

**EVALUATION OF ZAMBIA'S CHIBOMBO WARD DEVELOPMENT
COMMITTEES OF KEEMBE CONSTITUENCY IN ENHANCING
COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

BY

Hanangama Brenda

**A Dissertation Submitted to the University of Zambia in Partial Fulfilment of
the Requirements for the Award of Master of Education in Civic Education**

The University of Zambia

LUSAKA

2016

Copyright

No part of this study may be reproduced in any form or by any means, electronic, photocopying or otherwise, without prior permission from the author or the University of Zambia.

All rights reserved (brendahanangama@gmail.com)

Declaration

I, Hanangama Brenda, solemnly declare that this dissertation is a product of my own work and that sources of information other than that of my own have been acknowledged. I also declare that this work has never been previously submitted to this or any other university.

Signed

.....

Date

.....

Certificate of Approval

This dissertation of Brenda Hanangama has been approved for the partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Education in Civic Education by the University of Zambia.

Examiners:

Signature.....Date.....

Signature.....Date.....

Signature.....Date.....

Abstract

This study is an evaluation of Ward Development Committees (WDCs) of Zambia's Keembe Constituency in enhancing community participation. In spite of the Zambian government's effort in trying to enhance community participation in developmental projects, active community participation seemed not to be attainable. The objectives of the study were to establish whether or not selected Ward development committees in Keembe Constituency promoted community participation, to determine if individual households of selected WDCs of Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District participated in developmental projects and also to identify challenges that were faced by Ward Development Committees so as to determine better ways of enhancing local community participation. The study used both qualitative and quantitative methodologies based on a case study. Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data from the local community while semi-structured interview guides were used to collect qualitative data from the District Commissioner, District Council Secretary, Non-Governmental Organisations and WDCs officials who were key informants for the study. Quantitative data was analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Qualitative data was analysed through coding and themes. Main findings indicated that WDCs had fair knowledge about committees while the local community had little knowledge about WDCs. Results showed that most developmental projects were initiated by the local community. This was done by identifying priorities in line with community's needs at ward level. Key implications of the findings are that if communities participated in identifying their own developmental projects, they would develop a sense of ownership for such projects. However, there is need for more sensitisation so that communities understand the purpose of WDCs. The findings also showed that the use of WDCs was one of the strategies used to implement the policy of decentralisation, which aimed at taking power to the grassroots. One major recommendation of the study involves the need for the Zambian government, through local councils, to recognise the importance of sensitising the community about community participation and the purpose of WDCs. There is need to carry out a research to find out provisions to be included in a WDC Act that would ensure an all- inclusive and holistic development in the Wards. Research into an allocation formula based on accurate information for the wards should also be carried out.

Acknowledgement

This study would not have been done without the support and encouragement by various people and institutions whose contributions I feel strongly indebted to. I would like to begin by thanking my able Supervisor, Professor Charles M. Namafe, whose main interest, in my opinion, was to see me succeed in academic life. I am also greatly indebted to my lecturers; Dr .L Mweemba, Mr .C. S. Kandondo, Dr. G Muleya and Dr. G Masaiti for their tireless efforts to make sure that I succeed in my academic life. Special thanks go to Mr Nondo F, Mrs Rozalia P. Ndhlovu, Mrs Teresa C. Nkunde, Mrs Nachivula C. Mphande and Oliver Magasu, whose support and encouragement motivated me to do this study. I would also like to address a special thank you to Chibombo District Commissioner's office, Chibombo District Council, World Vision and Plan International Zambia that participated in this study, especially to the people who were interviewed and sharing their experiences with me and for facilitating much of my work during data collection period. Finally, I would like to thank Chibombo DEB office, Chibombo Secondary School administration and teachers whose moral support enabled me to carry out this research.

Dedication

This study is dedicated to my beloved husband Kennedy N. Kangwa, my children Chella, Eneya, Mutinta and Chipego, whose unflinching support has been instrumental to my success. Mum and dad, brothers and sisters are also thanked for the gift of education and for the moral support they gave me during this study.

Table of Contents

<i>Copyright</i>	<i>i</i>
<i>Declaration</i>	<i>ii</i>
<i>Certificate of Approval</i>	<i>iii</i>
<i>Abstract</i>	<i>iv</i>
<i>Acknowledgement</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>Dedication</i>	<i>vi</i>
<i>Appendices</i>	<i>xii</i>
<i>List of Abbreviations/Acronyms</i>	<i>xiii</i>
CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Background	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem	3
1.4 Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.5 Research Objectives	4
1.6 General Research Question	4
1.7 Specific Research Questions	5
1.8 Significance of the Study	5
1.9 Limitations of the Study	5
1.10 Theoretical Framework	5
1.11 Organisation of the Dissertation.....	8
1.12 Summary of the Chapter.....	8
CHAPTER TWO : LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1 Overview	9
2.2 Meaning of Decentralisation	9
2.2.1 Types of Decentralisation	10
2.2.2 Forms of Decentralisation	11
2.2.3 Community Participation through Decentralisation	13
2.3 Studies on Decentralisation	14
2.3.1 Decentralisation outside Africa	14
2.3.2 A History of Decentralised Local Governance in Africa	16
2.3.3 Decentralisation in Africa.....	21
2.4 Community Participation in Zambia	37

2.5 Measuring Participation	38
2. 6 Key Elements of Participation.....	42
2.7 Summary of the Chapter.....	42
CHAPTER THREE : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	43
3.1 Overview	43
3.2 Research Approach.....	43
3.3 Research Design	45
3.4 Research Site	46
3.5 Population.....	46
3.6 Sample Size	46
3. 7 Sampling Techniques	47
3.8 Data Collection Tools.....	47
3.8.1 Primary Data	47
3.8.2 Secondary Data Sources	49
3.9 Data Analysis	49
3.10 Presentation of Data	49
3.11 Ethical Consideration	49
3.12 Data Validity and Reliability.....	50
3.13 Summary of the Chapter.....	50
CHAPTER FOUR : PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	51
4.1 Overview	51
4.2 Demographic Data	52
4.2.1 Gender of Respondents	52
4.2.2 Education Level of the Respondents	53
4.2.3 Marital Status of the Respondents.....	53
4.2.4 Denomination of the Respondents	54
4.2.5 Nature of Occupation of the Respondents.....	54
4.2.6 Age Range of Respondents	54
4.3 How WDCs in Keembe Promote Community Participation in Projects.....	55
4.4 Community Participation in Selected WDCs of Chibombo District.....	58
4.5 Challenges	60
4.5.1 Challenges Faced by the Community	60
4.5.2 Challenges Faced by WDCs	60

4.6 Suggestions for Improvement in Selected WDCs	61
4.7 Summary of the Chapter	63
CHAPTER FIVE : DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	64
5.1 Overview	64
5.2 Promoting Community Participation.....	64
5.3 Types of Projects Undertaken	66
5.4 Community Views on Initiation of Projects.....	66
5.5 Causes of Low Participation.....	67
5.6 Suggestions on Increasing Participation.....	68
5.7 Suggestions on Promoting Awareness and Involvement	69
5.8 Challenges of WDCs in Promoting Participation in Developmental Projects .	70
5.9 Summary of the Chapter.....	72
CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	73
6.1 Overview	73
6.2 Conclusion.....	73
6.3 Recommendations	74
6.4 Suggestions for Further Study	74
6.5 Summary of the Chapter.....	75
REFERENCES.....	76
Appendices	88

List of Tables

Table 1 : Arnstein’s Ladder of Participation.....	38
Table 2 : Wilcox’s Ladder of Participation.....	39
Table 3 : UNIFEF/ Schaeffer Levels of Participation.....	41
Table 4 : Ideal ladder of Participation proposed by this Study.....	41
Table 5: Age range of respondents.....	54
Table 6 : Suggestions for improvement.	61

List of Figures

Figure 1: Local and Central Government Structure.....	28
Figure 2: Sex of Respondents	51
Figure 3: Education Level of Respondents	52
Figure 4: Participation in Ward Development Committees.....	54
Figure 5: Community Participation.....	57
Figure 6: Challenges Faced by the Community.....	59

Appendices

APPENDIX I: Questionnaire for Community Members	88
APPENDIX II: Interview Schedule for the District Officials and NGOs.....	92
APPENDIX III: Permission Letter to Collect Data	93

List of Abbreviations/Acronyms

AAG	– Affirmative Action Group
ADC	– Area Development Committee
CDC	– Constituency Development Committee
CAMPFIRE	–Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CDF	– Constituency Development Fund
CS	– Council Secretary
DANIDA	– Danish International Development Agency
DDCC	– District Development Co-ordination Committees
DG	– District Governor
DMTDPs	–District Medium-Term Development Plans
FODEP	– Foundation for Democratic Process
GRZ	– Government of the Republic of Zambia
IBDC	– Indigenous Business Development Centre
IMF	– International Monetary Fund
LG	– Local Government
LgWSC	– Lukanga Water and Sewerage Company
MMD	– Movement for Multi –party Democracy
MoLGH	– Ministry of Local Government and Housing
NEDA	–National Economic Development Authority
NGOs	– Non-Governmental Organisations
NOVIB	–Netherlands Organisation for International Development Cooperation
PF	– Patriotic Front
RDC	– Resident Development Committee
SAP	– Structural Adjustment Programme

- WB – World Bank
- WDC – Ward Development Committee
- UNIP – United National Independence Party
- VPC – Village Productivity Committee
- ZANU PF – Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter presents the background to the study and defines the problem statement. It further looks at the purpose of the study, objectives and research questions that needed to be answered in the study. The chapter further reflects on the significance, theoretical framework, and provides the summary of the chapter.

1.2 Background

The re-introduction of multiparty politics in 1991 in Zambia facilitated the establishment of more support for citizen participatory approaches to developmental processes. This necessitated the concept of community participation which has been endorsed by both the Central Government and by Local Authorities in Zambia as an essential strategic element in projects designed to improve living conditions for low-income groups. Constituency Development Committees (CDC) which are at constituency level receive project proposals from sub-district development structures such as Area Development Committee (ADC), Resident Development Committee (RDC) and Ward Development Committee (WDC). The ADC, RDC and WDC are sub-committees in constituencies in charge of ward developmental projects.

The general aim of WDCs is to try and bring developmental initiatives in communities by the communities themselves, with full linkage to and participation of village and traditional councils where appropriate (GRZ, 2002). Community participation is very important as it ensures consistency with local needs and priorities. Community participation in democratic governance can be promoted through democratic governance at grassroots level (Constitution of Zambia, 2016). This can be coordinated at ward level by the WDCs. A Ward is an area within a local authority from which a councillor is elected under the provisions of the 1965 Local Government Act. One of the functions of WDCs is to consider developmental needs. The process of community participation in working together with WDCs is to provide a basis for decentralised local governance. Communities can participate in the implementation and monitoring of district plans by ensuring that grassroots are

involved in the identification of developmental projects (Zambia Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, 2007).

Projects that members of the community are supposed to participate in should be developmental in nature and should be beneficial to various stakeholders in the community. Initiatives of these projects should be community based in order to ensure that the prospective benefits are available to the inhabitants of a particular area (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007).

WDCs stem from the need for communities to exercise control over their affairs and foster meaningful development which requires some degree of authority to be taken to local councils as well as the community. WDCs, in turn will help the community to have absolute control and be responsible for the developmental projects of the community. WDCs facilitate the policy of 'taking power to the people' (MoLGH, 1972). The implementation of projects is supposed to involve community participation in form of labour both skilled and unskilled and use of locally available materials as much as possible, thereby promoting community participation in decision-making, development planning and implementation (MoLGH, 2006).

There are a number of reasons why community participation is so important in developmental projects targeting low-income communities and rural areas. This is because in most districts, development agencies do not effectively coordinate their respective intervention aimed at alleviating poverty and improving the standard of living of the community despite the massive investment, thus the need for the community to be involved so as to galvanise their energies towards attaining a more responsive governance system that will effectively address and enhance the communities' need and participation (MoLGH, 2012)

Key features of community participation are inclusiveness and involvement. Inclusiveness implies that everybody should be included (directly or indirectly) in the processes these have an impact on people's livelihood. For example, Local Authorities should put in place and ensure that various avenues exist through which citizens/residents in the community/district make a contribution in decision making that can affect development and policies in their own areas (Ministry of Local Government and Housing, 2006).

Ward Development Committees (WDCs) are administrative wings or branches of Township councils charged with the responsibility of Ward Development Project. The origin of WDCs dates back from the advent of the multiparty democracy in 1991 when the Zambian economy shifted from a centrally planned economy to market economy (MoLGH, 2006).

The Government of the Third Republic saw an elaboration and adoption of the decentralisation act whose major theme was ‘Towards Empowering the people’. The National Decentralisation Policy provides for the strengthening of local government to facilitate more effective citizen participation in governance, accountability and delivery of public services as the basis for decentralisation (GRZ, 2002).

Through the Zambia National Decentralisation Policy, the government’s vision is to achieve a fully decentralised system of government that will implement the process of public service and community participation in decision-making while maintaining sufficient linkages between Central and Local government (MoLGH, 2006). It is from this background that this study seeks to evaluate the effectiveness of WDCs in enhancing community participation in developmental projects in Keembe Constituency of Chibombo district. The aims of WDCs are to;

- a. Create a link between communities and the Council.
- b. Ensure that the residents in the Wards have an input in decisions made by the Council.
- c. Stimulate and coordinate initiatives for the improvement and the livelihood of the community.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

As the population of Zambia continued to grow at a fast rate, there was need to come up with forums for community participation in decision-making on local development activities and affairs. In its efforts to facilitate community participation, the Zambian government in this regard created a network of ‘grassroot participatory’ structures between local authorities and the sub-district level (Chikulo 2009). To this end, the Government decided to establish WDCs under the Village Registration and Development Act No.30 of 1971. Ward Development Committees were established in all constituencies to act as facilitators of community-based projects. Under the

1991 Local Government Act, each council's area of dominion was demarcated into wards for the purpose of facilitating development and also to enhance community participation. In spite of the Zambian government's effort in trying to enhance community participation in developmental projects, active community participation seemed not to be attainable (MoLGH, 2006) and such a situation constitutes a problem. Low participation in development projects by communities resulted in several sub-problems. These include, among others, projects not taking off or not being completed on time. In some cases, funds meant to benefit communities tend to be misused, stolen or misdirected to other projects. This research, therefore, tried to investigate the state of local community participation in development projects in Chibombo, Chikobo, and Mashikili Wards of Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish the effectiveness of Ward Development Committees in enhancing community participation in developmental projects in Zambia's Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District.

1.5 Research Objectives

This study tried to address the above-stated purpose through the following specific objectives:

- a. To establish whether or not selected Ward development committees in Keembe Constituency promoted community participation.
- b. To determine if individual households of selected WDCs of Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District participated in developmental projects.
- c. To identify challenges that were faced by Ward Development Committees.
- d. Suggest improvement that could be made in such WDCs of Keembe Constituency

1.6 General Research Question

The general research question addressed was:

How effective are Ward Development Committees' of Zambia's Keembe Constituency in enhancing community participation in developmental projects?

1.7 Specific Research Questions

The above research question was addressed through the following specific questions:

- a. Do selected Ward Development Committees in Keembe Constituency promote community participation in developmental projects?
- b. What developmental projects do individual households of the selected WDCs of Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District participate in?
- c. What challenges are faced by Ward development Committees of Keembe Constituency in implementing developmental projects?
- d. What suggestions for improvement can be made in selected WDCs of Keembe Constituency?

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study is important in that it may provide information to policy makers so that the problem of low participation by the community in developmental projects can be solved as it focuses on community participation in developmental projects. This may help in bringing about development, unlike a situation where development projects have been left uncompleted or where projects do not take place at all and are also left unutilised by their intended beneficiaries. This may help to provide information on community participation in developmental projects. It may also provide useful information and add knowledge to the existing literature.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

The study focused only on stakeholders and community members in Chibombo District of Keembe Constituency, in particular, Chibombo, Chikobo, and Mashikili Wards and on the information that was obtained through interviews and questionnaires. Therefore, the findings of this study may not be a true representative of all other districts in Zambia.

1.10 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a general set of assumptions about the nature of phenomena. It is a reasoned set of propositions, which are derived from and supported by data or evidence (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). A theory is also defined as a set of propositions which together describe and explain the phenomenon being

studied (Punch, 2006). The study was guided by Paulo Freire's theory of conscientisation which is a process through which the marginalised groups could move from a naïve to a critical consciousness, thereby creating the conditions for the transformation of society in accordance with social justice (McCowan 2009).

Paulo Frère was a radical educational reformer from Latin America who portrayed a practical and theoretical approach to liberation through education. His work involved teaching people with limited literacy skills in developing nations. He adopted an educational method that proved to be a threat to those in authority, and was exiled from Brazil in 1959. Frère wanted people to develop an ontological vocation (Frère, 1970). From Frèrean perspective ontological vocation is a theory of existence, which regards people as subjects, not objects, who are constantly reflecting and acting on the transformation of their own world so as to make it a more equitable place for all to live in. Taylor (1998) explains that Frère is another person who has worked with transformative learning. Instead of focusing on individual transformation, Frère extends his efforts on social change. Frère advocated that critical reflection is an important part of the transformational learning process. He sees its purpose being based on rediscovery of power, such that the more critically aware learners become, the more they are able to transform society and subsequently their own reality.

Frère's was much more concerned about social transformation by the unveiling or demythologising of reality by the oppressed through the awakening of their critical consciousness, when they learn to perceive social, political and economic contradictions, and decide to take action against the oppressive elements of reality. This awakening or rekindling of one's consciousness is the consequence of Frère's education process called transformative learning. Transformative learning from Frère's perspective is a social, political and pedagogical practice that takes place when people reach a deeper, richer, more textured and nuanced understanding of themselves and their world, and when they are prepared to act upon this new understanding. Based on the normative assumptions of the critical theory that most social exchanges involve a relationship of domination, and that language constitutes identities, transformative learning attempts to recreate the various theoretical contexts for the examination of rituals, myths, icons, totems, symbols and taboos in

education and society, seeking to understand and transform social agencies and structures. It is closely related to emancipatory work of Paulo Frère that is known as the pedagogy of the oppressed and is certainly the most famous example of application of this school's critical theory. When critically examined, one notices that the transformative learning theory is an on-going process of shifting, over time to follow social transformation.

