire to accommodate existing taxi and bus operators. The business model is one in which the fares collected from large volumes of passengers more than cover the operating costs, providing a reasonable rate of return for the owners (certainly a much higher rate of return than existing taxi and bus services).

In every South American city where BRT has been introduced, passenger numbers have gone up, fares have been reduced, wages and working conditions have improved and operating profits have increased.

Employment has also grown. The proper regulation of working hours combined with a service that runs throughout the day means that the current practice of “split shifts”, whereby one bus or taxi driver operates two peak shifts a day (morning and evening) is replaced by a two or three shift system, requiring more drivers. In addition, the support functions at ticket stations and elsewhere also contribute to job creation..

In the beginning of 2008, the City of Johannesburg commenced with the implementation of the BRT which is being done in various segments called Phases 1 A and B.

Phase 1 A has been completed. This phase of the BRT involves the introduction of 143 large capacity and small capacity vehicles operating 70 000 trips a day along a 25km trunk route, with 20 bus stations from Soweto via Nasrec, through the Johannesburg CBD, to the Ellis Park stadium. The smaller vehicles will operate on feeder routes, which will also be serviced by other feeder vehicles that will not move onto the trunk routes. Four taxi associations are to be affected, involving 575 vehicles.

Phase 1 B plans for an additional 650 buses, affecting 2 700 taxis. Phase 1B is scheduled to be completed by 2013, by which stage 122 kms will be covered by high frequency buses of different sizes. Every vehicle will be accessible to people with disabilities, and the buses have been designed to emit reduced levels of pollution.

Rea Vaya is not an initiative that stands alone. It goes together with plans to develop public transport precincts – whether they are taxi or bus ranks, or traditional railway stations − as well as plans to encourage non-motorised transport (cycling and walking). The Rea Vaya project also forms part of an overall plan to increase housing density along transit corridors. The existing operators on the routes planned for Phase 1 (A and B) are 18 taxi associations, Putco and Metro Bus. These entities will continue to own and operate the system. The operators will be contracted to a regulating authority, which will pay the operators on a per kilometre basis.

The BRT, when fully implemented, is envisaged to offer a high quality public transport system that will bring many benefits, such as less traffic congestion, improved and more efficient experience for commuters - starting with a high quality bus service during the 2010 Soccer World Cup −, improvement of non-motorised transport facilities and exceptional rail services (DoT, 2007).

The implementation of the BRT would attempt to resolve the challenges faced by 65 per cent of daily public transport users in Johannesburg and transform the inadequacies and inefficiencies that are inherent in the transport system (DoT, 2003).

### 1.2.2 Legislation frameworks for public participation

The notion of public participation in government policy-making, formulation and implementation of programmes and projects has been, since the dawning of the new dispensation, a cornerstone and one of the pillars of South Africa's democracy. The South African government has enacted and implemented various legislation regarding public participation in the various tiers of government −national, provincial and local. The legislation use the 1996 Constitution of South Africa as a base on the issue of public participation. As mentioned earlier, the key departure point of the 1996 Constitution is the involvement of the public in the development of, and implementation of public policy and general public administration matters.

The Department of Provincial and Local Government's White Paper on Local Government of 1998 stipulates that municipalities should develop mechanisms to ensure citizen participation in policy initiation and formulation, and the monitoring and evaluation of decision-making and implementation.

The DPLG (2005) defines public participation as a democratic process of engaging people in planning and playing an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their lives. Nyalunga (2006) observes that the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 is clear about the need to streamline public participation by providing for the public's right to contribute to the decision-making process of the municipality, be informed of decisions of the municipal council and the state of affairs of the municipality.

The researcher utilised the stipulations of the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 to ascertain if public participation was streamlined by the CoJ during the formulation and implementation of the BRT in Johannesburg.

The DoT (2001) observes that public participation is a consultative process, leading to a joint effort by stakeholders representing all relevant interests, sectors of society and relevant organs of state who work together to produce better decisions than if they had acted independently and unilaterally. According to IAP2 (2010) the categories of public participation can be defined as informing, consultation, involvement, collaboration and empowerment. The researcher utilised some of these categories during data analysis to determine the potential category that would have been applied in this study. This was important in the drawing of summaries of this study.

## 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The issue around the formulation and implementation of the BRT in Johannesburg became a matter of public discourse and received attention in the South African and international media during the period of 2006 and 2010.

One of the major issues and grave concerns was public and media outcry regarding how the public participated in the formulation and implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit Network system in Johannesburg. Members of the public have also pointed out that the formulation and implementation of the BRT has been marred by incidences of violence, intimidation and murder of key public transport stakeholders. Members of the commuting public have been caught in the crossfire, resulting in fatalities.

Although several studies on public participation such as (CPP: 2005, CSVR: 2005) have emphasised the need to involve the public in public policy-making processes, little has been done to establish to what extent the public has been able to participate in the BRT system in Johannesburg.

Unless the issue of public participation is addressed, the BRT system implementation is likely not to result in an adequate, efficient and reliable world class transport system for the City of Johannesburg and potentially for other cities such as Tshwane, eThekwini, Ekurhuleni, Cape Town, Polokwane, Mangaung, Buffalo City, Mbombela and Nelson Mandela Bay municipalities.

This situation is of major concern for the Department of Transport and the City of Johannesburg; hence the need for research to establish the scope of public participation in the BRT system in Johannesburg and more broadly, the essence of public participation in policy formulation and implementation at a local level of government. The context of the research is the period from 2006 up to 2010 during which the formulation and subsequent implementation of Phase 1A of the BRT system took place in Johannesburg.

## 1.4 PURPOSE STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The purpose of the study is to investigate the issue of public participation in the Bus Rapid Transit System formulation and implementation. The study will specifically focus on BRT in Johannesburg as a case study.
Based on the findings, the study will provide insights on how public participation in BRT in the City of Johannesburg and potentially in Gauteng and the rest of South Africa can be improved.

A study of this nature would contribute to the academic body of knowledge concerning how modern government public policy-making processes should address the issues of public participation.

The central and primary question for this study is: How did the public participate in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg?

The secondary questions are:

a) What mechanisms of public participation were employed in the BRT system?
b) How were decisions taken following the public participation process?
c) What is the level of knowledge of the public and of transport officials of the BRT system?

## 1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Public participation in government policy-making processes has progressed from just being a constitutional obligationto become an integral part of government decision-making. . Through public participation, government is able to assess the environment before policy implementation takes place. This goes a long way to avert implementation that can be costly to a developing country like South Africa.This study will therefore contribute towards creation of knowledge and a better understanding of how public participation in modern public policy-making can be improved and how best to manage formulation and implementation of government policy, programmes and projects.

The study's investigation of public participation in the Bus Rapid Transit system investigates the gap between the context of policy development and implementation, and seeks to provide explanations for this disparity. In so doing, it hopes to identify barriers that prevent full public participation in the Bus Rapid Transit system with a view to examining how such barriers can be removed.

In addition, the findings and recommendations of this study will assist the cities of Tshwane, Ethekwini, Ekurhuleni, Cape Town, Polokwane, Mangaung, Buffalo City, Mbombela and Nelson Mandela Bay municipalities by providing insight into how to effectively address the issue of public participation in their Bus Rapid Transit systems.

## 1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This research report is structured in six chapters with sections in each chapter. The introduction in chapter 1 provides the background to the study. The significance of the study is be presented, followed by problem and purpose statements. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key issues discussed.

The second chapter is the literature review .This provides an analysis of the related literature on public participation, change management, bus rapid transit network systems and theoretical framework underpinning this study. The chapter concludes with a summary of key issues that emanate from the discussions.

The third chapter covers the research methodology used to undertake the study and closes with a summary.

In the fourth chapter the data collected is presented and chapter five comprises an analysis of data collected. Lastly, chapter six summarises the study and recommendations of the study.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the related literature review on public participation, Bus Rapid Transit network systems and change management. In addition, it outlines the theoretical framework underpinning this study. A summary of key issues that emanate from the review is presented at the end of this chapter.

## 2.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS

*"Public participation"* - processes in which individuals, groups and organisations have the best opportunity to participate in making decisions that affect them or in which they have an interest.

*"Public Policy"* - is the broad framework of ideas and values within which decisions are taken and action or inaction is pursued by governments in relation to some issue or problem.

*"Stakeholder"* - one, who will be affected, may be affected or has an interest in an issue or may have the ability to affect a decision or outcome. A stakeholder may be an individual, an organisation or group.

## 2.3 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Literature on public participation seems to suggest that public participation entails an open, accountable process through which individuals and group

members of the public can exchange views and influence decision-making. According to Smith (1994), public participation is a group of methods and procedures designed to consult, empower, involve and inform people and special interest groups to influence decisions at hand. Public participation is a democratic process of engaging people in thinking, deciding, planning and playing an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their lives (ASALGP, 2005).

Pring and Noe (2002) define public participation as an all-encompassing label used to describe various mechanisms that individuals or groups may use to communicate their views on a public issue. In essence this means that public participation is used to build and facilitate capacity and self-reliance among the people (Pring and Noe, 2002).

Khanya (2002) takes the notion of public participation further and states that public participation is promoted for four main reasons. Firstly, it is a legal requirement to consult. Secondly, it could be promoted in order to make development plans and services more relevant to local needs and conditions. Thirdly, participation may be encouraged in order to hand over responsibility for services and promote community action. Lastly, public participation could be encouraged to empower local communities to have control over their own lives and livelihoods.

Hemson (2006) observes that there are essentially three levels of public participation in local government. The first level involves the participation of the public as voters in municipal elections. The second level is about participation in official community structures such as ward committees, *izimbizo* (traditional consultative meetings) and municipal integrated development planning (IDPs). The third and final level involves participation of the public in social movements, public policy formulation and implementation through marches, memoranda and setting up of local community structures.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) maintains that participation is a “means” and an “end”. Participation as a “means” can be defined as a process whereby local people cooperate or collaborate with externally introduced development programmes or projects. In this way, participation becomes the means whereby such initiatives can be more effectively implemented. People’s participation is sponsored by an external agency and it is seen as a technique to support the progress of the programme or project. The term ‘participatory’ is more commonly used to describe this approach and it implies externally defined development activities implemented in a participatory manner. This approach would appear to be quite widespread and essentially promotes participation as a means of ensuring the successful outcome of activities undertaken (UNDP, 1997: p.11).

Participation as an “end” can be defined as “a goal in itself”. This goal can be expressed as the empowering of people in terms of them acquiring the skills, knowledge and experience to take greater responsibility for their development. People’s poverty can often be explained in terms of their exclusion and lack of access to and control of their resources, which they need to sustain and improve their lives. Participation is an instrument of change and it can help break that exclusion and provide poor people with the basis for their more direct involvement in development initiatives (UNDP, 1997: p.11).

The World Bank (1994) defines participation as a process through which stakeholders decide, influence and share control over development initiatives and resources. Moser (1989) complements this argument and observes that participation is a process designed to create conditions for social and economic progress for the public with its active participation in development.

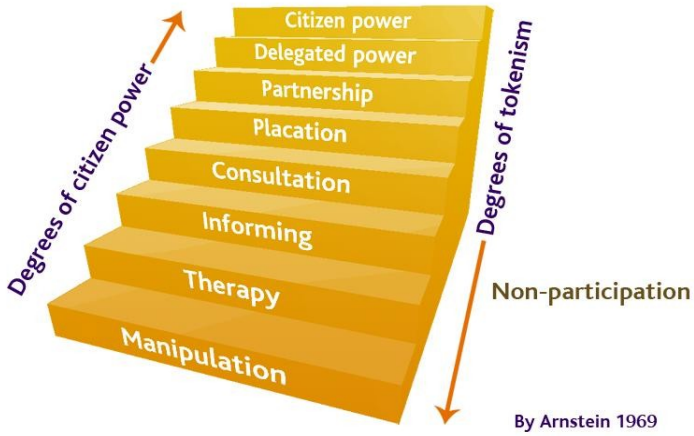
Davidson (1998) further defines the concept of participation as the “Wheel of Participation” and the concept bases its argument on that a “Wheel” can work equitably if pivotal decision-making is taken collaboratively.

Pateman (1970) observes that participation in the work industry can be defined into three categories. The first category is pseudo participation and refers to a situation where people are made to believe that they are participating while, in essence, they are just endorsing the decisions made by the top echelons or the powerful.

Pateman (1970) describes the second category as partial participation which implies a process in which two or more parties influence each other in the making of decisions but the final power still rests with one party only.

The third and last category is termed full participation and Pateman (1970) defines this category as “a process where each individual member of a decision-making body has equal power to determine the outcome of decisions”. Arnstein (1969) observes that there are eight “ladders” of citizen participation in community projects and they are shown in Figure 1.

**Figure 1: Ladder of Participation**




*Source: Arnstein (1969)*

Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation can be briefly summarised as follows:

***Citizen control:*** People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. An example of citizen control is self-government – the community makes the decisions.

***Delegated power:*** In this regard government ultimately runs the decision-making process and funds it, but communities are given some delegated powers to make decisions. People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation or strengthening of local institutions. The process involves inter-disciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systemic and structured learning processes. As groups take over local decisions and determine how available resources are used, so they have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.

***Partnership:*** An example is joint projects – community has considerable influence on the decision-making process but the government still takes responsibility for the decision. Participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduced costs. People may participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Such involvement tends to arise only after external agents have already made major decisions. Participation may also be for *material incentives* where people participate by contributing resources, for example, labour in return for food, cash or other material incentives.

***Placation:*** The community is asked for advice and token changes are made.

***Consultation:*** The community is given information about the project or issue and asked to comment – e.g. through meetings or a survey – but their view may not be reflected in the final decision, or feedback given as to why not. External agents define problems and information gathering processes, and so control analysis. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision-making.

***Informing:*** The community is told about the project – e.g. through meetings or leaflets; the community may be asked, but their opinion may not be taken into account.

***Therapy:*** People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened. It involves unilateral announcements by an administration or project management without any listening to people's responses.

***Manipulation:*** Participation is simply a pretence e.g. with "people's" representatives on official boards but who are not elected and have no

power, or where the community is selectively told about a project according to an existing agenda. The community's input is only used to further this existing agenda.

Swanepoel (1992) argues that "community participation can only be a learning process if the people really participate. Participation does not mean that people should be brought into a project when physical labour is required. By that stage people should already have been involved for a long time. There is no other stage for people than to start right at the start of the project. People should not only do, but their right and ability to think, seek, discuss, and make decisions should also be acknowledged".

Quinney (1998) complements Swanepoel's argument and observes that effective participation rests on the planning process, in that firstly, it includes specifying the relationship between the participation and the overall policy decision strategies and also development of clear objectives for participation. Pope (2000) argues that the state must facilitate public participation in the promotion of good governance. According to Pope an informed citizenry, aware of its rights and asserting them confidently is a vital underpinning to a national integrity system.

Phillips and Orsini (2002) observe that public participation is episodic in nature and it seeks to focus on a particular issue. Rosener (1978) however, cautions that the process of participation must be done correctly because it can enhance the decision-making process and ensure transparency, affording stakeholders an opportunity to have their views and inputs taken into consideration.

