

**Bridging The Gaps In Community Participation In The
Sudanese Village Organization Process**

A Critical Analysis Of Participation Practice In Community Development Projects

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Abstract And Executive Summary

On account of the recent massive migration and urban growth in the city of Khartoum, public sector efforts through the Village Organization Program (introduced in 1985) to reduce the gap in basic services provision have not made a significant or large-scale impact. Plans and Projects often been expensive require massive expenses or inadequately designed and planned. As results, these approach yields in meager benefits are reached at enormous financial, social and cultural cost. Thus, communities in many areas in the capital region found themselves responsible of sustaining these services and infrastructure by themselves. Community initiative driven by a traditional form of community participation known as "Nafeer" helped in sustaining those services. This approach gets wide recognition among villages and informal settlements communities. The existence of those two approaches of community participation practiced in relation to basic service provision in urban villages, together with the success of "Nafeer-driven projects in the villages surrounding Khartoum represent an important phenomena that deserve to be studied and evaluated.

The problems investigated by this dissertation in general terms are a question of how to improve the process of community participation in the basic service provision in Village Organization Projects in the Sudanese Capital region. Thus, this research is set to answer two main questions identified, as; 1) whether citizens'-initiated and traditional forms of community participation practiced before the re-planning process are effective and sustainably countable. Our second question "questions" 2) whether "Nafeer" and traditional forms of community participation represents efficient gap-filler of the community participation shortcomings arises from the legislative planning in the village organization process.

The objectives of this research are of five-folds; 1) To explore the concept of the community participation with reference to the existing local Planning Tradition through documenting some of these activities; 2) To emphasis on the importance of the traditional community participation on the development of the urban villages in the capital region of Sudan. This implies to emphasize on the importance of a traditional form of Sudanese community participation named as "Nafeer"; 3) To develop a set of criteria and measures that are capable of conducting a reliable evaluation of community participation in development of basic infrastructure in low-income communities; 4) To develop a research approach that allows for applying these criteria to evaluate both the traditional "Nafeer-driven" and the legislative "government-initiated" forms of community participation and ; 5) To

identify and understand the Pros and Cons of each type of the two community participation approaches mentioned above.

For the purpose of this research we adopted a research strategy that is based on; 1) A theoretical exploration of the community participation as a concept as well as an evaluation approaches. This step is believed to provide a contextual understanding of the basic knowledge of community participation in Sudan as well as worldwide. This step will also assist in developing our contextually driven evaluation framework and; 2) A case study approach by which our research hypotheses are testified and benchmarked. The two case studies used in this research (Al-shigla and Al-salama) were carefully chosen and selected based on Patton's 1990s Purposive Sampling. As a result, several criteria were implemented in order for the case study to qualify for selection.

In this research, special emphasis was assigned to qualitative information of the study area. Supported when necessary by quantitative approach. Techniques used range from interviews, observations and document analysis. Participatory Rapid Appraisal Workshops (PRAs) were also used both as a research data collection as well as analysis tool. To increase the level of data validity in this research and to look at the issues investigated from different point of view, we adopted the Triangulation or cross-examination approach (Denzin, 2006).

In this research we also employed two correlated, yet different analysis techniques. We used the Tangible/theoretically based evaluation framework along with intangible analysis approach based on our observations in the case studies selected. Having understood the necessity of using a contextually driven evaluation framework that was stated by several theorist and policy-makers, our evaluation framework attempts to answer two important questions related to participation evaluation. These questions are "what to measure? And; How to measure?" In this regard, this framework humbly answered the two questions by developing a five elements framework that is driven by both community participation theory and results of researches and experiences on community participation. While we understand this framework as "representatives, not necessarily comprehensive", our major focus is more towards measuring the procedural aspects of participation.

Through studying development projects in Al-shigla and Al-salama, this research identified the spectrum of the different stakeholders participated in each project, the relationships among them, between them and the physical space (the projects). This research also investigated the capacities and resources of all stakeholders along with their social, cultural and financial capacities. The level of control of each stakeholder is also discussed and critically evaluated. Last not least, the community participation culture was also evaluated in the various projects selected in the two case studies.

As a result, the Pros and Cons of both participation approaches "Nafeer-driven and legislative planning" were traced and spotted. This dissertation thus identified the shortcomings necessarily to be bridged in order to attain authentic community participation in the Village Organization Programs.

This research concludes by critically summarize the Pros and Cons of the two typologies identified above. As a result, and based on the findings of the two cases studied, this research also concludes by providing an alternative definition of Nafeer ideology that dominates traditional community participation approaches. The research thus, shows that Nafeer has been generally underestimated and inappropriately defined by encapsulating its procedure in the "physical participation form".

With the outcomes of the New Khartoum Structure Plan (2008-2023) around the corner, through which an extended Village Organization Program will be triggered, this dissertation suggests shifting approach of community participation in the Village Organization process. Especially with the large number of villages that will be re-planned/organized accordingly.

This research shows that, Planning Tradition in Sudan (Planning bylaws, planners' perceptions and planning practice) needs to be improved to allow for authentic participation. The analysis of the procedural aspects of community participation as seen in this research do not allow for genuine participation practice. However, it should be understood that this dissertation is not suggesting completely different and new community participation approach as much as shifting approach to more blended Socio-cultural oriented typology through learning from Nafeer. Nonetheless, changing approach as suggested by this research requires a comprehensive, yet, inclusive community participation Model. For this to happen more researches are needed

博士論文概要

ハルツーム市では、「村落部組織化プログラム」を通じて基本的行政サービス提供の格差を狭めようとする取り組みが公共部門によって推進されている。しかし、昨今の大規模な人口移動と都市成長が原因で、その成果は不十分なものに留まっている。こうした計画やプロジェクトは、時に過大な費用を必要としたり、または設計や企画が不十分で、その結果、膨大な金融的・社会的・文化的コストに対して、得られた利益はわずかなものとなっている。

このため、首都圏の多くの地域コミュニティでは、サービスやインフラを自らの手で維持せねばならなくなっている。そんな中、「ナフィー」と呼ばれる伝統的な住民参加の形式によってコミュニティのイニシアティブが機能し、行政サービスの維持に関して重要な役割を果たしている。このアプローチの特長は、村や集落のコミュニティにおいて幅広い支持を得られる点にある。

本研究では、ハルツーム周辺の都市部村落を対象地として、基本的行政サービスの提供を目標として行われたコミュニティ参加の形式に関して、これら2つのアプローチの存在と、「ナフィー」主導プロジェクトの成功に着目し、調査と評価を行った。

この論文の主眼は、スーダンの首都圏における「村落部組織化プログラム」の基本的行政サービス提供に関する住民参加のプロセスを改善する方法を模索することにある。従ってこの研究は、以下の2つの主要な問題への回答を意図している。第一に、「村落部組織化プログラム」に際して行われる、市民主導による伝統的な住民参加が、効果的かつ持続的であるか否か。第二に、村落部組織化プロセスにおける法定計画への住民参加の欠如に関して、「ナフィー」と住民参加の伝統的な形式は、効率的なギャップフィラーたりえる否か、である。

本研究の目的は以下の5段階をなす。1) 地域におけるプランニングに関して、既存のプランニング習慣のもとでの住民参加の活動実態を文書化し、その概念を整理する。2) スーダンの首都圏での都市農村開発に関する伝統的な社会参加の事例として、「ナフィー」と呼ばれるスーダンの伝統的な住民参加形式に着目し、その重要性を示す。3) 低所得地域での基本的なインフラ開発への住民参加の信頼性評価に関して、評価基準と手法を開発する。4) これらの基準を用いて、伝統的な「Nafeer主導型」の住民参加形態と、法的な「政府主導」の住民参加形態を評価するために、適切な研究アプローチを開発する。5) 上記2つの住民参加アプローチに関して、各タイプの長所と短所を明らかにする。

本研究では以下の2つのアプローチを用いる。a) 概念としての住民参加とその評価手法にかんする理論的分析。このステップは、スーダンおよび世界における地域社会参加についての基礎的知見に関して、文脈的理解を提供する。また、文脈的に設定される評価フレームワークの設定に役立つ。b) ケース

スタディによって、我々の研究仮説を証明しベンチマークするというアプローチ。本研究で用いた2つのケーススタディ（アルーシグラとアルーサラマ）は、Pattons の 1990 年代の意図的サンプリングに基づいて、慎重に選択された。結果として、基準の一部は、ケーススタディの選定に関する条件付けを目的として導入された。

本研究では、定性的情報を特に重視しつつ、必要に応じて定量的なアプローチで補完している。使用された手法は、インタビュー、観察、文書解析にわたる。また、参加型の簡易評価ワークショップが、研究データの収集のみならず、分析ツールとしても使用された。本研究ではデータの妥当性のレベルを高めるため、また調査する問題を別の観点から見るために、「トライアングレーション」または「反対尋問式」と呼ばれる手法（Denzin、2006）を採択した。

また本研究では、2つの関連した、しかし異なる分析技術を採用している。選択されたケーススタディにおける観察に基づいて、物理的あるいは理論的な評価フレームワークとともに、非物理的な分析アプローチを用いた。複数の理論家や政策立案者が述べるどころの、文脈的な評価フレームワークを用いることの必要性を念頭に、我々の評価フレームワークでは、参加の評価に関して「何を計測するのか？」「どのようにして計測するのか？」という重要な疑問点への回答を試みる。本研究ではこの疑問点に関して、コミュニティ参加理論と、住民参加の研究と経験から導かれた、5要素からなるフレームワークを開発することで、控えめな回答を与えた。我々はこの枠組みを「代表的だが必ずしも包括的でない」と理解しているが、我々の主要な焦点は、むしろ参加の手続きに関する側面の測定に置かれている。

本研究ではアルーシグラとアルーサラマの開発プロジェクトの研究を通じ、それぞれのプロジェクトに参加する様々な利害関係者の範囲、彼らの関係、そして物理空間（プロジェクト）との関係を明らかにした。この研究ではまた、社会的・文化的・経済的能力を含め、全ての利害関係者の能力とリソースを調査した。各ステークホルダーのコントロールのレベルについても議論し、批判的に評価した。最後に、2つのケーススタディで選択した様々なプロジェクトにおける、住民参加の文化についても評価を行った。

結果として、「Nafeer 主導型」「法定計画型」それぞれの参加アプローチの長所と短所を明らかにした。これに伴って、「村落部組織化プログラム」における本格的な住民参加を達成するうえで、補完される必要のある欠点が明らかになった。本研究ではさらに、上記で識別された参加アプローチごとの長所と短所を批判的に要約して結びとした。これに加えて、調査対象である2例から得られた知見を基に、伝統的な住民参加のアプローチを支配するナフィーイデオロギーの新たな定義を行った。また、Nafeer は「物理的な参加形態」に手続きが押し込められる中で、一般的に過小評価され、不適切に定義づけられている事を示した。

こうしたことから本論文では、さらに拡張された「村落部組織化プログラム」の引き金となるであろう「新ハルツーム構造計画（2008-2023）」の成果を目前に控え、再計画／再編成される多くの村では特に、村落部組織化プロセスにおける住民参加のアプローチを転換すべきと提言する。

本研究では、本格的な参加を可能にするためには、スーダンにおけるプランニング習慣（条例の起草、プランナーの認識と計画の実践）を改善する必要があることを示す。この研究に見られる住民参加手続きの分析は、実際の参加慣習を考慮したものではない。しかし、この論文で提案しているのは、ナフィーーに見られるより融和的で社会文化的指向の類型論へのアプローチであって、完全に異なる新しい住民参加のアプローチではない。いずれにせよ、本研究で提案するようなアプローチの変更には、コンプリヘンシブな（物理的指向の）参加と、インクルーシブな（社会文化的指向の）参加を両立しうる、包括的な住民参加のモデルを必要とするが、これには、さらに相当量の研究蓄積を要すると言えよう。

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BAHRELDIN Ibrahim Zakaria

Tokyo, July 5th 2012

Dedication

Dedicated to all disadvantaged people in my country.

Authorship Declaration

I undersigned declare that this work has not previously been submitted for a degree or a diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this dissertation contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the dissertation itself.



BAHRELDIN Ibrahim Zakaria

Date: July 5th, 2012

CONTENTS

Abstract And Executive Summary	I
博 士 論 文 概 要.....	IV
Acknowledgements	VII
Dedication	VIII
Authorship Declaration	IX
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	xi

CHAPTER ONE; PROLOGUE AND RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1. Section 1; Research Overview	1
1.1. Introduction to research.....	1
1.2. Background of the problem	1
1.3. Statement of the problem and opportunity	8
1.4. Aims an objectives of this research.....	8
1.5. Research hypothesis.....	9
1.6. Research strategy	10
1.7. Significance of this research	10
1.8. Expected contributions of this research	11
1.9. The structure of the study.....	12
2. Section 02; Research design and Approach	15
2.1. The rationale beyond the use of case study methodology;.....	16
2.2. The boundaries of the case study	18
2.3. Research techniques.....	18
2.4. Phases of this research	19
2.5. Case study selection and the their significance	20
2.5.1. Location of the two case studies	23
2.6. Data/evidence collection approaches.....	23
2.6.1. Strategies for Data/ evidences analysis	23

CHAPTER TWO; CONTEXTUAL OVERVIEW OF PLANNING AND C.P IN SUDAN

1	Section one; Sudan; a general introduction	25
1.1	<i>Population and Urbanization in the Sudan</i>	26
1.2	<i>Wars and conflicts in Sudan</i>	27
1.3	<i>Urban Impacts of the wars and conflicts</i>	28
1.4	<i>The Sudanese Economy</i>	28
1.5	<i>The structure of the Sudanese Planning System</i>	29
1.5.1	<i>First level: National</i>	29
1.5.2	<i>Second level: Regional (States or Wilayat)</i>	30
1.5.3	<i>Third level: Local Level (Mahaliyat)</i>	31
1.6	<i>Challenges faced by Sudanese Planning System</i>	34
1.7	<i>The state of community participation in Sudan</i>	36
1.7.1	<i>Introduction</i>	36
1.7.2	<i>The state of literature in of C.P in Sudan</i>	37
1.7.3	<i>Summary and conclusions</i>	39
2	Section Two; Planning Mandates and Community Participation in Sudan;	41
2.1	<i>Introduction</i>	41
2.2	<i>Legal and policy framework of C.P in Sudan</i>	41
2.3	<i>Community participation between 1986 and 2000</i>	43
2.3.1	<i>Urban Planning Act, 1986 (UPA-1986)</i>	44
2.3.2	<i>Urban Planning and Land Disposal Act, 1994 (UPLD-1994)</i>	45
2.3.3	<i>How C.P is mandated in the Sudanese Physical Planning Mandates</i>	47
2.3.4	<i>How participation is mandated</i>	48
2.3.5	<i>Conclusions</i>	51
3	Section Three; Planners' Perception Towards Community Participation in Sudan	54
3.1	<i>Introduction</i>	54
3.2	<i>Questionnaire results</i>	54
3.2.1	<i>Conclusions and summary</i>	58
4	Section Four; The Concept of NAFEER	60
4.1	<i>Some examples of Nafeer-driven exercises in urban Villages</i>	63
5	Section Five; Village development and improvement; a Worldwide vision	65
5.1	<i>The Saemaul Undong Ideology in Korea</i>	65
5.1.1	<i>Objectives of SMU</i>	66
5.1.2	<i>The Structure of SMU process</i>	66
5.1.3	<i>The applicability of SMU in African Context and Sudan</i>	71

5.2	<i>The Ujamaa Concept in Tanzania</i>	71
5.2.1	<i>The Pros and Cons of Ujamaa application in Tanzania</i>	72
5.3	<i>Summary and conclusion</i>	73

CHAPTER THREE; COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION; AN EVALUATION FRAMEWORK

1	Introduction	75
2	The dilemma of community participation evaluation	75
3	The Importance of evaluation, challenges, and evaluation typologies	76
4	Challenges and issues with Community Participation Evaluation C.P.E	76
5	Evaluation framework, structure and definitions	79
5.1	<i>The structure of our C.P framework</i>	80
5.2	<i>Synthesis of our C.P framework</i>	81
5.2.1	<i>First; Traditional community participation theory and literature</i>	81
5.2.2	<i>Second; Third world oriented C.P literature</i>	84
5.2.3	<i>Third; contemporary community participation theories and ideals</i>	91
6	Limitations of this framework	103
7	Conclusions	104

CHAPTER FOUR; AL-SHIGLA CASE STUDY

1	Section One; back ground of Al-shigla case study and location information	105
1.1	<i>Introduction</i>	105
1.2	<i>The significance of Al-shigla case study</i>	106
1.2.1	<i>Population characteristics in Al-shigla</i>	107
1.2.2	<i>Physical problems</i>	107
1.3	<i>Descriptive analysis of the existing situation (features)</i>	108
1.3.1	<i>Land use in Al-shigla</i>	108
1.3.2	<i>Open and public spaces</i>	111
1.3.3	<i>The state of basic services in Al-shigla</i>	111
1.4	<i>Al-shigla before the re-planning process</i>	112
2	Section 2; Research approach in Al-shigla	115
2.1	<i>Research design in Al-shigla case study</i>	115
2.2	<i>Research modules and approach</i>	116

2.2.1	Module one.....	116
2.2.2	Module two.....	116
2.2.3	Module three.....	117
2.2.4	Module four.....	117
3	Section 3; Data Collection Process.....	118
3.1.	Data collection process and procedures.....	118
3.1.	Module 01, the community mapping process and basic community information.....	118
4	Section 3; Projects spectrum and information.....	130
4.1	Module 02 projects spectrum and community participation.....	130
4.1.1	Community participation in development projects Before the Re-P.P.....	131
4.1.2	Summary of community participation In projects before The Re-P.P.....	137
4.1.3	Community participation in development projects in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P.....	139
5	Section 4; Synthesis of community participation.....	143
5.1	Community leaders and citizens' evaluation (CLE and UBE).....	143
5.1.1	Module 03, synthesis of C.P in the selected projects and interviews results (CLE).....	143
5.1.2	Module 04, the questionnaire results (UBE).....	145

CHAPTER 5; AL-SALAMA CASE STUDY

1	Section One; The Location of Al-salama case study and basic information.....	152
1.1	Introduction.....	152
1.2	How does Al-salama evolve?.....	152
1.3	The significance of Al-salama case study.....	153
1.4	Population characteristics in Al-salama.....	153
1.5	The Socioeconomic factors in Al-salama.....	155
1.5.1	Education.....	155
1.6	The State of Basic Services in Al-salama.....	156
1.6.1	Drinking Water supply.....	156
1.6.2	Electricity.....	157
1.6.3	Surface drainage.....	157
1.6.4	Solid waste.....	158
1.7	Descriptive Analysis of the existing situation (features).....	159
1.8	Land use in Al-salama.....	159
1.9	Open & public spaces.....	162
1.9.1	Vegetation cover.....	162
1.9.2	Traffic, people movement and transportation (network system).....	163

2	Section 2-a; Research approach in Al-salama case study and Data collection	164
	2.1.1 <i>Module one</i>	164
	2.1.2 <i>Module two.....</i>	165
	2.1.3 <i>Module three</i>	165
	2.1.4 <i>Module four</i>	165
3	Section 2-b; Data Collection Process	167
3.1	<i>Module One, the community mapping process & basic community information</i>	167
	3.1.1 <i>Community mapping of Al-Salma after the re-planning process.....</i>	167
	3.1.2 <i>Community in Al-salama before the re-planning process</i>	173
3.2	<i>Module Two Projects Spectrum and community participation.....</i>	177
	3.2.1 <i>Community participation in development projects in Al-salama before the Re-P.P</i>	178
	3.2.2 <i>Community development Projects</i>	181
	3.2.3 <i>Community participation in development projects in Al-salama after the Re-P.P</i>	185
	3.2.4 <i>Community development projects.....</i>	185
	3.2.5 <i>Service delivery projects</i>	187
3.3	<i>Module Three, the Participatory Rapid Appraisal PRA workshops</i>	189
	3.3.1 <i>Stakeholders Involved and their relationship</i>	189
	3.3.2 <i>Stage of participation</i>	189
	3.3.3 <i>Role in participation:.....</i>	190
	3.3.4 <i>Method of participation:.....</i>	190
	3.3.5 <i>The PRA Workshops results and findings.....</i>	191
3.4	<i>Module Four; The questionnaire results; Data Triangulation and Questionnaires Results</i>	206

CHAPTER 6; Benchmarking Our Case Studies, The Application Of Our Five Elements' Framework (Case studies Analysis)

1	The Five Framework Elements	209
	1.1 <i>The communication factor</i>	210
	1.2 <i>The spectrum of stakeholders and projects factor</i>	213
	1.3 <i>The capacities and resources of participants factor</i>	214
	1.4 <i>The level of control factor</i>	216
	1.5 <i>The factor of participation culture</i>	217
2	Summary of the benchmarking process	221
3	Concluding remarks	221

CHAPTER 7; CONCLUSIONS

1	The five elements evaluation framework	225
2	The case studies.....	226
3	The patterns/typologies of community participation observed in this reserach	227
4	Nafeer ideology	230
5	Testifying our research objectives and hypothesis	233
6	Contributions of this research, recommendations for further research and research limitations	234
6.1	<i>Research contribution</i>	<i>234</i>
6.2	<i>Research recommendations</i>	<i>235</i>
6.3	<i>Research limitations.....</i>	<i>237</i>
6.4	<i>Future development and recommendations for further research</i>	<i>238</i>

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter one

Figure 1 the Physical Growth of the Capital region from 1898 to 1994. Note the fast changes observed after the year 1970 Source: compiled by author from different sources	3
Figure 2 Components of the Village Organization Program (VOP) Source Bannaga, 2000; Scale unspecified. North Direction is up-ward	4
Figure 3 Non-participation Problem Cycle	5
Figure 4 Villages that will be incorporated as part of Khartoum New Structure Plan 2008-2033.....	7
Figure 5 Research and thesis conceptual structure.....	14
Figure 6 Research design and general framework	16
Figure 7 Location of the six case studies in the capital region of Sudan; the cases selected for this dissertation are marked with Red.....	21

Chapter Two

Figure 8 Political map of Sudan as of 2012, Source; United Nations, Department of field Support	25
Figure 9 Relationship between different government institutions and planning organizations at different government levels. Source: Developed by Author.....	33
Figure 10 the sphere of legislative planning in Sudan since pre-colonial era	43
Figure 11 the scope of community participation in Sudanese planning mandates (1986-2000).....	48
Figure 12 Framework of how C.P is mandated in the Sudanese planning mandates, the re-planning arrangement on top (1.a and 1.b) and planning arrangement at the bottom.	51
Figure 13 Previous Experience in Community participation in planning	55
Figure 14 Area of planning in which community participation was achieved	55
Figure 15 Correlation between participants' age and application of community participation in practice	56
Figure 16 Planning stages of which most of the participation programs take place	56
Figure 17 the importance of each stakeholder in the planning projects.....	56
Figure 18 tools and techniques of participation used.....	57
Figure 19 Level of community demands integration into the plans.....	57

Figure 20 level of planners' satisfaction related to level of coordination exhibited	57
Figure 21 preferred stage of involvement as understood by planners	58
Figure 22 photos of some of Nafeer practices in Sudan. The left photo is courtesy of Dr. M. A. Zakaria , the one in the right is courtesy of Dr. O. Elkheir.....	63
Figure 23 some photos of Korean village communities during SMU projects; Source: (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003)	69

Chapter Three

Figure 24 ladder of citizen's participation. Source; (Arnstein, 1969).....	82
Figure 25 Nafeer benchmark against Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation	83
Figure 26 A ladder of community participation for underdeveloped countries as seen in (Choguill, 1996)	85
Figure 27 The spectrum of evaluation provided by different literature studied.	98
Figure 28 Breakdown of each literature category on the development of participation evaluation agenda	99
Figure 29 breakdown of each literature category on the development of participation evaluation agenda	100
Figure 30 The six elements of evaluation based on literature studied	102
Figure 31 The five-element evaluation framework as composed from literature and theories studied	103

Chapter Four

Figure 32 location of Al-shigla case study and its surroundings	106
Figure 33 some of the major socioeconomic and policy changes contributed to the change in Al-shigla	106
Figure 34 Some of the major challenges and problems observed in Al-shigla	108
Figure 35 Land use map of Al-shigla as per the field survey in 2009; A1 defined Al-shigla west while A2 identifies Al-shigla Wasat.	109
Figure 36 surface drainage and solid waste challenges in Al-shigla neighbourhood.....	112
Figure 37 Al-shigla land uses before the re-planning process based on community leaders-modified map as in 1991.....	113
Figure 38 House Plan of Al-shigla before the re-planning process (North is facing down).....	114
Figure 39 Research approach in Al-shigla case study and the different research modules	116
Figure 40 Community mapping of Al-shigla after the Re-P.P (original map obtained from MPPU)	121
Figure 41 Community mapping of Al-shigla before the re-planning Process (Source MPPU, partially completed by community leaders)	126
Figure 42 the Scope of the projects selected for evaluation	130
Figure 43 Area coverage of the water supply (to the right) and power supply projects in Al-shigla before the Re-P.P.....	133

Figure 44 procedural arrangements and consensus building procedure for the Water provision project.....	134
Figure 45 the locations of the projects selected for the evaluation before the re-planning process. Based on Al-shigla as in 1991/2.....	137
Figure 46 procedural arrangements for the water supply project after the Re-P.P.....	140
Figure 47 the locations of the major projects selected for the evaluation after the re-planning process, based on Al-shigla as in 2010.....	142
Figure 48 Synthesis of C.P in Al-shigla projects	144
Figure 49 Basic questionnaire Data.....	145
Figure 50 the UBE of community participation in the different projects categories.....	146
Figure 51 the UBE of their level of participation on the projects selected.....	146
Figure 52 community participation matrix in Al-shigla case study.....	148