At this state people are able to examine their conditions of lives, analyse the consequences of their actions and make linkages between the conditions of their lives and the elite (oppressors). During this particular period, people realise that the conditions of their lives are a consequence of human actions and not a whirl-wind of forces beyond their control. Consequently, they are able to apply human agency to transform their lives and their society. Frère argues that if individuals are in the state of intransitive or semi transitive consciousness they can be trained to regain their human potential through the process of conscientisation. Conscientisation according to Frère, is a process of facilitating individuals to reflect and act on their conditions of life. The process is empowering because it introduces (re-introduces) human agency in the affected individuals. The consequence of conscientisation is social transformation where unjust structures and systems are eradicated. Frère thought that both the oppressor and the oppressed needed conscientisation. Conscientisation is basically a methodology that introduces people to critical thinking.

A critical thinking skill is the ability to solve a problem which results in reliable knowledge. Humans constantly process information which they, in turn, communicate or act upon. When a person makes a decision after being well informed it is said that the person has made an informed decision. It is assumed that if a person uses knowledge which he achieved appropriately, then he is wise and is able to use that knowledge to participate in the developmental projects of their wards (McCown, 2009).

Essentially, this theory points out that citizens should be enlightened so that they are able to understand what government is doing and also what is required of them in order to develop their communities. This would help the community to get involved and also claim ownership. By so doing, society can be organised in the best interest

of all and that individual citizens can act for the common good. This allows community participation in decision-making and also facilitates service delivery based on the community's needs (Haque, 2010).

1.11 Organisation of the Dissertation

The first chapter gives the introduction to the study. It also presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the research study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, theoretical framework and conceptual framework. Chapter Two is the literature review while Chapter Three presents the research methodology and explains the research design, study population, sample size, sampling technique, data collection instruments, data analysis, data presentation, validity and reliability of data collected and ethical considerations. Chapter Four presents findings from the study. Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study. The discussion is based on the objectives of the study. Finally, Chapter Six gives the conclusion of the study and makes recommendations based on the findings of this study.

1.12 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the background to the problem by giving a synopsis of community participation in WDCs. The Chapter further presented the statement of the problem together with the research purpose, objectives and questions, significance of the study, conceptual framework and organisation of the dissertation. The theoretical framework provided focus on the study. The next chapter provides a review of the literature on decentralisation and ward development committees in enhancing community participation for the purpose of positioning the study in the context of knowledge and identifying gaps in knowledge; hence justifying the need for the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter provides scholarly literature that informed this study. It further provides literature on the existence and nature of decentralisation. A review of these studies will help give an insight of practical information that would answer the research questions and provide the kind of information for community participation through WDCs. These studies are drawn from the global level, Africa and finally narrowed to Zambia. It should be noted that decentralisation emphasises the importance of community participation in the developmental process, thus, decentralisation emanates from the need for the citizenry to exercise control over its local affairs and foster meaningful development. Decentralisation Policy promotes community participation in democratic governance at local level (ward level) to enhance local governance.

2.2 Meaning of Decentralisation

Studies indicate that past decades have seen many governments especially those in transition advocate decentralisation as a means of improving the quality of public service delivery and the role of the citizenry in the development processes. Efforts to promote decentralisation by many countries is premised on the assumption that local governments will be more responsive to the needs of the citizens and take their preferences into account in determining the type of services to be provided, the level of resources required, and the optimal means of ensuring effective delivery (Robinson, 2007). This seemingly plausible intent has made decentralisation a catchword in today's mainstream development discourse. Notwithstanding the interest and popularity of the term, however, its definition and meaning have been a field of contest with different people attributing diverse meanings to the concept (Conyers, 1984; Robino, 2009).

Rondinelli and Nellis (1986) define decentralisation as 'the transfer of responsibility for planning, management, and the raising and allocation of resources from the Central government and its agencies to subordinate units or level of government'.

Conyers (1990, cited in McGee *et al.*, 2003:7), in turn, define decentralisation as ‘the transfer of power and/or authority to plan, make decisions and/or manage public functions from a higher level of government to a lower one. Therefore, decentralisation means handing over political, financial and administrative authority from central to local (district) governments so that government can facilitate and guarantee better public service for the people. Decentralisation of local government should, however, be viewed as a positive development to bring public service closer to the community through managing local sources in a sustainable manner for the community’s welfare (Yuliani, 2004).

2.2.1 Types of Decentralisation

(i) Political Decentralisation

The aim of political decentralisation is that it gives citizens or their elected leaders more power in public decision-making. It is often associated with pluralistic politics and representative government, but it can also support democratisation by giving citizens, or their representatives, more influence in the formulation and implementation of policies. From the perspective of democratic principles, decentralisation then means the distribution of powers between elected authorities (Olowu, 2001). This entails that complete decisions are made by local representatives of local powers, though always within policy guidelines, and probably funding arrangements, directed by the centre (Robertson,1993). Participation and decentralisation have a symbolic relationship. The symbolic relationship between decentralisation and participation leads to somewhat contradictory policy guidelines. On one hand, mechanisms for citizen participation could be considered a helpful pre-condition when evaluating the prospects for successful decentralisation. On the other hand, the design of decentralisation should take into account the opportunities and limitations imposed by existing channels of local participation.

(ii) Fiscal Decentralisation

This type is a core component of decentralisation. If local governments and other organisations are to carry out decentralised functions effectively, they must have enough funds as well as the authority to make decisions about expenditure. Fiscal

decentralisation can take many forms including self-financing, co-financing, expansion of local revenue through property or sales taxes or indirect charges, intergovernmental transfers that shift general revenues from taxes collected to local governments for general or specific uses and authorization of municipal borrowing and the mobilisation of either national or local government resources through loans (United Nations, 1996).

(iii) Economic or Market Decentralisation

The most complete forms of decentralisation from a government's perspective are privatisation and deregulation because they shift responsibility for functions from the public to the private sector. Decentralisation means effectiveness and appropriateness of policy. A fully centralised system runs the risk of being proper incentives (Malinvaud, 1998). The results of policies are dependent upon implementation by bureaucracies and administration responsibilities that are transferred to those levels where corresponding tasks arise. The most effective execution of participation at local level as the idea of implementation concerns should guide policy from bottom up rather than vice versa (Peters and Wright, 1996).

(iv) Administrative Decentralisation

This type seeks to redistribute authority, responsibility and financial resources for providing public services among different levels of government. It is the transfer of responsibility for the planning, financing and management of certain public functions from the Central government and its agencies to field units of government agencies, subordinate units or levels of government, semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations, or area-wide, regional or functional authorities. Administrative decentralisation is by far the most common and accepted type of decentralisation, in so far as development is concerned (Holtmann, 2000).

2.2.2 Forms of Decentralisation

The literature reviewed on decentralisation identifies three distinct forms of decentralisation: deconcentration, delegation and devolution (Bergh, 2004). Deconcentration refers to the process by which the Central government shifts responsibilities for certain services to its regional branch offices without involving any transfer of authority to lower levels of government (Litvack *et al.* 1998, cited in

Bergh, 2004). This is considered the weakest form of decentralisation (Rondinelli 1999; Bergh, 2004)

Delegation refers to the transfer of administrative responsibilities from the Central Government to lower levels of government. It is a situation in which the Central Government transfers responsibility for decision-making and administration of public functions to local governments or to semi- autonomous organisations that are not wholly controlled by the Central Government but are ultimately accountable to it (Bergh, 2004). In Zambia, delegation is mostly applied and it is common to find government agencies such as local authorities and executive agencies using this form of decentralisation (Kandondo, 2001).

Devolution occurs when the Central Government shifts authority for decision-making. It is the transfer of power from higher to lower levels of government. Devolution is thus inter-organisational delegation of responsibilities and flexible authority. The major consideration of devolution is political popular participation and empowerment (Kandondo, 2001). Through devolution, the Central Government confers or recognises self-governing capacities on local communities. It follows any programme of devolution decentralisation and involves the transfer of legislative, political administrative and financial authority to plan and make decisions and manage public functions and services from the Central Government to local authorities (Olowu, 2001). Zambia has chosen decentralisation by devolution. The legal framework for Local Governments and the decentralisation process can be found in the constitution, the Local Government Act and the National Decentralisation Policy. Decentralisation, if properly implemented can lead to efficient and effective delivery of services. Decentralisation through devolution would be most effective as it ensures technical efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery and enhances popular participation. The fundamental reasons for adopting "devolution" as the form of decentralisation in a unitary state like Zambia are varied (The National Decentralisation Policy, 2002).

Another form of decentralisation is called Privatisation. Ferguson and Chandrasekharan (n.d) define Privatisation as a particular form of devolution to private ownership that has come prominently in recent times. It empowers people to

fully and effectively participate in the management of their enterprises. Privatisation, on the other hand, cannot be applied to public administration since local authorities and related public offices cannot be privatised. However, Ribot in his paper says that privatisation is not a form of decentralisation (Ribot, 2002) but recognises devolution, delegation and deconcentration.

2.2.3 Community Participation through Decentralisation

It is beyond dispute that community participation constitutes an important factor in any country's development. In a democratic state, community participation is treated as part of an overall system of the decentralised decision-making where individual community problems are taken into account.

Participation is people's involvement in the decision-making process, their sharing in the benefits of developmental programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes. At a community level participation simply refers to members of a particular community taking a responsibility to get involved actively in the public life of the community in which they live. Participation calls for the involvement of oneself in those aspects of life that affect a majority or the entire population of a particular community. It also calls for the identification of oneself with efforts and work to achieve the common good for the benefit of the entire community (FODEP, 2000).

The main purpose of getting local people to participate in developmental projects is to allow them to take control of the direction of the projects in their community and assume ownership. This calls for the community to have skill and capacity. In this case, the local people's capacity to participate should be stimulated most importantly, by information about the importance of community participation in which all stakeholders in the community carefully identify and examine what they want and value in the community. To be of value, the information needs to be effectively conveyed to the residents who are the beneficiaries. If this were so, it would be clear that conscientization is very important in the process of succeeding in community developmental projects (Jere, 2012).

The key features of community participation are inclusiveness and involvement. Inclusiveness implies that everybody should be included (directly or indirectly) in

the processes that have an impact on their livelihood. For example, Local Authorities should put in place and ensure that various avenues exist through which the citizens/residents in the community can make a contribution in a decision that affects development and policies in their own areas.

Most efforts of community participation are concentrated in the construction of basic services infrastructures. Only in two sectors are community-based bodies recognised as playing a role in the operation and maintenance of basic services, namely; in education - the School Management Committees and Parent Teacher Associations, and in health - the Primary Health Units involved in the maintenance of primary health facilities. In other districts, there are also borehole and water management committees. In some districts, there has been exceptional progress. For example, Nebbi District in the north-west of Ghana has attempted to integrate community-based projects through local fund matching. The same district sees considerable potential in user or beneficiary associations as a vehicle for the construction and maintenance of rural basic service infrastructures. It may be concluded that Uganda presents the best overall conditions to support local governance processes via communities and their organisations. The local institutional setup provides important conditions for an effective integration of grassroots and district level development. A central question would be how to ensure that communities contributions to local governance, in terms of development aspirations, knowledge and resources.

2.3 Studies on Decentralisation

2.3.1 Decentralisation outside Africa

Pradeep (2011) did a study on Local government (LG) service delivery system in Sri Lanka and its effects on day-to-day activities of citizens at the grassroots level. Generally, types of public goods and services and the way services are delivered by LG are frequently changing in the context of people's expectation, changes in the technology, scientific innovation, availability of resources, and challenges that emerge either internally or externally. Though several attempts had been taken to enhance service delivery of LG through continuous technical and financial assistance in Sri Lanka during last two decades, in most cases service receivers were socially excluded or faced problems in getting basic goods and service from the LG. This situation emerged due to a number of factors such as shortage of sufficient and

competence human resources, inconsistency politics, unclear powers and functions to undertake service delivery, poor public-private partnership, inadequate financial resources, inaccessibility to the community for services, and poor public participation. Therefore, the study attempted to explore the challenges of LG service delivery in Sri Lanka. The major findings of the study were that though as a decentralised LG institution, Matara Municipal Council implemented several strategies and innovations, developed partnership with the private sector and enhanced the public participation in the health service delivery process, it failed to ensure the better health service delivery to the public.

The main factor for this is that it did not have an appropriate constitutional and legal framework, institutional capacity, service delivery mechanism built up by a public-private partnership and mutual understanding between national and local political leadership. This situation needed to emerge various challenges in health service delivery including a shortage of sufficient and competence human resources, inconsistency politics, unclear powers and functions to undertake the health service delivery, poor public-private partnership, inadequate financial resources, inadequate physical resources, inaccessibility to the community for health services, and poor public participation. For the sustainability of health service delivery at grassroots level, the study recommends mobilising the public to participate in health service delivery, introduction of new strategies and innovations, filling vacancies and enhancing competency of the staff, regularising the Internal Auditing Mechanism, improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the health service delivery through the Five Year Plan and enhancing Public-Private Partnership in health service delivery.

Barrera-Osorio's (2003) thesis analyses the relationship between decentralisation and education in Colombia, where in 1991 decentralisation of the State was implemented. The thesis focused on two relationships: first, the relationship between decentralisation and quality of education; and second, this relationship across individuals with different incomes. Theoretically, it was found that decentralisation may increase the efficiency in the provision of education, and therefore, expected an increment in educational quality in schools affected by decentralisation. Furthermore, decentralisation may create an unequal distribution of educational quality, therefore, concluding that the impact of decentralisation on education is asymmetric with respect to income.

Hamid's (2013) thesis focuses on decentralisation in Indonesia and its effects on road infrastructure provision. The thesis found that decentralisation had improved the availability of local road infrastructure and that there was a positive relationship between the improvement of the local roads infrastructure stocks and the mayor's quality. However, it appears the aims of decentralisation are yet to yield the desired benefits, and hence this study.

Saavedra's (2009) study builds on the conceptual framework of the relationship between decentralisation and service delivery and provides a cross-country empirical examination of the core dimensions of decentralisation reform on access to two key services: health care and improved drinking water sources. The regression results provide evidence supporting positive and significant effects of fiscal, administrative, and political decentralisation, individually, on the variables used to measure access to health care, and improved water provision; although the size and robustness of such effects vary for each dimension of decentralisation in relation to each service examined. The results obtained in this study suggest that there is an additional positive effect coming from the interaction of two decentralisation dimensions on access to health care and water services (that is, a mutually-reinforcing effect additional to the individual effect of each dimension of decentralisation). The results obtained also support the expectation that developing countries could benefit significantly more from decentralisation reforms compared to developed countries. These findings underscore the importance of considering all dimensions of the decentralisation process when investigating the effects of this reform on any economic, institutional, or social variable.

2.3.2 A History of Decentralised Local Governance in Africa

Africa's encounter with various forms of local governance as has been argued, pre-dates colonialism (Olowu and Wunsch, 2004). Commentators point out that Africa's encounter with modes of social formations and indigenous governance systems which are associated with modern day decentralised governance such as markets, self-help community organisation, farmers unions, and local interest groups has always been part of African societies. Notwithstanding the above, formal attempts to institutionalise decentralised local governance in Africa only became perceptible with colonialist efforts. According to Crook and Manor (1998), historically, experimentations with decentralisation in Africa dates back to the colonial reforms

of the 1950s. However, it must be noted that this experience differs from country to country, with the occurrence of local government in some countries stretching beyond colonial days. For instance, discussants suggest that globalisation, internal economic crisis, structural adjustment, and democratisation, as well as local domestic forces including urbanisation, and the quest to strengthen pre-existing ethnic identities may have influenced the emergence of decentralisation (Olowu 2006). These developments appear to coincide with key historical epochs in Africa's development. As will be discussed later, decentralisation reforms in Africa take many forms, but scholars believe the experience in many African countries has not been a glowing one (Olowu and Wunsch, 2004), or that it is mostly a negative experience (Crook, 1998).

Historically, decentralisation reforms in Africa have progressed in five distinct phases, each representing a development epoch and influenced by different political, economic, and social motivations. The next few paragraphs highlight the periods of decentralisation or local governance in Africa and, where possible present their characteristics. Faced with mostly vast and difficult to traverse terrain, with fewer than is necessary colonial administrators, Africa's colonisers are believed to have initiated and implemented a form of decentralised local governance. Whether positive results of decentralisation have been attained is what this study will establish.

The coloniser's primary tactic was helped by existing traditional rulers who became a preferred way to reach the hinterland. To achieve this mode of local governance, therefore, colonisers are said to have created traditional chiefdoms where there were none and empowered them to carry out what can best be described in today's terms as a de-concentrated system mostly by way of implementing directives from central colonial governors (Olowu *et al.* 2004).

The literature also confirms that this form of local governance, often referred to as 'indirect rule' first appeared in Asian states particularly in India in the early 1950s, and reached Africa by the 1960s (Mamdani 1996; Olowu and Wunsch, 2004). Comparatively, however, the objective of indirect rule differed completely from present day decentralised local governance. The administrative principle adopted provided the impetus for decentralisation as it is today. At independence, many

African states, probably for their hatred of the colonial system quickly abolished any form of indirect rule. Further, it might have been realised that, indirect rule merely served colonial interest to expand a cheap coverage of the territory, rather than to provide an opportunity neither for popular political participation and expression nor serve as a structure of accountability to the public as envisaged in tenets of modern decentralisation and especially serve the interest of growing numbers of educated elite. In addition, it did little to spearhead political, social, and economic development. As literature has it, the traditional rulers favoured by indirect rule, were mostly illiterate, change averse and variously appropriated the power and authority to acquire personal wealth to the chagrin of the growing educated elite (Firmin and Sellers, 1999). Whether this is the case with WDCs is what this study will establish.

Probably the most prominent time for local governance in Africa arrived with the discontinuation of the Second World War and the period leading to independence in most countries (Hicks 1961, Olowu 1999, Olowu and Wunsch 2004, Olowu *et al.* 2004). The change was occasioned by the prevailing political, economic, as well as humanitarian circumstances on the ground. First, the colonisers perceived that the colonies had become a source of economic drain given that war had to be fought to keep them and that the colonisers had become economically exhausted from the war. According to Olowu *et al* (2004), economically, keeping colonies under such condition brought great monetary and human costs which were uneconomic to bear. Next, the outcomes of war ignited a realisation of ‘self-determination for all people of the world’ (*ibid*, 2004), and finally, political pressure escalated owing to strong liberation movements and the growing number of the militant intelligentsia who through education and exposure had felt the benefits of self-determination.