Rowe and Frewer (2000) observe that because the public is quite diverse and too large there are various methods that can be utilised and they are as follows:

**Table1. Formalised Public Participation methods**

| Participation Method | Nature of Participation | Duration | Mechanism |
|---|---|---|---|
| Referenda | All members or national or local population or significant portion of these | Vote cast at a single point in time | Vote is usually a choice of one of two options. All participants have equal influence. Final outcome is binding |
| Public hearing/enquiries | Interested people, limited in a number by size of venue. True participants are experts and politicians making presentations | May last many weeks, months or even years | Presentations by agencies regarding plans in open forum. Public may voice opinion but have no direct impact on recommendation |
| Public opinion surveys | Large sample usually representative of the population segment of interest | Single event usually lasting no more than seven minutes | Often enacted through written questionnaires or telephone inquiry. Used for information gathering |
| Negotiated rule making | Small number of representatives of stakeholder groups (may include public representatives). | Uncertain: strict deadlines usually set: days/weeks | Working committee of stakeholder representatives and from sponsor. Consensus required on a specific question ( usually a regulation) |
| Consensus | Generally, 10 to 16 members of public with no knowledge of topic chosen by steering committee as “representative of the people”. | Preparatory demonstrations and lecturers to inform panellists about topic, then three-day conference | Lay panel with independent facilitator questions expert witnesses chosen by stakeholders panel |
| The people’s | Generally, 12 to 20 members of | Not precise but generally involve | Lay panel with independent facilitator |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| jury/panel | public selected by stakeholders' panel to be roughly representative of local population | meetings over a few days | question expert witnesses chosen by stakeholder panel. Meetings generally not open. Summaries on key questions made via report or press conference. |
| Public advisory committee | Small group selected by sponsor to represent views of various groups of communities | Takes place over an extended period. | Group convened by sponsor to examine some significant issue. Interaction with industry representatives. |
| Focus groups | Small groups of five to 12 selected to be representative of public; several groups may be used for one project | Single meeting, usually up to two hours | Free discussion on general topic with video/tape recording and little inputs from facilitator. Used to assess opinions and attitudes. |

*Source: Rowe and Frewer (2000)*

Kabemba (2004) in Nyalunga (2006) argues that there are many ways that individuals can participate in local government and infuse decision-making processes. The types of public participation can take the format of citizen's action which entails lobbying bodies like parliamentary committees, public demonstrations and protests, public hearings, consultation with advisory committees, attitudinal surveys and lastly the electoral participations by means of casting votes and electing representatives. The researcher utilised some of these categories of public participation in Kabemba (2004) in Nyalunga (2006) to identify and explain the type of public participation that would have occurred in this study.

Nyalunga (2006) further observes that these forms of participation are critically important and serve as a yard stick to measure the level of democratic development and political maturity in a country.

## 2.4 BUS RAPID TRANSIT NETWORK SYSTEMS

Literature on the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) Network systems in South Africa can be traced back from the policy pronouncements of the National Department of Transport's White Paper on National Transport Policy, the Public Transport Action Plan of 2007, the operational plans of the Provincial Department of Transport and the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan municipality respectively. There has however been significant progress and various articulations on the international front regarding the Bus Rapid Transit network system.

SSI-DHV (2009) notes that the City of Johannesburg (CoJ) metropolitan municipality took the strategic decision to formulate and implement the BRT system in the 2006/7 financial year, basing the idea on the concept of creating rail-like performance using road-based technologies that are

affordable to most cities. Initially, CoJ made a decision to go for a public transport system that proposed to turn the outside lanes of major arterial roads into dedicated bus lanes, namely the Strategic Public Transport Network (SPTN) project. However, after studying similar transport systems in other parts of the world, the CoJ finally opted for a system where the bus lanes would go through the median of the arterial roads, thus the BRT system.

The BRT is aimed at easing traffic congestion in and around Johannesburg by establishing a network of buses traveling along dedicated bus-ways, within the median, with bus stations every 500 metres. The first phase of the network includes 94 kms of BRT trunk route supported by complementary and feeder routes. When complete, the project will comprise more than 300km of bus lanes traversing the inner city and surrounding suburbs and townships. It is envisaged that the system will complement existing and new taxi, rail and Metrobus schemes (SSI-DHV, 2009).

The ITDP (2007) defines the BRT system as a high quality bus-based transit system that delivers fast, comfortable and cost-effective urban mobility through the provision of segregated right of way infrastructure, rapid and frequent operations and excellence in marketing and customer service. Wright (2005 in Matsumoto, 2008) defines BRT as a system that emphasises priority for rapid movement of buses by securing segregated bus ways. Leal and Bertini (2003) define BRT as a public transit mode that uses buses to provide light rail quality of service.

Hossain (2006) observes that the BRT has emerged as an economically self-reliant mass transit system with potential for budget constrained developing cities. Ardila (2004 in Hossain, 2006) maintain that successful BRT systems particularly those in the Latin American cities of Bogota in Colombia and Curitiba in Brazil, have evolved through broad based

participation of all sectors and fair distribution of costs, risks and benefits among the same.

The ITDP (2005) observes that various methods that can be utilised to facilitate public participation in the development and implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit systems can be neighbourhood information sessions, interviews with specific NGO and CBOs, town hall meetings, focus groups, polling of existing public transport passengers, telephone outreach and website and e-mail communications.

Patrick and William (2005 in Hossain, 2006) emphasise the need for public-private partnerships in financing, implementing and operating successful BRT systems integrated with multi-modal transport networks. Hossain (2006) articulates that the BRT system by its nature is quite intricate, as it needs a general acceptability among all parties because of the intrinsic characteristics of BRT system development. He further concedes that BRT systems require cooperation and participation among all quarters because successful BRT systems emerge from contributions and collaboration between public and private sectors.

The ITDP (2007) observes that approximately 40 cities on six continents have implemented BRT systems and the elements that constitute the BRT concept benefit from the high quality infrastructure, efficient operations, effective and transparent business and institutional arrangements as well as sophisticated technology. The ITDP (2007) articulates that the steps for planning a BRT system must include issues such as project preparation, operational design, physical design, integration, business plan, evaluation and implementation.

The ITDP (2007) further observes that central to the BRT planning process is the issue of public participation. Leal and Bertini (2003) observe that the success of the Transmileno BRT system of Bogota was made

possible by the fact that when the project was planned, designed and constructed, private transportation operators were involved from the beginning of the process. The existing operators were offered an opportunity to be the operators of the new system.

The ITDP (2007) complements Leal and Bertini's (2003) analysis of the Transmileno case study of Bogotá and observes that public participation in BRT policy and planning process provides planning teams with ideas and recommendations that may be an effective means to a high quality designed BRT system. The ITDP (2007), however, cautions that a failure to communicate the intentions to design and implement BRT to key stakeholders and to the general public and especially key stakeholders such as existing public transport operators, taxi owners and drivers, car owners, retailers, environmental and other civic organisations, government agencies, can greatly undermine the ultimate viability of the BRT project.

Hossain (2006) observes that even though a good planning guide is quite important for BRT implementation, it is equally important to have a knowledgeable planning team backed by strong political support. He further states that this is essential for combating the doubts put forward by critics and the potential resistance that can come from the public and car lobbyists.

The ITDP (2007) complements this view and notes that political leadership must take upon the task of turning a vision into a realisable project. The ITDP further concedes that the most successful BRT systems to date have been initiated and led by charismatic leaders such as former mayors Jaime Lerner of Curitiba and Enrique Pinelosa of Bogota. Wright (2005 in Matsumuto, 2008) identified "political will" as the most important ingredient in making BRT work.

## 2.5 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

The introduction and implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit system in the South Africa, particularly in the City of Johannesburg, marked a turning point in the transport system of the country. This new transport system concept, which has been largely imported from South American countries such as Brazil and Colombia and Asian countries such as China and Japan, is indicative of the start of a new approach in the transport system of South Africa.

The approach is aimed at bringing about “changes” in the transport system of Johannesburg. The envisaged changes in this context mean the provision of an efficient, reliable and effective transport system for the city. Whilst the focus of this study is on public participation in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg, it is also vital to consider how such changes in the transport system have been managed in this process.

A literature review on change management will create an understanding of how change management is executed from a theoretical point of view. Some of the basic theorems and literature on change management point out that involving people and encouraging participation in the change process can minimise disruptions and resistance. Various literatures define the concept and type of change. Hayes (2002) observes that change can either be incremental or discontinuous. In defining incremental change, he notes that such change is associated with those periods when the industry is in equilibrium and the focus for change is “doing things better” through a process of continuous tinkering, adaptation and modification. Change in these periods builds on what has already been accomplished and has the flavour of continuous improvement.

Discontinuous change is change that occurs during periods of disequilibrium. Tichy and Devanna (1986) in Hayes (2002) refer to such change as transformational change. This is because it involves a break with the past, a step function change rather than an extrapolation of past patterns of change and development. This kind of change involves doing things differently rather than doing things better. Hayes (2002) maintains that whether the need is for continuous or discontinuous change, the earlier the need is recognised, the greater the number of options when deciding how to manage it.

Isaac-Henry, Painter and Barnes (1993) observe that environmental factors that are economic, political, social and technological in nature, influence, restrain and drive change in organisations and argue that these environmental factors often create, strengthen and even at times cancel each other out. Authors and academics on change management normally point out that change management is about modifying or transforming organisations in order to maintain or improve their effectiveness (Harvey, 2006).

Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992) argue that the execution of effective change management involves three key role players who can be referred to as change makers or change agents, and they can be strategists, implementers and recipients. Kanter, *et al.,* (1992) define change strategists as “change agents or change makers” who are responsible for identifying the need for change, creating a vision of the desired outcome and deciding what change is feasible. These change makers tune into both the external and internal environments, assessing the forces of change. Kanter, et al., (1992) observes that change implementers “make it happen” and their key role is on managing the day-to-day process of managing change.

The focus of the change implementers is in essence on instituting the change on behalf of the strategists. Kanter, *et al.,* (1992) lastly defines the change recipients as the largest group of people who must adopt and adapt to change. The response of the change recipients who are "institutionalisers" largely determines if the change is acceptable or not and whether it will stick (Kanter, *et al.,* 1992).

Light (2005) observes that there should be a reason for any change to happen and organisations must prepare for change by making the case, creating a vision of the hope for the future, building senior leadership support and creating an action plan. Light (2005) points out that execution of change in this regard should involve creation of a formal process and measurement, testing and adapting the change as appropriate.

Harvey (2006) indicates that effective management of change is enhanced through careful planning, sensitive handling of the people involved and a thorough approach to implementation. Harvey (2006) further observes that many of the "failures in implementation" can be avoided given a more careful approach to managing change. Isaac-Henry, *et al.,* (1993) therefore recommend that "change agents" should adopt a project management approach in managing the concerned change. This should include a clear definition of the objectives of the planned changes which should be sensibly phased and timetabled, with accountability for desired outcomes clearly allocated (Isaac-Henry, *et al.,* 1993).

Scott and Jaffe (1989) argue that involving people in the management of change lessen the likelihood of resistance to the envisaged change. Harvey (2006) defines "resistance to change" as two-fold: firstly, as a reaction to the methods used in implementing the change, which includes resistance to changes forced upon the people against their will, and secondly, as a reaction to changes that do not make sense to them.

Isaac-Henry*, et al.,* (1993) observe that the most common reasons for resisting change are self-interest, misunderstanding, lack of trust, different perceptions of change and the reluctance to relinquish procedures and customs. Harvey (2006) also maintains that resistance to change might be exacerbated by factors such as loss of security, income or status.

Scott and Jaffe (1989) point out that being part of the planning and transition process gives people a sense of control and as such lessens the potential of resistance to change. This approach can further be complemented by asking for opinions about how change can be managed and such can be done through conducting surveys, focus groups, or polls. Harvey (2006) also suggests that the ideal approach to minimising resistance to change includes good communication and participation in the change process. Isaac-Henry, *et al.,* (1993) also caution that "change agents" must also take account of political realities; how change is likely to reverberate to the advantage or disadvantage of different interest positions.

## 2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The investigation and theorisation of the role of public participation in government policy-making is important in understanding the public policy-making process.

Kraft and Furlong (2004) observe that some of the common theories are elite theory, group theory, institutional theory, rational choice theory, political systems theory and the policy process model. The theoretical dimension of this study is based on the institutional, policy networks and policy process model theories. The rationale behind selecting these three theoretical approaches and how they can benefit the study will be explained by the researcher.

### 2.6.1 Institutional Theory

The institutional theory looks at the way governments or organisations are organised and how legal powers, rules and procedures are executed. In short, the intention of the theory is to look at the policy behaviour of institutions. Kraft and Furlong (2004) observe that the institutional theory is important with regards to how certain aspects of government structure and procedural rules can empower or obstruct political interest.

Although Sabatier (1999) and Hall and Taylor (1996) give different meanings to the definitions of the theories of institutions, it must be noted that the context of institutions play a significant role in the determination of policy outcomes. In essence, this means that through institutions, government is able to legitimise policies since a policy does not become public policy until it is adopted, implemented and enforced by some government institution (Dye, 1992).

Dye (1992) further notes that one of the key roles of government institutions is to give public policy certain distinctive characters. This includes legitimising policies and as such commanding the legal obligations for citizens to be loyal. Other characteristics of public policy include the issue of universality. This ensures that only government policies apply and affect every individual in society. The third characteristic involves application of coercion by government to legitimately prosecute violators of its policies.

The institutional theory encourages a coherent understanding of the way institutions or governments are arranged, their formal and legal aspects. The emphasis is on the “arrangement” of governments which is relevant for this study.

This is important because the various spheres of government in South Africa contribute towards the implementation of a government policy, programme or project. The application of the institutional theory would begin to explain and clearly indicate the role of the different spheres of government in the policy-making cycle or process.

Sabatier (2003) affirms this view and identifies the three tiers of decision-making in the institutional analysis and development (IAD) framework. These include constitutional, collective and operational decisions. The institutional theory emphasises that policy makers must think about the institutions and organisations that will be required to implement the policies. The important issue is therefore how the roles and actions of the different organisations concerned are co-ordinated to realise good policy implementation. Institutional theory then, assists policy-makers to assess the prospects of their policy proposals before policy implementation can be executed (CDE, 1993).

### 2.6.2 Policy Networks

According to Reinicke (2000), the policy network theory maintains that policy networks help policy-makers to address new challenges they face in public policy as the subject has expanded. He also points out that policy networks have bridged the gap between government and civil society as it is usually comprised of various members of many disciplines.

Reinicke (2000) further characterises policy networks as a loose alliance of government agencies, international organisations, corporations, and elements of civil society such as non-governmental organisations, professional associations or religious groups that join together to achieve what none can accomplish on their own.

These policy networks can bring divergent views during a policy development process. These can be quite beneficial to the policy making process, especially when a choice must be made between policy alternatives. The policy choice that can be made on a particular policy alternative can lead to the creation of knowledge in the policy-making process (Dunn, 1994).

Reinicke (2000) also observes that policy networks broaden policy debates and this challenges the focus and structure of governments. Kenis and Schneider (1991) define policy network as a kind of political meta-structure integrating different forms of interest intermediation and governance, forming a symbiotic relationship between the state and society in policy-making. They maintain that policy network means that policy-making involves a large number of private and public actors from different levels and functional areas of government and society and this interaction goes beyond policy process right up to implementation.

Rhodes and Marsh (1992) define policy network as a cluster or complex of organisations, connected to each other by resource dependencies and distinguished from other clusters or complexes by breaks in the structure of resources dependencies.

Borzel (1998) on the other hand define policy networks as a set of relatively stable relationships which are non-hierarchical and interdependent in nature, linking a variety of actors who share common interests. Acknowledging that co-operation is the best way to achieve a common goal, he maintains that policy networks do not only exist, but they are relevant to public policy-making. He identifies two dimensions from which policy networks can be categorised, namely the quantitative versus qualitative network analysis and policy networks as a typology of interest intermediation versus policy networks as a specific form of governance.

