

**THE UTILISATION OF CONSTITUENCY DEVELOPMENT FUNDS
(CDFs) IN KABWATA: A PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATIVE
APPRAISAL**

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requirements for the degree of Master of Communication for Development.**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
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Declaration

It is my declaration that this report has not previously been submitted for this degree, neither in this nor any other university.

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Dedication

This report is dedicated to my late parents, Colonel Timothy Benjamin and Millar B. Malama, who passed away when I was quite young but would obviously have been proud of my achievements, none of which they ever lived to see. But being who He is, God permitted uncle and auntie Jane 'B' and George, together with uncle and auntie Peter and Marie to occupy the void left and ensure that me, my brother Kelvin and sister Mutinta were not consigned to oblivion. I dedicate all efforts exerted to produce this work to them. I am apologetic for my absence from home most of the time during my studies but grateful for their understanding. God bless them.

Abstract

The study was focused on investigating the participatory communication strategies that are used in the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds (CDFs) and the extent to which community members participate in CDF financed projects in Kabwata Constituency. Established in 1995, the funds were intended to fund micro-community development projects that were not only visibly beneficial, but also involved the active participation of ordinary members of communities.

Using a triangulated approach of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis, results from the study revealed that in the case of Kabwata Constituency, there exist no explicit communication strategies to create awareness on the utilisation of these funds. The result is that most residents are ignorant on CDF projects in the constituency. Consequently, this has led to very low level of participation in these projects. The low levels of participation exist at all levels of the project cycle, that is, identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Ironically, members of the constituency revealed an overwhelming desire not only for the need to regularly receive information on CDF, but also to actively participate in the funded projects. Apart from wanting to receive information from officials of sub-district structures (Ward Development Committee and Constituency Development Committee), most residents equally preferred being given this information by the Lusaka City Council (District Planning Unit) in addition to the media (television, radio, posters) and other interpersonal communication networks (such as friends, relatives, neighbours).

Just as the CDF was instituted in a top-down fashion that did not involve the active participation of ordinary Zambians, the trend has persisted in that guidelines have undergone several phases of revision without the input of ordinary members of constituencies. Undoubtedly, this has not engendered a culture of participation in CDF-financed projects because despite the current guidelines providing for the dissemination of information, the DPU and the sub-district structures have not adequately done so.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACC	Anti Corruption Commission
ADC	Area Development Committee
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ART	Anti-Retro Therapy
ARV	Anti-Retro Virus
CDC	Constituency Development Committee
CDF	Constituency Development Fund
DDCC	District Development Coordinating Committee
DHMT	District Health Management Team
DPU	District Planning Unit
HIV	Human Immune-deficiency Virus
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICOUR	Irrigation Company of Upper East Region
LCC	Lusaka City Council
LPTC	Lilayi Police Training College
MLGH	Ministry of Local Government and Housing
MMD	Movement for Multi-party Democracy
MP	Member of Parliament
NAM	Non-Aligned Movement
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIEO	New International Economic Order
NIPA	National Institute for Public Administration
NWICO	New World Information and Communication Order
PF	Patriotic Front
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SADC	Southern African Development Community
TIZ	Transparency International Zambia
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF	United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
UNIP	United National Independence Party
UPND	United Party for National Development
VCT	Voluntary Counselling and Testing
WDC	Ward Development Committee
ZR	Zambia Railways
ZDC	Zone Development Committee
ZEA	Zambia Evaluation Association
ZESCO	Zambia Electricity Supply Corporation
ZNBC	Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

Following the introduction of multi-party politics in Zambia in 1991 after the defeat of the United National Independence Party (UNIP) by the Movement for Multi-party Democracy (MMD), several policy changes were introduced in the administration of the country. There was a departure from the socialist-humanist approach in the governance of the country in which the state was heavily involved in the provision of such social services as education, health and transport, including subsidies in among other things, the agriculture sector.

In trying to appreciate the differences in the policies in the periods before and after 1991, it is important to acknowledge that they were informed by ideological dissimilarities between the MMD and UNIP governments. The latter espoused humanism and put the individual at the centre of all development and practiced African socialism in which the state was perceived to be more important than the individual. This is not to say capitalism was completely eliminated in the Second Republic. Private ownership of property and business was permitted, but it was subordinated, and in some cases frustrated to enhance the supremacy of the ruling party and its government.

In 1991, with the transition into a new political and economic era, the Zambian government committed itself irrevocably to “an open-market economy in which private initiative would be encouraged and rewarded” (Kelly, 2001:3). The MMD government, once in power, and in agreement with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, rapidly and vigorously implemented neo-liberal measures for economic reform. The result was that the ‘invisible’ hand of the market replaced the ‘visible’ hand of the government. The government disengaged from direct economic participation, separating itself from state ownership and facilitating the establishment of conditions that, according to the government of the day, would promote local and foreign (especially

private) participation in the economic development of the country. Insisting that the Zambian government should introduce programmes aimed at stabilising the economy and restructuring it to reduce the country's dependence on copper, the IMF proposed measures which included an end to price controls, devaluation of the kwacha, reduction in government expenditure, elimination of subsidies on food and fertiliser, and increased prices for farm produce (Kelly, 1991).

In addition, the government embarked on decentralising the administrative structures of governance which had hitherto been centralised. This was intended to transfer some responsibilities, authority, functions, as well as powers and appropriate resources to provincial, district and sub-district levels. This was premised on the idea that, once these functions were devolved, it would result in the effective and efficient delivery of services. Closely linked to this was the introduction of Constituency Development Fund (CDF). When introduced, the funds were intended, and still are, to cater for projects at the level of the constituency for the benefit of local communities. When first established in 1995, the funds amounted to K30 million. The figure was adjusted over time to K60 million in 2003 and later increased to K400 million in 2007. Calls for the further increments continue.

During the time of this study (2009), the incumbent Republican Vice-President, George Kunda, announced during a public rally at Kaunda Square Gardens in Serenje on Friday, May 22 that "the government has increased the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) from K400 million to K600 in its quest to foster development" (Katilungu, 2009:2). The pronouncement was made without clarifying what role, if any, that the intended beneficiaries (in this case the Zambian citizenry) had played in arriving at the decision. Neither was an explication advanced regarding the criteria applied in increasing the amount by the said margin. As a result, no means are available of confidently asserting that the decision was participatory, or indeed ascertaining the extent thereof.

Though Members of Parliament have on several occasions complained of how inadequate these funds are, there is a general feeling that the funds are not being effectively and efficiently used and accounted for. Because by the very fact that a constituency is

overseen by a Member of Parliament, a politically inclined individual, the funds have in some cases not been free from abuse, or from being disbursed on the basis political inclinations (GRZ, 2008; Kachali, 2007; Shonga, 2000). Of concern, however, is that no formal and comprehensive research has ever been conducted on the use of these funds from a participatory communicative perspective in relation to the manner in which they are used. What seem to exist are merely press reports, including parliamentary debate speeches of Members of Parliament on the use of the funds. Not even the Ministry of Local Government and Housing (MLGH), despite being responsible for disbursing the funds to the constituencies, has documented in very explicit terms how the funds are managed, in spite of being aware of cases of abuse of the funds (GRZ, 2008). The role that these funds can play in bringing about development should not, and must not, be ignored. Notwithstanding their perceived insufficiency, the CDF can, if properly used with the active involvement of community members, play a critical role in bringing about development in the constituencies.

This report is an attempt to provide insights into how CDFs are being utilised in Kabwata Constituency. The constituency is in the capital city, Lusaka, which in total consists of seven constituencies. Despite the many perspectives that abound concerning the manner in which CDF is being put to use, the report has as its prime focus a preoccupation on the communicative and participatory aspects governing the manner in which the funds are being employed by the government of the Republic of Zambia through the Lusaka City Council and the sub-district structures. These sub-district structures comprise the Constituency Development Committee (CDC) and the Ward Development Committees (WDCs) although the latter is further delineated into zones. Suffice it to say, however, that zones, although important, were not considered in the study.

Inevitably, the discussion of the utilisation of the CDF in Kabwata Constituency cannot proceed without providing a comprehensive context in which this occurs. As such, a general profile and brief background to the project attachment and the constituency will be provided in order to give an adequate milieu so as to afford the reader an unambiguous understanding of the report. This chapter, therefore, begins with some

general information about Zambia.

1.1 Zambia: General Overview

It cannot be taken for granted that everyone is well acquainted with the profile of Zambia. For this reason, a contextual background for those not sufficiently knowledgeable will be given. Specifically, the profile, though concise, will consider the brief history of the country, its geographical features, the population and its economy. In addition, it will offer information on the political, religious, linguistic and literacy status of the country.

1.1.1 Brief History

Historians such as Langworthy (1972) and Roberts (1976) generally argue that the country today known as Zambia has passed through three distinct historical phases. These are the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial periods.

1.1.1.1 Pre-Colonial Period

According to Roberts (1976), the area of modern Zambia was inhabited by Khoisan hunter-gatherers until around AD 300, when technologically-advanced migrating tribes began to displace and, in some cases, absorb them. In the 12th Century AD, major waves of Bantu-speaking migrants arrived during the Bantu migrations. Among them, the Tonga speaking people were the first to settle in Zambia and are believed to have come from the east (Langworthy, 1972). The Nkoya arrived later, coming from the Luba-Lunda kingdoms located in the southern parts of modern day Democratic Republic of Congo and northern Angola, followed by a much larger influx, especially between the late 17th and early 19th centuries. In the early 18th Century, the Nsokolo people settled in the Mbala district of Northern Province while during the 19th, the Ngoni peoples arrived from the south. By the late 19th century, most of the various peoples of Zambia were established in the areas they currently occupy.

1.1.1.2 Colonial Period

The territory today called Zambia became a colony of Britain in 1890 following the interest aroused by the Scottish missionary and explorer, David Livingstone's book *Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa*, an account of his expedition across Africa between 1853 and 1856 (Roberts, 1976). Through his British South African Company (BSAC), Cecil Rhodes was able to gain control of Zambia by persuading the British government to grant him a charter which allowed him to use the authority of the government in staking out claims to African territory. Thus the territory was ruled by the BSAC until 1924 when power was handed over to the British government which in turn ruled the country, then called Northern Rhodesia, until its attainment of independence in 1964.

1.1.1.3 Post-Colonial Period

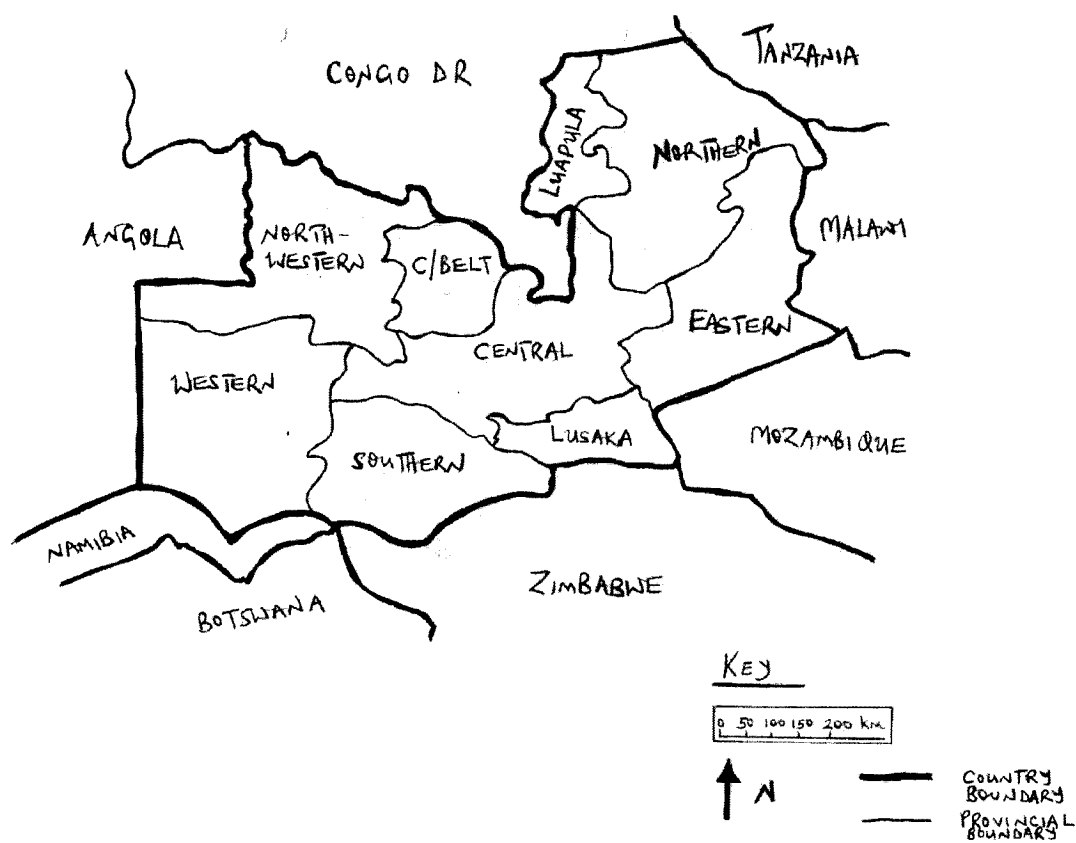
Despite frantic attempts by the colonial government to perpetuate their colonisation of Northern Rhodesia, there was a realisation that these efforts were increasingly becoming futile and unsustainable. For example, in the 1962 elections, UNIP and the African National Congress (ANC) won two-thirds of the votes while in 1964, in another poll based on universal adult suffrage, the former won a decisive majority with Kenneth Kaunda becoming prime minister in an all-UNIP government, assuming full control of internal affairs, except for defence (Roberts, 1976). As a result, full independence was arranged for October of 1964. This marked the end of colonialism and this was symbolised by the change of the country's name from Northern Rhodesia to Zambia.

1.1.2 Geography

Zambia is located in Africa south of the Sahara desert and is landlocked. It covers an area of approximately 752,614 square kilometres (CIA, 2006) and shares borders with eight countries, namely, Malawi and Mozambique to the east; Zimbabwe and Botswana to the south; Namibia and Angola to the west and the Democratic Republic of Congo (formerly Zaire) with Tanzania to the north.

The country, which is the 39th-largest in the world after Chile, has a tropical climate moderated by its elevated location and consists mostly of high plateau, with some hills and mountains dissected by river valleys (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zambia> - visited on September 15, 2008). The country is drained by two major river basins: the Zambezi basin in the south, covering about three-quarters of the country; and the Congo basin in the north, covering about one-quarter of the country. A very small area in the north-west forms part of the internal drainage basin of Lake Rukwa in Tanzania.

Figure 1: Map of Zambia showing the country’s provinces and boundaries



Source: <http://www.mapsofworld.com/zambia/zambia-political-map.html>

The Zambezi river basin has a number of rivers, either wholly or partially flowing through Zambia. The major ones include the Kabompo, Lungwebungu, Kafue, Luangwa, and the Zambezi itself, which flows through the country in the west, forming a demarcation southwards to provide a border with Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe and

Mozambique. Its source is in Zambia despite it diverting into Angola with a number of its tributaries arising in Angola's central highlands. The edge of the Cuando River floodplain (not its main channel) forms Zambia's south-western border, and via the Chobe River, the river contributes very little water to the Zambezi because most is lost by evaporation.

Generally, the west of Zambia can be described as being very flat with broad plains, the most notable being the Barotse flood plain on the Zambezi, which as a result of the rain season beginning in October/November, floods from December to about June the following year. The flooding dominates the natural environment and the lives, society and culture of the inhabitants and those of other smaller, floodplains throughout the country.

The eastern part of Zambia shows greater diversity. It is generally a plateau which extends between the Zambezi and Lake Tanganyika valleys and so rises from about 900 m (3000 ft) in the south to 1200 m (4000 ft) in the centre, reaching 1800 m (6000 ft) in the north near Mbala. In the east, the Luangwa Valley splits the plateau in a curve north-east to south-west, extended west into the heart of the plateau by the deep valley of the Lunsemfwa River (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zambia> - visited on September 15, 2008). Hills and mountains are found by the side of some sections of the valley, mainly in its north-east the Nyika Plateau (2200 m) on the border with Malawi, which extend into Zambia as the Mafinga Hills, containing the country's highest point, Kongera, which is actually 2187m. The Muchinga Mountains, the watershed between the Zambezi and Congo drainage basins, run parallel to the deep valley of the Luangwa River and form a sharp backdrop to its northern edge, although they are almost everywhere below 1700m. Their culminating peak Mumpu is at the western end and at 1892m is the highest point in Zambia away from the eastern border region. The border of the Congo Pedicle was drawn around this mountain.

The southernmost headstream of the Congo River rises in Zambia and flows through the north firstly as the Chambeshi and then, after the Bangweulu Swamps as the Luapula, which forms part of the border with the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The Luapula flows south then west before it turns north until it enters Lake Mweru. The lake's other major tributary is the Kalungwishi River, which flows into it from the east. The Luvua

River drains Lake Mweru, flowing out of the northern end to the Lualaba River (Upper Congo River). Lake Tanganyika is the other major hydrographic feature that belongs to the Congo basin. Its south-eastern end receives water from the Kalambo River, which forms part of Zambia's border with Tanzania. This river has Africa's second highest uninterrupted waterfall, the Kalambo Falls.

1.1.3 Population

Figure 2: Population distribution of Zambia by province

Province	1990			2000		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Central	385,230	386,588	771,818	489,436	517,330	1,006,766
Copperbelt	739,519	718,940	1,458,459	824,912	832,734	1,657,646
Eastern	492,909	511,784	1,004,693	642,433	658,540	1,300,973
Luapula	278,222	286,271	564,493	388,189	396,424	784,613
Lusaka	498,704	492,522	991,226	712,393	720,008	1,432,401
Northern	456,865	469,000	925,865	696,626	710,462	1,407,088
N/Western	212,826	225,390	438,216	301,596	309,379	610,975
Southern	474,488	491,103	965,591	639,356	663,356	1,302,660
Western	302,813	335,943	638,756	375,950	406,559	783,509
Total	3,841,576	3,917,541	7,759,117	5,070,891	5,214,740	10,285,631

Source: 2000 Census of Population and Housing (CSO)

The population count from the 2000 Census of Population and Housing for Zambia put the country’s total population at 10,285,631 as at October 25, 2000. Of this figure, 5,070,891 were males while 5,214,740 were females (GRZ, 2003). The Copperbelt Province has the largest population followed by Lusaka, Eastern, Northern and Southern provinces. North-Western province has the smallest population followed by Western and Luapula Provinces. The figure, however, rose to 10.3 million in 2001, representing a growth rate of 3.5 per cent per annum. Further, the estimated population below poverty

line is 86 per cent and an unemployment rate of 50 per cent exists in the country. The population in each of the provinces greatly differs in terms of numbers and population density.

In 2005, the projected population figure was 11,441,461, representing a percentage increase of about 15.7 per cent while the World Bank lists Zambia's population as being 11.5 million with over eighty per cent being under the age of 34 and more than 65 per cent living in rural areas (Banda, 2006). There is diversity in the population from an ethnic point of view. Banda (2006) further states that the various ethnic groups that make up the country include African (99.54 per cent), Asian (0.13 per cent), European (0.07 per cent), American (0.01 per cent) and other (0.26 per cent) and that the most widely spoken languages are Bemba (spoken by 34.2 per cent), Nyanja (17.4 per cent) and Tonga (10.6 per cent). English is the official language, but it is spoken by only about 1.7 per cent of the population.

1.1.4 Economy

Zambia's economy, as earlier stated, is dominated by copper exports, accounting for more than 70 per cent of its export earnings. This has been the case since the country attained independence from Britain in 1964. The inevitable consequence of this has been that, as a result of being dependent on international markets, the country has experienced economic recessions whenever there has been a drop in the prices of the commodity on the international market. There have been plans, in the recent past, however, to diversify the economic base of the country, hence the emphasis on the agricultural sector.

This sector (agriculture) accounts for about 18 to 20 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and is a source of livelihood for more than 50 per cent of the population. It absorbs more than 60 per cent of the total workforce in Zambia. Most of these, except for commercial farmers, are women and children. From 1991 when the MMD took over power from the humanist UNIP government of Kenneth Kaunda, neoliberal capitalist policies are what have been espoused and are aimed at deregulating interference in the market from the government.

1.1.5 Political/Administrative Context

Zambia is divided into nine provinces and 72 districts. Clearly, this is for administrative purposes. The nine provinces are Central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka, Northern, North-Western, Southern and Western. These provinces are superintended by political leaders who are appointed by the Republican President as Provincial Ministers.

Politically, Zambia has been a multiparty democratic state since 1991 when UNIP was voted out of office and by the MMD. Being in power since that year, the MMD, initially under President FTJ Chiluba, then late President Levy Mwanawasa was at the time of the study being led by Rupiah Bwezani Banda who won the 2008 presidential by-elections in a tightly contested poll following the death of his predecessor.

1.1.6 Religions

The majority of Zambians are Catholics and Protestant Christians who make up 59 per cent of the population. The country was declared a Christian nation by former President Frederick Chiluba during his term of office which ran from 1991 to 2001. However, this resulted in some controversy as some sections of society considered the move undemocratic and argued that Zambians were not consulted before the decision was made. Some argued that the President was motivated by the desire to seek political support and sympathy from the country's Christian community. The remaining religions, nevertheless, include evangelicals, traditional animist, African indigenous, Hindu and Islam.

1.1.7 Linguistic Profile

The official language of Zambia is English and it is the one that is used to conduct official government business. At the same time, it is the medium of instruction permissible in both private and government-owned schools throughout the country. Commonly-spoken indigenous languages number over seventy and include: Lamba, Kaonde, Tumbuka, Ngoni, Ila, Senga, Chewa, Bemba, Nsenga Chinyanja, Lunda, Tonga,

Kaonde, Lozi, Nkoya, and Luvale. It should be pointed out that these estimates of the total number of languages spoken in Zambia vary from 43 to 70, depending on whether some dialects are counted as languages in their own right (AMDI, 2006). The most widely spoken languages are Bemba (spoken by 34.2%), Nyanja (17.4%) and Tonga (10.6%) (CSO, 2002). Although English is the official language, it is spoken by only 1.7% of the population (CSO, 2002). Vernacular languages are still widely spoken.

The process of urbanisation has had a dramatic effect on some of the indigenous languages, including the assimilation of words from other indigenous languages and English. Urban dwellers sometimes differentiate between urban and rural dialects of the same language by prefixing the rural languages with ‘deep’. In the capital city Lusaka, Nyanja has over the years become the lingua franca while the same is true for Bemba in towns on the Copperbelt Province.

1.1.8 Literacy

Zambia’s literacy rate has risen from 68 per cent in 2004 to 80.6 per cent (World Bank, 2004). In 2002, in urban populations, the literacy rate was 84.65 per cent, whereas in rural populations, it stood at 61.75 per cent (CSO, 2003). In 2000, 70 per cent of the population lived below the poverty line (Cabinet Office, 2000) and in 2005 the figure was little changed, at 67 per cent (CSO, 2004). The country GDP per capita in 2003 was US\$800 (CIA, 2006).

1.2 Kabwata Constituency: An Overview

1.2.1 Location

Kabwata Constituency is located to the south within the capital, Lusaka, which was named after headman Lusaaka of the Soli people. The boundaries of the constituency are understood better through the demarcations created by certain key roads. These are Mosi oa Tunya Road, Burma Road, Independence Avenue and the Kamwala railway line. In addition, it must also be pointed out that the constituency does not exist in isolation. On

the contrary, it shares boundaries with Chawama, Chilanga and Lusaka Central constituencies.

For administrative purposes, the constituency is further subdivided into five wards, which are smaller units each with an elected councillor who represents his or her political party. These wards, it must be noted from the outset, are also further sub-divided into smaller units called zones. In the case of Kabwata Constituency, all the five councillors are members of the opposition Patriotic Front (PF) (see their names in Appendix 6).

1.2.2 Brief History

Being located in the capital city, the history of Kabwata is inextricably linked to that of Lusaka. It is important to note that the settlement of Lusaka district by Europeans started about 1906 when the Northern Copper Company, having failed to find minerals in the area, sold off huge tracts of land to former railway men, transport drivers and others. By 1935, Lusaka was established as a capital city of Northern Rhodesia after being chosen from a shortlist of nine towns that included Nkana, Kitwe, Ndola, Luanshya, Bwana Mkubwa, Kashitu, Broken Hill and Chilanga.