Further, Hicks, (1961) points out that earlier radical policy shift towards decentralised local governance was influenced by exogenous colonial development policy shift in West Africa contained in a popular 1947 Lord Creech-Jones’ dispatch in which it was argued that success in African administration was contingent on an efficient and democratic system of local government. He concluded that for local governance to be of benefit, it had to be *local* so that it is closer to the people and their problems. It has to be *efficient* and capable of managing local services in ways that can increase people’s standard of living and finally *democratic* to enable it to

find a place for the growing class of educated elite, but at the same time command the respect and support of the mass of the people. With this, the seed for change and the way for local government councils to become democratised had been planned.

In spite of these opportunities, a different agenda, which is contrary to the above perceived decentralised local governance approach, appears to have been prosecuted by African governments. This has led researchers to conclude that, African leaders sought to dismantle rather than to build on the strengths and gains of the historically prevailing legacy (Olowu *et al.* 2004; Dele, 2006). An interrogation of the literature further highlights African leaders' preoccupation with the so-called 'Africanisation' and the 'nation building' effort and the consequent adoption of centralised planning driven by socialist ideology as the course for the missed opportunity. The approach may have been adopted to drive home African leaders' quest to demonstrate that rapid socio-economic development was the way to express the political reality of independence.

This thinking required that the central state takes a lead in the planning and implementation of developmental projects, leaving little room for the implementation by local government administration. It is obvious, therefore, that wherever decentralised local governance was implemented, it was merely for political expediency, to reach out to the local, grassroots constituency to build political masses as opposed to achieving local development. Often times, a form of local governance characterised by central control and the implementation of centrally determined development plans become the rule of thumb and remain largely so in present day decentralised local governance. Following this, Olowu *et al* (2004), rightly opine that when leaders alluded to local governance, they actually implied a consultative assembly with limited real power over the officials in charge of local governments. Given this perfunctory attitude of African leadership to inclusion of local communities in local government implementation process, and their romance with a swing away from local autonomy in favour of central planning and greater control over public resources, a deconcentrated administration, which is probably weaker than the colonial one, was to be an expected outcome at the locality. As is the case today, this type of de-concentrated local government is aided by committees that hardly play any role beyond rubber stamping centrally evolved development plans and giving help in their implementation. It appears this was the case in WDCs

in Keembe Constituency as the community was not consulted and projects were just imposed on the community.

Another factor for local governance in Africa is mostly externally driven and donor influenced. Prominent among these are the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the World Bank (WB) who consistently pressured African nations into adopting Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) in response to the balance of payment deficits and continuing increases in economic decay. Within the SAP, the decentralised local government was hailed as a means of reducing the mounting Central government expenditure, or as a strategy to cope with the mounting economic crisis. African governments in addition to meeting the requirement of donors also jumped at implementing local governance as Olowu and Wunsch (2004) put it, to rid itself of the developmental responsibilities in order *to* respond to declining resources among other challenges (Crook 1998; Olowu and Wunsch 2004). It was concluded hence that the resultant local governments would also be empowered to identify and make relevant decisions regarding investment within their locals. As is the case with African states, Central governments only devolved responsibilities and not resources – human, financial and material- to the local units. At best, decentralisation thus became mere extensions of the Central government as local governments depended heavily on the central state for everything including budgets, personnel and policies guidance (Domfeh and Bawole 2009).

According to the literature, this kind of decentralisation contains design and operational challenges. Governments implemented them to satisfy donor conditions, second donors themselves did not pay attention to the nature and type of decentralised structures they were promoting, as a clear distinction was not made between deconcentration and devolution. Deconcentration tended to be emphasised much to the neglect of addressing governance challenges inherent in irresponsible use of power, corruption among others.

A comprehensive model based on democratisation and good governance reforms also took place around the 1990s decentralisation. This type of decentralisation reform was an integral part of the *democratisation process* which began in and involved the creation of large numbers of new, elective local government authorities in the 1980s (Crook 2003; Crook and Manor 1998). This approach became

prominent as a sequel of the failures of the 1980s Structural Adjustment Programs and Economic Recovery Program influenced decentralisation. This model is linked to political liberalisation and democratisation and has its main focus on local government institutions that are truly *participatory*, *responsive* and *responsible* to their locales. It is consistent with the kind envisaged in Lord Creech-Jones' dispatch and contrary to old forms which mostly transferred responsibilities to other levels of the same administrative system (Olowu and Wunsch, 2004).

The history of decentralised local governance represents various attempts by governments to bring government closer to people and to tap the creativity and resources of local communities through their participation in development (Crook and Manor 1998). To conclude, with a chequered historical basis, what represents the aim and rationale of decentralised local government in Africa apart from the fact that it is an answer to exogenous pressures for reform from development partners and donors led by the World Bank and other international institutions of power remains a matter of considerable disagreement among promoters, practitioners, and researchers alike.

2.3.3 Decentralisation in Africa

(i) Community Participation in Uganda through Decentralisation

In Africa, Uganda's decentralisation programme was among the most radical in Africa, celebrated by scholars and donors alike after its inception in the mid-1990s. Community participation is widely adopted in the districts with an emphasis on needs, project and plan identification, formulation and prioritisation, but practices vary from district to district. There is no formal nationwide grassroots planning system like in other countries and actual planning initiatives and practices are very much dependent upon the availability of donor funded programs. Several donors (like the Danish DANIDA and the Dutch NEDA) are active at the district level with community-based programs in the creation of basic services infrastructure. Each project, however, develops its own participatory structure and the degree to which these are patterned on existing local governance structures depends on the policy of the donor concerned and the practices adopted by project staff (Botchie, 2000). However, even with donor policy, community projects can still fail if they are imposed on the locals.

Ssonko's (2013) study centred on decentralisation policy in Uganda aimed at improving local democracy, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability in the delivery of essential services country-wide. Improved service delivery was in turn expected to make significant positive impact on people's quality of life. Unfortunately, the implementation of decentralisation appeared to have concentrated more on administrative objectives as a means of promoting popular democracy and less on service delivery which would have led to economic transformation and better lives for the majority of Ugandans, and then new districts were being created without corresponding improvements in service delivery. Surprisingly, this was happening in the midst of external praise that decentralisation reform in Uganda was one of the most far-reaching local government reform programmes in the developing world.

Ssonko (2013) explored the role of decentralisation in development and how it can be undermined by political factors. It highlights the development of decentralisation in Uganda, discusses its achievements, failure and challenges, and concludes that the decentralisation programme which was ambitious and politically driven has had mixed results in terms of enhancing service delivery and should be seriously reviewed and strengthened if it is to remain as a role model in Africa. This gives a call to evaluate the WDCs in Chibombo.

Zakari (2012) also explores the spaces for community participation in the plans formulation of District Medium- Term Development Plans (DMTDPs) in East Mamprusi District to ascertain the extent of community participation in plans formulation. He highlights the perception of citizens on these spaces and the mechanisms for their involvement and how they perceive their actual involvement in these spaces. He furthermore identifies relevant constraints to community participation in the DMTDP formulation for Mamprusi. Community involvement in developmental projects is cardinal for success, hence evaluating community participation in WDCs.

(ii) Community Participation in Zimbabwe through Decentralisation

Zimbabwe knows several forms of community organisation. Apart from sector based user group organisations that are relatively new and so far unimportant, there are three multipurpose forms of community organisation. Firstly, there is one around traditional authorities (kraal heads and chiefs). This institutional form had been

deliberately underplayed immediately after independence as it constituted a rival political force for ZANU (PF) which still had to consolidate its power. Land allocation and community courts were removed from their domain. To fill the intended vacuum, the Government of Zimbabwe promoted village and ward development committees, which as we have seen above, were meant to be the principal institutions for grassroots participation. These constituted the second main form. The third refers to ad-hoc community organisational forms set up by NGOs, especially in the late 80s and 90s, as part of their programs of integrated rural development. Examples are those set up by the Lutheran World Federation and Christian Care. The German-sponsored Committees for Agricultural and Rural Development, the local development associations set up by the Dutch NOVIB, and the local wildlife management committees set up under the CAMPFIRE programme). Community participation takes a variety of forms in Zimbabwe. How these varieties of forms of community participation enhance developmental projects is what this study will establish.

In particular sectors, community participation in the construction of basic services has been relatively successful (especially in water & sanitation, food for work, small dams, schools and clinics). The actual form it might take depends on local custom, tradition and past experiences. Donor funded projects and NGOs have influenced the Institutional form, often in ad-hoc fashion. The government introduced local structures for 'participatory planning' in the 80s (the above-mentioned village and ward development committees). In many districts, these are however weak, dormant or faded out of existence. On the whole, community participation is widely adopted, especially in the construction of basic services infrastructure. As the government is increasingly short of funds, community participation is likely to continue to remain (become) a (more) important mode of service facility generation. In Zimbabwe, central and local governments currently, dominate local governance processes (Helmsing, 1999).

The emerging institutional set up doesn't provide sufficient and adequate mechanisms that would ensure a balanced and sustainable integration of grassroots and district development. Furthermore, community-based organisations are relatively weak. Since the late 80s, the indigenous private sector has formed its own interest organisations, separate from established and white dominated associations. The

Indigenous Business Development Centre (IBDC), Zimbabwe Indigenous Women's Organisations (ZIBWO) and the Affirmative Action Group (AAG) are the most important ones. The last one mentioned operates primarily at local levels, though principally in cities. Also in Zimbabwe, there are relatively little experiences without contracting and privatisation of local public services. With respect to privatisation, there have been important developments at national level, some parastatals were successfully privatised (e.g. Dairy Board). However, the Government of Zimbabwe places more emphasis on commercialisation of its national parastatals. It considers that relinquishing public ownership would further reduce the already marginal national framework that specifies rights and responsibilities in relation to the (local) government (Helmsing, 1999).

(iii) Decentralisation in Zambia

Zambia's effort to decentralise its structures can be traced as far back as independence. According to The National Decentralisation Policy (2002) at independence in October 1964, the Zambian government inherited a dual system of administration. It comprised Central government field administration and elected local government. By then, Zambia was divided into eight provinces consisting of 44 districts. At the sub-district level, there were Native Authorities in the rural areas. The year 1965 saw the abolishment of the Native Authorities which were viewed as symbols of colonial repression and manipulation (Local Government Act (No. 30) of 1965). The new Act gave local authorities a wide range of powers to discharge over sixty functions in their areas of jurisdiction. In November 1968, the Zambian government announced reforms which entailed 'decentralisation in centralism. President Kenneth Kaunda (1968) declared:

I define this decentralisation in centralism as a measure whereby through the party and government machinery, we will decentralise most of your party and government activities while retaining effective control of the party and government machinery at the centre in the interests of unity.

At the district level, these reforms involved the appointment of a District Governor (DG) to head each of the fifty-three districts. The DG became the political – administrative head of the district. Thus, during this phase, the government sought to

institute political control over field administration, hence, the emphasis on cohesion and the need to build a centralised policy (Chikulo, 1981).

The second phase of decentralisation 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 (Zambia, 1971). Essentially, the abolishment of Native Authorities had created an institutional gap between the local authorities and the sub-district level. In order to bridge this gap, Village Productivity Committees (VPC), Ward Councils (WC) and Ward Development Committees (WDCs) were established under the Village Registration and Development Act (No. 30) of 1971. This made the village primary focus at the district level. Under this Act, a 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 WDCs. A WDC was established in every local government ward (Chikulo, 2009). Whether communities are participating in WDCs in Zambia is what this study will establish.

The third phase saw Zambia being declared a one-party state thereby granting the ruling party constitutional paramount over the entire state administrative apparatus. This phase witnessed increased politicisation and the imposition of the supremacy of the party over local governance (Chikulo, 1985b, 1989). The Central and Local government administration was merged with the ruling party (UNIP) structures, to create an integrated district administration, under the 1980 Act and was to “... ensure the effective integration of the primary organs of the party and other local administration units in the district.” Essentially, the system of local governance established by the 1980 reforms was, therefore, basically an attempt to create an institutional synthesis between Local government, Central government and the Party. Whether this is the case in Zambia today is what this study will establish.

With the re-introduction of multi-partism in Zambia, the local government had to be de-linked from the ruling party and measures were introduced to strengthen democratic control over administration and increase its accountability to democratically elected bodies. In addition, the 1991 Local Government Election Act (No. 26) re-introduced universal adult suffrage at the local government level. The

Act also empowers all categories of local authorities to undertake wide-ranging functions. The councils are recognised as the primary bodies responsible for development at the district level. However, it appears this Act has not strengthened the role of councils as focal points for wider participation and delivery of social services to the local communities.

According to GRZ (2002), the objectives of Decentralisation in Zambia stems from the need for the citizenry to exercise control over its local affairs and foster meaningful development which requires that some degree of authority is decentralised to provincial, district and sub-district levels as well as councils, in the background of centralisation of power, authority, resources and functions, which has in turn subjected institutions at provincial, district and sub- district levels to absolute control by the centre. In order to remove the absolute control by the centre, it is necessary to transfer the authority, functions and responsibilities, with matching resources to lower levels. Whether the transfer of authority to local councils enhances efficiency and effectiveness is what this study will establish.

According to Loloji (2001), Zambia has made two attempts to decentralise local government before: in 1968 and 1980. In both cases, however, no significant decentralisation took place. The beginning of the current decentralisation effort can be traced back to 1993 when the republican President launched the Public Sector Reform Programme (PSRP) whose main objective was to improve the quality, delivery, efficiency and effectiveness of the public services. The programme had three components i.e.

- (i) Restructuring of the line ministries;
- (ii) Management and human resource improvement, and
- (iii) Decentralisation and strengthening of local government.

Decentralisation was, therefore, the third component of the PSRP. The overall strategy was to position the public sector so that it facilitates private sector-led growth. This was in keeping with the new government's policy of moving the country from being public sector led to market orientation.

The policy formulation process of the current decentralisation reform started in 1995 when the consultations were initiated. Extensive consultations with different stakeholders were made between 1995 and 1998. These consultations involved NGOs, Chiefs, Senior Bureaucrats, Local bureaucrats, councillors, Donors and the general citizenry and were done through seminars, meetings and workshops. In 1998 when the draft document went to Cabinet, it stalled.

Nevertheless, after the 2001 elections, the government changed although the same party retained power. There was a major policy shift over decentralisation and adoption of the policy was back to the top of the agenda. Thus, in December 2002, the government adopted the new decentralisation policy and it was subsequently officially launched in August 2004 by the republican President. The main thrust of this policy was devolution although the process started with deconcentration where local authorities were given more functions while their capacity was to develop (Malama, 2003). This meant that government had to radically change the local relations from that of master-servant to that of partnership where councils become autonomous. The main driving force behind the new policy was to give the people more voice (through increased participation) in the running of local affairs, which means improved governance accountability. This was made clear by the following quotation from the policy document:

the vision of the government is to achieve a fully decentralized and democratically elected system of governance characterized by open, predictable and transparent policy making and implementation processes at all levels of the public service, effective local community participation in decision making and development and administration of their local affairs while maintaining sufficient linkage between central and local government (GRZ, 2002)

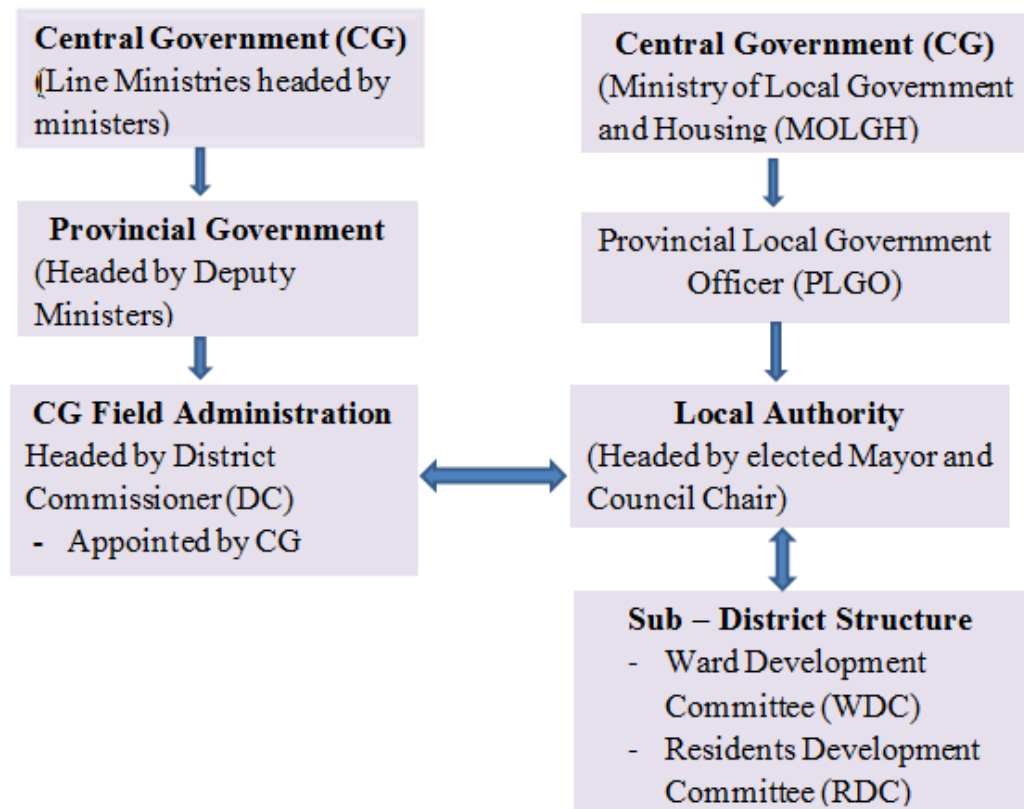
Although deconcentration and delegation transfer resources to lower level and subordinate authority, they have a tendency to concentrating authority in the hands of higher authorities and thus accountability is still left to the centre and hence, this study. In addition, although deconcentration and delegation can pursue the technical efficiency leading to greater effectiveness, these forms of decentralisation cannot

effectively enhance the decentralised system of administration. As a result, popular participation may not be realised.

Decentralisation can contribute to key elements of good governance, such as increasing communities' opportunities for participation in economic, social and political decisions; assisting in developing grass root's capacities; and enhancing government responsiveness, transparency and accountability. As a result, decentralisation has continued to be implemented through varying programmes and policies by governments around the world although there is no regular model that has been adopted by all governments and forms differ from country to country (UNDP, 1997).

Below is figure 1 showing the current Zambia's Government structure and the relationship between the three levels of Government?