The first dimension identifies policy networks as social structure analysis. The relationship between actors is analysed in terms of their cohesion, structural equivalence, and spatial representation using quantitative methods. On the other hand, the content of the interaction between actors is measured by using qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews and content and discourse analysis.

Borzel (1998) argues that a policy network reflects a changed relationship between state and society. According to him, there is no longer a strict separation between the two. He recognises networks as informal institutions, not formally organised, reciprocal, relative permanent relations and forms of interactions between actors who strive to realise common gains. They are based on agreed rules for the production of a common outcome.

In addition, networks reduce the cost of information and transaction and create mutual trust among the actors removing uncertainty and risks. In closing his argument, he maintains that public and private actors form networks to exchange resources on which they are mutually dependent for the realisation of their common gains (Borzel, 1998).

Eshbaugh-Soha (2006) brings in one very important facet to the issue of policy networks or public participation during the development of policies. He tables a policy typology that provides incentives for political actors to participate in the policy-making process. This typology categorises policy by salient and complexity dimensions.

According to Eshbaugh-Soha (2006), policies that are highly salient are likely to encourage public involvement because issues that are highly salient affect a large number of people in a significant way. Policies that are complex concern issues that require substantial expertise and the public is less concerned about these issues.

She maintains that the dimension of the policy affects who will participate during policy formulation. Soha states that a salient policy affects a sizeable participation and support by the public. It is therefore important when policy is developed by the legislature to assess if the policy will be relevant to their constituents (Eshbaugh-Soha, 2006).

### 2.6.3 Process Model

Birkland (2005) argues that the policy process is a fruitful way to begin to understand how groups, power, and the agenda interact to set boundaries of political policy debate. Policy process focuses on how policies are developed and attempts to understand the different stages of the policy making cycle. Dunn (1994) argues that the process model advocates that public policy making should encompass the following policy processes: policy agenda setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy evaluation as explained in the following sub-sections.

#### 2.6.3.1 Policy Agenda Setting

McCool (1995) notes that agenda setting is the stage at which organs of government decide what policy area should be resolved. Birkland (2005) observes that policy agenda setting is the process by which problems and alternative solutions gain or lose public and elite attention. Setting of an agenda is usually a response to a policy problem.

Bowe, *et al.,* (1992) in his characterisation of the policy process observes that policy has three primary contexts. They are: *context of influence*, *context of policy text production* and *context of practice*. Bowe, *et al.,* (1992) defines the “context of influence” as the public policy initiation stage where policy discourses are constructed and in this instance, agenda

setting is executed by national government. National government sets the policy agenda in line with priorities of the government of the day.

Birkland (2005) observes that policy agenda setting, like all other stages of the policy process, does not occur in a vacuum. Anderson (1997) emphasises this argument by maintaining that public policy making cannot be separated from the environment in which it occurs. Through policy agenda setting, the role of government is to set the parameters in terms of national goals and priorities. It is important to note that for a policy to command the attention of the public and stakeholder domain, the activity of public policy-making should thus remain in the custody of the state. Peters (2004) agrees to the goal-setting role of the state and makes an observation that governance requires fulfilling four fundamental conditions of goal-setting, steering, coherence and accountability and feedback.

McLennan and Ngoma (2004) argue that institutions can only achieve service delivery, especially in the context of scarce resources, by setting their own goals and priorities within national goals and parameters.Peters (2004) draws the distinction between the market and government, asserting that markets are only capable of setting goals that are efficient in an economic sense and only benefit competing actors, whilst government sets goals that are for the good of the civil society as a whole.

Stiglitz (2003) concurs, noting that without government, markets sometimes produce too much of some goods and too little of others. He does, however, caution that policies based on an ideology are likely to be a failure and also emphasises that markets have their limitations too (Stiglitz, 2003).It must be noted that the role of goal-setting by government is not definite, particularly in a constitutional democratic mode of governance such as occurs in South Africa. For instance, tensions within the South African government, especially the Health Department, resulted in the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC) which led and won a campaign

through the Constitutional Court to force government to provide anti-retroviral medication and adequate treatment for people infected with HIV-AIDS (Friedman and Mottiar, 2005).

#### 2.6.3.2 Policy formulation

Whilst the intention of policy agenda setting is to set parameters and goals for policy formulation, it is also about identifying and selecting the best policy alternative. Birkland (2005) observes that policy formulation is the process by which policies are designed, both through technical analysis and through the political process, to achieve a particular goal. Birkland (2005) further observes that after the policy is formulated, it is enacted and then implemented.

Policy formulation as one of the phases in the policy cycle involves policy analysis and in this phase the best the course of action for handling the policy problem in the best possible manner is crafted. During the policy-making process, various options are analysed and the best alternative chosen. Dunn (1994) further qualifies this definition by describing policy analysis as a methodology for formulating problems as part of a search for solutions.

Policy formulation can also be classified within public policy into a number of categories including “executive” policy level. Barber (1983), Cloete (1981) and Gladden (1964) in Cloete, *et al.,* ( 2006) define the “executive” policy level as cabinet decisions or implementation policies determined by political office-bearers, working with high ranking public officials.

Altbeker (2009) advocates that the South African policy-making process is collective in nature. It is therefore imperative that a consensus is built across government and stakeholder environments before a policy decision can be taken.

A cost-benefit analysis approach in policy-making assists to inform of the ideal state of affairs during policy implementation. Greenspan (2008) also observes that a thoughtful and carefully calculated policy-making process opens the door about how the world works and the lessons that can be learned from history.

#### 2.6.3.3 Policy Adoption

Birkland (2005) observes that after a public policy is formulated, it is adopted and then implemented. Cloete (1998) observes that public policy adoption is usually led and formalised by the legislative arm of government. The process of policy adoption entails a selection and endorsement of policy through various administrative activities within the legislature and is not motivated by factors unrelated to designing an effective policy solution. The focus in the process of policy adoption is on legitimising a policy to be a formal government policy pronouncement. In essence it also means that adoption confers on a policy the "weight of public authority".

#### 2.6.3.4 Policy Implementation

Policy implementation is the critical stage of the policy-making process. In this stage, the policy prescripts that have been formulated in the second stage of policy formulation are affected into policy action. This includes implementing programmes and projects to resolve the particular policy problem or public concerns. Birkland (2005) argues that in policy implementation, administrative agents translate the will of the executive and legislative into actual policy outcomes. De Coning (2006) complements this argument and observes that policy implementation is

the crucial phase of the policy process. It is during this phase that the practicalities of the best policy options are tested in the real world.

The options to execute monitoring and evaluation can range from direct provision, contracting, leases, concessions and creation of agencies to take over some government functions. Whilst De Coning (2006) emphasises the value of the policy implementation phase as the crucial stage of the policy process, Bowe, *et al.,* (1992) cautions through his definition of policy implementation as "the context of practice" that policy is not always simply received with naivety by practitioners but is subject to being "recreated".

Bowe, *et al., (*1992) further makes a clear distinction between policy-makers and implementers and observes that "policy writers cannot control the meaning of their texts". He maintains that during policy implementation, parts of policy texts would be "rejected, selected out, ignored, etc." Booysen (2006) shares this view and notes that factors that affect the implementation of policy are widely acknowledged to include administrative control, organisational resources, institutional settings, intergovernmental relations, or pressure politics.

Peters (2004) argues that implementation must be done by a public bureaucracy. He further notes that the process of steering and implementation must move from the high level political decisions to the more implementable administrative decisions. Implementation of government programmes and plans has its own share of challenges.

It is, however, important that government employs the correct policy instrument to put a particular programme into operation. Peters (2004) notes that government has a variety of instruments available to achieve the overarching set of goals. He points out that different instruments can be used to deliver a programme with different degrees of efficiency and

with different side effects. This implies that since policy must be translated into projects and programmes, it is important that the environment for implementation is conducive to realising the objectives of the policy. De Coning (2006) suggests that joint-co-operation and responsibilities between the various spheres of government can make policy implementation a success.

One of the determinants of the way policy implementation needs to unfold is the issue of power contestations. Ball (1987) in Bowe, *et al.,* (1992) maintains that different interpretations of policy would be in conflict as they relate to different interests; one or other interpretation will predominate.

#### 2.6.3.5 Policy Evaluation

The role of the evaluation activity in the policy making cycle entails identifying what works and what does not in the implementation of a policy and the reasons why. Through evaluation, information on the performance of a policy and its programmes and projects can be attained. Evaluation enhances transparency and accountability by producing valid evidence for policy decisions taken in the policy-making process. This means that policy analysis also occurs within a particular political environment. Anderson (1997) observes that policy-making cannot be separated from the environment in which it occurs. The dimension of politics plays a significant role in determining the environment of policy-making.

As the last stage in the policy making cycle, evaluation assists policy makers to explain why they consider certain policy proposals and what is their understanding of the likely effectiveness of these proposals. Hanekom (1987) defines policy evaluation as an appraisal or assessment of policy content, implementation and impact in order to determine the extent to which the specific policy objectives are being achieved. The

information derived from monitoring and evaluation is crucial in providing accurate accounts and data on experiences and serves as input to further policy development. Van der walt and Du Toit (1999) observe that evaluation enables policy makers to determine the extent of policy dilution and discrepancy between the expected and actual policy outcomes.

Policy evaluation is an integral part in the policymaking process. The importance of this process ensures that challenges and opportunities are responded to promptly and assesses the impact, progress and achievements of the policy. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) in De Coning (2006) define policy evaluation as an attempt to measure and indicate the success of the measures applied to implement the policy.

Policy evaluation can be executed in formative and summative methods. The summative method assesses the worth and merit of the programme at the end of the programme activities. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) argue that summative evaluation addresses the very important issue of accountability. This is done through the production of a variety of reports which provide a retrospective and retroactive detailed assessment of the longevity of the project.

Summative evaluation is quite popular in customer service environments, for instance, where consumers deduce whether a product is safe and of good quality. These evaluations utilise a range of methods to establish all the details of what was done and achieved. Such methods can be case studies, controlled experiments and checklists (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007).

Formative evaluation is conducted during the development of a programme. The main purpose of formative evaluations is to ensure quality assurance and improvement. They are widely used as guidance for decision-making by project managers with their staff. The orientation of

formative evaluation is both prospective and proactive. The particular types of service of formative evaluation include assistance with goal-setting, planning and management (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007).

## 2.7 EMERGING INSIGHTS AND APPLICATION TO STUDY

The various definitions of public participation indicate that there are divergent views and meanings to the issue of public participation. The common factor is that it is imperative to involve people or the public in a policy, project or development initiative. Public participation legitimises a process and makes government accountable to its citizens. There are several ways and mechanisms that can be utilised for engaging the public. However, it is not always possible to measure the extent to which a particular mechanism is effective or not.

The reasons include the fact that the public is very diverse and large and therefore it is difficult to measure the effectiveness of the method of engagement. The different views on public participation provided the researcher with an opportunity to understand that stakeholders have different understandings and interpretations of the issue of public participation. The needs of the stakeholders seem to be the driving factor in the definition of public participation. This was important for this study that was quite complex and had a variety of stakeholders that each had their own needs.

In terms of BRT, there is a recognition that it is a modern high quality bus-based public transport system that delivers fast, comfortable and uninterrupted service to a city transport system. The success of BRT systems such as the Trans-Mileno and that of Curitiba was made possible by strong political will, effective planning and maximum public participation in planning and implementation. Some of the methods that can be utilised

to facilitate public participation in BRT systems include information sessions, interviews, meetings, focus groups and outreach communications. The researcher used the above methods as a benchmark in the analysis of the various methods that have been utilised in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg.

Some of the emerging insights on change management indicate that involving people and encouraging participation in the change process can minimise disruptions and resistance. Even though it is more difficult to manage change when the need for change is urgent, careful and effective planning towards change management is very important. The insights created an understanding of how a change process is managed. The researcher applied some of these insights to examine how the change brought by the BRT system was managed. These included an examination of the nature and effects of changes and the basic concepts of change management applied during the introduction and implementation of BRT.

The institutional theory indicates that the structure of institutions facilitates certain policy outcomes, impedes others or may give advantage to certain interests and disadvantage others. A public policy is a product of institutions. The policy process model also emphasises that public policy should be done in sequential stages.

The process model views public policy as a political activity or patterns of activities. Process model theorists contend that the design and implementation of public policy should be done in sequential stages. The two theories were applied in the study because they illuminate the role of institutions in public policy processes and how public policy management is facilitated, in this case the role of the COJ and other spheres of government in the BRT system.

The policy networks theory was also applied in the study because of it complementarity to the institutional theory and process model. The policy networks offers an opportunity for those policy actors, especially those outside government that have an interest or stake in a given policy issue to influence policy formulation and implementation.

In essence, the intention of a policy network is to influence the selection of a particular policy choice that favours the situation of a particular group. The researcher was further able to understand that the broad membership of policy networks helps policy makers to access information and expertise from a variety of backgrounds. This was important because the researcher attained a more complete picture of particular policy issues that were not necessarily addressed within the COJ and other government institutions that played a role in the BRT system. It is simply through policy networks that government can be in a better position to test the environment before implementation begins, which in essence also means this theory assists in public policy management

## 2.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the literature review and theoretical framework. The literature reviewed focused on public participation, bus rapid transit system networks and change management. The theoretical frameworks discussed the institutional theory, policy networks and policy process model.

The review of literature has shown that public participation is integral to, and important in, policy-making processes. The literature has further shown that BRT is a modern intervention to address the mass transit needs of urban people in particular and public transport in general. The

integral issue surrounding the BRT relates to proper policy and planning co-ordination, especially with regard to public participation.

The success of various BRT models in South American and Asian countries has been largely dependent on the roles played by all actors such as the politicians, as well as active public participation. The key factor in the process of managing change is the issue of dealing with resistance which by and large unavoidable.

Some of the immediate solutions proposed for dealing with resistance point out that involving people and encouraging participation in the change process can minimise disruptions and resistance. There is increasing evidence that there is institutional evolution; that is, a new institution emerges through policy description, procedures, power relations, and rules of the institution and what happens within structures.

The policy network as a contemporary theory to the study of institutions enlightens us as students of public policy as to how public policy should be developed to address problems facing the society. In the policy process model, policy-making is assumed to proceed in stages which are agenda setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and evaluation. In closing, the next chapter discusses how data for the study was collected.

# CHAPTER THREE
# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research methodology that was used to collect data for the study. The chapter is further partitioned into various sub-sections .The first sub-section deals with the research approach. The second sub-section covers data collection methods and techniques that were used for the study. The approach to data analysis is discussed in the third sub-section. The fourth sub-section discusses how the researcher ensured that the data that was gathered was valid and reliable. The fifth subsection discusses the limitations and ethical considerations for the research. Lastly, the summary is presented as the last subsection of this chapter.

## 3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The main research approaches to a study are qualitative and quantitative methods. This study is based on the qualitative method of research but still considered some aspects of the quantitative method to illustrate the varying experiences of the respondents pertaining to the formulation and implementation of BRT system.

Qualitative research uses data collection and analytical methods that are non-statistical in nature and this complements the study since it takes a descriptive approach. Peshkin (1993) in Leedy (2001) describes qualitative research studies to be serving the purpose of description − they can reveal the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationships, systems or people, interpretation and they enable the researcher to gain insights about the nature of particular phenomenon,

develop new concepts about the phenomenon and discover problems that exist within the phenomenon. Through qualitative research, the researcher was able to test the validity of certain assumptions, claims, theories or generalisations about the BRT within the real context of Johannesburg as perceived by the public and presented by the media in electronic and print formats.

