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COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DELIVERY OF CLEAN WATER TO RURAL COMMUNITIES IN MPUMALANGA

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Dedication

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is hereby submitted to the University of Witwatersrand Johannesburg for the (name of degree), and has not been previously submitted for any degree or examination in any other university.

Signed: _____ Fanyana Abednego Mntambo

This _____ day of _____ 2010.

ABSTRACT

Water is a human right and to save water is a human responsibility. Despite the very basic need for water, not everyone has access to it. However, access to an adequate supply of water, defined in terms of water quality, quantity and distance to the supply, denied two millions of rural people in the developing countries. The millennium development goals have set a target of 2015 that all people of the world must have access to basic water supply. Developing countries will need three times the current resources to achieve the 2015 targets. The developing countries are clearly not going to achieve this target.

In South Africa more than a million people do not have access to clean water and less than half of the rural population has a safe and accessible water supply. Communities have had a little say in the provision of water and decision-making in the delivery, Municipalities continue to engage communities in the integrated development planning.

The study attempts to investigate the problems which are faced by rural communities that hinder participation in the delivery of clean water supply. The study concentration on aspects such as what is participation, the importance of the community in decision making, who should participate, how to ensure participation, the role of the different structures within a (committee). It proposes the importance of involving communities in the planning, initiation, and implementation of the water supply projects. Emphasis is on enhancing the role of community participation in planning and implementing rural water projects. Schoemansdal is the case study of this discourse. In the final analysis it was discovered that there is a great need for involving the community in water projects and decision making for its ownership and sustainability.

ACRONYMS

CMA: Catchment Management Agency
DWAF: Department of Water Affairs and Forestry
KOBWA: Komati Water Basin Authority – Komati Basin Water Authority
NWA: National Water Act
NWRS: National Water Resource Strategy
WMA: Water Management Areas
WUA: Water Users Association
RDP: Reconstruction and Development Programme
WSSD: World Summit on Sustainable Development
AMCOW: African Ministers Council on Water
AWF: African Water Facility
MDG: Millennium Development Goal
ANEW: African Civil Society Network on Water and Sanitation
ANBO: African River Basin Organisation – African Network of Basin Organisations
EU: European Union
CDW: Community Development Workers
UNICEF: The United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
IDWSSD: International Drinking-Water Supply and Sanitation Decade
CSO: Civil Society Organisation
WSP: Water Service Provider

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CHAPTER 1

1. BACKGROUND

Water is a human right and to save water is a human responsibility despite the very basic need of water. Not everyone has access to water. The international agencies and bilateral aid donors have made meeting the basic human needs a primary objective for development and this has been embedded in any development. The World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg, South Africa, from 26 August to 04 September in 2002 confirmed the implementation of agenda 21 and the commitments to the Rio principles (United Nations on Environmental Development)

1.1.1. HEALTHY COMMUNITY

A healthy community is one that includes those elements that enable people to maintain a high quality of life and productivity. The elements described in healthy communities using a planning guide of healthy people 2010, includes access to healthcare services that focuses on both treatment and prevention of diseases for all members of the community; a safe community; requires the presence of roads; schools; playgrounds and other basic services such as water to meet the needs of the people in a community and to ensure it has a healthy and safe environment.

The centre for commucable disease control in their designing and building healthy places strategy defines healthy communities as a community that is continuously creating and improving their physical and social environments and expanding their community resources to enable people to mutually support each other in performing all the functions of life and in

developing their maximum potential (Wright, 2009). Government business and civil society share the responsibilities of improving health care systems and ensuring greater public access to basic services such as water at an affordable rate for children and their parents (Furguson, 2009).

1.1.2. BASIC NEEDS

The basic need is one of the major approaches to the measurement of absolute poverty which is based on physical long term well being in terms of consumption of goods (Marker, 2003).

The 1995 World Summit on social development in Copenhagen had as one of it's declarations that all nations of the world should develop measures of both absolute and relative poverty and should gear national policies to eradicate poverty by a target date specified by each country in its national context. The traditional list of immediate basic needs is food, water, shelter and clothing and the modern list emphasises the minimum level of consumption of basic needs of not just food, water and shelter but also includes sanitation, education and health care.

Human needs are a powerful source of explanation of human behaviour and social interaction. All individuals have needs that they strive to satisfy either by using the system or acting as a reforming revolutionary. Social systems must be responsive to individual needs or be subjected to instability and forced change (Rosat, 1998). Individuals and families of all ages once they meet their basic needs they can start moving towards self-sufficiency, growth and economic sustainability.

Communities who live below the subsistence level are considered economically vulnerable and are unable to consistently meet their basic needs. With the recent loss of Jobs across the world due to the economic

meltdown, more communities face strain of struggling to meet their basic needs due to non payment of services.

1.1.3. WATER SECURITY

Many changes have occurred recently in how we protect water supplies. Environmental health practitioners work daily to ensure that our water is safe through treatment, monitoring and regulating activities. Water security can be described as the assurance of supply in terms of available resources and the quality or is the capacity of a population to ensure that they continue to have access to potable water. The amount of water in the world is infinite. The population is growing fast and our water use is growing even faster (Kirby, 2004).

A third of the world's population lives in water stressed countries now; by 2025 this is expected to rise by two thirds. The United Nations recommends that people need a minimum of 50 litres of water a day for drinking, washing, cooking and sanitation (Cross, 2009).

The global water consumption increased six fold between 1900 and 1995. More than double the rate of the population growth and also the increased demands of the farming community, industry and domestic use. More than five million people die from waterborne diseases each year, 10 times the number killed in wars around the globe. The worlds growing population is predicted to rise from about six billion today to 8.9 billion by 2050 and consumption will soar further as more people expect western style lifestyles and diets that require more water. The poor are the ones who suffer most; water shortages can mean long walks to fetch water and high prices to buy it, food insecurity and disease from drinking dirty and polluted water. Human beings are not the only species on earth that

require water but every other species that share the planet with us as well as all the ecosystems.

Climate change will also have an impact. Some areas will probably benefit from increased rainfall but others are likely to be losers. We have to rethink how much water we really need if we are to learn to share the earths supply.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In Schoemansdal there is a problem over the lack of community participation in the co-ordination of the delivery of a basic water supply. The policy of free basic water relates to the community based organisation providing services on behalf of Municipalities with a contractual obligation of service level agreements. There have been a number of studies looking at how communities can be involved in the delivery of basic water. The study seeks to close the knowledge gap of sustaining the services to these communities.

The research aims to conduct an explanatory investigation as follows:

1) Investigate how much water each household uses that will lead in checking if the supply is sufficient currently it's estimated at 6000L per household.
2) Check if design standards cater for the high service (RDP vs. higher level).
3) Check if community can respond positively to the higher level of service.
4) Check if there is current committee looking after delivery of water.
5) If the lack of committee leads to the problem of water supply
6) How the committees should be structured and what role they should play.

1.3. PURPOSE OF STUDY

The study is based on problems affecting rural communities not having access to clean water supply. The study attempts to:

1) Investigate the factors leading to the lack of community participation in the co-ordination of the delivery of water services.
2) Present findings and the pattern of water supply.
3) To document the trends in relation to access to and supply of basic water.
4) Make recommendations on how the co-ordination of water supply can be improved.

1.3.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) What are the factors leading to the lack of co-ordination?
2) What are the patterns and trends in the accessing and supply of water?
3) What are the co-ordination strategies for consideration to bring about the improvement in the accessing and supply of water to Schoemansdal?

1.4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.4.1. INTRODUCTION

Below is a brief research approach. A detailed research methodology is to be presented in Chapter 4. To have a broader picture of what is happening in the delivery of clean water in rural communities a literature review of international and local policy including experience will be

undertaken. This covers the achievements and lessons from the international water supply and sanitation decade on Sustainable Development and the current South African situation. Furthermore in order to understand the concept of participation in the planning theory a literature review is undertaken. An instrument has been developed for collecting primary data through observation while secondary data will be collected through books, journals, articles, newspapers and a literature review. This will be supported through interviews with key experts and also through using government and non-government water documents. The informal interviews in the community will be directed at the community 26 (key informants), selected households and also selected groups (focus group interviews). A questionnaire for interviews was used for interviewing the people. Chapter 4 will give a detailed discussion of the methodology used.

1.4.2. RESEARCH ORGANISATION

Chapter one covers the problem, aim and the importance of the study. The latter part of chapter one covers the research methodology. Chapter two is the literature review where the achievements and lessons of millennium development goals are dealt with in detail. Furthermore the discourse looks at the current South African situation. The latter part of this chapter will review the whole concept of participation where it will be analysed in terms of theory and practice. Chapter three is a detailed description of the research approach to the study of community participation in the delivery of clean water to rural communities. Chapter four will deal with findings as they are on the ground. Chapter five will deal with data interpretation and analysis. Chapter six will deal with the conclusion, planning and recommendations. The recommendations will focus on how the delivery of water may be addressed with the involvement of communities.

1.4.3. RESEARCH APPROACH

The research approach will be outlined in chapter three. Primary data will be collected by means of field observation; this is one of the subtle methods of data collection that will be used. While secondary data will be collected through books, journals and reading literature. This approach allows the researcher to witness community processes without much interference with their daily activities. Interviews will be used to collect data through formal and informal interviews.

1.4.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research to be followed in this study will be a qualitative research based on literature review including books and journals. There should be a reflection of the users perspective more than others. It is thus of particular importance to study community thoughts and perceptions on participation in relation to water supply delivery.

1.5. DATA COLLECTION

1.5.1. PRIMARY DATA

Primary data will be collected by observing those areas where water is available at all times including the activities that are conducted with water. This will give the researcher to understand the times when water is available and the usage thereof.

Structured interviews will be conducted in the areas where water is available and where supply is inconsistent. Identified households will be interviewed making use of the questionnaire. Interviews will also be

conducted with community leaders and recordings will be made utilising a hand held recorder. Key informants will be identified within the community and senior municipal officials will be interviewed.

1.5.2. SECONDARY DATA

The source data will be documents from the local municipality, books, and journals from the library will be used as secondary information and the analysis will be qualitative.

1.5.3 SAMPLING

A structured questionnaire for the interviews will be self-administered to the identified households, to acquire additional data to substantiate information derived from observation and interviews. A total of households to be interviewed will be a small sample and will be selected through a stratified random sample to cover the demographics of the Schoemansdal community. There will be a need to get information from individual households in community participation, about the delivery of water to the community to acquire statistical information unavailable in the key informants' interview.

1.6. DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher will use qualitative methodology. When sorting data it presents challenges to the researcher if it is not in an administrative format, but can assist in analysing how the researcher makes sense of the data. The methods must fit into the general framework for the analysis of survey sampling designs. The aim of the questionnaire is to build a wide representation of views.

This must not be mistaken as incorporating a questionnaires data in the study. It must be noted that it is difficult to quantify human views and behaviour. As a result the analysis of the questionnaire would be done with the aim of arriving at a descriptive analysis to support information derived from the other data collection technique. The rest of the data would be analysed based on the qualitative analysis procedure method which involves the classification of respondents responses into categories mainly presented in table form.

1.7. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Data collected will be tested against descriptive validity to check if data has been accurately collected for analysis. The interpretative validity will be used to check if the data was not distorted by the preset framework rather than to engage from analyses, in addition qualitative research often looks for validity in terms of impact.

Information gathered will be verified and tested from the questionnaire against the observations and key informants before publication. According to (Neumann, 2006, p.259) the ability of experimenters to strengthen the logical rigour of a casual explanation by eliminating the ability of experimenters, the value of qualitative research can be understood both in terms of trustworthiness and in terms of validity and generalisation.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION: POLICY AND EXPERIENCE

Literature review is about summarising the studies about the topic. These studies may include conceptual articles. The Literature will be used in a manner consistent with the assumption of learning from the participants and not prescribing the question that needs to be answered and one of the reasons to conduct a qualitative study is that it is exploratory. A literature review provides a useful backdrop to the problem or issue that has led to the need for the study, such as who has been working on it. The literature review is also used to frame the problem in the introduction of the study. The literature presented in the study at the end becomes a basis for comparing and contrasting the findings of the study.

2.2. THE DECADE ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The decade on sustainable development in Johannesburg in 2002 pointed out that over a billion people were without access to drinking water (Davis, 2006.). In addition a large part of the world's population suffered from water borne diseases.

In response to this situation the IDWSSD was called into existence in 1977 by the United Nations Water Conference in Mardel Plata, Argentina. The main aim of the decade on sustainable development of 2002 in Johannesburg was to assess performance of all countries in terms of delivery of water supply and sanitation and the reduction of water borne

diseases to improve the livelihood of the people. The United Nations Council on Human Rights is deeply concerned that extreme poverty persists in all countries of the world regardless of their economic, social and cultural situation and that its extent and manifestations are particularly severe in developing countries. In the 2005 World Summit the heads of state and government adopted the United Nations Millennium Declaration as follows:

- Affirm that the fight against extreme poverty must remain a high priority for the government of the international community.
- Take note of the draft principles on extreme poverty and human rights of the poor for the promotion and protection of human rights. Resolution 2006/9 of 24th August 2006.

The right of people to live in freedom and have a life of dignity free from poverty and despair and recognising that all individuals, in particular vulnerable people are entitled to freedom from want with an equal opportunity to enjoy all their rights and fully develop their human potential (Mohammed, 2006).

According to the conference on the promotion and protection of human rights at its (58th session in Geneva 7-25 August 2006) persons living in extreme poverty are fully entitled to demand that policies and programmes at the national and international level aimed at the eradication of extreme poverty should be drawn up and effectively implemented in accordance with the principles of human rights and present guiding principles to give a life of dignity.

The right to drinkable water is one of the guiding principles that people living in extreme poverty have a right to and the state is bound to provide this service to communities free of charge. Negligent omission or planning

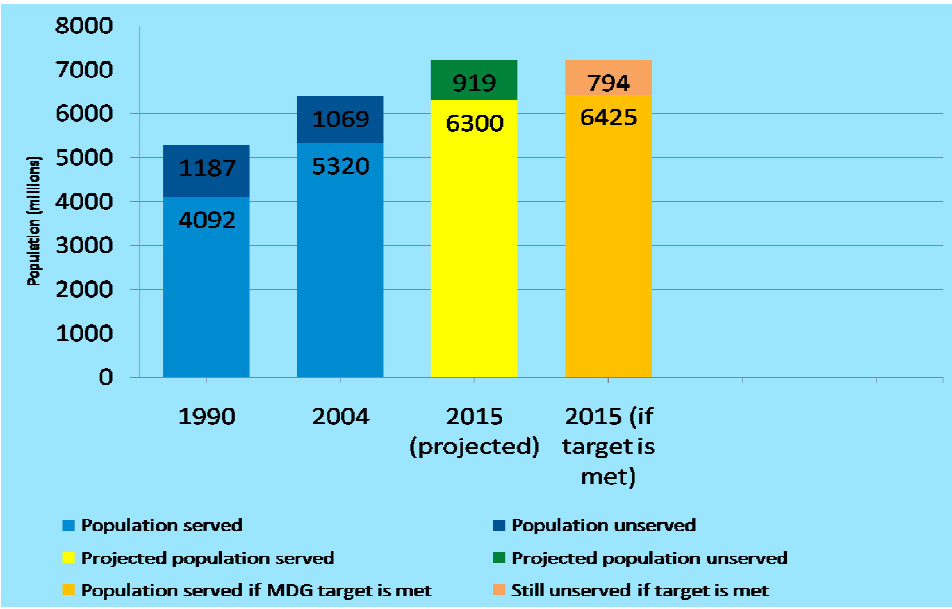
that result in an absence of water distribution services must be regarded as an action threatening human life.