Figure 1: Local and Central Government Structure



Source: (Malama, 2003)

The theory of conscientization was used as a foundation for community participation. As indicated above, the district (which is currently the main level at which service is delivered) has a dual administration that field administration of Central Government (represented by departments of line ministries such as Education, Health Agriculture, Works and Supply and the council). The two systems have separate reporting lines: The field administration staff report to their ministries through the provincial administration headed by the Provincial Permanent Secretary while the councils report directly to their parent Ministry, i.e. Local Government and Housing (MoLGH). The Provincial Local Government Officer (PLGO) has some very limited powers based on what the Minister delegates to him or her. The field administration is headed by the District Commissioner while the Council is headed by the Mayor/Council Chairperson (Loloji, 2001) In terms of local government Zambia has a single tier system comprising three types of councils, namely: City, Municipal and District.

People's sense of a place and their identification with a particular area or neighbourhood has a measurable greater impact than places further from them. This goes to indicate that the closely associated people are in the local community or ward, the greater their desire the greater the need for a firm foundation for democracy even at the broader constituency and national scale.

The local ward level is ideal for the pursuit of the true principles of democracy for this is the area where the individual citizen has the opportunity to participate directly in politics, policy and decision-making. Local Government is thus the most important and closer level for the residents in a district to exercise their democratic responsibilities. It is following this background that Zambia, like many countries has, adopted Ward Development Committees through the Decentralisation Policy in an attempt to facilitate community participation in developmental projects (MoLG 2006).

There are a lot of writings or literature on the effectiveness of WDCs as far as facilitating community participation in developmental projects is concerned. However, these works have their own portions of boundaries in relation to our topic of discussion but they are of great help since they give clear standpoint on the benefits that may emanate on using the community in their developmental projects.

Davidson (1992) points out that in view of the high rate of failure of many community projects in the past, it is now accepted that the target population should be involved at all stages of the project from concept through planning and population should be involved at all stages of the project from concept through planning and design to implementation and operation. He further states that community participation through WDCs is now recognised as the only practical means of improving projects' chances of success and best use of resources. Whether this is the case in districts, is what the study will establish.

It is in light of Davidson (1992) that the Area Based Organisation Revised constitution 2001 version have recognised the importance of WDCs. WDCs have the role of strengthening capacities for community management of development and providing a channel for dialogue and resource mobilisation with a range of development stakeholders. WDCs also engage in the participation of the community in a unified process of development irrespective of factors such as a political affiliation, gender, ethnic background and much more. This is always the case when proper guidelines are laid done.

WDCs work closely with all stakeholders in the ward in terms of mobilisation of resources both human and financial. WDCs however, do not assume the roles and responsibilities of other institutions operating in the ward. They are entry points of all development actors and interventions in the ward (MoLGH, 2012).

Stakeholders such as political parties, traditional leaders, NGOs and all relevant actors perform their mandate for which they were established but are required to collaborate with the WDC and provide periodical reports on matters of development being implemented in the ward.

Chibomba (2013) did a study that aimed at assessing the effectiveness of Constituency Development Fund (CDF) as a tool for community development. This was done through a case study of Katuba Constituency in the Central Province of Zambia. The study sought to gain insight into of the impact of CDF projects in relation to the goals espoused by the CDF as laid down in Zambia's Guidelines for the Utilisation and Management of the Constituency Development Fund. In this study, she discovered that project beneficiaries generally indicated that they were satisfied with the changes to their lives that were brought about as a result of the

CDF projects in their communities. Research findings showed that as a result of CDF, communities were able to identify their most pressing problems which had in some cases been eased with the participation of the members of the community. Some of the solutions provided by CDF included improved water supply and reduced walking distance to water sources; improved quality of life through reduced distances to medical services; improved livelihood and economic empowerment as a result of construction of shelter for marketers; improved access to education as a result of construction of classrooms and purchase of books, desks and chairs; and empowerment through youth and women's groups. She, however, noted that there was a lot of manipulation by politicians in regards to projects actually implemented. This is at variance with what is stipulated in the CDF Guidelines and with the tenets of community development.

Sikayile (2012) did a study on educational decentralisation. According to him, there is no ideal version of decentralisation. He says that the success or failure in implementation trends are context based and mostly influenced by a number of factors such as the availability of financial resources. His research project analysed how institutional capacity, accountability and local autonomy affect the implementation of the decentralisation policy in Zambia's education sector.

The adoption of educational decentralisation has, in certain instances, led to positive changes, especially in participation and transparency both at the district and school level. Yet, the manner in which leadership is exercised by the board sets a striking difference between these two cases. His findings were that there was a lack of coordination between the DEB secretary and the board chairperson. The study revealed that implementation was hampered by weak institutional capacities and accountability mechanisms like the weak administrative system as well as the lack of a legal framework - a situation creating conducive environment for poor internal and external compact relationships. Further, the establishment of the education boards resulted in a shift of workloads from the centre, but this has been without meaningful transfer of authority to the districts. Contrary to policy provisions, decentralisation initiatives are not relaxed they tighten controls from the top. In the case of teacher recruitment and financial matters, for example, the Ministry of Education (MoE) has delegated authority to the DEBs, but in practice, this authority is largely reclaimed. These boards have, therefore, not been able to efficiently make decisions that could

support effective implementation of the policy and justify the undertaking of this study.

Another study was carried out in Mongu by Siyumbwa (2011) on the effect of community participation in education on the teaching environment in selected high Schools in Mongu District. The findings of the study revealed that community participation in education had effect on learning and teaching environment. The effect was more positive than negative. It was quite beneficial when the community was allowed to participate in education because the learning environment became conducive and rich. The study also revealed that community participation in education on the provision of educational support had proved to be reliable, significant and of great value. The study showed that the effect of community participation in education on learning and teaching environment was positive because community participation in education created a friendly enabling environment with adequate resources which was conducive and rich for learning and teaching. Her research project looked at the effect of community participation in education on the learning and teaching environment in selected high schools in Mongu District.

It is also imperative to note that WDCs work in partnership with the ward councillors in their respective areas, city council staff, donors and Non-Governmental Organisations such as CARE international Zambia in stimulating, coordinating and implementing development initiatives aimed at enhancing the wellbeing and prosperity of residents (MoLGH 2006).

Community participation has over the past few years paved way for NGO action in the development sector. The OECD (2006) describes NGOs as “crucial sources of capacity that can be unleashed to complement and improve the effectiveness of the public sector”. NGOs can further “be of use in both implementing capacity development plans and monitoring the outcomes of plans implemented by government” .Increased involvement of NGOs in the development sector is clearly visible in international policy objectives such as Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals. The importance of NGOs’ participation is mentioned explicitly in the *Dakar Framework of Action* (as adopted at the World Education Forum on Education for All) and recommends enhanced involvement in

developmental programmes. The framework underlines the role of the state as the core provider of development, but insists on the “engagement and participation of NGOs in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for development” (UNESCO, 2000).

In a decentralized context, however, district officials become the link between local communities and the central government. The bottom-up logic of impact focuses on decentralized government and aims for organizational change. Many Governments recognizes the effectiveness of NGO action at the local level and its involvement in local development. Although NGOs may not be able to improve government policy and practice at a national level, they may have the potential to improve local governance through working with decentralized government agencies in the management of local services” (Clayton, 1998). Others are more positive and predict the NGO impact ‘trickling up’, taking into consideration the fact that the “the state-community partnership reflects a small-scale version of national community governance” (UNESCO, 2001). Such a process can start by widening and deepening the NGO impact at the community level, while at the same time recognizing the importance of central government. This fits within the decentralized context and is linked to, and coherent with, the seeming importance of decentralized communities in most NGO strategies. NGOs consider active partnerships with local authorities effective (Sorgenfrei, 2004).

WDCs work closely with all stakeholders in the ward in terms of mobilisation of resources both human and financial. However, WDCs do not assume the roles and responsibilities of other institutions operating in the ward. They are an entry point for development actors and interventions in the ward (MoLGH, 2012). Stakeholders such as political parties, traditional authorities and relevant actors continue performing their mandate for which they were established but required to collaborate with the WDC and provide a periodical report on matters of development they implement in the wards. WDCs have the responsibility to inform and make recommendations to the council of any erring stakeholder for appropriate action.

However, it appears the WDCs have been facing many challenges in the recent past. It has been observed by Nienbuys (1990) that the major deficiencies in the development of appropriate approaches for the delivery of developmental projects to low-income communities is the lack of information flow among developing

countries and the regions. Successful techniques designs and administrative arrangement are at present not given the wide publicity necessary to support expanded programmes around the world. Subsequently, this has led to most projects in communities having been undertaken without the wide participation of the community or residents.

A report by UNCHS (HABITAT) (1981), notes that if a particular community gives priority to different element of infrastructure, the wishes of the people should be considered before any decision is taken concerning the project components in order to prevent failure through lack of public acceptance of what might have been provided with the best intentions. Therefore, there is a great need for the government and other agencies concerned with the facilitation of community participation to be informed on these matters for both motivation and guidance purposes. There is also ignorance among local communities on the importance of community participation.

In Zambia, line ministries have deconcentrated their operations to the district level and have created Sub-district structures that allow them to approach local communities. Examples are the Area Boards, Neighbourhood and Villages Committees of the Ministry of Health, the Parent Teacher Associations and their representation at District Educational Boards, the Block and Camp structure to provide services to farmers created by the Ministry of Agriculture. All are deconcentrated field structures, controlled by the sector ministry concerned at the district level, to approach community's needs. There is a total of 13 Ministries and 1 institution (the Office of the Vice President) in Zambia that have devolved some of their functions to councils and these are;

- Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health
- Ministry of Home Affairs
- Ministry of Mine, Energy and Water Development
- Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock
- Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
- Ministry of Lands, Natural Resources and Environmental Protection
- Ministry of Tourism and Arts
- Ministry of Commerce, Trade and Industry
- Ministry of Communication and Transport

- Ministry of Youth and Sport
- Ministry of Local Government and Housing
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Transport, Work, Supply and Communication
- Office of the Vice President

The community participates in decentralisation in different ways but can mostly become active in local affairs through the Ward Development and Village committees (Decentralisation Secretariat – FAQs). There are different functions which are devolved from the above Ministries and some of these include;

- Community development;
- Primary Health Care;
- Primary and basic education;
- Water and sanitation;
- Infrastructure development and maintenance;
- Construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of feeder roads;
- Coordination of decentralised structures including Health and Education Boards;
- Disaster Management;
- Land Allocation and Utilisation;
- Trade and Business Licensing;
- Agriculture Extension Services;

Decentralisation implementation should be viewed as a process rather than a once off activity. Several achievements have been made in Zambia such as;

- The development and approval of the Decentralisation Implementation Plan
- The development of new council organisational structures to enable councils to receive additional functions from central government
- The development of Sector Devolution Plans by different ministries
- The establishment of the Local Government Service Commission to assist the government in managing the human resource.

The Decentralisation Implementation Plan more specifically looked at the period 2009-2013 and the Sixth National Development Plan includes performance indicators for decentralisation until 2015 but decentralisation is an on-going reform process which has continued even after expiry of the timeframe. However,

the movement of functions and resources to councils commenced in 2013 (Decentralisation Secretariat)

Decentralisation is a success story in both unitary and federal states such as Japan, Uganda, Thailand, Germany, South Africa, Tanzania, Kenya and much more in other countries (Decentralisation Secretariat). Decentralisation can bring decision-making closer to the communities that are affected by these decisions and give them chances to participate in the development of the districts. The fact that government through WDCs is closer to the people can make it more transparent and communities can demand improved service delivery according to their priorities and hold their local government accountable (Decentralisation Secretariat - FAQs).

In Zambia, more than in other countries, there is a lack of a basic fabric of community organisation. The ones that exist lack an institutional status and a minimum self-governing structure. They are not knowledgeable of their rights and entitlements and are insufficiently empowered as to be able to approach (local) government institutions that are being set in place with the specific task of solving their problems. It may be concluded that there are a considerable variety of types of community organisation. At least the following may be distinguished. In Zambia, it seems that the weaknesses of both community-based organisations and the absence of local government substructures would for the time prevent an effective integration of grassroots and district development.

There is little information on how national policies on privatisation and/or out contracting have affected or are affecting the local level in Zambia. It is known, however, that many District Councils have privatised assets, like Council Hotels and guest houses in tourist areas, some of their maintenance services, and a substantial number of Council houses. Furthermore, some Councils are leasing properties and contracting out urban solid waste removal and cleaning. In Zambia, it appears there is neither an explicit policy of stimulating local economic development nor one to promote a local small business contracting industry. There is need however, to evaluate Zambia's Keembe WDCs to enhance community participation.

2.4 Community Participation in Zambia

Although a number of organisations have carried out development work aimed at enhancing community participation in Zambia, there is little literature that shows description of community participation in Zambia. These include non-government organisations such as World Vision International, Care International, Plan International, and Women for Change as well as government departments in the Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health, Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock, and Ministry of Health. All these have been engaged in activities that enhance community participation but there is a dearth of literature on assessment of community in Zambia. However, the study reviewed available literature and came across some challenges that impact negatively on community participation. The following were some of the challenges impacting negatively on community participation in Zambia, identified in the literature reviewed: cultural issues, gender issues, religious beliefs, illiteracy, poverty and inferiority complex. Cultural issues heavily impact on community participation especially in developing countries. This is in line with Kamwengo (2002)'s assertion that the socialisation process which transmits from early age values and attitudes, casts females into subordinated roles defining them principally in terms of their role as child bearers. The different roles, rights and resources that both genders have in society are important determinants of the nature and score of their inequality and power. Inequality in access to resources between women and men is most common in developing countries. Gender inequality, refers to inequality in conditions among women and men for realising their full human rights. Failure, of both genders to realise their full potential has effect on their participation in communal activities (Heward, 1999).

According to Gudschinsky (1976), lack of knowledge limits individuals' ability to engage in activities that require either critical thinking or a solid base of literacy and numeracy skills. Such activities may include: understanding government policies, governance issues, attendance of meetings and voting in elections, using of a computer to do banking and to interact with government agencies, assisting children with homework, analysing sophisticated media, advertising and completing higher education or training. Literature available from the government, United Nations and World Bank indicates that there is widespread and worsening poverty among the

Zambian general public (Oxfam, 1995). This is equal to two-thirds of the country's population (UNICEF, 1996; World Bank, 1994). People's incomes have continued to decline as the productive sector continues to shrink. Therefore, human survival in Zambia is proving to be more and more difficult. Most people have been left without any choices of what they can do to survive and, as a result have been particularly affected in the areas of food security, health, education, sanitation and employment (Chigunta *et al*, 1998). This situation consequently affects people's participation levels in many areas of development, decision-making and civic activities in their own locality. Therefore, it can be observed that poverty is a variable that affects participation. In the study, it is assumed that transformative leaning may offer solutions on challenges of community participation in Zambia by raising people's consciousness about poverty and other social evils.

2.5 Measuring Participation

There are a number of scales for measuring participation. Perhaps the seminal theoretical work on the subject of community participation was by Arnstein (1969). Particular importance of Arnstein's work stems from the obvious recognition that there are different levels of participation, from manipulation or therapy of citizens, through consultation, and to what we might now call as sincere participation, through levels of partnership and citizen control.

The table below shows Arnstein's ladder of participation.

Table 1 : Arnstein's Ladder of Participation.

Citizen control
Delegated power
Partnership
Placation
Consultation
Informing
Therapy
Manipulation

Source: (Arnstein, 1969)

Some scholars such as Wilcox (1994) have argued that Arnstein's framework is limited, in the sense that each of the steps represents a very broad category, within

which there are likely to be a wide range of experiences. For example, at the levels of informing there could be significant differences in the type and quality of the information being conveyed. Realistically, therefore, levels of participation are likely to reflect a more complex continuum than a simple series of steps. Furthermore, the use of a ladder implies that more control is always better than less control. On the contrary, increased control may not always be desired by the community, and increased control without necessary support may result in failure. Since then Arnstein's ladder of participation is increasingly more of complex theories of participation that have advanced and added new terminologies. In particular, there has been a shift towards understanding participation in terms of the empowerment of individual communities. This has stemmed from the growing prominence of the idea of the citizen as consumer, where choices among alternatives are seen as a means of access to power. Under this model, people are expected to be responsible for them and should be active in public service decision-making. Wilcox (1994) further simplified the ladder of participation, and identified five interconnected levels of community participation.

The table below shows Wilcox's ladder of participation

Table 2 : Wilcox's Ladder of Participation.

Supporting individual
community initiatives
Acting together
Deciding together
Consultation
Informing

Source: (Wilcox, 1994)

Wilcox developed this ladder based on the United Kingdom regeneration context and reflects a philosophical progression in thorough participation. This implies that different levels of participation are acceptable in differing contexts and settings; this progression recognises that power is not always transferred in apparently participative processes, but that the processes still has value. As opposed to the common interpretation of Arnstien, that brings the thought that it is only acceptable

to be striving towards citizen control (Wilcox, 1994). According to Schaeffer (n.d), genuine participatory development occurs at the seventh level shown in the table below. Schaeffer adopted a definition of participation which states that, people participate to the extent that they ‘choose, cognitively, affectively, and physically to engage in establishing, implementing and evaluating both the overall direction of a programme and its operational details. Choice, in this context, implies not merely an agreement to follow but an active decision to assume responsibility in considering the rationale, implication and potential outcomes of the programmes’.

Schaeffer (n.d) further points out that this definition means that people are involved in various stages of the development cycles: diagnosing and defining the problems; articulating priorities and setting the goals; collecting and analysing information and assessing available resources; deciding on and planning programmes; deciding on implementation strategies and apportioning responsibilities among participants; managing programmes, monitoring progress; evaluating results and impacts and redefining problems generated for further action. For Schaeffer this definition of the participation has the following implications: empowerment that helps people gain knowledge and awareness of their own social, economic and political conditions; multiple and flexible participatory methods that cannot be a standard recipe for achieving participatory development because what makes it work varies across different economic, political and cultural contexts and decentralisation of operations where governments should be encouraged to decentralise so as facilitate to a broader range of actors in development. Scheffer proposed this model of participation known as UNICEF/Schaeffer levels of participation.

The table below shows UNIFFEF/ Schaeffer levels of participation

Table 3 : UNIFFEF/ Schaeffer Levels of Participation

Participation in Real Decision Making
Involvement as Implementers of Delegated Powers
Involvement in Delivery of Service
Involvement through Consultation on a Particular Issue
Involvement through Attendance of Meetings
Involvement through the Contributions Resources and Labour
Mere use of Service

Source: UNICEF (2006)

However, this study modified the levels of participation by borrowing terminologies from both Arnstien and Wilcox. The levels of participation will be five as illustrated in Figure 4 below. Just as it was observed by Wilcox, these levels will be interconnected implying that community participation can be put on a continuum from the lowest to the highest level. In between two strands, there might not be clearly visible as they are interlocking.