The intention of this study was to understand and discover a description of the events that led to the public outcry regarding participation in the BRT system in Johannesburg. The qualitative method of research was deemed appropriate for this study because the researcher got an opportunity to deal with first-hand information from the respondents who were directly dealing with or affected by the Bus Rapid Transit system. Neuman (2006) observes that qualitative research is more concerned with issues of the richness, texture and feel of raw data.

Whilst the qualitative research method relies on constructivist perspectives, the quantitative research methodology is heavily reliant on a positivist approach to social science (Neuman: 2006). Cresswell (2003) observes that the quantitative researcher in this instance, tests a theory by specifying narrow hypotheses and the collection of data to support or refute the hypotheses.

Neuman (2006) further observes that quantitative research takes a deductive approach and the researcher applies a “reconstructed logic” and follows a linear research path. Since the study has considered some elements of quantitative research, the researcher had an opportunity to further quantify some of the responses of the interviewees. Graphs were used to illustrate the trends regarding the various experiences and feelings of stakeholders regarding the BRT system.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001) also note a distinction between qualitative and quantitative methodologies: that even though both methodologies involve similar processes, those processes themselves are often combined and carried out in different ways, leading to distinctly different methods. In summary, Neuman (1994), Denzin and Lincoln (1994) provide a comparative analysis of the two methodologies as described in Table 2 below.

**Table 2: Comparisons of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods**

| QUALITATIVE RESEARCH | QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH |
|---|---|
| Regards reality as subjective | Regards reality as objective |
| Concepts are in the form of themes, motifs and categories | Concepts are in the form of distinct variables |
| Data is analysed by extracting themes | Data analysis is undertaken by means of statistical procedure |
| Data is presented in the form of words, quotations from transcripts and documents | Data is presented by means of exact figures gained from precise measurement |
| The unit if analysis is holistic, concentrating on the relationships between elements, contexts etc. | The unit of analysis is undertaken mainly by means of standardised statistical procedures. |
| The research design is relatively flexible and often evolves through the research process; it can be replicated though if the researcher takes specific measures. | The research design is rigid and standardised according to a fixed procedure, and can easily be replicated. |

*Source: Neuman (1994) Denzin and Lincoln (1994)*

The researcher noted that the issue that was studied has many dimensions and employment of both qualitative and quantitative research was advantageous. The unit of analysis for the study was done in a holistic manner and concentrated on the relationships between elements, and contexts.

As noted in Table 2, the researcher reached certain summaries and recommendations for this study through investigative means with regards to the supposed “reality” gathered about BRT, since the issue studied had many layers.

## 3.3 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The data for this study was collected through qualitative literature review and face-to-face interviews. The data was kept on record through the utilisation of techniques such as field notes, audiotapes, and photographs. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) point out that the researcher should record any potentially useful data thoroughly, accurately and systematically. Data for the study was classified under the primary and secondary formats.

### 3.1.1 Primary Data

The researcher was the primary instrument of data collection. Interviews and documentary analysis were used to collect primary data. Yin (1994) and Groenewald (1986) also observe that descriptive studies require that quite a number of research methods be used in conjunction with one another to collect data. These include documentary analysis, interviews, and observation.

The researcher found primary data to be appropriate for this study because it was qualitative in nature and highly valid and illuminating (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). This type of information provided the researcher to gain insightful knowledge about the BRT system because it was collected directly from first-hand experience.

#### 3.1.1.1 Interviews

The researcher conducted face-to-face individual interviews with all the identified respondents. Neuman (2006) articulates that the interview is a short, secondary social interaction between two strangers with the explicit purpose of one person obtaining specific information from the other. The majority of the respondents were familiar to the researcher and the interviews did not turn out as "secondary social interaction" but were rather interactive sessions that yielded a great deal of information (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

The advantage of interviews is that the researcher is able to choose the respondents. The researcher chose the respondents that were likely to provide valuable responses and had previously participated in the BRT system. The disadvantage is that the chosen respondent is prone to be replaced at any given time. This might have a negative effect on the quality of information that is anticipated by the researcher. Turner and Martin (1984) in Neuman (2006) attribute this disadvantage partly to the respondents not knowing what is expected of them.

For reasons of confidentiality the names of the respondents who participated in the interviews have been replaced by the names of their respective organisations. The organisations were: National Department of Transport, City of Johannesburg Metropolitan municipality, Gauteng Department of Roads and Transport, Greater Johannesburg Regional Taxi Council, South African National Civics Organisation, South African Transport and Allied Workers Union, South African Commuter Organisation, South African National Taxi Council, South African Bus Operators Association, Top Six Taxi Association and United Taxi Associations Forum. All the respondents were requested by telephone and electronic mail to participate in the study.

Interviews were held in the respondents' respective organisations and places of work in the Gauteng and Western Cape provinces in the cities of

Johannesburg, Pretoria and Cape Town. The majority of respondents were from Johannesburg and only a few were from Pretoria and Cape Town respectively.

An in-depth interview schedule was used as a guide for the interview process. Each of the respondents was asked questions according to the interview schedule which is attached as an appendix in this report. The researcher took detailed notes of the responses that were provided by the interviewees and this was complemented by the usage of an audio tape recorder. The researcher requested the respondents' permission to use the audio tape recorder.

The researcher employed the semi-structured method of interviewing in this study. A semi-structured interview places greater emphasis on the interviewee's point of view. This was important for the study because the researcher was interested in comparing the various views of the respondents in order to ascertain the reality and first-hand information from people that were directly involved in the BRT system. The interviewees had a great deal of leeway in how to respond to the questions and the interview process was by nature quite stable. The questions that were not included as part of the interview schedule were asked as the researcher picked up comments made by the interviewee and this included follow-up questions.

#### 3.1.1.2 Documentary analysis

The researcher performed an analysis of all the documents that were identified. Documents ranged from policy documents to general official documents, strategies, minutes, research documents, and plans.
Documentary analysis allowed the researcher to define the document context, type, features and relationships without having to read each document fully. Neuman (2006) refers to documentary analysis as a

means to reassemble the information in new ways to address the research question.

The documentary analysis was performed by employing a checklist. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define a checklist as a list of behaviours, characteristics, or other entities that a researcher is investigating. The checklist assisted the researcher to ascertain whether the identified documents were relevant for the study or not. The researcher looked for information relevant to public participation, Bus Rapid Transit systems, change management and public policy making.

Documents that did not meet the checklist criteria were deemed irrelevant and not included. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) also maintain that a checklist allows the researcher to simply check whether each item on the list is observed, present, or true; or not present, or true.

Documentary analysis assisted the researcher to track how processes unfolded over a period and this resulted in the manifestation of information which would otherwise not have been traceable. This included the identification of other key policy actors that played a key role in BRT but were not projected as such by the media and other sources of information.

Documentary analysis further assisted in “unlocking” the otherwise hidden history of the BRT process and data that was not easily available in the public domain. The Policy Hub (2008) observes that documentary analysis can also give a voice to groups which might not have been heard in policy-making with the addition of details.

### 3.1.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data refers to information that can be derived from the primary data (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). This type of information is usually collected for a different purpose by someone other than the user.

The researcher collected secondary data for this study from journals, web-based materials and search engines, general research documents, newspaper articles and magazines usually derived from the primary data (Leedy and Ormrod , 2010). Collection of secondary data was integral for this study because it provided a basis for the researcher to compare the primary data that was collected. Secondary data also provided historical and comprehensive information about the topic that was investigated by the researcher. Moreover secondary data assisted in making the primary data to be collected more specific as the researcher was able to identify gaps and determine if there was need for additional information.

## 3.2 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

The researcher applied purposeful sampling in the selection of data sources for this study. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) observe that purposeful sampling is a selection of those individuals or objects that will yield the most information about the topic under investigation. This form of sampling is intentionally non-random in nature and in the selection of data.

The individuals who were selected as data sources and interviewed for this study by the researcher came from various backgrounds and work fields within the transport and public sectors at large. All the identified respondents were selected to participate in this study because of their prior involvement in BRT conceptualisation and implementation.
Merriam (1998) complements this argument and observes that purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to

discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned.

The selected individuals were quite insightful in this study because the researcher was able to identify and understand the particular types of cases that required in-depth investigation within the Bus Rapid Transit system (Neuman, 2006). Patton (1990) also argues that “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth”.

## 3.3 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The researcher analysed and interpreted the data that was collected for the study. The researcher understood that while presentation of the data is important, data analysis and interpretation was equally important. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), the resolution of a research problem is quite dependent on an inquire into the intrinsic meaning of the data.

Data analysis and interpretation is the epitome of any research because it involves making sense of what the data says in relation to the research problem under investigation. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) further define data analysis as an inductive reasoning, sorting and categorising of a large body of information and boiling it down to a small set of abstract, underlying themes. Data analysis therefore refers to the systematic and synthetic analysis of the information that has been collected.

The researcher analysed the data for this study by adopting a model which was borrowed from Cresswell (1998) in Leedy and Ormrod (2001).The model points out that data analysis can be performed through the following steps which include amongst other things ; organisation of data by filing, perusal of data several times, classification of data by grouping the data

into categories of themes and lastly synthesis of data by offering hypotheses or propositions and construction of tables, diagrams and hierarchies.

## 3.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

A research study is never complete without the researcher determining the reliability and validity of the data that has been collected. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) observe that validity means the extent which the instrument measures what it is actually intended to measure. In other words, the validity of an instrument is specific to the situation. Reliability is the extent to which the instrument yields consistent results when the characteristic being measured has not changed (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010).

The intention of conducting validation and reliability exercises is to determine the measurement of constructs within the study. In essence it means establishing the truthfulness, credibility, or believability of findings that would be discovered by the researcher (Neuman, 2006). Merriam (2002) observes that the following methods, as outlined in Table 3 below, can be used to determine the validity and reliability of data in a research study.

**Table 3: Validity and Reliability methods**

| STRATEGY | DESCRIPTION |
|---|---|
| Triangulation | Using multiple investigations, sources of data, or data collection methods to confirm emerging findings |
| Member checks | Taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking if they are plausible |
| Peer reviews /examinations | Discussions with colleagues regarding the process of the study, the congruency of emerging findings with the raw data and tentative interpretations |
| Researcher's position or flexibility | Data is presented by means of exact figures gained from precise measurement |
| Adequate engagement in data collection | Adequate time spent collecting data such that the data become saturated; this may involve seeking discrepancies or negative cases of the phenomenon |
| Audit trail | A detailed account of the methods, procedures and decision points in carrying out the study |
| Rich, thick description | Providing enough description to contextualise the study such that readers will be able to determine the extent to which their situation matches the research context and hence whether findings can be transferred |

*Source: Merriam (2002)*

The researcher applied the triangulation method to validate the data in this study. Bailey-Beckett and Turner (2009) observe that triangulation is the application of more than one research perspective in the study of the same phenomenon. This method was selected with the intention that it would perhaps assist to identify the potential pitfalls of the techniques that were employed to collect data.

As observed in Table 3, triangulation was considered the most appropriate method because of the complex nature of the Bus Rapid Transit system in Johannesburg. There was an inherent need to authenticate the

truthfulness of the information because of the involvement of quite a number of stakeholders. Neuman (2006) observes that “authenticity means giving a fair, honest and balanced account of social life from the view point of someone who lives it every day”.

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields certain results when the object or phenomenon being measured has not changed (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). Neuman (2006) also defines reliability as “dependability or consistency”. The researcher used a tape recorder to record the interview data with all the respondents. The researcher further enhanced the reliability of the tape recorder by administering it in a consistent manner. In other words, there was standardisation in the use of the tape recorder from one person to the next.

## 3.5 LIMITATIONS AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE RESEARCH

The findings of the study cannot be generalised because the research would be based on a case study that is applicable in Johannesburg. This means that the reader or a prospective researcher cannot make a blanket assumption that the findings of the study indicate a certain pattern that can generally occur in any setting.

The sample size that was used for the study was not stable and kept on increasing. This was because the taxi industry is still largely informal and has many associations in Johannesburg. The researcher took a while to determine the accurate representation of the taxi industry. All the leaders of those particular associations claimed to be the voices of the taxi industry in Johannesburg. In the final analysis, determination of the sample size for the study turned out to be an exhaustive exercise. The researcher is currently employed by the National Department of Transport in the Transport Policy Unit division.

Even though implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit Network system has been executed by a local sphere of government such as the City of Johannesburg, the researcher is still expected to meet his contractual obligations to his employer. Potential challenges of bias towards the findings of this study were resolved by seeking the permission of the accounting officer of the National Department of Transport for the researcher to undertake the study.

The researcher indicated in the request to the employer that the study was an academic exercise and the researcher was required to be impartial in order to draw qualitative and quantitative results and unbiased summaries. The researcher further adhered to the principles of maintaining confidentially and anonymity pertaining to all the data collected and work done towards the finalisation of the study.

## 3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research methodology that was used for the study. The research methodology adopted a qualitative approach but still considered some aspects of quantitative research. This was on the basis that it was quite important for the study to quantify the various experiences of the respondents regarding their participation in the Bus Rapid Transit system in Johannesburg.

The chapter explained how the respondents for the interviews were identified and the methodology that was used to conduct the interviews. The chapter further explained how the data for the study was collected, analysed and interpreted, and lastly explained how the researcher determined the validity and reliability of the data that was collected throughout the study. The next chapter focuses on the presentation of the data that was collected in the study.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# DATA PRESENTATION

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the data collected from the individual interviews with the respondents and the documentary analysis that was performed by the researcher. These two sets of data are presented to show interrelatedness of the respondents' experiences in BRT with the pronouncements of the documents analysed on the issue under investigation.

The data presented has been categorised into four themes drawn from the questions utilised during the interview process. The themes are: BRT formulation, implementation, participation mechanisms and satisfaction. The data attempts to provide answers and explanations to the main research question which is: How did the public participate in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system?

The main section of the chapter provides the respondents' experiences in BRT. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of the issues that emanated from the data presented.

## 4.2 BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM FORMULATION

When asked about their participation in the formulation of the BRT, the respondents provided different views. Some of the respondents indicated that they were involved in BRT formulation whilst others indicated that they did not participate. The responses of the respondents provided the researcher with an opportunity to classify the participation in different

stages. For the purposes of this study, the researcher termed the stages to be initiation, intermediate and final BRT formulation stages.

Respondents such as SACO, SANTACO and SANCO felt that their participation came at the intermediate stage because they participated when the formulation had started already and process was in progress whereas DoT, GDRT, SATAWU, Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC were involved from day one of the formulation process.

For example, SACO pointed out in their statement that they were not part of the BRT from the start and were only invited to participate when the formulation process was in motion and having problems" (Interview, 10 December 2010).

SANTACO also conceded that they were never involved in BRT from the initial stages and this came as a surprise to them because BRT was meant to be a nationwide transport programme that was to be implemented in the various cities of South Africa (Interview, 09 November 2010). SANTACO further felt that because they were a mother body of all taxi associations in South Africa, the CoJ should have consulted with them during the initial stages of the BRT in order to create a good environment for the progress of the later phases of the project (Interview, 09 November 2010).

CoJ were opposed to the view by SANTACO and conceded that because the BRT was a local government project it made perfect sense for them to directly engage with local organisations and not national structures (Interview, 22 November 2010).SANTACO further articulated that nothing about the BRT planning nor its purpose was communicated to the national leadership. The City of Johannesburg has been "engaging with our local membership in Johannesburg without our involvement whatsoever" (Interview, 09 November 2010).