2.3. ACHIEVEMENTS

The IDWSSD was neither a complete success nor a failure. The achievements of the IDWSSD which were reported to the United Nations General Assembly at the end of the International Decade on Water and Sanitation for Sustainable Development showed that an additional 1 billion people in rural areas world wide had been provided with safe water supplies. This contrasts with the report by the joint monitoring programme for water supply managed by the World Health Organisation and the UNICEF 2009 as the instrument for the United Nations mechanism for monitoring Millennium Development Goal 7 target 10 which is to halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water. The report states that urban drinking water coverage has remained at 5% since 1990 which relates to about 770 million urban people who gained access to improve drinking water during 1990 to 2004. Access to an improved source of drinking water is at 73% and only 30% to piped water in their homes as from 1990 to 2004 (Lenton, 2005.). Sub-Saharan Africa remains the area of greatest concern. It is a region of the world where over the period of 1990-2004, the number of people without access to drinking water increased by 23%. Figure 1.1. As it can be seen from this graph the advances of service coverage barely kept pace with the population growth, this meant that one in every three people in the developing world still lacked safe and adequate drinking water (World Health Organisation 2004).

Figure 1.1

(Cain Cross et al. 2004)



World population with and without access to an improved drinking water source in 1990, 2004 and 2015

The number of people without an improved drinking water source decreased by only 118 million between 1990 and 2004.

The world would require immense effort in closing the gap for an increasing population to achieve full coverage by the year 2015 using conventional technologies and approaches the world would require five times the level of current investment. From 1990-2004 the absolute number of people without such access declined by only 1.8 million because of population growth. The unserved population will decrease by an estimated 150 million by 2015. Despite the fact of that improvement the world would still have over 900 million unserved in 2015 and three quarters of those will be from the rural areas in sub-Saharan Africa.

Analysing the urban and rural coverage trends, it is clear that most of the effort towards the achievement of the MDG drinking water target will occur in urban areas. The current expenditure trends by government raises an argument that government prioritise urban development because of the appalling hygiene

conditions under which many slum dwellers live which are an affront to human dignity and pose a huge health risk for an already vulnerable population.

2.4. AFRICAN MINISTERS COUNCIL ON WATER (AMCOW)

The African Ministers Council on Water (AMCOW) was formally launched in Abuja, Nigeria on April 30, 2002 under the chairmanship of H.E Shehu Shagari; Minister of Water Resources of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The mission of AMCOW is to provide political leadership, policy direction and advocacy in the provision, use and management of water resources for sustainable social and economic development and maintenance of African ecosystems. Also to strengthen inter-governmental co-operation to address water and sanitation issues in Africa. One of the major achievements of AMCOW is the establishment of the African Water Facility (AWF) which is hosted and managed by the African Development Bank. At the sixth session of Africa's Ministers Council on Water AMCOW considered how best to accelerate action on the MDG's and targets on water and sanitation.

2.4.1. RESOLUTIONS PASSED BY AMCOW AT THE SIXTH SESSION.

At the above session of AMCOW the Ministers considered how best to accelerate action on the MDGs and targets on water and sanitation. They recognised that progress had been made but that a lot needed to be done. They have also taken a number of enabling measures which include:

a) Adopting a comprehensive work programme to support actions for meeting the MDG targets on water and sanitation, establishing the AMCOW trust fund to facilitate the financing of the MDG-related

actions, the establishment of the African Water Facility and launching of the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Initiative;

b) Strengthening collaboration with civil society by formalising relations with the African Civil Society Network on Water and Sanitation (ANEW);
c) Strengthening collaboration with the African River and Lake Basin Organisation (ANBO)

They have also forged close collaboration with the G-8, whose summits over the last five years have adopted initiatives on water for Africa. They are co-operating with the European Union to implement the EU Water Initiative for Africa.

2.4.2. AMCOW ACHIEVEMENTS

AMCOW instituted the African Water Week series to discuss opportunities and challenges of achieving water security for Africa's socio-economic development in furtherance of AMCOW's mission.

They have at the first African Water week deliberated on the following key themes: an infrastructure platform for achieving water security; meeting the water and sanitation MDGs; financing infrastructure for water security; climate change and adaptation; addressing the environmental and social challenges and institutional development and capacity building.

The heads of State and Government joined global leaders in reaffirming international commitments to the Global Partnership for Development as set out in the Millennium Declaration, the Monterrey Consensus and the Johannesburg Plan of implementation.

They expressed appreciation for the level of international support and solidarity extended to AMCOW and Africa to address its water and

sanitation challenges. In order to meet the special needs of Africa, we call upon our governments national and regional organisations, the international community, and development partners, to extend concrete, substantial and tangible support.

2.4.3. LESSONS LEARNED

The sharing and collaboration of information are key elements in achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Though the involvement of stakeholders and beneficiaries may seem minimal emphasis is placed on strengthening their participation. The creation of the AMCOW trust fund is a sign of commitment by AMCOW members to realising the MDG of 2015. The mobilisation of financial and technical resources from the public and private sectors and the development of key monitoring tools will assist in monitoring the achievements made.

2.5. AFRICAN WATER FACILITY

The AWF was legally established with the approval of the board of governers of the African Development Bank at the annual meeting in Kampala on 25 May 2004 and became effective by the end of December 2004. (AWF operational programme for 2005-2009)

2.5.1. OBJECTIVES AND FOCUS INTERVENTION

- The overall goal of the AWF is to contribute to the effort to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development in Africa.
- Assist regional member countries to meet the targets and goals for the water sector that were established by the African Water vision and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

- Through the interventions of the facility it is expected that the rural and urban population in African countries will realise improved access to water and sanitation services that will promote socio-economic development.
- To realise this all interventions under the facility will focus on achieving the following main outcomes:
    - Improved integration water resource management
    - Improved trans-boundary water resource management
    - Increased water sector investments
    - Facilitate the availability of financial resources to build Africa's water institutions.

2.5.2. ACHIEVEMENTS (AWF)

Since its inception the facility has mobilised cash contributions amounting to €87 million. The facility has gained valuable experience in strengthening water governance and improving the water knowledge.

The sharing of knowledge and experience can play a vital role in developing infrastructure to meet the MDGs.

2.6. SHARM EL-SHEIKH DECLARATION

During the eleventh ordinary session of the African Union which took place in Egypt from 30 June to 1 July 2008, in Sharm El-Sheikh , the heads of state and government of the African Union committed to the acceleration and achievement of the water and sanitation goals in Africa as follows:

- Recognising the importance of water and sanitation for the social, economic and environmental development of our countries and continents
- Recognising that water is and must remain key to sustainable development in Africa and that water supply and sanitation are prerequisites for Africa's human capital development.
- Mindful that the summit took place mid-way to the 2015 water, sanitation and other millennium development goals targets and being aware that not much progress has been made in Africa compared to the rest of the world in achieving these targets.
- Recognising the progress that the African Ministers Council on Water and other institutions and development partners have made in the area of water resource management and in the provision of safe drinking and adequate sanitation to the urban and rural populations or our countries albeit with inadequacies.

2.6.1. ACHIEVEMENTS

Water aid: contributed to the Sharm El-Sheikh commitments:

- The provision of over $30 million to fund water and sanitation programmes in Africa which supported 510 000 people's access to safe water supplies.
- Partnered with 229 organisations including civil society, local and national governments and other non-governmental organisations.
- Seven water aid countries programmes were approved and work situated/allocated.

Figure 1.2 shows the achievements this far.

Figure 1.2

Region	Water supply coverage (%)		Coverage needed to be on track in (%)	MDG target Coverage (%)	Progress
	1990	2006			
Southern Asia	74	87	82	87	On track
North Africa	88	92	92	94	On track
Sub-Saharan Africa	49	58	65	75	Not on track
Developing Regions	71	84	80	86	On track

2.6.2. LESSONS LEARNED

- Aid agents play a major role in assisting developing countries to achieve their commitments.
- The achievement of almost half a million people being able to access water is a great accomplishment.

2.7. WHITE PAPER ON A NATIONAL WATER POLICY FOR SOUTH AFRICA

2.7.1. INTRODUCTION

Water is a powerful symbol throughout the world, carrying with it traditional memory of baptism and new life, cleansing, healing, and the promise of growth and prosperity. In contrast, in a region of growing demands on a limited resource, the increasing scarcity of water could result in devastating conflicts and catastrophes.

South Africa's water law comes out of a history of conquest and expansion. The colonial law-makers tried to use the rules of the well-watered colonising countries of Europe in the dry and variable climate of Southern Africa. They harnessed the law, and the water, in the interests of a dominant class and group which had privileged access to land and economic power.

It is for this reason that the new Government has been confronted with a situation in which not only have the majority of South Africa's people been excluded from the land but they have been denied either direct access to water for productive use or access to the benefits from the use of the nation's water.

The ability of the human mind to find solutions to problems is unending. We have learned how to borrow water from one year and pay it back in the next using our dams as the banks of the water economy. But just as there is a limit to the amount of money that Government can borrow to finance its programmes, there is a limit to the number of dams that we can afford to build. A limit to the number of rivers that we can afford to dam, a limit to the amount of water to be dammed, and, as with even the smallest household budget, we cannot afford to borrow (either money or water) if we cannot repay what we have borrowed.

2.7.2. GENERAL POLICY

The White Paper sets out the following key policy for water and sanitation (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 1994):

- Development should be demand driven and community based.
- Basic services are a human right.
- "Some for all" rather than "all for some".
- Equitable regional allocation of development resources.

- Water has economic value. The way in which water services are provided must reflect the growing scarcity of good quality water in South Africa in a manner, which reflects their value and does not undermine long-term sustainability and economic growth.
- The user pays.
- Integrated development.
- Environmental integrity

Based on these policy principles, the DWA aims to ensure that all South Africans have access to a basic water supply within seven years or less. The White Paper defines basic water supply standards in terms of six criteria:

- Quantity: 25 litres per person per day is considered to be the minimum required for direct consumption, the preparation of food and for personal hygiene.
- Cartage: the maximum distance between a standpipe and any one household should be 200 metres.
- Availability: the flow rate of water from the outlet should not be less than 10 litres per minute, and the water should be available on a regular, daily basis.
- Assurance of supply: the water supply should provide water security for the community. In other words, the service should not fail due to drought more than one year in fifty (on average); moreover, the operation and maintenance of the system must be effective.
- Quality: water quality should be in accordance with currently accepted minimum standards with respect to health related chemical and microbial contaminants.
- Upgradability: the desire of many communities to upgrade a basic service to provide for household connections should be taken into account during planning.

The overall management of the nation's water resources and the provision of adequate water and sanitation services is the responsibility of national government (i.e. the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry) in conjunction with local government. Provincial government plays a supportive role in the development of local government capacity. The White Paper envisages a broad role for the private sector, whose resources must be harnessed towards:

- Capital investment – as designers of systems, contractors and suppliers of goods and services.
- Operation and maintenance – from short term plant management contracts to the complete privatisation of full water supply and sanitation systems.
- Training, capacity building and organisation development – the skills required to undertake service development, operation and maintenance will require the commitment of many sectors of society, including the private sector.
- Financing and commercial services – as providers of market finance to complement government grants.

2.8. THE CONSTITUTION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1996

The constitution of South Africa, 1996 is a bill of rights to protect negative and positive rights of all people against the government of South Africa including its executive, legislative and judicial branches, and some provisions provide rights against the action of other persons.

Section 27 sets out a number of rights with regard to access to health care. It also enshrines the right to social security, the right to food and the right to water. Positive responsibilities are placed on the state that it must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available

resources to achieve the progressive realisation of these rights, and thus access to basic water is a human right. The notion of a right to water reflects how intrinsic it is to a healthy human life and it is effectively an extension of the right to life.

2.9. WATER SERVICES ACT NO. 108 OF 1997

The Water Services Act No: 108 of 1997 main objective is the provision of the right of access to basic water supply, and the right to basic sanitation necessary to secure sufficient water and an environment not harmful to human health or well being. It goes further to highlight that everyone has the right of access to basic water supply and basic sanitation, and every water services institution must take reasonable measures to realise this right.

The local government elections in 2000 represented the final phase in the local government transformation process that commenced in 1993. Local government was mandated to assume full responsibility for ensuring water and sanitation services as provided in the constitution of South Africa, 1996. The strategic framework sets out the national framework for the water services sector. The purpose of the strategic framework is to put forward a vision for the water services in South Africa for the next ten years and the framework that will enable the sector vision be achieved.

2.9.1. ACHIEVEMENTS

To date very little has been achieved with the demand on water rising on a daily basis. The recent service delivery strikes were based on a number of issues, one of them being the lack of a basic water supply. National

Treasury made funds available in terms of conditional grants for infrastructure developments but little can be pointed out as true achievements.

The argument remains whether the transfer of services to the local authorities was one of the correct actions to serve the people of South Africa with basic water.

2.10. FREE BASIC WATER INITIATIVE: GUIDELINE FOR LOCAL AUTHORITIES

The South African standard relating to a ‘basic’ level of water supply is defined as 25 litres per person per day, which is a level sufficient to promote healthy living. This amounts to about 6000 litres per month has therefore been set as the target as a ‘basic’ level for all households in South Africa. This quantity is also regulated as part of the national strategy in terms of Section 9 and 10 of the Water Services Act of 1997 (RSA 1997).

Again it needs to be recognised that local authorities should still have some discretion over this amount. In some areas they may choose to provide a greater amount, while in other areas only a smaller amount may be possible. For example, in some remote areas with scattered settlement, high water costs, and water stressed areas it is often not feasible to provide 6 000kl of water. In such cases a ‘basic’ level could be related to the technology which is suited to serving the area (handpumps or boreholes for example). In some areas where poor households have waterborne sanitation the total amount of water seen as a ‘basic’ supply may need to be adjusted upwards (if financially feasible) to take into account water used for flushing. Some local authorities (for example Seme), have already defined free basic water as 9000 litres per month to

take into account waterborne sanitation. Figure 2.1 illustrates the amount of water per capital served by the other African countries and shows the supply per capita for South Africa as the lowest to the other countries

Figure 2.1 (Source: Joffe M. et al. 2008)

WATER VOLUME AND HOUSEHOLD CONNECTION STATISTICS		
	Per capita (litres/day)	Population/connection
Burkina Faso	34	28
Kenya	100	13
Senegal	76	14
Tunisia	n/a	n/a
Uganda	46	28
South Africa	25	n/a

2.11. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

2.11.1. INTRODUCTION

Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. (World Bank, 1994:135)

2.11.2. THE THEORETICAL BASE OF PARTICIPATION

A proper evaluation and understanding of public participation can be better achieved when it is viewed against a theoretical framework built on decision-making. The background includes social organisation, political process (which includes decision-making), planning theories, urban management, and ideologies in light of society.

Planning theory is perceived as the vehicle through which planners engage in introspection about what they do as planners. Planning theory focuses on the very nature of the planning process. It examines what distinguishes planners from other fields that also deal with public policy issues, and it entails a continuous search for ways to improve planners' effectiveness in society (Hemmens, 1980).

Currently planners are suffering from the scarcity of compelling and useful theories of planning process. The rational comprehensive planning model has been attacked from all angles, though it remains intact because of the absence of a competitive set of ideas that can attract sufficient support to supplant it (Hemmens, 1980). This does not mean, however, that the rational comprehensive planning model was or is anti-participatory. As a matter of fact, participation goes hand in hand with the concept of 'public interest' upon which the rational comprehensive planning was based. Planners prior to the 1960's were concerned with helping to guide urban decision-making to reflect "community values" through rational planning (Oosthuizen in Soen, Lazin and Neumann, 1986). This was based on the assumption that the public interest was the embodiment of community values and the public interest could be identified.