The table below shows the Ideal Ladder of Participation Proposed by this Study

Table 4 : Ideal ladder of participation proposed by this Study.

Ownership
Partnership
Deciding together
Consultation
Informing

(Field Data, 2016)

2.6 Key Elements of Participation

Mbozi (2013: 5) identifies the following as the key elements of participation: participation, mutual respect, joint decision-making, negotiation, shared learning, flexibility, mutual accountabilities empowerment, power differentials, and social differentiation. The presence of these elements of participation in an activity constitutes participation. At least two of the above key elements of participation, are supposed to be observable in a community activity that are exposed to transformative learning strategies for a period of time.

2.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has given the theoretical aspects that influenced the study. It has also brought out the reviewed literature in relation to community participation in developmental projects from different studies across the globe, Africa and further narrowed it to Zambia. Key elements of participation have also been highlighted. Finally, the following chapter will focus on the methodology employed in collecting information for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

This chapter gives a description of the methods that were applied in carrying out the research study. It also gives the description of the study area in which the study was carried out and provides reasons why the chosen methods were appropriate to gather the information needed to answer the questions posed by the research problem. It concentrates on the research design, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection procedure and analysis thereafter. The study adopted a descriptive survey design of selected Wards of Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District.

3.2 Research Approach

The study took a mixed method approach. Thus, both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were used. Outside increasing analytical power and, mixed method analysis offered an opportunity for triangulation which further allowed for the consequent advantage of comparing findings from both qualitative and quantitative results for the purposes of convergence (Greene *et al.* 1989). This allowed the study to prospect for stronger meta-inferences, which involves a combination of clarification of findings into a coherent whole (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2010). Through mixed data analysis, data collection becomes effectively linked (Caracelli and Greene 1993) and does not compromise the unique qualities existing in each data set.

Qualitative and quantitative approaches were applicable to this study. A qualitative approach was employed in order to satisfactorily answer the research questions posed in this study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), to answer research questions,

We cannot skim across the surface. We must dig deep to get a complete understanding of the phenomenon we are studying. In qualitative research, it is important to dig deeper and collect numerous forms of data and examine them from various angles to

construct a rich and meaningful picture of a complex, multifaceted situation.

Qualitative research is the means of establishing the depth, richness, and difficulty inherent in phenomena (Burns & Grove, 1999). It is concerned with the analysis of ideas and/or words rather than numbers. The qualitative research methodology has been chosen to facilitate the systematic collection and analysis of more subjective and narrative material without compromising the researcher's impartial position and appropriate for descriptive studies. It chooses to use researchers as instruments of data collection (Lincoln & Guba, 1981). The qualitative researcher is interested in understanding how things occur and how meanings and interpretations are negotiated with human data because it is participants' realities that the researcher tries to construct (Creswell, 1994).

In general, qualitative research has significant characteristics that distinguish it from quantitative research, namely:

- Commitment to discovery through the use of multiple ways of knowing; various methods are used to obtain information.
- Commitment to the participants' views, thus, using the language of participants to describe the aspects under study. The researcher remained committed to the participants' views during interviews thus, using their language to describe the aspects under study during report writing and analysis.
- Allowing extensive searching of documents and articles of importance to understand the background of what is under study. The researcher critically examined documents and articles of importance to understand the work of WDCs.
- Acknowledgement of the researcher's participation in the research, thus he/she may be used as a data collection instrument in this study; the researcher was part of the research.
- Conveyance of an understanding of aspects of interest by reporting in a literary style, thus allowing for a narrative approach to writing research findings (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999); the researcher described and reported the state of affairs as it existed.

Quantitative research is probably the less contentious of the two schools, as it is more closely aligned with what is viewed as the classical scientific paradigm. Quantitative research involves gathering data that is absolute, such as numerical data, so that it can be examined in unbiased manner as possible. There are many principles that go along with quantitative research, which help promote its supposed neutrality. Quantitative research generally comes later in a research project, once the scope of the project is well understood to give statistical data on community participation in WDCs.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is an organisation plan or procedure by which an investigation intends to answer research questions. The design is also intended to control errors of procedures and interpretation: the structure of the design specifically delimits the kind of observations which can be made, the persons from data can be collected and the kind of analysis it is possible to make with the framework and the form of the data. Hence, a research can be said to be a map, a campus, an outline or guide in the whole process of generating answers to research (Muzumara, 1998).

A descriptive survey was used as a research design to this study. A descriptive survey was used because the study was aiming at giving a detailed description of what happens in Ward Development Committee projects and because survey methods allowed the researcher to collect data on attitudes and opinions from large numbers of people (Laverne, 1995).

The major purpose of descriptive research is the description of the state of affairs as it exists (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Kerlinger (1969) in Kombo and Tromp (2006) points out that descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact findings but may also result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems. The description also relates to the logical relationship among categories and processes in the discussion of different categories. Descriptive studies are aimed at making clear characteristics of phenomena (Polit & Hungler 1999). The descriptive survey is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals (Orodho, 2003).

The researcher also discussed emerging categories carefully and logically. Further, the descriptive approach was chosen to elucidate the extent of the effectiveness of Ward Development Committees in enhancing community participation in Chibombo District as well as the challenges they face.

3.4 Research Site

This study was conducted in Chibombo District. This district was purposively selected as a case study due to many community development projects going on in the wards such as Chibombo, Mashikili and Chikobo. Furthermore, WDCs seem to be active in this area.

3.5 Population

A population is a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement. It refers to an entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common. Population also refers to the larger group from which the sample is taken (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Bless and Achola (1988) also agree that a population is the entire set of objects and events or group of people which is the object of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. Chibombo District comprises two (2) constituencies namely; Katuba and Keembe. Keembe which is the constituency under study has a total number of 10 wards.

3.6 Sample Size

The participants for the study were drawn from three selected wards of Keembe constituencies namely; Chibombo, Chikobo and Mashikili Wards. Since the research was concerned with the community implementation of developmental projects and programmes in the Community, two experts from the Office of the President (the District Commissioner and District Administration Officer), District Council Secretary and three Officers in charge of WDCs from the District Council, Chairpersons for the three selected Ward Development Committees (WDCs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and also 30 participants from each of three wards were sampled. Gender balance was taken into consideration among the community members.

3.7 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study. It is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Orodho and Kombo, 2002) in (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Webster, (1985) in Kombo and Tromp, (2006) defines a sample as a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole. When dealing with people, a sample is defined as a set of respondents selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey. Bless and Achola (1988) define a sample as the subset of the whole population which is actually investigated by a researcher and whose characteristics will be generalised to the entire population. In this study, purposive sampling technique was used to select respondents from the District Council, District Commissioner, Chairpersons of WDCs and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). These were chosen purposively because of their expert knowledge and skill in WDCs' programmes and activities. Community members residing in the area were selected using a simple random procedure to select a set of respondents from selected Wards of Chibombo District.

3.8 Data Collection Tools

According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), data collection refers to the gathering of information to serve or prove some facts. In research, the term 'data collection' refers to gathering specific information aimed at providing or refuting some facts.

3.8.1 Primary Data

The researcher used interviews and questionnaires as data collection strategies. Interviews were used to give more detailed insights into interpreting the situation so that the researcher sees things as they really are and provide the most needed information about the topic under investigation

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) explain that interviews are response questions to obtain data from respondents about how they conceive and give meaning to their world and how they explain events in their lives. Qualitative interviews may take several forms: the informal conversational interview, the interview guide approach, and the standardised open-ended interview. These types of interviews vary in terms

of structure and comparability of responses in data analysis. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), interviews in a qualitative study are rarely as structured as the interviews conducted in a quantitative study. Instead, they are either open-ended or semi-structured, in the latter case revolving around a few central questions. Unstructured interviews are, of course, more flexible and more likely to yield information that the researcher hadn't planned to ask for. Their primary disadvantage is that the researcher gets different information from different people and may not be able to make comparisons among the interviewees. Semi-structured interviews were used in the present study.

Generally speaking, semi-structured interviews are based on the use of an interview guide. An interview guide is a list of questions or topics that need to be covered by the interview (Kombo and Tromp 2006). An interview guide also refers to the pre-written questions that the interviewer may ask during the interview session. Pre-determined questions are necessary, especially for novice researchers Chiyongo (2007). Semi-structured interviews were employed as data collection technique with Chibombo District Commissioner, Council officials, WDCs and some stakeholders like Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). In this regard, the researcher is aware of key issues on which to gain information. It should be noted here that in the semi-structured interview, the general outline to be followed were indicated but within each section. The questioning was free according to the choice of the interviewer Sidhu (2003).

Cohen and Manion in Muzumara (1998), define an in-depth semi-structured individual interview as “a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer, for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information as specified by research objectives of systematic description, or explanation.”

In-depth individual interviews played a significant role in this study. The researcher interviewed stakeholders and WDC officials. Interviews have generally been adopted as a method to make up for the limitations of the questionnaire (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Instead of writing the response, the interviewee gives the needed information verbally in a face-to-face relationship. People are usually more willing to talk than to write. With a skilful interviewer, the interview is often superior to other data gathering devices. After the interviewer gains rapport, or establishes a friendly relationship with the respondent, certain types of confidential information

may be obtained that an individual might be reluctant to put in writing. The interviews were held in respondents sitting with one person at a time so that the respondents were free to express themselves fully and truthfully.

Focused interviews were also used in the present study to intensively investigate the Ministry of Local Government Framework on WDCs. Focus groups are flexible and give the researcher an in-depth and detailed understanding of the issue under research. As such, they were appropriate for this research. The researcher also used both primary and secondary data during the entire period of data collection and thesis writing.

3.8.2 Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data sources included the Local Government Act, guidelines on the establishment, management and operation of WDCs, guidelines on the Management and Utilisation of CDF, previous research reports on CDF and WDCs, annual CDF reports from the Ministry of Local Government and Housing. The guidelines on the management and utilisation of CDF and annual CDF reports were from the Ministry of Local Government and Housing Headquarters.

3.9 Data Analysis

The researcher analysed quantitative data using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16 through descriptive statistics, tables, percentages and frequencies. The qualitative data was analysed and summarised using narrations.

3.10 Presentation of Data

Quantitative data was presented using tables, charts, and simple statistics while qualitative data was analysed using thematic analysis.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

In order to collect the data from the purposively sampled participants, the researcher asked for permission through writing before going in the field to collect data. Firstly, authority was sought from the University of Zambia through the supervisor to embark on data collection. To conduct the study, the researcher also sought and obtained permission from the District Commissioner, District Council Secretary (CS), and Ward Development Committee (WDC) and from the respondents who

were chosen for this study. High levels of confidentiality of their opinions, suggestions and responses were assured.

3.12 Data Validity and Reliability

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), validity refers to whether the findings of a study are true and certain. Thus, the research findings accurately reflect the situation and 'certain' in the sense that research findings are supported by the evidence. Denzin (2000) identified four types of triangulation: triangulation which involves time, space, and persons; investigator triangulation involving multiple researchers in an investigation; theory triangulation which involves using more than one theoretical scheme in the interpretation of the phenomenon; and methodological triangulation, which involves using more than one method to gather data, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents to enhance confidence of the data collected. To ensure internal validity of this study, the researcher used methodological triangulation, which enabled the researcher to collect data through interviews, observations and questionnaires. Triangulation of data sources employed in this study ensured the accuracy of findings. Essentially, the constant feedbacks between the researcher and the supervisor led to the revision in some problem areas in the instruments.

3.13 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the main methodological aspects of this study; detailing the research methodology, design, procedures and techniques that were adopted. The study was conducted in Chibombo District of Central Province of Zambia. A descriptive survey study design, which used both quantitative and qualitative techniques were employed in the study and the design yielded a complete understanding of community participation in developmental projects. The study further discussed the research site, population and sample, sampling technique, methods of data collection, data analysis, ethical considerations, data validity and reliability and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Overview

This chapter presents findings on the evaluation of selected Ward Development Committees (WDCs) of Zambia's Keembe Constituency in enhancing community participation in developmental projects. The findings are presented using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and thematic approach in line with the four research questions set out in Chapter One of this study. The following are the research questions:

- a. How do selected Ward Development Committees in Keembe Constituency promote community participation in developmental projects?
- b. What developmental projects do individual households of the selected WDCs of Keembe constituency of Chibombo District participate in?
- c. What challenges are faced by Ward Development Committees of Keembe constituency in implementing developmental projects?
- d. What suggestions for improvement can be made in selected WDCs of Keembe Constituency?

This chapter is exclusively devoted to the presentation and analysis of data collected through interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires. Subtitles were used to discuss the findings from the interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires. Furthermore, the findings from this document analysis were referred to in the analysis of the interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires to avoid repetition. Not all the issues reflected in the interview guide were included in the presentation but only those that strongly relate to Ward Development Committees were analysed.

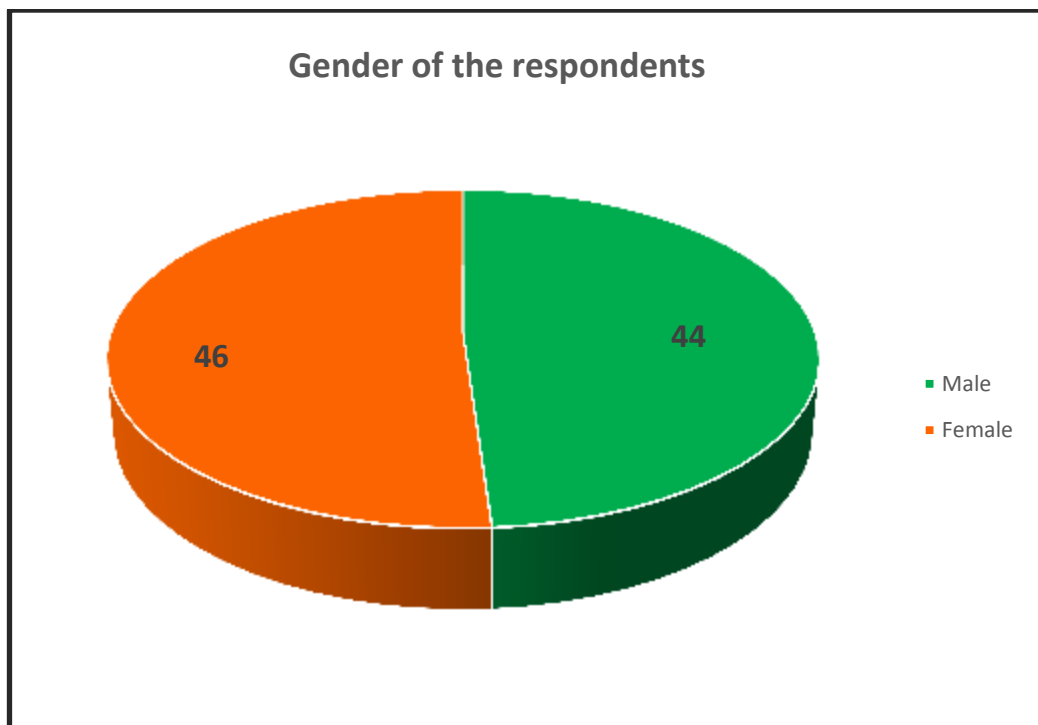
4.2 Demographic Data

The sample that was used in this study showed certain demographic tendencies such as sex, marital status, denomination, nature of the occupation, age and education of the respondents which are worth exploring.

4.2.1 Gender of Respondents

To show the gender respondents in this study, the researcher used a pie chart. The figure below shows the gender of respondents compiled based on the researcher's compilation from the targeted wards.

Figure 2: Gender of respondents in this Study



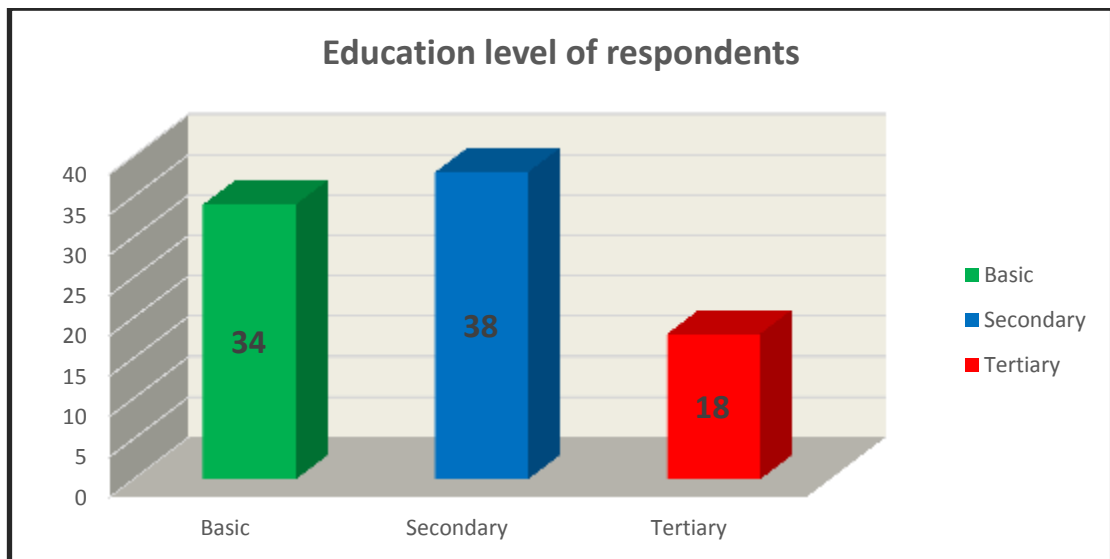
Source: (Field data, 2016)

As shown in Figure 2, forty-six (46) respondents were female while forty-four (44) were male. There was strong indication of gender balance. Striking gender balance was outside the researcher's influence as organisations that formed part of the sample were largely staffed as such. The gender factor, however, did not undermine the representativeness of the sample. Instead, it reinforced the call for gender balance. This study concurs with sentiments in the Gender Agenda Protocol of 2000 that women have suffered marginalisation in many spheres of life, hence, the need for equal representation.

4.2.2 Education Level of the Respondents

Education level of respondents was also considered. Figure 3 shows the educational levels of the respondents. It was important to determine educational levels of respondents because education imparts knowledge and develop intellectual capacities that would help community members have interest in community participation in developmental projects.