SANTACO was further quoted in the *Engineering News* (2008) proclaiming that:

> We request that the BRT should be put on hold until the minibus taxi industry's involvement is outlined. If this is not done, we are not going to fold our arms. The Government must not take the taxi industry very lightly, we know our constitutional rights and we know what we are talking about when we are talking about our business. The manner in which the Government has been handling the BRT, a new revolutionary bus system for Johannesburg, was brewing conflict and distrust. This would not only delay actual implementation, but also incur costs that could be avoided.

UTAF shared the view of SANTACO that the CoJ did not engage them on their views on restructuring of the public transport system in Johannesburg and their inclusion in BRT. According to UTAF, the lack of participation in the initial stages of the BRT formulation process invariably created conditions for the BRT to be prone to failure and resistance. (Interview, 02 February 2011).

On the contrary, the Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC felt that the CoJ BRT formulation process was in line with South Africa's democratic principles of giving the opportunity for the public to air their views about matters that affect their own livelihood (Interview, 15 December 2010). The Top Six Taxi Association further indicated that all stakeholders were put on "board "in the formulation of the BRT project in Johannesburg.

The CoJ shared the same views and sentiments with Taxi Top Six and confirmed in their statement that:

> BRT is a long-term investment in the future of our City. It is the product of an extensive process of consultation with a wide range of interested stakeholders in the transport sector. It is a key part of a broader plan to provide the people of Johannesburg with a seamless public transport network which combines bus rapid transit, commuter rail, taxis, regular buses and private vehicles (Interview, 22 November,2010).

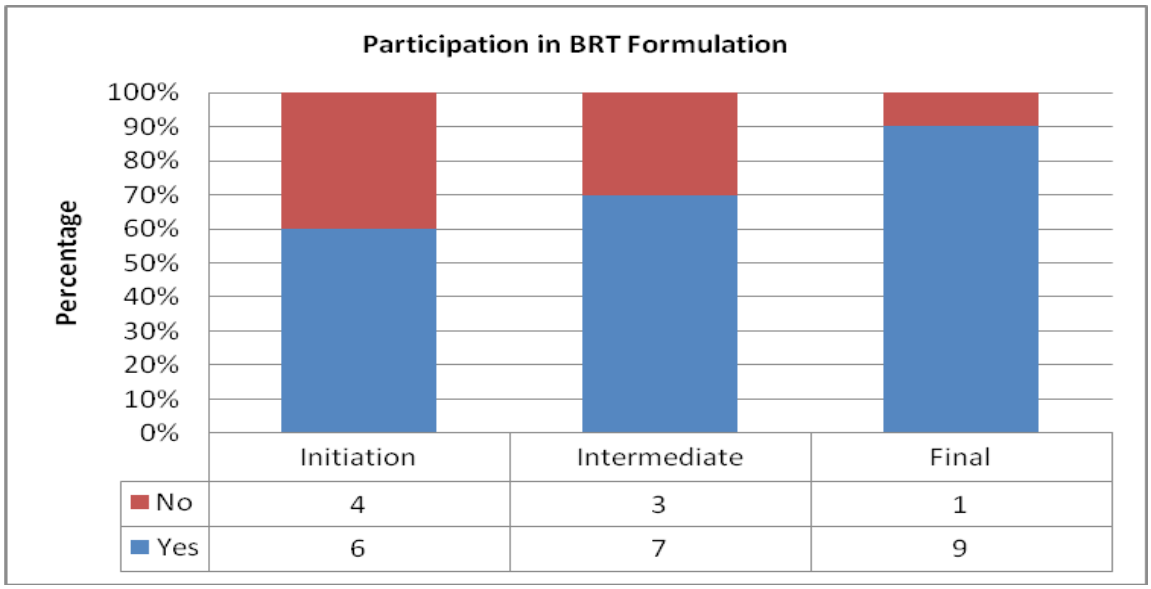
SATAWU indicated that they were happy to have been part of the formulation process of the BRT from day one. They indicated that CoJ identified their organisation as an affected party and they were given a platform to air their views regarding how the BRT formulation and implementation process should unfold (Interview, 01 December 2010).The main concern of SATAWU was the following:

> The concept of BRT looked interesting when it was presented to us by DoT in conjunction with CoJ. The presentation seemed to draw the best lessons learned of BRT formulation and implementation in Bogota, Colombia. Our main concern however, was the lack of a convincing response from government when we sought clarification about their intention to apply the same system in South Africa without the active involvement of the taxi industry.

> We became gravely concerned that it would seem that the government was taking the role of the taxi industry very lightly. In addition, we were told that the BRT would benefit the taxi industry and as to how it was not unpacked (Interview, 01 December 2010).

Figure 2 below shows the different stages of the BRT formulation process and where the respondents participated.

**Figure 2: Participation in the BRT Formulation Process**




*Source: Own (2011)*

As observed above in Figure 2, all the respondents indicated that they participated in the formulation of the BRT in Johannesburg. The interesting phenomenon that can be drawn from the above figure is that the participation started at a slow pace and seemed to steadily improve when the formulation process was in progress. As observed earlier, all the respondents generally felt that they should have participated from the initial stages of the BRT formulation to gain a full understanding of what BRT entailed.

Respondents felt that the intentions of the BRT process were quite confusing and the concept was very difficult to understand. According to UTAF (Interview, 02 February 2011), the BRT system was confusing on the future of the taxi industry. They were not sure about the benefits of the BRT to the taxi industry and this was not a good precursor for the envisaged implementation to be effective. SACO anchored the view by

UTAF and articulated that their problem was that the CoJ seemed to understand and have full knowledge of the BRT whereas the taxi industry did not (Interview, 10 December 2010).

SABOA provided another dimension and pointed out that the CoJ itself was not sure about what the BRT sought to achieve because they started a process they knew nothing about. (Interview, 01 February 2011).

SABOA further pointed out in their statement:

> In the meeting we had with the CoJ, it was explained by the CoJ that they were starting the negotiating process and consultation with operators on BRT. It became very clear to us during the meeting that the CoJ was fully vested about what BRT entails and how the formulation and implementation process was going to unfold. For instance, the participants of the meeting, who were largely operators, enquired quite extensively about BRT but the CoJ could not provide concrete answers. In the final analysis, the operators were left very confused about the whole matter of BRT (Interview, 01 February 2011).

The CoJ conceded that the BRT was a difficult concept to understand and foreign to the public transport system of Johannesburg and South Africa. The CoJ pointed out that in a bid to simplify the concept of the BRT, a study tour was organised to Bogota and Ecuador in South America to allow the taxi industry and government to learn more about the new concept of BRT and this was a further confirmation from the CoJ about how they valued public participation in the BRT (Interview, 22 November 2010).

SACO questioned the selection criteria of the CoJ regarding the stakeholders who went on the study tour to South America and could not understand why they were excluded. (Interview, 10 December 2010). SATAWU concurred with SACO and also explained that it was quite puzzling that the CoJ took a one-dimensional approach by only inviting the taxi industry to participate in the study tour when there were other key policy stakeholders in Johannesburg's public transport system (Interview, 01 December 2010).

SABOA also indicated their discomfort about their exclusion on the study tour and further pointed out that when they enquired about this, the response from CoJ was that the BRT affected operators in the taxi industry and not existing bus operators (Interview, February 2011). According to the CoJ, the variety of stakeholders affected by the BRT in Johannesburg and the informal nature of the taxi industry made it quite impossible for the CoJ to satisfy all stakeholders (Interview, 22 November 2011).

One intervention that the CoJ introduced was the formation of a steering committee composed of the major stakeholders of the taxi industry in Johannesburg. The CoJ mentioned in their statement:

> We realised after the study tour from South America that not only did the BRT present us with an opportunity of providing an efficient transport system for the city, but also with a chance to reconcile the warring factions within the taxi industry and contribute to the resolution of the inherent instability that has characterised the industry for many years. The fact that we managed to have both Johannesburg's two main taxi associations which were GJRTC and Taxi Top Six in the same study tour was evidence enough that the face of public transport in Johannesburg was destined to change for the good. We termed the committee

> the Johannesburg Minibus Taxi Industry (JMTI) BRT Steering Committee and it was comprised of six members from both Taxi Top Six and GJRTC (Interview, 22 November 2010).

The CoJ indicated that the establishment of the JMTI BRT Steering committee was a clear intention to capitalise on the momentum created by the study tour and formalise the engagement and negotiation process of the BRT. This was in view of the fact that the taxi industry was largely informal and achieving collective engagement was a mammoth task. (Interview, 22 November 2010).

### 4.3 BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

The respondents provided different views regarding their participation in the implementation of the BRT in Johannesburg. Some respondents argued that they did not play a role in the implementation of the BRT because of the haphazard approach taken by CoJ regarding public participation.

For instance, SANTACO strongly pointed out in their statement that they were not involved in the implementation of BRT and as such initially rejected the implementation of the project (Interview, 09 November 2010). SANTACO further indicated that they could not understand why the CoJ excluded the taxi industry when it moves 65 per cent of the commuting public on a daily basis (NHTS: 2003).

SANTACO further pointed out in their statement that:

> UTAF concurred with SANTACO and also rejected the implementation of the BRT (Interview, 02 February 2011). One of the concerns raised by UTAF was that because the BRT placed emphasis on the creation of dedicated bus lanes on traditional taxi

> routes, this was going to lead to loss of income and reduction of employment opportunities and the taxi routes are their intellectual property (Interview, 02 February 2011).

UTAF further mentioned in their statement that they “can’t give something a green light when we look at it and it’s not convincing.” The below articles from the *Sowetan* and *The Star* newspapers depict some of the public protests and demonstrations that were registered by the taxi industry against the implementation of the BRT.

**Photo 1: Coverage of opposition to BRT by print media in Johannesburg**




*Source: Sowetan (29 January 2009) and The Star (24 August 2009)*

According to UTAF (Interview, 02 February 2011), the insistence by CoJ on using their taxi routes was detrimental to the implementation of the BRT and became one of the prime reasons why they embarked on public protests and demonstrations as illustrated in the newspaper articles above. SANTACO also pointed out that the CoJ took unilateral decisions and informed all taxi operators that BRT would happen and according to SANTACO that cannot be defined as consultation.
The CoJ held a different view and indicated in their statement:

> We are trying to help those who cannot afford to buy cars and must survive on public transport. So if private motorists feel inconvenienced, the buses will be available. We have been liaising with the taxi industry representatives and have explained the project to them. They have not come out with a clear answer, but the project will continue. Rea Vaya will not be held to ransom by any public transport operation (Interview, 22 November 2010).

SANTACO felt that the CoJ was confident to proceed with implementation because they had the backing of law enforcement agencies to enforce the BRT system and did not mind the resistance from taxi operators (Interview, 09 November 2010). Contrary to the position of SANTACO, Top Six Taxi Association indicated that they were quite involved in the implementation of the BRT in Johannesburg, participated in all the stages of the implementation phase of the BRT, and that the CoJ was always readily available to listen to any suggestions about how implementation should unfold." (Interview, 15 December,2010).

Top Six Taxi, however, indicated that participation in all the stages did not mean that they agreed with the CoJ on the implementation of BRT.

The GJRTC shared this view and pointed out that their interest was how their members would benefit from the implementation of BRT and

therefore it was critical that they do not agree to “everything” with CoJ pertaining to BRT (Interview, 15 December 2010).

The Taxi Top Six and GJRTC were  was further quoted in *Mobility Magazine* (October /December  2008) stating the following:

> As Top Six Taxi, we want a 100 per cent stake in the BRT and we want to make sure that our members’ lives are better than they were yesterday. We also want make sure that not a single member loses his job or income when the BRT kicks off. On the other hand, the GJRTC echoed the sentiments by Taxi Top Six and indicated that: the industry is aware of the City’s timeframes, but there are no shortcuts. Our industry is still not corporatised and this is a radical transformation. We will not be coerced into making a rush-rush decision until we are satisfied that our members reap the benefits they deserve.

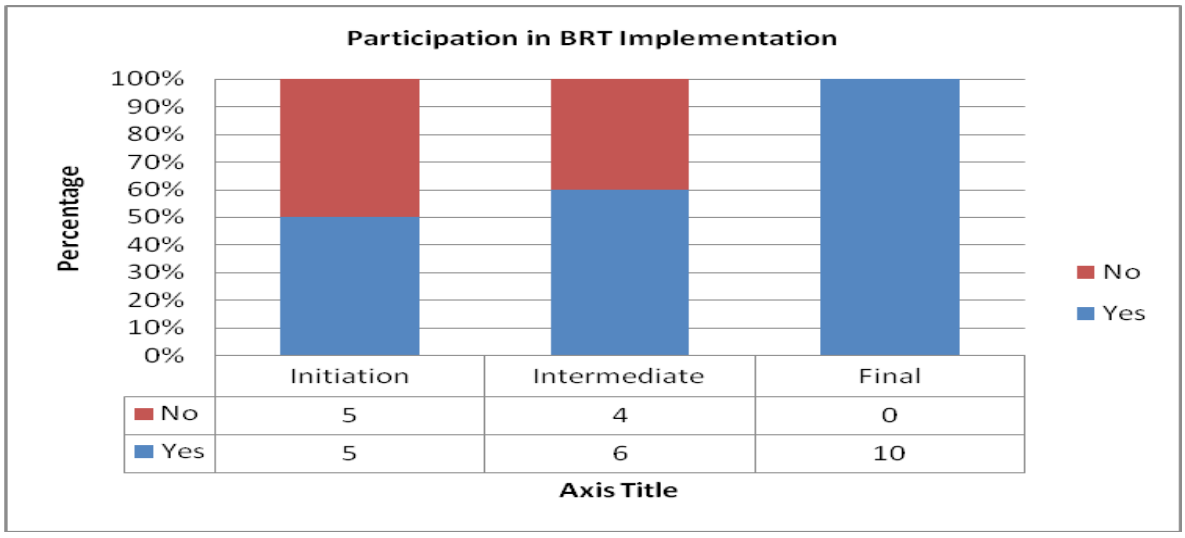
Other respondents such as SACO indicated that even though they participated when the implementation was in progress i.e. intermediate and final stages, there was a patriotic obligation to support the implementation of the BRT. For instance SACO felt that the ideals of the BRT were destined to change the face of public transport in Johannesburg and potentially in South Africa and as a result they could not sit back and reject the implementation of the project in its whole entirety (Interview, 10 December 2010).

SACO said that even though they were not consulted by CoJ from the start, they would support BRT for the sake of the commuting public (Interview, 10 December 2010). The organisation added that “the new BRT system is exactly what we have been preaching for a long time: an accessible, affordable, punctual and safe form of public transport that

integrates with other systems and uses a smart card as method of payment. This is what commuters have been waiting for. In fact our people have the right to this kind of system (*Mobility Magazine*, April/June 2009).

Figure 3 below shows the different stages of the BRT implementation process and where the respondents participated.

**Figure 3: Participation in the BRT Implementation Process**




*Source: Own (2011)*

As observed in Figure 3, the participation in the implementation phase of the BRT started slowly and steadily improved as the implementation progressed. Full participation was reached towards the end of the implementation phase when there was agreement between DoT, GDRT, CoJ, the taxi industry and other significant policy actors about the way in which BRT must be implemented.

According to the DoT (Interview, 08 December 2011) and supported by the GDRT (Interview, 08 February 2011) some of the factors, which led to the agreement and also discussed later in the report, was the need to stop the ongoing loss of innocent lives amongst commuters, intimidation,

damage to property and the need to address the taxi industry concerns that occurred as a result of BRT implementation.

Some of the respondents felt that their participation was further inhibited because the CoJ concentrated on resolving the concerns of the taxi industry only, rather than other stakeholders and the members of the public in general.