2.11.3. FROM RATIONAL COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING TO PARTICIPATION

Consistent with the history of planning theory, the rational model is adopted and used as the base for decision theory of policy analysis and of planning methodology (Muller, 1992). In line with, Etzioni (1967) and Muller's (1994) point of view, decision-making methods and planning processes are treated as the same in this discourse.

The concept of rationality was formally introduced into the planning discipline by Meyerson and Banfield in the mid 1950's. Rationality is based on the premise that planning is an undertaking aimed at achieving desired goals. Thus efficient planning will seek to maximise the securing of relevant ends. Therefore a planned course of action which rationality selected is most likely to maximise the achievement of relevant goals (Alexander, 1985). The rational decision is based on the following:

- The decision-maker in an attempt to achieve the desired goals or solve the problem will consider all courses of action opened to him.
- The decision-maker predicts the likely effects of each course of action.
- She/he than selects a course of action in which the consequences are more preferable to the desired end or the problem is most nearly solved or most benefits are derived from equal cost or equal benefits to the cost.

The rational model is thus based on principles of reasoning. The rational planning model required the systematic consideration and evaluation of all alternative means in light of the desired ends. The rational planning model is a tool that enables the decision-maker to make choices according to certain standards of consistency and logic to the decision-maker to communicate the reasons of his actions (Conyers, 1989). It is evident that the rational planning model is built with empirical aspects and thus it can be equated with scientific method. The rational planning model is not ambiguous in giving all responsibility to the decision-maker. According to Muller (1994) the consideration of alternatives, consequences and selection, are placed within the domain of the decision-maker, and the assessment is made with reference to the objectives the decision-maker wishes to meet.

It is thus clear that the rational planning model or decision-making accommodates the interest of the people or organisation occupying a position of authority to the total exclusion of the interest of the target group or community (Muller, 1994). The rational model is consistent with an autocratic, dictatorial, attitudinal and functional stance, under the pretext that it encourages efficiency. Horkheimer and Abrno (1972) are of the idea that the logic underlying the enlightenment's notion of rationality is logic of domination and oppression, of exclusion or suppression of other modes of thoughts. An attempt to build on the shortcomings of the rational model was the addition of the rational comprehensive method. This approach broadened the base of the planning methodology.

The rational comprehensive planning model became the dominant planning model especially around the 1950's and 1960's (Lindblom in Faludi 1973). The rational comprehensive model was consolidated as a new branch of knowledge such as operations research, cybernetics (that is the science of communication and control in machinery and animal, including man), and systems analysis were incorporated into the planning process (Muller, 1994). The systems approach gave an enhanced theoretical scientific dimension, thus increased authority to the rational decision-model. It was not until Catenese and Steiss (1970) came at the peak of systems analysis and showed the limitations of the systems approach to planning that the systems approach was rejected on the basis that it was a matter of methodology rather than context. In so doing they exposed the rudimentary problem related to the rational decision-making procedure. This was the problem of formulating methodologies capable of accommodating the demand that had arisen in the Western World for planning practices with improved democratic and participative properties (Muller, 1994).

Hall (1993) identified three key issues underlying the protest of the time, which challenged the legitimacy of the systems planners. Firstly, there was the growing mistrust of planning experts and the top-down approach, which was predominant in the First World and is still dominant in the Developing Countries. The mistrust was not based only on urban development issues but covers a wide spectrum of life in general like war and peace strategies. Secondly, there was increasing mistrust of the systems approach in military applications. The systems approach was seen as using false science and incomprehensible jargon to create a smoke-screen, behind which ethically reprehensible policies could be pressed.

Lastly, the protest was triggered by the riots that devastated American cities. According to Hall the riots were proof that systems planning had done nothing to improve the poor conditions of cities, rather it contributed to the plight of the urban dweller. Bolan (1988) slams systems planning as old-fashioned comprehensive planning, dressed up in fancier garb which ignored political reality.

Civil riots in the USA and social commitments in Great Britain facilitated the engagement of the public in more democratic decision-making. Many of the early scholars in public participation put more emphasis on the real or actual issues concerning public participation. This group includes Arnstein (1966) Godsaik and Mills (1966), Burke (1968). Others like Fagance (1977) focussed on the procedural concepts. Burke (1968) identified five strategies of public participation: education therapy, behavioural change, staff supplement, co-option and community power. On the other hand, Arnstein (1966) uses the ranks of citizen participation. According to the Godschalk and Mills (1966) they propose a collaborative approach to planning through urban activities. They see planning as a

collaborative process where the planner works in collaboration with his client community.

McConnell (1981) identified he formulation of goals, the testing, refinement, reduction of alternatives and the evaluation of alternatives as phases in the process that are particularly responsive to public input. McConnell puts forth that participation must start at the beginning of the planning process. McConnell's process incorporated an interface between the public and the planner at the plan proposal, goal requirements, survey, hypothesis formulation, alternative consideration and plan proposal stages. Most of the participatory approaches use the element structure of the national process, on which the involvement of the public is appended (Muller, 1994).

The inclusion of the public in the planning process adds credibility to the judgement exercised by the decision-maker. Muller (1994); sees this approach as a "verification of the top-down routine of the national planning model. Hence, even though participation is added on the former rational approach – the participatory procedures are seen as still confirmed in the naturalist framework of scientific method. As a result thus such approaches are susceptible to the anti-naturalist critique which holds that the methods of the natural sciences are inappropriate and inapplicable to the social sciences. The complexity and character of human behavioural patterns mitigates against the use of methodological naturalism. Therefore an alternative approach to decision-making is needed in general and in particular in the Third World Countries whom South Africa is part of where the general public have been subjected to top-down rational planning approach during the apartheid period for a long time."

What then are planners left with if the inclusion of participation in the planning process remains top-down and far from serving the interest of the

public. Boland and Forester address the question in new concrete ways that demonstrate the possibilities of a renewal of rational planning theory. Boland draws on phenomenology for analysis while Forester rests his approach on the critical theory of Habermas and both indirectly on work in philosophy often labelled ordinary language analysis (Hemmens, 1980). The two scholars argue that to make sense of human behaviour, planners must understand intention as well as behaviour and that it is possible to develop reliable knowledge of planner's actions through communication about our behaviour, and shared agreements on its meaning.

If planners are to understand human behaviour, then it is imperative to find ways to develop systematic, reliable knowledge of what planners mean by what they do. This line of planning analysis brings in the concept of phenomenology in planning in which many planning scholars like Muller (1994), Healey (1992) and others have emphasised the importance of phenomenology in planning. The present study too favours a phenomenological approach in general but with reference particularly to the Third World Countries which includes South Africa.

The study will give an overview of the concept of phenomenology. It is very important to note that phenomenology does not necessarily displace participation or empowerment but acts as a foundation upon which the two can be developed and practised more effectively in real life planning.

2.12. PHENOMENOLOGY: THE BASE FOR PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Phenomenology was originally developed as a way to make positivist science even more scientific and better grounded by understanding the nature of the observer. The concept tries to explain how the world comes to make sense to us in terms of how it is organised and structured, and how the decision-makers organise it, where the world that is studied is

our ordinary everyday one (Krieger, 1974). Muller (1993:341) described phenomenological knowledge as "knowledge is acquired in the experiences of life and is consequently largely unstructured, informal and intuitive".

This use of informal knowledge has led theorists to describe phenomenology as an approach which engages scientific and non-scientific sources of knowledge, disclosing the world as it shows itself, prior to the misinterpretation by scientific enquiry. Phenomenology is therefore not a science in the true sense of the term, it is rather a 'descriptive' science. Phenomenology does not provide a philosophical premise, instead it reverts to the entire field of cognitive experiences as the starting point of primordial phenomenon.

It emphasises the subjective meanings of the problems to the actors. It is based on the notion that knowledge is constructed in a community rather than having an independent existence. The baseline is the information that is shaped by perceptions. Phenomenology as a guide to planning can link knowledge to action because:

- The concept offers more realistic models of what many practitioners do.
- The concept deals with issues in forms more recognisable to decision-making, and;
- It engages the decision-maker in the information production process so that they are more prepared to act on results.

As a result such an approach can be seen as a major breakthrough from the rigid positivist model. Phenomenology adopts an interpretative approach which focuses attention on different kinds of knowledge and different processes for deciding what is true (de Neuville, 1978). The

central objective of the interpretative approach is the understanding of particular phenomena in their own terms and contexts. It is grounded in the everyday world and pays attention to ordinary language and beliefs. It is holistic because it tries to see all the influences at work, rather than to examine an abstract subset of variables. The aim is to make sense of particular situations rather than to generalise. The research undertaken is both qualitative and investigative and it avoids hypothesis testing and measuring.

The focus of attention in the interpretative tradition is on meaning. Behaviours and voices opinions are to be taken seriously rather than at face value as is the case in the positivist approach. Concepts, measures, and language re recognised as indicators of something more elusive and subjective. Since human behaviour can only be understood in terms of its meaning to the actors, beliefs themselves are constitutive of facts.

The interpretative model offers planning much stronger ways to link knowledge and action than the positivist approach for two main reasons:

- The model of knowledge offers opportunities to engage and motivate policy makers and the citizens so that they will be prepared to act on the knowledge produced.

The inclusion of policy-makers, clients and citizens in the process of deciding values, assumptions, concepts and methods, means these participants can feel part of the knowledge produced as their own.

- This kind of knowledge is more reflective of the world that policy makers and planners live in. it deals with concerns that are recognisable and it provides knowledge in a way that matches the

tasks that have to be done. Thus it offers a more realistic model of what planning professionals and their clients now do.

2.13. LIMITATIONS OF THE PHENOMENOLOGICAL APPROACH

The phenomenological approach has much to offer as a model for many aspects of professional practice but equally so it is important to highlight its limitations. The phenomenological approach is important because it helps to ensure and enhance the participation of all stakeholders in both the planning and implementation stage, but the major limitation is that it does not provide a way to address the different ideologies the various stakeholders may share. Ideology in this case refers to the inhibitions that may blind stakeholders to more useful or productive ways to seeing a problem. Furthermore the phenomenological approach assumes that consensus can be achieved, and it allows no place for basic conflicts in power and interest.

Phenomenology fails to account for the constraints of social action, other critics claim that the approach does not ascertain the structures or forms of experiences. Another criticism of phenomenology relate to the limitations, which are imposed by ill-defined methodology. Phenomenological reductionism is a very subjective process. As such Buttimer proposed that phenomenology should be regarded as a perspective rather than a methodology because it does not offer clear operational procedures to guide the empirical investigator (Pickles, 1985:65).

Methodology, which necessitates researchers leaving behind their prejudice and preconceptions, are problematic as Seamon admits when he speaks about phenomenological intuition which he cautions must be approached with care; the natural attitude is left behind only with difficulty

(Pickles, 1985:65). Other critics of phenomenology have highlighted the contradiction in research, identified by Wood that research which purports to observe the living world but which distinguishes between thought, action, people and environments are inadequate ways of investigating the living world (Pickles, 1985:66).

The shortcomings of phenomenology have been overcome to some extent by ideas promoted by De Neufville (1987) who advocated phenomenology as a more effective guide to link knowledge and action because;

- It deals with issues in forms more recognisable to decision-makers;
- It offers a more realistic model of what many practitioners usually do; and
- It engages decision-makers in the information production process so that they are more prepared to act on the results.

De Neufville acknowledged the limitations of phenomenology but stressed that it could usefully focus on the particular circumstances instead of looking at/for? generalisations. Researchers would then observe specific situations and how communities behave and react in these situations. De Neufville pointed out that behaviour is related to values, perceptions and interpretations of the community which has meaning for the actors in the community, therefore “beliefs themselves are constitutive of fact, if the results are to be taken as true, they must reflect values, expectations and theories shared by the community” (De Neufville, 1987:88).

The phenomenological approach encourages maximum participation, throughout the planning process, instead of at specific points in the procedure. This illustrates that communities are the most appropriate people to define problems and suggest possible solutions for these problems. Phenomenological planning approaches focus on the

importance of communication and dialogue in the planning process and the barriers to effective communication through language. The approach consists of strong principles and ideological frameworks, which guide the planning styles, but it, appears to lack effective guidelines for action on methodology.

The phenomenological perspective on participation requires that the values of the community, of those least powerful elements of the community, be at the bedrock of the process. Muller (1994) argues that ultimately this means that the disempowered sector of society upon whom decisions are conventionally inflicted should decide on the decision procedure to be pursued, thus his community-decision model. In this case, the planner provides information, advice and recommendations and the community issues instructions and makes the decision.

2.14. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACHES

The concept of community participation originated about 40 years ago from the community development movement of the late colonial era in parts of Africa and Asia. To the colonial administrators, community development was a means of improving local welfare, training people in local administration and extending government control through local self-help activities (McCommon et al. 1993). However, during this era, the policy failed to achieve many of its aims primarily due to the bureaucratic top-down approach adopted by the colonial administrators (ibid. 1993). Out of these experiences various approaches were developed that have been more successful and have gained broad support from all the major players in the development field (Abbott, 1991).

2.15. WHAT IS PARTICIPATION

Participation has many meanings. According to Wolf (1997), at a minimum, it means that people simply use a service. At a middle level, it means that decision-makers consult the community or the people involved, and take their views into account; that people contribute labour, skills, material or funds, and or that they get involved in delivering a service. Finally, full participation means that communities identify their own problems, assess their options, make decisions, and carry them out. Milton and Thompson (1995), argue that community participation can be regarded as a double-edged sword. On one hand, he claims, community participation brings increased access and control over vital resources and decision-making process by local people, cutting away the bureaucratic red tape and institutional constraints as it proceeds. On the other hand it can be used to justify government social relationships power.

Participation may be a means or end, but in reality it is usually both. Involving people in order to increase awareness, empower, build capacity, or expand rights and duties and may be and end in itself, but it may also function as an instrumental means for accomplishing a specific task. Similarly, working with people to accomplish a specific task may enable them to expand their confidence and ability to address other issues in their lives. But it is important to understand that frivolously involving communities simply for the sake of involvement can be dangerous: when people become involved, they are contributing time, money, ideas, trust and goodwill. Their expectations are raised, and follow – through is essential. Understandings with communities should be clear, and if promises are made, they should be kept (Wolf, 1997).

Community participation generally is more successful when the community takes over much of the responsibility than when higher level

public agencies attempt to assess consumer preferences through surveys or meetings. In order for community participation to work, projects must include special components addressing it. Villagers can be recruited to help in all phases of designing, implementing, maintaining, supervising, and evaluating new water supply and sanitation systems, but only if the time, effort and money is spent to do it right. Special attention must be paid to the development of local committees and governance structures that can adequately oversee local participation.

During the IDWSSD most governments and development organisations supported the idea of community participation, although there were various interpretations of what the approach entailed. These ranged from the perspective that saw the approach as the means by which communities could take control of the political and economic issues affecting their lives, to the views that it was merely a way of mobilising community support for a project, or for improving project performance (Abbott, 1995). It has been proposed (Paul, 1987) that the different interpretations of community participation are not necessarily in conflict with each other but are part of a broad framework for defining optimum participation. Paul (ibid, 1987) offers the following definition:

In the context of development Community Participation refers to an active process whereby beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of development projects rather than merely receive a share of project benefits. The objectives of Community Participation as an active process are:

a) Empowerment.
b) Building beneficiary capacity.
c) Increasing project effectiveness.
d) Improving project efficiency; and

e) Project cost sharing.