Chapter Five

Figure 53 The location of Al-salama Case study	152
Figure 54 ethnic affiliation and age groups of the sample selected for this case study	155
Figure 55 the level of education of questionnaire respondents.....	156
Figure 56 the f garbage collection and storm water drainage challenges observed in Al-salama	158
Figure 57 surface and storm water drainage challenges in Al-salama, power supply system is seen at the background	158
Figure 58 Land use map of Al-salama after the Re-P.P as in 2011.....	160
Figure 59 the plan of House No. 147 in Al-salama (Note the male and the female domain (A & B) separation).....	161
Figure 60 General overview of the main open/public square in Al-salama. The four primary schools are seen in the background.....	162
Figure 61 Research approach in Al-salama case study and the different research modules	164
Figure 62 Community mapping in Al-salama After the Re-planning Process (based on 2011 fieldwork).....	169
Figure 63 Community mapping of Al-salama before the re-planning process	174
Figure 64 the scope of projects identified by community leaders as priority projects	177
Figure 65 the general layout of the Shifa-khana building before the re-planning process	182
Figure 66 the general layout of the school building before the re-planning process.....	184
Figure 67 General view of the schools complex (Top), bottom left and bottom right is the main entrances of both El-Imam Anas Bin Malik and El-Bara Bin Malik primary Schools.....	185
Figure 68 general photos of the Primary Health care Unit.....	186
Figure 69 results of the two PRA workshops (community development projects)	192

Figure 70 results of the two participatory workshops (service delivery projects)	193
Figure 71 synthesis of the PRA Workshops outcomes	196
Figure 72 synthesis of the PRA Workshops outcomes	197
Figure 73 the coding process of participation activities and relationships	199
Figure 74 the results of the coding process of the main stakeholders as well as their relationship	200
Figure 75 A graphical representation of the two-community participation typologies observed in Al-salama.....	200
Figure 76 a Matrix of community participation in development projects in Al-salama.....	202
Figure 77 the state of basic services in Al-salama before and after the Re-P.P	207
Figure 78 Citizens' participation in different development projects in Al-salama	208

Chapter Six

Figure 79 the community participation matrix in Al-shigla	210
Figure 80 the community participation matrix in Al-Salama	211
Figure 81 level of Municipal Government control over projects and types of arrangements conducted in Al-shigla (Note: symbols and abbreviations are the same as that of figure 14).....	217
Figure 82 level of Community Groups' control over projects and types of arrangements conducted in Al-shigla (Note: symbols and abbreviations are the same as that of figure 14)	217
Figure 83 level of Community Groups' control over projects studied in Al-salama	217
Figure 84 levels of Public Authorities control over projects studied Al-salama	217

Chapter Seven

Figure 85 the structure of the two community participation patterns observed in the Village Organization Process,	229
Figure 86 the three Nafeer typologies as re-defined by this research	231

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter One

Table 1 Results of the Purposive sampling applied for the case study selection.....	23
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Chapter Two

Table 2 administrative structures and planning implementation in Sudan; Source (Suleiman et al., 2008). Please note that Village Organization program (VOP) though mandated at the National/Federal level its application is generally restricted to Khartoum state.	32
Table 3 planning levels and type of arrangements in Sudan	34
Table 4 the general themes of planning mandates in Sudan between 1986-2000	44
Table 5 The application of the three dimensions on planning Mandates/bylaws	49
Table 6 the stages of development of SMU movement in Korea; Source; (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003).....	69
Table 7 a simple comparison among different community participation ideologies/policies adopted in other countries.	74

Chapter three

Table 8 the three categories of literature and theory used to construct our anticipated evaluation framework	81
Table 9 summaries of the how C.P is understood in Traditional C.P theories and Literature	84
Table 10 Aibel's Blueprint and learning Process approaches to participation program evaluation	86
Table 11 Table 4 White's four factors of participation Source: (White, 1996)	88
Table 12 Summary of the how C.P is understood in third-world oriented C.P theories and Literature	90
Table 13 Summary of the how C.P is understood in contemporary C.P theories and Literature.....	96

Chapter Four

Table 14 Population of Al-shigla case study	107
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Table 15 Percentages of Land uses in Al-shigla case study (based on Al-shigla West)	110
Table 16 Type of built spaces in Al-shigla (based on Al-shigla West)	110
Table 17 Community-mapping of Al-shigla after the re-planning process	122
Table 18 Community-mapping of Al-shigla before the re-planning process	127
Table 19 Summary of the power supply and drinking water projects' main projects features	132
Table 20 Summary of basic projects data	141
Table 21 Summary of the C.P changes observed in Al-shigla case study.....	151

Chapter 5

Table 22 types of built spaces in Al-salama.....	161
Table 23 community mapping process in Al-salama after the re-planning process.....	170
Table 24 Community mapping of Al-salama before the re-planning process	175
Table 25 general details of the pre-re-planning process projects	184
Table 26 summary of the projects implemented after the re-planning process	188
Table 27 summaries of changes in the community participation before and after the re-planning process	205

Chapter Six

Table 28 the breakdown of our five elements framework into its 26 sub-components	209
Table 29 the Five Elements Evaluation Framework application on community participation findings in the Case study Areas (highest values are highlighted with grey).	219

Chapter One;

Prologue and Research Overview

This part of research provides a background and states research problems, challenge as well as it is significance. Research hypothesis as well as approach is also explained in this part. The second section of this part expresses research rational and research design.

Prologue and Research Overview

1. Section 1; Research Overview

1.1. Introduction to research

The cultural values of the Sudanese local communities exhibited in rural areas as well as urban villages signifies an interesting, efficient as well as a contextually driven planning approach and support system. These features as observed in different planning, architecture and management levels, include several arrangements that range from land-use development/planning and community development to infrastructure provision and improvement. On the contrary, government initiated planning (legislative planning) practiced within the urban fringes of the capital region of Sudan (Khartoum) emphasizes a very central bureaucratic and less-participatory approach (Ahmad, 1992; Dennis A. Rondinelli, 1981; Hamdan, 1960). Not-to-mention the socio-cultural as well as physical consequences associated (Eltahir, 2005, 2008).

Through formal and informal planning arrangement, the two approaches exhibited above have strong existence in the Sudanese planning tradition. They also tend to spatially occur at different magnitudes, often within a short period of time. While legislative planning has been under focus and attention due to the State power exercised throughout its different arrangements, community-driven planning is less known and hardly studied in the academic literature and researches.

Nonetheless, the process of community participation in the two approaches has not been adequately approached and studied. This was evident in the lack of researches that have tackled this issue at the Sudanese local level. In fact lack of proper evaluation of community participation is not an issue that is observed only in third-world. (Beierle, 1998) had already argued that participation evaluation is less common among researchers worldwide, thus it still lags behind.

The recent importance assigned to the community participation as a planning tool signifies the importance of studying community participation in both approaches (community driven and government initiated). Studying as well as evaluating those approaches is essential step towards improving future practices. Learning from our past experiences is generally the first step to pursue our prosperous-to-be future of planning.

1.2. Background of the problem

In settlement regulation and re-planning, community participation is a key principle (Hamdi & Goethert, 1997). Participation is a rich concept that means different things to different people in different settings. For some, it is a matter of principle; for others, a practice; and for still others, an end in itself. All these interpretations have

created a great ambiguity for a very important issue for most if not all planning institutions worldwide. It is therefore important to understand the meaning of participation/community participation for the fact that this meaning has been misused and abused in many projects claiming to have community participation as a project component.

Community participation in human settlements development and improvement of basic services provision is substantial in Developing World and low-income communities. Participation in general must be viewed against the background of several phenomena. United Nations Centre of Human Settlements (Habitat) has listed three of these phenomena as; the enormous growth of population, the Rapid urban growth, the economic issues and budgetary constrains in developing countries (UNCHS/HABITAT, 1991).The three issues listed above do have roots in the Sudanese urban practice.

For instance, although the capital region (Khartoum state) is one of the 26 states that comprise Sudan, the State area which counts only about six percent of the country area (22,142 square kilometers) contains more than 17.5% of the estimated population of the country. The average population density in Khartoum State is more than twenty times that of Sudan at large, exhibiting a state of high population concentration (Bannaga, 2000). Unprecedented population growth, escalated by persistent regional phenomena including the civil conflicts and drought 1988 floods had aggravated this even further (ibid). The high waves of displaced population from the South and the West of the country contributed to the growth of Khartoum up to seven folds in twenty years period (see Figure 1). As a result, the already poor socio- economic as well as physical infrastructure of Khartoum has been deteriorating.



Figure 1 the Physical Growth of the Capital region from 1898 to 1994. Note the fast changes observed after the year 1970
 Source: compiled by author from different sources

The City thus developed had to deal with the incompatibilities between different land uses (Bannaga, 2000). To cope with these issues, the options available by the local authorities was to incorporate these villages into the urban fabric as well as re-planned illegal settlements emerged.

By 1980s, the growth of squatter settlements as well as villages' expansion was unprecedented. The capital region authorities have to opt for immediate action. Accordingly, in 1985, the Village Organization Department (VOD) was established¹. The department was empowered by the 1985 Urban Planning mandates to tackle the growing challenges resulted from the increasing number of squatters villages around the city (Bannaga, 2000). In 1991, the Organization of Villages in the capital region commenced. By the end of 1996, the total number of villages organized reached fifty in number (ibid).

During the Village Organization Program (VOP), though government resources were limited, Bannaga, 2000 argues that the support from the beneficiaries and the community at large was substantial insuring the progress of the organization process at a reasonable rate.

¹ Village Organization Department was established to cope with the growing sprawl and squatters in around the capital region. Its mandates are referenced to 1986 Spatial Planning and Land disposition Act.

During its first six years VOP managed to regulate more than seventy village as well as re-planning sixteen subdivisions. A total of 190.000 families (this count for at least 1.300.000 people) were generally affected (ibid). This number reports about twenty percent of the capital region at that time. The Minister of Planning during this period argued “ a new villagers' generation is engaged in urban activities. Consequently village economy is gradually changing from rural to urban ” (Ibid).²

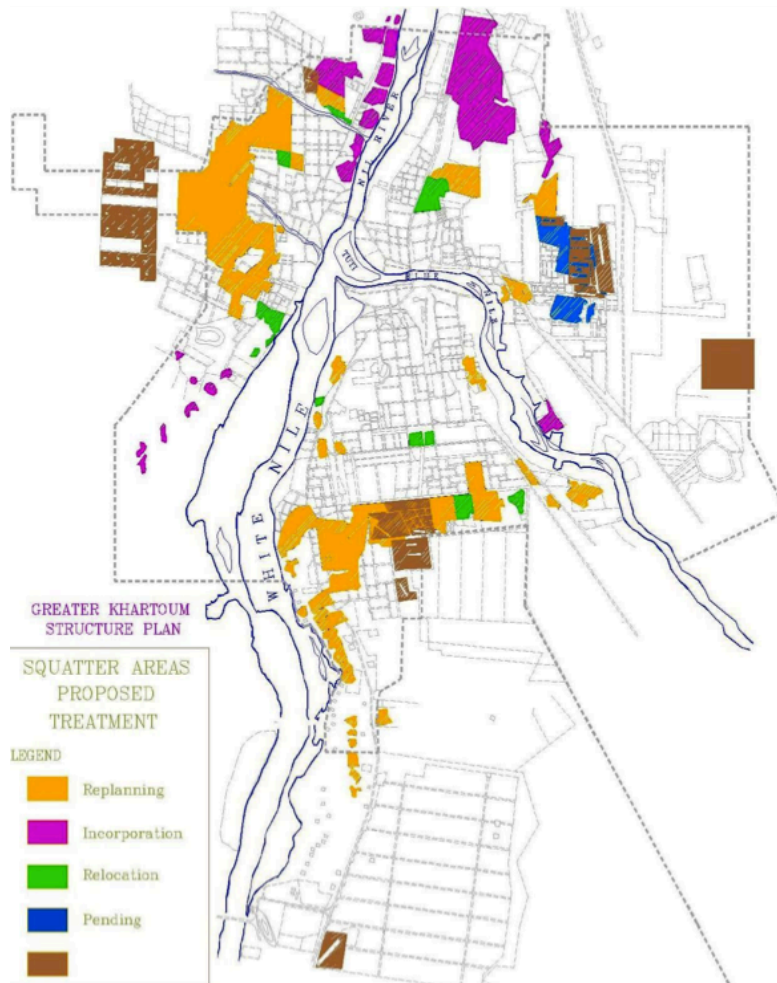


Figure 2 Components of the Village Organization Program (VOP) Source Bannaga, 2000; Scale unspecified. North Direction is up-ward

On account of the massive migration and urban growth in the city of Khartoum (see Figure 2), public sector efforts (through planning experts and local councils) to reduce the gap in basic services provision have not made a significant or large-scale impact. Plans and Projects often been expensive require massive expenses or inadequately designed and planned. Many projects were actually planned but never been implemented. Others

² Interesting readings regarding this issue are the two books authored by the Minister of Planning during the nineties of the past century. The books are named as *Mawa* and *Al-shirouk*.

were planned but have taken tremendously long-time to be implemented during which these plans might need to be updated. Even others have created major conflicts and problems rather than solving them. This practice/approach resulted in meager benefits are reached at enormous financial, social and cultural cost. Those projects have rarely satisfied and provided communities with the standard-level of basic services they wished. Recent literature argues that, this problem, which is further illustrated in Figure 3, can be tackled through legitimate community participation(Fisher, 2001; Judith Innes & Booher, 2000).

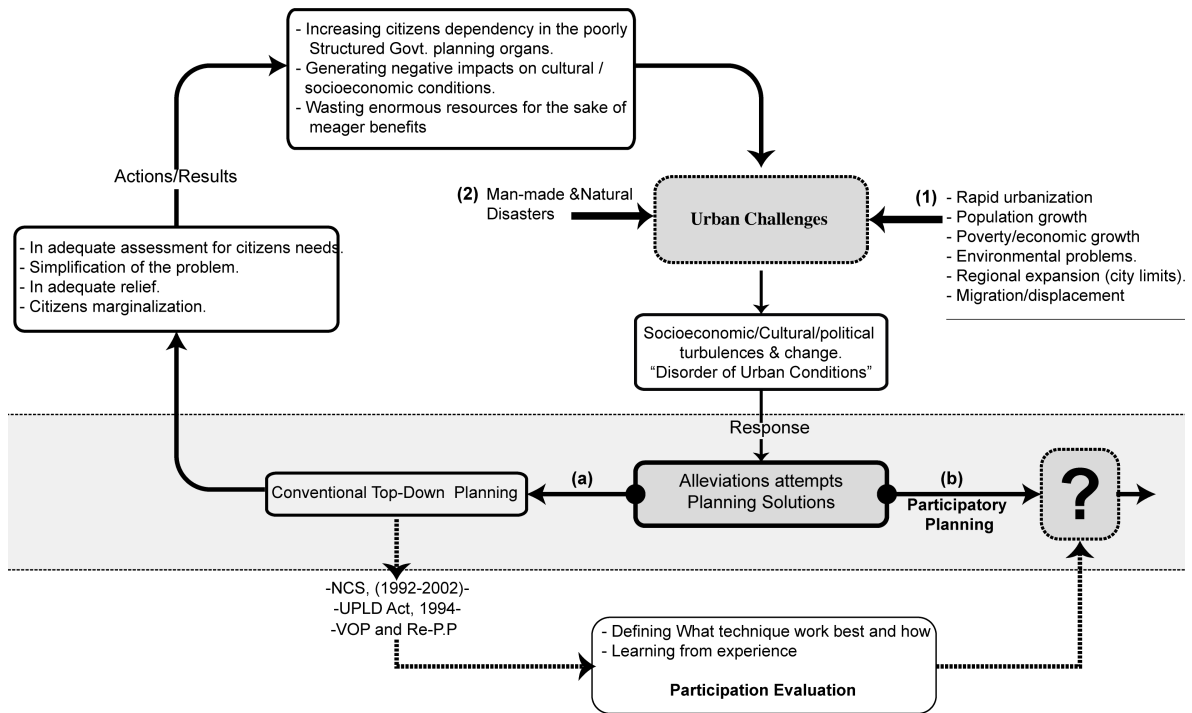


Figure 3 Non-participation Problem Cycle

Although public authorities believe that the Village Organization Program process was successful as well as participatory (see (Bannaga, 1996, 2000). Research shows that various VOPs resulted in disastrous and negative socio-cultural activities (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a; El-Kheir, 1991; Eltahir, 2005; M. E. Abu Sin, 1984). In fact, some researchers argued that the Village Organization Program was nothing more than a neat demarcation of the streets (Geoffroy, 2005). While most of the researches mentioned above focused in the re-planning processes within Village Organization Program process, few had stressed on community participation before and after the program.

The poor performance of Village Organization Program (VOP) was manifested in the inability to provide and re-arrange village infrastructure. Communities in many areas in the capital region found themselves responsible of sustaining these services and infrastructure by themselves. Community initiative driven by a traditional form of

community participation known as “Nafeer”³ helped in sustaining those services. This approach gets wide recognition among village and informal settlements communities.

The existence of those two approaches of community participation practiced in relation to urban development, together with the success of “Nafeer-driven projects in re-planning contexts represent an important phenomena that deserve to be studied and evaluated. This is especially important with the approval of Khartoum New Structure Plan KNSP 2008-2033, in which a major program of village incorporation and development is integrated (see Figure 4 and Figure 2).

³ A traditional form of community participation that is observed in most of the Sudanese villages and some urban area. Some time Nafeer is considered as sort of communal labor.

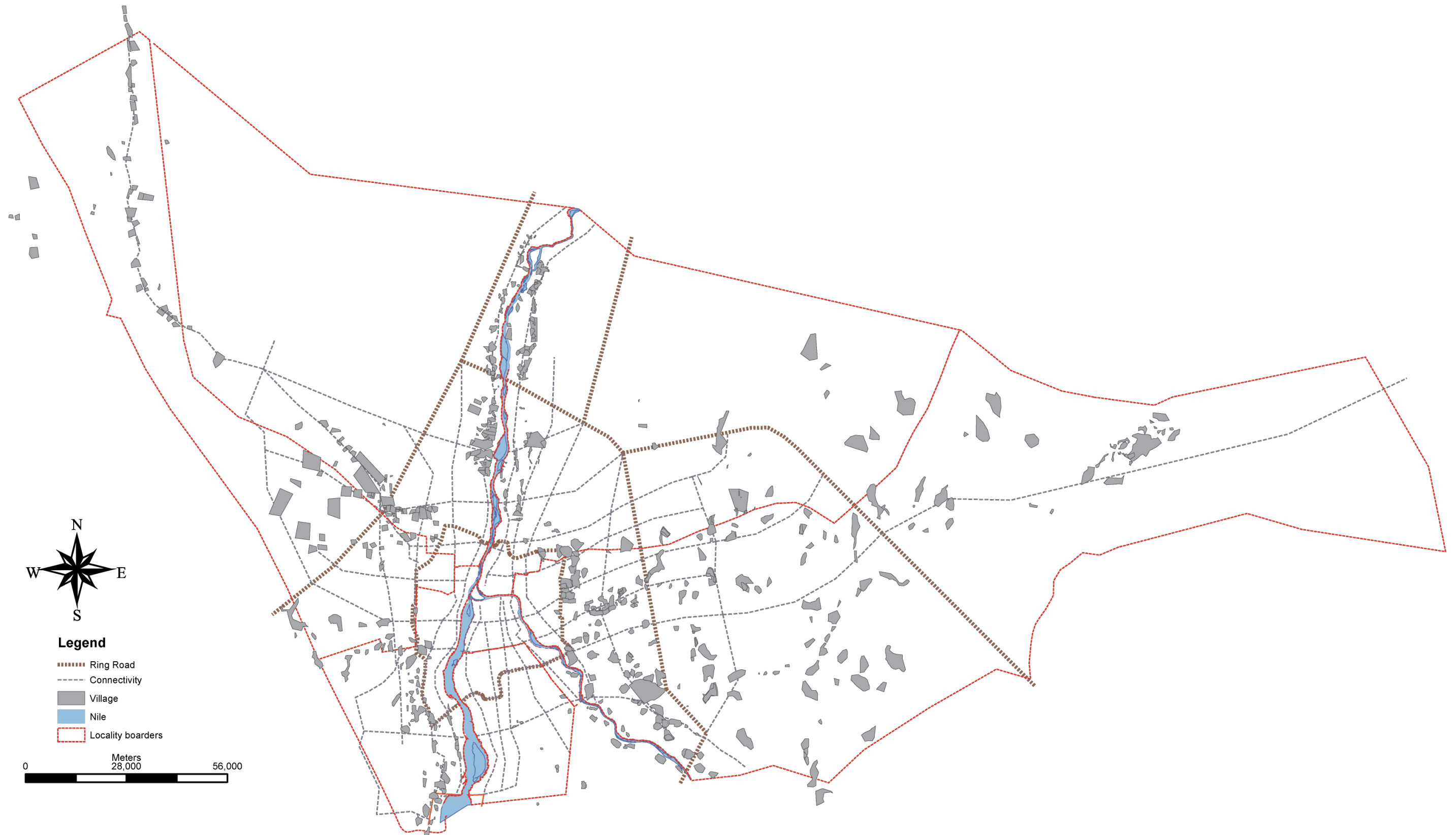


Figure 4 Villages that will be incorporated as part of Khartoum New Structure Plan 2008-2033

1.3. Statement of the problem and opportunity

Village communities around Khartoum have strongly contributed to the development of their settlements. Unfortunately, what is considered by authorities as un-planned is actually community planned (M. E. Abu Sin, 1984).. According to this, the re-planning process of those settlements has contributed to the negative cultural and social consequences in those areas (Eltahir, 2005) resulting in a level of community participation that is restricted to mobilization (Fahal Abureidah, 1987) through a one way information dissemination to citizens (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011b).

Indeed with such large negative socio-cultural consequences in the participation behavior of those communities, the process of community participation evaluation becomes necessary and vital. Against this background, the research problem in general terms is a question of how to improve the process of community participation that shapes both urban village as well as their infrastructure. The specific term of the problem addressed in this research is described in three arrangements as follows;

- a. Having created significant changes in the villages surrounding Khartoum, the “ the Village Organization Program ” has affected settlements structure, people’s culture and most importantly community participation behavior. The participatory processes availed before and after the Village Organization Process “re-planning process” is necessary to be evaluated to improve future practice. This is especially valid after the approval of the New Khartoum Structure Plan 2008-2033, by which not less than 280 villages are going to be regulated “ re-planned “and organized (see Figure 4).
- b. Determining “what community participation technique work best and how” in specific conditions emphasize the importance of adopting certain community participation typology that fits and sync nicely with local communities culture and prevailing conditions. At this point community participation evaluation comes practical and worthwhile.

1.4. Aims an objectives of this research

The main questions raised by this dissertation are;

- a. ***“Whether citizens’-initiated and “traditional” forms of community participation practiced before Villages Organization Program and government-initiated planning are effective and sustainably efficient.”***

This question directly leads to the second enquiry raised by this research, which is based on

- b. ***“Does Nafeer and traditional forms of community participation represent efficient gap-filler of the C.P shortcomings arises from the legislative planning approaches in VOP?”... Can the opposite of this question be true?***

This research addresses these questions through both qualitative as well as quantitative approach (see research design in section two of this chapter).

The aim of the study is to contribute to the understanding of pros and cons of community participation practiced before and after the VOP and informal settlements treatment, this includes both traditional concept of community participation practiced generally before settlement integration or re-planning and the legislative planning.

The objectives of this research, which are set to help answering the previous questions, are of five-folds:

1. To explore the concept of the community participation with reference to the existing local planning tradition through documenting some of these activities.
2. To emphasis on the importance of the traditional community participation on the development of the urban villages in the capital region. This implies to emphasize on the importance of a traditional form of Sudanese community participation named as “Nafeer”.
3. To develop a set of criteria and measures “a conceptual framework” necessary to conduct reliable evaluation of community participation in development of basic infrastructure in low-income communities.
4. To develop a research approach that allows for applying criteria mentioned above to evaluate both the traditional Nafeer-driven and the legislative government-initiated forms of community participation in “a re-planned area and villages in the Sudanese capital region.
5. To identify and understand the Pros and Cons of each type of the two community participation approaches mentioned above.

1.5. Research hypothesis

In this dissertation, three hypotheses are tested against the two case studies selected to contribute to this research. Our three hypotheses, which are drawn from our research questions, are:

1. In villages’ basic infrastructure delivery, the current often called “modern” legislative planning system doesn’t fit the purpose of genuine participatory approach; this system is incapable to tackle community urgent planning issues.
2. The quality/quantity of community participation practiced prior to the re-planning/village incorporation process is higher than that conceived after the same process.

3. Legislative planning as well as community-driven (Nafeer-driven) if combined can produce an authentic quality of community participation for low-income communities.

The hypotheses raised here are valid under certain assumptions related to the subject of this dissertation. These assumptions are necessary to defined limits and boundaries of our evaluation. These assumptions include

- The term “Non-legislative” Nafeer-driven/Community-driven as used here should be understood as a “community-Based” participation rather than planning that doesn’t respond to planning legislations and guidance ⁴.
- This hypothesis is based on looking at the non-legislative planning as a complementary approach that could contribute to the maturity of the legislative planning rather than a replacement of the latter arrangements.
- Community participation process is not and ends by itself, it is rather a series of inputs that evolve over time.

1.6. Research strategy

According to the research objectives stated above, we opt to adopt a research strategy that can satisfy those objectives. As a result, our strategy is based on

- a. A theoretical exploration of the C.P as a concept as well as an evaluation approaches. This step is believed to provide a contextual understanding of the basic knowledge of C.P in Sudan as well as worldwide. This step will also assist in developing our contextually driven evaluation framework.
- b. A case study approach by which our research hypotheses above are testified and benchmarked.

1.7. Significance of this research

In contrast to the common understanding of community participation notion, which is generally characterized as extensively studied and researched (Beierle, 1988; Beierle & Cayford, 2002; Caroline & Moser, 1989 and Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a), many researchers have noted that; community participation “evaluation” has not been covered efficiently (Laurian & Shaw, 2008; Beierle, 1998). As a matter of fact community participation evaluation is still very new research theme and has slightly been touched (Beierle, 1998). In the same regard, literature on community participation in Sudan though very limited, it generally focus on legislative and state-driven community participation

⁴ The non-legislative planning does have a customary legislations and laws.