Streetwise (2003) states that Lusaka was planned for a population of 20,000 white Europeans. In 1935, when Lusaka was established as a capital city, the African population was housed in small houses (huts) at Old Kabwata which is now Kabwata Cultural Village and Old Kamwala. Up until the immediate post-First World War years, the dominant notion was that the dwellings were only temporary for the indigenous Africans and the colonial regime provided housing on the mistaken assumption that the majority would be men without families. However, the realisation that, for most, the move would be permanent and involved whole families, led planning authorities to establish African housing areas such as Old Chilenje in 1945, New Chilenje in 1950 and Matero in 1951 (Streetwise, 2003). Nevertheless, the latter is a constituency on its own and is outside the scope of this study.

After independence, colonial restrictions on the movement of people (Africans) from rural areas to urban areas were removed. The result was a great increase in immigrants to the city in the post-independence era. The Town Council's response was to build a number of low cost houses mainly between Chilenje, Kabwata and also Chelstone. Other housing schemes were self-help housing schemes such as Chibolya and New Kaunda Square, and site and service schemes, which included Marapodi, Mandevu, Mtendere, Kaunda Square and Chunga.

In 1970, the boundary of the city was extended to include Kabulonga and Twin Palm, Roma and Chelstone, which developed as townships in their own right with management boards. Barlaston Park, Burckley's, Foxdale, Chamba Valley and Makeni were subdivided to provide plots for small holding size intended to allow residents engage in small-scale farming. This increased the city from 36 to 139 square kilometres (Streetwise, 2003). However, the official schemes could only satisfy a fraction of the housing demand leading to an enormous growth of squatter settlements. Those, mostly lying beyond the 1970 city boundary, expanded more rapidly than the formal housing areas of the city. The 1970 extension of the city boundary placed responsibility for them squarely on the city council.

In 1972, a new government policy towards squatter settlements presented in the Second National Development Plan was published. It stated that squatter settlements had to be upgraded instead of being demolished. Thus, the Lusaka City Council (LCC) made plans and estimated the cost for the provision of piped water, roads, pit latrines, street lighting and refuse removal facilities in squatter areas. The economy of Zambia, however, was in the crisis with falling copper prices, and the government turned to the World Bank for a loan. Half of the project was financed through the loan and the government of the Republic of Zambia financed the other half with minor contributions from UNICEF and the American Friends' Service Committee (Carole et al, 1981:9). The project implementation commenced in 1974 and it was set up as a department of the LCC, Housing Project Unit. The Project comprised two main components: site and service schemes and squatter upgrading. The site and service schemes included the preparation of 4,400 residential plots and service for self-help construction of houses. The squatter

upgrading included the servicing of 17,000 existing housing (Carole et al, 1981:10) The major squatter settlements that were upgraded this time include George, Chawama, Chainda, Garden and Kalingalinga.

Clearly, it can be observed from the above that Kabwata Constituency comprises areas that were to a large extent planned such as Kabwata, Libala, Chilenje and Kamwala. This, however, was after they had already developed some unplanned settlements. It should also be mentioned that Kamulanga Ward in which Jack Compound is situated is an unplanned settlement with grave challenges regarding the provision of water, sanitation, road and electricity services. This is because most residents either settled in the area as labourers on settler farms or invited their friends and relatives from rural areas to settle there after the departure of the Europeans following the country's attainment of independence in 1964. This rural-urban migration, coupled with an increase in population and further compounded by lack of (or poor) planning by the council, led to poor housing infrastructure in some parts of the constituency.

1.2.3 Ward Profiles and Boundaries

1.2.3.1 Chilenje Ward 8

Like Kabwata, Chilenje Ward is situated in the older parts of Lusaka. The ward has several old buildings such as Chisengalumbwe Basic School, the police station, the council sub-centre and the clinic which has undergone several rehabilitation works in the past. Some economic activities through trading by residents are conducted at the Chilenje market, which is one of oldest in Lusaka but is now surrounded by new shops and structures. The ward has several shopping centres such as Shoprite.

According to Mumba (2000), the population of the ward, which approximately consists of 80,000 people, comprises the working class, the retired, retrenched, informally employed and the unemployed. The residential area is continuously extending southwards as many people are constructing new houses. The Catholic Church, Ebenezer Church, the Reformed Church and the Seventh Day Adventist Church are among the

oldest and most active in the ward. This, nevertheless, is not to suggest that other denominations are not active.

The ward starts from the junction of Burma and Sandulula roads. The boundary runs along Burma Road to its junction with Mosi-oa-Tunya Road. It follows Mosi-oa-Tunya Road in the south easterly direction up to its end, continuing in the same direction in a straight line up to its intersection with the city boundary.

It runs from the western direction to the north-east corner beacon of lot 1019/M. In the southern boundary of this lot, it further runs to the south-east corner beacon of the same lot while in the western direction, it runs up to the south-west corner beacon of the same lot. In the northern direction, the ward boundary runs to the north-west corner beacon of the same lot. It continues generally in a northerly direction along Kasama Road to where it meets with Chilimbulu Road, continuing in the same direction along Sandulula Road to its junction with Burma Road – the point of starting.

1.2.3.2 Libala Ward 7

The ward, with an approximate population of Libala 60,000 persons, is relatively new as its residential houses were built around the period of independence by the council (Mumba, 2000). It has a market, shopping centres, a secondary school and basic schools. Civil servants, other working class people, the retired, retrenched and the unemployed all live in Libala Ward. The ward is extending on its south and west boundaries with new residential areas. There have been several churches such Seventh Day Adventist, Baptist, Anglican and many new churches such as the Potter's House.

Starting from the junction of Burma and Nationalist roads, the boundary runs along the former in a south-easterly direction to its junction with Sandulula Road. Along Sandulula and Kasama roads, in a generally southerly direction, it runs to the north-western corner beacon of lot 1019/M on the city boundary. It further runs in a westerly direction along the city boundary to beacon C382. North-eastwards, it runs in straight line over a distance of about 2km to a point just outside the water works. The boundary further runs in a

straight line to its intersection with a protected line from Yotam Muleya Road. Along this protected line in a north-easterly direction, it runs to its intersection with Chilimbulu Road to its junction with Nationalist Road. Along Nationalist Road in a north-easterly direction, it further runs to its junction with Burma Road – the point of starting.

1.2.3.3 Kabwata Ward 6

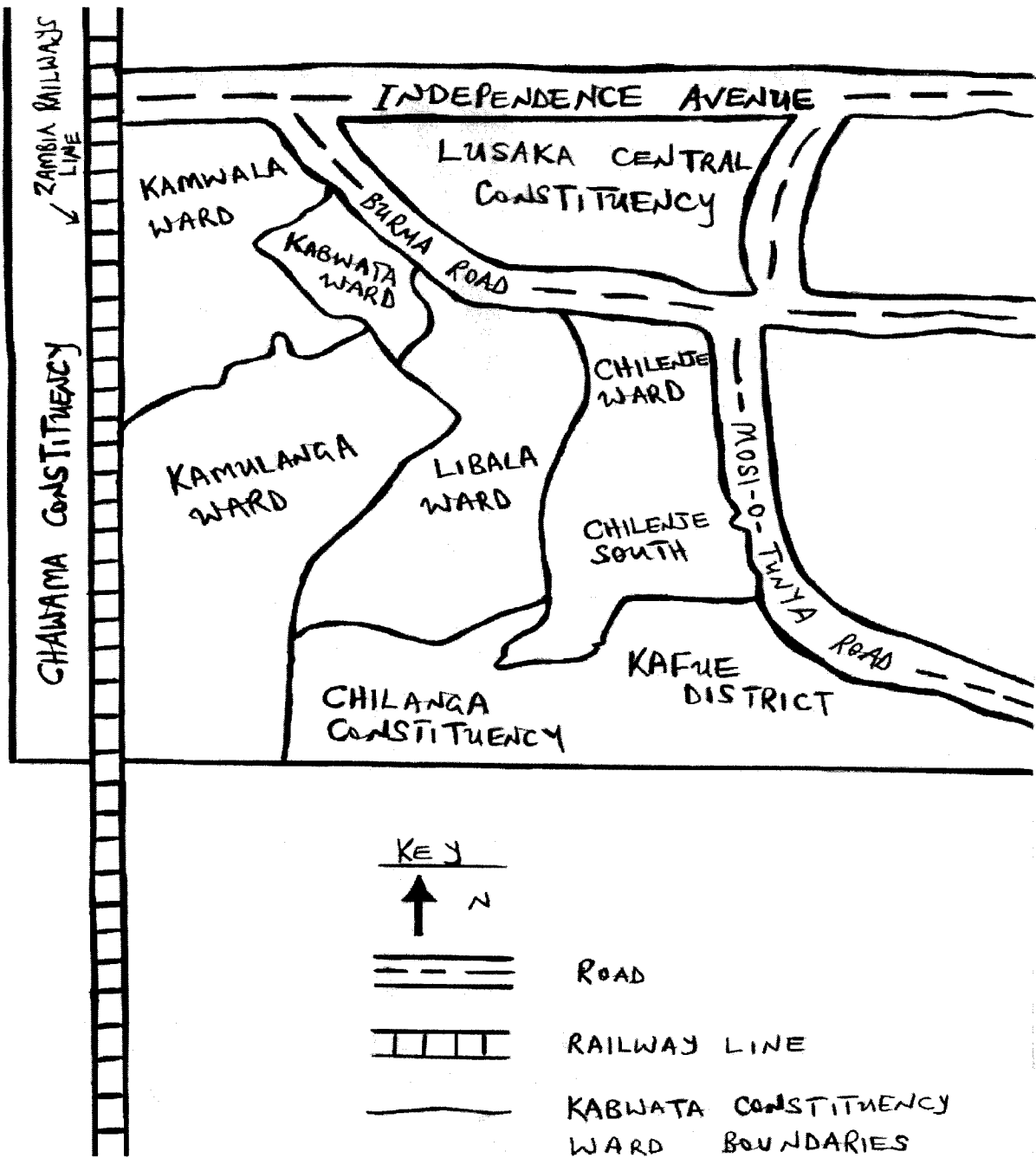
Kabwata Ward is situated in the older part of the city where the cultural village is situated. It is characterised by both old and new structures. The older part of the ward still consists of old traditional grass-thatched huts that form the Kabwata Cultural Village. The inhabitants of the Cultural Village, which also acts as a tourist attraction, are craftsmen from different parts of the country who manufacture various types of crafts.

Another older part of this ward is the old market which has now been surrounded by new structures such as the police station, the council offices, ZESCO offices and the Kabwata Barclays Bank branch. All these buildings in the old part of the ward are surrounded by relatively new residential buildings that were built soon after independence. The new structures comprise high rise flats built by the National Housing Authority and a new shopping centre, and the new residential houses in the Kabwata Site and Service. The Kabwata Site and Service is unplanned, remains without proper roads and a drainage system such that during the rainy season, pools of water surrounding houses are not an unusual occurrence. The population of Kabwata Ward is estimated at 46,000 and is of a mixed character (Mumba, 2000). Civil servants, other working class people, the retired, retrenched and the unemployed all live here. Several places of worship are available in the ward: United Church of Zambia, Catholic, Presbyterian, Anglican, Seventh Day Adventist, Baptist, and many other new churches.

Starting from the junction of Burma and Chibwa roads, the boundary of the ward follows Burma Road in a south-easterly direction to its junction with Nationalist Road. It runs in a south-westerly direction along the Nationalist Road to its junction with Chilimbulu Road, further running in a south-easterly direction along Chilimbulu Road to its junction with Yotam Muleya Road and the boundary continues in the same direction to a point

70m after the Zambia Electricity Supply Corporation (ZESCO) power line. In a north-westerly direction, it runs along the boundary of this same ward and the boundary with Kamwala Ward 5 to its junction with Chibwa Road. In a north-easterly direction along Chibwa Road, it runs to its junction with Burma Road – the point of starting.

Figure 3: Map of Kabwata Constituency ward boundaries



Source: Lusaka City Council

1.2.3.4 Kamwala Ward 5

This is the ward that has the most economic activity in Kabwata Constituency. This is because of two major factors. The first is that the Asian community that lives in this ward has heavily invested in trading in the Kamwala business area. In addition, its proximity to Lusaka District's central business area enables individuals from various parts of the city to have access to Kamwala, especially that goods sold here are generally considered to be relatively cheaper. In addition to members of the Asian community residing in the ward, civil servants, private and informal sector workers and the retired also live in Kamwala. A population estimate of the ward put the figure at about 55,000 persons and has the largest Moslem and Hindu community in the constituency (Mumba, 2000).

From the junction of Independence Avenue and the Zambia Railways (ZR) line, the ward boundary proceeds along the Independence Avenue in a north-easterly direction to its junction with Burma Road. In the southerly and then south-easterly direction along Burma Road, it runs to its junction with Chibya Road. Further, it runs in a south-easterly direction to a point where it meets an unnamed road. The boundary follows this unnamed road in a south-westerly direction to its junction with the ZR line near the road that separates Chawama and John Howard compounds. Finally, it proceeds along the railway line in a north-westerly direction to its junction with the Independence Avenue – the point of starting.

1.2.3.5 Kamulanga Ward 9

Kamulanga Ward is quite large and shares its borders with John Howard and Chawama compounds. The ward appears to be the most impoverished among the five. There is a total population of about 60,000 people with varied backgrounds, those still working, retired, and those that are unemployed (Mumba, 2000). The latter are in the majority. Kamulanga ward is a relatively new settlement and, as already stated, is almost entirely unplanned

Starting from the junction of an unnamed road and the ZR line near the road that

separates Chawama and John Howard compounds, the ward boundary proceeds along this unnamed road to a point where it meets the southern boundary of Libala Ward 7. Along this same ward boundary in a south-easterly direction to a point just south-west of the water works. The boundary runs in a straight line in the south-westerly beacon to beacon C382. Southwards along the city of Lusaka boundary of Farm 405a to beacon B92 on the ZR line reserve. Northwards along the railway line passing through the west of Lilayi Police Training College (LPTC) to its junction with an unnamed road near the road that separates Chawama and John Howard compounds.

1.3 Background of the Constituency Development Fund (CDF)

1.3.1 Introduction and Background to CDF

Part of what necessitated this work was a clearly inadequate availability of synthesised documentary material on the usage and impact of CDF in improving the livelihoods of people in communities. Most of the literature on the subject exists through press reports, parliamentary debate speeches and council documents on how the funds are being utilised in various constituencies. These, however, are in most cases not easily accessed by the majority of people who reside in these areas. This work was motivated by the desire to collate the relevant, but disjointed portions of data, and coalesce it into a single assemblage.

Addressing the nation during the opening of the Fourth Session of the Seventh National Assembly on January 13, 1995, then Republican President, Frederick Chiluba, announced in the National Assembly that:

Beginning this year, the government is devising a new budget format that will provide constituency grants that will fund local generated project ideas. I want each constituency to target a significant portion of these funds at youth development projects, projects mooted and managed by the youth themselves (GRZ, 1995:16).

This announcement was followed by another two weeks later, on January 27, 1995, by then Minister of Finance, Ronald Penza, who proclaimed in Parliament that:

Following the issues raised during the 1994 budget debate, we share

the desire of Honourable Members of Parliament to promote greater participation of local communities in the development process. Therefore, government has allocated K4.5 billion to a District Development Fund under the Ministry of Local Government and Housing. It will be used at the constituency level to finance projects which are initiated by the community (GRZ, 1995:12).

In the same year, the government, through Cabinet Circular Number 10, created sub-district structures at constituency and ward levels in line with the government's decentralisation policy. These were the Constituency Development Committees and the Ward Development Committees. The latter are, in some cases, also referred to as Resident Development Committees (RDCs) or Area Development Committees (ADCs). Subsequently, the creation of the Constituency Development Fund was approved by Parliament in the same year with the major objective of providing finance towards funding micro-community poverty reduction projects at community level. To qualify for funding, the projects to be funded under the CDF were required to be not only developmental in nature, but visibly beneficial to the various stakeholders in the constituencies. According to ZEA (2007), the beneficiaries are supposed to include clubs, associations and societies registered with the local council within their constituency.

The pronouncements made by the then President, together with his finance minister are revealing. First, it is important to observe that the two did not in any way give any indication that they consulted the Zambian people in establishing the CDF. Apart from the President saying "the government is devising a new budget format that will provide constituency grants" and his finance minister affirming that "government has allocated K4.5 billion ...under the Ministry of Local Government and Housing", it is difficult to decipher whether the government actually consulted the Zambian people regarding the desirability of the CDF. In addition, it is difficult to appreciate the criteria, if any, that were used to arrive at the figure of K4.5 billion and whether ordinary citizens made a contribution to arrive at this decision.

It may be argued that the intention of establishing the CDF was in order to encourage communities to have locally initiated projects funded and also encourage locals to participate in community-driven projects. Noble though this idea may be, it is equally

important to draw attention to the fact that the people, for whom project funds are intended, must not be overlooked at all decision-making levels. Mefalopulos and Kamlongera (2004) contend that despite noble intentions, some development initiatives and projects can fracture and ruin communities. They point to the need for the involvement of all stakeholders in the identification of needs, opportunities, problems and solutions for the development of the community. This view, endorsed by World Bank (2000; 2004), embraces the view that various communities have over the years evolved unique means of solving their longstanding problems requiring collective action.

As such, in the absence of clearly laid out procedures on how the CDFs were to be utilised at the time, it was not known what role community members would play in CDF-funded projects. In addition, there was an ambiguity in the initial years regarding the type of projects the CDF would finance as it was not clearly explained what type of ventures would be financed by CDF. For this reason, it may be argued that, to large extent, the establishment of CDF was neither participatory as it did not involve the engagement of ordinary Zambians nor did it come about as a result of a civil society-driven process. Rather, it was the government that unilaterally made the decision and expected the people to adopt it.

It should also be emphasised that the establishment of CDF resulted in funding problems in other government departments such as the Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare. Dr Kabunda Kayongo, then minister of this arm of government, admitted at the time CDF was put in place that “a number of institutions which were the focus of the ministry have lapsed into oblivion such as the Social Safety Net Council which was a mechanism to channel grants to umbrella NGOs to mitigate the suffering of vulnerable sections of society” (GRZ, 1995:1449). He further went on to argue that the advent of CDF in the Ministry of Local Government and Housing entailed the diversion of substantial amounts of community development funds from his ministry to the constituencies. Clearly, it can be observed that at the time the CDF was put in place, the government was simultaneously in the process of transiting from a socialist to a democratic dispensation and thereby initiating and implementing a plethora of other neoliberal programmes. In relation to CDF, this resulted in vagueness and ambiguity

regarding how the funds were to be put to use and this was compounded by the fact that, though the funds became available, no precise guidelines existed on their management. Moreover, the roles, if any, of the MPs, CDC or WDC were not explicitly laid out. Inevitably, the result was that Members of Parliament (MPs) began abusing these funds for personal, and in most cases, political expedience (Shonga, 2000; GRZ, 2008).

As already mentioned, important to take note of is the fact that the *Zambian constituency structure* consists of wards. An MP represents a constituency whereas a ward is represented by a councillor. By universal suffrage, these are elected into office to serve for five-year terms, usually in highly contested and competitive elections. If an incumbent occupant of the office dies during his or her tenure, a by-election is conducted to fill the vacancy. Normally, MPs and councillors are affiliated and active registered members of political parties with membership. This, yet, is not to suggest in any minute way that all holders of these positions belong a political party. Some, though admittedly few, opt to be independents. In some cases, besides, other political parties like the Patriotic Front (PF) do not consider membership cards as being relevant.

During the Second Republic, the development structures below the constituency were the Ward Development and Village Development committees to correspond with urban and rural areas, respectively. Despite being in existence even after independence, these were formally established under the Village Development and Registration Act of 1979 (Chikulo, 2009). In spite of this institutional framework, these committees were in essence more political than developmental in nature.

The establishment of the Constituency Development Fund may also be understood in the context of the evolution of local governance reforms in Zambia in that since the attainment of from Britain in 1964, a commitment to decentralisation and popular participation has been an important component of local governance reform strategies. Chikulo (2009) explains that there have been four phases in this regard. The Local Government Act (No.30) of 1965 was put in place to establish political control and transform the inherited provincial and district government structures inherited from the colonial government into cohesive, dynamic organisations of local development

management, which could facilitate sustainable socio-economic development.

Phase two of the reforms lasted between 1971 and 1979 and involved efforts by the government to create a network of grassroots participatory structures between the local authorities and the sub-district level in order to facilitate public participation. The abolition of Native Authorities by the UNIP government had created an institutional gap between the local authorities and the sub-district level. In order to close this gap village productivity committees, ward councils and ward development committees were established under the Village Registration and Development Act (No. 30) of 1971 (Chikulo, 2009). This made the village the primary focus of development at district level.

Under the provisions of the Act, a village productivity committee (VPC) was established in each village, sitting under the chairmanship of the village headman. The VPC was responsible for considering the administrative and development needs of the community and sending representatives to the Ward Development Committees (WDCs). A WDC was established in every local government ward – a ward being an area within a local authority from which a councillor is elected under the provisions of the 1965 Local Government Act. The functions of WDCs were to consider development needs, get ideas from VPCs, and pass these on to the local authority. This network of committees was supposed to provide the basis for decentralised local governance.

The role that the media has played has been such that press reports in the print media have provided insights and information into how the funds are being utilised. For example, Miti (2008) explains that a Member of Parliament, Todd Chilembo, said the Constituency Development Fund should not be used to finance ‘invisible’ projects. He appealed to the government to increase the funding of a bridge in his constituency. In an interview, Chilembo, who at the time of the study was also tourism deputy minister, said the K200 million CDF that the constituency had received would supplement the projects that the people had initiated. This raises two issues. One is that the funds can be used for community projects while the other is that CDFs, in the absence of vigilant monitoring and mechanisms for effective accountability, may become susceptible and prone to abuse.

Another factor related to the Constituency Development Funds has to do with their inadequacy. Kachali (2007) writes that in Zambia, the CDF is inadequate and compares with Malawi, where the amount is higher. He further makes mention of the fact that countries like Kenya, Malawi, Ghana and many others are getting not less than a billion in kwacha terms for development projects in each constituency. He further contends that there is need to push for more funds in future so that communities in the constituencies can attain a tangible measure of development.

One factor that has negatively impacted on the usage of the funds is the heavy political interference. For example, Silwamba (2006) explains how a District Commissioner, Timothy Musonda, admitted to making a mistake by including many MMD youth wing members on the constituency development fund committee without following the laid down guidelines. He further notes that a Member of Parliament, Stephen Manjata, got K1 million from the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) for unknown usage.

It is important, however, to note that the December 2006 revised guidelines on the channelling and utilisation of CDFs provide for the fact that the sub-district structures – Area Development Committees (ADCs) and Ward Development Committees (WDCs) – and representatives of stakeholders from the townships consider projects on behalf of the communities and later refer them to the Planning Sub-Committee of the District Development Coordinating Committee (DDCC).

1.3.2 Objectives of CDF

The CDF was established to achieve certain specific objectives. The major intention of the fund was to finance micro-community projects to mitigate the effects of poverty among Zambians in their various constituencies. In addition, the establishment of the fund was to provide constituencies with access to somewhat readily available public funds for the development of their communities (GRZ, 1995). It was understood that this way, development was to reach the intended people. In implementing community-driven projects, the government considered the participation of members of communities in

projects intended to benefit them very cardinal and sought to achieve this through the CDF.

1.3.3 CDF Guidelines

From the time of its institution in Zambia, CDF has had the guidelines regarding the application of funds undergo three distinct phases of revision. The initial guidelines were put in place in 1998 although the fund was established in 1995. As such, notwithstanding money being provided, there existed no rules regarding its usage for the three years up to 1998. This contributed to the gross abuse of the funds at the time by MPs (Shonga, 2000). The second set of guidelines was put in place in 2003. These were later revised in 2006, coming into effect in December of that year. The idea was to strengthen them in several ways such as changing the composition of the Constituency Development Committees, providing for the notification of the public for the submission of project proposals, altering the manner of project implementation, funding requirements and the duration for the completion of projects (ZEA, 2007).

1.3.4 CDF Project Areas

The projects to be financed under the Constituency Development Fund are supposed to be those that are developmental in nature. Examples of the specific types of projects are as listed below:

1.3.4.1 Water Supply and Sanitation

- (a) Construction and rehabilitation of wells;
- (b) Construction and rehabilitation of small-scale dams;
- (c) Construction and rehabilitation of boreholes;
- (d) Piped water supply systems;
- (e) Construction and rehabilitation of pit latrines, toilets or water-borne sanitation systems
- (f) Refuse collection and disposal;

(g) Drainage systems.

1.3.4.2 Roads

- (a) Construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of roads (feeder roads inclusive);
- (b) Bridge construction and maintenance;
- (c) Culvert installation;
- (d) Causeway construction;
- (e) Canals, waterways embankments.