The framework identifies four levels of intensity of participation, namely:

- Information sharing;
- Consultation;
- Decision-making; and
- Initiating action.

This framework has been largely accepted by development agencies worldwide. However, a criticism of the model is that it is “project based” and does not include the full spectrum of Community Participation approaches. As such, the framework can be defined in planning terms as “means” orientated (Abbott, 1991). The “means” approach views community participation as a form of mobilisation to achieve a specific, generally project related goal (Moser, 1983). The alternative paradigm is the “ends” approach. This approach views community participation as a process whereby control over resources and the regulative institution by groups previously excluded from such control over resources and regulative institutions is increased. However, despite the fundamental differences between the two approaches, they are not necessarily mutually exclusive (Abbott, 1991). Abbott provides evidence that the two approaches are derived from different situations in different parts of the world, and that the approach adopted depends on the local situation, and particularly two fundamental issues; namely:

- The legitimacy of authorities;
- The nature of development.

In other words, situations in which the legitimacy of the authorities is in question will result in projects where participation is identified as an “end”.

Situations in which the development of services and housing is the main objective and require meaningful participation at a grassroots level are more likely to adopt the “means” approach. It is also possible that a situation will require a combination of the two approaches; such as in South Africa prior to the democratic elections in 1994. The government was not seen as legitimate by the majority of the population, however the provision of services and housing were key issues to be addressed; (since South Africa now has a legitimate national government it is now moving towards a “means” approach, but this is still complex at community level).

Thus it can be seen that Community Participation embraces a range of approaches. The mix of objectives and intensity and the approach will vary depending on the nature of projects and the local context. Common constraints to community participation which should receive attention when considering any community participation program are (Moser, 1983):

- An unwillingness by the governments to share control;
- Bureaucratic inflexibility to community requirements;
- The lack of suitability trained personnel to work at the level of community participation;
- The stage at which community are involved in the project;
- Provisions to stimulate grass-roots, formulate corporate identity and create long term organisation capacity;
- Measures to ensure a “learning process” to reduce suspicion and mistrust that community participation is a disgrace for exploitation of cheap labour;
- Mechanisms to ensure project benefits majority not simply leaders of community.

Skilled implementers are necessary to ensure the appropriate approach and to create favourable conditions of community participation, especially

in countries that do not have a culture of grass roots involvement?/environment?. When implementers do not have the skills or the incentive to rectify conditions such as those mentioned above, it is unlikely that the full potential of community participation will be realised.

The IDWSSD experience found that one of the main issues relating to project sustainability is the management of the projects after completion, and not just involvement (or participation) in construction. As an attempt to articulate the responsibilities and management requirements necessary to promote local management of projects, the community management approach was developed.

By the 1970's, several facts about development were becoming all too clear (Wolf, 1997). First, supply-side economic inputs and technology transfer alone were not creating economic and social development. A more holistic approach had to be taken – the environment, the economy, politics, and social factors are all inter-related, and all have to be taken into account in working towards practical, meaningful change. Not only that, all the voices have to be taken into account. Each partner in development has a unique perspective to contribute. The views of the donors, national governments, development workers, technical experts, and researchers have always been recognised. But various project failures around the world have made it clear that the participation and perspective of local people are as essential as any other "expert" contribution (Wolf, 1997).

(Atkinson, 1992). Development is not about the delivery of goods to a passive community, it is about active involvement and growing empowerment. Development is satisfying basic needs such as housing, water, health care, jobs and creation in a way that changes economic, social and power relations (SANCO, 1994). Community participation has

proved to be a success in a number of countries such as Kenya, Botswana and Ghana where community participation was promoted in roads construction, storm water drainage, etc (McCutcheon, 1992). In Tegucigalpa (the capital of Honduras) the community is involved in planning to meet it's own needs and then take on a management function which, ensures that the neighbourhood has safe water at a price they can afford (Choguill, 1994). Therefore community participation in South Africa would also play a major role in alleviating the enormous lack of services such as sustainable clean water to rural communities.

It is argued that conventional services have not been or cannot be extended to the poor, as quickly as required. Therefore communities will have to organise to meet their own needs (crook, 1991). If participation is pursued there will be greater possibilities for self-reliance, which will lead to self-perpetuation of initiating projects. In addition, participation means services can be provided at a lower cost (Crook, 1991). Therefore community participation should be promoted, especially for poor communities who have nothing to offer but their labour. According to Citicon (1992:19) "experience has taught us that decisions arrived at in boardrooms and applied at grass-roots level are not usually received positively by target communities. We at Citicon have therefore developed the view that the masses of the people must participate in all the processes involved in their development. Structures with the necessary expertise to formulate mechanisms that will guarantee the involvement of the community in decision-making with regard to projects aimed at alleviating the plight of the people have been created. As a result, a string of successes have resulted from applying these mechanisms.

2.16. TYPES OF PARTICIPATION

Arnstein distinguishes eight forms of participation, which may help in the analysis of public participation. The eight types of participation are arranged in a ladder form, with each rung representing a participation level and the extent of citizen power to influence the end result. The bottom rungs of the ladder are manipulation and therapy. These two rungs are levels of non-participation. The main aim is to allow people to participate in the planning process, but the power holders educate or cure the participants to their way of thinking, or what they believe should be done.

The rungs of informing and consultation, progress to the level of tokenism, which allows the people to have a say. The participants may indeed be involved and be heard, but there is no clear condition that the community has the power to ensure that their views are recognised by the power holders.

Placation is a higher level of tokenism as the participants may give advice, but there is no guarantee that their wants and needs will be put forward by the power holders. The highest three rung-partnership, delegated power and citizen control, allow the people to obtain the majority of decision-making power. The eight rung ladder set up above is a simplification of citizen participation, but it shows the significance of the gradual change in power. Understanding these levels helps to clarify the increasing demand for participation from the people, as well as the confusing responses that the power holders may provide. However this eight rung ladder for participation has limitations. There is no distinction in the locus of power between the different rungs, the power remains in the hands of the authority or person instigating the participation process. On the other hand it is a useful tool to enable us to assess various forms that participation

can take, and which areas we must attempt to stay clear of, where little or no power is given to the people.

In South Africa in the past there was low degree of citizen participation in developmental community projects. Decision-making was highly centralised and advice from citizens was either discouraged or closely managed by officials. Community involvement often means ‘manipulating’ people into accepting the professional’s point of view, or ‘therapy’ is used to ensure the passive acceptance of decisions made. At best, more formal attempts at participation often only provide for: ‘informing’ the public in a one way communication process, ‘consultation’ with no attempt made to allow the public to influence decision-making; or ‘placation’ to make the public think they are making a contribution. There should be a move away from non-participation and tokenism to a higher state of public participation and hence involvement in developmental projects. These issues thus relate to the factors that make participation either good or bad.

2.17. HOW TO ENSURE PARTICIPATION

Community participation requires that planners have direct contact with the community. This requires additional skills, skills to negotiate and organise. Planners cannot merely respond to requirements or preferences articulated by a community group, they must engage in a process to ensure that they are responding to articulated needs of the community (Friedmann, 1993).

2.18. THE ROLE OF THE PLANNER

According to Friedmann, planners play an interchangeable and inter-dependant role with the ‘people’, so that it cannot always be determined

who wears the hat of a planner and who does not (Friedmann, 1987). Planners play the following roles, as identified by Friedmann:

- Mediate encounters with technocracy; that is, technical experts and government officials.
- Ensure the widest possible participation of all members of the group during the entire process.

The planner can bring to the planning or development process in terms of skills the following skills:

- Communication skills.
- Group process skills.
- Familiarity with the social learning paradigm, its requirements, and it's applications;
- Familiarity with palling theory (history, problems, pitfalls);
- Analytical skills (particularly skill in analysing complex and dynamic situations);
- Synthesising skills in devising solutions;
- Substantive knowledge (historical, theoretical, institutional); and
- Experiential (tacit) knowledge in social transformation (Friedmann, 1987).

2.19. WRP CONSULTING. (2007) PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN WATER DEMAND MANAGEMENT AND CONSERVATION IN EMFULENI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

The Journal talks about community participation in conserving water in the Emfuleni Local Municipality. It emphasises the community participation in training and educating communities in the wise usage of water. The door to door approach has helped the community realize their involvement in servicing water. This project approach focused on the role of the

community in managing and decreasing water losses through altering perceptions and wasteful water use habits. This project was also about training people to capacitate the community with knowledge to contribute constructively to the decision making process.

2.20. TSHISHONGA, N. MBAMBO, M. 2008: THE CHALLENGES AND IMPERATIVES OF CRAFTING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND ENGAGEMENT. JOURNAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION. VOL 43 NO.41

The Journal looks at community participation as the mainstream concepts both of local and international development and democracy policy direction. Community participation is regarded as the apex of building of development (Korten 1984, Max Neef 1991, Burkey 1993) and democracy in the Greek means people's rule. (Tshishonga, N. and Mbambo, M. 2008). Grass roots democracy or democracy from below is intrinsically rooted within a culture whereby empowerment emanates from the genuine realisation through people's active participation in meeting their holistic development.

Change becomes one of the more difficult aspects for municipal officials and they feel comfortable performing functions the way they used to before the democratic dispensation. Such a mindset inhibits constructive participation with communities, hence the dream of ensuring people's governance and people's centred developments are not realised. The question to be asked is therefore: Is there a panacea to community participation and engagement? The question asked is, what is participation, who should participate and what are the abstract benefits of such engagements? Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions

and resources which affect them. (World Bank Participation resource book, 1996:3) The concepts and ideology used and this concept linked directly with the proposed topic.

This article also looks at community participation by making use of policies developed by the municipality. The author argues that forging democracy from below is one of the key pillars that keep democracy working and without community participation there is no proper democracy.

The research proposal to look at community participation in the development and planning context of delivery to communities is key in determining whether the Integrated Development Plans have improved participation and are informed by the communities.

2.21. NZIMALWE, T. AND REDDY, P. 2008. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY WITH PARTICULAR REFENCE TO WARD COMMITTEES. *A JOURNAL IN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION.*

Participation is an integral part of local democracy and local committees must be drawn into the process of IDP, budgeting, performance management and ward committees (T. Nzimakwe, 2008). A participatory culture should be calculated and furthermore the appropriate and relevant mechanism, process and procedures be developed. The Municipality of Ethekwini has created an environment for active participation through ward committees.

During the consultation process of the IDP municipalities must involve communities and civil society organisations in the formulation of municipal budgets, planning and development priorities. According to Kellerman (in

Kotze 1997: 53) community participation can be considered as both an end in itself and a means to sustainable development.

This article looks at the modus operandi of ward committees in the promotion of participation. Reddy and Muharaj (in SA 2008: 201). The local government Municipal Structure Act 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) and the local government: Municipal Systems Act 2000 (Act 32 of 3000) are pieces of legislation which provides a broad framework for a participatory local democracy.

The municipality has to contribute to building the capacity of local communities by enabling them to participate in the affairs of the municipality. The municipality will have to use resources efficiently for the implementation of these functions.

Participation takes place at forums. People may participate in developmental activities providing information about the community, taking part in identifying needs, problems and priorities. Community involvement can be encouraged through forums, council committees, capital investment programmes, focus groups and development associations (Houston et al. 2000: 77-78): Community participation is the cornerstone of affective and accountable governance. This journal relates to the topic in determining whether during the IDP process communities through their structures are able to influence the decision and direction of developments that in the end affects their lives.

2.22. CONCLUSION

One of the major problems facing especially rural areas in developing countries is lack of access to basic needs such as access to clean drinking water. Rigorous appraisal and evaluation of investments, which attempt to redress this imbalance, are necessary if rural development in

particular is to be promoted efficiently in an overall development programme. It is crucial that in this context the prospects for addressing the needs of marginalised and impoverished rural communities be assessed. There has been urban bias whereby a large proportion of the national budget is allocated more to urban areas than rural areas. This in turn has led to many rural areas not having basic needs such as access to a clean water supply. Based on the literature review, government will not succeed in meeting the MDG by 2015 but community participation can play a key role in achieving the targets.

Phillips, 1995 assert that community participation is required for work to be done which is required by the community. Although a technology may be appropriate to the available funds and the social conditions and operating and maintenance capacity in the community, the community may reject it as inferior because it differs from that used in wealthier areas. The community should participate in assessment of its resources and subsequently in the choice of technology. Communities are highly complex and not single cohesive units. In the absence of legitimate and effective local government, other representatives of the community have to be identified. It may be difficult to determine whether an individual or organisation is representative of the community. A community organisation which is unrepresentative can cause resentment and conflict which may curtail a programme. Alternatively a development committee may be formed. Problems may also arise if the leadership of organisations representing the community changes or if other organisations become more powerful during a programme.

Some of these problems in rural water projects in South Africa might be avoided by a careful approach to community participation. The validity of claims to be represented must be tested as early as possible. All interest groups in the community should be identified and consulted. Holding public meetings or advertising in newspapers may do this. Publicity

material about a proposed programme can be distributed at public meetings. It should not be assumed that spokespeople at public meetings represent the majority or all of the community. Spokespeople may also say what they think outsiders want to hear in order to further their own positions or to be polite.

What must be realised is that in practice, planners may find that they play both roles interchangeably, depending on where they are in the planning process. However this would require the planner to strike a balance and Batten and Batten's non-directive approach provides important guidelines to ensure this. Linking learning situations to the planning processes is one way in which one can ensure that what people learn is relevant to their situation and to ensure that what is learnt is applied and reflected upon as something that can be adapted or re-applied.

Friedmann (1192:70) believes that social learning approaches are appropriate to community self-empowerment since they require substantial departure from traditional planning practice which is typically imposed from above rather than generated within the community of the disempowered themselves. This has been evident in the kind of planning practised during apartheid.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION: RESEARCH APPROACH

The aim of the study is to highlight the problems faced by rural communities that hinder participation and significance of community participation in having access to clean water to rural communities. The study is conducted against the background of the ever-growing demand of basic services to disadvantaged rural communities. Rather than pointing to government for failure to provide clean water to rural communities, the aim was to make the community aware of the role and importance of participation. The gist is to sell the idea of participation at all levels of decision-making. The government is committed to provide services to rural communities as to uplift the standard of living of the people. In this regard it is felt that if the government can involve the target population at all decision-making level perhaps a common vision and common dedication can be mobilised and sustainability realised. People know their problems very well, thus they need to be empowered to solve them in a way conducive to their needs and expectations.

Since the study is based on information, which reflects people's thoughts, aspirations and ideas, the methodology adopted is a qualitative research approach. This is because it is difficult or impossible to quantify human efforts, not to mention human thoughts and behaviour. According to Babbie (1992), qualitative research methods can be usefully applied in planning for a diversified target group. The study relied mainly on participant observation and interviews (formal and informal)

The qualitative approach becomes very important in supply of clean water to rural communities because plans should be a reflection of the user perspective more than others. In the qualitative approach, data collection techniques selected were not only appropriate to meet the ends of the study, there was also a need for the techniques to be compatible with the situation in the case study area.

The researcher attempted to select techniques that would allow data collection to proceed even in the face of limited financial and time resources. As a result, the study mainly relied on participant observation and interviews (formal and informal). A structured questionnaire for interviews was administered to a small sample of households to acquire additional data to substantiate information derived from observation and interviews. (Appendix 3 data collection methods). The number of households which were interviewed was 26.