On the other hand, albeit traditional planning is highly observed in rural and sub-urban Sudan, community participation is generally touched within the mainstream perspective i.e. urban community participation practices as well as participation in government-initiated projects. We believe that this research provide an off-stream point of view by focusing on issues that are barley touched. According to the above-mentioned statements, the general rationale of this research is to;

- a. Develop a research that addresses problems that the current community participation literature does not adequately address.
- b. The current research will add to the scares knowledge available on community participation evaluation worldwide, with specific emphasis to third world context.
- c. Whilst community participation in village incorporation and service provision in Sudan has been taking place for the last three decade, to date, empirical evidence of its effectiveness and influence on urban conditions and decision-making has remained scant. Furthermore, this research also reports on the results of applying the anticipated evaluation framework (see research objectives) in to two of the re-planning and village organization case studies in the capital region of Sudan. Results may also be of interest for other developing countries with comparable contexts, including e.g. South Sudan, Chad and Ethiopia.
- d. The sort of research exhibited by this dissertation is also quite rare in the field of academic research in Sudan. In fact the field of community participation evaluation (C.P.E) in legislative planning in Sudan is a topic that has hardly been touched or studied, this field of research is very essential to develop guidance to the next round of planning i.e. the Village Incorporation Program availed by Khartoum New Structure Plan (2008-2033). To our knowledge, this theme has never been addressed at the context of this study (Sudan).

1.8. Expected contributions of this research

There have been several attempts to develop evaluation frameworks of C.P such as the work of Frame, Gundun and Day (2004), (Conley & Moote, 2003), and (J. Innes & Booher, 1999). The contribution of the above mentioned work has been described as "*largely theoretical and have resulted in the absence of rich analytical evaluations of actual examples...*" (Bereielri, 2000). A part from that, most of those attempt i.e. Inness and day focused completely in the evaluation of C.P within the theme of the Communicative Planning Theory. Thus the contextual as well as the theoretical differences suggest the in-applicability of their approaches in developing world where literacy, income level, ethnicity and governance places several challenges. At this point developing a locally inspired evaluation framework comes handy and practical. Such framework has never been developed within similar contexts in C.P practice in Sudan.

In general, there are very few, yet limited evaluation has taken place in C.P in Sudan. Accordingly, the case studies analyzed in this research provide a depth of information of the opportunities and limitations presented by the recent and current C.P practices in the country. Those shortcomings/ findings are the most crucial step in building a C.P model to be used in the Village incorporation process in Khartoum.

Last not least, the importance of the Community Participation Evaluation as conducted in this study is that it facilitates effectiveness and problem-solving measurement to be undertaken by respective authorities and stakeholders. It also facilitates systematic way of learning from experience. Plan evaluation is largely and growingly is becoming understood as essential part of the plan development.

We understand that the third world metropolis is regarded as *“the engine which will pull the rest of the country into the twenty-first century”* (UNCHS/HABITAT, 1991) . According to this notion, third world cities should learn from its past to peruse its foreseen future. In this regard, to insure that history will not repeat itself, and that the Village Incorporation process related to the implementation of KNSP 2008-2033 will not results in the same meager benefits at enormous costs seen at its predecessor (The Village Organization Program of 1985 (see Figure 2)). This dissertation, which includes evaluation of the previous community participation approaches, comes handy and practical.

1.9. The structure of the study

This dissertation can be seen to comprise seven parts. Part one is a general view of this study and its reasoning and structure. Part two of this study provides general contextual background information about Sudan and planning practice in Sudan as well. Community participation tradition in Sudan is also covered in this part. Part three is in depth study and synthesis of community participation evaluation methodologies. This part concludes by suggesting a five elements evaluation framework. Part four and five are multi-level investigation through case study. Part six includes further analysis related to the application of our five elements framework. And chapter seven illustrates our conclusions and recommendations.

Part one provides a background and states research problems, challenge as well as it is significance. Research hypothesis as well as approach is also explained in this part. The second section of part one expresses research rational and research design.

Part two of this research generally exhibits background information of Sudan, planning structure and framework in Sudan and most importantly how community participation understood within the planning tradition (planning bylaws and planners perception). This part also illustrated how community participation literature in Sudan

interprets the concept of community participation. The process of community participation in Sudan from both legislative and community-driven point of view is generally explained here.

Part three of this research signifies challenges observed while conducting community participation evaluation. This part also draws a context oriented evaluation framework of community participation by which participation activities will be benchmarked against.

Part four and five comprise the two case studies selected for the evaluation. Each section exhibits specific case study research approach as well as empirical findings related to that specific case study.

Part six provides benchmark of our findings in the two case studies against our evaluation framework developed in chapter three. Thus this chapter includes further analysis related to the two case studies selected.

The last part is a summary of the research findings. This part summarizes conclusions of the two case studies, the general research conclusions as well as further recommendations for future research.

The arrangements provided in this thesis are structured to transit this dissertation from an overall picture to a detailed view. This was maintained through narrowing the scope of our research from general to specific. The conceptual structure of this research and dissertation are shown in Figure 5.

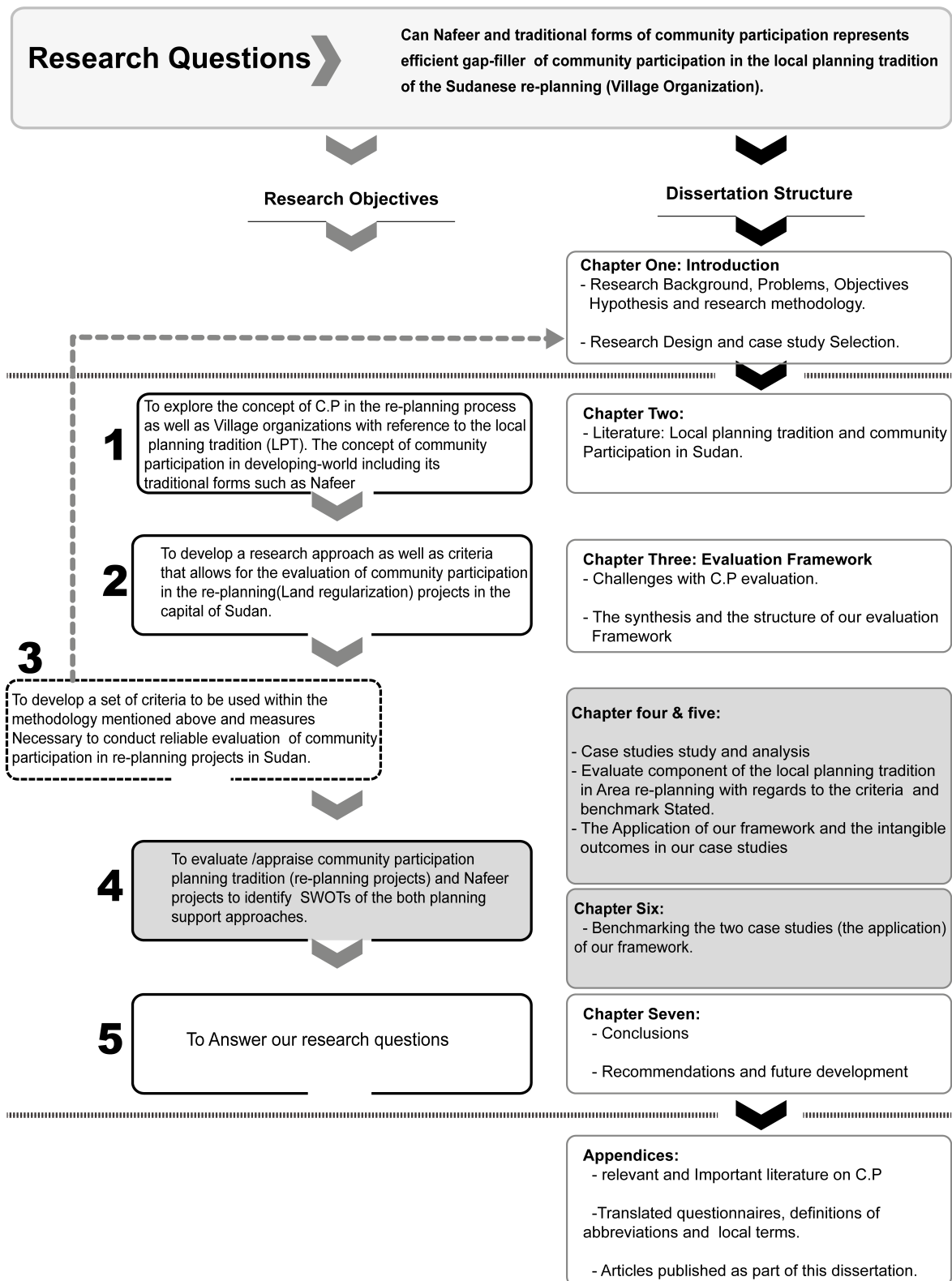


Figure 5 Research and thesis conceptual structure

2. Section 02; Research design and Approach

This research appraises how community participation is conceived before and after the re-planning process conducted as part of the Village Organization Program in 1980s and 1990s in the capital region of Sudan. Although this research has used several (blended) research techniques, yet our main approach exhibits “multiple case study” typology. The advantage of this research typology is it allows observing, analyzing and evaluating community participation from different perspectives (Robert K. Yin, 2009). This research approach also extends beyond one case study Analysis to study and examines overarching themes through cross-case analysis identified by Maxwell, 2005 and Yin, 1994.

The evaluation exercised in this dissertation though will focus on the procedural aspects of community participation practiced both before and after the re-planning process it extends the analysis to both the legal aspects (planning laws) as well as the contextual aspects of community participation. The three elements mentioned above (procedural, legal and contextual) will be benchmark against 1) Contextually-sensitive evaluation framework; 2) Intangible outcomes seen through our observations in the case studies. The latter evaluation benchmark is essential as the former depends strongly on systematic analysis of participation procedure and behavior.

According to our research design the major contribution and originality of this research will come from the context-dependent evaluation framework developed as part of this research (see Chapter three) as well as the methodology of applying it. This framework will thus be used to measure the quality and quantity of the community participation in legislative planning as well as the traditional Nafeer driven community participation.

In this regard, applying our anticipated evaluation framework on the data collected from the case studies is believe to reveals the major pros and cons of each one the planning approaches in the study areas. As a result, what we can name as “Principles” to improve community participation practices can be obtained. Further details of the research design and flow chart are shown and explained in Figure 6.

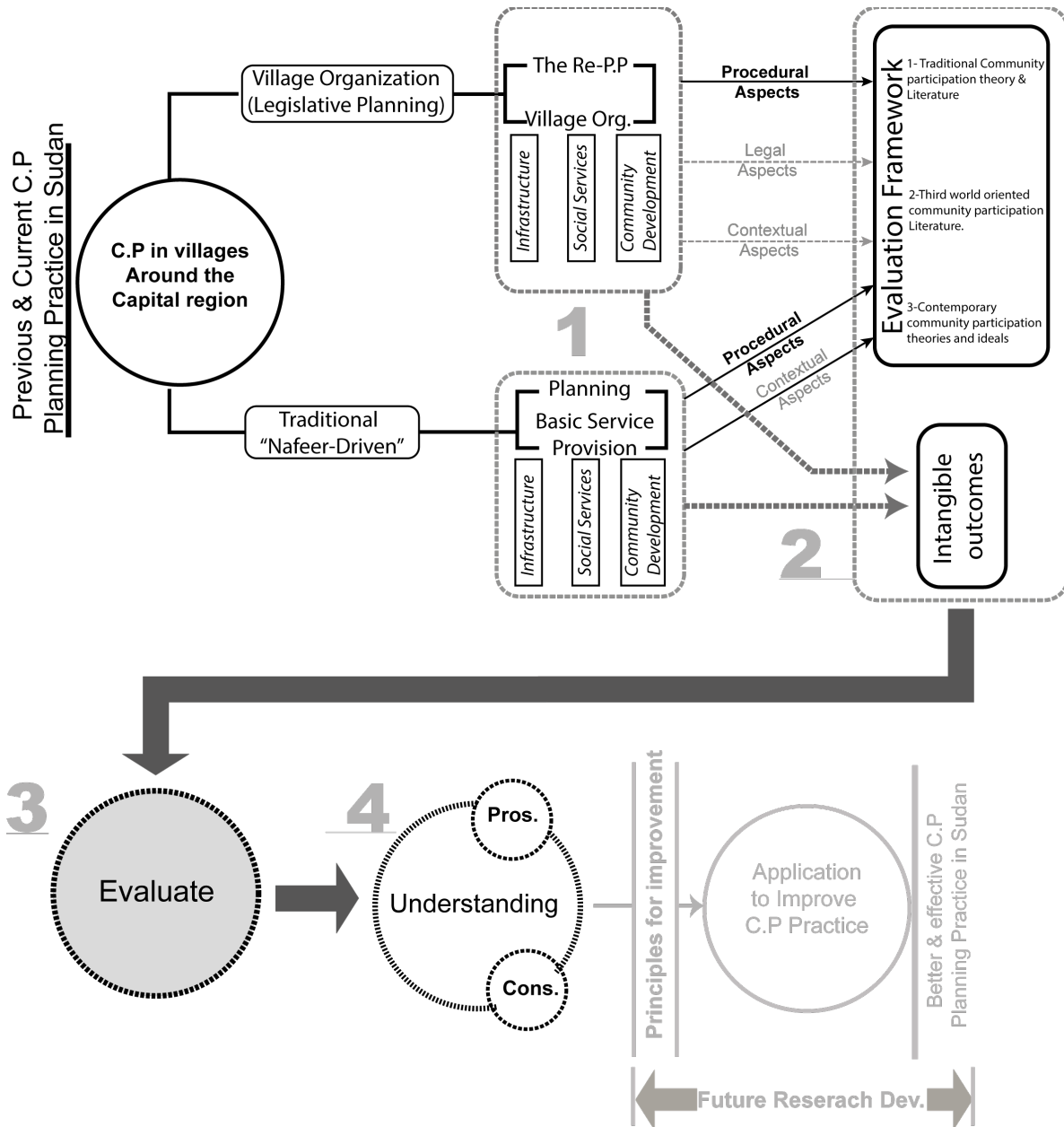


Figure 6 Research design and general framework

2.1. The rationale beyond the use of case study methodology;

Despite that the common understanding of community participation is extensively studied and researched (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a; Beierle, 1998; Beierle & Jerry Cayford, 2002; Moser, 1989), Flyvbjerg, argues that general researches in social science has not succeeded in producing general, context-independent knowledge (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Flyvbjerg continued further by stressing "... the case study is especially well suited to produce this knowledge". According to the notion addressed above, the use of case study approach in this research is an attempt to cover some gaps that social science has failed to fill. In other words, the case study approach as used in this research deemed suitable to provide the context-independent knowledge noted by B. Flyvbjerg, 2006.

Community participation literatures in Sudan is generally limited and mostly unpublished.⁵ The outcome placed by this reality is that it is generally difficult to base research in Sudan as well as many developing countries based on document study and literature. This signify that; case study research approach in this specific context, is the most appropriate to answer the research questions identified in the former chapter. In addition, we understand that, within participation evaluation framework, case studies were generally looked at as “... *will be better suited than surveys to answer specific questions about the evaluation of participation*” (Laurian & Shaw, 2008). Laurian & Shaw justified this expression through the three reasons below

1. Participatory process are driven by different sets of goals (which can also be different from both planners’ and participants perspective);
2. Only case studies can provide in-depth information about how evaluations of participation unfold, whether they shape participation as it occurs or is used as a post-hoc assessment, and whether evaluation results are disseminated to the public
3. Case studies can also show whether and how evaluation results are used to identify the causes of successes or failures, improve practice, or yield other benefits, such as increasing planners’ commitment to participation or building institutional capacity (Laurian & Shaw, 2008).

The discussion above signifies that our choice of the case study as a research approach was grounded into three specific reasons, these reasons are

1. Generating a context independent knowledge rather than generalizing the results obtained drives our approach in this research.
2. Case study approach is the most suitable to answer our research questions stated earlier.
3. Case study approach is deemed more successful in evaluating participatory approach than other research methodologies (Laurian & Shaw, 2008).

2.2. The boundaries of the case study

A major epistemological issue to be addressed by the case study is where to draw research and case study boundaries i.e. what to include and what to exclude (Sheila, S and Harry, T, 2005). The boundaries mentioned are necessary to guide research as well as to provide researcher with control tool to adjust his investigations.

⁵ The author experimented in September 2008 to locate literature related to community participation from a Sudanese perspective. The experiment was carried out through the search engines and citation indexing service such as Science Direct. A combination of words such as community participation (+) Sudan and community involvement (+) Sudan were used. The results obtained were only five published articles related to community participation in the Sudanese case.

Accordingly, we grounded this research upon four levels of boundaries that are set at the beginning of the research design process.

1. The first boundary is set by the case study approach itself. In order for a case to qualify, it has to be part of either the Village Organization Program or Informal Settlements Treatment program.
2. The second boundary of this research (which is very much linked to the first one) is the geographical boundary. Our research geographical boundary is within the geographical settings of the capital region of Sudan. This was essential not only to limit and narrow down the scope of research outreach but also due to that, cases within the capital region are generally characterized by being conducted with more government attention and finance as well as relatively trained staff.⁶ The levels of complexity as well as challenges are thus expected to be higher. The capital region of Sudan is also where the effect of the squatter settlements and village incorporation process were largely (not entirely) implemented.
3. The third and foremost research boundary is defined by the spectrum of projects and project-types selected as the subject of evaluation. Three main groups resulted from this boundary including
 - The service delivery projects (drinking water and power supply (Electricity)).
 - Social and community services (*Mosques / Khalwas*).
 - Area improvement projects (tree plantation, public cleaning, etc.)
4. The fourth and perhaps the most abstract boundary we place here is; the subject matter of community participation that will be evaluated. Our anticipated evaluation framework sets boundaries and limits to guide Data collection process. Only data related to answer our research questions are thus collected. Data analysis as well will generally (not entirely) be based on the fourth boundary.

2.3. Research techniques

Based on the challenges availed by the contextual limitations of doing research in developing countries “i.e. poor access to published data, low-level of education and awareness, bureaucracy and budgetary constrains”, we employed several research techniques to enable us to conduct the research as well as to measure the quality of research data collected. In general, special emphasis was assigned to the qualitative information of the case study areas, supported “when necessary” by the quantitative approach.⁷ Techniques used ranges from

⁶ Since 1994, Spatial planning and Land disposition act, Sudan exhibited a relatively decentralized planning system. Nonetheless, the capital region still is a place where major projects are exhibited.

⁷ This was necessary to collect some basic demographic data that are not available at government offices.

interviews, observations and document analysis.⁸ Workshops were also used both as a research data collection as well as analysis method in the second case study (Al-salama case study).

To increase the level of data validity in the case studies, this research is deigned to uses a triangulation method. The triangulation or cross-examination approach (see Denzin, 2006 and (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 2000)) allows for looking at phenomenon from a variety of vantage points. In this research, Triangulation is used through adapting two out of it is four types identified by (Denzin, 2006). The two types implemented here are

1. Methodological triangulation, which involves using more than one method to collect data (qualitative as well as quantitative).
2. Data triangulation that involves different persons i.e. getting information from different sources if available to allow for higher data creditability.

2.4. Phases of this research

This research is generally structured in six strongly connected phases. Those phases as are thus explained as follows

- a. The first phase of our research determined the theoretical framework and theoretical/applied scope in which the study was inserted. This stage defined the approach and methodology of analysis and evaluation of the case study mentioned earlier. This phase was mostly achieved through a desk study and telephone interviews. The process includes extensive literature review of community participation evaluation in theory as well as in developing countries. Both published and unpublished work was used at this stage.⁹ By the end of this stage an evaluation framework for evaluating C.P in Sudan was develop. The research design of the first case study was also accomplished and drawn.
- b. The second phase of this research was done in Sudan between October 2009 and March 2010. This includes the collection of qualitative and quantitative data of the first case study (Al-shigla). Activities in this phase included fieldwork, interviews with key stakeholders and questionnaires. A

⁸ The use of document analysis was very minimal due to either that data are outdated, don't exist or simply not documented.

⁹ Many of the literature regarding C.P in Sudan are not appropriately published. Yet, revision of those unpublished data was essential

constant communication with community leaders and planners was maintained to allow for the supply of additional information that was not possible to collect during the case study period.

- c. The third phase includes mostly deskwork with frequent telephone interviews. The main objective of this phase is to benchmark data collected in the second phase upon our evaluation framework developed in chapter three.
- d. Phase four is a natural extension of phase three in which results and lessons learnt from the first case study were applied here. Accordingly, the research methodology for the second case study was slightly modified to overcome some limitations rose from the first case study.
- e. Phase five of this research was conducted between May and August 2011, during which the second case study (Al-salama) was studied and evaluated. Again both qualitative and quantitative data was collected based on interviews, participatory workshops and questionnaires.
- f. The final phase “phase six” was deskwork. Activities in this phase include the analysis of the second case study, the comparison study as well as the final report writing.

2.5. Case study selection and the their significance

To identify cases appropriate for this study, a series of formal and informal interviews and hearing had been carried-out. Planners, policy-makers as well as traditional community leaders (*Irifein, Sheikh and Nuzzar (Singular Nazir)*)¹⁰ who had participated in the Village Organization Program or Squatter Development program were the subject of this investigation. Interviews as well as our research boundaries mentioned earlier narrowed-down the appropriate cases from unknown to six cases (categorized into two groups) as shown in Figure 7.

The first group is the cases that are considered by the public authorities as “informal settlement”, this includes: a) Ishash Fallata; b) Al-shigla; and 3) Al-Hag Youssef

The second category includes villages surrounding the capital region that were part of the Village Organization Program. The most important villages in this category are: a) Al-salama; 2) Soba Sharig 3) and Id-Hussein

¹⁰ For local terms definition please see the appendices of this dissertation.

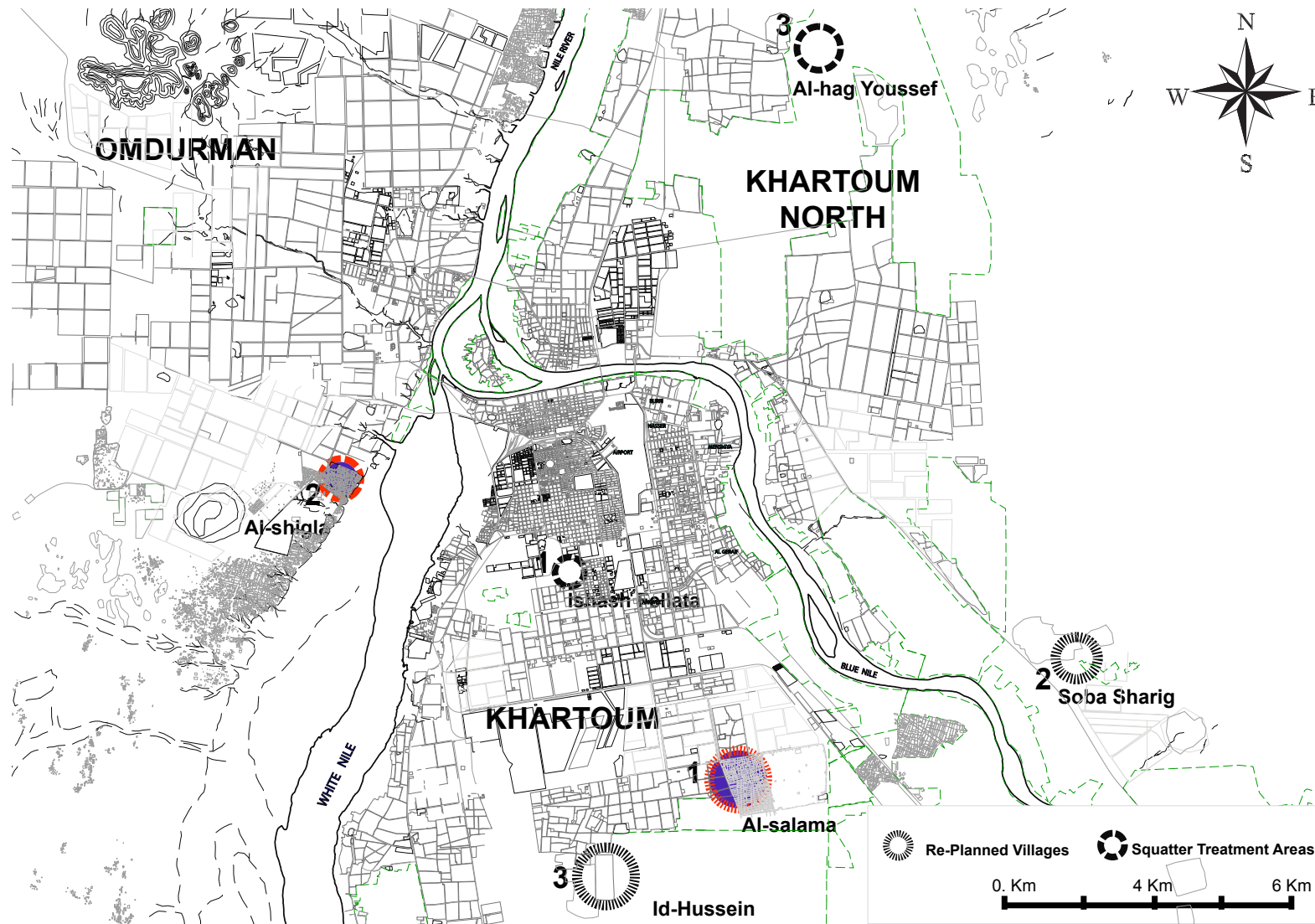


Figure 7 Location of the six case studies in the capital region of Sudan; the cases selected for this dissertation are marked with Red

At this stage (Patton, 1990) 's "purposive sampling" was employed to select two case studies among the six various cases shown in figure 1. A careful consideration of several important criteria necessary for the case study to qualify for the selection was adopted. These criteria are:

- Knowing the limitations assigned with research in developing countries that are related to lack or poor data quality ((Kafeel, 2001), case studies selected should have adequate level of information that can enable research carryout. The level of adequacy as is decided by that data required are either available, or it can be generated through the research itself.
- The case study should also be able to demonstrate how both government and community managed to contribute to service delivery and urban development through certain project approaches to be able to qualify to selection.
- The case study area/settlement should be an old settlement. This will insure that both traditional (Nafeer-driven) and "modern" participation do exist.
- The case study should have gone through either the Village Organization Process or the Re-planning process exercised by planning institutions.
- The case study selected should have gone through basic infrastructure provision program/projects i.e. power supply (electricity), clean water supply, social services, etc. this program/project is either implemented by communities or pubic authorities.
- To allow for variation measurements, each case study should have unique, specific character that can differentiate it from the others.