1.3.4.3 Agriculture Projects

- (a) Livestock, poultry rearing, piggeries.
- (b) Irrigation;
- (c) Marketing activities;
- (d) Machinery;
- (e) Agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizers and pesticides

1.3.4.4 Other Social Amenities

There are other social amenities for which the Constituency Development Fund is intended to address. The following are some of them:

Markets and Bus Shelters

- (i) Construction and rehabilitation of bus shelters.
- (ii) Construction and rehabilitation of markets

Education and Health Programmes

- (i) Rehabilitation of education facilities such as desks inclusive;
- (ii) Rehabilitation of health facilities;

- (iii) Health programmes such as nutrition, etc.
- (iv) Education programmes such as literacy programmes.

Income Generating and Training Activities

- (i) Women's groups, small scale enterprises such as silk making, catering, weaving, hammer-mills, nurseries, poultry rearing, etc.
- (ii) Training programmes to support small scale enterprise development;
- (iii) Small scale businesses like brick making, car repairs and livestock keeping
- (iv) Crushing of stones for sale.

Sports and Recreation

This includes the construction and rehabilitation of:

- (i) Community Halls, nurseries and gardens;
- (ii) Recreational facilities such as parks, playgrounds and play fields;
- (iii) In-door recreational facilities like Welfare Halls.

It must be noted, however, that the fund can equally support any other project including tourism.

1.3.5 Modalities and Administration of the Constituency Development Fund

The Guidelines vests the authority to decide on the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds in the Constituency Development Committee (CDC) and not the District Development Coordinating Committee (DDCC). The Guidelines further state that “members of both the Constituency Development Committees and District Development Coordinating Committees shall not receive any allowances for any duties performed in connection with the administration of the Constituency Development Funds because this should be considered as a community contribution”. The District Development Coordinating Committee merely facilitates the Constituency Development Committee

with technical advice and the execution of approved projects.

All payments to contractors executing constituency projects are supposed to be paid by bank cheques and no payments in cash are permitted. The local councils facilitate the Constituency Development Committees in the administration of the Constituency Development Funds.

1.3.6 Disbursement of the Constituency Development Fund

The Ministry of Local Government and Housing disburses the funds either by bank transfer to the individual Constituency Accounts or to Councils by cheques accompanied by a list of constituencies reflecting the allocation to each constituency in the district. Each constituency receives an equal allocation from each disbursement. The amount received, it must be clarified, is decided upon by Parliament when it approves the budget. The trend over the years, however, has been that Cabinet decides how much should be allocated as CDF in a given year.

1.3.7 Membership of the Constituency Development Committee

The 2006 Revised CDF Guidelines endeavoured to streamline the membership of the Constituency Development Committee so that area Members of Parliament and councillors do not chair the Constituency Development Committees. In addition, Chiefs, according to the guidelines, are not allowed to sit on Constituency Development Committees in person, but only through their representatives.

The Constituency Development Committees each comprise nine (9) individuals drawn as per following criteria:

- (a) One (1) Member of Parliament;
- (b) Four (4) community leaders identified by members of the communities themselves;
- (c) Two (2) members of the general public identified and nominated by the area Member of Parliament in consultation with the community in the constituency to

be appointed by the Minister of Local Government and Housing;

(d) One (1) Chief's representative nominated by all Chiefs in the constituency. However, where no Chiefs exist in the constituency, an additional community leader is nominated by the community themselves;

(e) Two Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) representatives operating in the area;

(f) One (1) councillor nominated by all councillors in the constituency.

All the above nominations, the guidelines instruct, are to be submitted by councils to the Minister of Local Government and Housing for approval. In an effort to increase accountability, the Ministry of Local Government and Housing has over the years endeavoured to ensure that separate bank accounts are maintained for each constituency in a district with the Town Clerk/Council Secretary of a council responsible for the administration of these funds on behalf of the Constituency Development Committees in the district and regular auditing to be carried out in accordance with the Local Government Act Number 22 of 1991. In addition, minutes of the Constituency Development Committees, as well as quarterly reports on monitoring and evaluation of the projects by Districts Development Committees, are to be furnished on a quarterly basis to the Ministry of Local Government and Housing.

1.3.8 Project Identification and Selection

The Constituency Development Committee, on receipt of information of the availability of the funds, immediately invites community representatives to submit their projects by a specific date. These projects are reconciled with those already received by the District Development Coordinating Committee to avoid, if any, duplication of effort. The new projects being considered should be harmonised with those undertaken in the previous disbursements to avoid the same projects being funded more than once.

Invitation for project submissions should be made by way of open meetings and fixing of posters in conspicuous locations such as notice boards of schools, clinics and churches, including notification through letters to Chiefs, village headmen and other community

leaders. The number of projects received by the Constituency Development Committee is then submitted to the chairperson of the District Development Coordinating Committee, who is immediately required to convene a meeting to appraise the projects. Within two weeks of receipt of these projects, the District Development Coordinating Committee submits its appraisal report to each Constituency Development Committee for decision and implementation. It is only projects which have been appraised and approved by the Constituency Development Committee are funded. The applications for project funding from the Constituency Development Fund are submitted on a standard form.

1.3.9 Award of Contracts

A flexible tender system is used in the invitation of offers from eligible contractors and/or suppliers. The District Development Coordinating Committee evaluates the bids and recommends to the Constituency Development Committee the award of contracts which is then communicated to the successful contractors by the Constituency Development Committee. The Constituency Development Committee chairperson and the Town Clerk or Council Secretary are signatories to all contract agreements. All contracts shall be in writing in accordance with a standard Form attached in the Appendix of this manual.

1.3.10 Release of Money on Approved Projects

Approved work programmes by the Constituency Development Committee and countersigned by the Chairperson of the Constituency Development Committee form the basis for any payment to the contractor by the Council. The initial payment does not exceed fifty per cent (50%) of the estimated cost of the project. The subsequent payments on the contracts are made on the basis of Stage Completion Certificates or invoices supported by delivery notes, whichever is the case. All payments are sanctioned by the Constituency Development Committee before they are released by the Council and are payable by cheque in the name of the authorised contractor.

1.3. 11 Bank Accounts and Signatories

The council, on receipt of the funds, opens special bank accounts in the name of each constituency and immediately informs each Constituency Development Committee of the receipt of the funds. There are four signatories to the Constituency Development Fund bank account. The following forms the panel of bank signatories on the Constituency Development Fund Account:

Panel A

- (a) The Town Clerk or Council Secretary;
- (b) The Director of Finance or Treasurer.

Panel B

- (a) One member of the Constituency Development Committee (that is, from among the community leaders identified by the community members themselves);
- (b) One member of the Constituency Development Committee (that is, from among the members of the general public nominated by the area Member of Parliament in consultation with the community & appointed by the Minister of Local Government and Housing).

A cheque drawn on the Constituency Development Fund account or any instructions to the bank is signed by two (2) signatories comprising one from panel (A) and another one from (B).

1.3.12 Accountability

In accordance with the existing financial regulations, auditing of Constituency Development Fund accounts is conducted regularly by auditors from the Ministry of Local Government and Housing. The Treasurer/Director of Finance of the Council is required to maintain separate books of accounts for the Constituency Development Fund

in each District. Monthly receipts and accounts of payments supported by bank reconciliation statements for each account to be submitted to the Constituency Development Committee with copies to the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Local Government and Housing.

Any abuse of the funds under the Constituency Development by way of misapplication and misappropriation by the Council, the guidelines state, must result in the suspension of the Council and forfeiture of Council grant in order to reimburse the affected constituency. Further, any abuse of the Constituency Development Fund by any member of the Constituency Development Committee or councillor results in legal action against the culprit. Any Council official who is involved in abusing, mismanagement, defrauding or stealing any money from this Fund is supposed to be prosecuted and, if found guilty, dismissed from the Council.

1.3.13 Minutes of CDF Meetings

The Constituency Development Committee is obliged to see to it records of all the proceedings of all meetings are taken and that they are maintained. The secretary of the CDF committee drafts them and a file is kept at the Council for ease of reference. Quarterly copies of such minutes are then submitted to the Minister of Local Government and Housing.

1.3.14 Reporting and Monitoring

The District Development Coordinating Committee is expected to monitor the project implementation and prepare quarterly progress reports on behalf of the Constituency Development Committee supported by the accounts for the quarter and submit through the Provincial Local Government Officer to the Minister of Local Government and Housing who is mandated to analyse the reports and advise the Government on the progress, if any, achieved in the implementation of the constituency projects and programmes.

1.3.15 Annual Report to Cabinet and Parliament

The Minister of Local Government and Housing, after receiving progress reports, is the expected to submit to Cabinet and subsequently to Parliament, an annual report on the operations of the Constituency Development Fund.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

It is very important to acknowledge that the role that CDFs can play in meeting some of the needs of communities cannot be over emphasised. Though on first sight some projects such as the construction of bridges, rehabilitation of amenities such as markets and bus shelters may seem insignificant, their availability is very much appreciated by constituents. The advantage of such funds is that in terms of proximity, they are close to the community, thereby making them easily accessible to members of a constituency for application in their immediate environment through established processes.

What must be realised is that the successful utilisation of the CDFs can be best achieved when members of a community have an opportunity to participate in policy design and implementation of the CDF-funded projects. However, the level of participation in the disbursement and usage of the funds in most cases does not to effectively avail members constituencies levels of participation that can be said to be satisfactory (GRZ, 2008; Shonga, 2000). Anecdotal evidence suggests that the views of the people at the grassroots are seldom heard, and the funds are used in a unilateral manner to suit the desires of the political elite.

When effectively managed, Constituency Development Funds can demonstrate key principles of local ownership by enhancing local voices, community participation in decisions affecting them and collective decision-making. Each of these is essential for good governance, accountability and democratic values to flourish. The study, therefore, intended to find out how the local communities are, or better still, can be incorporated in the optimal and most advantageous usage of the funds in Kabwata Constituency.

As such, the study attempted among other things, to find answers to some of the reasons that have contributed not only to the low participation, but also poor access to Constituency Development Funds in the concerned constituency. It also sought to investigate how much participation, as a result of the use of, if any are applied, communication strategies, there exists in the use of these funds. Phrased as a question, the statement of the problem was: Is the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds in Kabwata Constituency communicative and participatory?

1.5 Justification/Rationale of the Study

This study was significant in the sense that the findings, without doubt, provided an indication of the needs of the local communities, including the role they can play to ensure effective participation in community development. In addition, the findings may also guide policy makers and programme organisers to formulate policies that promote community access and participation in the use of Constituency Development Funds.

Two important characteristics, among many, of scientific research are that while on one hand it is public, on the other it is cumulative, implying that it builds on the works carried out by other researchers in the past, albeit from different perspectives. Due to this, future postgraduate programmes in mass communication and participatory communication might also find it useful to incorporate the findings of this research for development communication courses. This study added another facet to the already available assortment of information and knowledge about the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds in Zambia.

The findings suggest practicable recommendations that may be used by communication experts involved in development work or policy makers when applying appropriate tools of communication in the usage of Constituency Development Funds. This was due to among other factors, the lacuna the amount of material gathered attempted to seal.

1.6 Objectives of the Study

1.6.1 General Objectives of the Study

- (a) To find out if, and how Kabwata Constituency and Ministry of Local Government and Housing administrative sub-district structures involve the active participation of the local communities in the utilisation of Constituency Development Funds.
- (b) To investigate the communicative strategies, if any, used in the utilisation of Constituency Development Funds.

1.6.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

- (a) To examine the levels of awareness of the Constituency Development Fund in Kabwata Constituency.
- (b) To determine the role, if any, the constituents play on how the Constituency Development Fund is disbursed in Kabwata Constituency.
- (c) To establish how often, if at all they do, the constituents meet/interact with government, council officials and the area Member of Parliament in relation to the use of the Constituency Development Fund in Kabwata.
- (d) To establish the communication strategies, if any, used to create awareness of the Constituency Development Fund in Kabwata Constituency.
- (e) To establish the participatory strategies, if any, used to disburse the Development Fund in Kabwata Constituency.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The focus of the study was to primarily investigate the communication strategies that are used to ensure the participation of people in the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds in Kabwata Constituency. The scope of the examination was restricted to the five wards that constitute the constituency, which include Libala Ward 7, Chilenje Ward 8, Kamwala Ward 5, Kabwata Ward 6 and Kamulanga Ward 9.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research Design/Methods

A triangulated combination of both qualitative and quantitative research methods was used in this study. This was to ensure an adequately comprehensive understanding and interpretation of the phenomenon under investigation, which in this case was the way CDFs are being put to use in Kabwata Constituency.

2.2 Population

The research was carried out in all the five wards that constitute Kabwata constituency, namely; Libala Ward 7, Chilenje Ward 8, Kamwala Ward 5, Kabwata Ward 6 and Kamulanga Ward 9. The total population of the constituency is approximately 300,000 persons.

2.3 Sample Size

The sample involved 100 respondents randomly selected to complete a questionnaire in each of the five wards constituting Kabwata Constituency. For qualitative surveys, in-depth interviews were carried out and these involved key informants, who included Ministry of Local Government and Housing officials charged with overseeing the disbursement of the Constituency Development Funds in general, and Kabwata, in particular. Members of the Constituency Development Fund Committee and Ward Development Committees were equally interviewed. In addition, some residents of the constituency were also interviewed so as to acquire an understanding of their views in relation to the way CDF is being used in the constituency, and, if they had any knowledge of CDF-funded projects, their views on how these were being implemented.

2.4 Sampling Procedure/Method

The very fact that the sampling frame for the study included subjects from all the five

wards of Kabwata Constituency implies that, even before the study began, the constituency had already been clustered. Following this, the random sampling method was used so that each subject or individual in the constituency was afforded an equal chance of being selected as a respondent regardless of their sex, age, occupation, education or socio-economic status.

2.5 Research Questions

- (a) How does the Ministry of Local Government and Housing, in its administration of the Constituency Development Funds in Kabwata Constituency ensure community participation?
- (b) Do the established structures at both Council and Ministry level adequately use appropriate communication tools to raise awareness on the Constituency Development Funds in Kabwata Constituency?
- (c) What are the levels of community participation in community projects in Kabwata Constituency regarding projects funded through the Constituency Development Funds?
- (d) Do the Ministry of Local Government and Housing and established council and constituency administrative structures have deliberate policies to guarantee the participation of local communities through the use of appropriate communication strategies?

2.6 Data Gathering

2.6.1 Policy Review

A content analysis of relevant documents was carried out and used to assess the gaps that exist in the policies to evaluate how these jeopardise the participation and access of the Constituency Development Funds by local communities. It was thus considered necessary to analyse information derived from documents such as the CDF guidelines to assess whether some provisions either encouraged the use of communication tools to encourage the participation of stakeholders in the usage of the funds. In addition, minutes of

meetings by the WDCs and CDC were critically evaluated to comprehend the manner in which decisions regarding the disbursement of funds were arrived at to assess whether it could be deciphered whether residents effectively took part and contributed in the design of projects, their implementation, monitoring, evaluation and all the key decisions in the decision-making processes that were to ultimately be of great benefit to them.

The nature of the study equally made it inevitable to review the correspondence in the form of memos and letters between the District Planning Unit (DPU). These were revealing in that not only did they make explicitly unambiguous the communication structure in the use of the CDF, they as well demonstrated the expectations of the parties involved, the levels of accountability among them and also the criteria applied in the approval and disapproval of certain community projects funded by the CDF. This complemented the material derived from parliamentary debate speeches of MPs.

2.6.2 In-depth Interviews

Interviews were one of the methods applied in the study to solicit the experiences of the people in gaining an understanding into whether or not they had information or participated in CDF-financed projects. Regarding the interviews, schedules were used to guide the interviews in order for interactions with respondents not to be haphazard. Definitely, they provided the researcher plenty of space to probe and adjust the direction of the interviews, at least where necessary.

2.6.3 Quantitative survey

A major component of this study was the quantitative survey carried out by the use of self-administered questionnaires (see Appendix 1). The self-administered questionnaires were designed to solicit responses on issues ranging from how they receive information on CDF, whether they know how much their constituency is entitled to, which media they prefer being notified with on CDF and just their general views on whether they have ever

participated in the identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects. It became necessary, in several cases, to interpret the questions as some respondents were not literate and sufficiently competent with English.

2.7 Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Excel were used in the analysis and tabulation of the collected quantitative data.

2.8 Limitations of the Study

Constituencies, though guided by the same guidelines for using Constituency Development Funds, may to a certain degree exhibit variations in which they approach community projects. Also, they may display different levels of success and failure despite, for example, being in the same urban areas. In Lusaka, for instance, even though the district consists of seven constituencies, there is a difference in the levels of success regarding the effectiveness and efficiency with which CDFs are put to use. Some Ward Development Committees and Constituency Development Committees in certain constituencies are more active than in others.

The study, though, did not seek to investigate the use of CDFs from a comparative perspective. Its preoccupation was to examine the phenomenon only in one constituency - Kabwata. It is hoped that future studies can focus on building on the platform assembled by this work in an attempt to consider comparisons between urban and rural constituencies. Apart from this, other research works may focus their attention on comparing urban-urban or rural-rural constituencies. This is because, even though some constituencies may exist in the same geographical locations, there may be differences between and among them owing to demographic, psychographic, political, economic or indeed social factors. It is factors such as these that distinguish the needs and priorities of dissimilar constituencies. In fact, it would be of benefit to as well consider conducting a study of CDFs not from a participatory communicative approach, but from a different theoretical and conceptual framework altogether such as psychology, sociology or

economics. By its very nature, research must be cumulative. As such, this would not be harmful and neither would it be an exercise in futility. To the contrary, it will add to the already available knowledge on the subject, albeit from a different point of view.

Inadequate financial resources rendered the carrying out of the study challenging. For example, the high cost of transport inevitably made it expensive to move from place to place when distributing questionnaires, meeting interviewees for interviews and gathering other secondary material relevant for the study. This was because the researcher single-handedly distributed the questionnaires in all the five wards of the constituency under investigation.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

This section focuses on the conceptual and theoretical framework which was used in the study of the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds in Kabwata Constituency based on a participatory communicative approach. By way of designation, a conceptual framework may be understood to be the definition of a concept by a set of other concepts. A conceptual definition simply states the distinctive characteristics of that which is being defined. What distinguishes an operational definition from the other is that it is easily testable. As a result, it is not only testable, but can as well be observed.

3.1 Conceptual and operational definitions of concepts

For ease of understanding, the definitions pertinent to the study should be considered.

3.1.1 Communication

Historically, the word ‘communicate’ is related to the word ‘common’. Linguists argue that the etymology of the term can be traced from the Latin verb *communicare*, which means ‘to share’ or ‘to make common’, and which in turn is related to the Latin word for common: *communis* (Rosengren, 2000). When persons communicate, they make things common. They thus increase shared knowledge, that is, their ‘common sense’ about issues that affect them. This, it should be emphasised, is an indispensable basic precondition for all community.

Communication may take place between units of very different size and complexity. It may occur between and within individuals, groups, organisations, social classes, nations, countries and regions of the world. Obviously, the character of communication varies with the size and complexity of the communicating units involved.

Over the millennia, human beings have used various media to communicate both in space and time. They have used wood and stone, parchment and paper, fire, smoke, flags and semaphores including electricity and electro-magnetic waves (Rosengren, 2000). As new media for communication have been created and developed with the progress of time, the old ones have become specialised and restricted to certain areas and/or functions, but none have been completely abandoned. Rosengren (2000: 36) further argues that “human communication is basically intentional. It is conscious, willed action by at least two parties.”

However, communication, it must be admitted, is a complex phenomenon. The term is polysemous and thus defined variously by different scholars. Communication in this study refers to the process of exchanging ideas, information and opinions through speech, writing, pictures, and other symbols in order to achieve a mutual understanding between or among the parties involved. It is a process in which information or messages are shared by a source with a recipient through a given channel in order to influence the receiver’s thoughts and actions. Communication, as such, should be perceived as a symbolic process, by which reality is produced, maintained, repaired and transformed (Carey, 1988; Elkamel, 1986). On the other hand, communication, as Conrad and Poole (2002) assert, can generally also be understood to be the process through which people, acting together, create, sustain, and manage meanings through the use of verbal and non-verbal signs and symbols within a particular context.

Communication occurs when the action or cue given by one organism is perceived by and thus alters the probability pattern of behaviour in another organism in a fashion adaptive to either one or both of the participants (Hauser, 1997; Dissanayake, 2008). It may also be understood to mean the transfer of information via signals between the sender and the receiver. The occurrence of communication is recognised by a difference in the behaviour of the receiver in two situations that differ only in the presence of the reputed signal. The effect of the signal may be to prevent a change in the receiver’s output, or to maintain a specific internal behavioral readiness. The communication that occurs between two persons or among a homogenous and physically small group is called interpersonal, or person-to-person, or face-to-face, or personal, or direct communication. Because of this,

there is no debate over the importance of communication in serving development. It is the fuel without which there would not be development, advancement or a solid base for any successful economic construction (El-Bidewy, 1990).

3.1.2 Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is defined in numerous ways by various communication scholars to describe participants who are dependent upon one another and have a shared history. In this type of communication, the channels, the conceptualisation of mediums involve the carrying of messages (Stone et al, 1999). An important aspect of interpersonal communication is the context in which it occurs. Context refers to the conditions that precede or surround the communication. It consists of present or past events from which the meaning of the message is derived, though it may also, in the case of written communication or discourse analysis, depend upon the statements preceding and following whatever has been written. The immediate surroundings may also have a bearing on the perceived meaning of words. Ultimately, the context includes the entire world, but usually refers to salient factors such as the physical milieu (location and environment), situational milieu (classroom, military conflict), cultural and linguistic backgrounds. These factors intervene in complex ways to determine the nature of communication that may occur between or among individuals.

Interpersonal communication is important because of the functions it serves. Whenever an individual engages in communication with another person, he or she seeks to gain information about them. People, in this type of communication, also give off information through a wide variety of verbal and nonverbal cues.

3.1.3 Group Communication

Poole and Roth (1989) define group communication as that which occurs in groups. These may range between three to twelve and increasing to twenty individuals in certain instances. There is no established standard as to the exact number that should constitute a group for purposes of communication. Group communication generally takes place in a context that mixes interpersonal communication interactions with social clustering.

3.1.4 Mass communication

This term does not really have an agreed definition. Generally, it is used to describe communication that involves the use of technologies to produce and disseminate information through the use of both print (newspapers, newsletters, brochures, pamphlets, billboards, posters, fliers and books) and electronic media (radio, television, film and the internet). Conceding that it is a concept that is hard to define because of the attempts to delineate it that, despite being plentiful, are usually futile, Hartley (2002), cautions that care should be exercised in defining the term. Nevertheless, he goes on to describe mass communication as:

the practice and product of providing leisure entertainment and information to an unknown audience by means of corporately financed, industrially produced, state-regulated, high tech, privately consumed commodities in the print, screen, audio and broadcast media, usually understood as newspapers, magazines, cinema, television, radio and advertising; sometimes including book publishing (especially popular fiction) and music (the pop industry) (Hartley, 2002: 138).

What makes mass communication hard to define is that it is a common-sense category that is used to lump a number of different phenomena together in a non-analytic way. Attempts to define the concept are too many and, in most cases, too restrictive. The result is that it is hard to encompass the diversity of what constitutes print, cinema, radio and television within one definition. Or else they are forced to become too over-extended, in which case the definition ends up applying equally well to something that may not be considered as being mass communication at all such as education, religion or even speech itself. Incontrovertible, nonetheless, is the seemingly universal agreement among scholars that mass communication always entails the transmission of information or messages to a large, anonymous or ambiguous, heterogeneous and undefined audience. Inherently advantageous in this type of communication is that, apart from being cost-effective, it permits a higher capacity of information to reach greater numbers of individuals in a single execution.

3.2.0 Participation

From the mid-1970s, the concept of participation has been gaining increasing recognition and the role of communication is praised in most international fora as a key facet for the success of any development project.

3.2.1 Ambiguity of Participation

One cannot agree more with White (1994) that the word ‘participation’ has become part of development jargon. Others, like Pijnenburg and Ntantumbo (2002) are quick to point out, however, that despite the fact that the development debate has, and continues to be, dominated by the concept of participatory communication and that concepts and methods concerning participatory approaches have in the recent past proliferated in formal literature as well as the documents of donors and development agencies, the concept, though, remains vague. This is because different people and different agencies use it with different meanings and, consequently, the rhetoric has resulted in a variety of practices and types of intervention.

3.2.2 ‘Modes’, ‘Levels’, ‘Grades’ of Participation

One factor that has contributed to the ambiguities in understanding the concept of participation is that it has often been poorly defined (Pijnenburg and Ntantumbo, 2002). For instance, simply providing labour for the construction of a school may be referred to by some as participation while, at the other end of the continuum, some may consider the existence of initiatives that promote capacity building and empowerment and stimulate participants towards collective action as constituting participation.