In selecting households to be interviewed, a random sampling with replacement was used. An observation instrument was initially used which assisted in identifying the different levels of water usage in the community. The sampling was done on the bases of housing units and an attempt was made to interview all heads of households. However, it proved to be difficult to find all household heads, thus mainly the study was carried on weekends when most households' heads were more likely to be at home.

3.2. GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

The study is based in the Schoemansdal Community area. It is located in the Lowveld of the Mpumalanga Province, the former KaNgwane homeland. The relief of the area is relatively flat with few isolated hills in the western side. The altitude of the area is about 500 – 1400 metres above sea level. The area is well drained, with warm to hot summers and cold winters. The mean annual temperature is about 30 degrees Celsius.

The rainfall, which is mainly conventional, occurs in between November and March. The climate of the area is the Tropical type that is one rainy season, one dry season; hotter during the dry season, cooler during the wet season. Winter rainfall is very uncommon in the area. The mean annual rainfall for the area is about 500 – 750 mm per year.

The vegetation of the area consists of Tropical dry savannah. There is no manmade forest. Overgrazing which is a common practice in the area, has contributed quite substantially to the deterioration of the natural vegetation. In other parts of the areas the rate of donga development is clearly assuming alarming proportions. A foreseeable negative consequence of this lack of concern is a further reduction in the area presently put under livestock and grazing land.

The main form of public transport is buses and taxis. Some of the noteworthy development includes a farming input depot, fenced communal grazing land, electricity, a clinic and hospital (Shongwe Hospital), four Primary schools (Schoemansdal Primary School, Bongokuhle Primary School, Zithulele Primary School, and Matsamo Lower Primary School), and one High School, (Lugebhuta High School), post office, and a business area where one finds different groceries, butcheries, a petrol filling station and a fruit and vegetable market.

The population of the area is approximately 9 000 people. The majority of the population (more than 50%) is less than 21 years old. The ratio shows that the dependency ratio is very high. Furthermore, those over 65 years old also increase the dependency ratio. Human activities in the area revolve mainly around two activities: subsistence farming and wage employment. The area’s proximity to major industrial centres such as Nelspruit Industrial Site makes it particularly attractive to rural migrants who seek employment in the industrial areas in order t supplement their

income. Most of the people in the area work in Nelspruit, Malelane and on the neighbouring farms as farm workers. Employment opportunities in the area are very limited. There are also non-farm activities in the area which include handicraft, brewing, milling, dressmaking and brick-making, fence, maize tank making and welding to mention just a few.

Subsistence farming is the only type of farming which is practised in the area. There are different food crops and livestock found in the area. This includes cassava, sorghum, sweet potatoes, beans, (groundnuts being the major ones), and maize is the mostly grown crop. Maize is grown during the rainy season only. The major livestock found in the area are cattle and goats. There is no large-scale crop and livestock farming in the area.

The land available to the community is poor, in that the type of soil found in the area is mainly fertalistic soils. This is not good because crops do not grow well in this type of soil as they do in loamy soils. The western side of the area is suitable for crop production and is where the community grow its crops. About 70% of the area under cultivation is too steep making it difficult to cultivate the area using tractors. The best alternative is to use ox-drawn plough for ploughing. Furthermore, before a person starts cultivating he/she had to clear the piece of land because it is a natural forest area. Thus those people who do not own cattle have to till a large piece of land using a hoe. Most of the households use family labour clearing the forest. The land distribution with the village would appear unequal. Some households own several hectares of land while others have only less than a hectare.

There are a number of perennial streams and mountain springs which do not flow through the community but at about 2 kilometres away from the community. The springs in the area are not protected at all from being contaminated and polluted by both human activities and animals.

According to the community members interviewed, the community need clean drinking water as a first priority. The water needs of the community were in terms of quality and quantity. The water from the Driekoppies dam (which forms part of the Komati Basin Water Authority (KOBWA), is now used to supply the whole community with clean drinking water. The water is supplied through the standpipes which are about 200 metres away from each other and some yard connections. Presently the community is not paying for the water and the people are allowed to use the water to irrigate their gardens. The water is restricted to drinking and washing clothing only.

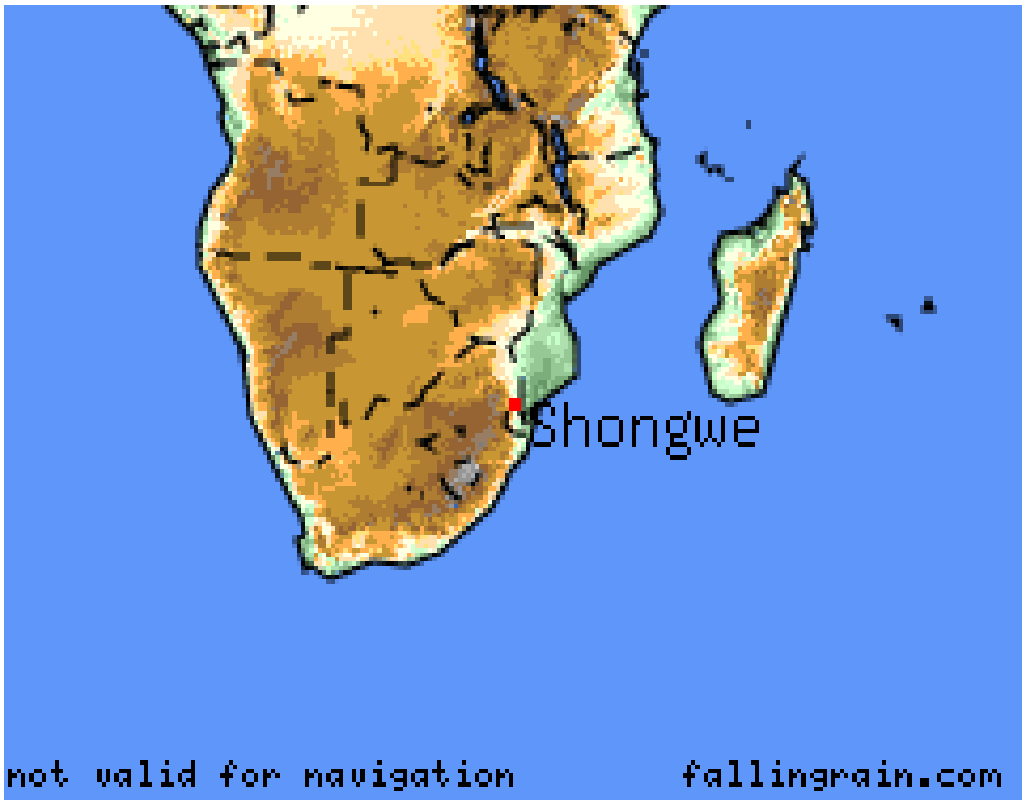
3.3. FIELD OBSERVATION

Field observation is one of the subtle methods of data collection which the researcher used. Sometimes field word observation went simultaneously with interviews in the community. The combinations of both interviews worked quite effectively and were comfortably compatible. Overall field observations, data collection method, are flexible and easily adaptable to the situations in the study area. The approach allows the researcher to witness community processes without much interference with the normal activities. It is a holistic approach that opens variety of data at one time.

Experience from fieldwork indicates that in reality the length of time required for field observation can largely depend on the process under observation. In this study, as the researcher, I was working under severe time constraints to familiarise myself and keep track of community processes like attending community meetings frequently or experience decisions adopted in meetings being implemented. Given the time constraint, it was difficult for the researcher to monitor effectively how decisions are reached and later implemented.

Map 1.0

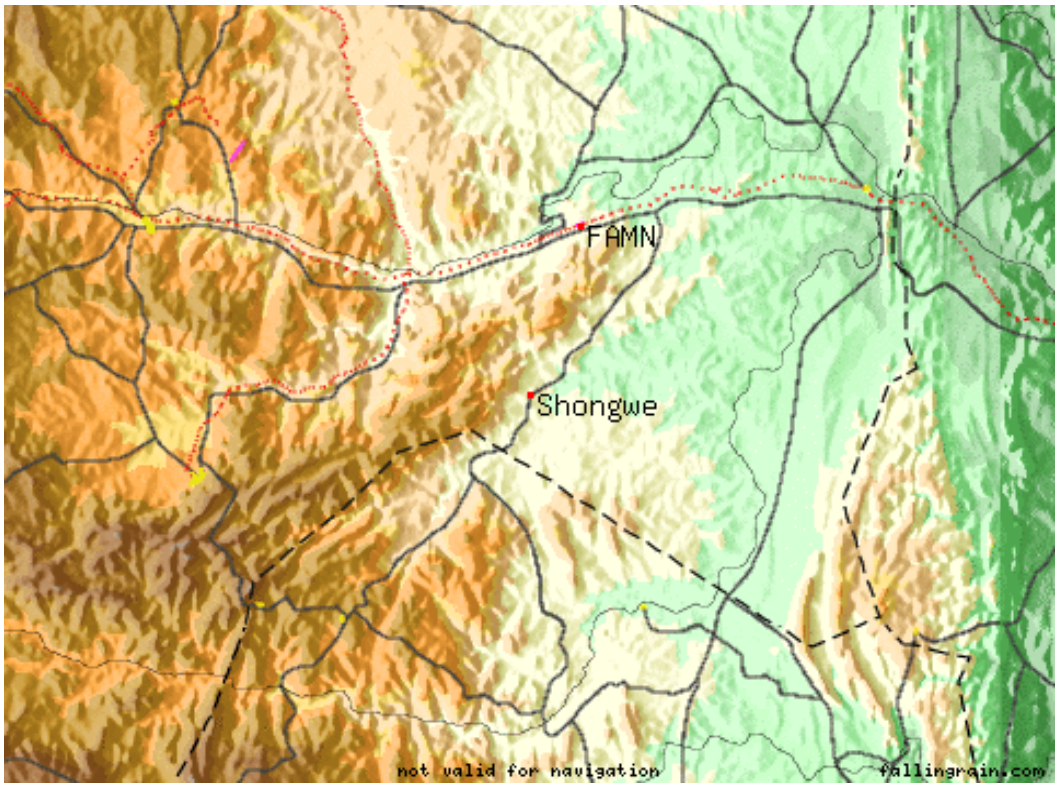
A map showing the location of Schoemansdal



Source: (Falling Grain et al. 2009)

Map 1.1

A map showing the vegetation of Schoemansdal



Source: (Falling Grain et al. 2009)

3.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH

Participation plays a vital role in the socio-economic development; most of these developments collapses or fail with no buying in from the communities. The study will highlight the approach of involving the community in the supply of water. The findings and recommendation will be to improve community participation and the role of CDW and Ward Councillors. The study will also highlight the significant role played by the IDP in promoting participation in planning for the delivery of clean water to rural communities. The study is conducted against the background of the ever growing demand of basic services to disadvantaged rural

communities. The aim is to make the community aware of the role and importance of participating in the IDP process.

3.4.1. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The data collected from interviews will be treated with high confidentiality and will not be used against the people.

3.5. LIMITATION OF RESEARCH

The research will follow the qualitative methodology. The aim of the study is to initiate a community base approach to water supply delivery in particular and planning as whole. It is therefore of particular importance to study community through and perceptions on participation in relation to water supply delivery. The data will be collected by means of participant observation and also informal interviews of key experts and also through using government and none government documents. The informal interviews in the community will be directed at the community figures (key informants) selected households and also selected groups (focus groups interviews).

CHAPTER 4

4. FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher will report on the findings he gathered during the data collection process. The central areas for probing were organised into relevant themes, community participation and water supply in the broader context of local governance.

4.2. INTERVIEWS

The aim of interviews was mainly to complement and substantiate information collected from field observations. Using the field observation instrument, which showed the imbalance of water supply with certain areas; getting more water for longer hours than other sections in the community. It must be noted that elaborate explanation of people's view and opinions on water problems cannot be acquired in any other ways than interviews.

In Schoemansdal formally structured interviews and informal interviews proved to be a feasible strategy to get information from the community respondents, therefore questioning primarily in a structured and semi-structured manner and highly open-ended. The interviews with ward councillors were highly structured and in written form. Recording was allowed by the ward councillors; however unlike the community these interviews took place under extreme time limits in a form of a meeting.

The meeting was made up of ward councillors of ward 27 and 28 and it started with a brief introduction and the purpose of the meeting. Thereafter the chairperson gave the researcher the platform to explain why he was there and how they could assist in the process. There were two formats adopted in interviewing the ward councillors and the community at large including the community development workers. The sample size was made of ten for the ward councillors and sixteen for the communities. It was done deliberately for the researcher to be able to ensure control over discussion and debates.

Key informants in the community were selected in the following manner:

- A senior person in the ward committee.
- The operation and maintenance staff from the municipality.
- Community personalities and according to their economic, educational, and other achievements in society, or simply prominent community individuals.
- When using the questionnaire, the selection of community members was through random sampling with replacement. A sample population of 20 households was selected. The households in the same street were given numbers and these numbers were written down on different pieces of paper. These pieces of paper were then put in a plastic bag and shaken thoroughly before and after picking the number. We continued with the same process until a total of twenty numbers were selected.

4.3. KEY INFORMANTS

In this category the researcher conducted interviews in the community hall. Among the community key informants the interviews were in the form of informal conversations. Firstly, the researcher introduced the topic and

then allowed the conversation to progress in the normal way of day-to-day discussion. From time to time, the researcher guided the conversation towards crucial issues and concerns requiring some elaboration and clarification.

Recording of the meetings was allowed for future reference. During the meeting an attendance register was circulated and the researcher has attached it as figure 4.1.

The interviews generally went well, but key informants in ward committees tended to shift the conversation away from the topics concerned. Nonetheless, delaying sometimes was a blessing, as members of the community would raise important points crucial to the study which the researcher had overlooked in the preparation of the interview. It was rather difficult to bring the respondents quickly back to issues in which the researcher was interested, for many of the respondents were elderly.. After the meeting the chairperson selected ten of them from different portfolios to fill in the questionnaire and respond accordingly.

4.4. FOCUS OF INTERVIEWS

- Community organisations.
- Community development workers.
- Information.
- Participation.

4.5. THE USE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE – INTERVIEWS

The questionnaire was used to get additional information to substantiate findings based on information collected through observation and

interviews. In addition, there was a need to get information from individual households in community participation in the delivery of clean water to rural communities to acquire statistical information unavailable in group and key informants interviews. Information acquired from questionnaires could be used to lead discussion in the thesis which could be supported by information from either observations or interviews. The questionnaire was used to get information on household demography, income characteristics, location/physical address, individual households' perceptions, priorities and water problems in the community and the role of community organisations.

The method of picking numbers from the plastic worked very well as there was no bias in the selection of the households to be interviewed. When no one was present in a household during data collection the researcher was forced to pay a second visit. Sometimes the researcher would even go for a third time to collect data from households whereby there was no one to interview during the first and second visits. A good time when everyone was home was on a Sunday.

4.6. INTERVIEW PROCESS

Also the researcher felt that most of the respondents may not reply or may need clarification on certain questions. Furthermore the researcher felt that some people may not be able to fill in the questionnaire because they could not read and write. Thus the questionnaire was administered at each homestead by the researcher. The interviews were carried out using SiSwati as the medium of communication and in very rare instances using English.

Since most of the household heads were at work during weekdays, questionnaire interviews were conducted over the weekend. In some households where the head of the house was not present during the interview, the immediate head was used which in most instances was the spouse. The major problem the researcher faced was that it was difficult to bypass the head of the household, the man and talk to his wife because the Swati custom does not allow or treat women as heads. In some cases when the men were not available the wife would be selected but if the husband arrived during the interview she would simply hand over the process to the man. In some cases female household heads (wives in temporary absence of husband) refused to answer some of the questions and the researcher had to ask some of the questions in different ways. The researcher was able to acquire a variety of information during the interview process.