In general In general the cases selected for this research are the ones that we believe can reflect the above characteristics as well as problems and issues underlined by the framework of evaluation. Thus, according to the above criteria (see Table 1), the case studies that can highly fulfill these requirements from the two categories are Al-shigla (from the informal settlement category) and Al-salama (from the Village incorporation category).

Table 1 Results of the Purposive sampling applied for the case study selection

Sampling Criterion	Ishash Fallata	Al-shigla	Al-Hag Youssef	Al-salama	Soba Sharig	Id-Hussein
Level of information available	3	1	3	2	1	1
Diversity of community participation	2	3	1	3	2	2
The area is an old settlement	1	3	1	2	3	2
The area has gone through a re-planning or village organization	1*	3	3	3	3	3
Services were setup by both government and community	1	3	2	3	2	1
Uniqueness of the case study	1	3		2	1	1
Total	9	16	9	15	12	11

Notes:

- No benchmark is used for giving these degrees as they are completely given based on author's judgment from the interviews.

The purposive sampling conducted as shown in table two illustrates that Al-shigla as well as Al-salama villages does have the higher score points among the other four villages. Thus our further investigations will be focused on those two villages.

2.5.1. Location of the two case studies

The two case studies selected (Al-shigla and Al-salama) are located within the limits of the capital region of Sudan "Khartoum. While Al-shigla is located South of Omdurman, extending west of the White Nile. Al-salama is located about six Km to the west of the Blue Nile (see Figure 7). Both areas are primarily agriculture-developed villages.

2.6. Data/evidence collection approaches

As stated earlier, we used a blended methodology to approach the two case studies. However, we adopted slightly modified methodological approach in Al-salama case study¹¹. Specific case study research designs as well as methodologies applied are explained in Chapter four and Chapter five of this dissertation.

2.6.1. Strategies for Data/ evidences analysis

A major epistemological challenge we expected to face is this research is the vague and unclear definition assigned to community participation (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011c; Beierle, 1998; Watanabe, 2007). This implies that we will need to define, and use evaluation criteria and a benchmark to measure the quality and level of success of undefined, yet, unclear actions. Therefore, we have adopted two correlated, yet different analysis techniques,

¹¹ This was necessary to overcome some of the research limitations observed in Al-shigla.

- a. Tangible/Theoretically-based evaluation. This evaluation/analysis is based on our evaluation framework developed in Chapter three. This framework is an expanded version of the evaluation framework developed by Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011.
- b. Intangible/observed findings in the case study areas. Based on observations and issues that can be best identified through the observations in the case study area, but cannot fit into our framework. This part is more concerned with physical-area related issues.

Chapter Two;

Contextual overview of Planning and C.P in Sudan

The following chapter describes the general characteristics of the Sudanese planning practice. A general overview of the Sudanese political structure, society, economy as well as cultural diversity was reported. The purpose of this part is to familiarize the readers with the contexts of the study as well as to base the study on solid background information.

An analysis of the structure and procedure of planning and community participation is also provided. This chapter also includes a literature review of the process of community participation from a Sudanese perspective. The chapter also looks at how community participation is mandated and thus practiced within the legislative planning framework in Sudan.

The traditional concept of the Sudanese community participation (named as Nafeer) was also defined, described and studied.

Contextual Overview of Planning and C.P in Sudan

1 Section one; Sudan; a general introduction

The Republic of the Sudan is the largest country in Africa and ranked as the tenth worldwide. The country expands some 2,505,813 square kilometers. This area represents more than 8% of Africa and about 2% of the world's total area. Land represents about 95% of the total area 2.376 million sq km; the rest (5% with 129.813 million sq km) is water. The country lies between latitudes 3° and 22°N and longitudes 21° and 39°E. Nine countries border Sudan; Egypt in the North, the Red Sea, Eritrea and Ethiopia in the East, Uganda, Kenya and the Democratic Republic of the Congo in the South and the Central African Republic, Chad and Libya in the West. The Sudan is a republic with a federal system of government. There are multiple levels of administration, with 26 States (*Wilayat*) subdivided into approximately 120 localities (*Mahaliyaat*). The northern states cover most of the Sudan and include most of the urban centers. Khartoum is the capital and largest city, located in the Northern half of the country at the junction of the Blue and the White Nile Rivers (Figure 8)



Figure 8 Political map of Sudan as of 2012, Source; United Nations, Department of field Support

Sudan is situated in a tropical region; accordingly its climate ranges from equatorial in the Southern part, Savanna in the middle to Continental in the Northern part. The Eastern border is distinguished by Mediterranean

climate with rainy winter. Temperatures do not vary greatly with the season at any location; the most significant climatic variables are rainfall and the length of the dry season.

Sudan has an estimated population of 42 million inhabitants (2009 estimates) with an overall population density of 16.9 people per km². About 45.2% of the population is urban, 44&.8% rural including nomads (United Nations, 2010). The national identity of the Sudan evolves multitude and complex elements including ethnic, religious and linguistic characteristics. The Country is divided on ethnic, religious and ideological grounds into a large number of groups resulting in a wide range of diversification. The population of the Sudan is made up of 19 major ethnic groups and over 597 subgroups speaking more than 400 languages and dialects. However, Arabic is the official language as been spoken by about 60% of the population.

Two distinct major cultures dominate the country; Arab and Black African, with hundreds of ethnic and tribal divisions and language groups. Blacks (52%), Arabs (39%) and Beja (2%) are the main ethnical groups forming the Sudanese society; a mix of other different groups represents only 1% of the ethnical structure. Islam (70%) is the predominant religion, particularly in the North, while Christianity (5-10%) and animist traditional religions 20-25%are more prevalent in the South.

Sudan was under a Condominium rule of Britain and Egypt over the period 1899–1956. Before that period, some parts of Sudan were under a Turko-Egyptian (1824–1885). The nation became independent on the first of January 1956.

1.1 Population and Urbanization in the Sudan

A detailed national census has never been carried out for all of Sudan; all population figures must therefore be regarded as broad estimates that are rapidly made obsolete by a swelling population with a growth rate estimated to exceed 2.6 percent (United Nations Environment Programme, 2007) . According to the Sudan's national census in 2008, the total population of the country is calculated at 39.1 million in 2008 with a sex ratio of 1.05 men/women (The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), 2008).

Sudan is expected to continue its rapid population growth with a large percentage (47.1) of its people under sixteen years of age. The population has quadrupled in sixty years where the corresponding estimates for 1950 were put at 9.1 million (United Nations, 2010). Most of the population lives along the river Nile and its tributaries

and the most densely settled area is at the juncture of the White Nile and the Blue Nile. Desert occupies a large area of land, reason why the country is some times described as a longitudinal oasis (Norberg-Schulz, 1984).

Notwithstanding the decreasing rates of growth, the urban population of the Sudan is expected to increase continuously. The urban population of the country, as percentage of total population, increased from 6.8% in 1950 to 40.8% in 2005 and estimated to approach 74% by 2050. The growth rate of urban population was estimated at 4.3% for the period 2005-2010 (United Nations, 2010).

The inhabitants of metropolitan Khartoum, the largest city of the country (including Khartoum, Omdurman and Khartoum North), increased from 0.9 million in 1975 (United Nations, 2010) to 5.2 million in 2008 (The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), 2008) and expected to reach 7.9 million by the year 2025. Estimates put the increment of the city population during 2010-2015 to be as high as 3.2%. The city has been ranked as the 214th, 53rd and 44th among the world's urban agglomerations having one million inhabitants for the years 1975, 2007 and 2025 respectively (United Nations, 2010). The share of the city in the total population in the country increased from 2% in 1950 to 13.5% in 2008 and the city accommodates more than one fourth of the urban population of the country (The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), 2008). The city alone includes around two million displaced persons from the southern war zone as well as western and eastern drought-affected areas. Most of the population of Darfur and Kordofan who were affected by the drought had settled in camps around the capital region.

1.2 Wars and conflicts in Sudan

As been mentioned, the Sudan has two hundreds of ethnic and tribal divisions and language groups, which makes effective collaboration among them a major problem. Conflicts were inevitable results of this wide range of ethnical diversification. Sudan has been in constant conflicts since its independence in 1956. The two most extensive conflicts have been those between the North and South, with the first civil war lasting from 1956 to 1972 and the second civil war from 1983 to 2005. The war in Southern Sudan was the most critical to the Sudanese society socially, economically and politically. Reopening the wounds of war, a conflict broke out in Darfur in 2003 and continues to date. Other conflicts emerged in Eastern Sudan, the Blue Nile and Northern Kordofan. All these conflicts are acknowledged to the marginalization of the populace of these regions by the central government. However, the most critical conflict was the one that took place in the South and the ongoing guerilla conflict in Darfur.

1.3 Urban Impacts of the wars and conflicts

Due to Sudan's costly, 21-year internal conflict, developmental projects were frequently suspended and some projects have started a long time ago without been finished yet. Construction projects suffer from the war as many other developmental projects (i.e. Jonglei canal). Moreover, a great portion of the economy output was devoted towards the military work and the war shifted most of the funds assigned for developmental and planning to the war.

The migration was inevitable due to the war; the government didn't organize migration nor react to it until it was too late. Large urban centers like Khartoum and Port Sudan continue to be heavily populated. This has placed negative impact on the already soaring urban infrastructure. Several sociocultural and economic challenges have also emerged.

1.4 The Sudanese Economy

Sudan belongs to the least developed countries (LDCs) of the world, yet it is unique in terms of available domestic resources. It ranks the 154th out of 169 countries with comparable data in the UNDP's Human Development Index (2010). According to the World Bank (2009)¹ the Sudan comes in the 129th place among the world countries in terms of per capita GDP. The GDP per capita at current prices is estimated at \$1294 per capita, which is higher, by 13 folds than the corresponding estimates for 1960 (\$96). Notwithstanding the challenges facing the economy of the Sudan the country has experienced strong economic growth.

The country lacks adequate infrastructure thus most of the available resources for development remains unexploited. There is no adequate national road grid that connects the country.

¹ World Bank 2009, World Development Indicators database Accessed on April 13, 2011.

1.5 The structure of the Sudanese Planning System

In Sudan, A three-tier planning system existed. This system is in charge of the organization and administration of different physical planning arrangements.

1.5.1 First level: National

The 1994 Physical Planning and Land Disposal Act established National Council for Physical Planning (NCP), which is responsible for physical planning at national level. The Federal Minister of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning (FMESP) chairs this council. The Councils' main duties and responsibilities include the following:

- a. Formulating the national spatial policies and strategies coordinating the activities of the parties involved in physical planning process conducting research on, and studies of physical planning, land use, transportation, town and village infra
- b. Structure and services, in collaboration with the planning authorities at different levels reviewing structure plans adopted by regional (state) authorities prior to the approval by the Federal Cabinet of Ministers (FCM) approval of urban agglomerations and settlement systems and hierarchy for the big national development schemes, or those encroaching different states.
- c. Approval of land conversions in plans adopted by the FCM, excluding conversions of open public spaces monitoring of physical planning activities at state level preparing the schemes of the physical planning laws necessary to implement urban and spatial development policies and strategies managing urban planners training programs (Suleiman et al., 2008).

The membership of the NCP includes all State Ministers responsible for Physical Planning and Public Utilities (SMPPPU), and other members who represent those national ministries whose activities affect physical planning (e.g. Department of Survey and the Ministries of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Finance and Economic Planning and Local Government). It also includes five appointed members who have experience of, and are responsible for authorizing investments, which affects physical plans.

Ultimately the Federal Cabinet of Ministers (FCM) must approve all physical or structure plans prepared by the state authorities for different urban agglomerations in different states. These plans are referred to the MESP, which refers them, in turn, to the MESP for submission to the FCM.

1.5.2 Second level: Regional (States or Wilayat)

The State (regional) Ministry of Physical Planning and Public Utilities (SMPPPU) is the regional body responsible for physical planning at this level.

The State Committee for Physical Planning (SCPP) is responsible for licensing and granting planning permissions at the state level (Wilaya). This committee is constituted by a decree issued by the state (appointed) governor (Wali), acting on the recommendation of the State Minister of Physical Planning and Public Utilities. The appointed members of this committee are representatives of different government related departments and authorities (technocrats), in addition to three other professional physical planning experts (non-technocrats) (Suleiman et al., 2008).

The main duties and responsibilities of the State Planning Committee are:

- a. Preparing the state (Wilaya) policies and strategies for physical planning and housing that should conform with the National Policies and Strategies
- b. Approving planning schemes and development plans for cities, towns and villages of the Wilaya, pending their approval of the state minister of the MPPPU
- c. Approving of detailed plans for vacant or developed areas within the approved development plans approving State housing schemes
- d. Approving development plans for settlements located within big economic development projects approving and monitoring re-planning and urban renewal schemes
- e. Issuing land development permissions and state physical planning guidelines/directives and building codes
- f. Land use conversions and planned areas for both developed or undeveloped sites land classification
- g. Approving of state transportation plans
- h. Issuing appropriate by-laws to conserve historical and heritage buildings and sites formation of planning sub-committees upon the approval of state ministers of MPPPU.

1.5.3 Third level: Local Level (*Mahaliyat*)

According to the Local Government Act of 2003, which provides the establishment of citizens' Peoples' Committees and local elected councils, the planning duties and responsibilities of this level include:

- a. Construction and maintenance of storm water drainage system and drinking water establishment in rural areas
- b. Construction of public rest houses and landscape and recreation areas
- c. Lighting of roads and public spaces
- d. Encouragement of public participation in road construction and paving
- e. Maintenance of internal routes and dirt tracks
- f. Allocation of water and land transportation terminals
- g. Organization of animal collection folds (*Zaraib*) for vermin animals
- h. Organization of low-rise buildings (ground floor only) including granting of building permits
- i. Protection of land from encroachments and squatting (Suleiman et al., 2008)

The three levels mentioned above act at different levels capacities and scales, these differences are explained in Table 2.

Table 2 administrative structures and planning implementation in Sudan; **Source** (Suleiman et al., 2008)). Please note that Village Organization program (VOP) though mandated at the National/Federal level its application is generally restricted to Khartoum state.

Administrative Structure and planning Administration						
	Level	Size	Description	Name	Scale	Description
1	National (Federal)	30.9 Million Inhab. (Estimated)	Ministry of Environment and Physical planning (MEPP) The national council for Physical Planning (NCPPI)	Socio-economic plans. Policy statement. Strategy. Legislations.	Text Diagrams	Long-term policy (10-25 years). Federal laws. Legal Structure. Organizational Structure for physical planning. Building and planning codes. Planning Guidelines.
2	Regional Level (States/Wilayat)	26 states (Wilayat). 5 million Inhab. In Khartoum state (Estimated)	State ministry of Physical Planning and Public Utilities (SMPPU). States Physical Planning Committee (SPPC)	Regional dev. Plans. Structure plans. Housing projects. Urban design projects. Action plans. Infrastructure planning and projects.	Maps. Text statements. Diagrams 1/250.000 1/10.000	New physical development proposals. Urban and rural growth boundaries. City and town planning. Bylaws Building codes Planning ordinances Physical planning Guidelines.
3	Local Level/ Municipalities (Mahaliyat)	(131) Mahaliyat**	State ministry of Physical Planning and Public Utilities branches at the Mahaliyat. Local Physical Planning Committees (LPPC)	Detailed plans Service allocation Subdivision and amalgamation approval.	Maps Diagrams. 1/5000 1/2500	Allocation of social services. Delegated planning power from the SPPC. Allocation of general service buildings such as Mosques, Schools, Health, Police, Stations. Kindergarten, etc.

** This level is activated only at National Capital (Khartoum).

Southern States (10 no.) has different structure since they have large level of self-governance according to the interim constitution and the comprehensive peace agreement.

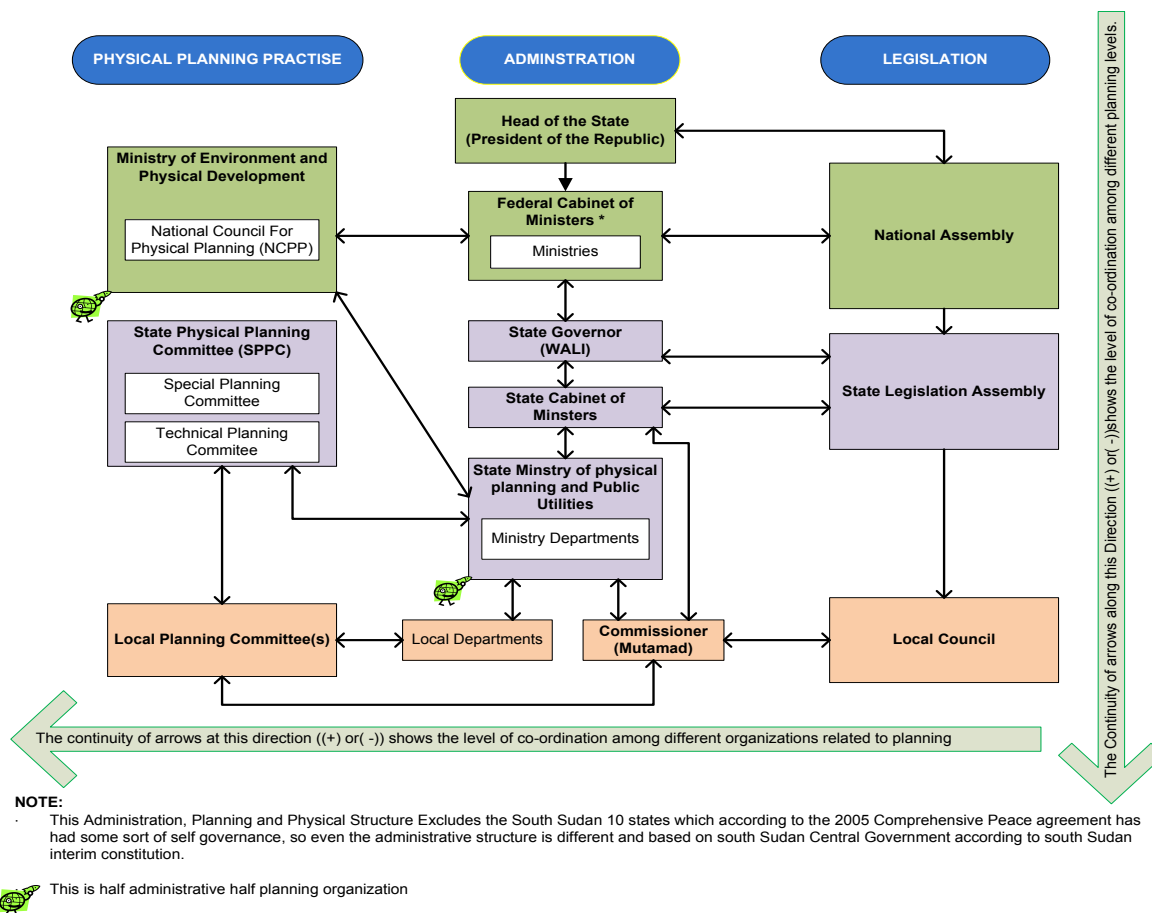


Figure 9 Relationship between different government institutions and planning organizations at different government levels.

Source: Developed by Author

Since 1992 a federal system of government has been adopted in the country ending up a long history of Central government control, the federal system has divided the country into 26 states, 120 provinces and 634 localities, Within the federal system the country is organized in states (*wilayat*; singular *wilaya*), municipalities, localities and People’s Committees (*Lijan Shabiyaat*) and the later is responsible for local development and supports the localities at the lowest administration level, the relationship among different government bodies related to planning and planning organizations in different level can be shown on the diagram below.

The type of arrangements carried out within the Sudanese planning system shown in Table 2 and Table 3 has shown diverse arrangement at different levels of planning and government. While the central Government take most of the planning power, local governments are too weak and lack of staff, training and capacities (Dennis A. Rondinelli, 1981).

Table 3 planning levels and type of arrangements in Sudan

LEVEL	TYPE OF ARRANGEMENT
National Level (Federal government)	Legislations and policy statements. Formulation of National physical development policies, strategies and guidelines. Final approval of regional and physical development plans. Training of physical planners.
Regional Level States (<i>Wilayat</i>)	Preparation and approval of regional, urban, village physical development plans. Preparation, implementation of housing schemes at the regional level. Defining urban growth boundaries. Upgrading approvals of Settlements. (Village to town). Regional physical planning policies and strategies. Regional land development (Urban and rural). Re-planning schemes. Regional bylaws and building codes. Land use conversion. Co-ordination between urban development parties. Allocation of lands for new settlement (regional).
Local Level <i>Mahaliyat</i> (Municipalities) (Town + Village)	Issuance (Granting) of building permits. Detailed plans. Implementation of plans and projects. Approval of residential plots subdivision and amalgamation. Allocation of social services within the approved development plans.

1.6 Challenges faced by Sudanese Planning System

- a. Rapid, unorganized, sometimes unauthorized urban growth (urban sprawl) has become a prominent feature of developing countries, and the Sudan is no exception (Eltayeb, 2002). Given the rapid urbanization and continuity of migration from rural to urban areas, large cities in Sudan continue to grow. Planning in Sudan is thus expected to play a vital role in the reconciliation of these issues. Unfortunately, government responses to those challenges are generally considered as reactive rather than proactive. For decades urban planning in Greater Khartoum has been associated with violations of human rights, demolitions and relocations have driven the poorest to the furthest peripheries of the city (Geoffroy, 2005).
- b. Lack of basic data on areas subjected to plans and development mislead several plans and arrangements. Without relevant data potentials cannot be assessed and the needs will never be accurately determined.

Previous Structure and master plans in Khartoum lack effective evaluation. The absent of relevant data as well as lack of effective benchmark by which the quality of the plan as well as community participation can be compared against might have contributed to that.

- c. Like most of the postcolonial African countries, planning in Sudan is predominantly carried out by the state through its public authorities. Foreign aid and international assistance played significant role in the national development of the country especially in regional transportation. Foreign aid and foreign experts have been working strongly in planning in Sudan, many planning projects are either designed or financed to some extent by foreign experts or institutions. (Rondinelli, 1983)² argues that both development planning and urban planning in east Africa (including Sudan) since independence depends largely on recommendations and specific proposals of foreign experts' advice, where most of their suggestions are likely to be accepted without much opposition, and in some cases these plans are nothing but replicas of plans existing in their homes or theoretical ideas that have never been put into practice. The Doxiadis first Master plan of Khartoum in 1958 is an example that proved Rondinelli's assumption. These plans are arguably placed as a tool of experimentation and field for trial and error for international planners and experts. (Norberg-Schulz, 1984) supported Rondinelli's *argument*.³ Payne, 1999 describes these practices as "it is perhaps ironic that urban planning and land management methods imported from Europe are still being applied in Africa, even though they have been abandoned as inappropriate in UK and other European countries" (Payne, 1999).

² Professor of economic planning has worked quite closely to urban economic planning in east Africa.

³ By stating that Doxiadis' plan of Khartoum did not consider the quality of place in the Genius LOCI of Khartoum when he was preparing Khartoum Plan, he placed the grid iron plan all over Khartoum without looking at the specific culture and physical structure of the city, such as the hot climate, the wind speed, direction and citizens' culture.

1.7 The state of community participation in Sudan

1.7.1 Introduction

In Sudan, while “decentralization was seen as more than a practical necessity in a country that is greater in size than western Europe” (Dennis A. Rondinelli, 1981), the central government still plays an influential in the city planning (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011).

Community participation activities that are carried out by the local authority are not reported neither to the local government nor to the legislative council (Ali, 2008). While this arguably justifies the lack of professional reports on community participation in Sudan, Academic research as well still lack behind.

The degree of people’s participation and involvement in planning in Sudan is significantly dynamic. Several factors contributes to this dynamism i.e. type of planning practice exerted, ethnic background, nature of the projects as well as the geographical settings of the location where the participation exercise is taking place (see (Eltahir, 2005; E. fatih S. Ibrahim, 2008; I. M. Ibrahim, 2007)). A unique feature of planning in Sudan is the existence of two approaches of plan making: traditional, community-driven and the legislative planning (see M. E. Abu Sin, 1984). The latter though do not encourage the traditional planning; it manipulates some of the former features including a traditional form of participation named as Nafeer. While the former approach dominates the urban scene in Sudan, the latter is mostly observed in rural areas as well as villages neighboring the capital region.

The necessity to improve community participation requires understanding the context where plans are formulated, developed, approved and implemented. This context, which is named in this dissertation as “Planning Tradition”, is composed of the 1) legislative framework of planning (how community participation is mandated and legalized); 2) the practical and cultural arrangement through which planners’ perception of C.P is shaped, this can be achieved through studying two types of arrangements. These two arrangements are; 1) the local literature and the accumulated knowledge regarding C.P and ;2) the procedure of how this C.P is practiced. Starting with the second component, the extent of how planning tradition in Sudan endorse C.P is discussed henceforth.

1.7.2 The state of literature in of C.P in Sudan⁴

The last four decades of planning tradition have shown growing attention brought to community participation that coupled with extensive literature worldwide, yet, not too much work about it has been published in Sudan. In this regard, Most of the Scholars have covered the issue of community participation as part of studying other community development sectors such as, Housing, Governance, sociology and anthropology, etc.