For instance, SABOA indicated in their statement that:

> During our first meeting with the CoJ, an impression was created that every stakeholder was going to be consulted and involved in BRT. We were equally astounded two years later when the CoJ made media announcements that the BRT was intended to benefit the taxi industry and affected associations. When we enquired about queried this with the CoJ, we were told that Phase 1 A had been closed already and we could only be considered when Phase 1 B of the BRT project commences (Interview, 01 February 2011).

In essence it meant that implementation of the BRT became one-dimensional and rather biased towards the taxi industry. A lot of time and resources were spent in addressing the concerns of the taxi industry when the system was designed to cater for the whole public.

For instance, when the Minister of Transport formulated the National Joint Working Group (NJWG), the focus was on getting government and the taxi industry especially SANTACO to resolve their points of difference. UTAF was not included in the NJWG and this was quite surprising (Interview, 02 February 2011). SACO felt that the role of the public and other key stakeholders was ignored or downplayed in the NJWG (Interview, 10

December 2010). SANCO also felt that if the public was perhaps consulted thoroughly on this matter the conflict between government and taxis would have been minimal or may not have happened at all. SANCO indicated in the statement that "it cannot be correct that when issues that affect the public get discussed, the public is not consulted" (Interview, 26 January 2011).

SANCO was quoted in *The Star* (24 August 2009) as saying that "whatever happens in the public transport industry affects the public and as the recipients we have the deserved right to know what is taking place and also participate in the determination of public transport in Johannesburg and South Africa as a whole.

SATAWU mentioned in their statement that part of the problem was that when government formulates or implements its policies or programmes there is a tendency to be sector-specific as opposed to formulating or implementing policies or programmes that are for the good or the public as a whole" (Interview, 01 December 2010) ".

SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) suggested that given the complexity of the BRT, it was quite important that the participation process should have followed a two-way approach, the first aimed at the public in general and the second targeting mainly existing road-based public transport operators whether or not they were affected by the implementation of the BRT. SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and SANCO (interview,26 January 2011) shared a common view in supporting the already mentioned view by SABOA that it was equally important for the participation to have taken a two-way approach given the impasse between the government and the taxi industry both at national and local levels. The fragmented nature of the taxi industry also did not assist in collective engagement and and made effective consultation extremely difficult for the CoJ to achieve.

The respondents generally agreed that the BRT was a good concept and had the potential to bring a more efficient and reliable public transport system to Johannesburg. According to the DoT (Interview, 08 December 2010) and GDRT (Interview, 08 February 2011) supported by Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2010) one of the major causes of concern that seemed to blight the whole BRT spectrum were the tight implementation timeframes linked to the Confederations Cup Soccer tournament in 2009 and 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup.

The CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010), SATAWU (Interview, 15 December 2010) and SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011) shared the same view that these tight timeframes were a limiting factor for sufficient and thorough public participation in the implementation of the BRT.

Lack of clarity regarding how BRT was going to impact on the taxi industry was also highlighted as one of the major causes of concern. Respondents such as SANTACO (Interview,09 November ,2010) and UTAF (Interview, 02 February 2011) indicated that they have always held the viewpoint that the CoJ has not been able to explain how implementation of BRT will not take their bread away and this was a great concern.

Both UTAF (Interview,02 February) and SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) indicated that the inherent problems in the implementation of other government transport programmes such as the taxi recapitalisation programme in particular made it difficult for them to be convinced that the BRT would be a success story.

SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) and SABOA (Interview, 01 February 2011) shared a common view that government seemed unwilling to learn from its mistakes because one of the key pitfalls of the taxi recapitalisation programme was the lack of public participation, especially regarding how the programme was to be implemented and scrapping

allowances for old taxi vehicles. SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011) suggested that the government should have separated the public participation process around the taxi recapitalisation programme from the negotiations around the proposed incorporation of taxi operators into the BRT.

Some respondents felt that even though there was a huge obligation placed on Johannesburg and the country at large to provide an efficient and reliable transport system for the country during the Confederations Cup and 2010 World Cup soccer tournaments, it was also important for the CoJ to consider their inputs. For example, SABOA (Interview, 01 February 2011) and SANTACO (Interview, 09 November 2010) indicated that it became quite clear and evident that the meetings they had with CoJ were merely a formality and their role was to "rubber stamp processes of government".

Both SANTACO (Interview, 09 November, 2010) and SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) were convinced that CoJ did not allow room for consideration of any of their views and input because they knew what BRT was all about and the way it will be implemented.

When asked if was there a need for the BRT to be implemented through a political process, the CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) GJRTC and Taxi Top Six (Interview, 15 December 2010), SATAWU (01 December 2010) all agreed that because the BRT was a foreign concept adopted largely from South America, and a national programme, it was quite important that the BRT was endorsed by the politicians and received the political will and backing it deserved.

In addition, SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010), SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011), GDRT (8 February 2011) and DoT (Interview, 8

December 2010 ) all mutually agreed that it was also prudent that politicians become involved so that there would be a timely delivery of an efficient and reliable transport system for the Confederations Cup of 2009 and 2010 Soccer World Cup tournaments.

Respondents acknowledged that implementation of the BRT through a political process was the only viable and realistic policy alternative to achieve a common understanding among the key policy actors in the BRT. According to CoJ (Interview, 22 December 2010), SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011), SATAWU (Interview, 01 December 2010), DoT (Interview, 08 December 2010) and GDRT (Interview, 08 February 2011) this common understanding minimised the level of conflict and created conditions conducive to the implementation of the BRT to be a success.

As mentioned earlier, the National Joint Working Group that was convened by the Minister of Transport laid the foundation for resolution of disputes between government and the taxi industry. This led to the signing of various memorandums of understanding between the City of Johannesburg government and the bus and taxi industries regarding how BRT should be implemented.

The CoJ indicated in their statement that “engagement with bus and taxi industry was vital to the timeous and successful implementation of the BRT system, which would vastly improve the city’s transport” (Interview, 22 November 2010).

Photo 2 depicts the signing of the memorandum of understanding between the City of Johannesburg, GJRTC and the Top Six Taxi.

**Photo 2: Signing of BRT MOU in Johannesburg**



*COJ City Manager Mavela Dlamini, COJ Transport MMC Rehana Moosajee, COJ, Mayor Amos Masondo, Eric Motshwane and Sicelo Mabaso of the Taxi industry pledge to work together*

*Source: CoJ (2010)*

The photo illustrates the impact that political leadership played in the resolution of conflict and disagreement in the BRT. The Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC further conceded in their statement that "the Taxi industry and the City had to work together, although it might not be by choice. We do so for the sake of the country." (Interview, 15 December 2010).SANCO (Interview, 26 January2011) concurred with Taxi Top Six and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2011) and also mentioned in their statement that "government alone cannot transform public transport. The best way to arrive at a solution is to develop solutions with the people and this should apply at levels of government involving civil society." (Interview, 26 January 2011)

Respondents generally agreed that the active role played by the CoJ political leadership not only paved the way for the resolution of BRT conflict but also culminated in the generation of public interest and support

which did not exist in the planning stages of the project. For example, the CoJ mentioned in their statement that:

> We as the CoJ are fully committed to implementing BRT in order to provide vastly improved public transport for the people of the city and the thousands of visitors that come to Johannesburg. In order for the project to be implemented on time and successfully, it was important that we engage and work with key bus and taxi operators (Interview, 22 November 2010).

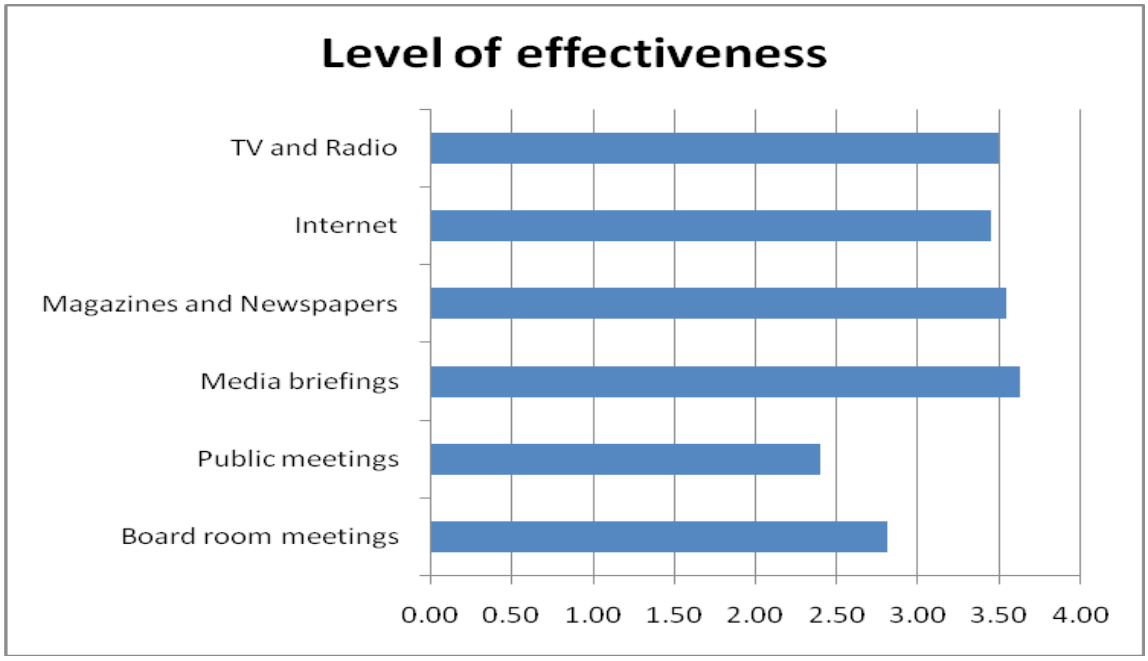
In addition, SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011), DoT (Interview, 8 December 2010, GDRT (Interview,08 February 2011) and SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010) pointed out that they were convinced that the BRT system is an advanced model of transport that will contribute to improving the lives of commuters and opposing views to the BRT were selfish and opportunistic.

## 4.4 PARTICIPATION MECHANISMS

The respondents provided different opinions about the effectiveness of participation mechanisms. Some respondents acknowledged that the participation mechanisms employed in the BRT were not effective whilst others felt they were effective. DoT (Interview, 8 December 2010), CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) GDRT (Interview, 8 February 2011 and SATAWU (1 December 2010) were in agreement that that the participation mechanisms used in the BRT were effective.

Table 4 illustrates the level of effectiveness of some of the participation mechanisms as observed below:

**Figure 4: Participation mechanisms level of effectiveness:**




Value of scores is 1= Very ineffective; 2= Ineffective: 3= neither ineffective nor effective; 4=Effective; 5=Very effective

*Source: Own (2011)*

As illustrated above and contrary to the views of DoT, CoJ, GDRT and SATAWU, SANTACO, UTAF (2 February 2011) and SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) the mechanism used in BRT such as formal boardroom meetings and public meetings were not effective. The point of difference in opinion was the fact that the CoJ addressed BRT issues in those participation mechanisms quite inappropriately by presenting views and suggestions that were predetermined. SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010).

UTAF mentioned in their statement that:

> We were very much concerned and could not understand why the CoJ would convene and facilitate meetings and become so dominant in the meetings themselves. We were not provided an ample opportunity to contribute towards the driving of the BRT implementation process. Such behaviour by the CoJ, made us to abandon talks at some stage of the meetings we had because of their insistence that they would continue with the BRT system. We even went as far as going on strike and staging stay ways from transporting the public to prove to the CoJ that their manner of approach to the meetings and negotiations was unacceptable (Interview, 2 February 2011).

According to SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) and SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) the meetings convened by the CoJ became a take it or leave it situation because of the dominant and undemocratic rules that were applied by the CoJ. According to UTAF, the effectiveness of the participation mechanisms were “never felt” because they only served the purpose of the CoJ (Interview, 2 February 2011).

SACO shared the same view as UTAF and indicated that the CoJ was just interested in “quantifying the number of meetings “ they convened and then using the information in the print and electronic media to portray a picture that consultation with the public was a success and progressive. In essence this meant that a major cause of concern was how the BRT was implemented were addressed in those participation mechanisms.

SABOA argued in their statement that “we could no longer see the value and effectiveness of attending the meetings of the CoJ because we knew exactly how things would turn out in BRT negotiations. SACO mentioned that “the whole process of consultation was flawed to say the least.” SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) pointed out that the general public

meetings were insufficient and the CoJ should have used various mechanisms in view of the fact that the BRT was largely a new concept and spreading the correct message about its intentions was quite important.

SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) further suggested the use of existing community structures such as ward communities, community based organisations, and municipal integrated development planning processes to enhance public participation in BRT. The CoJ admitted that "we noted that our mechanism of engaging the public was quite limited and we did not have all the time and resources in the world to do thorough and intensive consultation because of the time factor associated with the Confederations and World Cup Soccer tournaments of 2009 and 2010. Our team tried their best to utilise methods such as industrial theatres to explain and simplify the concept of BRT to the public and other interested parties." (Interview, 22 November 2010)

SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010) recommended that the deployment of more fieldworkers to engage the community about what BRT entailed would have lessened resistance from the taxi industry because officials of the taxi industry come from the same communities. The CoJ (Interview,22 November 2010), Taxi Top Six and GJRTC (15 December 2010) and SANCO (26 January 2011) also mutually agreed that both the lack of sufficient time, human and financial resources of the BRT further contributed to the insufficient information dissemination to the public as the CoJ could only do with what they had in their allocated period. SANTACO (Interview, 09 November 2010, GJRTC and Taxi Top Six (Interview,15 December 2010) lso concurred that the informal nature of the taxi industry required a variety of participation mechanisms.

Some of the respondents such as GDRT (Interview, 08 February 2011) and SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010), DoT (Interview, 8 December

2010) COJ (Interview, 22 November 2010), and SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) concurred that meetings were the dominant participation mechanism used for engagement between the government and its stakeholders. Some of the respondents agreed that the used of meetings, whether formal boardroom or public meetings and media briefings were a good starting point in the introduction of the BRT to the whole community of Johannesburg and provided a platform for debate about the whole new BRT system spectrum.

For example, the CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) DoT (Interview, 08 December 2010) and GDRT (8 February, 2011) argued the introduction of the BRT to the Johannesburg community was quite an enormous task to accomplish but in their own analysis “the CoJ did more than what can be reasonably expected” regarding the dissemination of the information to the whole public. Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2010) felt that the CoJ provided ample opportunity for people to submit their concerns and suggestions during the meetings and they were quite flexible in their approach.

SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011) concurred that through the participation mechanisms used in the BRT a platform was created for arch rivals and for feuding taxi associations such as Top Six Taxi Association management and GJRTC to resolve their differences and concentrate on the provision of quality public transport for the City of Johannesburg. The CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) explained that both associations decided that the best way forward for them was to work with each other and the City, to engage properly in order to understand the project.

GJRTC and Taxi Top Six (Interview, 15 December 2010) shared the view with SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) that some of the public meetings pertaining to the environmental impact of the BRT construction

were quite insightful and valuable. According to CoJ, some of these public meetings were facilitated by the public participation company appointed by the City to explain to members of the public affected by the construction of the BRT infrastructure in Johannesburg and parts of Soweto (Interview, 22 November 2010).

The CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) and DoT (Interview, 08 December 2010) shared the same view with GDRT (08 February 2011) and SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2010) also felt that the public meetings afforded government the opportunity to ascertain the views of the potential users about BRT as a whole. The views expressed were quite positive in that the potential users of BRT agreed that the BRT seemed to be a potentially reliable, safe and efficient transport system.