This has motivated several scholars to identify different ‘levels’ or ‘modes’ of participation. For example, Biggs (1989) distinguishes between contractual, consultative, collaborative, and collegiate participation. Apart from this, (Pretty et al, 1995; Drydic, 2005) distinguish seven levels of participation by adapting a scale first put forward by Adnan et al (1992). These are passive participation, participation by giving information,

participation through consultation, participation to obtain material incentives, functional participation, interactive participation and self-mobilisation.

It is important to define these levels, modes or grades of participation and, perhaps fortunately, the task of doing so is made unproblematic by Drydic (2005). These descriptions all ought to be comprehended in the context of development projects at community or national levels. Passive participation refers to simply being told what to do or what is going to happen. Participation by giving information is self-explanatory as it refers to where one or several members of a community merely give information relating to a development project, nothing more. On the other hand, participation by consultation is where people are asked for input and the external people listen to their views. Participation to obtain material incentives is where people engage in an activity so that they obtain, for example, food, cash, clothes or other material incentives in exchange for labour.

In interactive participation, there is a joint analysis of needs, opportunities, perceived problems and solutions by all stakeholders in an activity. This may lead to action plans and the formation of new institutions or the strengthening of the old ones to meet new challenges. Functional participation has the prime intent of seeking to achieve certain objectives after the major decisions of a project have already been made. Self-mobilisation refers to the kind of participation where initiatives are taken independent of any external agencies or institutions to change systems. In this case, a community develops contacts with external agencies for financial resources and, in some cases, technical advice necessary for given projects but retains control over the use to which the resources are put.

In addition, Pijnenburg and Ntantumbo (2002:193) make a useful observation when they point out that there is also a distinction between participation as a *means* and participation as an *end*. They argue that the objective of participation as an end is to accomplish a project more effectively and more efficiently. Participation as a means is when a group or community establishes a process by which it can control its own development. In other words, the emphasis is on empowerment and the promotion of collective community

action. A similar distinction is made between *instrumental* and *transformative* participation. The former resembles participation as a means (the target group is being involved in a project driven by outsiders), while *transformative participation* would resemble participation as an end (the outsiders are being involved in a project driven by the target group).

3.2.3 Advantages of Participation

Pijnenburg and Ntantumbo (2002:194) advance several reasons why participation has intrinsic advantages. This is because it allows external agents to obtain better knowledge of the local reality through direct contact with the population. In addition to this, participation allows better planning since it can be done on the basis of the priorities identified by or with the communities. It avoids planning for the population in a paternalistic way and guarantees that the plans respond to the needs of the community. Compared with the top-down interventions, participatory approaches will improve the efficiency and sustainability of the intervention. Participation creates a sense of ownership. This ownership relates to commitment to the decision made and, where relevant, to the maintenance of social infrastructure such as schools, wells, etc. when people choose and determine their priorities, when they feel the project is theirs, they will take responsibility and be more dedicated when it comes to implementation. Participation allows people to be helped to solve their own problems. Thus, they gain skills, for instance in dialogue, reflection about problems and possible solutions, and negotiation, all of which allow them to take their own decisions and actions.

Drydyc (2005), in agreeing that a symbiotic relationship subsists among the concepts of development, democracy and participation, cautions, yet, that not all participation is democratic. By defining participation as “a method of decision-making in which the participants, who are directly affected by an action, make the choice” (2005:259), he posits that the concept has four virtues. The first is that it is intrinsically valuable in so far as it enhances the participants’ agency. What is implied here is that being able to do something, not only for oneself, but for other members of the community is one of the elementary freedoms which people have reasons to value. In addition, the other intrinsic

value of participation consists in the fact that it affords the participants an opportunity to achieve friendship, sociability and have the benefit of enjoying a sense of community. Secondly, participation is instrumentally valuable. This is so because it causes the freedom of participants to be enhanced, the result of which is that it engenders self-fulfillment.

Thirdly, participation can positively influence the formation of values in important ways. This is because discussion, a principal feature of participation, enables participants become well aware of the effects that the realisation of particular values will have, not only on themselves, but on other people as well. Last, but absolutely not least, is that participations enables identity formation to be affected by people's own choices, rather than by inertia or choices of more influential, and sometimes powerful, opinion leaders or agencies.

3.2.4 Participatory Communication

Participation and communication, being terms that have been hard to define, have been used in a number of ways both in theory and in practice (Rosengren, 2000; Conrad and Poole, 2002; Hauser, 1997). Even though participatory methods have been in use for sometime, only recently have they been widely acknowledged as a crucial component, if not a universal right in themselves, of development practices. Participatory communication denotes the theory and practices of communication used to involve people in the decision-making of the development process (Mefalopulos, 2003; Rajasunderam, 1996). Bessette (1996), in addition, says that because it is now increasingly being recognised that people's active participation is an essential component of sustainable development, any intervention with the intent of achieving a real and sustainable improvement in the living conditions of people is doomed to failure unless the intended beneficiaries are actively involved in the process. Unless people participate in all phases of an intervention, from problem identification to research and implementation of solutions, the likelihood that sustainable change will occur is slim. In essence, the lack of, or the inappropriate use of, participation and communication are among the main causes of project failure.

3.3 Development

There exists no universally accepted definition of the word ‘development’. This is because various scholars have defined it differently. For example, the concept of an underdeveloped country, so familiar in the post-World War II era, was conceived principally with reference to the stage a country’s economy had reached or failed to reach. More particularly, development was defined in reference to “the degree to which the country’s economy is geared to modern technological tools and devices” (Azkin, 1958:151). Others, like Todaro and Smith (2006: 49), have stated that “development has traditionally meant the capacity of a national economy, whose initial economic condition has been more or less static for a long time, to generate and sustain an annual increase in its Gross National Product (GNP) at rates of perhaps 5% to 7% or more”. Adherents of this view associated development with a higher material standard of living, full employment, improved health standards and the spread of education accompanied by a heightened level of self-esteem. Hogendorn (1996:4) envisages development as being “exclusively an area of economics that must draw frequently on knowledge from other disciplines”, which disciplines include law, sociology, anthropology, political science and history.

It was realised, later, that going by these definitions, no clear standard exists of what actually constitutes a ‘developed’ as opposed to an ‘underdeveloped’ country. The standard, to the extent that it exists, is a changeable or relative one; it may perhaps even be subjective. Indeed, it may even be dialectical. This excessive association of the concept of development with economics led to a different view by other scholars who argued that development must not be perceived purely as an economic affair, but rather as an overall social process which is dependent upon the outcome of man’s efforts to deal with the environment (Rodney, 1973; Aziz, 1978). In his *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, Rodney states thus:

Development in human society is a many-sided process. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being. Some of these are virtually moral categories and are difficult to evaluate - depending as they do on the age in which one lives, one’s class origins, and one’s personal code of what is right and what is wrong. However,

what is indisputable is that the achievement of any of those aspects of personal development is very much tied in with the state of the society as a whole (Rodney, 1973:1)

When concern with development economics first began in the early 1950s, the reason the concept of development was almost synonymous with economic growth was due to the simplistic misconception and notion at the time that economic development could be achieved by increasing a country's investment ratio and by setting up industries to produce substitutes for imports. This led to the belief that with a few billion dollars in aid and some technical development assistance, developing countries would be assisted to "take off" (Aziz, 1978:89).

In recent times, scholars have defined 'development' as the growth of humans throughout the lifespan, from conception to death, arguing that its study seeks to understand and explain how and why people change throughout life. More importantly, it should be understood to include all aspects of human growth, including physical, emotional, intellectual, social, perceptual, and personality. The scientific study of development is important not only to psychology, but also to sociology, education, and health care. Development does not just involve the biological and physical aspects of growth, but also the cognitive and social aspects associated with development throughout life.

Accordingly, the study of human development is important in a number of subjects, including biology, anthropology, sociology, education, history, and psychology. Most important, however, are the practical applications of studying human development. By better understanding how and why people change and grow, this knowledge can help people live up to their full potential. It is arguments like these to which Kasoma (1994) subscribes and concludes that development, as a process, must comprise certain characteristics. It should be centered on the human being, that is, it should result in the improvement in the human condition. Apart from this, it should entail progression as opposed to retrogression. Further, though the concept of development may be dominated by material or economic notions, in some cases "material prosperity may even retard the improvement of certain aspects of the human life condition" (Kasoma, 1994:403). As

such, development is a multi-faceted concept impacting on all aspects of human endeavour.

In a view that appears congruent to that of Rodney (1973) and Kasoma (1994), Todaro and Smith (2006) suggest that development, regardless of how one may conceive it, must fulfill three objectives. The first is that it must increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter and protection. Secondly, it must seek to raise the levels of living, including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being, but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem. Thirdly, development should expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

The CDF, in trying to support community projects in constituencies, is intended to finance micro-community projects. In the context of this study, the term ‘development’ entails the active identification and implementation of these projects with members of the community that must result in the increased availability and widening of the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter and protection in addition an elevation in the standards of living, including the expansion in the range of economic and social choices available to individuals. If the projects (in Chapter One) are being implemented, have they resulted in the development of the Kabwata Constituency? This question will be exhaustively answered in the proceeding chapters, particularly Chapter Six.

3.4.1 Theories Informing the Study

The main theories underpinning this study include the following:

3.2.1. Uses and Gratification Theory

The uses and gratifications theory, also known as usage and gratifications or needs and gratifications theory is not a single approach, but rather a body of approaches to media analysis that developed out of many varied empirical studies. Wimmer and Dominick

(1997) assert that the theory has its roots in the 1940s, when researchers became interested in establishing why people engaged in various forms of media behaviour, such as radio listening or newspaper reading. During its genesis, the studies' major preoccupation was to inquire about the responses of audience members so as to classify them into meaningful categories. For instance, citing Hertzog (1944), Wimmer and Dominick (1997) explain that the former identified three types of gratifications that were at the time of his study associated with listening to radio soap operas. These were emotional release, wishful thinking and obtaining advice.

Accordingly, the basic tenet of uses and gratifications theory is that people are not helpless victims of media influences, but that individuals use various media at their disposal to fulfill their various needs. These needs, it is argued, serve as the motivating factors for using the media. Therefore, the gratifications obtained should correspond with gratifications sought for the media to be able to meet the needs of the users. A model devised by Jay G. Blumler and Elihu Katz in 1974 highlights four areas of gratification in media texts for audiences. These are:

1. Diversion - a media text which provides escapism. This occurs when a media text temporarily or partially 'envelops' one's senses. An example of this phenomenon is when one is playing a video game.

2. Personal relationships - People tend to create personal relationships with the characters in a media channel and start to feel as though they know them. This can become dangerous if people start to develop a naïve trust in the characters. For example, if one trusted a reporter too much, they may accept everything they say at face value without questioning it. This trust could then be abused or manipulated if not cautiously handled.

3. Personal identity - This occurs when a person creates part of their own identity from things they find attractive in people due to exposure to various media. For example, one may decide to have a haircut because they liked the look of a similar one in a magazine. This can go a long way in shaping people and people's ideas regarding their values,

norms, ideologies and fashions.

4. Surveillance - the audience gains an understanding of the world around them by consuming certain media content, for example print and broadcast news (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uses_and_gratifications - Viewed on September 28, 2008).

This is not to say the audience is passive. On the contrary, they are not but the media just keeps on reinforcing messages. And the fact that people communicate with each other influences their behaviour in many more ways as mass communication does. Thus in 1951, Blumler and Katz concluded that different people use the same communication messages for various purposes in order to deal with real life situations.

The uses and gratifications theory has several applications and was extremely relevant in this study. As the study focused on various communicative aspects, the role various forms of media, if any, play in the utilisation of the CDF were definitely made clear. It may be asked, for example: are the people of Kabwata Constituency exposed to certain media that enable them to respond positively towards the use of the funds in question? Do they find these messages relevant and gratifying, leading them to engage in projects that they feel will in one way or the other lead to an improvement in their lives? Could it be that the constituents are not exposed to media messages that can enable them gain an understanding of the world around them by consuming a media text, for example print and broadcast news? These are difficult questions that can only be competently answered through research. They cannot be left to conjecture. What is important, it must be emphasised, is that the theory was instructive in the sense that it contributed to bringing to the fore what media messages the people of Kabwata Constituency find gratifying *vis a vis* the use of the Constituency Development Fund. For if the fund must be effectively utilised for the benefit of the constituents, whatever is necessary to achieve this end ought to be effectively communicated.

3.2.2 Agenda Setting Theory

The theory of agenda setting falls within the realm of media effects (McCombs, 1977).

Agenda setting assigns a very powerful influence to the media, which is, to tell the audience what issues are important. Mass media affects cognitive change in the public and may influence the public's agenda by determining its awareness and what information it should be exposed to. This is known as the agenda setting function of mass communication. Therefore, the argument put forward in this research included the fact that since the Constituency Development Funds have an influence on the services available to communities, setting it as a public agenda within its audience cannot be said to lack influence among the constituents of Kabwata.

Two basic assumptions underlie most research on agenda setting (McCombs, 1977). The first is that the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it. Also, media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as being more important than others. It cannot, therefore, be denied that while the media does not have any influence on what individuals think, it is remarkably successful when it comes to deciding what individuals, once exposed to it, think about.

Whereas the uses and gratifications approach contends that the more dependant an individual is on a particular media to meet his or her needs, the more likely they are to be dependent on that media, the agenda setting theory argues that the media can play a significant role in determining what a person thinks about (or considers to be important) by deciding on what information an audience consumes. It would, therefore, not be unsafe to conclude that media messages regarding the manner in which the Constituency Development Funds are used (or supposed to be used), if made part of the media agenda, can actually be thought by an audience to be important to be taken seriously. This, however, is not to suggest, in any way, that the recipients of such information will automatically passively accept it. The point is that, in combining the uses and gratifications and agenda setting theories, communication channels and media that provide gratifications can be exploited to set the agenda for communicating messages that can enable the people of Kabwata Constituency to effectively communicate and take part in the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds. Simply put, is the utilisation of the Constituency Development Funds top on the agenda of media messages that Kabwata constituents are exposed to?

3.2.3. Social Marketing Theory

Social marketing theory is a combination of theoretical perspectives and a set of marketing techniques. Meischke (2000) defines social marketing as the design, implementation, and control of programmes seeking to increase the acceptability of a social idea or practice in a target group. It utilises concepts of market segmentation, consumer research, idea configuration, communication, facilitation, incentives, and exchange theory to maximise target group response. In social marketing, the intervention is developed from a solid base of communication and social-psychological theories. Marketing techniques are used to supplement message development and programme implementation.

Social marketing is based on the marketing philosophy that an individual will adopt new behaviours, attitudes or ideas if they feel that something of value is exchanged between him/her and the social marketer (Kotler and Roberto, 1989). It is for this reason that one of the goals of a social marketer is to meet consumer needs and wants. The need or want can be a tangible product (such as an oral contraceptive) or social idea (for example, the notion of family planning) or a social practice (such voting in an election). Another assumption is that well-honed and demonstrably effective techniques from the commercial business sector can successfully and efficiently be applied to advance social causes.

These techniques include the five 'P's- product, price, place, promotion and positioning. In brief, the product refers to the behaviour (e.g. eating low fat foods) or idea (e.g. eat fruits and vegetables a day for better health) that the audience needs to accept. A product line refers to the variety in which the product can be promoted (e.g. drink fruit juice instead of eating a banana) to attain the goal of adoption of the product. The price of the product refers to the monetary as well as the non-monetary cost of a product. These non-monetary costs include psychological, social, or convenience costs. For instance, promotion of a low fat diet may not only require buying higher priced low fat products but also increased difficulty in obtaining such products, preparing them and making them part of a new lifestyle.

Reducing these costs greatly increases the chances that a new idea/product will be adopted. The place refers to the distribution sites of the product. The greater the number of distribution sites and the more convenient and appropriate the places where the product can be found, the better chance that awareness and use of the product is facilitated. Promotion of a product refers to the ways in which the audience is made aware of the product, such as use of advertisements, direct marketing and other avenues. In the promotion of a product, social marketing campaigns rely on the interaction between mass media and interpersonal channels for increasing awareness and facilitating change (Kotler and Roberto, 1989). Positioning refers to the psychological image of the product. For instance, the promotion of a low fat diet can be positioned as a healthy way to attain slender body physique, or, a way to reduce the chances of acquiring disease, perhaps even avoiding certain types of cancer.

Social-psychological theories, complemented with empirical evidence, are important in establishing the variables of importance for adoption of the product. Careful definition of the problem and clear objective setting are important to any campaign. However, the most significant contribution of social marketing has been the strong focus on consumer needs. To maximise the five Ps in a social marketing campaign, identification of needs and wants of the consumer is key to successful marketing of ideas and behaviours. To find out more about the needs and wants of the audience is to conduct intensive audience analysis, including preproduction and production research, and to design campaign elements for different subgroups (audience segmentation).

Audience segmentation refers to the process of breaking down the mass audience into smaller subgroups that are internally as homogeneous as possible while being as different as possible from other groups. However, the audience in a social marketing campaign consists of many different stakeholders. The success of social marketing campaigns is largely dependent on the buy-in of all the stakeholders (that is, the community at large). Most social marketing campaigns rely to some extent on the use of existing agencies in the communities for distribution and promotion of the product. It must be categorically stated, however, that the primary aim of social marketing is 'social good', while in

commercial marketing, the aim is primarily 'financial'. This does not mean that commercial marketers can not contribute to achievement of social good. On the contrary, they can.

The effective communication and participation of the people of Kabwata Constituency, from a social marketing perspective, may be looked upon as a behaviour that can be adopted, which can ultimately lead to the effective usage of the funds. In order for this to be achieved, awareness campaigns that include various strategies and tactics must be conducted to promote the adoption of this behaviour. Herein lies the application of this theory in this study. Has the effective communication, including the participation in the use of the Constituency Development Funds been marketed for adoption in Kabwata Constituency? What strategies and tactics have been used, if any? Has this contributed to the better usage of the funds? It ought to be emphasised that although some have failed to induce change, information strategies can dramatically alter behaviour (World Bank, 2004). These, however, work in fairly specific circumstances.

3.2.4. Participatory Communication Appraisal

Anyaegbunam et al (1998) describe Participatory Communication Appraisal as "a communication research method that utilises field-based visualisation techniques, interviews and group work to generate information for the design of effective communication programmes, materials, media and methods for development purposes to ensure relevance and ownership by the people." Participatory Communication Appraisal facilitates dialogue among people themselves and between them and development workers in order for all parties to reach mutual understanding and plan for action. It is therefore used to promote the involvement of people in decision-making over issues that affect their lives.

In addition, Anyaegbunam et al (1998) contend that Participatory Communication Appraisal is anchored on the definition of communication that explains it as an interactive process characterised by the exchange of ideas, information, points of view and experiences between persons and groups. In Participatory Communication Appraisal, the sharing of information is of paramount importance and people are considered important

sources of information and ideas worth listening to. As such, passiveness is non-existent in this process because it requires active mental cooperation for everyone involved until a common awareness and understanding is reached.

The origins of Participatory Communication Appraisal can be traced to the participatory methods that started to emerge in the 1970s when many development workers were becoming disillusioned with the progress and achievement of development activities, especially in rural areas. There was a realisation that the wealth of collective indigenous knowledge among rural people, despite most of them not undergoing formal education, could be used to raise their living standards. It was equally realised that when rural people were involved in the identification of their own problems and needs, they are more likely to support the actions needed to address the situation.

Indigenous knowledge refers to the unique, traditional, local knowledge existing within and developed around the specific conditions of women and men indigenous to a particular geographic area (Grenier, 1998). More importantly, it ought to be pointed out that for each community, the development of indigenous knowledge systems, covering all aspects of life, including the management of the natural environment, has been a matter of survival to the peoples who generated these systems. Such knowledge systems are cumulative, representing generations of experiences, careful observations, and trial-and-error experiments.

All members of a community (that is, elders, women, men, and children) have indigenous ecological knowledge. Despite this, the quantity and quality of the indigenous knowledge that individuals possess varies. Age, education, gender, social and economic status, daily experiences, external influences, roles and responsibilities in the home and community, profession, available time, aptitude and intellectual capability, level of curiosity and observation skills, ability to travel and degree of autonomy, and control over natural resources are some of the influencing factors (Grenier, 1998).

CHAPTER FOUR

LITERATURE REVIEW

4.0 Introduction

This section is divided in two parts. Firstly, it provides a historical synopsis of the three main theoretical perspectives or paradigms in the field of international development, that is, the modernisation paradigm, the dependency theory with its related world-systems theory, and the participatory communication approach. This is necessitated by the fact that the latter paradigm, on which this research work was largely premised, can only be appreciated and placed in the right perspective through an understanding of the manner in which it developed and evolved. In addition, a review of research works conducted in some parts of the world relevant for this study will be considered so as to appreciate the study from a global, regional and local perspective. Important, nevertheless, is that the term ‘paradigm’, in this context, it should be noted, is used in its general sense to denote a set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitutes a way of viewing reality for the community that shares them, especially in an intellectual discipline.

4.1 Modernisation Paradigm

The modernisation paradigm, which rose to prominence soon after the World War II, argues that “the best, if not the only way, to achieve successful development consists in the adoption and diffusion of those values and approaches that ensured the success of the Western way of life” (Mefalopulos, 2003: 22). Proponents of the theory argued that at the level of the individual, modernisation required a high degree of empathy and an attitude ready to abandon traditional beliefs in order to embrace change. At a cultural level, they further contended that for society to develop, what was required was an open mentality guided by faith in the scientific approach. At the political level, development required the adoption of the democratic system which was regarded as being indispensable for progress. Finally, at the economic level, the paradigm advocated a strong belief in the virtues an economy run on the basis of the free market and in the liberal doctrine.

Modernisation, then also known as the dominant paradigm, considered development as a linear, cumulative, evolutionary and unidirectional process (Servaes, 1991). Advocates of the paradigm, such as Rostow (1960) in his *The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto*, were firm in their belief that countries are responsible for their own conditions and levels of development. In fact, he argued that “it is possible to identify all societies, in their economic dimensions, as lying within one of five categories: the traditional society, the preconditions for take-off, the take-off, the drive to maturity, and the age of high mass-consumption” (Rostow, 1960:4).

As such, the only way to bridge the gap between developed and underdeveloped countries of the Third World, modernisation pundits concluded, were for the latter to take advantage of the assistance offered by the richer countries and try to follow in their footsteps. Mefalopulos, (2003) argues that communication, and the media in particular, were regarded as a primary instrument needed to achieve, maintain and strengthen modernity. Communication, in this paradigm, was conceived as a one-way process of passing messages from one point to many others, by and large in a vertical, top-down fashion.

The modernisation paradigm led to the first systematic attempts to apply communication in development. After World War II, a number of scholars, among them Lasswell (1948), Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) and Klapper (1960), began devoting increasing attention to investigating communication processes and their effects on audiences. Some of them, such as Lerner (1958), Rogers (1962) and Schramm (1964), had a specific interest in studying how communication could be used to foster national development, which, as has already been stated, at that time was considered predominantly in economic terms. These were among the most prominent scholars promoting the core beliefs of the dominant paradigm, which included a ‘blind’ faith in science, liberal democracy, a free market economy and the need for people, particularly those in the Third World, to quickly adapt to a changing world.

The main role of communication, as conceived in this paradigm, was that of promoting the adoption and expansion of modernisation practices. The top-down structure of authority attributed to this paradigm by Melkote (1991) does not apply only to the

economic and political dimensions, but to every aspect of social life, including communication. The basic model suggested a one-way linear communication flow with a sender passing a message to a receiver (which usually would be a mass audience) through certain given channels. The models of the media related to this paradigm, such as the Hypodermic Needle and the Bullet theories, mistakenly attributed an overwhelming influence to media, and erroneously considered the receiver as a mere passive entity at the mercy of the message sender. This one-dimensional conception of communication, as Dare (2008) would argue, treated individuals as objects, denying them agency and relying on the assumption that listeners are simply passive receivers of messages which are crafted (either well or poorly) by the sender. In contrast, Freire (1979) highlights the importance of viewing individuals as active participants in social change, negating the concept of the 'passive receiver'.

With time, communication studies reviewed the influence of the media and it was later acknowledged that their impact was not as direct and paramount as earlier believed. Theoretical models, such as the two-step flow and the diffusion theory, recognised that the audience's reception was a more complex phenomenon than originally envisioned, but did not question the validity of the one-way flow of information vertically going from the top to the bottom (Mefalopulos, 2003). Even if communication models influenced by the modernisation paradigm have seldom been labelled as propaganda, it is not difficult to see their manipulative intent. It cannot be denied that the media have been used to transform the traditional-thinking attitude of people into a modern one. In the past, the use of communication in development projects and practices has been associated mainly with mass media. The United Nations even set up indicators about the desirable per capita percentage a country should have in terms of television sets, radio receivers and newspaper. Furthermore, UNESCO, in its 1978 General Conference, stated that media were a vital tool in promoting change.