Figure 3: Educational level of respondents



Source: (Field data, 2016)

The education levels amongst the respondents are not relatively high as epitomised in Figure 3 above. It indicates that 34 (37.5%) of the respondents had a basic education while about 38 (42.2%) held secondary education. 18 (20%) respondents had tertiary education. While the sample is presumed literate, it compares poorly to the national figures which according to the Education Statistical Bulletin of 2012, it depicts high national illiteracy levels and a dominant Grade 12 level of education. Nevertheless, a useful inference about the sample is that the respondents were well-vested with the subject at hand thereby providing reliable, objective and informed responses that greatly informed the study.

4.2.3 Marital Status of the Respondents

Marital status was another thing that was considered. The study revealed that 26 (28.9%) were single while 64 (71.1%) were married.

Note: divorced persons and widows are included in the single counts.

4.2.4 Denomination of the Respondents

The study has established, 18 (20%) were Catholics, 36 (40%) were SDA, 16 (17.8%) were Jehovah's Witness, 8 (8.9%) were UCZ, 2 (2.2%) was CMML and 10 (11.5%) were Pentecostal. These statistics show that religious beliefs have an impact on the participation of the community in developmental projects in Keembe constituency. For instance, other denominations viewed some projects as not real as they doubted the resources and some of the founders of the projects and shunned them leading to low participation.

4.2.5 Nature of Occupation of the Respondents

The other factor that was looked at was the nature of occupation of the respondents. From the findings in this study, 30 (33.3%) were in formal employment whereas 60 (66.7%) were in informal employment. Because the majority were in informal employment, they spent most of their time looking for jobs to sustain their lives and thus, had little time for developmental projects in the community.

4.2.6 Age Range of Respondents

The age range of respondents was also taken into consideration. Table 1 below shows frequency on the age range of the respondents and varied per cent (the total actual per cent) on respondents who took part in this study.

Table 5: Age range of respondents

Age range	Frequency	Per cent
21 - 25 Yrs	8	8.9
26 - 30 Yrs	8	8.9
31 - 35 Yrs	22	24.4
36 - 40 Yrs	20	22.2
41 and above	32	35.6
Total	90	100.0

Source: (Field data, 2016)

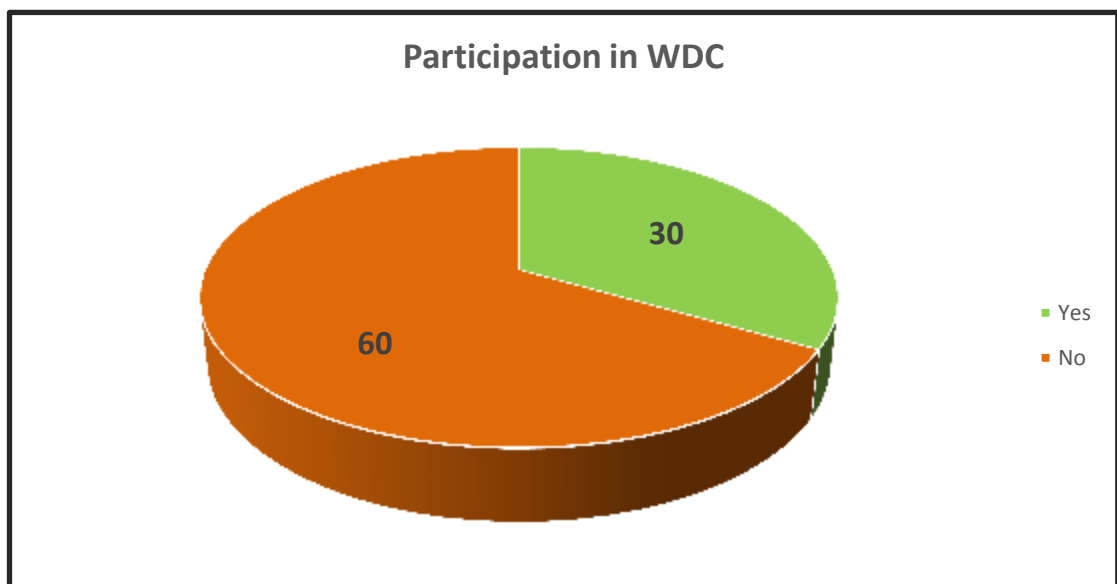
From the sample of the respondents, 8 (8.9%) were in the age range of 21 – 25 years, 8 (8.9%) were in the age range of 26 – 30 years, 22 (24.5%) were in the age

range of 31 – 35 years, 20 (22.2%) were in the age range of 36 – 40 years and 32 (35.6%) were in the age range of 41 and above. The statistics here show that most of the respondents in this study were adults who understood the developmental projects in their community very well.

4.3 How WDCs in Keembe Promote Community Participation in Projects

The figure below shows how WDCs promoted community participation in developmental projects. The question “Do WDCs promote community participation in developmental project?”, was asked in order to determine how WDCs promoted community participation in developmental projects. This was done to establish whether WDCs promoted community participation in the area.

Figure 4: Level of participation of the community in Chibombo WDC



Source (Field data, 2016)

Figure 4: shows that most of the community members did not participate in community projects. However, some respondents were well-vested with WDCs which they described as an important element of decentralisation. Sixty (60) respondents said that they participated in WDC and thirty respondents (30) said they did not participate. WDC officials expressed that communities were aware of the existence of WDC, its role, as well as the projects they were currently undertaking. They said that they sensitised people through meetings which were attended by representatives from churches, schools, and markets. They also maintained that

sensitization through these gatherings such as churches, schools, and a market was the only resourceful and reliable method of promoting community participation in developmental projects.

This is what an official from the WDC had to say:

Ward Development Committees are a selection of representatives within a Ward representing ward interests. The objectives of WDCs are in line with changing the planning system where decisions are made in a bottom-up formula where the community decides on what type of project they need other than projects being imposed on the community. Individual households participate in developmental projects as the system requires the community to identify projects and apply to the council for funding. The objective is to promote the community in coming up with projects required according to the community's needs

WDCs are perceived as a mechanism that have great potential to enhance grassroots development and in the long-term spur national development. Responses from some of the respondents centred around issues of tightening controls on the management and utilisation of the Fund and enhancing accountability measures through enacting a WDC Act as opposed to managing it through the Local Government Act. This would ensure that the funds are utilised for the intended purpose. The following was an explanation from one of the District official from MoLGH:

There are many competing needs within the constituency. In order for development to take place, communities at the grassroots should be involved. There is need for the enactment of a separate law that should be tailored specifically to the management of WDCs. This will make WDCs more efficient, strengthen accountability and foster development.

The respondents also stated that there were a number of projects that were being done such as the building of schools, clinics, gravel road construction in Chibombo township, drilling of boreholes, water network rehabilitation project where new

water pipes were being installed by Lukanga Water and Sewerage Company (LgWSC). One respondent from WDC also pointed out that:

WDCs are there to empower the community and bring development to the grassroots. The community initiates developmental projects through their traditional and civic leaders.

Another respondent from the District Council said:

WDCs are committees put in place in a Ward representing the people in that area who are willing to work and develop that area. The objective of WDCs is to steer development at the local level. This can be done by carrying out a needs assessment from the grassroots and then forwarded to the Council for consideration and funding. WDCs also work like government at the local level. Previously it was the Area Councillor who would decide on what development projects should be undertaken in the ward. Councils are administrators and WDCs are implementers and so this makes WDCs successful because they make proposals on how development is going to be done in the ward. WDCs are an engine of development at the local level.

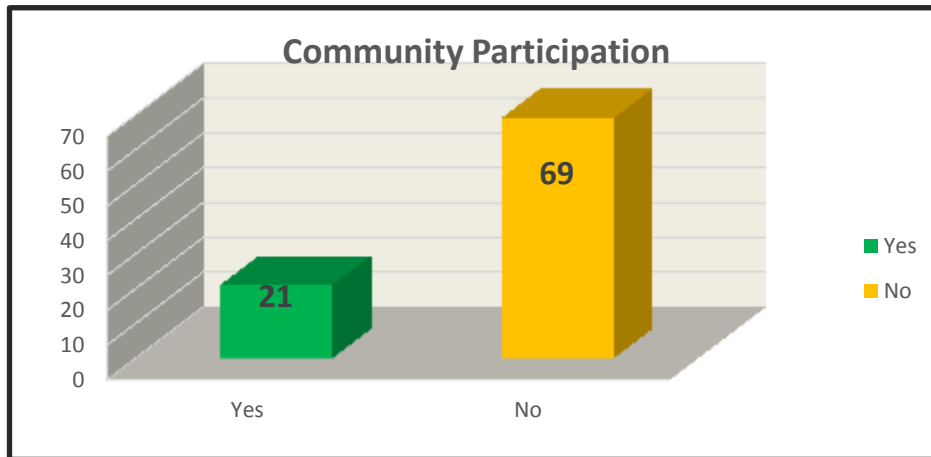
The other official from the council explained:

The involvement of the community in developmental projects makes WDCs successful as the community takes ownership of the project. The community is well facilitated by the WDC and understand their roles of what they are supposed to do. The concept of 'sha Booma' meaning 'it is for the government' comes out because they will have known that it is for the community as they will have participated. The government is actually the community and so they will develop a sense of ownership

4.4 Community Participation in Selected WDCs of Chibombo District.

The figure below shows levels of community participation. The question, “Have you participated in any community developmental project?”, was asked in order to determine individual community participation in developmental projects by the community.

Figure 5: Community participation



Source (Field Data, 2016)

Figure 5 shows that there was low participation due to inadequate resources, consultation, transparency and consultation. Most community members acknowledged not to have participated in WDCs activities due to lack of knowledge. The Local Government Officials can only pursue sensitization when there is need at a particular time. The respondents also said that they were doing some follow-up evaluations to ensure that the community was involved. The other reason for low participation was political interference. Negative sentiments which people voice out whenever there are projects going on also contribute to low participation of people in the community. One of the respondents reported that:

There is too much political intervention when you are informing the community about developmental projects. Some would be like, you promised people ninety days, now we will see if you are going to make it. You liars!!

An official from the council responded that sensitization is done by visiting communities to get informed views in collaboration with WDCs and also by

providing financial and material assistance by following laid down guidelines and procedures. Councils further hold regular consultative meetings with WDCs and provide guidance where necessary on how to involve people in projects. The monitoring and evaluation of projects also ascertain community's involvement in developmental projects in their communities. The community is involved in identifying project areas in which they need assistance such as the construction of schools, health posts, providing clean water and sanitation. Members at community level participate fairly in projects at different levels. For instance, when it comes to CDF, the community identifies a project and apply for funding. The application is tabled by the council and CDF. It is then forwarded to the relevant CDF community and once approved; funds are allocated to the project.

An official from the council had this to say:

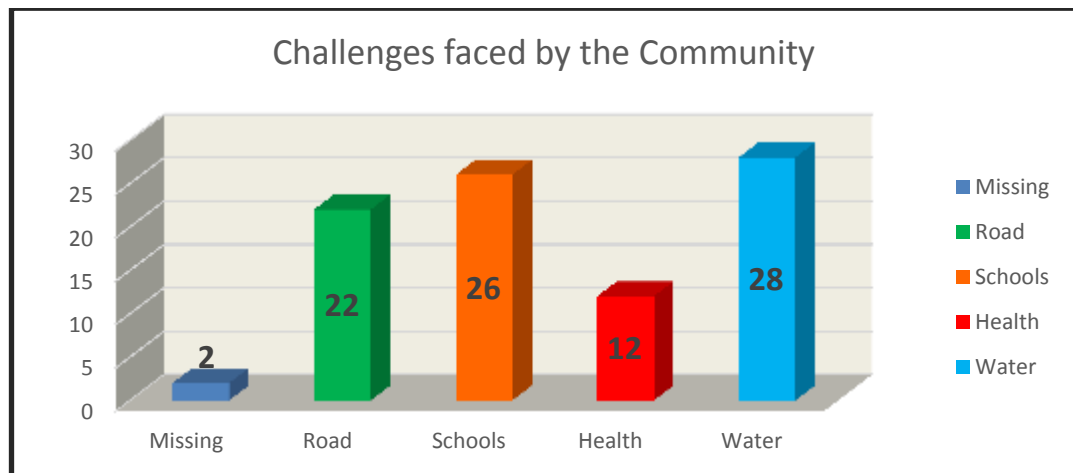
It has not been easy for the WDCs to enhance community participation for various reasons as most local communities want government to do everything for them and some will just refuse to participate but, through traditional leaders, some community members have been able to participate because the traditional leaders help in calling for meetings and conduct registration using village registers and those that fail to attend are charged with an agreed fee in the village.

4.5 Challenges

4.5.1 Challenges Faced by the Community

When asked about the challenges faced by the community in Wards, the following as shown in Figure 6 below were identified:

Figure 6: Challenges faced by the community



Source: (Field Data, 2016)

Figure 6 shows that the community faces a number of challenges and among them are; poor road network, inadequate schools, poor health services and lack of clean water and sanitation.

4.5.2 Challenges Faced by WDCs

When asked about the challenges faced by WDCs, a WDC official explained that one of the challenges that they face in promoting people's participation in development projects was lack of information flow among stakeholders.

The other problem that was prominent was that of lack of political will. Some projects that were started by previous governments are abandoned once a new government comes into power. Other projects have been politicised leading to lack of public acceptance of community projects.

This is what one respondent from the community had to say:

Funds take long to be released by the Ministry of Finance and when released they (funds) are not given in full or are given in stages resulting in

projects taking long to be completed or are not completed at all. For instance, the CDF allocation for 2014 has only been released in 2016.

Another respondent from the local authority explained:

Local authorities also generate revenue as they are mandated to do so through the collection of various levies but these levies are usually not enough to complete the projects.

The other challenge is that there are a lot of shoddy works by the local contractors. This is because WDC guidelines state that local contractors must be used. Furthermore, some respondents observed that the community have their own differences which hinder the progress of some projects, like, when there are suspicions of mismanagement of project funds. Essentially, challenges depend on the project and who has funded the projects. In certain instances, the community wants to be paid or get some incentives for participating in these community projects.

4.6 Suggestions for Improvement in Selected WDCs

Some respondents made some suggestions for improving WDCs. The table below shows suggestions for improvement of WDCs in developmental projects. The question, “What do you think WDCs should do to meet the expectations of the community?” , was asked to help answer the research question which was trying to find what suggestions for improvement could be made in order to enhance community participation.

Table 6: Suggestions for improvement.

Suggestions	Frequency	Percent
Sensitisation	36	40.0
Consultation	34	37.8
Transparency	6	6.7
Lobby for funds	14	15.6
Total	90	100.0

Source: (Field data, 2016)

From the table above the respondents suggested that if WDCs were to be effective, there was need for sensitisation, consultation, transparency and lobbying for funds. The respondents further observed that sensitisation is important to the members of the community on the role of WDCs. This is because people do not have the idea about the importance of WDCs and their role. One Councillor had this to explain:

Sensitization is lacking on the role of WDCs and the understanding misses on both the committee and the community. Once they are sensitised, the community will be able to understand their role and will make these committees functional.

Since WDCs are voluntary, the respondents suggested that WDCs needed to be formalised so that they stand on their own as government structures.

Officials from the WDCs explained that consultation involves inviting views from stakeholders on the proposed actions and engaging them in dialogue. Furthermore, consultation is a two-way flow of information between the proponent and the stakeholders who include the public. The consultation provides opportunities for the public to express their views on the project proposal initiated by the project proponent. They (respondents) observed that rigorous planning and implementation of projects should be undertaken only after considerable discussion and consultation.

On transparency, the officials from the council explained that transparency is important as it ensures that all parties involved in the project, such as project managers, external organisers and traditional leaders are procedurally and periodically answerable to the people in the project area. Transparency of concerned community members must be ensured, particularly after the decision is taken.

Some council officials suggested that WDCs can be improved through lobbying for funds and other resources from NGOs such as Plan International, World Vision, and Fountain of Hope and from the Central government through CDF so that community projects can be undertaken and completed. They argued that without enough resources, it would be very difficult to undertake community projects to uplift the living standards of the poor. Furthermore, the respondents explained that

lobbying should supplement funds raised by the local authorities through levy rates, trading licences and developmental charges.

From the side of the NGOs, community participation in developmental projects is always low but projects are according to priorities and needs of the beneficiaries of the projects identified through community participation, in which the community has the right to identify their problems including the solution to tackle them.

An official from one of the NGOs had this say:

Project design starts in the communities where the members of the communities discuss their problems and advance solutions that will be considered during the project development process, he also mentioned that because they have been working for a long time in the area, thus gives them a wide knowledge about the conditions, needs and specificities of those communities.

According to NGOs, the community can allow them to design projects without consulting the communities that ensures real needs of the communities. Thus, community participation constitutes journey element which informs the project design, both by the side of the NGOs and by the side of the community.

4.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the findings of the study on Ward Development Committees in enhancing community participation in developmental projects in selected wards of Keembe Constituency in Chibombo District. The findings of this study have been presented in line with the four objectives set out in Chapter One. There was low participation in WDCs. The study found out that most community projects were less monitored and evaluated. There were a lot of shoddy works especially by local contractors and sometimes community projects took long to be completed. Lack of political will, lack of public acceptance of community projects, lack of information flow among stakeholders and funds taking long to be released were among the challenges mentioned. There was need for more sensitization, transparency, lobbying for funds and consultation on WDCs in the communities to enforce participation. The following chapter will discuss the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Overview

The main aim of this research was to find out the effectiveness of WDCs in enhancing community participation in developmental projects in Zambia. This chapter discusses findings of the research in relation to the research objectives and research questions.

5.2 Promoting Community Participation

This study establishes that people cannot be forced to ‘participate’ in projects which affect their lives but should be given the opportunity where possible. This is held to be a basic human right and a fundamental principle of democracy. Community participation is especially important in emergency sanitation programmes where people may be unaccustomed to their surroundings and new sanitation facilities. Furthermore, this study has established that community participation requires some form of motivation and through community engagement; communities are enabled to participate in public affairs. The citizens are directly involved in the formation of policies and designing of developmental projects. Additionally, they will also be involved in the monitoring and evaluation of projects to ensure that desired goals are achieved. However, if the community is not engaged and decisions about the design of the project are not in the hands of the community as has been the case with top-down approaches, the objectives of development usually remain unchanged (De Beer, 1998).