According to the CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010), DoT (Interview, 22 November 2010) and GDRT (Interview, 8 December 2010) the potential users of BRT saw the BRT as something that was revolutionary and refreshing to the Johannesburg public transport system. SACO asserted that some of the potential users felt that they would have more time to spend with their families because the BRT was going to cut travel times to and from work in Johannesburg.

According to the CoJ, the public support of the BRT in fact became one of the factors that put pressure on the taxi industry to agree to sign the various memorandums of understanding with the CoJ. (Interview, 22 November 2010). SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010, CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) and SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010 ) shared the view that the BRT participation mechanisms should have been applied more rigorously to intensify selling the seemingly unknown foreign BRT concept largely borrowed from South America, to the whole public.

SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010), SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) and SATAWU (1 December 2010) however, pointed out that the inability of the CoJ to authenticate the status of the participants for its meetings stifled the implementation of the resolutions of the meetings. This was further compounded by the fact the people who participated in the meetings did not report back to their constituencies and this impeded the flow of information to the grass roots level of the BRT project.

GDRT (Interview, 8 February 2011) and DoT (8 December 2010) concurred that part of the problem was that the taxi industry was quite fragmented and thus very difficult to deal with. The CoJ supported this view and conceded that:

> When the BRT formulation started, we took a large delegation to South America to study the BRT systems. The delegation was comprised of officials from the three spheres of government and 18 different taxi associations that were either independent or under the leadership of the Top Six Taxi Association and Gauteng Regional Taxi council in Johannesburg. We had thought that the 18 associations that went on the study tour were representative enough of the taxi industry of Johannesburg but to our surprise we still received complaints from other taxi associations which complained of being left out of the study tour (Interview, 22 November 2010).

When asked if was there a need for a public participation policy or framework to guide how public participation should be orchestrated, SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011), SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010), CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010 ), SANTACO (Interview, 09 November 2010) and UTAF (Interview, 2 February 2011) concurred that a that a public participation policy or guideline would have made their lives easier because it would have provided a framework and a logical

approach towards the management of public participation in the BRT. GDRT (Interview, 8 February 2011), Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2010), SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011) and SATAWU (Interview, 1 December 2010), SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) agreed that public participation should be institutionalised in government structures for BRT to be a success.

### 4.5 SATISFACTION

Respondents expressed different levels of satisfaction with the way they participated in the BRT. SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010), SANCO (Interview, 26 January 2011), SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and UTAF (Interview, 2 February 2011) felt that because they were not involved from the outset when the BRT was introduced in Johannesburg they could not claim to be completely satisfied with their participation in BRT. They further agreed that if they had participated from the planning stages of perhaps they would have provided different responses and maybe the resistance and violence that became apparent in the BRT rollout would have been averted.

According to SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010), BRT matters were conducted in secret and later introduced to the general public. SACO felt that such an approach left a lot of question marks and the public, especially commuters, initially had doubts about the BRT system (Interview, 10 December 2010). SATAWU also expressed that the government had underestimated the role of other stakeholders during the planning stages of the BRT, especially the taxi industry. This escalated the levels of conflict and brewed a culture of dissatisfaction amongst stakeholders throughout the entire BRT formulation and implementation processes (Interview, 1 December 2010).

SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) and UTAF (Interview, 2 February 2011) shared the view that the public meetings orchestrated by the CoJ were merely information dissemination platforms and did not provide vigorous debate about the desirability of the BRT. SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) also agreed that whether the public resisted or approved the formulation and implementation of the BRT, this was the of the least of concers to the CoJ. According to SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) the CoJ was determined to implement the BRT in time for the Confederations and World Cup soccer tournaments of 2009 and 2010.The table below shows the responses of respondents on their satisfaction with the way they participated in BRT:

**Table 5: Satisfaction of the respondents**

| Respondent | Participation satisfaction |
|---|---|
| DoT | YES |
| GDRT | YES |
| CoJ | YES |
| SANTACO | NO |
| SACO | NO |
| GJRTC | YES |
| SANCO | NO |
| SATAWU | YES |
| SABOA | NO |
| TOP SIX TAXI | YES |
| UTAF | NO |

*Source: Own (2011)*

As observed in Table 5, contrary to the dissatisfaction felt by some of the respondents, others, such as Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2010) felt satisfied about their participation in BRT. Some of the reasons given were that the CoJ was always willing to listen and had not behaved as if it was the “centre of knowledge" in the BRT. According to Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC (Interview, 15 December 2010), the CoJ had the interests of the public at heart and

wanted the BRT to be accessible to everyone and also bring different communities within Johannesburg to ride together.

Contrary to the views of Top Six Taxi Association and GJRTC, SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010), SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010) and UTAF (Interview, 2 February 2011) felt aggrieved about their participation. The reasons for their dissatisfaction range from the inflexibility and undemocratic approach taken by the CoJ and government at large to the lack of opportunity for all stakeholders to participate from day one of the BRT process.

## 4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings of the study . The findings were drawn from the various responses gathered by the researcher during the interview process with the respondents. In terms of BRT formulation, the findings confirmed that all the respondents participated in various stages of the BRT formulation process but the some respondents were concerned that the processes used by the CoJ to involve them to participate were flawed.

Respondents did not share a common view about the implementation of BRT in Johannesburg. There were some that felt aggrieved about how implementation of BRT was conceptualised and how it was to unfold and those that did not have a problem with the implementation. All respondents generally agreed that because the BRT was a fairly new concept, it was quite difficult to conclude whether the mechanisms utilised were appropriate or not, but that they were effective. The respondents however generally agreed that the mechanisms utilised were not sufficient. The respondents pointed out that the CoJ was also undemocratic in addressing BRT issues.

The respondents were divided in their responses regarding their participation in the BRT: some were quite whilst others were not. Respondents generally agreed that if they had all participated in BRT from day one of the formulation stages the BRT would have been implemented without any challenges. This perceived lack of participation in the initial stages of the BRT seemed to be the key determining factor but it was not clear if this was the defining reason why the BRT was met with so much anger from the taxi industry. This point and other factors are examined in the next chapter which focuses on analysing and interpreting the data presented in this chapter.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# DATA ANALYSIS

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on analysing and interpreting the data presented in the previous chapter. This chapter is the essence of the research because it will attempt to inquire into the meaning of the data presented and provide answers to the research question of the study. The approach to the analysis will depart from attaching meaning to the data and draw from the literature review presented in chapter two of this report and findings of other related studies.

The chapter has been categorised into various themes based on the analysis and consolidation of data presented in chapter four. The themes chosen are governance imperatives, political structure, social structure and effective participation mechanisms. This chapter will conclude by summarising all the key issues that emanated from the data analysed.

## 5.2 GOVERNANCE IMPERATIVES

In this study, the lack of public participation in the initial stages of the BRT formulation process was viewed as one of the factors that contributed to the disagreement about how the BRT formulation process should unfold. This essentially led to the initial rejection of the BRT formulation process by key BRT policy actors such as SANTACO, UTAF and SACO.

SANTACO (Interview, 9 November 2010) mentioned in their statement that:

> We have been transporting the public since the 1980s when the then apartheid government wanted nothing do with public transport, especially the taxi industry. We thought that the new government would consider us as the first point of contact regarding matters that affect the taxi industry.

The GJRTC and Top Six Taxi Association concurred with the view by SANTACO and argued that "as the BRT system would affect the taxi industry directly, we have an obligation to shape the system they we want it to be" (Interview, 15 December 2010). Mafunisa (2003) observes and maintains that the involvement of the public or intended recipients in the initiation stages of a policy or programme or project provide people with a sense of ownership. It also means that people are able to associate with the project and thus feel empowered.

The data of this study show that government has a tendency to exclude the public from participating in the initiation stages .This is consistent with the study by CPP (2005), and CSVR (2005) which argues that government only calls for public participation at advanced stages of policy formulation, for political buy-in and implementation rather than at the outset when problems are being identified and solutions developed.

The ITDP (2005) also observes that the failure to communicate from the initiation stages of the BRT potentially results in the undermining of the ultimate viability of the BRT project (ITDP: 2007). ITDP (2005) further observes that successful BRT systems such as the Transmileno of Bogota in Colombia required a lot of communication about the intentions to design and implement BRT.

Matsumoto (2008) points out that the initial stages of BRT formulation in Jakarta had not considered those directly in the bus system reform. But when there was some unhappiness and opposition from the bus operators union about the decision making approach, the bus system reform citizen committee was formed as an independent committee bringing together all those most directly involved in the bus system reform. Members of the committee included bus industry, citizen groups, professionals, government agencies, taxi owners and drivers.

Matsumoto (2008) observes that because BRT projects fundamentally change the public transport systems of a city, it is important to have public input in the planning process. The Trans-Jakarta system in Jakarta, Indonesia, illustrated how valuable public input was because of the lengthy period it took to be implemented. The decision to develop the Trans-Jakarta was made in 2001 but was only implemented three years later.

Scoffe and Jaffe (1989) maintain that involving people in the planning and transition process give them a sense of control and this lessens the potential to resist change, and that as the process of change unfolds, it is the recipients of the change that can indicate the potential stumbling blocks or more importantly how the changes can be improved for effective implementation. Harvey (2006) posits that the natural reaction to any change process is “resistance” and is usually twofold: a reaction to the methods used in implementing the change and reaction to changes that do not make sense to the recipients.

Harvey (2006) observes that the ideal approach is to allow people to participate in the planning of the change process and to have ongoing communication.

The above indicate that the introduction of new changes or system in public policy governance requires a careful approach.

The approach should be based on the premise that involving people to participate in a project must start from day one. Swanepoel (1992) attests to this argument and observes that there is no other stage for involvement other than right at the start. He further argues that people should not only "do", but their right and ability to think, seek, discuss, and make decisions should also be acknowledged (Swanepoel, 1992).

Pope (2000) adds another dimension by arguing that the state should facilitate public participation in the promotion of good governance. In juxtaposing the arguments by Pope (2000), Swanepoel (1992) and the data from the study, one can conclude that the CoJ, as a local tier of government did not implement the ideals of the 1996 Constitution of involving the public in policy-making and administration.

This is concluded because of stakeholders' complaints about not participating in the initial stages of the BRT formulation process. In essence this meant that the CoJ abdicated its responsibility of facilitating public participation, despite the fact that public participation in public administration and public policymaking was a requirement of the 1996 Constitution that sought to apply and elevate the principles of good governance.

In the study, the lack of clarity about how the implementation of BRT was going to impact on the public transport system and the taxi industry was viewed as one of major causes of concern and confusion. The result was several public protests, demonstrations and initial rejection of the implementation of BRT. Some of the public protests were characterised by incidences of violence, murder, damage to property and infrastructure.

Lack of clarity in the BRT implementation created a lot of ambiguity and confusion and division in public opinion. For example, SATAWU indicated that "the BRT looked quite impressive on the presentation and paper but

what was not forthcoming and also not clear to us was how implementation would unfold in regard to ownership of the BRT system by the taxi industry." (Interview, 01 December 2011).

Quinney (1998) observes that effective participation rests on the planning of the process because it involves developing clear objectives for participation and how the objectives will be attained. The central and key issue that is addressed when developing objectives is on the resolution of any ambiguities or potential barriers that can arise. The ITDP (2007) further observes that since misunderstandings and misconceptions can be quite common at the outset of a project, those organisations and individuals who feel threatened by it may act to hinder or halt the progress of the project and ultimate implementation.

The ITDP (2007) maintain that because the implementation of the BRT brings dramatic changes to a city's transport system, it is usually viewed with concern, and at times, resistance. According to ITDP (2005) the solution lies in the development of a communications strategy addressing all key groups, transport operators, and car owners, ensuring an informed decision-making process. The central message of the communications strategies should be to explain what BRT is and how implementation in other countries has been managed.

The issue of "lack of clarity" about what BRT entailed created a lot of anxiety and about the system itself and the future of the taxi industry. The stakeholders were left to decide for themselves aout what BRT sought to achieve. The initiatives facilitated by CoJ to create public awareness about BRT were not sufficient. This matter would have been addressed had the CoJ did a stakeholder analysis exercise and created a workable vision for the taxi industry in relation to the implementation of the BRT.

Start and Hovland (2004) emphasise this point and argue that before any public participation process, policy makers need to conduct a stakeholder analysis to understand how the envisaged implementation of policy will affect each stakeholder. Harvey (2005) and Isaac, *et al.,* (1993) suggest that "lack of clarity" can be resolved by creating a vision before embarking on a process of change.

The vision assists to explain and provide a possible scenario about the desired state of affairs and also makes a case about the need for change. Kanter, *et al., (*1992) suggests that change management should be guided by the creation of a vision of the desired outcome and deciding what change is feasible. Light (2005) however cautions that the "vision" that must be created should be based on the hope for the future.

## 5.3 POLITICAL STRUCTURE EXPLANATIONS

The data of this study indicated that the relations and patterns of interactions between government, taxi industry and the general public played a crucial role in the implementation of the BRT. The political leadership displayed by executive heads of the different spheres of government in the resolution of the impasse between the taxi industry and government was viewed by DoT, GDRT, CoJ, SACO, SATAWU and SANCO as having played an important role, created a conducive environment for the implementation of the BRT and generated more public interest and support.

For example, the DoT indicated in their statement that "the Minister was concerned about the escalating violence and loss of life that came to be associated with BRT, and therefore reassured the taxi industry that they are the nucleus of the BRT system and that it cannot go ahead without their maximum participation." (Interview, 08 December 2010).

Matland (1995) argues that political leadership is important to facilitate public participation in the implementation of policies or programmes that have a high level of conflict among the policy actors and can possibly result in the failure of the envisaged programme or policy. In essence, this means that political leadership can instil public confidence and create an environment for sustainable and meaningful participation in the implementation process.

The ITDP (2005) argues that political announcements and leadership are important milestones in the viability of a BRT project. Successful BRT projects require political leadership to create and draw public participation and interest as it was demonstrated with the active role that Mayor Pinelosa of Bogota played in the formulation and implementation of the Transmileno BRT (ITDP: 2005). Political leadership was essential in driving policy implementation for a local government project such as the BRT.

The role played by the political heads not only worked to minimise conflict between policy actors, it also cultivated timely policy actions and a sense of urgency regarding the timely delivery of the BRT system for-the 2010 Soccer World Cup tournament. Anderson (1997) complements this argument and posits that public policy making cannot be separated from the political or social environment in which it occurs.

The most critical factor in public policy-making is that to command the attention of the public domain, it must be led by politicians on behalf of the state. Wright (2005) in Matsumuto (2008) agrees by identifying “political will” as the most important ingredient in making BRT work.In this study, the data indicated that the perceived need to implement the BRT in time for the 2009 Confederations and 2010 World Cup soccer tournaments contributed to the haphazard implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg.

SATAWU (Interview, 01 December 2010) articulated that:

> The need to adhere to the timeframes set by FIFA for an efficient transport system compromised the BRT. Our view is that, had the BRT been given enough time and resources, the protests and demonstrations would not have happened. The reality is that people protested because it was very odd that a new system would be introduced today and the next day gets implemented in the name of hosting the Confederations and World Cup Soccer tournaments.

Top Six Taxi Association (15 December 2010) shared this view:

> What we saw in Bogota, Colombia was beautiful and we became convinced that if such a system were implemented in our country, our people would experience a radical change in their daily public transport. Our view is that the tight timeframes required for the system to be ready for the Confederations and World Cup Soccer tournaments put a dent in the whole system which was going to be difficult to correct.