In general, literature on community participation in Sudan can be categorized in to three main domains as follows

- a. Literature that focus on community participation from a legislative planning perspective i.e. community participation in housing, urban governance as well as Squatter development. Several researches and reports qualified to this domain including (Hamid, 1993; E. fatih S. Ibrahim, 2008; Post, 1996).
- b. The second domain includes literature that encompasses community participation from a cultural perspective in the non-legislative planning. Some of the researches in this domain are (M. E. Abu Sin, 1984) and (Eltahir, 2005).
- c. The third as well as least touched domain is the researches that study community participation from an anthropological perspective. This domain generally looks at the interaction between human behavior and the participation process. Good examples of this domain are illustrated in (I. M. Ibrahim, 2007).

Post, 1996 from the first domain, focused on studying community participation in Government-initiated plans (legislative planning). Post studied the nature and procedure of planning practice in Sudan, summarizing his findings by defining the community participation in Sudan as “ ... *the function that is restricted to mobilization* ” (Post, 1996). Post further explains that mobilizations as used in his statement stand for the sort of participation where people provide and important part of the resources (Labor, Cash).

Post, 1996 also illustrated the role of Peoples' Committees in the local level, he explained that the role of Peoples' Committees (Neighborhoods Committees) in public participation is marginal. As a result, Post concluded that the authoritarian Top-Down planning approach practiced in Sudan does not allow for genuine community involvement. Post continued “ *it is important to treat the popular participation in Sudan with cautions* ” (Post, 1994).

⁴ This part will not cover how local literature defines participation as Eltahir, 2003 has previously covered that topic..

Having studied the action and the role of local authorities with regards to community participation, Hamid, 2000 as well as Ibrahim, 2008 came out with two different, yet, contextually driven perspectives. Hamid argues that Peoples' Committees at the local level of administration has been unsuitably injected over the existing Social networks organizations that are already established. Therefore their role in citizens' mobilization is considerably weak in communities that are naturally capable to organize themselves (Hamid, 2000).

On the contrary Ibrahim, 2008 viewed Peoples' Committees role as quite influential. Ibrahim illustrated that Peoples' Committees were “ *a good addition to the community social structure in Southern rural villages of Khartoum* ” (E. fatih S. Ibrahim, 2008). Both Hamid, 2000 and Ibrahim, 2008 agreed that the existing social networks are very essential elements in the sustainability of community participation. As Hamid studied several community-initiated projects in a middle-income community at the urban level, Ibrahim has placed his study in the Sub-urban level. The geographical settings as well as the level and income differences of the two studies might be the reason behind their different views of Peoples' Committees role.

In his study about low cost housing in Khartoum, Ahmed; et al, 2002 agreed with Post,1990 that community participation in legislative planning in Sudan is not genuine. Ahmed illustrated that beneficiaries “ *were given no active role to play in shaping their habitat ... a part from filling complaints* ”(Ahmad et al., 2002). Ahmed continues, “ *Planning process in the city of Khartoum is totally happening inside government department* ”.

Findings observed by Post, 1990 and Ahmed, et al., 2002 illustrated that community participation in planning in Sudan is generally limited. Planning is largely conducted within the planning institutions sphere with very low community involvements. The role of Government representatives at the local level (known as Peoples' Committees) is controversial and seems to be a context-dependents issue. Different research shows contrasted views regarding the role of P.Cs in the community participation.

(M. E. Abu Sin, 1984) from the second domain have illustrated the disparities between the “community-driven planning” and the “planners-oriented planning”. M. E. Abu Sin, 1984 have shown that in many areas in the capital region of Sudan (Khartoum), what is considered by authorities as “*un-planned*” is actually “*community planned* ”. Community planning though considered illegal by acquiring public land, yet, generated a version of grass-root urban planning “M. E. Abu Sin, continued “. In conclusion, though M. E. Abu Sin argued that this type of planning “ *community-driven planning*” might be very useful at the initial stage in planning up to the optimum of the

community resources and organizational capability. They also argued that Government and community planning are believed to be the best alternative.

(Eltahir, 2005) studied how community participation shapes the dwelling of the displaced Nubian communities in Umbaddah. Eltahir investigated the social impacts of the re-planning process conducted in Umbaddah on the physical settings as well as cultural behavior and rituals. As a result, she concluded that, the none participatory re-planning process practiced in Umbaddah has negatively affected the quality of a traditional form of community participation (named as Nafeer). She explained that settlers lost some of their original cultural practices and rituals due to the non-participatory re-planning process conducted in the area. Post, 1996 previous warning about treating popular participation in Sudan with cautions seems to be grounded in Eltahir, 2005 observations and findings in Umbaddah.

(I. M. Ibrahim, 2007) from the “least-investigated” third domain has studied very much the concept of Nafeer in different ethnic groups in Sudan from an anthropological point of view.⁵ His study exhibits that Nafeer was highly as well as successfully used in development projects in Darfur region. Accordingly, Ibrahim stressed on the necessity to link “Nafeer”, community participation and development in Sudan as essential triple-formula for the success of development projects. Ibrahim 2007 concludes that the continuous changes in human life require some new forms and understanding of the concept of Nafeer to fit these rapid changes.

1.7.3 Summary and conclusions

To recap, (Checkoway, 1984) definition of subarea planning explains exactly how plans are prepared in Sudan. While physical development plans only includes citizens in a one-way communication trends (Top-down), planners are always the technical and knowledgeable experts that has to produce the plans. According to this, the notion of the planner as “ a Plan producers” is very grounded, especially with the very central planning structure as well as the poor capacities observed at the local level.

Applying Arnstein’ ladder of participation in the Sudanese community planning experience exhibited above will place the Sudanese practice at the bottom of the degree tokenism. As a result, features of non-participation as stated in Arnstein’s Ladder of Citizens Participation could be observed. We argues that officials as well as

⁵ This study places special emphasis on the Sudanese region of Darfur.

planners seem to be “manipulating” the community as their *“real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programs, but to enable power holders to ‘educate’ or ‘cure’ the participants.”*(Arnstein, 1969).

The literature reviewed above exhibited various features of community participation in Sudan. This literature signifies the importance of the traditional “community-driven” forms of community participation in the local levels through which physical as well as social infrastructure are designed, shaped and managed. The literature reviewed also illustrated the domination of public authorities in most of the planning arrangements. By doing so citizens’ chances of affecting project planning are very limited.

An interesting observation rises here is that literature reviewed seem to ignore how community participation is mandated and legalized. While we argue that this observation can be justified by that the country is still trying to maintain a good balance between development, planning and democracy, the next section will cover how planning mandates provides guidance for planners in terms of how to involve peoples in the process.

2 Section Two; Planning Mandates and Community Participation in Sudan;

2.1 Introduction

Studying planning policy and mandates is very essential step in improving planning practice. Planning mandates illustrates and defines planning powers, the planning process, and the mandatory elements of binding development plans. In societies where planning itself is a challenge, planning mandates become an essential driving forces that supports planners. Planning researches signify that “Planning bylaws and mandates result in stronger local plans” (Berke, 1996; Brody, Godschalk, & Burby, 2003) Also, building effective C.P in planning requires “A robust framework of legislation and guidance which sets clear standard” (ODPM, 2004). In this regard, the necessity to improve community participation in the Sudanese planning system requires understanding how it is institutionalized in the policy and mandates that guide planners/policy makers.

Physical planning in Sudan was introduced as a primary function in large cities as early as the twenties century. The regulated and institutionalized physical planning starts with Town Planning Act of 1946 and the constitution of the Central Town Planning Committee” (A.Rasoul, 2008). In this regard, Post-colonial planning laws in Sudan have inherited the pre-colonial tradition of the extreme centrality of the Planning authorities and planning practice. Accordingly, it is until 1971 that planning power has got some relief from the extreme centrality with Local Government act of 1971.

In this part, the degree of which Sudanese planning mandates provides guidance and regulations for planners and policy-makers in terms of who, how and when to involve citizens is evaluated and appraised, this section provides rich descriptive and analytical understanding of how C.P is mandated “institutionalized” in the framework of Sudanese planning laws.

2.2 Legal and policy framework of C.P in Sudan

The legal reference of the Sudanese planning practice “the planning code” is made up of various acts that manage the physical planning process. The legislative framework of physical planning in Sudan is generally comprised of at least three main different documents including:

- a. The Federal Government planning Acts.
- b. States planning ordinances.

c. Local governments' guidance and regulations.

In the capital region of Sudan state-level planning ordinances are generally sets of regulations that are meant to explain the Federal-level planning acts at the state level. Local level planning acts are either a detailed expression of the Federal-level planning acts,⁶ or regulations that are issued to regulate and manage building permits, heights, land subdivision and taxes, etc. Thus, we argue that the study of the Federal Government planning regulations can yield a clear image of how C.P is mandated at both the local and state level. Accordingly, our evaluation to study how C.P is institutionalized in Sudanese planning mandates will be based on studying the Federal Government planning mandates and acts.

Since the beginning of the 19th century, fourteen planning act represent the sphere of legislative planning at the Federal/ central level in Sudan. These acts, which are shown in Figure 10, can generally be divided according to their scope, nature and focus in to three categories including;

a. Physical planning-based mandates (Category a);

This category includes four acts that have focused on studying issues of planning, re-planning, village organization and structure of planning institutions. These acts are; the Town Re-planning Act of 1950, the Town and Village Planning Act of 1961, the Urban Planning Act of 1986 and the current Urban Planning and Land Disposal Act of 1994.

a. Land-based mandates (Category b);

Seven Land-based acts are included in this category. These acts are chronically listed as Land Identification and Survey Act of 1905, The Native Disposition of Land restrictions Act of 1918, Land Settlement and Registration Act of 1925, Land Acquisition Act of 1930, Non-registered Lands act of 1975, Land re-adjustment and Registration Act of 1983, Land Disposal Act of 1986 and the Urban Planning and Land disposition Act.

a. Environment-based mandates (Category c);

⁶ Based on Khartoum state.

As this category is relatively new in the sphere of Sudanese legislative planning,⁷ There are only three acts that are related to it including; the Environment Conservation Act of 1975, the Supreme Council of Environment and Natural Resources Act of 1991 and the Environment Protections Act of 2001.

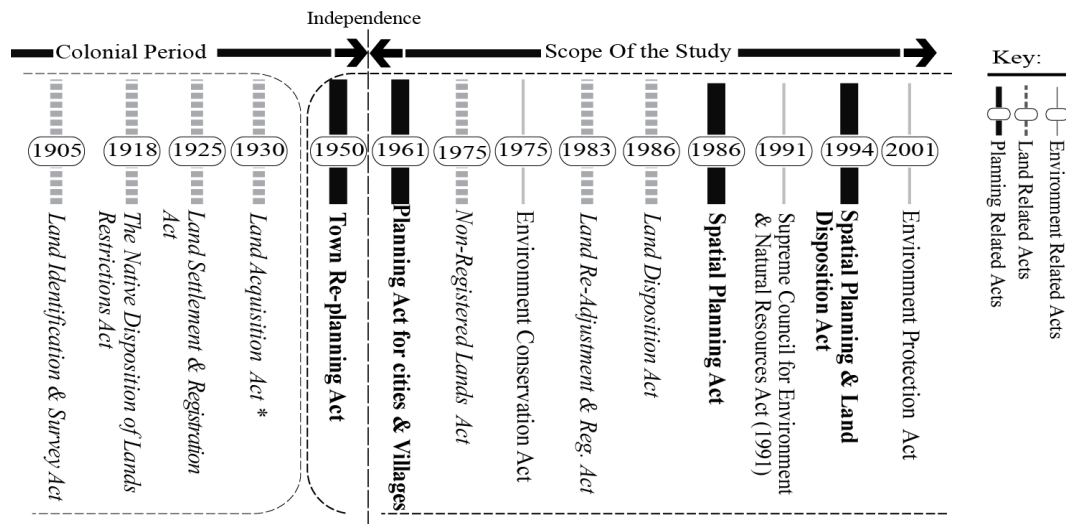


Figure 10 the sphere of legislative planning in Sudan since pre-colonial era

As shown in Figure 10 a part from the Town Re-planning act of 1950, planning laws in pre-colonial Sudan were mostly focused on issues of land identification, land disposal, land settlement and land acquisition. Urban and village planning was never a priority at the beginning of the colonial control in the country. In fact it is until the 1950s Town re-planning act that planning-related act were introduced in to the legislative framework.

For the purpose of this section, we will focus our study on the acts that provides guidance for planners during our study period. To be more specific, we will study planning acts from 1986 to 2000 (for more information about other act and how C.P is mandated on them please refer to appendices)

2.3 Community participation between 1986 and 2000⁸

A quick scan of the five mandates (defined as the scope of the study) in terms of whether they includes articles related to the promotion of community participation in planning practice as shown in Table 4, reveals that, a part from Urban Planning Act of 1986 and Urban Planning and Land Disposition Act of 1994, C.P is not mandated in

⁷ The first environment-based Act was enacted in 1975.

⁸ This is the period that will be covered by this research.

any form in the planning legislations sphere. In other word, C.P during this period is only mandated in the physical planning-related Acts and legislations (Category a). Land administration and environment related acts do not include any article that have reflected or adopted C.P as essential part of the act structure. The same also applied for the Environment-based Acts.

According to this statement, the two Acts under the Physical planning-based acts Category are thus discussed henceforth

Table 4 the general themes of planning mandates in Sudan between 1986-2000

Year	Mandate/Act name	General theme	C.P	Category
1986	Land disposition act	Land regularization	None	Land (b)
1986	Urban Planning Act	Re-Planning	Yes	Planning (a)
1991	Supreme Council for Environment & Natural resources Act	Council formulation Environment	None	Environment (c)
1994	Urban Planning and Land disposition Act.	Planning/ re- planning/Land	Yes	Planning (a)/Land (b)
2000	Environment protection Act	Environmental Improvement	None	Environment (c)

2.3.1 Urban Planning Act, 1986 (UPA-1986)⁹

At the beginning of the second democracy in Sudan (1986 - 1989), the Urban Planning Act, 1986 was enacted to cope with the rapidly increasing urban population, which was accompanied by deterioration in urban services in large cities i.e. Khartoum and Port Sudan. The massive internal displacement caused by the famine in Darfur region and the civil war in the South of the country¹⁰ have increased the mount of illegal and squatter settlements. As a result of this Act, Village Re-planning Committee (VRC) has been established to be responsible of tackling the growing problems of informal settlements through the preparation of official village plans. This act also introduces the National Physical Planning Committee (NPPC) of which the Minister of planning nominates four members to its membership (article.5).

In terms of C.P, UPA-1986 provided public agencies responsibility to publicize their intension to exercise any of the planning powers assign to them by this law. The Minister or the Committee, as the case maybe, shall upon intension to exercise any of his power conferred thereupon under the provision of this Act, publish a notice in the

⁹ This act is also named as Urban Planning Act, 1406 A.H in accordance to the Islamic Calendar.

¹⁰ Now the Republic of South Sudan.

Gazette, of the intension to exercise such power, accompanied by an elaborated network map showing the particulars relating to the land subject of planning". (Government of Sudan, 1986).¹¹

Although the formulation of the VRC was an essential part of the UPA-1986 as it was the state's right hand in villages and area re-planning, C.P as mandated only happens within the planning arrangements.

2.3.2 Urban Planning and Land Disposal Act, 1994 (UPLD-1994)

The basic starting point of having a comprehensive planning code was Urban Planning and Land Disposal Act of 1994. UPLA-1994 consolidated all physical planning related acts from 1950 to 1994. In-addition. This Act codified much of what had been developed in custom and practice in area re-planning and integration during that time, clarifying and simplifying the overall process into one self-contained piece of legislation. UPLA-1994 remains the basis of the Sudanese planning code, setting out details of Urban Planning functions and power of the Minister.

UPLD-1994 was thus considered as a major transformation in the physical planning laws development in the country (Government of Sudan, 1997). UPLD-1994 was also the first mandate that combines both urban planning and land administration issues in a single legal document.

Prior to the inaction of this act, there have been a number of large-scale physical, legal and administrative changes, the most significant were

1. The inauguration of The National Comprehensive Strategy, 1992-2002 (NCS 1992-2002) that has paved the ground for some major development issues in the country.

Despite that NCS 1992-2002 is not the first national level strategy in Sudan; it was the first strategy to state clearly the role of C.P in service provision and management of urban area. NCP1992-2002 called for "*community must be included to decide upon their planning priorities in plan implementation, housing projects, public buildings provision, public spaces development and greening*" (Government of Sudan GOS, 1992). Accordingly, a very promising program based on what is named in the strategy as "public participation" under this act was implemented.

¹¹ Article No.3-7 11

2. The second significant change was the amendment of the Peoples' Committees (*Ligan Shabieia*) Act of 1992 which was intended to laid the ground for more civil-based local level administration by allowing citizens to participate at local level administration through an elected leaders.
3. The inauguration of the capital region new Structure Plan (Khartoum Structure Plan 1990-2000) which consolidate "informal settlements treatment" as a key element in its development strategy was the third significant structural change that preceded UPLDA-1994.

Community Participation in the UPLD-1994 was achieved through three types of arrangements explained as follows:

- Obligating public authorities to show their intension to develop any planning / re-planning scheme to public.¹²
- UPLD-1994 has also lowered the decision-making process to state level. Accordingly, all states by are required to form their own States Planning Committees (Article No.10-1).
- UPLDA-1994 also exhibits that "The Re-planning Officer shall from time to time, publish on behalf of the Re-planning Committee in the state, a notice containing a summary of the order issued by the Minister, in accordance with the provisions of section 24, showing the particulars of measures and programs, under which the Committee works, and requiring the persons interested in the land lying in such area, or any part thereof, as may be shown in the order, to appear before the Committee in person, or through the agents thereof, at such time and place, as may be specified in the notice" UPLD, 1994 (Chapter 4 No. 28-1)
- Last not least, re-planning-affected citizens have the right to appeal against the re-planning committee decisions (article No 4-38). Accordingly " Any person aggrieved by any assessment, or prescription by the Committee, under the provision of section 34, or the failure thereof in conducting any one of the same, or aggrieved by any order issued by the Committee, under the provisions of section 35, may appeal the same to the Court of Appeal " UPLD, 1994. Article 19 also illustrated that " *The Governor,*

¹² This was very clearly stated in Chapter1, Section 2, No 12

after publishing the notice referred to in section 19, ... , and he shall avail .for the all interested persons, the chance of objection to such draft” (UPLD, 1994).

As shown previously, UPLA-1994 is not just more comprehensive than UPA 1986 mandate, in fact, this act, contains most of the arrangement that encompasses C.P in the planning arrangements. Unlike UPA 1986, C.P participation in UPLA-1994 was achieved and mandated in both planning and the re-planning arrangements.

2.3.3 How C.P is mandated in the Sudanese Physical Planning Mandates

Table 5 identified how each of the two planning acts studied interprets C.P in terms of; who participate, method of participation, stage of participation and the type of activity of which C.P take place. According to Table 5, otherwise than the physical planning-related mandates, planning acts lack of legislations that are solely dedicated to promote community participation. The latter is generally introduced in physical planning-related mandates as a function that is mandated through two categories

- a. Planning arrangements.
- b. Re-planning and village regulation arrangements.

Within planning arrangements (the first category), C.P is mandated through a single perquisite by which the government is mandated to show their intentions of initiating and development project to public. In contrast, C.P as mandated in re-planning procedure includes several types/levels of arrangements including

- a. The obligation of the government planning authorities to show their interest to initiate planning/re-planning projects to public through an appropriate media and/or public gazette (UPA of 1986 and UPLDA of 1994).
- b. The right for the “re-planning projects” affected citizens to appeal UPLDA of 1994).

To sum up, the general framework of how community participation is mandated in the Sudanese planning mandates is further illustrated and summarized in Figure 11.

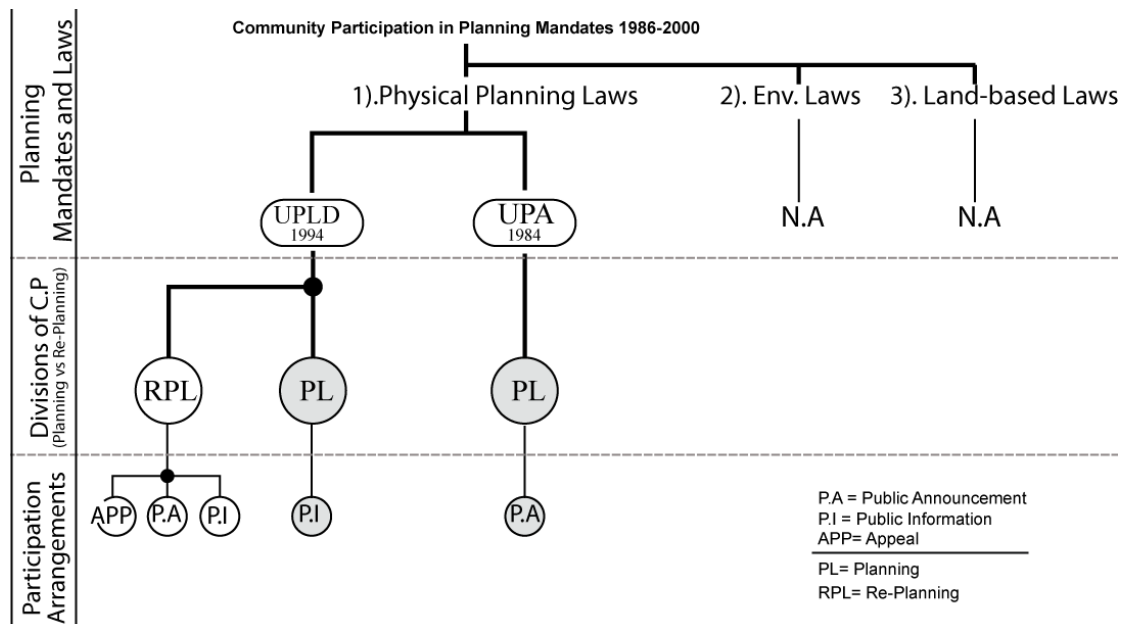


Figure 11 the scope of community participation in Sudanese planning mandates (1986-2000)

2.3.4 How participation is mandated

2.3.4.1 Spectrum/Sphere of Stakeholders “ Who Participate” and level of control

The scope of stakeholders mandated to be involved in the planning process as noted in 1986 and 1994 planning laws (also shown in Table 5) is limited to two folds of stakeholders;

1. Public Agencies, this includes the (VRC), planners, policy-makers, NPPC, Minister of housing and State Governor (*Wali*).
2. Directly affected citizens/beneficiaries/public.

According to this, the ideology of public agencies as “a plan producers” and citizens as “recipients” of this plan seems to be grounded in the Sudanese planning mandates, Other community sectors such as NGOs/CBOs, neighborhood associations, research and education sector though might have legitimate interest in the planning/re-planning process; yet, the law doesn’t provide any legal arrangement for their involvement.¹³

¹³ A part from some university professors that are appointed as NCCP member” (see UPA-1986 and UPLD-1994)

Several hierarchies or levels of participation techniques that range from information giving at the lowest level of participation to full control over planning issues are observed. These levels has been illustrated before by theorist and practitioners i.e. (Arnstein, 1969; Choguill, 1996; John F. C. Turner, 1977) etc.

Table 5 shows that the two planning mandates studied addresses C.P as a process of informing citizens about planning projects through disseminating information to large number of people/beneficiaries/public and allowing citizens to appeal. In this regard, while there is no satisfactory requirement for how the “plan publicity” should be done, the level of publicity mandated is limited to advertisement in public Gazette and on site notice. As this is regarded as a tool for good intension, it does not insure that citizens will be well informed about these projects especially if we consider the high level of illiteracy in the country.¹⁴

Table 5 the application of the three dimensions on planning Mandates/bylaws

	How Community Participation is Achieved		Who is Involved	What is participation		Notes/ Reference
	Short Description of article Content	Method of participation		Stage of C.P participation	Activities	
UPA 1986	Govt. Inst. (Minister/NCCP). Should show their interests to initiate planning projects to public.	Public announcement	Public	Before re-planning Initiation.	PLN	Section 3-7
UPLD Act 1994	Govt. Institutions should show their interests to initiate planning projects to public.	Public announcement	Public	Before planning Initiation.	PLN	Section 2, article No.12
	Govt. Inst. Should show their interests to initiate re-planning planning projects to public.	Notice /Information	Public	Before re-planning Initiation.	RPLN	Section 4, article No.19
	Beneficiaries have the right to appeal re-planning decisions.	Feed back	Beneficiaries	After planning	RPLN	Section 4, article No.21
	Modified plans should be made public.	Notice / Information	Beneficiaries	After re-planning	RPLN	Section 4, articleNo.31-2
	Minister approval of plans should be publicized.	Notice /information	Beneficiaries	After Approval	RPLN	Section 4, article No.24-2
	Re-planning program and arrangements details at (Local level) should be publicized.	Notice / information	Beneficiaries	After approval	RPLN	Section 4, article No.28-1
Re-planning Affected citizens have the right to appeal.	Appeal	Beneficiaries	After approval	RPLN	Section 4, article No.38	

The provision of information is also a prerequisite of community participation and information should be provided at two stages of planning

¹⁴ Noted by United Nation Development Program (UNDP) in 2008 as 35% in the north of the country, this percentage normally increases in the low-income re-planning areas

Stage 1 before plan initiation in which two types of information should be transferred;

- a. Intension to develop plans/ area.
- b. Planning and development arrangements

Stage 2 after the project approval but prior to implementation. In this stage only one type of information is necessary to be transferred, this includes approved plans and projects.

Appeal, which has been granted as citizens' right in the re-planning process, is mandated to take place after all planning decisions are taken and plans are approved. Taking into account the lack of public hearing in those mandates, its then obvious that there is narrow margin of citizens to actually influence plans.

The duty-right relationship shown in Figure 12 between the two stakeholders mandated to be involved (Government agencies and citizens) show that; "re-planning" is favored with more participation arrangements when compared to planning. This was evident in

- a. Type of information necessary to be transferred before projects approval, in which both re-planning arrangement and intension to initiate plan should be transferred to citizens, in contrast, in planning arrangement, the only information that is necessary to be transferred is the intensions to develop plans.
- b. In re-planning arrangement, it is also mandated that before the projects approval that plans and projects should be made public.
- c. Beneficiaries and public also have the right to appeal re-planning decisions but not planning ones.