Respondents in this study suggested that there was need for improvement in the WDCs. They argued that there was need for sensitisation to the members of the community if the objectives of WDCs were to be achieved. The community needs to learn basic civic literacy skills meaningfully by practising actively in the civic affairs of their community. Civic literacy skills include inquiry strategies, critical and creative thinking, decision making, resolving conflict and collaboration. The methods used in the teaching of Civic Education should attract the learners to participate in community affairs through proper guidance. In order for communities to participate in public affairs, the capacity building becomes a requirement as well

as strategy for effective participation in public affairs. Capacity building is an on-going process of increasing the ability of citizens, groups and organisations to control and manage all the important areas of their lives or operations (Fawcett *et al.*, 2007). Capacity building and empowerment are the best means to achieve sustainable community development. Capacity building and self-reliance help community to be empowered, and finally contribute towards sustainable community development. This is in line with Freire theory of conscientisation that if individuals can be trained to regain their human potential through the process of conscientisation, they will be in a state of intransitive consciousness. This process is empowering as it introduces human agency in the affected individuals to the local community and enable them to act in their challenges they face. Mbozi (2013) confirms the theory that the consequence of conscientisation is social change. When the community work together, participate in local decision making and share roles, what comes out is development.

From the findings, it was observed that many people are not aware of WDCs. This has been noticed from where residents report to whenever they have problems such as break down of mono pumps, rehabilitation of roads. The other problem is that the community does not know the Wards to which they belong. In view of this, it becomes difficult for the community to know where to report the problems they have in their community areas. The lack of awareness has a negative effect on people's participation in projects undertaken by WDCs. From the above, it can be clearly noted that the majority of the residents are not aware of WDCs. This can be seen from the participation of the community in the projects. The findings depict low participation in meetings. This is in line with Freire's theory of conscientisation that if the community is enlightened, they will take actions as a consequence of transformed perspectives. Consequently, they start to be more active in their daily activities. The community become more critical of their practices following the educational intervention (Shor, 1992). The benefits of community participation in public affairs cannot be over emphasised. This study has shown that when communities are directly engaged with government, policy and decisions made are seen as more legitimate, are challenged less frequently and policy initiatives have a greater success rate (Holzer, *et al*, 2002).

5.3 Types of Projects Undertaken

The right of local authorities to manage the affairs of the community and to form partnerships, networks and associations to assist in the management of their respective districts and further their development is recognised (Constitution of Zambia, 2016). The study established that there are a number of projects identified in Chibombo which are currently spearheaded by WDCs. These include; drilling of boreholes, water network rehabilitation projects, the building of schools, clinics and grading and upgrading of township roads which are aimed at uplifting the living standards of the people in the community.

Respondents also indicated that government and other players designed and implemented their programmes according to the specific target audience. That meant, therefore, that, audiences were identified with whom the players needed to communicate in order to achieve their mandate. The audiences ranged from the media houses, learners and educators, governmental institutions, civil societies and mere members of the public. This was with the understanding that poverty reduction programmes are to be designed and implemented to suit the levels of understanding of the selected audience. This was in line with UNEP (2007) which recognised that most programmes are often successful when they are targeted at specific groups because information can be tailored to the activities, needs and challenges of the group.

5.4 Community Views on Initiation of Projects

Various players at the local level, local governments and non-governmental organisations and local communities have the advantage of being closer to the communities than those representatives of Central Government bureaucracies formulating policies at the national level. Local authorities are usually in more direct contact with those stakeholders who reside in the communities and who depend on varying degrees from all the diverse community projects. Community development approach emphasises self-help democratic process and local leadership in community revitalization and so, most community works should involve the participation of the communities or beneficiaries involved. Community participation is an important component of community development as it reflects a grassroots or bottom-up approach to problem solving.

According to the findings from the respondents, the community is not fully involved or consulted when it comes to project identification and initiating of the projects being undertaken in the community hence, the cause of low participation in the projects. However, projects currently being undertaken by WDCs are in conjunction with Chibombo District Council (CDC). Community engagement is a process that involves inclusive participation and mutual respect of values. In addition, it supports strategies, and actions of people affiliated with geographic proximity, special interest, or similar situations to address issues affecting the well-being of the community of focus (Fawcett *et al*, 2007).

5.5 Causes of Low Participation

There are several causes of low participation in the developmental projects. One of these include lack of awareness or sensitization in the mode of participation. Most people fail to participate in these projects because they do not know the role or responsibility to play in developmental projects. This is common in places where citizens are barely educated, thus lack knowledge on how to participate. Awareness campaigns to sensitise the community on civic issues is very important. Sensitisation helps the community make decisions with accurate existing knowledge in policy decisions as well as community participation in development projects. Thus if not done, it is likely to impair transparency and accountability. (PSRP, 2005).

Political interference also creates potential for uncalled-for political interference. The involvement of Members of Parliament and Councillors breaks the principle of separation of powers by conferring parts of the executive function on the legislator. This contributes to political clientelism and means that Members of Parliament (MPs) and Councillors manage funds, rather than representing the community and holding the committee accountable (Lawson, 2012).

Lack of cooperation among people of different political affiliation is also among the causes of low participation in developmental projects. Politicking intrudes the process of development. It is used for genuine development although it is politicised by those who lose elections and uses it as a political tool. The government in power tends to abandon developmental projects initiated by the previous regime, thus some projects are done without the full participation of citizens (Chibomba, 2013). Examples of such cases are where some projects initiated by Movement for Multi-

party Democracy (MMD) are not supported by the Patriotic Front (PF) government. Additionally, the long stretched bureaucracy tends to be a cause of low participation as people fail to go through the many stages involved in project implementation (Chibomba, 2013).

These findings evoke the three main elements of participation which are; membership, purpose and goals, and structures and processes [Jefferson Regional Health Alliance, n.d]. On membership, it was clear that the WDCs targeted the local community in Keembe Constituency. However, the community's engagement in the planning phase and decision making process was not very transparent. Also, communication between WDCs and the community was very poor. For instance, funds received for projects were not disclosed to the community members. There were no agreements on money and fundraising ventures.

On the issue of structures and processes, power is distributed and provides opportunities to act and influence decision making. However, power was not distributed appropriately and decision-making was not clear and effective. The community members had no clear roles so as to add value and make a difference to community projects. This was because community projects seemed to be imposed on the local community.

Purpose and goals provide direction for the group and keeps the projects on course. However, there was no clear direction in WDCs of Keembe Constituency to keep the projects on course, and this led to some projects being abandoned. Essentially, there were clear goals but the planning process was not mutually agreed upon. Community projects were rarely evaluated so as to determine the effectiveness the goals of the community. As a result, there were a lot of shoddy works on community projects.

5.6 Suggestions on Increasing Participation

The cooperative governance with the national government, provincial administration and local authorities are promoted to support and enhance the developmental role of governance (Constitution of Zambia, 2016). There are a number of ways on how WDCs can increase people's participation in developmental projects in their communities. WDCs should involve the target population who are residents in Chibombo at all stages of the projects, from the concept through planning and designing to implementation and operation.

Community members need to be kept abreast, updated and get involved at all stages. The other thing that should be done is to provide a channel for dialogue and resource mobilisation with various stakeholders in the process of development. There should be a smooth flow of information among the community, WDCs, the Local Council and the Ministry of Local Government and Housing. According to Todaro *et al* (2009), the provision of knowledge and advocacy work of citizens has resulted in a more educated and informed Zambian citizenry that is able to contribute in various national forums and at various levels in the development of policies and programs aimed at solving existing problems. In addition, the provision of information has enabled citizens to challenge government decisions and actions. However, although frantic strides have been made in information delivery and access, much more needs to be done in ensuring that information is readily available to citizens (PSRP, 2005).

Furthermore, the WDC should strengthen capacities for community management in development. Leaders and other members of the community should be empowered with knowledge and skills to effectively manage projects (Simbeye, 2016). This can lead to securing people's participation and ensuring that the projects undertaken are successful. WDCs should work in partnership with the ward councillors and other institutions such as schools, clinics, markets and churches in their respective areas in order to stimulate, coordinate and implement developmental initiatives which are aimed at enhancing community's prosperity. Community involvement at decision level will not only enhance community's participation but also increase awareness on the roles and projects undertaken by WDC in the area, as the broader significance of community participation is to enhance development and service delivery, improve governance and deepen democracy.

5.7 Suggestions on Promoting Awareness and Involvement

Findings from the WDCs officials revealed that the local council works hand in hand with the committee in trying to promote community's awareness and involvement in community projects. This is done through the provision of financial and material assistance to the WDCs through laid down procedures. Furthermore, the local council promote community's involvement in projects by visiting communities to get informed views in collaboration with the WDCs. It is a collaborative process with the goal of achieving better and more acceptable decisions (Fawcett, *et al* (2007). The broader significance of community participation is to enhance

development and service delivery, improve governance and deepen democracy hence, enables decision makers to find out what the community's preferences are and why they should be incorporated in decision making.

Thus, the process demands participation of the local people and other stakeholders before designing a programme. This ensures effective participation of the local people and sustainability of the programme as it is made to respond to real community issues. This also is in conformity with the observation by Macharia (2004) that for any programme aimed at uplifting people's livelihood to succeed, it is important that the local people be involved in the effort, and sees their rights being respected and also sees the benefits of the process. To achieve this, local people need to be encouraged during the planning and implementation of the project.

5.8 Challenges of WDCs in Promoting Participation in Developmental Projects

According to findings from the WDC officials, one of the challenges that they face in promoting people's participation in development projects is lack of information flows among stakeholders. When consultative meetings are held with stakeholders such as churches, schools, markets and other business owners, these representatives, in turn, do not disseminate information to others. This leads to lack of awareness among the majority residents. The other challenge that WDCs face in promoting community participation in developmental projects is that some projects lack public acceptance. This can be attributed to WDCs imposing projects in the communities instead of the otherwise and not prioritising the communities' need.

According to Simbeye (2016), 'findings by Cabinet Office during various monitoring missions to councils revealed that most councils have not prioritised the process of creation of WDCs because of lack of resources'. Raising sufficient funds has been one of the major problems facing most local authorities. The majority of councils in Zambia are unable to meet this statutory function and obligation because of lack of resources. Although the 1991 Local Government Act has given councils vast powers to raise and generate their own revenues, fewer councils are able to take advantage of this provision due to the fact that their resource base is too small to sustain their operations. As a result, local authorities have accumulated crushing burdens of debt or arrears and are now faced with financial crises (Crook and Manor, 2001). The lack of resources to undertake community projects has left significant

gaps in service delivery capacity and thereby placed limitations on the extent to which stakeholders can participate in development projects. Essentially, without financial sustainability, local authorities are unable to effectively provide services to the communities and their developmental capacity.

The process involved in approving projects, releasing funds and sometimes the handing over of some facilities to the community takes a long time and as a result, demoralises community's participation in developmental projects in their communities. Some people have a negative attitude towards project participation due to status (gender and financial status in society), while others just have a negative attitude towards participation (Chibomba, 2013).

Some projects initiated by WDCs have been abandoned as soon as a different government comes into power. There is also a lack of support from the opposition political party members especially those at grass-root level in certain projects being carried out by WDCs. Additionally Constituencies under Constituency Development Fund (CDF) are too vast to involve everyone in the projects. This is why WDCs were created. A collection of local revenue may further frustrate the community because local politicians seeking to maximise political support interfere in the collection process of revenue (Smoke, 1994).

Although local government reforms have brought about significant changes in policy frameworks and institutional structures in order to facilitate and anchor effective delivery of socio-economic development services, local authorities are faced with difficult constraints and challenges in implementing and prioritising the process of WDCs (Simbeye, 2016). The strength of decentralised local governance remains limited. For decentralisation to be effective, not only should local governance be downwardly accountable, but other central government agencies and bodies at district level should also be accountable to local government. The argument that democratic decentralised local government can deliver services more efficiently and more responsively depends on the adequate provision of resources. Yet the lack of financial resources continues to constrain the effectiveness of local authorities. The failure to fully empower local authorities undermines the effectiveness and legitimacy of WDCs. Lastly, the Ministry of Finance and National planning does not

release the grants on time as specified in the 1991 Local Government Act (Central Statistics Office, 2000).

The conscientization theory used in this study fitted well in this study because it points out that participation can only occur when people are enlightened. The enlightened community will then be able to make decisions and ensure effective participation for personal and community development.

5.9 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented a discussion of findings of the study by addressing each research objective. It started with the players involved in WDCs and their management roles. It further addressed the strategies used in community participation. The third section tackled the successes and challenges of the WDCs. The last section discussed the suggestions on how the WDCs can be improved. The next chapter presents the overall conclusion of the study. It further provides recommendations and suggests for further research emerging from the findings of this research.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Overview

This chapter presents the overall conclusion of the findings and recommendations. It must be emphasised that the aim of this study was to gain a greater understanding of the extent to which Ward Development Committees effectively enhance community participation in development projects in Keembe Constituency of Chibombo District in Zambia. The Chapter ends with recommendations and implications for further research.

6.2 Conclusion

The research question that sought to determine the extent to which Ward Development Committees enhanced community participation in developmental projects in Zambia was answered. The general picture from the study was that the community was not knowledgeable about WDCs. This was determined by the community's response to where they reported whenever they were faced with a problem in their residences. The projects that were undertaken were not sustainable and people are still dependent on the government to improve their communities. The other objective and the research question that sought to assess the participation of individual households in developmental projects of their residence were also answered. The study revealed that few of the households had participated in the developmental projects undertaken by WDCs. This was because most people lacked sensitization while others with knowledge about the WDCs had little or no time to participate in the developmental projects, hence poor participation. On the other hand, Ward Development Committee officials indicated that it was not their responsibility for people's low participation in developmental projects but rather due to challenges that include political interference, lack of public acceptance, lack of information flows among stakeholders and the vastness of the areas that the WDCs covered. In view of this, the WDCs did not effectively enhance community's participation in developmental projects. This, subsequently, led to the change of the Residence Development Committees (RDCs) to Ward development Committees (WDCs) in order to enhance community participation which the RDC failed.

6.3 Recommendations

The recommendations given below are made to both Central government and local council bearing in mind that if WDCs continue to be pursued as government policy they should be a tool for enhancing the tenets of decentralisation, community development and participation.

1. The study found out that most community projects were not monitored frequently evaluated. Therefore, it is recommended that both the councils and WDCs should be closely monitored and evaluated by the Central government through the Ministry of Local government.
2. Since the findings established low participation in WDCs, there is need for more sensitization on WDCs in the communities.
3. Since the study has established that resources were inadequate to carry out community projects, it is recommended that projects should be implemented properly. The MoLGH should provide adequate resources for project evaluation and monitoring throughout the entire project life.
4. The study revealed that there were a lot of shoddy works especially by local contractors. I therefore, recommend that contracts should be awarded to well-qualified personnel or organisations. Community-based enterprise with adequate resources, manpower and machinery should also be considered.
5. Since community projects sometimes took long to be completed, it is recommended that mechanisms should be put in place to ensure that projects are completed within the given time frame.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Study

There is need to find out provisions that need to be included in the WDC Act that would ensure inclusive and holistic development in the Wards. Research into an allocation formula based on accurate information for the Wards should also be carried out. Further, research into how WDCs project plans fit into the district and national plans can also be carried out in order to establish whether WDCs fits into Zambia's Decentralisation Policy. In addition, the issue of continuing with WDCs as a government policy for bringing about development versus improving funding to local councils can be conducted.

6.5 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the conclusion of the study based on the four objectives set out in Chapter One. Recommendations have also been given directed to the WDCs as the main stakeholder involved in community projects. The recommendations have been coined from what the study has established. The Chapter has finally presented suggestions for further research.

REFERENCES

- Almond, G. and Verba, S. (1963). **The Civic Culture: Political Attitudes and Democracy in Five Nations**. New Jersey: Princeton University Press
- Arnstern, S. (1969). **A Ladder of Citizen Participation**. *Journal American Institute of Planners*, Vol. 35 No 4 (216-224).
- Asgedom, A. (1998). **Content Analysis Methodology and Applications to Curriculum Evaluation**. *IRE Flambean*, 6 (1), 1-14.
- ANC (1993). **The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)**. Johannesburg: Umanyano Publication.
- Barrera-Osorio, F. (2003). **Decentralization and Education: An Empirical Investigation**. Phd Dissertation, University of Maryland.
- Babbie, E. and Mouton, J. (2004). **The Practice of Social Research**, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Berg, B. I. (2007). **Quantitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences**. Boston: Pearson.
- Berg, S. (2004). **Democratic Decentralisation and Local Participation: A Review of Recent Research**. *Development in Practice* 14(6):780-79
- Bless, C. and Achola, P. (1988). **Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective**.
- Bless, C. and Smith, C.H. (1995). **Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective**. 2nd ed. Juta and Co, Ltd.
- Botchie, G. (2000). **Rural District Planning in Ghana: A Case Study**. *Environmental Planning*, Issues No. 21. London: IIED.
- Burns, N and Grove, S.K. (1999). **Understanding Nursing Research**. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Saunders.
- Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). **Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology: Qualitative Research in Psychology**, 3: 77-101.
- Caracelli, V.J. & Greene, J. C. (1993). **Data Analysis Strategies for Mixed-method Evaluation Designs**. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 15 195-207.

Chibomba, D. N (2013). **The Constituency Development Fund as a Tool for Development: A Case Study of Katuba Constituency in Zambia.** MA Dissertation, University of the Western Cape.

Chigunta, F.J., Chisanga, B. & Masiye, G. (1998). **Poverty Experiences in Zambia.** Lusaka: Committee for Campaign against Poverty.

Chikulo, B.C. (1981). **The Zambian Administrative Reforms: An Alternative View.** *Public Administration and Development*, vol. 1(1), pp. 55-65.

Chikulo, B.C. (1985) **Reorganisation for Local Administration in Zambia: An Analysis of the Local Administration Act, 1980.** *Public Administration and Development*. vol. 5(1), pp. 73-81.

Chikulo, B.C. (1989). **The Zambian Local Administration Act, 1980: Problems of Implementation.** *Planning and Administration*, vol. 16(1), pp. 62-67

Chikulo, B.C (2009) **Local Governance in Zambia: A Review.** *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance Issue 2: January 2009 pp. 98,99,104,105*

Chiyongo, V. (2007). **Training Needs of Basic and High School Managers in Selected Schools of Chongwe District.** M.Ed. (Admin.). Dissertation, Lusaka: University of Zambia.

Clayton, A. 1998. *NGOs and decentralised government in Africa.* INTRAC Occasional Paper Series No. 18.
Retrieved 27 March 2008 from: www.intrac.org/publications.php?id=72

Creswell, J.W. (2000). **Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.** Sage Publications. International and Professional Publisher. New Delhi: Thousand Oaks.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). **Research Design: Qualitative approach,** London: Sage.