Despite all the financial and human resources poured into developing countries, the modernisation approach did not result in significant successes. The 1970s did not witness the expected outcomes and the optimism based in the scientific and modern approaches of theoreticians, practitioners and leaders around the world gradually faded away. In the

1980s, things became even worse as large numbers of people in many developing countries experienced a significant decline in their living standards (Chambers, 1997). For this reason, the modernisation paradigm has been increasingly critiqued from a number of perspectives and for a number of reasons.

First of all, it is considered to be highly ethnocentric or Westerncentric, disregarding other possible values and approaches to life different from those of the West. In this respect, Servaes (1991) notes how the dichotomy between modernity versus tradition is a biased one, with no real scientific or objective grounds for its justification. He considers the modernisation paradigm to be theoretically flawed, as it put the blame on developing countries without solid arguments. From a methodological point of view, he criticises it because it is rooted in the tradition of evolutionism, which does not pay particular attention to the source of change. From a logical point of view, he criticises its theoretical assumptions that wrongly appear to imply that a sequence of events in chronological order is enough to establish a link of cause-effect (Servaes, 1991).

Finally, one of the major points raised against modernisation by many of its critics consists in the predominant, if not exclusive, focus on the economic dimension, thus neglecting other aspects of human life. Criticisms to this paradigm became so intense that even their main proponents started to re-evaluate some of its major assumptions. Even Rogers (1976) openly acknowledged some of the main flaws and announced “the passing of the dominant paradigm.” He started to reflect upon those flaws and paid more attention to the people at the other end of the development equation by recognising the need for a different, more people-based, approach.

4.2 Dependency and World-Systems Theories

The criticisms against the modernisation theory resulted in the emergence of an alternative theoretical approach that originated in Latin America from a political-economic perspective. This was the dependency theory. One of its founding fathers, and most passionate proponent, Frank (1969), criticised modernisation scholars, arguing that they usually placed the full responsibility, and the blame, for the conditions of

underdevelopment mainly within the developing countries. Based on a structural analysis of the international capitalist system, Frank (1969) considered development and underdevelopment as part of the same process, caused by specific historical, economic and political factors. The causes of underdevelopment, he said, are not located internally within countries, but externally (such as in their colonial past and other forms of exploitations), a view aggressively articulated by Rodney (1973:1) by quoting the words of Che Guevara, in he stated that the underdevelopment of Third World countries "correspond[s] strictly to the nature of the capitalist system in full expansion, which transfers to the dependent countries the most abusive and barefaced forms of exploitation...the only way to solve the questions now besetting mankind is to eliminate completely the exploitation of dependent countries by developed capitalist countries, with all the consequences that this implies."

According to the dependency theory, the imbalance in the world's scenario is due to the international division of labour and to the continuation of patterns of domination. In this conception, the core countries are considered to take advantage of their technological superiority and know-how, advanced infrastructure and economic power to strengthen their lead while the main role of the peripheral countries continues to be that of supplying raw materials and cheap labour. In order to overcome this situation of dependency and develop, the countries in the periphery are required to become economically self-reliant, break the economic ties of dependency and form alliances among themselves in order to assume a more political clout with the ultimate goal of changing the overall international set of relationships.

In this respect, the dependency theory fueled the demands for the New International Economic Order. It had a significant impact in the development policies of a number of Third World countries, especially in the 1970s and early 1980s, resulting in the adoption of import-substitution policies by many of those countries (Escobar, 1995). This strategy was aimed at protecting national industries from external competition by subsidising them and imposing high tariffs on imported products. The objective was to stimulate the growth of domestic industrialisation (McMichael, 1996) in order to reduce or sever their ties of dependency with richer countries. Even though this strategy appeared to be

partially successful in a few countries such as Brazil, it failed to achieve its goals in most countries. The result of protecting and supporting local industries often resulted in poor quality products and in inefficient productivity processes. This led to the necessity of asking for more loans and resulted in a new kind of financial and political dependency (Servaes, 1991).

With regard to communication, the dependency proponents advocated a coalition of Third World countries in order to counterbalance the power of the First and Second World countries. They also proposed that developing countries should increase the amount of trading, communication and information exchange. The acknowledgement of Third World countries' common status as an oppressed force assisted in compacting them into a more homogeneous movement, such as the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM), which some significant results in the 1980s. The debates on a New International Economic Order (NIEO) and a New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) started to gain momentum on the agenda of most international institutions, making the West very nervous. However, with the fall of the Soviet Union, the bargaining power of the Non-Aligned Movement was greatly reduced, and the NWICO demands gradually lost relevance.

Dependency theory has been critiqued for being rather too simplistic in dividing the world into two blocs, that is, the core and periphery. This categorisation neglects to recognise the fact that there are also internal factors affecting the development of nations, such as the role of national elites (Servaes, 1991). These elites have often formed strategic alliances with those of the developed world and they have played a significant role in shaping, often in negative ways, the development process of their countries. In this way, by ascribing the causes of underdevelopment strictly to the centre of international capitalism, dependency theorists neglect to consider other causes contributing to the same problem (Worsley, 1984).

Another critique regards the fact that no attention is given to the difference in the political-economic status of developing countries, resulting in a big and potentially rich country as Brazil or India being put in the same category of much poorer countries such

as Honduras or Mozambique. The world-systems theory refines the theoretical model of dependency and, through the work of Hopkins and Wallerstein (1982) overcomes its flaws by adopting a more holistic approach, encompassing world dynamics within a single system), starting with a historical analysis dating back to the sixteenth century, interprets the global scenario as a unified world-system.

The mechanisms operating at national and international levels are those typical of capitalism and, despite its many forms, once deprived by its different attributes, the essence of that system remains the capitalist one. Hence, the dynamics of international relations and the causes for underdevelopment can all be considered internal to the system, according to the international division of labour and the control of resources. By dividing the world into four main categories (the core, the semi-periphery, the periphery and the external arena), Hopkins and Wallerstein (1982) address some of the flaws resulting from the oversimplified division of the dependency theory (that divided the world into two camps). His main contribution consists in elevating the framework for analysis from a national to a global level. In this way, he eliminates many of the fallacies encountered in the dependency paradigm.

As it is usually the case for doctrines close to Marxist positions, world systems theory has been criticised for its strong emphasis on economic factors. Nevertheless, this critique may not entirely be justified, since describing and analysing the international scenario as defined and constructed by capitalism would inevitably lead to focusing on economic considerations. It should be also noted that Wallerstein (1982), even if giving primacy to economy factors, openly acknowledges the importance of political and cultural elements in a number of his writings.

4.3 Towards an Alternative Paradigm: Participatory Communication

The search for a different vision and approach in development practices is currently linked with people’s participation and empowerment. Participation is a concept that has been gaining increasing recognition and prestige both in the discourse and in the practices of development. Its significance consists in the attempt to transform people from passive

recipients into active agents of development efforts. There are a number of reasons for this shift. Probably the major one is the one stated by Ascroft and Masilela when they put it that “if peasants do not control or share control of the processes of their own development, there can be no guarantee that it is their best interest that is being served” (1994: 282). Nowadays, it has become fashionable for most development programmes to carry the participatory mark, as a sign of purification from the mistakes of the past.

Perhaps the most sincere and decisive admission to be made is the one conceded by Mefapolous, and shared by Jennings (2000), when he affirms that:

the wide convergence in participatory approaches has not resulted in a unified paradigm, but rather it has generated a number of well-intentioned models, not always consistent with each other. Among this archipelago of approaches a few are worthwhile mentioning: the Multiplicity Paradigm (Servaes 1991), the Autonomous Development (Carmen, 1996), Another Development (Melkote, 1991; Jacobson, 1994) derived from the conception of former United Nations' Secretary General Dag Hammarskjold and further promoted in the Cocoyoc Declaration, the Empowerment Approach (Friedmann, 1992), the Liberation Approach (Freire, 1997), the Dialogue Paradigm (Guba, 1990) and all the heterogeneous conception of the participatory, people-based development, such as that of Chambers (1997) and many others. The participatory paradigm is a frequently used term meant to describe this family of approaches (2003:30).

Despite its more limited use, it would not be imprudent to refer to the dialogue paradigm, as suggested by Guba (1990), as being the ideal because dialogue is at the core of participation, communication and even empowerment (Freire, 1997). In addition, dialogue implies a positive and constructive attitude towards problems and possible conflicts. Differently from the proponents of the modernisation and the dependency paradigms, most of the advocates of this ‘paradigm-to-be,’ or group of theoretical approaches, are not even attempting to provide a grand-theory, aimed at a theoretical interpretation of the world. They seem more interested in identifying and analysing drawbacks and limitations of current development practices, especially at the community level, and in attempting to identify normative approaches that could provide operational guidelines in the field. Some of the basic features of this approach are the emphasis on people, the endogenous vision of development and attention to power issues.

4.4 Importance of Participatory Communication

Mefalopulos (2003), like many development scholars, acknowledges that participatory communication is increasingly being considered a key component of development projects around the world and argues that although the history of development can be traced back to many centuries, perhaps even to the beginning of human history, citing Esteva (1992: 6), he traces the current western conception of international development to soon after the Second world War, when then United States of America President, Harry Truman, in his inaugural speech stated: "We must embark on a bold new programme for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas." This statement marked a more systematic and visible attempt to 'divide' the world into rich and poor, modern and traditional, developed and underdeveloped countries Mefalopulos (2003). Since then, the course of development has been widely criticised by a number of scholars and practitioners who have often compared it to an attempt to 'modernise' or 'westernise' the world (Esteva, 1992).

More than fifty years after Truman's speech and following considerable investments in human, material and financial resources aimed at helping Third World countries, developments efforts have been marked by major failures. There have been only few significant improvements in the lives of poor people of most developing countries (Bradshaw & Wallace, 1996). The lack of participation in the decision-making process of the so-called beneficiaries of development projects and programmes has been identified as one of the main reasons for these failures. This prompted a new focus in development in order to take into account people's participation. But in order to occur effectively and genuinely, participation must be characterised by a horizontal flow of communication, which should be based primarily on dialogue. For this reason, people's right to participate in decision-making processes concerning their lives must seriously be taken into account. If certainly the lack of participation is a major reason for the failures of most development efforts, communication must be part of the equation in turning things around.

Mefalopulos (2003:3), in making his assessment, argues that “most, if not all, international [development] agencies are now incorporating participatory approaches in their development projects since participation has become the dominating ideology in contemporary thinking in both non-governmental organisations and governmental/inter-governmental agencies.” At a global level, for example, the United Nations (UN), in its Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1945 considers the freedom of participation, association and expression as being inseparable ingredients in the creation of an enabling environment for peace and sustained development and treats these as human rights (UNDP, 2000). The Declaration further acknowledges the individual’s right to take part in the governance of his or her country, the equal access to public service in the country and the freedom to freely participate in the cultural life of the community. More interesting on the part of the UN is the admission that “people do not want to be passive participants... they want to have an active part in the decisions and events that shape their lives” (UNDP, 2000:38).

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) equally concedes that people’s participation is fundamental in seeking to grapple with the challenges Southern Africa is faced with. This is because in trying to contend with the major interrelated challenges of establishing good governance with enduring systems of democracy and sustainable human development in the region, SADC (1998) reported that the indissoluble relationship between the two concepts is indivisible, concluding, though, that they could only be sustained through the active participation of citizens.

Similarly, crucial relevance must also be ascribed to communication, which now, more than before, is considered an indispensable element for guaranteeing the success and sustainability of development projects. The relevance of participation and communication has been openly acknowledged in a number of international conferences, among many others, such as the Earth Summit in 1992, the International Conference on Population and Development in 1994, the World Summit in 1995, the World Food Summit in 1996.

4.5 Defining Participatory Communication

Participation and communication, being terms that have been hard to define, have been used in a number of ways both in theory and in practice (Rosengren, 2000; Conrad and Poole, 2002; Hauser, 1997). Even though participatory methods have been in use for some time, only recently have they been widely acknowledged as a crucial component, if not a universal right in itself, of development practices. Participatory communication denotes the theory and practices of communication used to involve people in the decision-making of the development process Mefalopulos (2003). The lack of, or the inappropriate use of, participation and communication are among the main causes of project failure.

Dare (2008) makes the important observation that although there are various definitions of participatory communication for development, three key concepts underlie most of them. The first concerns the process of participation, which involves the collective investigation and analysis of a problem, generation of solutions and group action. This presumes local participation at every stage of the development process. It is important to recognise that groups will not necessarily move sequentially through these steps, but rather will be continually negotiating as they strive to solve the problem.

A second important element of participatory communication concerns the nature of facilitation. It requires that development agents act as catalysts for change, and work to create an environment which is conducive to people's critical realisations. Facilitators of participation must be sensitive to local traditions, and spend extended periods of time living and interacting with local people. Implicit in these requirements for facilitation is a validation of local knowledge. A third key aspect central to definitions of participatory communication is the requirement that local or indigenous knowledge must occupy a central role in development planning.

4.10 Relevant Studies

Asare (2002) conducted a study whose primary objective was to analyse contrasting accounts of the success of a rural development project, given by the public officials who ran it and the intended local beneficiaries in Ghana. The survey involved the Tono Irrigation Scheme in Ghana, situated in Navrongo district, which lies in the Northern Savanna zone of the country. In the survey, 200 questionnaires were administered to farmers on the site of the irrigation project. These farmers were initially displaced from their ancestral lands due to the construction of a dam across Tono River to create a 1,860 hectare (4,600 acre) reservoir with a capacity of 93 million cubic metres of water, of which 37 million cubic metres were to be used for irrigation.

Instead, they were given other plots on which to farm. The dam was the result of a survey conducted in 1962 by the government of Ghana with the support of the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO). The dam, completed in 1985 with loans from the Canadian and British governments, gobbled a total amount of US\$40 million (Asare, 2002). The displaced farmers were organised into seven village committees with each committee administering a set of plots at the irrigation site. Farmers in all seven villages were interviewed and probed for their farming practices, crop yield, labour employment, their use of modern farming inputs and their relations with the Irrigation Company of Upper East Region (ICOUR), the firm that was running the project for the government.

Interestingly, though, the results regarding the impact of the project on food production were varying. The official version, according to ICOUR indicated that in relation to farm yields, irrigation had improved the production of staple foods in the area. Farm yields in sorghum millet, the chief staple, increased by more than 100 per cent between 1987 and 1992. Farm yields in maize and tomatoes also doubled while rice production increased by 38 per cent (Asare, 2002).

On the other hand, data from the survey, tapping the experiences of farmers regarding yields on their irrigated farms, revealed that 31 per cent (61 farmers) reported an increase while 67 per cent (133 farmers) reported no such increase. Although the project seems to

have had a modest impact on standards of living, social problems increased, according to the respondents. The survey showed that farmers were concerned that social disruption in the community had worsened as a consequence of the dam project (Asare, 2002). For example, divorce rates rose, disrespect for elders, prostitution, alcohol abuse, noise and cases of heightened criminal activities were reported to have been on the increase. In addition, the project disrupted the land tenure system in the community as farmers became tenants of ICOUR. In contrast, on the other hand, according to ICOUR data, the project was a success as agricultural productivity in the area had increased. But the farmers, who were the intended beneficiaries, it must be emphasised, had provided an alternative means of evaluating the project. From their point of view, it was not as spectacular in achieving its objectives and social impact.

Rural development projects like the one at Tono may at times unavoidably lead to some changes in forms of social organisation. However, planning around local needs, making use of the local institutions and cultural practices, and involving people in the layout and design of the project could have generated more satisfaction with the results and eased the strains of loss and cultural change. Their involvement could also have given them a sense of commitment to the project, especially as they were called upon to bear the cost of operating it.

At the time the project was being conceived, however, economic considerations overshadowed any other aspects of reality. For peasant farmers, however, economic productivity was contingent upon other factors and realities. Consequently, their views were often incompatible with those of the technocrats, politicians and donors. It is such results from well-intended projects that led Asare (2002) to conclude that the failure to involve local community members in planning, implementing and managing projects does not generate popular participation and confidence. Furthermore, there was no initial effort to provide adequate information to the indigenous residents on both the negative and positive consequences of the project.

In 1994, the state of Bolivia promulgated the Law of Popular Participation, which law was intended to institutionalise a Participatory Municipal Planning Methodology. This

law, together with the privatisation of state assets, was at the centre of an ambitious programme of structural reform implemented by President Sanchez de Lozada's government between 1993 and 1997 (Goudsmit and Blackburn, 2001). It was aimed at strengthening the country's 314 municipalities. Apart from the central government transferring the responsibility to the local municipal of managing 20 per cent of state revenues, the law stipulates that the "local population participate in the planning and management of social and economic projects at the municipal level" Goudsmit and Blackburn (2001: 587). This represented a radical shift in the country's governance as it countered a historical trend in which the state had been excessively centrist, providing little or no support to the municipalities, particularly those in more remote areas.

In a study conducted by Goudsmit and Blackburn (2001), it was revealed that promoting popular participation at the level of the municipal in Bolivia presented a formidable methodological challenge because it was the first time that local people had been expected to participate so explicitly in local government. The participatory model advocated by the government, though enjoying prime time on local radio and television stations, has had its shortcomings. The first is that the Law of Popular Participation did not come about as a result of a civil society-driven process. Rather, it was the result of the creativity of a small group of intellectuals who drafted it practically behind closed doors, because, according to Goudsmit and Blackburn (2001: 587) "they did not want their work to be hijacked by the regional elites or trade unions defending their respective interests".

In addition, the state did not invite the municipalities to take part in the design of the law and its participatory planning methodology which resulted, in the end, in them being obliged to adopt a planning methodology for which they had no prior knowledge. Despite the broad consensus in much of the literature that planning (especially that which claims to be participatory) is a process that must be open and flexible, the municipalities had to contend with the rigid and taut methodology proposed by the government. As a result, a poor inter-institutional coordination, especially at the level of government and municipalities was observed whose consequence was to unsurprisingly limit the participation of local people in decision-making processes because of the mixed messages that ensued (Nicod, 1996:77).

One other contradiction was that the government's participatory planning methodology, as enshrined in the law, required differential participation in which population groups were divided in groups based on demographic factors like gender and socio-economic strata. This had a negative impact on two municipalities - Pocoata and Ucuri - where the indigenous population has its own internal and external mechanisms which do not mesh well with the idea of differential participation. Although literature on these mechanisms is thin, observers argue that they have a relatively balanced system of representative participation which is negatively affected by differential participation (Goudsmit and Blackburn, 2001).

Although the Law of Popular Participation was an important contribution to rural development in Bolivia, the initiation of the law, according to Goudsmit and Blackburn (2001), did not sufficiently take into account the concept of participation as negotiation, which in some circumstances, both internal to the process of negotiation (space, time, participants and techniques) and external (socio-economic situation, legal regime and level of organisation) entails that certain compromises are reached on what the local population's problems are and their resultant needs. Negotiation, by its very nature, presupposes the existence of at least two actors who confront each other and communicate. However, participatory planning, as envisioned in the law, did not allow for the participation of families, municipal governments and planning consultants in the design of that participatory planning.

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) that was held in Cairo, Egypt in 1994 offered a historical turning point in the way population policies and programmes are conceptualised and delivered. The ICPD suggested a plan of action that recommended the provision of a range of reproductive health services to both men and women that were not only safe and effective, but also sought to satisfy the needs and wants of clients. Mir, et al (2002:89) state that clients are far more likely to use services that are of high quality and that "achieving quality care requires complying with high technical and ethical standards (such as freedom of choice, informed consent, and freedom from coercion and abuse)", adding that among the most common barriers to

quality are “negative provider attitudes or behaviours, poor interactions between clients and providers”.

In the context of the ICPD, Mir et al (2002), in a study carried out in Pakistan, attributed certain factors to the excessive female mortality rates during childhood and childbearing. Prominent among them was the lack of access to reproductive health services. Obstacles to access were due to both societal factors that include women’s autonomy and status as well as the quality of care provided at care facilities. A major impediment both women and men encountered at reproductive health centres was the nature interaction that takes place between the provider and the clients. This study is significant in that Pakistan has among the worst reproductive indicators in the developing world as access to health and educational facilities, especially in rural areas, is outstandingly poor. For example, maternal and infant mortality rates are as high as 500 per 100,000 and 80 per 1,000 births, respectively, while malnutrition, anaemia and reproductive tract infections are widely prevalent in women and, due to high female mortality rates during childhood and childbearing, the sex ratio at 108 per 108 is extremely unfavourable to women (Mir, et al, 2002).

The success of this interaction, which depends on the providers’ ability to ascertain and assess clients’ needs and by the former’s ability to suggest a solution that the latter would be able to implement, cannot be overemphasised. This because its outcome essentially determines whether the needs of clients are met to their satisfaction and whether they would be able to address these needs. Also, the client-provider interaction is influenced by the manner in which providers behave with their clients. Most often, the study revealed, provider behaviour acts as a barrier that inhibits clients from being able to fully discuss and describe their needs. Specifically, they found that the behaviour adopted by providers is rooted in the training received by doctors and paramedics in most countries, especially in Pakistan. Doctors, trained in tertiary medical institutions, receive no formal training on how to approach and engage patients. Instead, they tend to emulate their superiors who deal with their patients on an “unequal footing” and that even providers trained in counselling to provide family planning services “subscribe to the school of thought that holds clients to be ignorant, who have to be informed” Mir, et al (2002:840).

As a result, emphasis is placed on telling the clients what to do, rather than on asking and assessing their medical situations. As a result, they blame clients for their conditions, pass judgmental remarks and discourage asking questions or seeking clarifications and rarely are reassurance and sympathy extended. And once a prescription is handed over, seldom is it enquired whether the client will comply with the instructions, from where the medicines could be obtained, whether the client can afford the medicines or, indeed, whether or not there are alternatives available to the prescribed treatment. Unfortunately, this kind of interaction sustains the equilibrium of power in favour of the providers who believe that, by giving away or sharing information, they would lose some of their own powers.

To deal with this problem, the Population Council of Pakistan tested the quality of health care in Tehsil Bhalwal, Sargodha District with the aim of bringing behaviour change among service providers vis-à-vis their interaction with clients in order to assess, identify their needs and help them negotiate a mutually agreeable solution that could be implemented. The area was divided into four quadrants, two intervention sites and two served as control and for the first time, 180 community-based and static health facilities from population and health departments were trained for 10 months (Mir, et al, 2002).

Following the training, the trainers observed client-provider interactions to obtain in-depth qualitative data on the perceptions of the providers regarding the training and its implementation. The results achieved were remarkable in the intervention areas. The providers, through focus group discussions and interviews, observed that clients were able to comfortably articulate their health needs and wants better than previously. They were able to ask questions to seek clarification on any alternatives available and expressed dissatisfaction on certain prescribed reproductive interventions. This, according to the health providers, could directly be attributed to the training they had received which honed their skills in negotiation and information sharing, thereby empowering clients to take charge and appropriately address their needs. The opposite was the case in the control area.

In 2007, the Anti-Corruption Commission (ACC) of Zambia contracted the Zambia

Evaluation Association (ZEA) to investigate the nature, causes and extent of corruption in the administration of the Constituency Development Funds in eight out of the country's total of 150 constituencies. These included Chilanga, Mpika Central, Lwitikila, Mufulira Central, Mumbwa Central, Kankoyo, Mwembeshi and Livingstone Central constituencies. Due to budgetary constraints, the study was carried out in only five districts out of the country's fifty-two. These included Kafue, Mpika, Mufulira, Mumbwa and Livingstone. The report resulting from the research has to date remained unpublished. This notwithstanding, it is vitally important in the sense that it brought to the fore some important aspects relating to the manner in which the funds are being utilised in some constituencies.

It must be clarified, nevertheless, that the emphasis in the study was to focus on matters related to corruption, which is why it was ultimately unsurprisingly stated in its preamble that "the CDF seems to be affected, among other things, by problems of observance of regulations and procurement procedures inevitably leading to acts of corrupt practices" (ZEA, 2007: 2). This is because in the initial years following inception, its administration lacked guidelines while in the later years, after their creation, they were flouted, in some cases, with impunity. The poor accountability led to a continuous wastage of financial resources for the council. Compounding this has been the political patronage by councillors who in most cases have not shown immunity to political influences, and in some cases, manipulation. It cannot be denied that the introduction of CDF not only reduced financial resources to the council, but equally increased its areas of responsibility.