The conclusion of this study that enough time and resources should have been allocated in the BRT public participation processes, resonates with the findings of the study by ASALGP (2005) that public participation processes should be allocated enough time and resources because this improves the success of policy implementation initiatives and acceptance by the intended recipients. Allocation of enough time for public participation further serves as a precursor to achieving cooperation and success. Short and tight time frames often cause delays and expenses at a later stage of the public participation process.

The success of any change process is largely dependent on how the time allocated to effect the change is managed (Hayes: 2002). Harvey (2006) argues that this demands that there should be a realisation that the recipients of change also need time to understand and adjust to the change that is to be implemented. Hayes (2002) observes that it is more difficult to manage change when the need for change is more urgent because at the essence of change management is the principle of identifying and removing obstacles.

The ITDP (2007) argues that because BRT development takes a long time to be fully operational, it is advisable that the public is provided with information about the inconveniences of road construction and development. The ITDP (2007) further observes that a city should devote time, human and financial resources to maintaining public support and confidence during the construction and development period.

The tight implementation time frames for the BRT contributed a negative image about potential efficiency of the transport system that the BRT system that was going to provide. The CoJ (Interview, 22 November 2010) also stated that:

> The tight time frames for BRT implementation in Johannesburg had a serious impact on the project. In certain instances we were labelled all sorts of things by the taxi industry and other stakeholders but our goal was to make sure that we prepared a transport system that would make this country proud about hosting the World Cup soccer tournament in this city. We further hope that through this system, citizens of the north and southern locations in Johannesburg would share a ride and therefore bridge the separation that was created by the apartheid system.

The implementation of the BRT would not have been done haphazardly if there was no rush to provide a good and efficient public transport system during the 2010 World Cup soccer tournament, but Johannesburg and South Africa had in mind the important goal of having public transport system ready to transport soccer fanatics in Africa's first soccer World Cup tournament. This requirement hampered the ideals of a hassle-free policy implementation of the BRT. Booysen (2006) attests to this argument and posits that factors that affect the implementation of policy are widely acknowledged to include administrative control, organisational resources, institutional settings, intergovernmental relations, and pressure politics.

## 5.4 INSITITUTIONAL STRUCTURE EXPLANATIONS

The data of this study indicated that there was an absence of institutionalised management of public participation in the CoJ. SANTACO, SACO (Interview, 10 December 2010), UTAF (Interview, 2 February 2011) and SABOA (Interview, 1 February 2011) indicated that the absence of institutional structures of public participation contributed to improper management of the process of public participation in the BRT.

The study also concludes that institutional management of public participation in the BRT would have addressed the concerns of the public adequately resonates with the findings of the study by (ASALGP: 2005, CPP: 2006, PSC: 2008) that an inclusive public participation approach requires dedicated public participation management in government to address concerns of the public in a holistic manner. Institutionalisation of public participation within government is critical to the maintenance of proper coordination and a feedback mechanism on issues that concerns communities.

The data of this study are consistent with the study by PSC (2008) that the lack of a public participation policy or guideline results in the haphazard implementation of public participation initiatives. A public participation policy or guideline is important in informing organisations or government about how to implement public participation as a good governance mechanism.

The ITDP (2005) observes that it is important to have effective outreach programs to explain to existing transport operators the benefits of BRT and most importantly, to dispel any unfounded fears, since existing public transport operators usually view BRT as a threat to their interests and livelihood. The ITDP (2005) however cautions that a city should institutionalise all BRT matters to have effective outreach programs and have the capacity to implement the system.

Some of the literature on change management points out that the effective management of change needs a careful approach. One of the suggestions is to adopt a project management approach. Isaac, *et al.,* (1993) observes that a project management approach assists to identify and define clear objectives of the planned changes.

A careful and institutionalised approach in the managing of public participation contributes to better accountability, which was not the case in BRT formulation and implementation. Dye (1992) argues that the role of government institutions is to legitimise policies in such a way that the roles and responsibilities of government and the various policy actors are explained and demarcated and the support of the public thus obtained.

## 5.5 EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION MECHANISMS

The data of this study pointed out a difference in opinion regarding the effectiveness of participation mechanisms.

It was quite clear that the management of the processes that unfolded within those participation mechanisms played a role in determining their effectiveness. Even though there are several participation mechanisms that can be utilised to engage the public, it became clear in this study that holding of meetings were a dominant participation mechanism in BRT formulation and implementation. The meetings took the form of formal boardroom meetings or general public meetings.

The effectiveness of these meetings was largely questioned because the CoJ was quite dominant in its approach. For example, SABOA noted: “We were quite lost in all the meetings organised by CoJ. We referred to the NLTA Act of 2009 every time we raised an issue about small bus operators and it became clear to us that the CoJ was not willing to listen.” (Interview, 1 February 2011).SACO concurred and asserted that “the CoJ approach of dominating meetings and providing minimal space for engagement further created barriers for maximum participation by the public.” (Interview, 10 December 2011).

Davies (1998) argues that participation mechanisms are either made to empower marginalised communities or make it easier for government to implement their policies, programs, projects and therefore legitimise their actions. The development and successful implementation of BRT in both Asia and South America illustrated that ongoing communications and interaction with existing transport operators, affected transport operators and the public was quite important for project success.

The manner in which an authority or city engages with the public was equally important. ITDP (2005) posits that the input and point of view received during a BRT public participation process, especially in a meeting or focus group situation, must be addressed appropriately. The ITDP (2005) observes that the focus group interview is relevant for BRT because this interview technique provides qualitative information and in

the case of the BRT, the focus group can revolve around user satisfaction, characteristics of the system, proximity to work and study, safety issues, health issues and perceived performance of the system.

Hayes (2002) argues that of the ideal approaches that can be applied during change process, and especially when utilising one of the participation mechanisms such as meetings, is to request input, evaluate the input, reject that which is not practical, give credit and reward to those whose ideas were used, and lastly, explain to those whose ideas were rejected why were not used.

From the above, it is quite clear that whilst the holding of meetings or other participation mechanisms to engage the public or is important, it is also vital that processes within those participation mechanisms should be executed appropriately to be effective. The World Bank (1994) maintains that it is important that the environment for public participation is created to respond to the needs of stakeholders because participation is a process through which stakeholder decide, influence and share control over development initiatives and resources.

## 5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an analysis of the findings that were presented in chapter four.. The themes of governance imperatives, political structure, institutional structure, effective participation mechanisms were used to provide an analysis of the data presented. The analysis indicated that respondents perceived to the BRT be a good idea in the transformation of Johannesburg's public transport system. The respondents appeared to be concerned that the governance processes that led to the formulation and implementation were not done appropriately. In essence it meant that

effective public participation in BRT became a determining factor whether the BRT was to succeed or not. The next chapter discusses the conclusions and recommendations of this study on public participation in the BRT in Johannesburg.

# CHAPTER SIX

# CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The main research problem was the lack of public participation in the BRT in Johannesburg. The purpose of the study was to investigate public participation in the BRT system in Johannesburg and more generally attempt to understand the essence of public participation in policy formulation and implementation at a local sphere of government.

An investigative approach was adopted to analyse the experiences of the public as regards the BRT system. The primary question for this study was: How did the public participate in the formulation and implementation of the BRT system in Johannesburg? The research questions assisted in providing a specific focus for the study and were sufficiently comprehensive for this qualitative research methodology approach taken for the study.

The chapter provides the conclusions of the study in an attempt to single out the barriers that led to lack of public participation in BRT formulation and implementation processes. Lastly, the chapter provides recommendations for public participation in the transport sector and government. The potential areas for future research are identified in the closing sub-section of the chapter.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

The conclusions of this study are based on two key themes that have emerged from the analysis presented in chapter five. The two key focus areas are BRT formulation and implementation challenges, and interpretation of policy prescripts.

### 6.2.1 BRT formulation and implementation challenges

The study revealed that BRT formulation and implementation was conducted haphazardly because of three key factors: Firstly, there was a lack of a proper governance system and policy framework to guide the COJ on how to manage public participation matters in BRT. Secondly, the COJ utilised a top-down approach to engage with stakeholders. This approach defeated the key objective of public participation of achieving common consensus with stakeholders and as such had a negative impact on the image of the new BRT system.

The top-down approach did not further succeed in soliciting the commitment to and acceptance of BRT by stakeholders. This contributed to significant delays, resulting in protests from stakeholders which were only resolved through political leadership and intervention.

Thirdly and finally, there were tight timeframes for the COJ to deliver an efficient public transport system in time for the 2009 Confederations Cup and 2010 World Cup soccer tournaments and good management of the public participation process thus became secondary.

### 6.2.2 BRT policy intentions and prescripts

The study found that even though the Public Transport Action Plan of 2007 is clear about the policy goals for the BRT programme in South Africa, there was still lack of clarity amongst the different policy actors in Johannesburg about what BRT is, and their respective roles. In addition, there was a continued lack of clarity in the implementation instruments to be used and their likely impact.

This investigative study revealed that some of the opposition to the formulation and implementation of BRT in Johannesburg emanated from two sources. One source is the national leadership of SANTACO, who possibly felt aggrieved that the City of Johannesburg was negotiating with local taxi structures on the ground without their consent. It remains unclear why SANTACO opposed BRT when their representation at local level is the GJRTC which did not oppose the BRT in its whole spectrum. The call by SANTACO to all taxi operators to protest against implementation of BRT could thus not be justified.

The other source of opposition was a number of particularly powerful local taxi associations, whose members were not directly affected by current BRT plans. Those in oppositions did not have very clear demands or business proposals at this stage. It would appear that they were using that introduction of BRT as a platform to raise a range of demands which are not necessarily linked directly to the BRT. This includes an objection to the time-limited operating licenses which are to be introduced for taxi operators though the National Land Transport Act of 2009 (NLTA). They were also increasingly arguing for the taxi industry to be brought into the whole public transport value chain, including the running of the ticket stations and scheduling systems, as well as vehicle supply.

As far as the research is concerned, one can argue that the processes of engaging the public to participate in BRT formulation and implementation in Johannesburg were not done appropriately and became flawed as a result. In addition, the findings of the study further indicated that public participation in public policy making is a constitutional obligation in South Africa and government institutions cannot prescribe public policy making and developmental matters for its citizens.

Through public participation, government empowers the public to have a voice and contribute to matters that affect their own livelihoods. Public participation further allows government institutions to assess the policy formulation and implementation environment before it can even commence. In essence, it further means that public participation assists in bridging the interface of policy development and implementation.

## 6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN THE TRANSPORT SECTOR AND GOVERNMENT

### 6.3.1 Development of public participation policy

The government has enacted various legislation frameworks regarding how public participation should be addressed in the country. Some of these frameworks are quite generic in their approach and do not accommodate the uniqueness of particular sectors in government. The COJ should therefore develop a tailor-made public participation policy that will inform the municipality about how to manage critical engagement with the public. The policy should consider the challenges of dealing with transport sector stakeholders as well as the public at large.

### 6.3.2 Institutionalisation of public participation

The COJ should institutionalise public participation as a good governance and service delivery mechanism. Dedicated public participation sections should be established for the institutionalisation to be fully implemented. The sections should also have adequate human and budgetary resources to support critical engagement with the public.

## 6.4 ISSUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There should be continued research to determine whether there are mechanisms that the public can utilise to hold government to account by authenticating whether their public participation inputs were reviewed, ignored or rejected by government after a public participation process and possible reasons for the outcome.

There should be continued research to assess whether there is need for a model that can replace or complement the current “association” model of the taxi industry since it perpetuates fragmentation within the taxi industry players and does not assist to consolidate the business environment of the taxi industry, which still remains largely informal. This is despite the fact that the taxi industry moves sixty-five per cent of the working population of South Africa on a daily basis and continues to impact on collective bargaining and engagement in public policy making.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1

***INTERVIEW SCHEDULE***

**DATE OF INTERVIEW**

**1. PART 1**

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON RESPONDENT**

1.1 Name of the respondent
1.2 Occupation
1.3 Name of organisation
1.4 Highest qualification
1.5 Age
1.6 Gender
1.7 Home language

**2. PART 2**

**KNOWLEDGE ON THE BUS RAPID TRANSIT (BRT) SYSTEM**

2.1 What is your role in the BRT system?
2.2 What is the BRT system?
2.3 How does the BRT system works?
2.4 When were you involved in the BRT system?

**BRT SYSTEM FORMULATION**

2.5 Were you involved in the formulation of the BRT system in Johannesburg?
2.6 What processes were followed in the formulation of the BRT? Explain.

2.7 Do you feel your views were taken into consideration during the formulation of the BRT? Explain

**BRT SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION**

2.8 How is the BRT system being implemented?

2.9 Are you involved in the BRT implementation?

2.10 If yes, what is your role in the implementation process of the BRT?

2.11 Do you feel your views were taken into consideration in the implementation of the BRT?

**UNDERSTANDING OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION**

2.12 What is your understanding of public participation?

2.13 Does the Department of Transport / Provincial Department of Transport/ City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality /South African Commuter Organisation / South African National Civics Organisation/Taxi Industry have a public participation policy or strategy?

2.14 If yes, what does that policy or strategy say about public participation?

**KNOWLEDGE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPTION POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE PRESCRIPTS**

2.15 Are you aware of any legislation or policy prescripts enforcing public participation in the BRT system?

2.16 How did you become aware of such legislation or policy prescripts?

**ASSESSMENT OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION METHODS IN THE BRT SYSTEM**

2.17 Were the public participation methods used in the BRT system sufficient and if not why? Explain

2.18 Were the methods effective and if not why? Explain

2.19 How can the methods be improved?

2.20 Are you satisfied about how the methods were applied?

**ASSESSMENT OF DECISION MAKING IN BRT SYSTEM AFTER PUBLIC PARTICIPATION PROCESS**

2.21 How were decisions taken in the BRT system following the public participation process?

2.22 Where stakeholders / public inputs considered in the decision making process?

2.23 Who was involved in the decision making process?

2.24 What were the roles of the various role players in the decision making process?

2.25 How were the decisions implemented?

2.26 In your view, was the decision making process transparent or not transparent?

**ASSESSMENT OF SUCCESSES AND FAILURES OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN BRT**

2.27 What were the major successes of public participation in the BRT?

2.28 What were the major obstacles for public participation in the BRT?

2.29 How can public participation be improved in the BRT?

2.30 In your view, were all stakeholders happy with the public participation outcomes? If no, what are the areas of concern, and why?

2.31 How can public participation be improved in public transport in general?

2.32 Do you think the BRT will work in Johannesburg? Explain your answer.

**APPENDIX 2**

***LIST OF INTERVIEWS***

| INTERVIEWEE | DATE | TIME | PLACE |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.National Department of Transport | 08 December 2010 | 10h00 | Pretoria |
| 2.City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality | 22 November 2010 | 15h00 | Johannesburg |
| 3.Gauteng Department of Roads and Transport | 08 February 2011 | 14h00 | Johannesburg |
| 4.Greater Johannesburg Regional Taxi Council | 15 December 2010 | 14h00 | Johannesburg |
| 5.South African National Civics Organisation | 26 January 2011 | 11h00 | Cape Town |
| 6.South African Transport and Allied Workers Union | 01 December 2010 | 14h00 | Johannesburg |
| 7.South African Commuter Organisation | 10 December 2010 | 14h00 | Johannesburg |
| 8.South African National Taxi Council | 09 November 2010 | 10h00 | Johannesburg |
| 9.South African Bus Operators Association | 01 February 2011 | 15h00 | Johannesburg |
| 10.Top Six Taxi Association | 15 December 2011 | 10h00 | Johannesburg |
| 11.United Taxi Association Forum | 02 February 2011 | 14h00 | Johannesburg |