4.7. EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methods used for the study showed both advantages and disadvantages.

- Firstly, on the advantage side, the method was an economical approach to data collection. It was a comprehensive data collection method relevant to diversified community settings.

- Secondly, the holistic approach of the methodology opened to the researcher a variety of information and at the same time it allowed for spontaneity. On the other hand, there is a problem of receiving too much which at the end of the day may be difficult to organise, manage, understand and interpret correctly. At the same time spontaneous information available to the researcher should be noted and collected.

- Thirdly, within the data collection in this approach, there is a lot of flexibility and compatibility. This was more evident to the researcher in the field where more than one research activity took place at the same time. For instance, while conducting interviews it was also possible to do spontaneous observations.

- Fourthly, the flexibility of the research method made it easily adaptable in the different areas of approach. For instance formal interview (as data collection technique) was efficient and the interviews were invaluable with key informants and community members in the community. Focus group interviews were an economical technique in soliciting people's views and ideas on community participation in the delivery of clean water supply to the community without having to visit all individuals in their different households.

- Fifthly, there is an important complementary relationship among the data collection techniques used. For instance, information missing from using the field observation technique was acquired either through interviews and/or the questionnaire.

- On the disadvantaged side, the method used does not give a true reflection of the degree of participation within the community. However, this may be attributed to the nature of participation. It must be noted that participation is a process, it cannot be achieved overnight. Research which seeks to understand participation cannot be monitored over a weekend and bring out major issues upon which decisions can be treated as conclusive and reflective of the true situation. I noted that the community was very eloquent about their water problems but they were not as keen on issues of participation.

- The researcher found out that a lesson worth noting is that it is important for a researcher to be very familiar with the place of study before the actual research takes place because a lot of time was wasted while trying to establish communication channels. It is also equally important for the researcher to try and make the respondent appreciate the value of the research and identify with the research in order to get correct and in depth information about the community.

- In the administration of the questionnaire for interviews, problems were experienced. One to the major problems was that of gender. In four households where the heads were temporarily women, it was difficult to get most of the information but, the researcher had to ask the same question in a variety of ways. For instance, some women were reluctant to give out information but referred some questions to their absent husbands and sometimes I had to come back when the husband was home. Some of the households interviewed were headed by a youth.
- Lastly, there were other minor problems, mainly to do with misunderstanding of the question. I assisted in such cases by clarifying the question. Overall, the interviews were conducted according to plan and the information acquired particularly on the community situation proved to be relevant. However, there is a need to devise more effective methods which will focus strictly on participation and empowerment.

4.8. DATA ANALYSIS

4.8.1. DESCRIPTIVE PERCENTAGE STATS

B1: Respondent Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	15	57.7	57.7	57.7
	Male	11	42.3	42.3	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above results reveal the gender group dispersion of participating respondents in this project, these were that; 57.7 % were females and 42.3 % were males. Water issues directly affect women. They are always responsible for the house activities. The results show a keen interest by women in finding solutions to the water problems.

B2: Respondent Age group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24 yrs	1	3.8	3.8	3.8
	25-34 yrs	9	34.6	34.6	38.5
	35-49 yrs	12	46.2	46.2	84.6
	Above 50 yrs	4	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above results reveal the age group dispersion of participating respondents in this project, these are 3.8 % between 18-24 years, 34.6 % are between 25 -34 years, 46.2 % are between 35 – 49 years, 15.4 % are above 50 yrs. These results show a lack of involvement by the youth in water related matters and raise a great concern.

B3: Respondent Education Levels

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No formal education	3	11.5	12.5	12.5
	Up to stand 9	5	19.2	20.8	33.3
	Matric	7	26.9	29.2	62.5
	Post matric	9	34.6	37.5	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

The results show that most community members have passed matric.

B4: Respondent Monthly Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below R 300	4	15.4	15.4	15.4
	R 300 -R 999	4	15.4	15.4	30.8
	R 1000 - R 1999	4	15.4	15.4	46.2
	R 2000 - R 2999	3	11.5	11.5	57.7
	R 3000 - R 3999	1	3.8	3.8	61.5
	Above R 4000	10	38.5	38.5	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

The income levels indicate that most community members derive their income from informal employment with more than 60% earning less than R3000.00 per month.

C1: How would you rate the functionality of community based organisation in your area/society?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	3	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Good	10	38.5	38.5	50.0
	Poor	4	15.4	15.4	65.4
	Very poor	2	7.7	7.7	73.1
	Uncertain	7	26.9	26.9	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

Interpretation

The above results reveal the perceptions of participating respondents in this project; the figures indicate the following; 11.5 % very good, 38.5 % good, 15.4 % poor, 7.7 % very poor and 26.9 % expressed uncertainty towards the research statement C1: how do you rate the functionality of community based organisation in your area/ society. Community based organisations are very active in this community but not on water related matters and the community has shown great trust and reliance on them.

C2: How is feedback regarding complaints in your organization?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Excellent	1	3.8	3.8	3.8
	Satisfactory	11	42.3	42.3	46.2
	Poor	9	34.6	34.6	80.8
	Very poor	3	11.5	11.5	92.3
	Uncertain	2	7.7	7.7	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

The feedback seems to reflect; 50% poor and 46% excellent meaning that almost half of the people interviewed were happy and with the other half not happy.

C3: How do you rate participation of family members on one organization?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very high	2	7.7	7.7	7.7
	High	5	19.2	19.2	26.9
	Low	10	38.5	38.5	65.4
	Very low	6	23.1	23.1	88.5
	Uncertain	3	11.5	11.5	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

These results show few problems of nepotism in the community structures

C4: How would you rate your involvement in a community project especially water related projects?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Excellent	3	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Good	14	53.8	53.8	65.4
	Poor	2	7.7	7.7	73.1
	Very poor	3	11.5	11.5	84.6
	Uncertain	4	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	26	100.0	100.0	

The involvement of the community in water projects seems very good with over 60% participation.

C5: How would you rate availability of water in your area?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	1	3.8	4.0	4.0
	Good	10	38.5	40.0	44.0
	Poor	8	30.8	32.0	76.0
	Very poor	6	23.1	24.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

More than 50% reported poor water availability in their village which is an area of concern.

C6: What is the role of tribal community leaders in development clearly by tribal leadership?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	3	11.5	12.0	12.0
	Important	4	15.4	16.0	28.0
	Less important	11	42.3	44.0	72.0
	Not important	4	15.4	16.0	88.0
	Uncertain	3	11.5	12.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

These results show more than 60% reported less or no importance of the community leaders.

C7: How would you rate your tribal community leader's helpfulness?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	3	11.5	12.5	12.5
	Good	5	19.2	20.8	33.3
	Poor	8	30.8	33.3	66.7
	Very poor	7	26.9	29.2	95.8
	Uncertain	1	3.8	4.2	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

The results show that there is a lack of support and help from tribal community leaders.

C8: How would you rate consultation with your political leaders/community leaders before making a decision?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	5	19.2	20.0	20.0
	Satisfactory	4	15.4	16.0	36.0
	Fair	10	38.5	40.0	76.0
	Poor	6	23.1	24.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

Consultation with the community is very poor scoring more than 60%.

C9: How would you rate access to information on the development of projects given to community members?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	2	7.7	8.3	8.3
	Good	4	15.4	16.7	25.0
	Fair	5	19.2	20.8	45.8
	Poor	13	50.0	54.2	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

No dissemination of information is done with more than 69% scoring poor.

C10: How can you rate the dissemination of information to the community?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	1	3.8	4.2	4.2
	Good	6	23.1	25.0	29.2
	Fair	7	26.9	29.2	58.3
	Poor	9	34.6	37.5	95.8
	Uncertain	1	3.8	4.2	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

Information dissemination is also poor at 60%.

C11: How would you rate community participation in water projects?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	7	26.9	28.0	28.0
	Satisfactory	2	7.7	8.0	36.0
	Fair	4	15.4	16.0	52.0
	Poor	10	38.5	40.0	92.0
	Uncertain	2	7.7	8.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

The results show that community participation is very poor in water projects. 50% of participants represented poor participation with 34% certified as participating.

C12: How would you rate the visibility of planners in your community?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	8	30.8	32.0	32.0
	Fair	6	23.1	24.0	56.0
	Poor	9	34.6	36.0	92.0
	Uncertain	2	7.7	8.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

The results indicate that 53% of the people interviewed feel that the planners are more involved and visible.

C13: What is the standard of your water cleanliness?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Excellent	11	42.3	45.8	45.8
	Good	5	19.2	20.8	66.7
	Satisfactory	7	26.9	29.2	95.8
	Poor	1	3.8	4.2	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

The water quality supplied is of good acceptable standard with the participants scoring more than 80% for good quality.

C14: How many times has your water been cut-off?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Twice	11	42.3	44.0	44.0
	Three times	4	15.4	16.0	60.0
	More than three times	9	34.6	36.0	96.0
	None	1	3.8	4.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

The frequency of supply is not consistent with more than 90% having water cuts of two or more in a day.

C15: How would you rate the municipality's' response when water related faults are reported?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	1	3.8	4.0	4.0
	Good	3	11.5	12.0	16.0
	Satisfactory	2	7.7	8.0	24.0
	Poor	18	69.2	72.0	96.0
	Uncertain	1	3.8	4.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

More than 70% reflect a poor response from the municipality in dealing with water related faults.

C16: How is community involvement in taking the decision of clean water supply?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	2	7.7	8.0	8.0
	Satisfactory	8	30.8	32.0	40.0
	Fair	5	19.2	20.0	60.0
	Poor	8	30.8	32.0	92.0
	Uncertain	2	7.7	8.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

The decision making does involve the community. This is based on the 55% of involvement.

C17: What is the overall water provision by the municipality?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Excellent	2	7.7	8.0	8.0
	Good	8	30.8	32.0	40.0
	Satisfactory	6	23.1	24.0	64.0
	Poor	8	30.8	32.0	96.0
	Uncertain	1	3.8	4.0	100.0
	Total	25	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.8		
Total		26	100.0		

The overall provision from bulk sources seems to be over 55% reflecting that participants were satisfied with the municipal provision.

C18: How would you rate friendliness of municipal staff when forwarding your concerns?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	4	15.4	16.7	16.7
	Satisfactory	6	23.1	25.0	41.7
	Fair	5	19.2	20.8	62.5
	Poor	9	34.6	37.5	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

The percentage of 54% reflects that there is poor friendliness from municipal staff to the community.

C19: Where do you get water?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In the house	17	65.4	70.8	70.8
	In the river	2	7.7	8.3	79.2
	At a communal tap nearby	5	19.2	20.8	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

With over 65.4% of people getting their water in their house the supply is regarded as a higher level of service with only 19.2% from communal taps.

C20: How would you rate community meetings and the ward committee in your area?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good	6	23.1	25.0	25.0
	Satisfactory	9	34.6	37.5	62.5
	Fair	8	30.8	33.3	95.8
	Poor	1	3.8	4.2	100.0
	Total	24	92.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	7.7		
Total		26	100.0		

The community and ward committee meetings seem to be having a mutual relation with the respondents scoring well over 86% satisfied.

4.9. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH

4.9.1. INTRODUCTION

The researcher has used three different types of tools to evaluate the validation and reliability of the research. The central tendency was used to reveal the respondents who participated. The Anova Test was used to determine the significant difference in perception of different age groups and the Cronbach Alpha test was used to evaluate the research instrument for reliability. In addition, qualitative research looks for validity in terms of impact (Stiles et. al 1999)

4.9.2. CENTRAL TENDENCY STATS

The central tendency stats were used to critically evaluate the research.

C1: How would you rate the functionality of community based organisation in your area/society?

N	Valid	26
	Missing	0
Mean		3.00
Median		3.00
Mode		2
Std. deviation		1.442
Variance		2.080
Range		4
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

Interpretation

The above table reveals central tendency stats results of research statements C1
The measurement scale code interpreted as:
1 = Very good.
2 = Good.
3 = Poor.
4 = Very poor.
5 = Uncertain.

(a) Mean

The mean results are as follows:

- The research statement C1 has a mean value 3.00, this reveals that the respondents who participated in this project have articulated an

average perception that is poor relative to the above mentioned research statement.

(b) Median

- The research statement C1 has a median value of 3.00, this indicates that poor is the median perception of respondents.

(c) Mode

- The research statement C1 has a mode value of 2.00, this indicates good is the mode perception of respondents.

(d) The Standard Deviation

- The research statement C1 has a standard deviation of 1.442, it reveals this variable is different in the respondent's perceptions.

(e) Variance

- The research statement C1 has variance of 2.080, it reveals this variable has variation in the respondent's perception.

(f) Range

- The research statement C1 has a range value of 4 and it indicates this variable has difference in the respondent's perception and the respondent's have expressed all types of opinions towards the research statement.

(g) Minimum

- The research statement C1 has a minimum value of 1 and this indicates respondents have articulated that minimum perception is very good.

(h) Maximum

- The research statement c1 has a maximum value of 5 and it indicates respondents have articulated that maximum perception is uncertain.

4.9.3. THE ANOVA TESTS INTERPRETATION RULE

(a) If **p** value is less than or equal **p≤ 0.05**, statistically there is significant difference between the groups' opinions.

(b) If **p** value is greater than **p>0.05**, statistically there is **NO** significant difference between the groups opinions.

Note: p indicates probability

Anova Tests : B2 : Age groups

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
C1	Between Groups	4.778	3	1.593	.538
	Within Groups	47.222	22	2.146	
	Total	52.000	25		
C2	Between Groups	2.060	3	.687	.580
	Within Groups	22.556	22	1.025	
	Total	24.615	25		
C3	Between Groups	1.987	3	.662	.681
	Within Groups	28.667	22	1.303	
	Total	30.654	25		

Interpretation

The ANOVA test results reveal there is **no statistically significant difference** in perceptions of the different age group respondents towards the research statements C1, C2, C3 because the variables **p** significant values are 0.538, 0.580 and 0.681 these values are above **0.05** (This means the different age groups respondents have almost similar perceptions towards these statements and there is no huge difference in different group respondent's opinions towards these study statements). The research shows similarities between the age groups responses to similar perceptions. This validates the findings of the research.

4.9.4. THE RELIABILITY ANALYSIS (CRONBACH ALPHA TEST)

Interpretation Rules

(a) If Cronbach Alpha value is between 0.4 to 0.7, this indicates medium internal consistency and reliability.

(b) If Cronbach Alpha value is between 0.7 to 1.0, this indicates high or good internal consistency and reliability

Section 1: Community Organisation

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	26	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	26	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.690	3

Interpretation

Reliability analysis of the questionnaire continuous research statements reveal the Cronbach alpha value is 0.690 and this indicates this research instrument's (Questionnaire) continuous research variables have medium internal consistency and reliability.

Section 2: Community Development Workers

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	23	88.5
	Excluded	3	11.5
	Total	26	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.587	5

Interpretation

Reliability analysis of the questionnaire's continuous research statements reveal the Cronbach alpha value is 0.587 and this indicates this research instrument's (Questionnaire) continuous research variables have medium internal consistency and reliability.

Section 3: Information

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	24	92.3
	Excluded	2	7.7
	Total	26	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.694	2

Interpretation:

Reliability analysis of the questionnaire's continuous research statements reveal the Cronbach alpha value is 0.694 and this indicates this research instrument's (Questionnaire) continuous research variables have medium internal consistency and reliability.