The study, it must be noted, despite applying appropriate secondary and primary data collection techniques, had a limited sample. When the exercise was ongoing, Parliament at the time was in session. As a consequence, the study team was only able to interview one Member of Parliament. In addition, the team's efforts to talk to the appropriate parliamentary committee, that is, the Committee on Governance and Chief's Affairs, proved futile because MPs would demand a sitting allowance. In the eight constituencies that were sampled, only ten respondents in each were asked to fill in a questionnaire, resulting in a total population of 80, although only 78 completed them. Such a sample,

involving five districts and eight constituencies, is definitely not representative for the entire country. Most importantly, the report did not analyse the role ordinary members of constituencies play or can play in CDF projects. Neither was any mention made as to whether corrupt activities in relation to the use of CDF affects the participation of residents in any involvement in funded projects or if the ignorance of information by members of the community accounted for the corrupt activities by officials administering the funds. As such, the study had a very narrow scope.

In 2002, Transparency International Zambia (TIZ) commissioned a study to investigate the problems of effectiveness in service delivery, accountability and transparency of local authorities in Zambia. The findings revealed, among other things, that the establishment of the Constituency Development Fund is another source of problems relating to accountability and which somewhat adversely affects the operations of councils (Moomba, 2002). Though channelling funds directly to the users may be intended to give maximum benefit to the intended beneficiaries, it also reduced the financial resources of councils because the Constituency Development Fund is not controlled by the councils but by the Constituency Development Committees which are not chaired by elected leaders who would be accountable to the people.

Moomba (2002) further noted the role of popular participation in governance at the local level and considered it significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, it is a means of obtaining information about local conditions, needs, and attitudes, without which development programmes and projects can fail. Secondly, people are more likely to be committed to a development project or programme if they are involved in its planning and preparation, because they are more likely to identify with it and see it as their project. He further argues that it is necessary to have such a commitment in order to ensure that a project will be accepted or adopted. Apart from this, it is also important for ensuring local assistance in the construction or maintenance of the project. Local contributions in cash or kind may be easier to get for self-help projects if people see these as something they have helped to initiate.

This study, though making allusion to the CDF, was mainly preoccupied with

investigating problems of effectiveness in service delivery, accountability and transparency of local authorities in Zambia in general, and on how they have been working in the ten years after 1992 in order to propose ways on how best the local government system can be made effective, accountable and transparent in particular. Reference was made to CDF because these authorities, or councils, are the ones that hold CDF accounts for the constituencies, a fact that has inevitably led to the involvement of councils in the utilisation of these funds. No suggestions were made concerning the communicative aspects that would contribute to heightened participation in CDF projects.

Another factor related to the Constituency funds has to do with their inadequacy. Kachali (2007) writes that they are inadequate and compares with Malawi, where the amount is higher. He further makes mention of the fact that countries like Kenya, Malawi and Ghana many others are getting not less than a billion in kwacha terms for each constituency. He further contends that there is need to push for more funds in the future so that people in the constituencies could see tangible development.

An aspect that has negatively impacted on the usage of the funds is the heavy political interference. For example, Silwamba (2006) explains how a District Commissioner Timothy Musonda admitted to making a mistake by including many MMD youth wing members on the youth constituency development fund committee without following the laid down guidelines. He further notes that a former member of parliament, Stephen Manjata, used K1 million from the Constituency Development Fund account for unknown purposes.

The use of CDFs has been a subject of debate in Zambia's Parliament, where MPs both from opposition political parties and the government have raised concerns on the utilisation of these funds. Responding to these, then Minister of Local Government and Housing, late Benny Tetamashimba, who on Friday, November 28, 2008 delivered a ministerial statement on the release of that year's Constituency Development Funds, emphasised that that councils, which are the custodians of these funds, are required to prepare progress reports on the usage of the funds before another allocation for the following year can be allocated to any constituency. In addition, following petitions by

MPs on the CDF allocation of 10 per cent for administrative purposes in the management of projects, Tetamshimba stated that “I have, therefore, decided that only K20 million per constituency will be retained by the council for administrative costs” because, as he argued, “it is too high to be deducted from CDF” (GRZ, 2008:4). But it is important to ask some pertinent questions here. For example, why did the minister make this decision single-handedly? Did he consult? If so, who did he consult? And what criteria did he use in arriving at K20 million? Also, how would this impact on the implementation of CDF projects? Decisions such as this that are made in a unilateral fashion and are expected to be unquestionably adopted impede the participation of stakeholders which has now become an established orthodoxy in development thinking and practice

In addition, the minister went further to say that the ministry was intending to have MPs consulted in order to come up with new guidelines that were going to be acceptable to stakeholders and MPs (GRZ, 2008). In saying this, the minister was effectively conceding the fact that the formulation of CDF guidelines was not conducted in a manner that ensured the effective participation of all stakeholders. This is not surprising because over the years, the trend has been such that when putting in place guidelines, the government has only been consistent in communicating them, in a top-down manner, through Cabinet Circulars.

While delivering his ministerial speech, Tetamashimba went on to add: “Let us implement visible projects so that we can come back to Parliament after the 2011 presidential elections.... The whole purpose was to give some financial power to the Honourable Member of Parliament so that certain projects in the constituencies are implemented for him to win another election.”(GRZ, 2008: 8). This statement was disputed by PF Mandevu Member of Parliament, Jean Kapata, who argued that CDF was not meant for MPs to win an election but that was intended for ordinary Zambians to share in the national cake. It is arguments such as these that validate the view that CDFs are not always immune from being disbursed on the basis of political inclinations.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

The key findings of the study on the utilisation of CDF in Kabwata Constituency were revealing. In this chapter, these are divided into quantitative and qualitative, with the latter being divided in two categories, that is, data gathered through both in-depth interviews and a focus group discussion. The findings helped explain not only the levels of awareness, but also the communicative as well as participatory aspects of CDF usage in the constituency among the residents.

5.1 Quantitative Survey

5.1.1 Sources of Information on CDF

Among the repondents who completed the questionnaire, 58% stated that they had never listened to, watched or even read about a programme or advertisement about CDF on radio, television and newspaper. Another 41% said they had watched or even read about a programme or advertisement in the said media while 1% opted not to respond to the question.

Table 1. Sources of information on CDF

Have you ever listened/watched/read about a programmes or advertisement on CDF on radio or television or newspapers?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	41	41.0	41.0	41.0
	No	58	58.0	58.0	99.0
	Non response	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

5.1.2 Perceptions on awareness and participation in CDF projects

As the table below illustrates, Kabwata Constituency residents have their own perceptions regarding the relationship between their awareness of information on CDF and whether the availability of this information can translate into participation in CDF-funded projects. 74.7% of the respondents strongly agree to agree that if they viewed programmes and adverts on CDF, this would translate into an increased participation in projects financed from the funds. While 3% disagreed with this view, another 3% did not respond and 19% did not know whether exposure to programmes and adverts on CDF in the media would result in participation in the projects.

Table 2. Perceptions on awareness and participation in CDF projects

Do you agree that if there were programmes and adverts on TV and radio people in your constituency would have been participating more in projects financed by the CDF?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	38	38.0	38.4	38.4
	Agree	36	36.0	36.4	74.7
	I do not know	19	19.0	19.2	93.9
	Disagree	3	3.0	3.0	97.0
	Non response	3	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

5.1.3 Sources of information on CDF and their frequency

Residents of the constituency have various sources of information on the CDF. 22.4% said the information they received on CDF was through television while 20.4% said it was through radio. Only 2% and 4% said they received this information through family members and councillors, respectively, with 2% saying they had done so through their area Member of Parliament and only 1% through church members. A further 1% revealed that they had only received information on CDF through posters. However, 45% disclosed that they had never received information on CDF through the above channels and media.

Table 3. Sources of information on CDF and their frequency**In terms of frequency, where do you get more information on CDF?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Television	22	22.0	22.4	22.4
	Radio	20	20.0	20.4	42.9
	Family members	2	2.0	2.0	44.9
	Councillors	4	4.0	4.1	49.0
	MP[S]	2	2.0	2.0	51.0
	Church members	1	1.0	1.0	52.0
	posters	1	1.0	1.0	53.1
	None of the above	45	45.0	45.9	99.0
	10	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

5.1.4 Satisfaction among constituents on information about CDF**Table 4. Levels of satisfaction among constituents on information about CDF****Are you satisfied with the amount of information you receive concerning the use of CDF in your constituency?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not satisfied	70	70.0	70.0	70.0
	Very unsatisfied	13	13.0	13.0	83.0
	Very satisfied	2	2.0	2.0	85.0
	Satisfied	3	3.0	3.0	88.0
	None of the above	4	4.0	4.0	92.0
	Non response	8	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

As shown above, 83% of all respondents were not satisfied to very unsatisfied with the amount of information they were receiving concerning the utilisation of the CDF in the constituency a mere 2% and 3% were very satisfied to satisfied, respectively. In addition, 8% could not state whether or not they were or were not satisfied with the amount of information being communicated to them on CDF in the constituency.

5.1.5 Notification on CDF

Asked how or whether notification on CDF in the Kabwata Constituency was done, 56% said they did not know while 17% thought it was not at all done. This contrasts with 12% and 1% who said it was done through community meetings and posters, respectively. In addition, 1% said it was done through door-to-door with another 3% stating that they were notified through television and an additional 3% attributing their being notified through newspapers. Illustrating this is the table below.

Table 5. Notification on CDF

How is notification in your constituency on CDF done?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	community meetings	12	12.0	12.2	12.2
	Posters	1	1.0	1.0	13.3
	Door-to-door notifications	1	1.0	1.0	14.3
	It is not done	17	17.0	17.3	31.6
	Newspapers	3	3.0	3.1	34.7
	I do not know	56	56.0	57.1	91.8
	Television	3	3.0	3.1	94.9
	Non response	5	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

5.1.6 Preferences on mode of notification and awareness creation on CDF

Most of the respondents (29%) preferred to be notified and given information on CDF through community meetings. With 16% preferring notifications to be conducted door-to-door, 12% said they favoured television while 4% opted for posters in conspicuous places. It was surprising that 27%, as the table on the next page shows, which is admittedly a huge number, did not know or were not sure how they wanted to be notified. Effectively, this implies that generally, the constituents desire a multi-media approach towards the dissemination of information on CDF as revealed by their preferences on the modes in which they would like to be made aware on the matter.

Table 6 (a). Preferences on mode of notification and awareness creation on CDF

How would you prefer notification on CDF was done?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Community meetings	29	29.0	29.0	29.0
	Posters	4	4.0	4.0	33.0
	Door-to-door notifications	16	16.0	16.0	49.0
	Newspapers	9	9.0	9.0	58.0
	I do not know	27	27.0	27.0	85.0
	Television	12	12.0	12.0	97.0
	Non response	3	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

To complement Table 6 (a) above, the one below (Table 6 (b)) indicates that, actually, 50% of the respondents would like to receive information not only on radio, newspapers and television, but also directly from the Ward Development Committee, Constituency Development Committee and Lusaka City Council (District Planning Unit) officials.

Table 6 (b)

How would you want to recieve information on CDF?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Television	10	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Radio	16	16.0	16.0	26.0
	Newspapers	5	5.0	5.0	31.0
	Directly from Ward Development Committee, Constituency Develo	18	18.0	18.0	49.0
	All of the above	50	50.0	50.0	99.0
	9	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

5.1.7 Identification, participation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects

Table 7 (a). Participation in identification of CDF projects

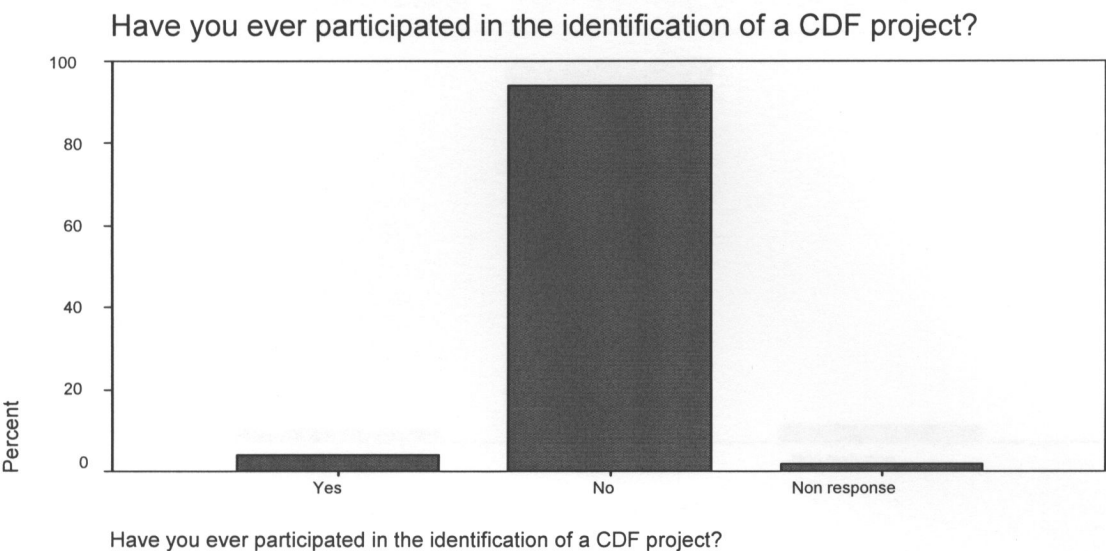


Table 7 (b). Participation in implementation of CDF projects

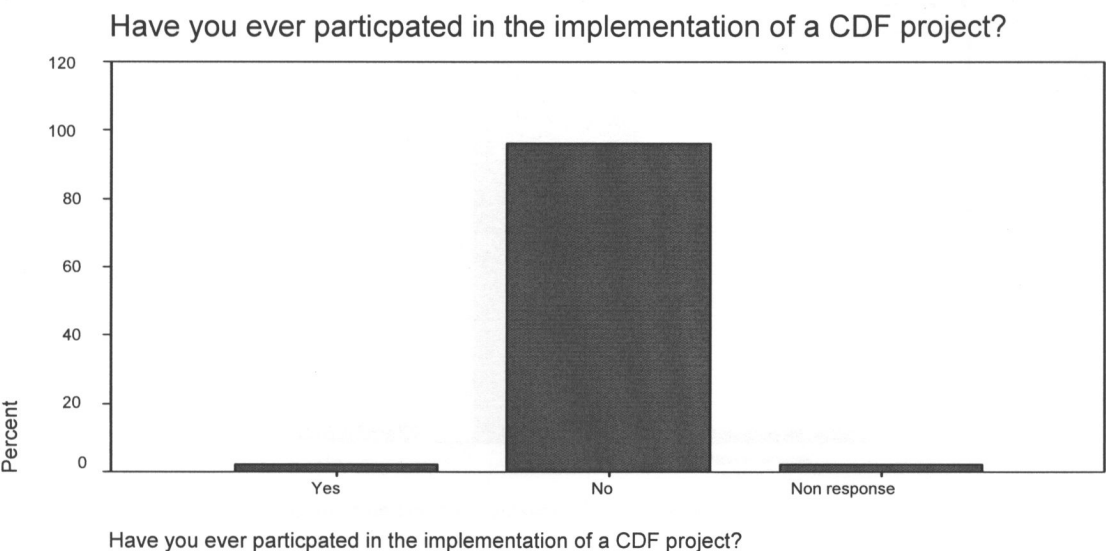


Table 7 (c). Participation in monitoring of CDF projects

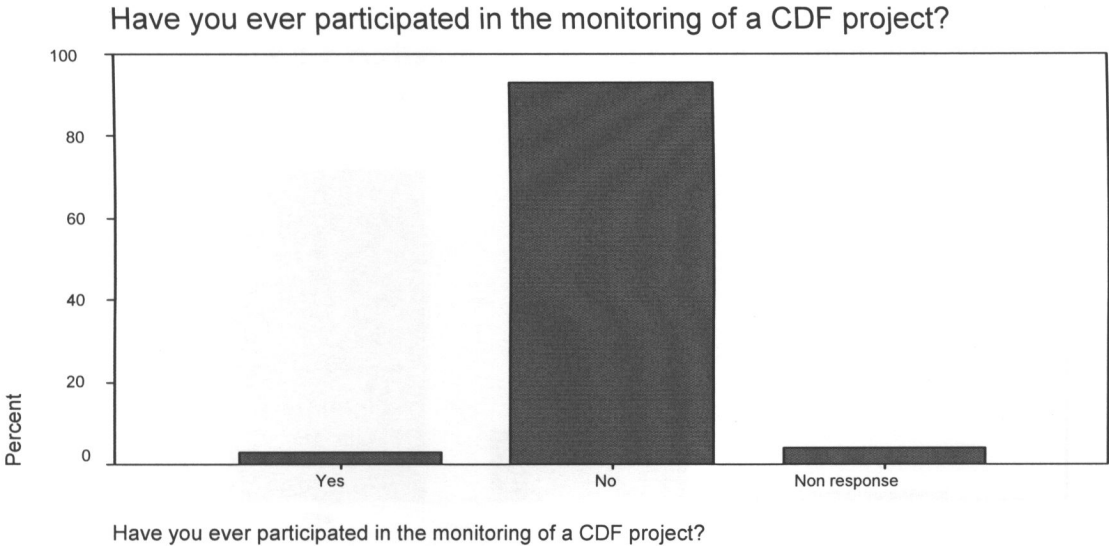
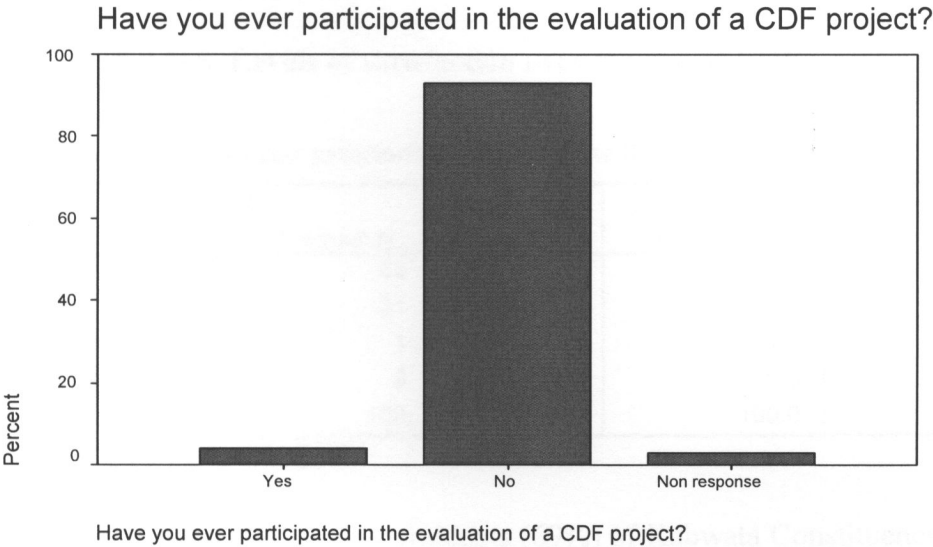
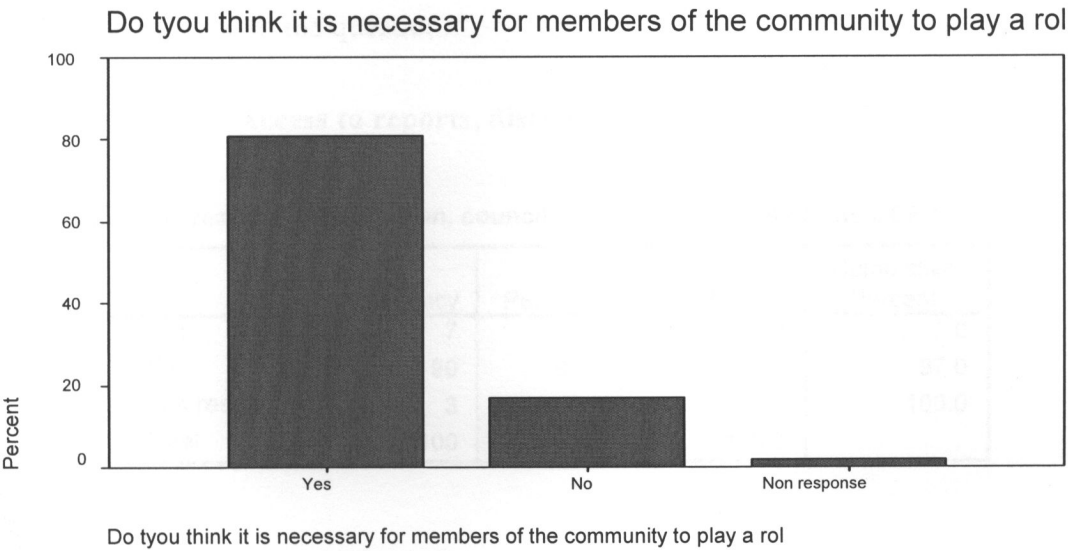


Table 7 (d). Participation in evaluation of CDF projects



Tables 7(a) to 7(d) show that the levels of participation in CDF projects by residents of Kabwata Constituency at all levels (identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation) are very low. This is despite the guidelines stating that the projects must be community driven.

Table 7 (e). Perceptions on the necessity for community participation in CDF projects



5.1.8 Satisfaction over the use of CDF

Table 8. Levels of satisfaction over the use of CDF

To what extent are you satisfied with the way the CDF has been utilised?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	69	69.0	69.0	69.0
	Little	21	21.0	21.0	90.0
	Very much	1	1.0	1.0	91.0
	Non response	9	9.0	9.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen in the table above, most residents (69%) of Kabwata Constituency are not at all satisfied with the manner in which the CDF is used. Whereas 21% are a little satisfied, only 1% are very satisfied. However, a non-response of 9% was recorded.

5.1.9 Access to reports, disrict plans, minutes on CDF

As Table 9 below shows, 90% of the respondents have never read any district plan, council nimutes or reports on CDF use in the constituency whereas 7% had read them. 3% opted not to respond to the question.

Table 9. Access to reports, disrict plans, minutes on CDF

Have you read any district plan, council minutes or reports on the CDF?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	7	7.0	7.0	7.0
	No	90	90.0	90.0	97.0
	Non response	3	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

5.1.10 Perceptions on abuse, misuse and unaccountability of CDF

Table 10. Perceptions on abuse, misuse and unaccountability of CDF

Have you suspected any misuse or unaccountability of the funds in your constituency?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	36	36.0	36.0	36.0
	No	55	55.0	55.0	91.0
	3	1	1.0	1.0	92.0
	Non response	8	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they suspected any misuse or unaccountability in way the funds in the constituency are being applied, 55% said they did not suspect any misuse while 36% said they did.

5.1.11 Knowledge of representatives on CDF committee

The respondents, when asked who represents them on the CDrf committee, responded variously. 69% did not know who represented them on the committee. While 9 % said it was their area councillor who represented them, 17% said it was their MP and a non-response of 5% was recorded (see table below).

Table 11. Knowledge of representatives on CDF committee

Who represents you on the CDF committees?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Councillors	9	9.0	9.0	9.0
	MP	17	17.0	17.0	26.0
	I do not know	69	69.0	69.0	95.0
	Non response	5	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

5.1.12 Knowledge on the role of sub-district structures (WDC, CDF and DPU) *viv-a-vis* CDF usage

Table 12 (a). Knowledge on the role of WDC *viv-a-vis* CDF usage

Do you know the role the Ward Development Committee (WDC) plays in relation to CDF?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	10	10.0	10.1	10.1
	No	83	83.0	83.8	93.9
	Non-response	7	7.0	7.1	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

The figures in the table above show that 83% of the respondents did not know the role of the Ward Development Committee (WDC) in relation to the utilisation of CDF. Only 10% knew.

Table 12 (b) Knowledge on the role of CDF Committee *viv-a-vis* CDF usage

In the table below, 85% of the respondents did not know the role of Constituency Development Fund (CDF) in relation to the utilisation of CDF. Only 13% knew.

Do you know the role the Constituency Development Committee (CDC) plays in relation to CDF?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	13	13.0	13.0	13.0
	No	85	85.0	85.0	98.0
	Non-response	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 12 (c) Knowledge on the role of DPU *viv-a-vis* CDF usage

The figures in the table below indicate that 85% of the respondents did not know the role of District Planning Unit (DPU) of the Lusaka City Council (LCC) in relation to the utilisation of CDF while only 12% knew.

Do you know the role the District Planning Unit of the Lusaka City Council plays in relation to CDF?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	12	12.0	12.0	12.0
	No	85	85.0	85.0	97.0
	Non-response	3	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

On the basis of the above three tables, therefore, an average of 84% did not know the role of these three institutions in relation how the CDF is being put to use. This compares with 11.6 % who said they knew.