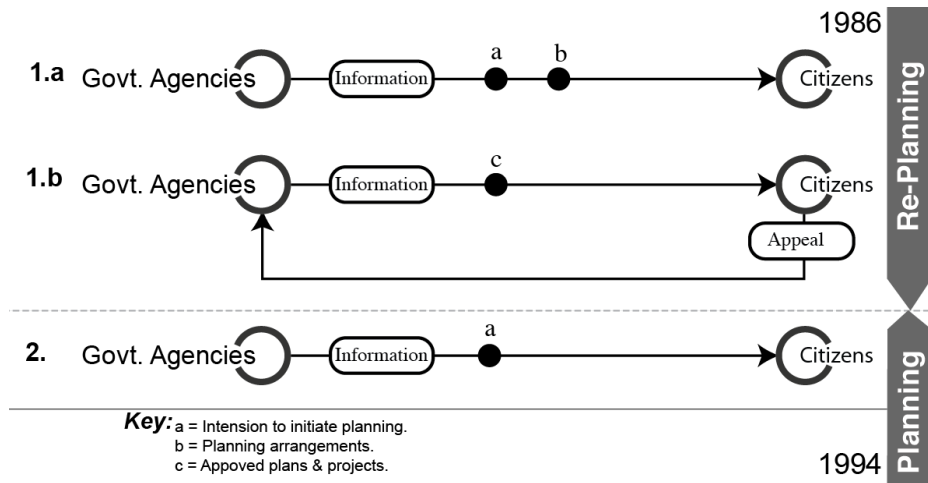


Figure 12 Framework of how C.P is mandated in the Sudanese planning mandates, the re-planning arrangement on top (1.a and 1.b) and planning arrangement at the bottom.

2.3.4.2 What is Participation?

In general, to insure meaningful stakeholders involvement, participation must occur “early, often and [be] ongoing” (Wondololeck & Yaffee, 2000, p.103). In this regard, the extent of which 1986 and 1994 planning mandates have looked at the stage of which participation should take place (explained in Figure 12), restrict “direct” C.P to “plan initiation”(information) and “post plan approval” stages (plan information and appeal). Planning mandates in general require planning authorities to publicize plans/projects and hear appeals only after the plan has been selected from within the alternatives available and that it has been approved for implementation. In this regard, we understand that the planning stage is the most crucial specially in low-income development projects (see Hamdi and Goethert 1997 pp.77-78) therefore, “participation” as mandated, is actually happening in the less important stages of planning.

2.3.5 Conclusions

To recap, we believe that a simple planning mandates that institutionalized legitimate C.P should ensure that citizens are; 1) capable of accessing information; 2) can get their ideas seriously considered /included in the process; 3) can actively be involved in developing planning proposals and options/alternatives; 4) can comment in final proposals and get their comments heard/indorsed; 6) can get feedback and informed about the work progress. According to this, the extent that the two planning mandates studied address C.P can be summarized as follows

- a. C.P has maintained a very informative nature in terms of how the participation process should be tackled in all planning mandates.
- b. C.P focus on quantity of participants rather than the quality of participation process.
- c. C.P is a process that is largely (not entirely) related to re-planning or illegal settlements regularization.
- d. C.P addresses what should be done in terms on involving citizens, but not necessarily how (tools and measures). Also, C.P as mandated is only required for state-run/managed projects. Private developer and investor s are not entrusted to use C.P during area/project development.
- e. C.P as mandated in planning bylaws focus on involving citizens in the less important planning stages (initiation and post-approval. Stages like plan-development and decision-making and project monitoring get the least focus.
- f. Although citizens' right to appeal in the re-planning arrangements is mandatory, the timing as well as the procedure of appeal makes it unlikely to affect the plan.

In conclusion, this section suggests that community participation is not restrict only to mobilization as noted by (Fahal Abureidah, 1987). Citizens' Participation as a recipient of information, coupled with citizens' right to appeal is dominating the two planning mandates guidance. In this regard, features of non-participation and tokenism as stated by Arnstein are observed here. The conclusion drawn by this section do not imply that Sudanese planning mandates do not provide C.P guidance to planners and policy-makers, on the contrary, they are a kin to building blocks of basic informative C.P that focus on quantitative approach.

As a result of this analysis, although the two mandates did not adequately address community participation, UPLDA, 1994 planning mandate seems to have provided more arrangements than the 1986. This implies that case studies that will be presented in this dissertation that are based on after the 1994-panning mandate are expected to gain higher level of participation than the others. This hypothesis is valid for both Al-shigla and Al-salama case studies.

At this point, it should be noted that bylaws/mandates sometimes leads to system inefficiency if not associated with authentic culture that promotes participation, this is necessary step to retain and maintain sustainability of the participation process. In this regard, while this section shows how the mandates category of planning tradition

interprets community participation, the next section touches upon how C.P is integrated as part of planners' culture and practice.

3 Section Three; Planners' Perception Towards Community Participation in Sudan

3.1 Introduction

Lack of researches that focus on community participation in Sudan contributed to the weak body of literature and knowledge accumulated about this issue. As a result, little known about how planners generally understand community participation and therefore practice it in their daily practice. To overcome this challenge, we conducted an exploratory research in the summer of 2009 to clarify the above statement. Our approach was simple and fast. We used a basic questionnaire technique to collect the data necessary for our inquiry. Our targeted sample was the planners engaged in the Ministry of Planning and Public Utilities in the Capital region.¹⁵ The questionnaire¹⁶ was of two types, an Internet-based as well as paper based. Total sample size was 29 planners aged from 24 to 59 years. Females constitute 60 per cent of the respondents.¹⁷

3.2 Questionnaire results

In contrast to planning mandates and policy guidance (see previous section), planners seem to acknowledge the concept of community participation; yet, they have to produce plans according to the guidance provided as well as the inherited practice. 56 per cent of the sample has carried some participatory planning in certain stage of their career. The majority of those participation arrangements (86 per cent) were practiced either in squatter settlement upgrading or Area (villages) re-planning (see Figure 13 and Figure 14). New urban development projects as well as large-scale plans including master and structure plans are receiving low level of community participation. We argue that those projects are the ones described by Ahmed, 2002 as “...*happen inside planning offices*”. The latter projects normally exhibit no participation but might be associated with some level of information transferred to public and other stakeholders.

¹⁵ In Sudan, planning is generally carried within government-established institutions. Until recently private planning offices do not really contribute to the planning process.

¹⁶ A translated Copy of this questionnaire is attached in the appendices.

¹⁷ We collected 15 questionnaires out of the 29 distributed.

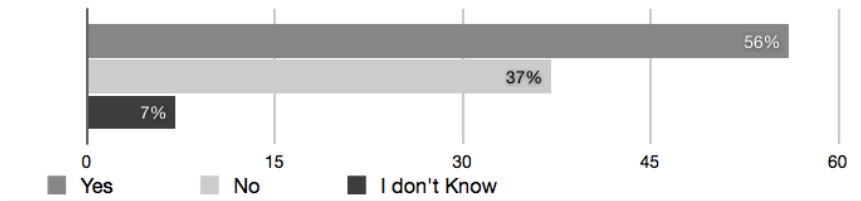


Figure 13 Previous Experience in Community participation in planning

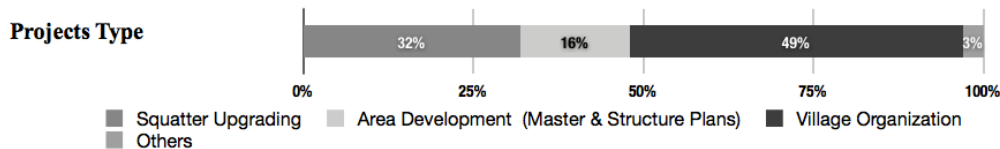


Figure 14 Area of planning in which community participation was achieved

Unsurprisingly, 83 percent of those who conducted community participation (the 56 per cent) were young and mid-career planners (aged between 28 to 50). This observation implies that community participation practice is generally new to the legislative planning and planning arrangements. Younger and mid-career planners are those whom have actually implemented some community participation arrangement within their practices. We justify this by arguing community participation was generally introduced during the Village Organization Program that started in 1984 and continued to date¹⁸. Policy Arrangement like Urban Planning Act (UPA 1986), Urban Planning and Land Disposition Act (UPLDA, 1994) and National Comprehensive Strategy (NCS 1992-2002) might have also contributed to this observation.

¹⁸ This program continued under a different name now.

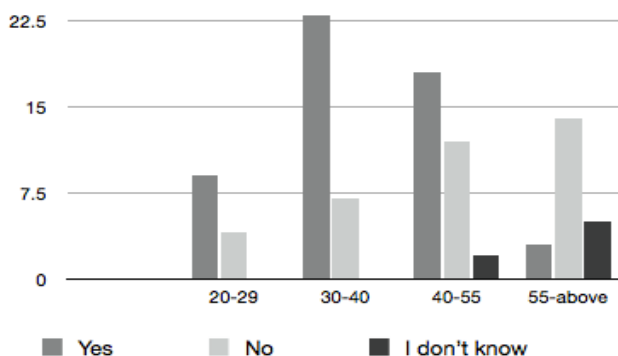


Figure 15 Correlation between participants' age and application of community participation in practice

Figure 16 states that, community participation as conducted by planners was predominately happening during two main project stages identified as project financing and implementation stages. This implies that participation generally occurred late at the process and in the less important stages. Participation thus, neither affect decision-making process nor level of control in the project, yet it contributes to the implementation of plans prepared by planner.

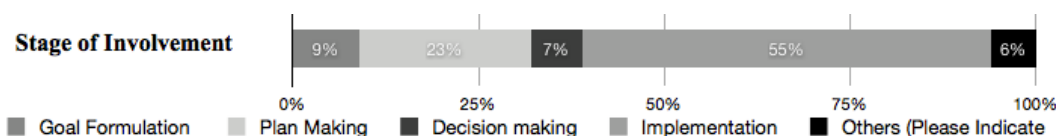


Figure 16 Planning stages of which most of the participation programs take place

Our exploratory questionnaire also reveals that, planners in general believe in the power of the state as decision maker and themselves as technical and knowledgeable stakeholder, they also understand that they are the most important player in the planning process followed by policy makers and later citizens, NGOs and community organizations come last at the bottom of stakeholders importance (see Figure 17). The observation noted here signifies that though planners in general do appreciate and acknowledge community participation, they consider themselves as the main stakeholders by which project control should always in their side.

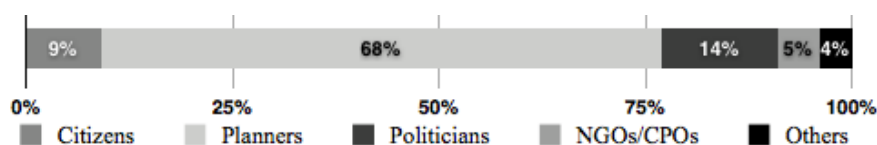


Figure 17 the importance of each stakeholder in the planning projects

Participation tools and techniques as used by planners in their projects and plans signify the domination of tools like "meetings" as well as "the use of Media" (see Figure 18). While the first tool does allow citizens to express

their ideas, the second only allows for one side information transfer (government to public in this case). The efficiency of participation tools/techniques cannot be measured without understanding whether community's demands are actually met or not. Surprisingly, the majority of respondents noted that they are likely not to consider community demands in their plans (see Figure 19). This implies that though participation techniques used allows discussion with the community, community demands are not seriously considered in the plans and projects.

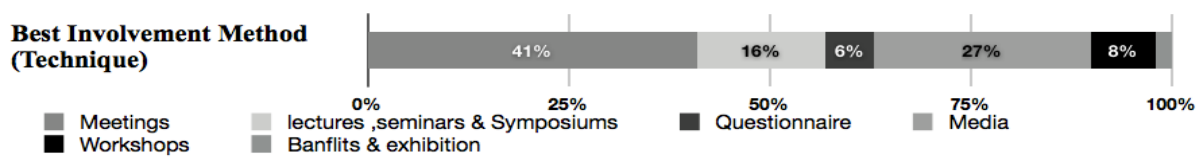


Figure 18 tools and techniques of participation used

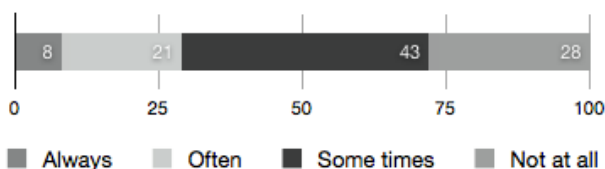


Figure 19 Level of community demands integration into the plans

Surprisingly, the coordination among those considered by planners as the most important player on the process is not satisfactory. 62 per cent of our respondents noted that they are not satisfied with the level of coordination and communication between them and others government and planning institutions. The level of satisfaction of the coordination between planners and community is generally weak (see Figure 20). According to our sample coordination between planning institutions and civil society i.e. NGOs CBOs etc. seems to have no grounds. Thus it is not much of a surprise that the majority of planners don't consider community and community leaders needs and demands in their plans.

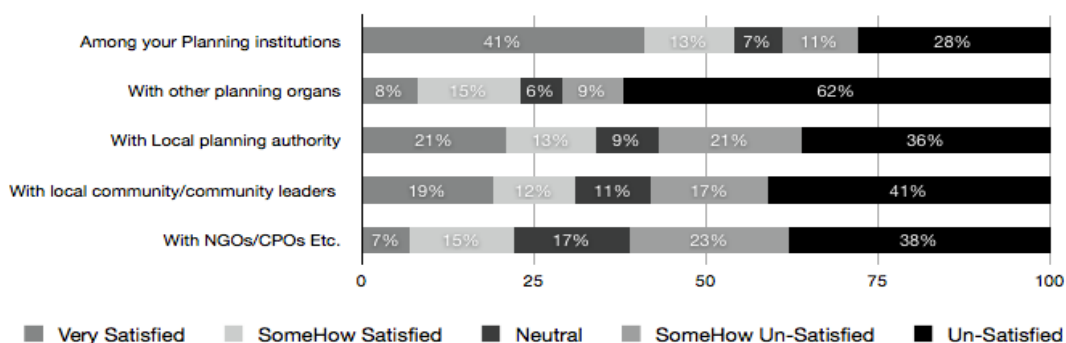


Figure 20 level of planners' satisfaction related to level of coordination exhibited

3.2.1 Conclusions and summary

This exploratory questionnaire has generally clarified various issues regarding how community participation is conceived in the daily practices of planners. In general, our sample has shown a growing interest and understanding among planners of the concept of community participation. Quite majority of planners (83 per cent) believe that community should be better involved in projects planning. They even understand that community should get involved in much powerful methods i.e. a decision maker and consultant (see Figure 21). Our observation here signifies that; as planners understand the importance of community participation, their practices encapsulate it within the mandated procedure. For planners goal formulation stage is the most important stage in the process of involving citizens, followed by the plan making stage, the involvement at the stage of implementation (which is dominating today's practice seems to be getting the lowest important).

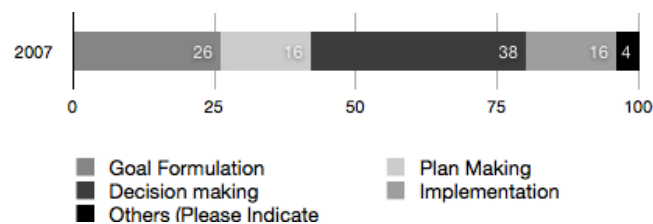


Figure 21 preferred stage of involvement as understood by planners

The observation noted here signifies the need of policy change by which community participation policies should come up to the challenge expected. At this point it is interesting to mention that, quite minority of planners doesn't believe in genuine community participation. They argue that "grounds are not yet set for such approach" . Although they only represents about 12% of our sample, yet, their arguments was very interesting to look at as it shows some of the difficulties that the other planners faced while conducting community participation in planning, these challenges are rearranged in to three categories as followed.

- a. **Administrative;** The very hierarchical decisions making process in the Sudanese planning together with the Poor coordination among planning institutions, and most importantly Political interference with technical decisions making.¹⁹

¹⁹ Several example of this are evident in Khartoum as well as the country in large. In some case planners do developed alternative options and leave the final decision to politicians.

- b. **Cultural reasons** (including organization culture); Lack of trust between citizens and the government. Government also seems to have very low interest in genuine involvement of citizens, adding to that the Non-homogeneity of urban community make it hard to build consensus.
- c. **Technical reasons;** Community participation requires equal and active involvement of all actors, thus, very difficult to achieve without sincere and dedicated stakeholders. High Literacy level together with low planners capacities, data unavailability, difficulties to access community, lack of trust, and transparency (which often leads to corruption) are among the technical reasons provided by planners.

Although some of the challenges mentioned above are imminent and highly challenging, we argue that most of those challenges can generally be solved through involving citizens. Our argument is grounded in the contemporary community participation theories i.e. collaborative and advocacy planning approaches.

4 Section Four; The Concept of NAFEER

The budgetary constraints observed in many of the African and third world countries (including Sudan) have limited the state contribution in planning as well as urban/ rural development. As a result, communities found themselves responsible of sustaining those services by themselves, some times with minor assistance from an outsider i.e. an NGO or a development agency. Evidences of many known and successful experiences of citizens' initiated some time planned as well as implemented projects exist (see (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2010; Eltahir, 2005; Kevlihan, 2005; Manger, 1987). It's quite common that Service delivery projects i.e. drinking water supply water, electricity and waste disposal to be initiated, financed, managed and some times developed by local citizens. This activity is quite common in rural Sudan as well as villages and squatters surrounding larger villages. An ideology known as "Nafeer" or "Nafir" drives these sort of process.

Nafeer is an Arabic word originated from the verb "*Nafar*" which generally emphasize the collective action during the wartime (Al-bukhari, 2004). But the recent definitions of Nafeer though they are few they tend to define Nafeer as "*social institution dominating the majority of Sudan rural regions with some variations such as organization, nature and number of participants according to the habits and the culture of people involved*" (I. M. Ibrahim, 2007). Nafeer is also mentioned to describe particular types of communal work undertaking. It also was defined as "*including a group recruited through family networks, in-laws and village neighbors for some particular purpose, which then disbands when that purpose is, fulfilled*" (Manger, 1987). A more recent definition of Nafeer is "to bring together someone from the neighborhood or community to carry out a certain project, such as building a house or providing a help during the harvest season" (Conceptual analysis of volunteer, 2004).

The former definitions generally illustrate two related typologies in which *Nafeer* can be characterized. The first refers to group tasks that largely benefit an individual (one person) such as building his house, wedding or harvesting the agriculture fields. Such activities based on accessing Nafeer for your own benefit, and as a result taking on a return obligation to participate in Nafeer of those that come to assist you (Manger, 1987). The second type of *Nafeer* relates to activities done for the benefit of the community as a whole. These can often entail wider community and inter-ethnic involvement. In either Nafeer case, Kevlihan, 2005 illustrates that; it is usual for some refreshment (food and something to drink) to be provided for work groups, normally when the work is done. The amount and type of food vary from place to place and depending on the time of

year²⁰, though norms for what is expected are generally well established (Kevlihan, 2005). The food and drinks are generally prepared by the women and generally delivered by the younger kids. This signifies that Nafeer in general includes several community groups including women whom are generally excluded in many participatory processes.

Albeit the above-mentioned definitions have very much focus on Nafeer as a physical sort of labor that is based on family and social networks, Historical practice of Nafeer in south and western Sudan shows that the concept is far beyond being only a sort of physical labor. In The Sudanese historical capital *Fashoda* for instance Nafeer was largely used as a tool of urban management by which differ at ethnic groups managed the public buildings in regular intervals (I. M. Ibrahim, 2007). Nafeer is also used as a tool to exchange ideas and thought as well as provide fund. Several Nafeer processes are commonly practice by large institutions in Sudan for that purpose.

At this point, it must be understood that the concept of Nafeer as much as the other participation concept/ideologies i.e. the famous Tanzanian "*Ujamaa*"²¹ and the Japanese "Machizukuri" also is still very Vague and unclear. Nafeer in general is referred to in many case as well as conditions. Some times the word used to express the citizens' initiated work. The majority used it to express the physical action for the benefits of public as well as individuals. Even some majority mentioned in as the financial contribution of the participant. The definitions exhibited above illustrate that Nafeer is a social process that is linked to the society much more than an economical duty. In fact, the social reward of Nafeer is the most important and respected as exhibited by (Joachim & Mohamed Abdel Rahim Mohamed Salih, 1984).

Nafeer in practice is conceived in both citizens-initiated as well as government-led planning. With an exception of some urban areas, Public building like *Khalwas*²², *Schools*, *health facilities* are constructed mostly in terms of Nafeer. Men generally do the physical labor work i.e. digging foundations, building walls and erecting the roof. Females are expected prepare the food and drinks for the working male, however in certain areas in western Sudan, females does participate in the construction process.

²⁰ Different types of foods are served at different seasons.

²¹ *Ujamaa* originated from the Swahili language to describe the extended family or family hood. Ujamaa was used as the basis for a national development project in Tanzania during 1960th.

²² The word *KHALWA* in Arabic literally means the (Private or Isolated place)

Nafeer recently is used in different ways. For instance Ibrahim, 2007 illustrates that how Nafeer is used as a tool to finances not only public projects and services but also as a tool to allocate fund for public institutions i.e. academic institutions. Ibrahim, 2007 also explained the use of Nafeer in constructing health facilities as well as basic services. He stresses that Nafeer has been extensively used in the previous strategic plan. Specifically the National Comprehensive Strategy NCS1992-2002 as a tool for the strategies' projects realization.

The efficiency of this socially binding activity has encouraged many public agencies as well as NGOs and NPOs to indorse Nafeer as a plan implementation tool. This was generally evident in low-income communities. NGOs such as Practical Action and SOS as aid agencies i.e. USAID are frequently using Nafeer to implement their projects in squatter and poor communities. Some strategies and techniques such as "Food for Work" are also used to incentivize participant to join the Nafeer work.

Unlike rural Sudan, The use of "Nafeer" in the legislative planning in urban area as well as urban fringes however is quite limited. While many scholars claimed that legislative planning does include Nafeer and people in the planning process (Eltahir, 2005; I. M. Ibrahim, 2007; Kafeel, 2001), this inclusion is mostly physical and/or one-way of information transfer to citizens. As much as other NGOs, Nafeer in legislative planning is generally used in terms of physical participation i.e. practices which includes physical efforts to achieve a project.

At this point, it should be noted that Nafeer does not only help in realizing physical projects and individual houses. In fact, Nafeer does participate in shaping housing typologies as well as patterns. The layout of the house, the relationship between the public and private domains, the connection between the house and the street as well as among the houses themselves is directly connected to the social participation observed in most of rural Sudan. Evidences of the previous statement as covered extensively by (Eltahir, 2005; Osman, 2003).



Figure 22 photos of some of Nafeer practices in Sudan. The left photo is courtesy of Dr. M. A. Zakaria , the one in the right is courtesy of Dr. O. Elkheir.

4.1 Some examples of Nafeer-driven exercises in urban Villages

Several Nafeer process are observed in the Sudanese rural as much as urban villages. While Nafeer in general exists in both legislative and traditional planning approaches, the latter get higher level of participation and acknowledgement. In general, Nafeer can be divided into three categories. These categories as described by (I. M. Ibrahim, 2007) are

1. The Agriculture-oriented Nafeer
2. The building-oriented Nafeer
3. The water resources-oriented Nafeer

The first typology concerned more with collective actions in relations to agriculture and animal herding activities. Including participation in farming, water harvesting, crop harvesting as well ad farmland security and protection. The latter Nafeer approach is locally named as *Fazza*. The building-oriented Nafeer (the second category) is the most significant and clear in Sudanese villages. This type is characterized by being a task that is achieved through a household participation (not only male). It does include the collective actions in favor of building buildings/spaces that are for the benefit of an individual or the community at large.

While the above three forms were based on Nafeer in Darfur region (see (I. M. Ibrahim, 2007)), they do apply to the other forms countrywide. At this point, we argue that there is a forth typology that was quite evident in most of the Sudanese southern villages. The administration and management-oriented Nafeer is significantly clear in managing urban development and land-management system.

The above three typologies (especially the second one) are used at various scales in urban development in Sudan. Public authorities, International NGOs as well as local CBOs adopted different approaches of Nafeer integration. Examples to this are well illustrated in (Eltahir, 2005; Hamid, 1993; I. M. Ibrahim, 2007).

To recap, while Nafeer seem to be quite rooted in traditional communities in Sudan, its practice in urban settings seem to decrease. The frequent use of Nafeer by NGOs and public authorities illustrate its value as a project finance and implementation tool. However, Nafeer as practiced in urban villages is generally associated with high level of ethnic homogeneity. Tribal structure as well as traditional administrative settings play major role in Nafeer activities.

5 Section Five; Village development and improvement; a Worldwide vision

Rural/Village development has been a top issue in most of the developed countries before the 1970s. Yet, in developing countries in the African context this issue is still a priority provided that the majority of sub-Saharan Africa is still living in rural areas. This section provides a brief overview of some Rural/Village development ideologies and programs developed in Korea, Tanzania and Japan.

5.1 The Saemaul Undong Ideology in Korea

The Saemaul Undong program (SMU) or the New Community Movement (Reed, 2010)²³ initiated by President Park Chung Hee in South Korea in early 1970s(Reed, 2010) as a rural development program that seeks safe escape from Poverty²⁴. SMU in general is based on “...*Government aid would be useless unless the people decided to do things self-helping spirit. Moreover, motivating the rural community’s self-help and cooperation was a key to developing the rural areas*” (Reed, 2010). The term “Saemaul” was coined by combining Sae, which means ‘progressive renewal based on past experiences, and Maul, which refers to ‘regional and social communities.