4.10. FINDINGS

4.10.1. COMMUNITY ORGANISATION

Most people interviewed clearly stated that the community water supply in the area was poor but a lot can be done to improve the situation. They also pointed out that community organisation run by the welfare was playing a very important role in the community. Over 60% responded positively to the role of community organisation. Consultation and participation is one of the key areas they responded to as positive in the dissemination of information. The participation of family members in one organisation is very low indicating that very few family members participate in one organisation and this aspect indicates the sense of ownership by the entire community.

About 50% of the people interviewed indicated their affiliation to different community based organisations, 20% are members of farmers' organisations and the remaining 30% are represented on different structures such as the burial society and church organisations. In addition, many people indicated that they were members of the African National Congress (ANC). The remaining 50% of the people did not belong to any organisations as they did not see the need to do so as the past experience has proven to yield no results. This can be due to education on the

importance of the organisation and the lack of people to motivate the undecided to join highlighting the benefits to be earned.

4.10.2. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT WORKERS

The community development workers indicated that they are involved in community projects with over 60% of participants responding positively to their involvement. The water supply in the entire Schoemansdal community is poor with more than 50% of the CDW reporting some serious water supply shortages. The role of the tribal authority in assisting in water related matters is very poor scoring more than 60%. An important element was also uncovered that there was no good relationship between the ward councilors and the community development workers. This was affecting sharing and dissemination of information by both the CDW and ward councilors and such a relationship had a negative effect on any infrastructure related project.

4.10.3. INFORMATION SHARING

The community members mostly agreed that they are not able to get information on water supply problems. They are only notified about the non availability of water at certain times. The only municipal worker in the area indicated that he is the only one controlling the valves and has no mode of transport and he has to walk the entire village on foot and he did not have any means of informing the public about supply shortages or breakdowns. However he did mention that such water problems are reported to the responsible councilor in the ward committee.

According to the Water Service Authority (WSA) officials (Nkomazi Municipality) they did not have sufficient capacity and people to assist them, nor sufficient resources.

4.10.4. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

The community was not informed about water related projects instead they would see the contractors starting to dig without the knowledge of the community except for the few that are close or related to the ward councilors. The local government planners were at times visible in terms of the planning for the community but their input was minimal. The people wanted to be part of the whole process from project identification, to planning and implementation.

According to the community the water quality supplied is of a good acceptable standard. This was also supported by the fact that there has been no water borne disease in the area in the past 36 months but the challenge still remained that the community of Schoemansdal only receives water at certain times and on certain days. About 90% of the participants indicated water cuts of more than two a day and indicated that the water was rationed for a particular period of time. This was a serious concern as some of the community members spend most of the day not in their households and only return in the evenings to discover that there is no water supply.

There is no response at all from the municipal officials when water related faults are reported, such faults ranging from water leaks, to the reservoir overflowing, illegal connections and shortages of water supply.

The local municipality pointed to the issue of a lack of capacity. Supervisors and the management of water at local level or the distribution

point. The community pointed out that there was a structure called Thuthuka that was responsible for water before 1994. That structure was a community based structure that dealt with all water related matters and the water supply was at all times available and well taken care of by the community. There was a stipend household payment that was effected by the organisation. One respondent highlighted that the problems started when the then Department of Public Works decided to add bulk networks and pipes and the community scheme was abandoned since government offered water for free without any contribution. The government scheme was implemented without the involvement of the community.

The bulk water supply from the reservoir controlled and operated by the municipality seems to be sufficient but just as it leaves the reservoir, the water disappears with no one to account for it. Some municipal workers live within the community and when confronted about the water problems, they become defensive and end up straining the relationship with the community.

Most of the households are connected to the water networks and according to the design of the system; it was designed for communal stands. According to the Water Services Act (Act no. 108 of 1997) the communal stands were designed for 25L/person/day based on a household of eight people. The design was for 200L/family. The current situation reflects that more than 90% of the respondents indicated to have house connections and using waterborne toilets and baths. The average supply for waterborne in urban areas is calculated at 120L/person/day which amounts to 900L/household/day.

It was very interesting to observe that all community members interviewed agreed that community participation in water related projects was limited. The people in power came with the ideas of water projects to sell to the

community. The community accepts the idea with an overwhelming majority as the community is desperately in need of clean drinking water. These projects are normally identified by consultants and discussed with the ward committee. Then the leaders call for meetings for the purpose of informing them about the project. It was gathered that most of the people do not question such an act because they still believe that if done by their leaders and consultants, the projects will function. It was also gathered that there was a power struggle between the ward councilors and the community development workers.

4.11. SUMMARY

After looking at the research approach and how the data were collected and analysed, the chapter has highlighted how the interviews (both group interviews and individual) were conducted. The outcome of the fieldwork has been presented. Various tables have been used to summarise some of the research findings. Lastly, the chapter has dealt with the findings of community participation in the delivery of clean water to a rural community.

CHAPTER 5

5. INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1. INTRODUCTION

A qualitative approach to the research was presented in the last chapter. The data collection technique used in the research relied on focus groups, key informants, observations and administered questionnaires. The aim of the questionnaire was to build a greater representation of views. Thus it must not be mistaken as incorporating a quantitative analysis in the study. It must be noted that it is difficult to quantify human views and behaviour. As a result the analysis to support information derived from the other data collection techniques. The rest of the data would be analysed based on the qualitative analysis procedure method which involves the classification of respondents responses into categories mainly presented in table form. Other responses, primarily narrative data, have been summarised and presented as phrases and quotations.

In dealing with the study, the gist of discussion revolved around factors in the delivery of clean water. These factors were deduced from a wide range of participation in the delivery of clean water to rural areas and were trimmed to the relevance of the study at hand.

5.2. THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DELIVERY OF CLEAN WATER TO COMMUNITIES

Community participation is relevant to the integrated development planning process in that, it is concerned about the involvement of people in decision making about issues/problems that affect their lives. According to Jerome (1987), since the 1950s this has been an issue in

comprehensive planning. Due to its scientific nature, comprehensive planning has been heavily criticised. McLoughlin argued that comprehensive planning is an uncritical collection of facts and figures (Muller, 1992). Banfield argued that comprehensive planning is an impossible undertaking which requires more intelligence and information than is ever available (Jerome, 1987). On the other hand, Walker called for a more direct link with decision making and decision makers (Jerome, 1987).

The others authors, as a result of this, began to articulate models of more inclusive decision making relevant to planning that were also limited in scope and more sensitive to the decision making environment in which planners operate. These included efforts by Davidoff and Reiner in choice theory which allowed an element of choice into planning, with the belief that individuals have preferences and behave in accordance with them and that preferences express comparison between wants (Faludi, 1973). Furthermore, Lindblom's disjointed incrementalism seeks to adapt decision making strategies to the limited cognitive capacities of decision makers and to reduce the scope and cost of information collection and computation (Etzioni, 1979). Etzioni's mixed scanning approach accommodates a base of rationality to give legitimacy to planning as a decision-making process, a look out function and provision for implementing (Muller, 1992). Therefore it is evident that changes that occur in planning seek to address the same problems in society, but with changing societal values and priorities planning methods also change.

In South Africa currently the vision for a wider participation and development perspective that was lacking in planning in the apartheid era, makes planning an interesting prospect. This will enable communities to be included in decision-making to promote a bottom up approach as opposed to the top down approach. This aspect of participation is not new in planning, it has been an issue as advocates and progressive planners

in particular stressed the need to bring people into the planning process who by design or practice have not participated (Jerome, 1987). However social planners were criticised for being overly pluralistic and that the government usually determines the issues and influences the type of local organisation. The democratic government which is ruling the country is pro-active and is promoting a people driven development process where issues would be influenced by the people and for themselves.

Proponents of strategic planning who assert that strategic planning is orientated more towards action, results and implementation share this view. It promotes a broader and more diverse participation in planning where it is believed that participation will lead to more insightful and responsive planning (ibid, 1987). Therefore strategic planning emphasises competitive strategy where communities are encouraged to identify their competitive abilities and use these abilities to develop themselves. In a nutshell strategic planning is based on capacity building. It encourages an honest assessment of a community's capacity to act, seeking to maximise strengths and minimise weaknesses in the context of opportunities and threats. Strategic planning is adopted from the private sector but it is applicable to public organisations or communities (World Bank, 1992). The initial stage involves an agreement among decision-makers on the purpose of the effort:

- Who should be involved.
- What topics should be addressed.
- The arrangements for minute taking and reports.
- The identification of mandates, issues or stakeholders e.g. community, government departments etc. Clarification of the organisation's mission, values and needs/wants.

This process draws similarities and differences among those who have a stake in the outcome of the process and in what the government mission

ought to be in relation to those stakeholders. Stakeholders may include any individual that can put forward a claim on the organisation's attention, resources or is affected by the output. This can be done by doing the following:

- Identification of internal strengths and weaknesses and external opportunities and threats;
- Identification of strategic issues;
- Strategy development for the identification of practical alternative for resolving the strategic issue;
- Look at the organisation's potential future;
- Decision on how to implement the strategies;
- Evaluation of the results.

This process of integrated development planning is interactive, and it is important that there is discussion and feedback on issues such as goals, objectives and alternatives which may require professional advice and assistance. It is important that every stage is monitored to ensure that the whole process adheres to the stipulated goals or to change the goals via feedback. The process is based on the interaction of all stakeholders to ensure that the goal is realised.

5.3. THINGS THAT HAVE WORKED WELL WITHIN THE COMMUNITY OF SCHOEMANSDAL IN THE DELIVERY OF CLEAN WATER

In chapter one in the problem statement the researchers aim was to conduct an explanatory investigation of the following points.

- Investigate how much water each household uses. The observation instrument was utilised and it reflected that most households were receiving water at particular times but not always.

- Design standard to cater for the higher service. Most households indicated they wanted? a yard connection, which is a high level of service. This was putting a strain on the networks.
- The community is positive about paying for water services provided Community structures are in place like the ward committee and community meetings are held from time to time with the ward councilors and the tribal authority.
- The community knew exactly where the problems were and the solutions.
- Bulk water supply is operated and managed by the municipal staff.

5.4. AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT

- Communication and sharing of information is very important and focus must be improved.
- Foster relationships between the community development workers, ward committee members and the public at large.
- The lack of responsible people to manage the infrastructure.
- There is no response from municipal officers when water related faults are reported.
- The relationship between councilors and development workers is somehow poor.
- The lack of community involvement in the initiation stage and only being called when projects must be implemented.
- There is absolutely no management of water in the community and persons can do what they want.
- The perception that water is from God and should not be paid for that perception must be dealt with.

5.5. CONCLUSION

The water supply in the community has been a problem for quite some time. The community has lost hope if it will ever be resolved. The processes followed by sending planners and consultants to go and identify the problems in terms of water supply has created somehow a lack of trust between councilors and the committee however a lot of emphasis will have to be given to changing the mind set of the communities as they feel they are used for project approvals only. There are other options that were presented to communities for alternative methods of water supply such as non governmental organisations. Participation they get water continuously without disruption. does take place but not all people are consulted and represented making it difficult for communities to know and understand the activities within the area.

CHAPTER 6

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

As the researcher indicated in the earlier chapter, he is going to investigate the following:

Factors leading to a lack of community participation:

- Present findings and the pattern of water supply
- Document the trends in relation to community and basic water supply.
- Make recommendations.

The research has identified a number of promising pathways which can be followed to improve the provision of water to rural communities. The focus of this section would be the recommendations which I am going to propose, based on the findings of the discourse through the literature review of the international experience and South African experience in community participation in rural water supply projects and based on the study at Schoemansdal in Mpumalanga province.

Much of the success during the decade in improving water supply coverage was achieved by using appropriate technologies and community-based approaches to projects (Kalbermatten et al. 1992). The conventional approach to infrastructural development adopted from urbanised, western, developed countries was found to be unsuitable because it was overly centralised and did not reflect local traditions and the needs for community participation. The lessons which we have learnt

from the international experience are that any success of a developmental project must have covered the following:

- Targeting the poor;
- Targeting women;
- Institutional training;
- Appropriate technology;
- Community management; and
- Cost recovery

6.2. FACTORS LEADING TO LACK OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Information leading to the identification of the factors was derived mainly through observation in the local authority and also from the informal interviews with the ward councilors and community development workers.

The factors that have been identified as responsible for differences include:

- Lack of information dissemination between ward councilors, community development workers and the community.
- Poor community participation in planning and implementation of projects.
- The undefined role of community development workers.
- The indentified role of the tribal authority in the developmental projects versus the elected councilors.

6.3. PRESENT FINDINGS AND THE PATTERNS OF WATER SUPPLY

The provision of the basic water supply in the Schoemansdal community is only received in the early hours of the morning and not again until the

next morning. The community is taking basic water supply as the priority basic need than the electricity. Community leaders feel that consultation is very important hence not all community people attend their meetings and end up losing out on key information.

The community was well aware of where the water supply was but the municipal officials did not listen much to them and continued to implement projects although involving all concerned community members. The role of community development workers was not clear. And to which structure did they belong. There was no clear indication as to how the CDW fits in the ward committee.

There is no knowledge base created within the community, most of the community's institutional memory remains with individuals and is lost every time they retire from the municipal service. Newly appointed projects do not have diagrams and drawings showing where these pipes are laid.

The community does have active non governmental organisations who are solely concentrating on wellness and the performance of these organisations is recommended by the community. None of these structures are involved in community provision or supply to the Schoemansdal community. Currently there is no management of water within the community. Anyone can drill and connect a pipe to their household without any consent from the municipality. This has created the mushrooming of new businesses such as car washes. The municipality was basically operating and managing the bulk system.

6.4. PRESENT THE TRENDS IN RELATION TO COMMUNITY WATER SUPPLY

The municipality was spending a lot of money on infrastructure development but most of the projects are complete with no water however, being provided from the completed projects.

The bulk water supply from the reservoir controlled and operated by the municipality seems to be sufficient but just as it leaves the reservoir, the water disappears with no one to account for it. Some municipal workers live within the community and when confronted about the water problems, they become defensive and end up straining the relationship with the community.

Most of the households are connected with house connections and according to the design of the system; it was designed for communal stands. According to the Water Services Act (Act no. 108 of 1997) the communal stands were designed for 25L/person/day related to a household of eight people. The design was for 200L/family. The current situation reflects that more than 90% of the respondents indicated they have house connections and are using waterborne toilets and baths. The average supply for waterborne in urban areas is calculated at 120L/person/day with amounts to 900L/household/day. Water supply patterns are that community receives water at 5:00 am till 8:00 am.

It was very interesting to observe that all community members interviewed agreed that community participation in water related projects was limited. The people in power only come with their ideas of water projects when they want to sell them to the community. The community usually accepts their ideas with an overwhelming majority as the community in desperately in need of clean drinking water. These projects are normally identified by consultants and only then discussed with the ward committees. Then the

leaders call for meetings for the purpose of informing them about the project.

6.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

6.5.1. USER ASSOCIATIONS AND LOCAL SERVICE PROVIDERS

Communities have aspirations and plans for improvements in water access for multiple uses. Local service providers can meet those needs to some extent. Local service providers can deploy great creativity and organisational skills for innovation and scaling up communities. However communities on their own, certainly the poor lack the finance and the technical and organisational skills to improve their access to water to higher levels that also accommodate population growth and respond to technological and market opportunities. This can also be done by forming partnership with well established institutions.