5.1.13 Views on whether knowledge of sub-district structure roles can contribute to participation in CDF projects

Table 13

If your answer to questions (47), (48) and (49) is no, do you think your participation in CDF projects would be positively affected if you understood the roles of the WDC, CDC and DPU?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	60	60.0	61.2	61.2
	No	27	27.0	27.6	88.8
	Non response	10	10.0	10.2	99.0
	12	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Going by the results obtained as laid out in the figure above, 60 % of the respondents said that knowledge of sub-district structure roles (that is, the WDC, CDC and DPU) can positively contribute to their participation in CDF projects. Objecting to this were 27%.

5.2 Qualitative survey

Data for qualitative analysis was gathered through two means. The first was through in-depth interviews with key informants from the District Planning Unit at the Lusaka City Council, the Constituency Development Committee, area ward councillors and the Ward Development Committees. Due to constraints in resources and mobilisation, only one focus group discussion was conducted, and this was with the Kamulanga Ward Development Committee.

5.2.1 In-depth interviews

In-depth interviews were conducted with key informants. One was with Mr Kufanga, an environmental planner at the DPU who, due the shortage of manpower, sits on CDCs to represent the council. Asked if the DPU carries any awareness campaigns on the Constituency Development Fund through the media, he responded thus: “Actually, that is

one of the weakest points from the council's point of view. To be honest, we do not.” This is despite his being well-versed with the Revised 2006 CDF Guidelines, in particular Part 6, which states that:

the council shall invite project proposals from the communities during the first quarter of every year by way of advertisements, open meetings and fixing of posters in conspicuous locations such as notice boards of schools, clinics and churches including notifications through letters to chiefs and village headmen (GRZ, 2006: 3).

When it comes to the participation of Kabwata Constituency residents in the identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects, Mr Kufanga admitted that “individuals do not stand a chance of benefitting from these funds. Clubs, associations and such groups as marketeers stand to benefit in these projects.” Mr Kufanga further bemoaned the manner in which the CDF Guidelines are revised by the government without the input, contribution and participation of key stakeholders, the DPU inclusive. “For example”, he says, “without being consulted, the council received a memo from the local government ministry instructing that the administration costs [for CDF projects] are pegged at K20million”. This followed the announcement in 2008 by the late Local Government and Housing Minister Benny Tetamashimba in Parliament that following petitions by MPs on the CDF allocation of 10 per cent for administrative purposes in the management of projects, he had decided that only K20 million per constituency will be retained by the council for administrative costs because, as he agreed with them, it was too high to be deducted from CDF (GRZ, 2008).

The challenge this poses for the council is that projects worth K600million are expected to be administered at a total cost of K20million. This makes it extremely challenging to monitor and evaluate projects because fuel, launch and costs for allowances are supposed to be met from the same amount. In addition, projects worth more than K50m and specialised projects must be tendered. Nevertheless, tendering has an additional cost even when it is not covered for in the administration costs. He further added that when the funds were initially established, those involved did not conceive bigger projects that had to be tendered.

It was further observed, by Mr Kufanga, that there was need for an able and ever-present chairperson. “Currently”, he noted, “this is not the case as the present chairperson is not consistent in his attendance of CDF committee meetings. Simultaneously, the area Member of Parliament occasionally ‘takes over’ and dominates proceedings during meetings. There is need to counter his influence and encourage other members to adequately participate in meetings.”

Another informant, James Kilambe, who was an intern at the DPU from the National Institute for Public Administration (NIPA) at the time of the study, noted one problem, *after attending several CDC meetings, with the way the CDF was being used in Kabwata Constituency*. This related to stakeholder analysis. He said: “One serious lapse I have observed during my attachment period here is that there is poor stakeholder analysis in the use of CDF.” He noted that when some projects were being conceived, certain key categories of stakeholders were not involved despite them having an impact on several members of the community. Citing the construction of an ablution block which was funded by CDF at Mkandawire Basic School in the constituency, he said “though the school needed the pupils’ ablution to be renovated, school authorities were alienated during the implementation of the project. The consequence was that, because the contractor was not monitored, the result was a shoddy piece of work which the area MP refused even to commission when completed.” He recommended that ordinary members of the community must be targeted for participation if CDF is to be effectively used.

The vice-chairperson of the CDC committee, Mr Mambwe was equally interviewed on the use of CDF in the constituency. He, like Mr Kilambe above, considered the participation of residents in CDF-funded projects as being generally poor. However, he attributed this to limited resources. He remarked that: “It is true that the residents do not participate. This is because it is difficult, without resources, to mobilise them”. He further attributed the low levels of participation among residents to the apathy or lack of interest they have over civic issues, arguing that people are generally not interested in issues related to CDF because of its intrinsic link to politics due to the presence of the area MP and some councillors on the CDC. However, he added that the committee members occasionally experienced frustrations especially regarding the delays in releasing finances

to fund projects by the DPU. He described the process of releasing the funds as being too unnecessarily bureaucratic.

It was not possible to conduct an interview on the use of CDF with the incumbent area MP, Honourable Given Lubinda. This was because when contacted for an in-depth interview appointment, he declined to make himself available. The explanation given was that the information on the subject could as well be accessed from the other members of the CDF committee and in particular, the CDC chairperson. As a result, an opportunity to have an insight on CDF usage and funded projects in Kabwata Constituency from the MP's perspective (which the researcher considered valuable), was not availed.

Fortunately, on October 14, 2009, the MP appeared on an interview on Mobi Television's programme entitled *Meet Your Member of Parliament* on which, among other issues discussed, he provided valuable information on CDF projects in Kabwata Constituency, their funding, quality and his views on how the Council conducted officials themselves regarding the release of these funds. In his own words, he said: "The Council is dragging its feet on CDF projects. Even when projects are approved for funding by the CDC, Council drags its feet to release funding". He further bemoaned the quality of some CDF projects. Citing the poor quality of work done on the renovation of an ablution block at Mkandawire Basic School in Libala Ward, the MP revealed that he went to the extent of refusing to commission the official handover of the 'completed' refurbishment of the building to the school authorities because he was not satisfied with the quality of work done on the ablution block.

In addition, the MP, as a consequence of the above, made an interesting suggestion. Honourable Lubinda said: "CDF should be guided by an Act of Parliament because even when Council officers disregard guidelines, they cannot be arrested", arguing that this results from the fact that the guidelines are not legally binding.

The information provided by the area councillors of Kabwata Constituency interviewed (Derrick Chansa – Kamulanga, Stephen Chilatu – Chilenje, Antharius Musafili – Kabwata and Donald Nsonga) was relatively identical. Generally, their views were

emphatic on matters related to delays in the release of CDFs, which delays result in the implementation of projects in the constituency. The councillors were by and large agreed that a major impediment in the implementation of CDF projects in the constituency is due to the fact that the council has inadequate equipment such as graders to carry out works on, for example, drainages and culverts. Furthermore, the councillors described the process of releasing funds for approved projects as being too long and suggested that it must be amended to make it flexible as this would result in the efficient implementation of the projects. Mr. Musafili, in admitting that the levels of participation are low in CDF projects by community members, attributed this to the fact that even if residents participated in the projects, it would be on a voluntary basis, adding that the work done by residents does not attract any payments in form of allowances. As such, there was no incentive for community members to participate even though the projects were intended to benefit the communities. In saying this, the councillor was in essence conceding that for ordinary members of the community, participation in CDF projects offers little benefit (at least in monetary form).

5.2.2 Focus group discussion findings

Owing to limited financial resources, only one focus group discussion was held. This was with the Kamulanga Ward Development Committee. The committee provided insights into the functions of the WDC in relation to the development of the community. The discussion revealed that the members of this committee are in constant and regular communication with the committees of the other four wards of the constituency to discuss, among other issues of development in the constituency, even projects funded by CDF. The high level of awareness on issues related to the disbursement and implementation of CDF projects was apparent in the discussion. Members of the WDCs were actively involved in the identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF-financed projects.

In addition, they were regularly informed by the DPU through their area councillors when the money for funding certain projects was released, when the guidelines were amended and the actual projects to be funded. As has already been alluded to, the projects initiated at their level were subject to approval by the District Development Coordinating

Committee (DDCC). This committee is the one that ensures that no single project in the district secures multiple sources of funding. As such, if a particular project was approved by the WDC, while at the same time was about to be funded by another government agency or NGO, decisions are communicated to the WDC as to which source of funding will cater for it - whether CDF, the government or NGO. Secretary of the committee, Mrs Kacholola, held that “the Kamulanga Ward Development Committee makes proposals for projects which are then submitted to the CDC for approval. Although the funding comes late, we still sit down to discuss the challenges of development that the ward undergoes.”

5.2.3 Reasons for low levels of participation in CDF projects

Residents of Kabwata Constituency attribute the general lack of participation in CDF-financed projects to several factors which, it must be mentioned, are largely communication related. The respondents stated that mostly, their participation in these projects is as a result of lack of information (and advertisements) on what projects are being implemented in the constituency. In some cases, they may observe that works are being carried out on drainages and culverts being constructed but do not know whether it is central government engaged in the projects or the projects are CDF funded. As such, they have difficulties taking part in implementing these projects because they did not play any role in identifying them.

Others attributed their lack of participation to the fact that there is politicisation in the manner CDF is utilised because the area councillors and MPs would want to implement projects that would make them popular so as to secure electoral victories in future. Despite this, it is interesting to observe that the constituents, going by the results of the study, are keen to have more information on the projects that are being carried out in the constituency and are funded from the CDF.

The factors, attributed to the low levels of participation in CDF projects, are summarised in the categories below:

Table 14. Reasons for low participation in CDF projects

Attitudes	Knowledge
<div><div>1. Do not appreciate the benefit of CDF to the constituency and nation</div><div>2. Lack of transparency in the disbursement of CDF</div></div>	<div><div>1. Never heard about CDF</div><div>2. Do not who to approach to consult on CDF projects</div><div>3. Ignorant on guidelines governing the use of CDF</div></div>
Awareness	Practices
<div><div>1. Lack of information on CDF</div><div>2. No awareness activities on CDF availability and projects by councillors and the council</div><div>3. Residents are not given accurate information. As a result, they do not know what to do</div></div>	<div><div>1. They are not consulted by officials i.e. councillors, ward officials and council</div><div>2. Do not know where and how to access CDF</div></div>

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings or results - both quantitative and qualitative - obtained in the field. The analysis and interpretation of the gathered data was conducted at different stages. The first involved the quantitative data from the survey with the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Using this software, the information was analysed in form of tables, frequencies, percentages, charts including other data summarising tools. The second level of analysis involved the qualitative scrutiny of information from interviews and a focus group discussion.

6.1 Participation of residents in CDF projects

It is no secret that the participation of ordinary Kabwata Constituency residents in projects financed by Constituency Development Funds is extremely poor. In her assessment of people's participation in development projects, Yoon (1996) argues that although this can be defined in many different ways, resulting in turn in numerous unresolved disagreements, citing Uphoff (1985), he posits, however, that generally, four different ways of participation can be observed in most development projects claiming to be participatory in nature. These are participation in decision-making (project identification), participation in implementation, participation in monitoring and evaluation and participation at the level of benefit.

In the case of CDF projects in Kabwata Constituency, the results of the study corresponding to these levels of participation indicated that very few have ever or actually participated in the projects. For example, only 4% have taken part in identifying a CDF projects while only a mere 2% has done so at the level of implementation. Furthermore, only 3 and 4% have ever monitored or evaluated, respectively, a CDF project before.

The implication of these results is that most residents have never taken part in the initiation, discussion and of these projects. In addition, it means that they have not generally been actively encouraged and mobilised to take part in the actualisation of these projects. And because they have not participated in the monitoring and evaluation upon completion of these projects, it would not be wrong to suggest that Kabwata Constituency residents have not been involved in the critiquing the success or failure of these projects. It does not come as a surprise, therefore, that the levels of dissatisfaction among the residents regarding the manner in which these funds are put to use are high. 69% of the respondents said they were not at all satisfied, while 21% stated that they were a little satisfied with only 1% saying that they were very much satisfied. It is important to state that participation at the level of benefit ensures that people take part in enjoying the fruits of a project. Nevertheless, this results from a conscious effort to encourage the participation of people at all levels of the cycle of projects.

In spite of the low levels of participation, most residents (81%) are of the view that it is necessary for members of the community to play a role in the identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects in the constituency. This is particularly important because it gives people control over their lives and immediate environment. At the same time, they are afforded an opportunity to acquire problem-solving skills and acquire full ownership of these projects. These two factors are important elements which contribute towards securing the sustained development of their community. Also, their participation would help dispel any suspicions of abuse or unaccountability of funds released for the projects in the constituency by officials at the council, CDC committee or WDCs.

The levels of ignorance on matters related to the use of CDF in Kabwata Constituency are astonishing. This is because, apart from most residents not actually knowing who represents them on the CDC and WDC committees, most do not as well know the role these important sub-district structures play regarding the utilisation of the CDF. The fact that 69% do not know who represents them on the CDC, and that 83 and 84% do not know who represents them on the WDC and CDC, respectively, reveals that, to a large extent, these institutions are ‘invisible’ to the ordinary members of the community. The

same can be said to be true of the DPU, an important structure which only 12% of the respondents said they were acquainted with its role vis-à-vis CDF.

The ignorance of the role(s) these institutions play can be attributed to the lack of, or limited, interaction between these structures and the people. It must be observed, though, that the exchange of information among the DPU, WDC and CDC is very high to the extent that members of these institutions meet (sometimes irregularly) to share information on various issues such as the availability of funds, latest information on adjustments made to the figure each constituency is to receive, all projects implemented and any policy adjustments made by the government to the existing CDF guidelines.

The table below illustrates the extent of ignorance of some basic facts concerning CDF. What is striking is that 70% of the respondents did not know how much a constituency such as theirs is entitled to as CDF annually. Only 12% knew. For a large constituency like Kabwata, the statistical significance of this figure is that the levels of lack of knowledge are very high on matters of CDF.

Table 15. Knowledge of how much constituency receives as CDF

How much is your constituency entitled to as CDF?		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	K200 million	7	7.0	7.1	7.1
	K400 million	5	5.0	5.1	12.1
	Do not know	70	70.0	70.7	82.8
	K500 million	6	6.0	6.1	88.9
	K600 million	12	12.0	12.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	
Total		100	100.0		

The options of K200, K400 and K500 million were deliberately put in the questionnaire to test whether the respondents knew how much constituencies receive as CDF. The frequency of respondents who opted for them revealed that, actually, 18% thought they

knew how much the constituency was entitled to as CDF when in fact they did not. As mentioned in Chapter One, each constituency now receives K600 million annually. What this data suggests is that the constituents lack information because of not being made aware of any changes in policy on CDF by the sub-district structures whose responsibility it is to do so.

It is for this reason that Ward Development Committee and Constituency Development Committee members, compared with ordinary constituents, are more knowledgeable on matters related to CDF. They actively participate in the various levels of the projects approved for funding – identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. They have access or knowledge of council minutes and reports on CDF use in the constituency. Unfortunately, the opposite is true for most residents (90%). The residents attribute this to, among other factors, lack of reporting by their ward councillors and ward officials on any information of CDF-funded projects to the community. Suffice it to say that, asked whether their participation in CDF projects would be positively affected if they knew the roles these sub-district structures, including the DPU play in relation to CDF, most (60%) responded in the affirmative. It follows, therefore, that the residents' desire to actively participate in these projects cannot be questioned.

The CDF guidelines provide that the council, through the Director of Works/Director of Engineering Services or District Planning Officer/Director of Socio Economic Planning Officers, from relevant government line departments and beneficiary community monitor the implementation of projects on a monthly basis or as often as necessary depending on the nature and stage of the project. Although they also state that the community should be involved during monitoring, they do not specifically spell out the role community members must play in explicit terms. The monitoring team is expected to prepare progress reports on behalf of the community supported by the accounts for the quarter and submitted through the Provincial Local Government and Housing officer who analyses the reports to advise the government on progress achieved in the implementation of micro-community projects and programmes in constituencies. Yet, it is not explained how this monitoring team must be constituted. In any case, it does not even exist as officers from the DPU, together with area councillors and WDC officials are the ones

actively engaged in monitoring the projects. Therefore, members of the community have no clear role spelt out for them in monitoring CDF projects being implemented.

6.2 Communication strategies used in the utilisation of CDF

The low levels of participation in CDF projects in Kabwata Constituency are, to a large extent, as a result of the inadequate (and in most cases, the lack of) information that the residents have on the Constituency Development Fund, especially how it is administered. The irony, on the other hand, is that this is in the face of the guidelines providing for notification to members of the public for the submission of project proposals. Specifically, Part 6 of the guidelines states that:

“The **council** shall invite project proposals from the communities during the first quarter of every year by way of **advertisements, open meetings and fixing of posters in conspicuous locations** such as notice boards of schools, clinics and churches including **notifications through letters** to chiefs and village headmen”
[Emphases in bold text added] (GRZ, 2006: 3).

Compared with the 41% who have, most residents (58%) have never listened, watched or read about a programme or advertisement on CDF projects on radio, television or newspapers. Most of them, in fact, were of the strong view that if indeed there were programmes and advertisements in the media, the levels of participation in CDF-financed projects would have been higher. It is cardinal, nonetheless, to point out that those that had any information on the Constituency Development Fund had received it through various communication channels. These ranged from television, radio, family members, church members, friends, posters, area councillors and their area Member of Parliament. Despite this, most respondents said they were still dissatisfied with the amount of information they had on CDF. In addition, those who said they had not received information said they had never received this information through these channels, arguing that they never had occasion to benefit from them.

It should be observed that as mentioned earlier, the guidelines provide for the notification of residents by the council through advertisements, public open meetings and posters in conspicuous locations. This provision was intended to afford members of the constituency sufficient opportunity to be aware of all the necessary matters relating to CDF. In turn, this would give them time to adequately prepare their project proposals for development initiatives in their constituency. That is why the choice for conspicuous places included notice boards of schools, clinics and churches and notifications through letters to chiefs and village headmen. Through these means, in one way or another, the residents would have a very high probability of accessing this information.

The guidelines, it must be noted, are not legally binding and this aspect of awareness can be ignored without any legal repercussions among those charged with the responsibility to do so. And although notifications can be made in the manner explained, it is necessary to point out the fact that these (notice boards of schools, clinics and churches and notifications through letters to chiefs and village headmen) presupposes that the intended audience is literate. This is not the case. For this reason, other forms of media such as radio, television, newspapers, in addition to public address mechanisms should be applied to raise the level of awareness to encourage people to participate in CDF projects.

The objective of establishing the Constituency Development Fund was to finance micro-community projects for poverty reduction. The guidelines list the beneficiaries as being clubs, associations and societies that must be registered with the local council within the constituency to benefit from the fund. The Constituency Development Fund committee is expected to receive project proposals from sub-district development structures such as Area Development Committees (ADCs), Ward Development Committees (WDCs) and representatives of stakeholders from the townships on behalf of communities as the case may be and refer them to the planning sub-committee of the District Development Coordinating Committee (DDCC) for appraisal before recommending to the council for adoption and funding. If the guidelines list the beneficiaries as being clubs, associations and societies that must be registered with the local council within the constituency, one may ask the following questions: where does this leave an ordinary member of the community? Should one only be a member of a club, association or society to benefit

from a CDF project? If one wants to participate in a CDF-funded project, should they join a club even if this is in conflict with his/her right to freedom of association?

Questions like these reveal the ambiguous and discriminatory character of the guidelines. They are (both in theory and practice) not intended to benefit the individual. In fact, as admitted by the council's environmental planner, Mr Kufanga, individuals do not stand a chance to benefit, in terms of funding to projects, from CDF. This is what, to a large extent, has contributed to the lack of interest in CDF projects by members of the community.

There exists no deliberately designed communication strategy by the council or the sub-district structures to create awareness and encourage Kabwata Constituency residents to actively participate in CDF projects. Advertisements are not placed in newspapers, on radio or television. Neither are open meetings and fixing of posters in conspicuous locations such as notice boards of schools, clinics and churches done. Interestingly, the residents have preferences concerning the manner in which they would like to be notified. Most prefer notifications through community meetings followed by those who favour door-to-door notifications. Others prefer radio, television, newspapers and posters. In addition, the majority want to receive information on CDF directly from the CDC, WDC and DPU members to supplement these channels or media.

Thus, it can be concluded that, in order to effectively participate in CDF projects, residents need to be made aware of these ventures through a concerted effort requiring multi-media campaigns in order to provide them with the necessary information. Interpersonal communication networks must also be exploited so that those who are already privy to information on CDF (such as area councillors and Ward Development Committee members) can conduct door-to-door awareness activities. An interpersonal approach (person-to-person or group discussion) is very effective in addressing individual needs and allowing people to express their ideas directly.

Note should be taken of the fact that most residents have radio or television sets. It should also be added that, according to the results obtained in the study, most members (58%) of

Kabwata Constituency have never seen, watched or read about an advertisement on CDF on television, radio or in a newspaper and a further 83% are not satisfied with the amount of information they receive on the subject. And because they want to receive this information in order to contribute to their constituency's development, it becomes inevitable to satisfy this gratification through the use of media such as radio and television to complement the interpersonal communication strategy already alluded to. It is not in dispute that the residents need information on CDF and its funded projects. What is cardinal, in addition, is to make the provision of this information to the residents by means of a carefully crafted agenda setting method so as to enable them acquire the information through the media. This, it must be emphasised, is to put in practice what the guidelines already provide for but which, unfortunately, is not being put in practice.

At a macro level, the mass media (radio and television) can be used to transmit information or messages on CDF to a large, anonymous or ambiguous, heterogeneous and undefined audience. Naturally, this type of communication is advantageous for the reason that, apart from being cost-effective, it allows a higher capacity of information to reach greater numbers of individuals in a single execution. At the micro level, the situation is different. The need for proper problem identification and analysis is extremely important. As such, the CDC and WDC should, through the respective zones in each ward, identify (through group communication and using participatory communication approaches) relevant project areas or focal problems with community members which ought to be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time bound in the context of the available funds.

In conclusion, it cannot be denied that the levels of participation in CDF-financed projects are very low in Kabwata Constituency. This is a direct consequence of inadequate (and in most cases the lack of) information that members of the communities have on matters related to the utilisation of these funds. This is despite their desire to actively take part in these developmental activities that have a bearing on their lives. What is required, consequently, are deliberate strategies that can enable residents to participate in the projects. This can be done at two distinct levels, that is, the macro and micro levels. At the former level, multi-media information awareness campaigns need to

be carried out, guided by a media agenda set to satisfy the residents' gratification for more information on CDF use. At the latter level, in order to fully encourage the participation of ordinary community members, community members at the level of the zone in the wards must be conducted in order to ensure that there is active information-based participation among residents.

Although passive participation, which refers to simply being told what to do or what is going to happen, is not encouraged, it does not exist in relation to CDF projects in Kabwata Constituency. Also, most ordinary residents are of the view that they are not consulted and asked for input in these projects. What is needed for these projects to be relevant for the constituency is the existence of interactive participation, where there is a joint analysis of needs, opportunities, perceived problems and solutions by all stakeholders in an activity. This may lead to action plans and the formation of new institutions or the strengthening of the already existing old ones (in this case, the DPU, WDC and CDC) to meet new challenges. Self-mobilisation, which refers to the kind of participation where initiatives are taken independent of any external agencies or institutions to change systems, is not evident especially among ordinary community members. The community, therefore, has not over the years developed contacts with external agencies for financial resources and, in some cases, technical advice necessary for given CDF projects while retaining control over the use to which the resources are put.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RECOMMENDATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH ON CDF AND CONCLUSION

7.0 Introduction

This chapter, which is the last, but definitely not least in importance, considers the recommendations made on how best the CDFs can be put to use as a result of the study carried out in Kabwata Constituency. Apart from this, the chapter makes available suggestions on future research work on the CDF. It ends with a conclusion which gives a brief resume of the entire research work carried out.

7.1 Recommendations

The results of the study showed that the urge to participate in CDF projects among Kabwata Constituency residents is high, and so is the craving to be regularly informed on all matters related to CDF. Hence, it would not be impudent to suggest recommendations regarding the manner in which the Constituency Development Fund is put to use. The first of these is that the CDF guidelines must be done away with in order to be replaced by an Act of Parliament. This is because those involved in CDF matters will be compelled by law (not guidelines) to follow them to the latter. The advantage is that legal action will then be able to be taken against erring officials at the DPU, CDC or even ward level in the case where certain provision are flouted. For example, there currently exist no awareness creation activities despite the guidelines providing for the notification of residents through advertisements in the media and the placing of notices in conspicuous public places. At present, even in the event that certain provisions exist in the guidelines, it cannot be said that flouting them is punishable by law.