Saemaul Undong represents a continuous effort towards community renewal and modernization for a better future (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003).The National Council of Saemaul Undong listed several characters that explain the nature of SMU. These criteria are;

- a. Saemaul Undong emphasizes growth by manifesting and enacting the people’ s desire to be free from the shackles of poverty and to join the ranks of well-to-do societies.
- b. Saemaul Undong stresses societal welfare and signifies the nation’ s commitment to egalitarian economic development.
- c. Saemaul Undong tries to harmonize two conflicting values. While accepting the need for modernization, Saemaul Undong also values traditions that have endured the test of time. Interpreting Sae as referring

²³ Also known as movement or ideology (see www.saemaul.or.kr/english)

²⁴ The same website above

to the pursuit of change and Maul as signifying traditional communities, it can be inferred that Saemaul Undong stands for the continuation of old values.

- d. Saemaul Undong employs a holistic approach. It never exclusively stresses the enhancement of agricultural productivity in developing remote agricultural sectors, though this is a top priority. Instead, it also develops physical and social infra- structure such as roads and education. Saemaul Undong believes that economic growth in rural communities should be compatible with efforts to preserve conventional cultural traditions and a healthy natural environment

5.1.1 Objectives of SMU

Although SMU has been implemented to achieve various objectives based on the context of application, in general, SMU has four main objectives listed as follows

1. Develop a modern, comfortable and convenient social community.
2. Establish companies that workers can be proud of and where sustained growth is achieved in a cooperative and trusting working environment.
3. Develop and maintain sound and healthy society whose members are able to enjoy pleasant and intimate relationships.
4. Build a continuously improving nation that we can be proud of.²⁵

The four objectives above have been implemented at various scales in the villages that adopted SMU ideology. SMU is thus a national campaign that positively branded the government's major program of rural modernization (Reed, 2010). In addition, Edward argues that SMU had contributed to enable Korea's rural sector to advance so rapidly (Reed, 2010).

5.1.2 The Structure of SMU process

The basic steps of the Saemaul Movement are four fold including ²⁶

²⁵ <http://www.saemaul.or.kr/english/saemaulundong.asp>; date accessed May 16th 2012.

²⁶ <http://www.saemaul.or.kr/english/saemaulundong.asp>; date accessed May 16th 2012.

5.1.2.1 Step 1: Basic Arrangements

1. Three arrangements for the start: People, Seed Money, Basic Principles
2. Forming a Core Group 1: Leaders
3. Forming a Core Group 2: Working Groups
4. Forming a Core Group 3: Applying the principles to existing organizations
5. Forming a Core Group 4: Sectional organizations
6. Raising Seed Money 1: Through sample cooperative projects
7. Raising Seed Money 2: By cooperative works

5.1.2.2 Step 2: Operation of the Project

1. Principles and standards for selecting projects
2. Planning a project
3. Persuading villagers 1 - Setting a model to villagers
4. Persuading villagers 2 - Encouraging 'you can do it' spirit
5. Collecting consensus 1- Small group meetings
6. Collecting consensus 2- General meeting of villagers
7. Let everybody play a their part
8. Preparing and managing the public property
9. Establishing the local Saemaul Movement center
10. Encouraging 'we are the one' spirit
11. Cooperating with other communities and the government

5.1.2.3 Step 3: Main Stage of the Project

1. Project 1 for living environment improvement: Improving the houses
2. Project 2 for living environment improvement: Eliminating inconveniences in the village
3. Project 3 for living environment improvement: Creating an environment for increasing income

4. Project 1 for income increase: Removing the obstacles
5. Project 2 for income increase: Launching cooperative projects
6. Project 3 for income increase: Commercializing things around you
7. Project 4 for income increase: Introducing new ideas
8. Project 5 for income increase: Modifying distribution system
9. Project 6 for income increase: Operating a factory
10. Consolidating community 1: Enhancing morals and communalism
11. Consolidating community 2: Providing a cultural center and other facilities
12. Consolidating community 3: Establishing a credit union

5.1.2.4 Step 4: Final Stage of the Project

1. Sharing the results and celebrating the success
2. Sharing the long-term prospects
3. Stabilizing of joint funds
4. Encouraging the Activities of sectional organizations
5. Regularizing meetings for technology research
6. Establishing a village hall
7. Publishing a local newspaper
8. Establishing a partnership with other regions and government offices
9. Setting up a sisterhood relationship with foreign countries (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003)

The 42 years old SMU has gone through five main stages explained in Table 6. The stages mentioned below shows that there is generally strong government commitment to the concept as well as the policy and institutional changes associated with it. The latter statement shows a process of readying both community and public authorities for SMU.



Figure 23 some photos of Korean village communities during SMU projects; Source: (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003)

Table 6 the stages of development of SMU movement in Korea; Source: (The National Council of Saemaul Undong Movement in Korea, 2003)

Stage	Priority Projects	Characteristics	GNP per capita (in US dollars)
Foundation and Groundwork (1970-73)	<p>Improving Living environments: Expanding roads inside villages, constructing common laundry facilities, improving roof kitchens and fences.</p> <p>Increasing income: Expanding agricultural roads, improving farmland and seeds, division of labor</p> <p>attitude reform: Fostering diligence and frugality, and cooperative atmosphere</p>	<p>Launching and igniting the campaign</p> <p>Government-initiated activities</p> <p>Top priority on improving living environment</p>	<p>257 in 1970</p> <p>375 in 1973</p>
Proliferation (1974-76)	<p>Increasing income: Straightening rice field ridges, consolidating creeks, encouraging combined farming, operating common working places, identifying non-agricultural income resources</p> <p>Attitude reform: Attitude changes through Saemaul education and public relations activities.</p> <p>Improving living conditions: Improving housing and water supply systems, operating village centers</p>	<p>Expanding program scope and functions</p> <p>Increasing income and changing attitudes</p> <p>Earning national understanding and consensus</p>	<p>402 in 1974</p> <p>765 in 1976</p>

Energetic Implementation (1977-79)	Rural areas: encouraging the construction of more Modern housing, encouraging growth of special-purpose plants, running industrial facilities to combine agriculture and manufacturing. Urban areas: Paving alleys, cleaning, establishing order cooperation and factories: enhancing productivity, conserving materials, promoting sound labor-management relations.	Larger units implementation by developing linkages among villages in the same region Economies of scale Appearance of distinct unit characteristics	966 in 1977 1,394 in 1979
Overhaul (1980-89)	Social atmosphere: Kindness, order, selflessness, Cooperation Economic development: Combined farming, distribution Improvement, credit union activities Environmental activities: Cleanliness, developing parks throughout the country, building better access roads	Reborn as a private sector-organization Enhancing the role division between government and private sector. Escape from inactivity and contraction	1,507 in 1980 4,934 in 1989

SMU have had a wide recognition that led to its application in several developing countries. Examples include Ghana, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Philippines and Sri Lanka. The various achievements exhibited by SMU are structured along three categories;

Economic Development

1. Modernization of Korea's rural sector
2. Increased agricultural household income
3. Eradicated the global stereotypical view of the 'helpless' rural village
4. Improved the agricultural production structure by employing machinery and improving agricultural management

Social Development

1. Raised the standard of life in the rural sector
2. Higher education of the rural population
3. Modernized lifestyles in agricultural households

Attitudinal Changes

1. "Can-Do Spirit," a collective confidence-building effort, was promoted across the country

2. Higher levels of self-help, cooperation, and mutual trust
3. More emphasis was placed on practical benefits, rather than on unnecessary formalities
4. Promoted rational goal-oriented behavior
5. Belief that a better future can be cultivated with our own abilities
6. Progressive and scientific attitudes
7. Fueled expansion of the Korean tradition of helping others²⁷

5.1.3 The applicability of SMU in African Context and Sudan

As compared to other rural development ideologies in Africa (including the Sudanese concept of Nafeer), SMU though shares common characteristics of other government-led mobilization campaigns i.e. Ujamaa Movement in Tanzania; it is not very much inline with Nafeer. The fact that Nafeer is more a community-driven and managed activity set it a part from both Ujamaa and SMU. In other words, both SMU and Ujamaa are bottom-up approaches that had strong top-down support. We argue that this level of support is what is missing in Nafeer-driven participation.

The successful application of SMU in several African countries signifies its applicability in some other international contexts. Yet, in countries that are characterized as having weak governance and government, bottom-up approaches might be the most appropriate development approach. In this regard, though SMU succeeded in many African countries, it might not be appropriate to implement in Sudan without an accompanying Top-down approach assistance and commitment. In this regard we argue that, in order for SMU to succeed in Sudan, SMU need to be delivered through a trusted, yet, far-reaching stakeholder. In this regard, academic institutions seems the most appropriate to do this.

5.2 The Ujamaa Concept in Tanzania

Ujamaa, the Swahili for 'family-hood' was the social and economic policy developed by Julius Kambarage Nyerere, president of Tanzania from 1961 to 1985²⁸. Centered on collective agriculture, under a process called

²⁷ <http://www.saemaul.or.kr/english/saemaulundong.asp>; date accessed May 16th 2012.

²⁸ The period since Tanzania got impence from British colony to 1986.

Villagization²⁹, Ujamaa also called for nationalization of banks and industry, and an increased level of self-reliance at both an individual and a national level (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003).

The Ujamaa Concept was set following Nyerere's development blueprint named as Arusha declaration in February 5th 1967. The objective of Ujamaa was the attainment of self-reliant socialist nation (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003). Nyerere used Ujamaa as the basis for a national development project. The concept was translated into a political-economic management model.

The concept was rooted in traditional African values and has as its core the emphasis on Family-hood and communalism of traditional African societies (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003). The concept was also influenced by Fabian socialism and Catholic social teaching, as stated by Nyerere (1967; 16) Ujamaa was generally based on three main essentials, freedom, equality and unity that are necessary to create the ideal society.

As a result, by the year 1970s there was about 2500 villages that were included and endorsed the Ujamaa concept. The concept was brought to an end by 1985 when president Nyerere stepped down the government.

5.2.1 The Pros and Cons of Ujamaa application in Tanzania

The concept of Ujamaa has been praised for being able to;

1. Increase the level of literacy among the villages population in Tanzania
2. Halved infant mortality through access to medical facilities and education
3. Untied Tanzanians across ethnic affiliation and leadership
4. Left Tanzania untouched by the 'tribal' and political tensions, which affected the rest of Africa.³⁰

Ujamaa has not been implemented without drawbacks. The fact that the concept has been brought to end when the president step-down presidency amplify that the concept was run more by the country leader rather than the system. In other word, the concept was centered on the president character rather than being centered on the administration system. Thus, the sustainability of the concept was not maintained. Ibhawoh & Dibua argue that the concept was more Utopian than practical (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003). They also argues that; Beyond its socialist

²⁹ Villagization (sometimes spelled villagisation) is the (usually compulsory) resettlement of people into designated villages by government or military authorities.

³⁰ Source; <http://africanhistory.about.com/od/tanzania/a/What-Was-Ujamaa.htm>, Accessed May 17th 2012.

rhetoric, Ujamaa shared the same premise and fallacy, of developmentalism³¹ that has propelled and constrained successive development initiative in Africa (Ibhawoh & Dibua, 2003). Others researchers also claim that the concept was very poor in the management side, for instance Transportation networks declined drastically through neglect.³² As a result Industry and banking were crippled, leaving the country dependent on international aid (Ibid).

Ujamaa inspired Tanzania and many other African Countries. Examples are Ghana and Ethiopia. The fact that Ujamaa was strongly based on ethnic relationships and tribalism, might have contributed to its success in Tanzanian villages.

Eventually a number of factors contributed to the downfall of the development model based on the Ujamaa concept. Among those factors were the oil crisis of the 1970s, the collapse of export commodity prices (particularly coffee and sisal), a lack of foreign direct investment, and the onset of the war with Uganda in 1978, which bled the young Tanzanian nation of valuable resources and two successive droughts. By 1985 it was clear that Ujamaa had failed to lift Tanzania out of its poor economic state; Nyerere announced that he would retire voluntarily after presidential elections that same year.³³

5.3 Summary and conclusion

Table 7 compares the two-community participation ideologies studied above in relation to the concept of Nafeer. Table 7 illustrates that as opposed to both Ujamaa and SMU, Nafeer stand out as a social movement that has little public support. In fact we argue that this is the main reason behind Nafeer limited influence in urban areas in which public authorities policies and administration is significantly strong and evident (as opposed to rural area).³⁴ Table 7 shows that both SMU and Ujamaa are bottom-up approaches with strong top-down support. Nafeer also oppose Ujamaa as well as SMU in the fact that their procedures are based on social learning rather than community empowerment. In other words, SMU and Ujamaa produce a typology of village development that

³¹ Developmentalism is an economic theory, which states that the best way for Third World countries to develop is through fostering a strong and varied internal market and to impose high tariffs on imported goods.

³² Source; <http://africanhistory.about.com/od/tanzania/a/What-Was-Ujamaa.htm>, Accessed May 17th 2012.

³³ Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ujamaa#cite_note-lemelle-3, date Accessed May 23rd 2012.

³⁴ In villages and rural areas, native administration is strongly observed.

is encourage by the government through empowering and encouraging citizens to get involved in area development.

Table 7 a simple comparison among different community participation ideologies/policies adopted in other countries.

Type of development ideology	Country of origin	Type of village development program	Program/ideology duration	Technique and approach	Administration typology	Areas of application	Origin of this approach/policy	Notes
Nafeer	Sudan	Social Movement	Unknown, traces are observed since 1827	Community learning	Bottom-up	Rural and less In Urban Areas	Religious	Community-driven with little state assistance.
SMU	Korea	Policy change	Early 1970s to 1998	Community empowerment and support.	Bottom –up with top-down Support	Rural but applicable to urban	Policy change	SMU has been successfully transferred to other developing countries.
Ujamaa	Tanzania	Policy change	1964-1985	Community empowerment	Bottom –up with top-down Support	Strictly applied in Rural areas.	Ideology change + Policy + Religious	Ujamaa was more of policy rather than and ideology. The concept died with the president Nyerere stepping-down government.

Chapter Three;

Community participation Evaluation; a framework

This Chapter signifies challenges observed while conducting community participation evaluation. This part also draws a context-oriented evaluation framework of community participation by which participation activities in the two case studies will be benchmarked against.

Community Participation Evaluation; a framework

1 Introduction

The challenge of finding efficient, yet, reliable community participation evaluation framework has been in the frontline to challenges faced by planners and policy-makers. The necessity of endorsing such framework is generally agreed upon by the work of several community participation theorist as well as practitioners. Among those are (Rowe & Frewer, 2000), (Innes & Booher, 1999), (Innes, 1996) (Aubel, 1993) and (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a).. While the necessity of this framework stems from the lack of agreed-upon criteria to measure the success and failure of any participation exercise, many researches exhibited the difficulties aligned to building community participation evaluation frameworks that can be used efficiently and effectively at different contexts

Indeed measuring community participation is not an easy task. Community participation evaluation requires both an agreed upon “Scale” as well as “a benchmark” of which the quality of participation process can be measured upon. Both of those requirements are very subjective and generally based on people’s culture, level of understanding, timing, homogeneity, and of course the type of projects subjected to the evaluation process. This signifies that finding a common community participation evaluation framework (CPEF) is as difficult finding acceptable criteria of success to the issues identified above. Thus, it would be naïve to downplay both the complicated nature of the community participation as a process as well as the difficulty of attaining efficient and trusted C.P evaluation methodology or a commonly accepted measures of success.

2 The dilemma of community participation evaluation

Evaluation of participation exercises is important for all stakeholders and interested persons in the process itself. In general, the concept of community participation evaluation (CPE) is relatively new. (Laurian & Shaw, 2008) argues that C.P.E emerged in the late 1990s and early 2000 and has not coalesced around agreed on principles or methods. According to this notion, Beierle, 1998 argues that the state of participation evaluation had not progressed. The two statements above support that although C.P has been with us for some time already; it is evaluation is still far behind. As for Beierle, 1998 two decades in C.P.E development were simply not enough to realize significant breakthrough in community participation evaluation process. At this point, (Rosener, 1978) argues that lack of knowledge about participation effectiveness is related to that few actually acknowledge it is complexity. As we agree with Beierle, 1998, we believe that these 20 years were generally enough to point out the major challenges associated with community participation evaluation theoretical aspects as well as its application.

3 The Importance of evaluation, challenges, and evaluation typologies

Conferred with the complicated nature of community participation as well as the frequent changes in the society we can generally identify four main reasons in which the importance of the evaluation can be manifested. The four reasons are

1. Given the frequent failure of C.P practices, their evaluation is thus necessary to improve practice (Chess, 2000). This signifies the importance of community participation evaluation as a necessary step to accumulate knowledge and learns from our previous mistakes.
2. Evaluation in general is an essential step in many planning models. Rational-adaptive planning model for instance makes it necessary to conduct evaluation as part of the planning process itself as a requirement to guide the next step (Kaiser, Godschalk and Chapin as in Beierle Laurian and Shaw, 2008).
3. Applied literature on community participation lacks sound evaluation (Raimond, 2001). This exhibits that this field still needs to be studied and touch. This is very practical of we understand the major problems that evaluation is facing as being still far beyond the community participation itself (see pervious section).
4. The fourth yet more context driven importance is that public authorities in general might not focuss too much in evaluation. Developing new projects might deem more profitable and important than evaluating an implemented project.

4 Challenges and issues with Community Participation Evaluation C.P.E

Concealing divergent, often confusing views related to its meaning, purpose and practice, the word “participation” is very vague and has brought up many controversial and contradicting debates. For instance, (Desai, 1995) stated that; the term “community development” was the word used to represents participation during 1950s and 1960s. In fact, until 1970s, the definition used by United Nations for community participation was actually the same definition of community building, it was until 1979 that United Nation defined participation as “*sharing by people in the benefits of development, active contribution to development and involvement of people in decision making-making at all levels of society*” (UN, 1979; 255). In the same sense, the word “Machizukuri” in japan stands for “community building” (Watanabe, 2007) but it has been widely used to stimulate community participation and involvement. The same dispute goes for the Sudanese words of “Nafeer” and “Fazaa”. The two words though literally means “the collective work done during the war time” but they are widely accepted terms for community involvement and participation (see (Kevlihan, 2005).

The examples above state that measuring participation might be as debatable as the concept itself due to the lack “... of appropriate benchmarking against which the quality of participation exercise might be compared” (Lowndes et al, 1998). In the same regard, Lack of “... definition and criteria of success in participation” as noted by (Laurian & Shaw, 2008) is also regarded as a key obstacle to community participation evaluation. Several scholars and scientists manifested these challenges and obstacles. For instances, Rosener (1981) listed four problems related to evaluation

- First, the participation concept is complex and value laden.
- Second, that there are no widely held criteria for judging success and failure of an exercise.
- Third, that there are no agreed-upon evaluation methods.
- Fourth, that there are few reliable measurement tools.

With regard to all those obstacles, the pursuit of evaluating community participation never stops. In this regard, Conley and Moote, (2003), exhibits three approaches of evaluating collaborative planning practice. The three evaluation alternatives are

1. Comparing the outcome of collaborative decision-making process against its goals.
2. Comparing multiple efforts.
3. Comparing theory to practice.

The three approaches were broad and general in the sense that they shape a general framework which direct to community participation evaluation rather than what should be measured and how.

(Beierle & Jerry Cayford, 2002) explained that there are three types of evaluation of public participation programs, the three types were identified based on

1. How successful public participation is in democratizing agency.
2. How successful public participation is in achieving a set of broad goals.
3. How successful public participation is in achieving specific goals of one or more of the participant.

The difference between Conley and Moote, 2003 and Beierle & Jerry Cayford, 2002 approaches are clear. While the former focus on approaching C.P evaluation from a procedural perspective (e.i the procedure and methods of approaching the evaluation), the latter focus more on the objectives side of community participation (evaluating participation based on how successful it is in attaining certain goals).

Other researchers and theorist i.e. (Chess, 2000; Innes & Booher, 1999) identified two factors that exhibit the focus of participation evaluation, these two factors are

1. The procedural aspects.
2. And the tangible outcomes.

Although the general focus of “practiced” evaluation is towards the procedural aspects (Selin et al., 2000), the two factors are very much interrelated and overlap. Measuring tangible outcomes on the other hand involves comparing predicted-outcomes with the actual ones (Conley & Moote, 2003). The latter approach is generally difficult in developing contexts as predicted program outcome might not be defined or stated, it also takes many years to identify (Conley & Moote, 2003). As a result, the procedural aspects of evaluation seem to be appropriate approach to carryout community participation evaluation within a developing environment.

At this point, we understand that community participation as a complex part of the human behavior that gets influenced by several other external factors. Accordingly, it turns to be harder to define which of those factors contributes to the success/failure of the process. Yet, disregarding the major performance and procedural difference among the three approaches mentioned above, they have agreed that comparing program/project outcome to its goals/objectives are an important type of evaluation (Conley and Moote, 2003). Indeed it is, yet, in situation where program objectives might not, or deliberately do not include participation, it will be significantly difficult to benchmark program outcomes to its objectives. In the same regard, most participation programs are not planned so that goals and objectives are articulated or agreed upon prior to the commencement of the participation activity (Rosener, 1978). The difficulty stated here is also applied to Beierle and Cayford’s three types of evaluation regardless whether those objectives are either broad objective or specific “stakeholder” objectives.

Conley and Moote evaluation typologies expressed the Collaborative Planning conception of community participation evaluation. The concept of “comparing theory to practice” is not new among Collaborative Planning scientist. For instance, (Innes & Booher, 1999) used the same conceptual framework to evaluate consensus building process within the framework of community participation.

In conclusion, challenges and limitations mentioned above signifies that obtaining significantly successful and efficient C.P.E requires overcoming two main challenges those challenges which are related to identifying factors of C.P success are:

1. What to measure?
2. And, how to measure?

5 Evaluation framework, structure and definitions

As stated above, overcoming the challenge of identifying criteria of community participation evaluation (what to measure?) as well as the methodology of evaluation (how to measure?) are the main challenges necessary to deal with.

To overcome the above two challenges we opt to use Albert Einstein philosophical ideals. Einstein explained, *"Our theories determine what we measure..."* (Albert Einstein as quoted in Seng, 1990,p.175). Einstein philosophy/quote provided strong ground for developing community participation evaluation framework that is based on community participation theories. In other words, identifying what need to be measured within the community participation process should be linked to how theories understand the community participation itself.¹

Nonetheless, applying this philosophical approach in developing world might be faced by some typical challenges that are generally associated with conducting research in developing contexts. Such challenges includes but not limited to

- a. There is generally very little literature on C.P in the developing world context.
- b. Accordingly, most of the commonly cited theories of C.P were originated from a western context. Those theories might be incapable of providing clear understanding of human how community participation actually works in Sudan, albeit, they might be interesting to look at.²
- c. Evolving from a development philosophy, participation models applied in many of developing countries are largely influenced by international development agencies. Such example includes participation model supplied and used by organizations such as Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), United States Aid Program (USAID), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ). Although World Bank has adopted some of these techniques in Developing World for quite sometime " i.e. LFA by GTZ", researches in World Bank experience in Third World reported that many of these model failed to grasp reliable results in Third World (Moser, 1989) .

The above limitations implies that our anticipated framework should generally be capable to overcome some of those weakness availed by the context of this research. In this regard, albeit we understand Einstein philosophy

¹ Using theory-driven participation in the community participation evaluation, as it has been also used in 1999 by Innes as well as Laurian and Shaw, 2008

² Many scientists noted the inapplicability of many of the western-based Community participation models in the third world. Among those is Choguill whom described Arnstein Ladder of Citizens` Participation, as "...might not be suitable to understand C.P in developing world" (CHOGUILL, 1996). Another example comes from (Khan, 2011) who noted the difficulty of forming a universally applicable approach that calls for unpacking participation models into local settings ensuring their adaptability and suitability". The two examples mentioned above stressed the importance of developing a contextually oriented C.P.E model.

as applicable and worthwhile, we argue that C.P.E in the Developing World context requires “contextually-driven” measures to be capable of providing efficient results. Lack of theory that is directly related to community participation in developing countries suggests the necessity to invent creative approach of applying Einstein philosophy in that specific context.

Our suggested approach is thus driven by “...rather than using theories that don’t exists in third world; we should look at what constitutes theory”. In other word, in the absence of the theory it self we should look generally at how theories evolved and emerged.³ In this regard, it would perhaps be useful to look at both major articles/researches and projects that are related to the object of C.P in third world, as well as other literature (both published and unpublished) that have touch upon the same issue.

5.1 The structure of our C.P framework

As mentioned earlier, to provide a framework for community participation appraisal we propose a typology that is very much based on the procedural aspects of the evaluations, stranding to the tangible outcomes of community participation. We understand that focusing on procedural aspects of evaluation provide a better chance for all stakeholders to learn from each other while improving the outcomes of the process. Accordingly, our anticipated evaluation framework employed strategy that is built based on “deductive reasoning” of community participation theory and practice, this implies working from general to specific in terms of identifying the most important measurements related to community participation evaluation. Thus, our anticipated evaluation framework is grounded on two main criteria:

- a. Community participation theory
- b. As well as results of researches and experiences in third world. These two factors are thus explained henceforth

a) Community participation theory

Community participation theory and literature is the first reference of our anticipated framework. This includes the study of some of the commonly or generally used C.P theories at the contexts of evaluation. This includes the study and analysis of both the traditional /old community participation theories and ideals e.i Arnstein, Choguil and Turner, 1977, as well as the most recent, communicative turn in planning. The latter includes literature from Innes, Booher, and Conley and Moote, 2003.

b) Results of other researches and experiences on C.P in relation to third world.

This part includes the study of several researches, projects and papers on community participation in developing

³ Please note that the author has no intension to build a theory related to C.P in developing world rather than scanning existing documents.

countries. Literature studied here is varied. This part also includes the study of some practices of C.P in developing world practiced by INGOs and development agencies which share major part of development projects in developing world, some of these NGOs are (JICA, USAID, CIDA and SIDA).

According to the two notions mentioned above we identified and structured literature, theories and practices of community participation as related to major groups; the traditional community participation ideals as well as the contemporary ideals.