Therefore it is recommended to:

- Strengthen the use of community based organisations.
- Support the community in advocacy and articulating their demands and proposed solutions in individual communities.
- Recognise communities as the driving force for requesting and integrating support that meets their needs and capabilities, while ensuring that the marginalised are also included.
- Collaborate with local government to align and strengthen local planning processes.
- Further work towards a goal of reaching the whole community

6.5.2. WATER SERVICE AUTHORITY

The local authority has an important role to play in ensuring that communities are informed of its functions. It is important that communities play an important role in the development of the integrated development planning. Their responsibility in community participation is to inform, facilitate and co-ordinate projects. This leads to empowerment and a sense of ownership.

The creation of a supportive environment at community level was expected to require the following:

- Participatory planning approaches in which existing infrastructure and institutions are assessed and incorporated in the design; genuine water needs and priorities are articulated for any use at any site; heterogeneity is addressed to ensure inclusion of marginalised people; information is provided on technology options with institutional and financial requirements and choices are left to communities.
- Co-ordinated long-term support to meet people's multiple water needs and ensure sustainability of systems over time. This encompasses technical, institutional, and financial support (which the community can be put into use – and which are sector-such as farming, water supply and road construction).
- Strategic planning for scaling up so that participation is mainstreamed across the water sector to reach ultimately everybody.

The re-skilling of the municipal employees in customer care and the Batho Pele principles and the empowerment of the community's people.

6.5.3. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The potential importance of local government in co-ordinating initiatives amongst various support agencies and between them and communities has already been emphasised. Local government has the mandate to plan and co-ordinate service provision for all citizens in its area of jurisdiction and is, in principle, accountable downward through democratic elections. In addition, local government has a key role in providing long-term support. Local government is thus a crucial player in community participation.

Furthermore, politics may dominate over service delivery. The strategic framework ICSO showed how NGO's can strengthen this capacity for participatory planning in community based projects. In order to strengthen local government's pivotal role in co-ordinating provision of water to local communities I recommend that:

Local government's capacity and resources to plan and co-ordinate the delivery of community water services should be strengthened, through:

- Facilitating iterative participatory planning processes;
- Facilitating relationships between communities and service providers and empowering them to hold service providers directly accountable;
- Co-ordinating services delivery from various agencies;
- Equitability in allocating available resources;
- Co-ordinating long-term support to communities.

The community's development workers must be included in the ward committees as the water services technical substructure that could deal with the following areas of specialty:

- The technical – to deal with water leaks, yard connections and general technical problems.
- The administration – to deal with payments, billing of high users and data management.
- Communities – to disseminate information to communities and create awareness.

6.5.4. NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

At national level, there should be:

- Enabling policies and laws, which seek to use water to develop livelihoods and assist poverty alleviation, and remove those aspects of sectoral approaches that are counterproductive and that hamper meeting people's needs, while maintaining the merits of sector specialisation.
- Decentralised long-term financial, technical, and institutional support to enable intermediate-level service providers to provide locally appropriate and co-ordinated support.

In the supportive environment for water services, a range of water service provider groups can be active: users, NGOs, the domestic and productive sub-sectors, local government and knowledge centres. There should be a clear and direct policy on how NGOs and CSOs can be utilised in provision of water without going through competitive bidding.

6.5.5. OTHER RESEARCHERS

There is still a gap in the community structures especially related to the poor in communities. The following is recommended:

- Accelerate action research through learning by doing within the communities.
- Further research the creation of knowledge centres or hubs where projects within the community can retain their institutional memory for future generations.
- The promotion of learning alliances for global institutionalisation.

Knowledge and perceptions are shaped by paradigms. This research has highlighted multiple sources for the provision of water as the main paradigm for communities. It has shown how a shift in perception unlocks new potential for better water services especially in the light of the Millennium Development Goals.

6.6. CONCLUSION

One of the objectives set out in this research was to highlight the problems faced by rural communities which hinders participation in the delivery of clean water so that the knowledge gained can be used to formulate effective strategies for progressive development. This was achieved through the literature review of community participation in the delivery of clean water supply to rural communities, local, international experiences and the study undertaken in Schoemansdal community. The major issues which were observed include the fact that it is important when conducting a survey of a particular community to establish which organisations already exist and to get to know the leadership and their capacity. Also some of the organisations are not representative of the whole community. The survey would highlight the specific problems that need to be addressed.

Another objective of this research was to explore community participation in the delivery of clean water to rural communities and to encourage

communities to get involved in the decision-making processes. Through the study undertaken, it was realised that one of the major issues in rural communities is the fact that people in leadership make decisions on behalf of the communities. The communities are not involved in community decision making and the leadership often only approach the community at the time they want to sell an idea to them. The other problem which the study gathered was that there are many people in the community who are uneducated and unemployed. Therefore community participation should be aimed at empowering people by ensuring that skills are developed and that employment opportunities are created. To overcome these issues labour intensive programmes are considered to be appropriate as it solves a number of problems simultaneously. Firstly, it addresses the problem of illiteracy by offering training on skills development. It promotes local employment, and thirdly, it ensures that services are provided at low cost and the living environment is improved.

Abraham (1992) contends that in community-based projects the community controls a project and makes important decisions, although professionals such as engineers may provide expertise, and finance may be provided by external financial resources. For a community to control projects it must acquire administrative and management skills. Phillips et al. 1995 contends that South Africa at present is faced with structural difficulties related to community participation since local institutional management capacity is not sustainable without an enabling local authority legal framework. The strategic framework on local government has not been effective since it’s promulgation in 2002. A particular difficulty facing community-based projects in short term programmes is the long term nature and complex training needs for institutional capacity-building since there may be insufficient time and resources to accomplish this and the sustainability thereof.

Although the Water Service Authority's task is a crucial one, it is somewhat difficult. With the upliftment of communities, come various difficulties including the divisions, conflict and incoherencies that may exist within communities. It may become evident that under the new dispensations, planners have to acquire new skills to deal with such contingencies namely: negotiation, communication, and the ability to bring to the fore the differing needs of all actors.

There exists a multitude of planning tools that may or may not assist the planner in working with communities. Although utilising the appropriate method in the appropriate context is essential, more crucial is the angle from which community development is approached. Apparently a top-down, blueprint approach to planning has left us in the dismal state we find ourselves as planners today: social infrastructural backlogs, unserviced townships, poverty, landlessness, environmental degradation and unemployment. Consequently community participation must be the new approach to planning if we wish to be relieved of the mess we have inherited from apartheid. However to gain certainty that such an approach will lead to the successful implementation of community plans, planners need to assert themselves in national policy formulation in order to gain some influence over which direction development plans will assume.

The planning process embarked on during apartheid was linear and product-orientated. It was not people-orientated; the people affected by the product were not considered. It is the major criticism of blue print planning that planners need to pay close attention to, take note of, and learn from, in order to be able to avoid the mistakes of the past by not involving the communities in decision-making that affect their lives. Community participation is the approach which integrated planners should adopt and thus will make South Africa realise their millennium targets of 2015.

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ANNEXURE 1: OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT

OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT						
1.	Village name					
2.	Property /Site Number					
3.	Description of Service	Rudimentary System	Communal Street Tap	Prepaid Communal Street Tap	Full Pressure Conventional House Connection	Full Pressure Prepaid House Connection
4.	Existing level of Service Tick	Metered Yard	Unmetered Yard	Public Standpipe	Non-Reticulated Source	No Infrastructure
5.	What are the high water activities in the village?					
6.	Connection Type	Own	Municipality		Other (Specify) Inside Households	
7.	Number of Leakages	Mainline				

ANNEXURE 2: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

NAME: …… SURNAME: ……

PHYSICAL ADDRESS: ……

……

GENDER:		**AGE GROUP**		**EDUCATION**	
Female	☐	18-24	☐	No formal education	☐
Male	☐	25-34	☐	Up to Standard 9	☐
		35-49	☐	Matric	☐
		Above 50		Post Matric	☐

TOTAL MONTHLY INCOME

Below R300	☐	R300-R999	☐	R1000-R1999	☐
R2000-R2999	☐	R3000-R3999	☐	Above R4000	☐

COMMUNITY ORGANISATION

1. How would you rate the functionality of community based organisation in your area/society? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good

   3 = Poor 4 = Very poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

2. How is feedback regarding complaints in your organisation? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Excellent 2 = Satisfactory

   = Poor 4 = Very poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

3. How do you rate participation of family members on one organisation? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very high 2 = High

   3 = Low 4 = Very low 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT WORKERS

4. How would you rate your involvement in a community project especially water related projects? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Excellent 2 = Good

   3 = Poor 4 = Very poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

5. How would you rate availability of water in your area? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Poor
   4 = Very poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

6. What is the role of tribal community leaders in development clearly by tribal leadership? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very important 2 = Important
   3 = Less Important 4 = Not important
   5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

7. How would you rate your tribal community leaders' helpfulness? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Poor
   4 = Very poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

8. Consultation is an important factor in democratic society. How would you rate consultation with your political leaders/community leaders before making a decision? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Good 2 = Satisfactory 3 = Fair
   4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

INFORMATION

9. How would you rate access to information on the development of projects given to community members? (Please cross one box)

   Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Fair
   4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

10. How can you rate the dissemination of information to the community? (Please cross one box)

    Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Fair
    4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

11. How would you rate community participation in water projects? (Please cross one box)

    Rating scale: 1 = Good 2 = Satisfactory 3 = Fair
    4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

12. Do planners often come to your community? How would you rate the visibility of planners in your community? (Please cross one box)

    Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Fair

4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

13. What is the standard of your water cleanliness? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Excellent 2 = Good 3 = Satisfactory
4 = Poor 5=Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

14. How many times has your water been cut-off? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = Three Times
4 = More than three times 5 = None

1		2		3		4		5	

15. How would you rate the municipality's response when water related faults are reported? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Satisfactory
4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

16. How is community involvement in taking the decision of clean water supply? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Good 2 = Satisfactory 3 = Fair
4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

17. What is the overall water provision by the municipality? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Excellent 2 = Good 3 = Satisfactory
4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

18. How would you rate friendliness of municipal staff when forwarding your concerns? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = Good 2 = Satisfactory 3 = Fair
4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

19. Where do you get water? (Please cross one box)

Rating scale: 1 = In the house 2 = In the river
3 = At a communal tap nearby 4 = Water tank
5 = None

1		2		3		4		5	

20. How would you rate community meetings and the ward committee in your area? (Please cross one box)

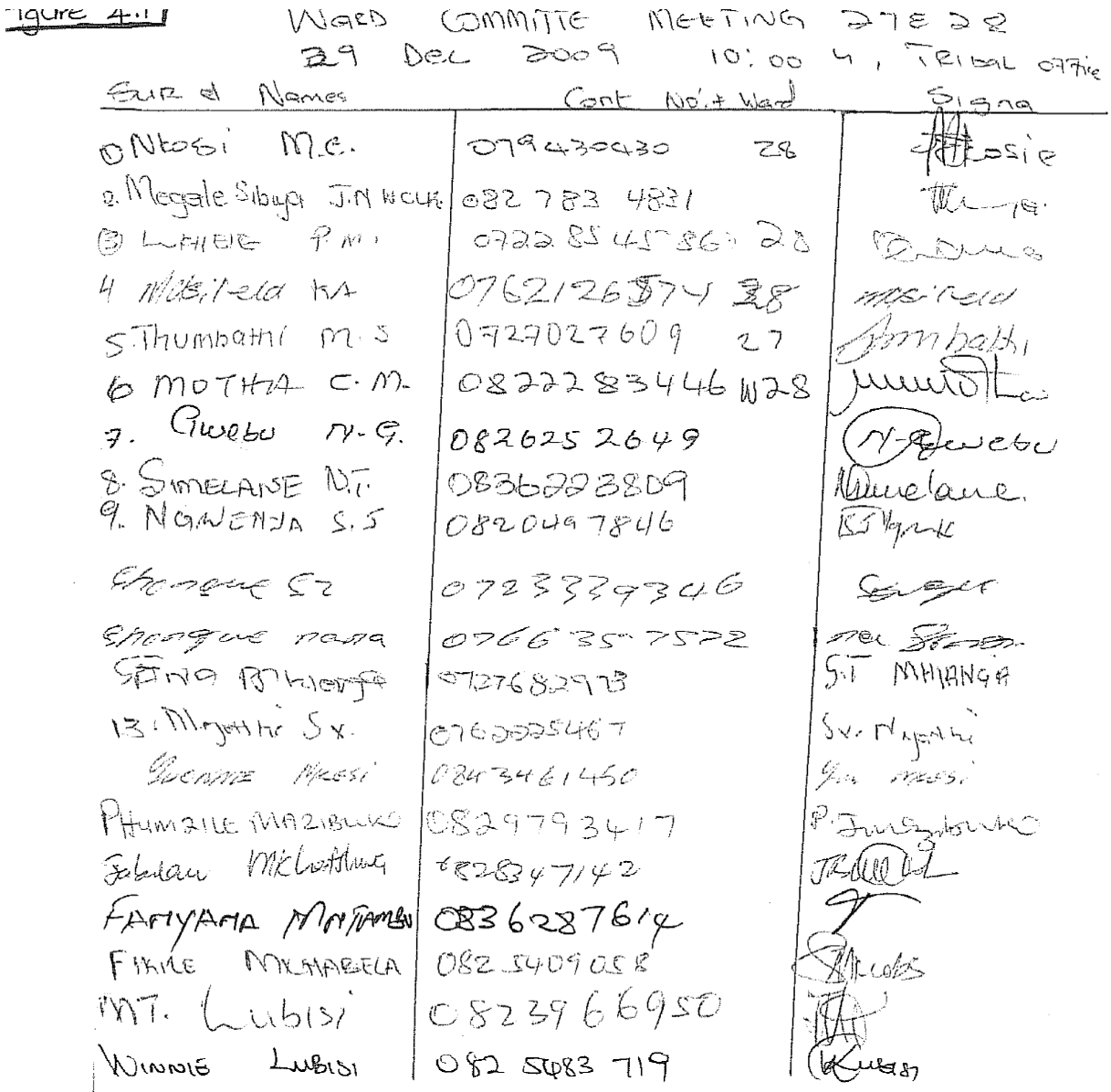
Rating scale: 1 = Good 2 = Satisfactory 3 = Fair
4 = Poor 5 = Uncertain

1		2		3		4		5	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND YOUR TIME

WARD COMMITTEE MEETING ATTENDANCE REGISTER

Figure 4.1



WARD COMMITTE MEETING 27 & 28
29 DEC 2009 10:00 4, TRIBAL OFFICE

Sur & Names	Cont No. + Ward	Signa
1 Ntosi M.C.	079430430 28	Ntosie
2. Megale Sibuya J.N WCLK	082 783 4831	[illegible]
3 LUHIELE P.M.	0722 85 45 86 28	[illegible]
4 Mosileld KA	0762126574 28	Mosileld
5. Thumbathi M.S	0727027609 27	Thumbathi
6 MOTHA C.M.	0822283446 W28	[illegible]
7. Gwebu N.G.	0826252649	N-Gwebu
8. SIMELANE N.T.	0836223809	Simelane
9. NGWENYA S.S	0820497846	[illegible]
Shongwe SZ	0723339346	[illegible]
Shongwe nana	0766357572	[illegible]
SITNA [illegible]	0727682973	S.T MHLANGA
13. Mnyathi Sx.	0762225467	Sx. Nyathi
[illegible] Mkesi	0843461450	[illegible]
PHUMZILE MAZIBUKO	0829793417	P. [illegible]
Sabulan Mkhatshwa	0828347142	[illegible]
FANYANA MNTAMBU	0836287614	[illegible]
FIKILE MKHABELA	0825409058	[illegible]
MT. Lubisi	0823966950	[illegible]
WINNIE LUBISI	082 5483 719	Lubisi