Crook, C. R. & Manor, J. (1998). **Democracy and Decentralisation in South Asia and West Africa: Participation, Accountability, and Performance.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Crook, R. and J. Manor, (2001). **Local Governance and Decentralization in Zambia, Final Report to SNV**. Lusaka: The Ministry of Local Government and Housing and the Donor Reference Group,

Cohen, L., Manion. L., & Morrison, K. (2000). **Research Methods in Education** (5th ed.). London: Routledge.

Cohen J. and S. Peterson (1999) **Administrative Decentralization: Strategies for Developing Countries**. Lynne Reinner: Boulder, CO.

Conyers, D. (1984) **Decentralization and Development: A Review of the Literature**, *Public Administration and Development* 4(2): 181-97.

Davidson, Forbes (1990). **Community Participation in Zambia: The Danida / UNCHS Training Program**. Nairobi: UNCHS.

Davies, L. (2001). Review essay: **Citizenship, Education and Contradiction**. *British Journal of Sociology of Education* 22(2) 299-308.

De Beer, F. (1998) **Community Development and Beyond. Issues Structures and Procedures**. Pretoria: J. L Van Schalk.

Decentralisation Secretariate – FAQs (2016). **What is Decentralisation?** <http://www.mlgh.gov.zm>. Page- id 1073 [24/07/16].

Dele, O. (2006). **Decentralisation Policies and Practices under Structural Adjustment and Democratization in Africa**. In: Bangura, Y. & Larbi, G. (eds.). UNESCO.

Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). **Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research**. In: Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Dey, I. (1993). **Qualitative Data Analysis**, London: Routledge.

De Vos, A.S. (1998). **Research at Grassroots**. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Donald, K.K. and Tromp, L.A. (2006). **Proposal and Thesis Writing**. Nairobi: Pauline's Publication.

Fawcett S.B. *et al* (2007). **Using Empowerment Theory in Collaborative Partnerships for Community Health and Development**. *Am J Community Psychol* 1995; 23:677-697 International Association for Public Participation.

Ferguson, I. and Chandrasekharan (n.d), C. **Paths and Pitfalls of Decentralisation for Sustainable Forest Management: Experiences of the Asia-Pacific Region**.

Fien, J., Guevara, R., Lang, J. and Malone, J. (2004). **Australian Country Report, UNESCO-NIER Regional Seminar on Policy: Research and Capacity Building for Education**

Firmin-Sellers, K. & Sellers, P. (1999). **Expected Failures and Unexpected Successes of Land Titling in Africa**. *World Development*, 27(7), 1115-1128.

Foundation for Democratic Process (FODEP)(2000). **Resource Manual for District Councillors' Workshop 1999- 2000**. Lusaka: FODEP National Secretariat

Freire, P. (2000) **Pedagogy of the Oppressed** (Thirtieth-anniversary edition). London: Continuum.

Gudschinsky, S. C. (1976). **Handbook of Literacy**. Dally: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2007). **Revised Constituency Development Fund Act**. Kenya: Government Printers.

Government of the Republic of Zambia (2009). **Implementation Plan 2009-2013**. Lusaka: Decentralisation Secretariat.

Government of the Republic of Zambia (1971). **Village Productivity and Ward Development Committees**. Lusaka: Government Printer.

Government of the Republic of Zambia (1972). **Humanism in Zambia: and A Guide to its Implementation, Parts I and II**, Lusaka: Government Printers.

Government of the Republic of Zambia (2016). **The Constitution of Zambia**. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Government of the Republic of Zambia (2002). **The National Decentralisation Policy. Towards Empowering the People**. Lusaka: Cabinet Office.

Hamid, H.S. (2013). **Decentralisation and Public Service Delivery in Indonesia: The Case of Road Infrastructure**. MA Dissertation. Budapest, Central European University.

Haque, S.M. (2010). **Decentralising Local Governance in Thailand: Contemporary Trends and Challenges**, *International Journal of Public Administration* 33(12-13):673-688.

Heward, C. (1999). **Gender Education and Development beyond Access to Empowerment**. London: ZED Books.

Hedtke, R & Zimenkova, T. (Eds) (2013). **Education for Civic and Political Participation: A Critical Approach**. New York: Routledge.

Helmsing, A.H. (1999). **Decentralisation and Emerging Patterns of Local Governance: A Comparative Analysis of Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe**. Hague: Institute of Social Sciences.

Hicks, U. K. (1961). **Development From Below: Local Government and Finance in Developing Countries of the Commonwealth**. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Holtmann, E. 2000. **“Dezentralisation /Dezentralisierung“**. Politik-Lexikon, 3. Völlig überarbeitete und erweiterte Auflage. München.

Holzer, M. *et al* (2004). **Restoring Trust in Government**. The Potential of Digital Citizen Participation.

Jerrerson Regional Health Alliance (n.d). **The Three Elements of Participation**. Institute for Conservative Leadership.

www.jeffersonregionalhealthalliance.org./elements/participation

Jere R. P. (2000). **Participation by Beneficiaries in Care Prospect Project in Zambia: The Role of Participatory Communication**. M. A Dissertation, Lusaka: University of Zambia.

Kamocha, C. (2011). **A Proposed Sustainability Curriculum to Address Effects of Shifting Cultivation on School Going Children of Kasempa District in Zambia**. M.Ed. Dissertation published Lusaka: University of Zambia.

- Kamwengo, M. (2002). **Elderly Women in South Africa: Issues, Challenges and Future Prospects**. New Delhi: Sterling International Publication.
- Kandondo, C. S. (2001) **Government Grants and Local Government Operational Efficiency and Effectiveness in Zambia: The Case of Kabwe Municipality**. M.A Dissertation. The Hague, Netherlands.
- Kaunda, K.D. (1968). **Zambia's Guidelines for the Next Decade**. Lusaka: Government Printer.
- Kelly, M. J. (1999). **The Origins and Development of Education in Zambia from Pre - Colonial Times to 1996** (A Book of Notes and Readings).
- Kombo D. K. and Tromp D. L .A. (2006). **Proposal and Thesis Writing**. Nairobi: Paulines Publication Africa.
- Laverne, W.T. (1995). **Sociology (The study of Human Relationships) 5th ed.** New York Holt and Winsten.
- Lawson, M. (2012). **Constituency Development Fund: Transparency in Grassroots Development or Political Patronage**. Lusaka: Evangelical Fellowship of Zambia(EFZ),
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod J. E. (2005). **Practical Research: Planning and Design**. 8th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Lincon, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1981). **Effective Evaluation**. Son Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Litvack, J. *et al* (1998). **Rethinking Decentralisation in Developing Countries**. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Loloji, Peter (2001). **'Enhancing Local Governance: The Efficacy of Bilateral Co-operation'** *in the Journal of Humanities Vol., 2001, pp20-45.*
- Macharia (2004). **Community-Based Intervention as a Strategy to Combat Desertification in the Arid and Semi-Arid Rangeland of Kajiabo District, Kenya**, *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 99(1&3)141-142.*

Malama, A. (2003) **A Proposal for the Process of Implementation of the Decentralisation Policy in Zambia**, Unpublished summary report, IDD, University of Birmingham

Malindervaud, E. (1998). “**Decentralisation**”. In Eatwell, J.M. *et al* (eds.), *The New Palgrave. A Dictionary of Economics, Vol1: A-D*. London and Basingstoke.

Mamdani, M. (1996). **Citizen and Subject: Contemporary Africa and the Legacy of Late Colonialism**. Princeton, USA: Princeton University Press.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (1995). **Designing Qualitative Research**. 2nd ed. Sage: Beverley Hills.

Mbozi, E. (2013). **Participatory Approaches to Development**. (Unpublished) Institute for Distance Education Study Materials. University of Zambia.

McCowan, T. (2009). **Rethinking Citizenship Education: A Curriculum for Participatory Democracy**. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

McGee, R., Bazaara, N., Gaventa, J., Nierras, R., Rai, M., Rocamora, J., Saule Jr., N., Williams, E. and Zermeno, S. (2003) '**Legal Frameworks for Citizen Participation: Synthesis Report**'. Accessed 25 October 2012<<http://www.unh.edu/democracy/conference2009/pdf/LogoLinkLegalFrameworksforParticipation.pdf> >.

McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. (2006). **Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry**, London: Pearson Education, Inc.

Ministry of Education. (1996). **Educating Our Future**, Lusaka: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education, (2013). **Zambia Education Curriculum Framework**: Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre (CDC).

Ministry of Local Government and Housing (2012). **Guidelines on the Establishment Management and Operation of Ward Development Committees (WDC)**: Lusaka: Decentralisation Secretariat (Planning Section).

Ministry of Local Government and Housing (2006). **Guidelines on the Management and Utilization of Constituency Development Fund**: Lusaka: Ministry of Local Government and Housing.

Muzumara, P.M. (1998). **Supporting and Developing Science Teachers in Zambia**. M Ed. Dissertation, London: University of Leeds.

Nienbuys, Sjoerd (1990). **Increasing Government Involvement: the Zambian Experience on the Training for Community Participation for Settlement Upgrading from 1984-1990**. Lusaka: Mimeo.

OECD. 2006. *The challenge of capacity development – working towards good practice*. DAC Guidelines and Reference Series. Paris, France: OECD. Retrieved 27March 2008 from: www.oecd.org/dataoecd/4/36/36326495.pdf

Olowu, D. (2001), **Local Political and Institutional Structures and Processes**, Summary report prepared for the UNCDF Symposium on Decentralization and Local Governance in Africa, Cape Town, South Africa, 26–30 March, New York: UNCDF.

Olowu, D. (2006). **Decentralization Policies and Practices Under Structural Adjustment and Democratization in Africa**. In: Bangura, Y., and Larbi, G. (ed.) *Public Sector Reform in Developing Countries: Capacity Challenges to Improving Services* London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Olowu, D. & Wunsch, S. J. (eds.) (2004). **Local Governance in Africa: The Challenges of Democratic Decentralization**. London: Lynne Rienner Publishers Inc.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. et al (2010). **Mixed Research as a Tool for Developing Quantitative Instruments** *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 4(56), 56-78.

Orodho, A.J. (2003) **Essentials of Educational and Social Sciences research Method**. Nairobi: Masola Publishers.

Oxfam, (1995). **Poverty Report**. London: Oxfam.

Peters, B.G and Wright, V.(1996). **Public Policy and Administration, Old and New**. In: Goodson, R.E and H-D. Klingemann (eds.). Oxford: A New Handbook of Political Science.

Phiri, Samuel (1994). **Political Order in Changing Societies**. Newhaven: Yale University Press.

Polit, D. and Hungler, B. (1997). **Essentials of Nursing Research: Methods, Appraisals and Utilization**. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Pradeep, H.U.S. (2011) **Challenges of Local Government Service Delivery: A Case Study of Matara Municipal Council**. MA dissertation, Noma NSU

Punch, K. F. (2006) **Developing Effective Research Proposals**. New Delhi: 2nded, Sage Publications India Pvt Ltd.

Ribot, J. (2002). **Decentralisation of National Resources: Institutionalising Popular Participation**. Washington: World Resources Institute.

Robino, C. (2009). **Citizen Participation, Decentralization and Inclusive Development: A Survey on Citizen Participation and Decentralization in South Africa with specific reference to the Eastern Cape c. 2005**. PhD Dissertation. Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences. South Africa: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University,

Robinson, M. (2007) **Does Decentralisation Improve Equity and Efficiency in Public Service Delivery Provision?**, IDS Bulletin, 38 (1), pp. 7-17. Institute of Development Studies.

Rondinelli, D. (1999) **'What is Decentralization?'** in J. Litvack and J. Seddon (eds) *Decentralization Briefing Notes*, WBI Working Papers. Washington: World Bank.

Rondinelli, D., and Nellis, J. (1986) “**Assessing Decentralization Policies: A Case for Cautious Optimism**”, *Development Policy Review* 4(1):3-23.

Report on the review of the constitution of the zone/ ward development committee (WDC) (2011).

Saavedra, P. A.(2010) "**A Study of the Impact of Decentralization on Access to Service Delivery.**" Dissertation, Georgia State University.

Schaeffer, S. (n.d). “*Participatory Development: What it is and What it cannot do. In A. Dodge (n.d) Manuals on Participatory Training: Manual on Orientation for Planners and Decision Makers*”. Bonn: German Foundation for International Development.

Sidhu, K. S. (2003). **Methodology of Research in Education**, New Delhi. Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.

Sikayile, A. (2012). **Education Decentralisation in Zambia: An Analysis of Policy and practice**: A study of Chongwe and Solwezi District Education Boards. Master thesis

Simbeye B. (2016). **Benefits of Ward Development Committees**. *Times of Zambia* (24th July 24, 2016).

Siyumbwa, L. W (2011). **The effects of Community Participation in Education on the Learning and Teaching Enviroment in Selected High Schools in Mongu District**. M Ed. Dissertation, Lusaka: University of Zambia.

Smoke, P (1994). **Local Government Finance in Developing Countries**, Nairobi: Oxford.

Ssonka, S. K. David (November 2013). **Decentralisation and Development: Can Uganda Now Pass the Test of Being a Role Model**. *Commonwealth Journal Local Governance. Issue 13/14*, 12.

GRZ. (2016). **The Constitution of Zambia**. Lusaka: Government Printers

Tohbi, V. (2011). **“Tools and Methodologies to Address Election-Related Violence in Africa”** www.eisa.org [Accessed 05/06/13]

United Nations (DDSMS and UNDP), **Report of the United Nations Global Forum on Innovative Policies and Practices in Local Governance**, Gothenburg, Sweden, 23-27 September 1996, ref St/Tcd/Ser.E/46.

UNDP, (1997). **Decentralised Governance Programme: Strengthening Capacity for People - Centred Development**. New York: Bureau for Development Policy, Management Development and Governance Division.

UNEP (1981). **Report of the Governing Council on the Work of its Ninth Session 13 – 26 May 1981**.

UNEP (2007). **Transition and Transformation Annual Report of 2007**. Kenya, Nairobi.

UNESCO. 2000. *Dakar Framework of Action*. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved 27 March 2008 from: www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/framework.shtml

UNICEF, (1996). **Prospects of Sustainable Human Development in Zambia: More Choices for our People**. Lusaka: UNICEF.

Webster, S, (1985). **Educational Research: Competence for Analysis and Applications**, 6th ed. New Jersey: Macmillan.

White, C.J. (2005). **Research: A Practical Guide**, Pretoria: Ithuthuko Investments (Publishing). [%20FINAL.pdf](#) on 5 August 2007.

White, S., and Reid, J. (2008). **Placing Teachers? Sustaining Rural Schooling Through Place Consciousness in Teacher Education: *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 23(7), 1–11.**

Wilcox, D.(1994). **The Guide to Effective Participation** .London: Partnership Books.

World Bank, (1994). **Zambia Poverty Assessment Reports**. Volume 7 No 32573.

Yuliani, E. L. (2004). **Decentralisation, Deconcentration and Devolution: What do they Mean?** Paper presented at the Interlaken Workshop on Decentralisation, 27-30 April 2004. Switzerland: Interlaken.

Zambia Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper-International Monetary Fund Staff Country Reports (2007). Washington, D.C: Publication Services.

Zakari, B.A. (2012). **Decentralisation and Community Participation in Ghana: The Development of District Development Plans in East Mamprusi District**. Hague: Graduate School of Development Studies.

Appendices

APPENDIX I: Questionnaire for Community Members

I am a student at the University of Zambia pursuing a Master of Education in Civic Education carrying out a research on the topic: “Evaluation of selected Ward Development Committees of Zambia’s Keembe Constituency in enhancing people’s Participation in development projects.” You have been purposively selected to participate in this study. All answers and comments that you will give will be highly appreciated. Be assured that the information will be treated as highly confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

Tick in the appropriate box from 1-5

1. What is your gender?

Male

Female

2. Kindly choose your age range below:

Age 16-20

Age 21-25

Age 26-30

Age 31-40

Age 41-Above

3. Marital status:

Single

Married

4. Denomination:

UCZ

SDA

Catholic

CMML

Other

If other, specify.....

5. What is your level of education?

Basic

Secondary

Informal

6. What is your nature of occupation?

Informal

Formal

7. What challenges do you face in your community?

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

8. Where do you report the problems you face?

.....
.....

9. How do you solve the problems you face in your community?

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

10. Do you know any project that is currently being undertaken in your community?

Yes

No

If yes, what is the name of the project?

.....
.....

11. Who initiated the project mentioned in question10?

.....
.....

12. Do you know anything about Ward Development Committees (WDCs)?

Yes []

No []

13. Have you participated in any community development project initiated by WDCs?

Yes []

No []

Give reasons for the answer

above.....

If yes to question 13, what do you is the role of WDCs?

.....
.....

14. Do you know any project the WDCs has undertaken?

Yes []

No []

15. If yes to question 14, have you participated in any WDCs' projects?

Yes []

No []

.....
.....

16. Is there adherence to the projects initiated?

Yes []

No []

Give reason for you

.....
.....

17. Do you think WDCs are working to the expectations of the community? (please explain)

.....
.....

18. What do you think WDCs should do to meet the expectations of the community?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for your time

APPENDIX II: Interview Schedule for the District Officials and NGOs

List of Questions

1. What are WDCs?
2. When were they formed?
3. What is the main objective of WDCs?
4. What is the composition of WDCs?
5. Where do you get the funding from?
6. Who initiates the development projects in your area?
7. What projects have been initiated in the wards?
8. Do the local community participate in the local projects?
9. What is the community attitude?
10. How do you ensure that the local community participates in the projects?
11. Do projects embarked for execution in the wards followed when it comes to the actual implementation? Explain.
12. What challenges do you face in implementing the projects?
13. What do you think should be done in order to fully enhance community participation?
14. What makes WDCs successive?

Thank you for you

APPENDIX III: PERMISSION LETTER TO COLLECT DATA



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379
Lusaka, Zambia
Fax: +260-1-292702

=====
Date. 11/03/16.....

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS/ PhD STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr./Ms. HANANGAMA BRENDA Computer number 514700948..... is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

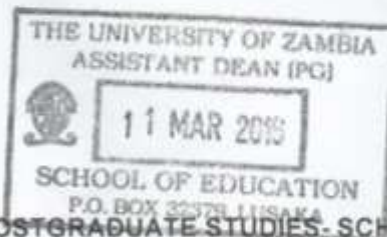
He/She is taking a Masters/PhD programme in Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he/she has to complete.

We shall greatly appreciate if the necessary assistance is rendered to him/her/.

Yours faithfully

Emmy Mbozi (Dr)

ASSISTANT DEAN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION



cc: Dean-Education
Director-DRGS