In addition, the guidelines (or Act of Parliament) must be amended to, in very clear and explicit terms, provide for the active participation of willing residents. In their current form, this is not guaranteed more so that very few Kabwata Constituency residents have ever read any council reports on CDF. The guidelines must explain, in very explicit

terms, the role community members must play at the level of project identification or initiation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The role of the WDC and CDC must be strengthened. This is because members of these bodies, because they reside in the constituencies, are more directly involved in the day-to-day lives of the members of the community and therefore understand the developmental challenges of the community. Also, these can more readily be accessed by their fellow constituents. As such, in terms of understanding the needs, opportunities, problems and their solutions in the constituency, they are relatively better placed to appreciate them compared to the DPU and DDCC officials who are mostly civil servants that may not even reside in the constituency. The point is that, if CDF projects are to be community driven with high levels of community participation, the sub-district structures earlier mentioned ought to be enabled to play a much bigger role than they are currently contributing. These are the structures that comprise individuals who live and can easily be accessed by community members.

Most CDF projects implemented in a particular year are actually those approved for funding in the previous year. Although the projects are approved, the late allocation of these funds by the government to councils creates delays in the commencement of works on these projects. Therefore, there is need to immediately provide the funds for projects that have been approved for funding. Also related to the delays in CDF project works is the bureaucracy associated with the approving of the release of funds for projects. For example, for specialised projects and others that require tendering (that is, projects worth K50 million and above) in the press, a minimum of three contractors need to apply to be considered. But if only one applies, the projects must be re-tendered and there are costs involved in this. But even when one among the three successfully bids for a contract, the council must provide a percentage of the total cost of the works before commencement. However, the procedure for releasing these funds sometimes results in delays in implementing these projects. Therefore, administrative impediments that result in delays in releasing funds for projects must be done away with. In addition, there is need to raise the administration costs from the current K20 million. This is because it is virtually impossible to effectively and efficiently implement, monitor and evaluate projects worth,

for example, K200, 000 on this amount.

For effective participation in CDF projects involving the community, there ought to be an efficient stakeholder analysis mechanism by which all the parties and beneficiaries in these projects should have an input. The stakeholders may include the DPU, CDC, WDCs, community members and leaders and the contractors employed to carry out the works. This creates a sense of ownership, legitimacy and responsibility for the projects for all the stakeholders, especially community members.

Finally, it should seriously also be considered whether the Constituency Development Fund is actually necessary. This is because of two reasons. The first is that the role of the DDCC with regard to CDF is to ensure that there is no duplication of funding to projects in the district that may occur due to various funding agencies in the district. Intimately related to this is the issue of the quality of works in some of the CDF projects. A look at most of the drainages and gravel roads worked on, for example, reveals that these are works that may actually be conducted on a perennial basis, that is, every year before the rainy season. In short, they are not sustainable. What if permanent tarring of roads is done as opposed to the poor quality drainage works being undertaken in these wards? Is it not sensible to scrap CDF in order to have other government agencies (for example Ministry of Works and Supply) have enough financial resources to work on the roads and drainages on a longer-term basis? If this cannot be done, the alternative would be to significantly adjust the CDF allocation upwards in order to cater for more sustainable capital projects. In their present state, it is impossible, owing to their insufficiency, for CDFs to not only develop a constituency, but also meet the requirements needed to satisfy the implementation of the micro-community projects for which they were initially designed.

7.2 Future research on CDF

There are certain aspects of CDF upon which this study did not preoccupy itself with which may afford those interested in research on Constituency Development Funds an opportunity to apply their minds to. One such area may be the comparative study of the

utilisation of CDF in rural and urban constituencies. This is virgin territory and particularly intellectually challenging owing to the differences in psychographic, sociographic and geographic, including occupational dissimilarities between dwellers of urban and rural areas. Also, it would provide valuable data as to how councils and WDCs relate in these areas in order to come up with policy on the use of CDF which takes into account unique factors in specific areas in order to be relevant to a particular area.

Future research on CDF may also seek to analyse the use of these funds from a different perspective. One such area could be the role of political party affiliation to the use CDF. This study found that there exists no explicit link between sympathy or affiliation to a particular political party and participation in CDF projects. From a sociological and political view, it may be useful to decipher whether there is any connection between the dominance of a given political party in an area and the active participation by its members in CDF projects.

7.3 Conclusion

The study, in conclusion, revealed that the establishment of the Constituency Development Fund was not done in a participatory manner. In a typical top-down approach after instituting the fund, the government has over the years unilaterally continued to revise the guidelines relating to the disbursement of the CDF. This has resulted in serious challenges in constituencies and Kabwata Constituency in particular has not been spared. Compounded by the lack of information creation and awareness activities on the part of the council, Constituency Development Committee and the Ward Development Committees, the levels of participation among members of the community in CDF projects are very dismal. What have resulted are the high levels of ignorance on CDF-related issues among residents with a corresponding high degree of dissatisfaction in the manner the funds are being utilised. The conclusion of this study, on the other hand, is that with a deliberate social awareness campaign to promote participation in these projects, there can be achieved a high levels of participation among residents.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Kabwata Constituency Residents on information and participation in Constituency Development Funds projects

1.0 General information

1. Sex
 1. Male ☐
 2. Female ☐
2. Age
 1. 15 – 20 years ☐
 2. 21 – 25 years ☐
 3. 26 - 30 years ☐
 4. 31 – 40 years ☐
 5. 41– 45 years ☐
 6. 46 years and above ☐
3. Marital status:
 1. Single ☐
 2. Married ☐
 3. Divorced ☐
 4. Widow ☐
 5. Separation ☐
4. Educational level attained:
 1. Primary ☐
 2. Basic ☐
 3. Secondary ☐
 4. College ☐
 5. University ☐
 6. Post graduate ☐
5. Religion:
 1. Catholic ☐
 2. Seventh Day Adventist ☐
 3. Anglican ☐
 4. Jehovah's Witnesses ☐
 5. Pentecostal ☐
 6. United Church of Zambia ☐
 7. Other (specify)
6. What do you do for a living?
 1. Formally employed ☐
 2. Informally employed ☐
 3. Unemployed ☐
 4. Dependent ☐
7. Political inclination/membership:
 1. MMD ☐
 2. UNIP ☐
 3. FDD ☐
 4. UPND ☐
 5. PF ☐
 6. ULP ☐
 7. Other (specify)
8. What language do you mostly use for communication?
 1. Nyanja ☐
 2. Bemba ☐
 3. English ☐
 4. Tonga ☐
 5. Lozi ☐
 6. Luvale ☐
 7. Any other, specify:

2.0 Knowledge of CDF

9. How did you first know about the CDF?
- 1. Radio []
 - 2. Television []
 - 3. Newspaper []
 - 4. Member of Parliament []
 - 5. Councillor []
 - 6. Do not know []
 - 7. Peers/friends []
 - 8. Family member []
 - 9. Other (specify)
10. How long have you known about CDF?
- 1. Less than 1 year []
 - 2. Between 2-4 years []
 - 3. Between 4-8 years []
 - 4. Above 8 years []
 - 5. Do not know []
11. What do you understand is the role of the CDF?
- 1. Funding political party projects []
 - 2. Funding MPs projects []
 - 3. Funding council projects []
 - 4. Funding community projects []
 - 5. Do not know []
 - 6. Other (specify).....
12. How much is your constituency entitled to as CDF?
- 1. K200 million []
 - 2. K400 million []
 - 3. Do not know []
 - 4. K500 million []
 - 5. K600 million []

3.0 Communication on CDF

13. How is notification in your constituency on CDF done?
- 1. Community meetings []
 - 2. Posters []
 - 3. Door-to-door notifications []
 - 4. It is not done []
 - 5. Newspaper(s) []
 - 6. I do not know []
 - 7. Television []
 - 8. Other (specify)
14. How would you prefer notification on CDF was done?
- 1. Community meetings []
 - 2. Posters []
 - 3. Door-to-door notifications []
 - 4. Newspaper(s) []
 - 5. I do not know []
 - 6. Television []
 - 7. Other (specify)
15. Do you have a television set?
- 1. Yes []
 - 2. No []

16. Do you have a radio?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
17. Have you ever listened/watched/read about a programme(s) or advertisement on CDF on radio or television or newspaper?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
18. Do you agree that if there were programmes and adverts on TV and radio people in your constituency would have been participating more in projects financed by the CDF?
1. Strongly agree []
 2. Agree []
 3. I don't know []
 4. Disagree []
 5. Strongly disagree []
19. In terms of frequency, where do you get more information on CDF?
1. Television []
 2. Radio []
 3. Family members []
 4. Councillors []
 5. MP(s) []
 6. Minister(s) []
 7. Church members []
 8. Posters []
 9. None of the above []
 10. Other (specify)
20. Are you satisfied with the amount of information you receive concerning the use of CDF in your constituency?
1. Not satisfied []
 2. Very unsatisfied []
 3. Very satisfied []
 4. Satisfied []
 5. Other (specify)
21. Would you like to receive more information on the manner the CDF is being used in your constituency?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
22. Do you interact with officials from Ministry of Local Government, the Lusaka City Council and your Member of Parliament to discuss the utilisation CDF in your area?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
23. Do you think your Member of Parliament is doing enough to create awareness of the CDF?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
24. Are there any projects that you are aware of are being financed from the CDF?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
25. Do you receive any information from the Ward Development Committee (WDC) regarding CDF funded projects?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
26. If your answer above is 'Yes', how often do you receive the information?
1. Regularly []
 2. Irregularly []
27. Do you receive any information from the Constituency Development Committee regarding CDF funded projects?
1. Yes []
 2. No []

- 28. If your answer above is [Yes], how often?
 - 1. Regularly []
 - 2. Irregularly []
- 29. Would you wish you received information on CDF on a regular basis?
 - 1. Yes []
 - 2. No []
- 30. How would you want to receive information on CDF?
 - 1. Television []
 - 2. Radio []
 - 3. Newspaper []
 - 4. Directly from Ward Development Committee, Constituency Development Committee and Lusaka City Council officials []
 - 5. All of the above []

4.0 Participation in CDF projects

- 31. Have you ever participated in projects funded buy the CDF?
 - 1. Yes []
 - 2. No []
- 32. If your answer above is “Yes”, how many CDF projects have you participated in?
 - 1. Between 1 – 5 []
 - 2. Between 6 – 10 []
 - 3. Between 11 – 15 []
 - 4. Between 16 – 20 []
 - 5. Over 20 []
- 33. How did you participate?
 - 1. Physically inspected projects []
 - 2. Received reports regularly []
 - 3. Invited to meetings []
 - 4. Did not participate []
 - 5. Was consulted regularly []
 - 6. Contributed money []
 - 7. Physically took part []
 - 8. Other (specify) []
- 34. In what form was your participation?
 - 1. Skilled labour []
 - 2. Unskilled labour []
 - 3. Contributing materials/cash []
 - 4. Leadership (e.g. committee member) []
 - 5. Consultation []
 - 6. Other (specify)
- 35. If you have not participated in CDF funded projects, give reasons why.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - 4.
 - 5.
- 36. What is your view on the level of community participation in CDF projects in your constituency?
 - 1. Not satisfactory []
 - 2. Satisfactory []
 - 3. Not sure []

4. Very satisfactory []
5. Very unsatisfactory []
37. Do you think members of the community should participate in such projects?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []
38. Name any problems that prevent people from actively participating in CDF projects?
 1.
 2.
 3.
 4.
 5.
39. Have you ever benefited from projects funded by the CDF?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []
40. To what extent are you satisfied with the benefits drawn from CDF projects?
 1. Not at all []
 2. A little []
 3. Very much []
 4. Excellent []
41. If you are not satisfied, explain why.
Explanation:
42. To what extent are you satisfied with the way the CDF has been utilised?
 1. Not at all []
 2. A little []
 3. Very much []
 4. Excellent []
43. Have you read any district plan, council minutes or reports on the CDF?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []
44. Have you suspected any misuse or unaccountability of the funds in your constituency?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []
45. Who represents you on the CDF committee?
 1. Councillor []
 2. MP []
 4. I do not know []
 5. Other (specify)
46. How often does your representative report to the community on issues relating to CDF?
 1. Regularly []
 2. Irregularly []
 3. Not at all []
47. Do you know the role the Ward Development Committee (WDC) plays in relation to CDF?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []
48. Do you know the role the Constituency Development Committee (CDC) plays in relation to CDF?
 1. Yes []
 2. No []

49. Do you know the role the District Planning Unit (DPU) of the Lusaka City Council plays in relation to CDF?

1. Yes []

2. No []

50. If your answer to questions (47), (48) and (49) is “No”, do you think your participation in CDF projects would be positively affected if you understood the roles of the WDC, CDC and DPU?

1. Yes []

2. No []

51. Have you ever participated in the identification of a CDF project?

1. Yes []

2. No []

52. Have you ever participated in the implementation of a CDF project?

1. Yes []

2. No []

53. Have you ever participated in the monitoring of a CDF project?

1. Yes []

2. No []

54. Have you ever participated in the evaluation of a CDF project?

1. Yes []

2. No []

55. Do you think it is necessary for members of the community to play a role in the identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects?

1. Yes []

2. No []

Thank you

Appendix 2: Guide for in-depth interviews

A. Constituency/Ward Development Committee members

1 Demographic, psychographic and geographical information:

1.1.0 Demographic information

- 1.1.1 Age composition or distribution, gender distribution.
- 1.1.2 Residence(s), type of houses available in the area.
- 1.1.3 Language commonly used in the community.

1.2.0 Psychographics

- 1.2.1 Cultural values, beliefs and attitudes of the people in the community.
- 1.2.2 Radio and television stations and other media products accessed by the communities in the area of study.
- 1.2.3 Peoples' general reaction and response to the CDF.

1.3.0 Geographical characteristics

- 1.3.1 Infrastructure: road network and communication systems.
- 1.3.3 Physical features e.g. mountains or hills, general landscape and soil types.

1.4.0 Historical characteristics

- 1.4.1 Nature and make up of the existing audience.
- 1.4.2 Family types and composition, average number of children, dependants etc.
- 1.4.3 Traditional ceremonies, other important celebrations etc.

2.0 Interests, needs, concerns of the audience

- 2.1 Radio and TV programmes that interest people mostly in the area of study.
- 2.2 What they use the broadcast information for.
- 2.3 Community programmes most liked.
- 2.4 Programmes and adverts aired on radio and TV over the CDF.
- 2.5 Response of community, if any, to these programmes and adverts.
- 2.6 Effectiveness of these awareness campaigns.

3.0 Constraints and successes the Constituency Development Committee/Ward Development Committee faces in relation to CDF

- 3.1 Major problems local communities face regarding the use of the CDF.
- 3.2 How the community thinks this problem should be tackled.
- 3.3. Major problems encountered by the Constituency Development Committee/ Ward Development Committee in the utilisation of the CDF.
- 3.4. Successes in the utilisation of the CDF in Kabwata Constituency.

4.0 General information

- 4.1 Peoples' suggestions and comments on the CDF.
- 4.2 Community expectations about the utilisation of the CDF.

Appendix 3

Budget

Item	Quantity	Unit cost	Total
Ream of paper	8	K20, 000	K160, 000
Transport costs			K500, 000
Printing, binding			K500, 000
Food			K500, 000
TOTAL			K1,660,000

Appendix 4: Work plan

Activity	2008					2009											
	M - A	S	O	N	D	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	
Problem identification & topic formulation	√																
Literature review		√															
Consultations with Coordinator		√															
Writing and typing proposal				√													
Corrections to proposal & amendments/additions					√	√	√	√									
Pre-testing questionnaires									√								
Replication of questionnaires & interview guides										√							
Data collection											√	√					
Report writing & typing													√				
Consultations with the Supervision over final report														√	√		
Final report production & binding																√	
Report submission																√	

Appendix 5: Members of Parliament for Kabwata Constituency since Independence

No.	Name	Sex Male - M Female - F	Years served	Party membership
1	Mary Mwango	F	1968 - 1973	UNIP
	Mary Mwango	F	1973 - 1978	UNIP
2	Sibongo	M	1978 - 1983	UNIP
3	Michael Sata	M	1983 - 1988	UNIP
	Michael Sata	M	1988 – 1991	UNIP
	Michael Sata	M	1991 - 1996	MMD
4	Brigadier General Godfrey Miyanda	M	1996 – 2001 (June)	MMD
5	Richard Kachingwe	M	2001 (August) – 2001 (October)	MMD
6	Given Lubinda	M	2001 - 2006	UPND
	Given Lubinda	M	2006 - Present	PF

Appendix 6: Kabwata Constituency Ward Councillors (2006-2011)

No.	Name of Councillor	Sex	Ward
1	Stephen Chilatu	M	Chilenje 8
2	Donald Nsonga	M	Libala 7
3	Anthorius C. Musafili	M	Kabwata 6
4	Musaiwale Mwewa	M	Kamwala 5
5	Derrick Chansa	M	Kamulanga 9

Appendix 7: Social, Educational and Economic Facilities

Ward	School
1. Chilenje	1. Arthur Wina 2. Chilenje B 3. Chilenje High School 4. Muyooma Basic 5. Timothy Mwanakatwe 6. Tum Secondary School 7. New Chilenje South School 8. Roads Way 9. Day Light
2. Libala	1. Lusakasa 2. Mkandawire 3. AMEC Secondary 4. Twinkle Star 5. Midlands Education 6. Machinga Basic School 7. Day Light 8. Libala Stage II 9. Libala High School 10. Libala Basic School
3. Kabwata	1. Kabwata Middle 2. Mary Aikenhead 3. St Patrick's 4. Cuddle Care 5. Kwacha Secondary 6. Kabwata Basic
4. Kamulanga	Kamulanga Basic School
5. Kamwala	1. Kamwala High 2. Kamwala Basic 3. Kamwala South 4. Sarafina Tuition Centre 5. Zipas High School 6. Tick Primary School 7. St Lawrence 8. Lotus

Ward	Markets	Clinics	Police Posts	Shopping Areas	Recreation Facilities
Chilenje	1. Chilenje 2.Chifundo	1.Chilenje	Chilenje	Shoprite Chilenje	Chilenje Hall
Libala	1. Kangwa 2. Libala	1. Dr Yan Surgery 2. Dr Hou Surgery 3. Dr Wou Surgery 4. Dr Yi Clinic 5. Balm Medical Clinic 6. Jon Hospice 7. Tolani Clinic	Libala		
Kabwata	1.Kabwata Site and Service 2.Kabwata	1.Kabwata		Kabwata Cash and Carry	1.Kabwata Play Park 2.Kabwata Community 3.Kabwata Gym 4.Sport in Action
Kamwala	1.Kamwala	1.Kamwala 2.Kamwala Prisons Dispensary 3.Kamwala Medical Clinic	1.Kamwala 2. Titanic	Kamwala	Libala Play Park
Kamulanga	1. Jack	1.Lilayi Clinic			

Infrastructure

Road Network	
Main City Roads	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Chilimbulu2. Burma
Main Township Roads	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. BP to Kamulanga2. Tutwa3. Mpasas4. Luapula
Street Lighting	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Burma Road2. Mpasas Road3. Muramba Road4. Pemba Road

Appendix 8: Community Clubs/Groups

Organisation	Year registered	Members	Objective(s)	Activities/ Programmes
1. Helpers Women's Group	1997		Assisting girl children to teach each other various life skills	
2. Twafwane Women's Club	2000	12	Empowering women	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Making door mats 2. Making toilet and kitchen sets 3. Mushroom growing 4. Making beads 5. Making tomato and marmalade jam 6. Making table clothes 7. Buying/selling chickens
3. Tabithah Women's Club	2005	16	Promoting improved living standards	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Poultry 2. Tie and dye/batik textile 3. Selling eggs 4. Crocheting 5. tailoring 6. Making door mats
4. Caleb Women's Club	2007	8	Empowering women through life skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brewing munkoyo 2. Tailoring 3. Knitting 4. Crocheting
5. Limbani Support Group	2004	15	Empowering women through life skills	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Home-based care 2. Making door mats 3. Making sweet beer 4. Making beads 5. Selling eggs and offals

6. Youth Organisation for Orphans	2006		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teaching/counseling on HIV-related issues 2. Providing/facilitating health care to orphans 3. Subsistence allowances 4. Initiating projects for income generation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visiting orphanages 2. Workshops on HIV/AIDS 3. Sports (netball, football, athletics, chess, basketball) 4. Poems and drama 5. Counselling
7. Salvation Army Group		200 (100 girls and 100 boys)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS 2. Improve orphan's livelihoods 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conducting home-based care activities for HIV/AIDS infected individuals
8. Bupilo Support Group	July, 2006	46 HIV-infected persons	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improve quality of lives of HIV-infected persons 2. Fight stigma and descrimination 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Promote positive living through drama,poems 2. Community sensitisation
9. Women Enlightened Literacy Project	2005	25	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Empowering women to read and write 2. Empowering women to be decision makers 3. Fighting HIV/AIDS 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tailoring and design 2. Crafts 3. Gardening 4. Home-based care 5. Caring for orphans
10. Matthew 25 Ministries International	Founded by Inonge Nawa in 2004	International inter-denominational grouping	Uplifting the living standards of the underpriviledged	Evangelising

11. Chikondi Support Group	2004	18	Sensitising members on HIV/AIDS related issues	Income generation activities
12. Kabwata Youth Friendly Healthy Services	Formed in 2000 by UNICEF and DHMT		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reduce STI and HIV/AIDS transmission 2. Fighting stigma 	
13. Musaniseke Support Group	Formed in 2004 by widows whose husbands died of HIV/AIDS	500	Fighting HIV/AIDS	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advocacy training 2. Mobile VCT 3. Mobile video sensitizations 4. Income-generating activities 5. Promote the use of ARV/ART
14. Kabwata Peer Educators Team	2006		Curb the rampant spread of HIV/AIDS	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sensitise community on HIV/AIDS 2. Propagate HIV/AIDS information
15. Muyoma Basic School HIV/AIDS Mitigation Organisation (community school)	2005	500	Mitigating the rampant spread of HIV/AIDS	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sensitise parents, pupils and guardians
16. Lusaka City Disabled People Self-development Project (LUDESP)	1990	15	Eliminate poverty among physically challenged persons	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Carpentry, joinery, metal fabrication 2. Tailoring, block-making 3. HIV awareness

**Appendix 9: Guidelines on the channelling and utilisation of the Constituency
Development Fund (CDF) - September 2003**



MLGH/102/28/1

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

Ministry of Local Government and Housing
P.O Box 50027
LUSAKA

10th September, 2003

MLGH/CIRCULAR MINUTE OF 2003

To All: Town Clerks/Council Secretaries
REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

**GUIDELINES ON THE UTILISATION OF THE CONSTITUENCY
DEVELOPMENT FUND (CDF)**

1. The Ministry has revised the Constituency Development Fund guidelines in order to make them more effective and efficient and to tighten the weaknesses in the utilization of the funds. The following changes have been made.
 - (i) Composition of Membership to the CDF
 - (ii) Project Funding
 - (iii) Advance Identification and Planning of Projects
 - (iv) Incorporation of projects into Council's Capital Budgets
 - (v) Administrative costs

2. The projects to be undertaken by the community should be in line with the

District approved plan and priorities as per District Situational Analysis which shall include sector reports, and be within the available resources.

3. Projects to be undertaken should be completed within 12 months.
4. This circular supercedes Circular No. 7 of 30th April, 1998.

Bernard S.C Namachila

Permanent Secretary (Ag)

MINISTRY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND HOUSING

c.c: All Members of Parliament

Secretary to the Cabinet

Special Assistant to the President
State House

Senior Private Secretary
Office of the Vice-President

All Provincial Local Government Officers
Republic of Zambia

Appendix 10: List of interviewees

Number	Name	Designation
1	Mr. Kufanga	District Planning Officer (LCC)
2	Mr. Mambwe	CDC Vice-Chairperson
3	Kilambe, James	District Planning Unit intern from NIPA
4	Mrs. Shapa	Head Teacher, Mkandawire Basic School
5	Mr. Moonga	Resident since 1975
6	Mrs Kacholola	Kamulanga WDC Secretary
7	Mr. Charlestone Hamulyata	Principal Local Government Officer - Ministry of Local Government and Housing
8	Mr. Oliver Mukuwe	Kamulanga High School teacher
9	Mr. Charles Banda	Former Forum for Democracy and Development (FDD) Kapoche MP
10	Mr. Simon Sinyangwe	PF Councillor in Kanyama Constituency and teacher at Kamulanga High School
11	Mr Antharius C Musafili	Kabwata Ward Councillor
12	Mr Derrick Chansa	Kamulanga Ward Councillor
13	Mr Stephen Chilatu	Chilenje Ward Councillor and former Lusaka City Mayor
14	Mr Donald Nsonga	Libala Ward Councillor

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