As a result of the two criteria previously mentioned, we identify three different categories of literature, theory and projects to be studied. The three groups as well as the articles/papers identified are shown in Table 8.

Table 8 the three categories of literature and theory used to construct our anticipated evaluation framework

Traditional C.P theories and Literature	Third-world oriented Literature	Contemporary C.P literature
Arnstein, 1969	Moser, 1989	Innes and Booher, 1999
Checkoway, 1984	Aubel, 1993	Rosener, 1982
John F. C. Turner, 1977)	Choguill, 1996	Beierle and Cayford, 2002
	Fisher, 2000	Laurian and Shaw, 2008
	Rowe, 2004	Petts, 2004
	Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011	Rowe, 2004
	White, 1996	Kellert, 2000
	Eltahir, 2005	
	Johnsona et al., 2003	

5.2 Synthesis of our C.P framework

5.2.1 First; Traditional community participation theory and literature

This category includes literature and theories that have placed clear footprints in the development of C.P in theory as well as in practice. In general, this part focuses on literature that discussed community participation prior to the 1990th. A part from the frequently quoted article of Arnstein, 1969 “Ladder of Citizens Participation”, this category includes two other well-known researches John Turners’ 1976 book of Housing by People, Checkwoy’s 1984 article of “Two Types of Planning in Neighborhoods”. The extents of how those four articles understand community participation is thus discussed henceforth.

The frequently quoted article of Arnstein’s, 1969 “Ladder of Citizens Participation” has linked citizens’ participation with citizens’ power and control, as the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens,

presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future” (Arnstein, 1969). Arnstein’s ladder signifies that the more power and control citizens have the higher level of participation are likely to occur. The ladder’s eight rungs are grounded into three hierarchical grades of participation effectiveness named by Arnstein as citizen’s power, Tokenism and non-participation (Arnstein, 1969). The least effectiveness-none participation- as per Arnstein’s Ladder includes two rungs; 1) Manipulation and 2) therapy. On the other hand, three types of power relationships describe the highest–most effective- rungs as; 1) partnership; 2) delegated power; and 3) citizen control. These grades are shown in Figure 24.

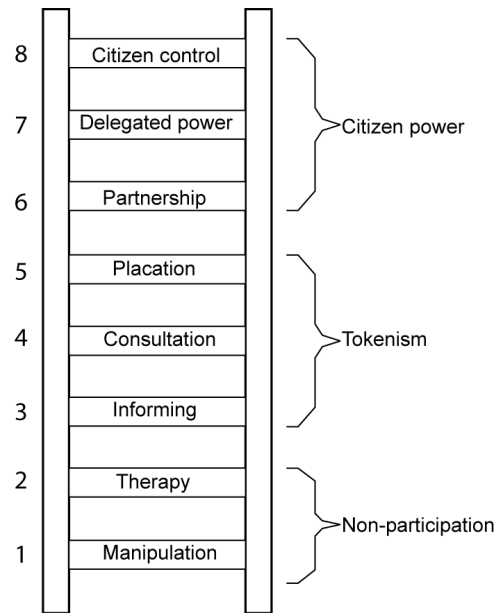


Figure 24 ladder of citizen’s participation. Source; (Arnstein, 1969)

Although we agree with (Choguill, 1996) that the Arnstein's Ladder is not relevant to measure community participation in developing countries, Nafeer (With its two different typologies) responds differently to the ladder. For instance Nafeer as used in legislative planning can actually fits nicely in to the bottom of the ladder at the Non-participation Category (Figure 25). The argument we raised here is also supported by (Ahmed, 2007). In contrast, Nafeer as practiced in villages and in the non-legislative planning shows slightly higher value, but still not to the level of Citizen power category Figure 25.

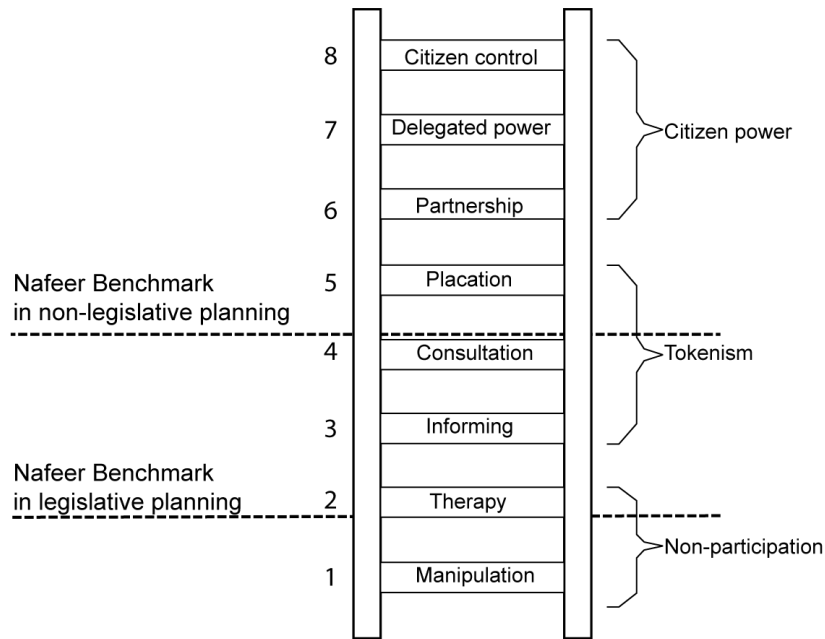


Figure 25 Nafeer benchmark against Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation

Power relationships as explained by Arnstein, 1969 are not secured from state manipulation and domination. In 1984, Checkoway identified two planning models at the neighborhood level in which different participation typologies occurred. The first model, "Neighborhood *Planning Model*", which Checkoway identified as "community based and involves the development of plans and programs by and for the community residents themselves", and the "Sub-area Planning" that "is initiated at the city level and involves the deconcentration of central planning activities" (Checkoway, 1984). While the second model is generally managed and developed by the state, Checkoway claims that the first approach (Neighborhood planning) offers more citizens control over their issues and therefore has better chances of successful meaningful participation.

Having looked at community participation in housing from a perspective of who decides and who provides, Turner noted that the practical problem of citizens' participation is to answer the questions of "Whose *participation? Whose decision? And whose action?*" in a way that fits the participation circumstances (John F. C. Turner, 1977). As Turner's approach suggests the importance of looking at the question of power in community participation in a similar way to Arnstein ladder (whose decision), he has gone further by addressing the importance of looking also at the sphere of stakeholders involved (whose participation) as well as the spectrum of those who take action (whose action). The three factors discussed here do not encapsulate Turner's ideas in participation as much as they represent the most important issues, as he understands.

The three articles discussed above reveals that this groups generally understand community participation as a process that is directly related to the power/control of the participant and their respective capacities. Table 9

summarizes the extent that this group understands the process of community participation.

Table 9 summaries of the how C.P is understood in Traditional C.P theories and Literature

Category	Reference	How C.P is Understood	Methods of participation Evaluation	Evaluation Coding	Comments
a	Arnstein's (1969)	C.P as Hierarchies of power (ladder of participation).	Level of citizen's control.	- Control level.	Better participation results when power is distributed to enable the "not have" to have it.
a	Turner, John (1976)	C.P as a question of "Whose participation, whose action and whose decision".		- Stakeholders (Whose participation). - Control/power (Whose Decision). - Actions (Whose Action).	C.P is understood based on Three dimensions of community participation.
a	Checkoway (1984)	Sub-area planning and neighborhood planning.	Level of citizen's control. Capacities. Ability to influence decisions.	- Control. - Leadership. - Capacities.	Evaluated two types of planning in the neighborhood on how they provides better participation opportunities

Please note that these arrangements provide benchmark but not the measuring scale.

5.2.2 Second; Third world oriented C.P literature

The second group of literature studied focuses on literature of C.P in the third world context. With some minor exceptions, most of these literatures are dated after the year 1990. This raises an argument whether C.P in third-world countries is generally evolved as late as 1990s. The main literature studied in this category are; the famous World Bank report of 1989 by (Moser, 1989), (Choguill, 1996) New Ladder of Citizens Participation, the United Nations experience on community participation based on (Fisher, 2001), (Johnson et al., 2003) work on natural resources management and community participation, (Rowe & Lynn, 2004) article on "Evaluating Public Participation Exercises: A Research Agenda" and (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a, 2011b).

Moser, 1989 report on "Community Participation in Urban Projects in the Third World" provided extensive information and rich experiences of community participation in Zambia, Kenya, Peru and Nicaragua. Based on that report Moser identified several factors that contribute to the effectiveness of community participation process, those factors are identified as

- a) Participants' knowledge
- b) Training of the participants
- c) Social aspects related to the participation process
- d) The projects spectrum of which participation is taking place.

- e) And the level of support the process of participation is getting from public authorities.

Admiring Arnstein ladder as viable in developed world, Choguill, 1996 argues that the Arnstein's ladder "*might not be suitable to understand C.P in developing world*" (Choguill, 1996). Alternatively, Choguill proposed what he named as the "New Ladder of Participation" as a comprehensive way of understanding community participation in developing countries. Likewise Arnstein's Ladder, Choguill's new ladder (shown in Figure 25) is very much hierarchy structured as well as subdivided to groups that exhibits the level of participation practiced in each one of those rungs (steps). In his new ladder, Choguill argues that higher citizens capacities and resources (economical, technical and knowledge-based) yield better participation results.

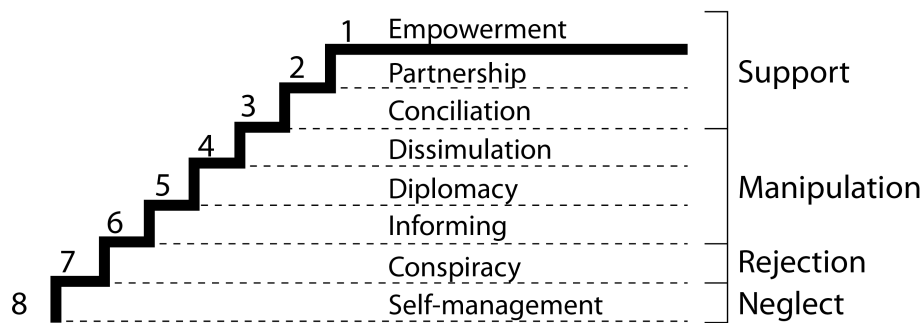


Figure 26 A ladder of community participation for underdeveloped countries as seen in (Choguill, 1996)

Studying participatory program evaluation from a North American perspective, Aubel, 1993 provided a "participatory program" evaluation Manuel to be used by several NGOs and development agencies i.e. USAID and Catholic Relief Services. In this Manuel, Aubel, 1993 introduced an evaluation framework that is very much inspired by the North American educator, Michael Quinn Patton. Patton's conviction that any evaluation exercise should be a learning experience for program implementers. According to this notion, Aubel argues that there are traditionally two types of "participatory program" evaluation, the "blueprint" approach and the "learning process" approach. The two approach as studied by Aubel are generally weighted against four factors including

- a) Purpose of evaluation
- b) Scope of data collection
- c) Data collection method
- d) And responsibility of data collection.

Aubel compared the pros and cons of the two types of the “participatory program” evaluation against the above factors. Unsurprisingly,⁴ Aubel, 1993 considers the second approach “ the Learning Process” as more adequate to achieve better results in both participation evaluation and community development.

Accordingly, Aubel, 1993 presented his “participatory program” evaluation framework. This framework depends not only on Patton’s conviction (see the previous paragraph), but also on 1) The “recent developments in Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Research for Action (PRA) both from the field of rural development” as well as 2) His personal experience in development projects in third world countries e.i Nigeria, Ghana, Senegal, Burkina Faso, etc. (Aubel, 1993).

Aubel’s, 1993 seven steps framework includes a sequence of activities that are necessary to be conducted within the projects cycles ranges from the “Pre–planning meetings” at the beginning of the framework cycle ending with “Finalization, dissemination and discussion of the evaluation report”. The structure Aubel’s, 1993 framework implies that the “participatory program” evaluation should occurs at the very first stages of program development. Thus, it signifies that program evaluation should be benchmarked against the goals specified at the first stages of the program (Aubel, 1993).

Table 10 Aubel’s Blueprint and learning Process approaches to participation program evaluation

	“Blueprint” approach	“Learning Process” approach
Purpose of evaluation	To measure progress relative to program “blueprint”	-To measure quantitative achievements. -To develop lessons learned to be integrated into program plan.
Scope of evaluation	Limited number of variables related to blueprint targets	-Holistic analysis -Additional dimensions, questions emerge through the iterative learning process.
Data collection methods	- Quantitative. ^ Objective assessment.	- Qualitative and Quantitative - Subjective” judgment
Responsibility for data collection	External evaluators and/or program manager	Program stakeholders (program manager and implementer)

(Rowe & Frewer, 2000) stressed that evaluation of participation exercises is important for all parties involved. Accordingly they identified two types of evaluation criteria named as; a) Acceptance criteria and; b) Process criteria

⁴ Since Aubel, 1993 noted that his work is mostly relevant to Patton’s ideas; it was obvious that Aubel, 1993 approach will likely refer to the “Learning process” approach than the “Blue-print approach”. Unfortunately, the approach selected by Aubel, 1993 though provides good learning gains, and it depends on the program implementer to pursue the evaluation. This typology was actually criticized by Whites, 1996 as being too much influence by the view of the evaluators.

The acceptance criteria according to Rowe & Frewer, 2000 includes five criterias identified as; 1) Criterion of representativeness: The public participants should comprise a broadly representative sample of the population of the affected public; 2) Criterion of independence: The participation process should be conducted in an independent, unbiased way; 3) Criterion of early involvement: The public should be involved as early as possible in the process as soon as value judgments become salient; 4) Criterion of influence: The output of the procedure should have a genuine impact on policy; 5) Criterion of transparency: The process should be transparent so that the public can see what is going on and how decisions are being made

The Process Criteria however includes four arrangements named as; 1) Criterion of resource accessibility; 2) Criterion of task definition, the nature and scope of the participation task; 3) Criterion of structured decision making; 3) and Criterion of cost-effectiveness. Each on of those criteria contributes at different magnitude and levels to either the acceptance and or process criteria.

Based on her work and experience in development projects in third world, White, 1996 argued that there are two main ways in which the politics of participation are admitted in development planning. White named the two ways as; a) who participates; and b) at what level. Both of these dimensions as noted by White are very important and essential. The problem “according to white, 1996” is that they do not go far enough. In lending themselves to technical solutions (which is, of course, their attraction), they can again obscure the politics of participation” (White, 1996).

As a result, White developed a framework that distinguishes the various aspects of community participation. White's, 1996 framework was generally based on four factors named as

- a) Form
- b) Top-Down
- c) Bottom-Up
- d) Function.

The four factors are best explained by white's, 1996 words as they aim to “... *move beyond this in drawing out the diversity of form, function, and interests within the catch-all term 'participation'. It distinguishes four major types of participation, and the characteristics of each*” (White, 1996). White further explained those four dimensions as shown in Table 11 by identifying that “The first column shows the form of participation (type of participation). The second shows the interests in participation from the 'top down': that is, the interests that those who design and implement development programs have in the participation of others. The third column shows the perspective

from the 'bottom up': how the participants themselves see their participation, and what they expect to get out of it. The final column characterizes the overall function of each type of participation" (White, 1996).

Table 11 Table 4 White's four factors of participation Source: (White, 1996)

Form	Top-Down	Bottom-Up	Function
Nominal	Legitimation	Inclusion	Display
Instrumental	Efficiency	Cost	Means
Representative	Sustainability	Leverage	Voice
Transformative	Empowerment	Empowerment	Means/End

The criterion "Form" identifies four types of participation that range from Nominal to Transformative. Each type of participation illustrates an increasing level of active participation by the community (Ternieden, 2009). White's, 1996-second criterion "Top-Down" reflects the views of NGOs to the goals and objectives of Community Participation. White's, 1996 has also broken down the "The Top-Down" criterion into four different objectives that also go from legitimation, Efficiency, Sustainability, to Empowerment. The level of community participation increases with each goal/characteristic, ranging from nominal to community empowerment (White, 1996). The third criterion "Bottom-up" identifies the community views to the goals objectives of community participation. Again this group is hierarchically ordered from "inclusion" to the highest level identified as "empowerment". The last criterion is developed by white, 1996 is "Function" which represents the overall function of the "form" of participation identified in the first criteria.

Although there was no clear evidence on white's preferences over the model/s she provided, she seems to favor a bottom-up approach as an evaluation method (Ternieden, 2009). White's claimed preference as well as Aubel's, 1993 approach of community participation evaluation in third world raise and argument whether development projects-oriented community participation generally favor evaluation tools that are done and manage by the NGOs or development agency themself.

Focusing his work on community participation evaluation from a Sudanese perspective, Bahreldin and Ariga, 2011 evaluated community participation in service delivery projects in the neighborhood of *Al-shigla*. Like other researches in this track (Conley and Moote, 2003; Beierle, 1998 and white, 1996), Bahreldin and Ariga stress the important of having a contextual-based community participation evaluation framework that can be effectively used in third world context. They argued that current literature on community participation do not provide enough details of best ways to approach community participation evaluation (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a). Based on studying community participation literature, Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011 provided a framework that is based on four elements which they consider as "*relatively inclusive (not necessarily comprehensive)*" (Bahreldin & Ariga,

2011b). The framework (which was divided later into fourteen subcomponent) is structured in four criteria listed as follows:

1. The first criterion spectrum of stakeholders involved.
2. The second criterion is level of control and acceptance over participation issues.
3. The third criterion is the relationship among stakeholders
4. The fourth criterion is capacities and resources of participants.

Although the framework explained above seems to work well in the case study of Al-shigla, Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011 warn that their framework should not be “ *expected to provide an absolute benchmark for the participation process*” (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a). The explanation provided by them for this statement is that a formula that measure the degree of input of each of the five framework components is necessary to be developed (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a).

Fisher provided a comprehensive toolkit to bridge government-citizens relationship towards working together. In his toolkit, Fisher studied the UN-Habitat experiences with community participation as well as several NGOs and development agencies approaches. As a result, Fisher, 2001 exhibits the importance of both the power and the culture of participation in the process. Fisher also stressed on that; the quality of community participation is related to the level of knowledge and technical skills participants have (Fisher, 2001).

(Johnsona et al., 2003) assessed the impacts of using participatory methods in three research projects in the field of Natural Resources Management. Johnsona et al., 2003 used a mixed method to assess the technological, economic, human and social impacts of incorporating beneficiaries in the research process. In the conclusions, Johnsona et al., 2003 showed that empowering participants was essential for strengthening the human capital of participants. The levels of participant’s capacities as well as their variations are essential to evaluation success.

Eltahir, 2005 has studied community participation in the Sudanese neighborhood of Umbaddah. Focusing her study on the dynamics of community participation i.e. components, activities and resources mobilized, (Eltahir, 2005) concluded that it is essential to improve the capacities and knowledge of various stakeholders involved. The effect of stakeholders capacities and knowledge in the quality of participation in Sudan seem to be addressed in many other researches including but not limited to (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a; Ahmad, 1992; Dennis A. Rondinelli, 1981).

To sum-up this part, Table 12 provides a summary of how the third-world oriented literature on community participation understands the process as well as the evaluation.

Table 12 Summary of the how C.P is understood in third-world oriented C.P theories and Literature

Category	Reference	How C.P is Understood	Methods of participation Evaluation	Evaluation Coding	Comments
b	C.O.N Moser ,1989	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Project scale and empowerment. - Mechanism. - Government support; Funds. - Technical and social aspects. - Level of training. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sphere of project - Knowledge. - Training - Social aspects - Support. 	Based on three case studies from developing World.
b	Choguill ,1996	Hierarchies of both power and empowerment. Capacities	<p>People empowerment.</p> <p>Power relations and control.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants - Capacities. - Power. 	Noted that Arnstein ladder is not feasible in developing world.
b	Aubel, 1993	Evaluation exercise as a learning process by which all stakeholders learn from each other.	Based on two approaches of evaluation, the blueprint approach and the learning process approach.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stage of C.P - Goals of C.P - Empowerment (learning process) 	-
b	Rowe, G. & Frewer, L. J. ,2000	-	<p>Nine Criteria (acceptance & resources):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Representativeness - Early involvement - Independence - Influence - Transparency - Cost-effectiveness - Task definition - Structured decision-making - Resources - Accessibility. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Spectrum of stakeholders. - Stage of involvement. - Capacities. - Communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Differentiate between communication and participation. - Evaluation criteria are two folds: Acceptance. Process.
b	White, 1996	Participation goes beyond the small spectrum of being only about who participate and at what level.	Developed a framework based on four factor noted as form, top-down, bottom-up and function.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participation method. - Goals. 	<p>Form = method of participation,</p> <p>Top-sown = Goals</p> <p>Bottom-up = Goals</p> <p>Function = Method of C.P</p>

b	Bahreidin, 2003	-	Based on four main elements; - Stakeholders involved. - Level of Control. - Relationship among participants. - Participant's' Capacities	- Stakeholders. - Control. - Relationship - Capacities of participants	Based on four element that are later divided to "fourteen sub-elements"
b	Fisher F.L. (2001)	- Question of Power and control. - Quality of participation is linked to Technical Skills and Knowledge.	-	- Power. - Technical skills. - Knowledge.	Exhibits the importance of both power and culture in the participation process.
b	Johnson et al., 2003	-	Stakeholders/users Influence. Social capital and Capacities. Project cost.	- Empowerment - Capacities. - Stakeholders involved.	User participation at all stages of the research process provided useful feedback to researchers.
b	Eltahir M., 2005	Need to look at C.P with regard certain resources: - Financial. - Materials - Knowledge	-	- Capacities - Knowledge	Based on studying C.P itself rather than evaluating participation practice.

Please note that these arrangements provide benchmark but not the measuring scale.

5.2.3 Third; contemporary community participation theories and ideals

The third category, focus at the very recent literature and research on community participation. This category include the major transformation of the planning schools of thought generated by the Communicative turn in planning.⁵Theorist of the communicative planning have built an interesting arguments related to how C.P should be evaluated. In fact, Communicative planning proponents have focused on C.P evaluation much more than other researchers.

The communicative turn in C.P in planning was also accompanied by changes of the conceptual understanding of the evaluation tools. In this regard, theorist of communicative planning & communicative rationality, "i.e. Judith E. Innes and David E. Booher" were the leaders of developing the consensus building and adaptive rationality framework for measuring community participation. The evaluation framework stated by Innes & Booher, 1999 is generally based upon a theoretical perspective. Innes and Booher, 1999 framework was generally grounded on three different, yet, theoretically connected sources identified as 1) The results of the other research and practice

⁵ Some researches are still skeptical about whether a communicative planning paradigm shift had already occurred or not.

in the consensus building, specifically (Innes, 1996, Innes & Booher 1999, Innes et al., 1994); 2) The emerging ideas of complexity science; 3) The concept of communicating rationality (Innes & Booher, 1999). Innes and Booher have translated their community participation evaluation framework into two different criteria;

1. The process criteria and;
2. The outcome criteria.

Within the first criterion (process) Innes and Booher noted that a good consensus building process is one, which meet seven different procedural criteria. The failure to meet any of the seven criteria developed by Innes is seen as not a failure as much as it affects the effectiveness of the process ((Innes and Booher, 1999).

Outcome criteria on the other hand seem to be more complicated than its predecessor as they include nine elements. Innes and Booher further explained that “ *a process which produces more of the desired outcomes is probably better than which achieve fewer*” (Innes & Booher, 1999). Both process as much as outcomes criteria though generally seems to be very much different they share a common notion that is based on their focus on the participants of any community participation process. In other words, stakeholders in both categories are essential factors of evaluation.

In his attempts to reach a reliable evaluation of public participation program in United State of America, Beierle, 1998 stresses that efficient evaluation framework shall be capable of; 1) Identify the strengths and weakness of number of participatory mechanisms; 2) Is “objective” in the sense of not taking the perspective of any one party to a decisions, and; 3) Measure tangible outcomes (Beierle, 1998).

To meet these above objectives, Beierle, 1998 referred to the goals that the evaluation programs are trying to achieve. As a result, Beierle uses what he named as the six “Social” Goals as evaluation framework, these goals as stated by him are:

- a) Educating and informing citizens,
- b) Incorporating public values into decision-making,
- c) Improving the substantive quality of decisions,
- d) Increasing trust in institutions,
- e) Reducing conflict, and
- f) Achieving cost effectiveness.

Beierle, 1998 explains that C.P evaluation that is based on measuring the extent to which participation program objective has been accomplished is not enough. Accordingly he introduces two alternative approach of evaluating participation:

1. The process evaluation which he noted as *"don't examine what participation accomplishes, but what it looks like"* (Beierle, 1998),
2. Interest-based evaluation, which is based on measuring the degree of which stakeholders interests are met.

Favoring the first approach " the social goals ", Beierle, 1998 criticizes the other two approaches (The process evaluation and Interest-based evaluation) as cannot deliver effective evaluation results. For instance, Beierle, argues that, the process-based evaluation as being *"unclear about what aspects of the process are necessary"* Ibid, 1998. He also argued that the Interest-based evaluation would force evaluators *"to determine what parties' demands are more legitimate"* Ibid, 1998.

Although Beierle, 1998 concluded that neither the process evaluation nor the interest-based evaluation can meet the requirements of effective evaluation framework stated earlier, he explains that " there is no "right" evaluation framework", and that the choice of the evaluation approach should be "tailored to the kind of problems the evaluator is interested in and the questions he or she is trying to answer" (Beierle, 1998).

The conclusions drawn by Beierle, 1998 exhibits that the evaluation process is very subjective and that it should be based on the context of which those cases are located. Different cases deem different questions, problems and challenges that might be hard to be replicated in other situations.

In his evaluation of community participation in waste management in Hampshire, (Petts, 1995) provided an appraisal of the effectiveness of the community participation. For the purpose of this appraisal, Petts, 1995 uses five criteria to measure the effectiveness, these criteria are

- a) Representativeness of participants.
- b) Effectiveness of methods used.
- c) Compatibility with participants' objectives.
- d) Degree of awareness and knowledge.
- e) Impact of the program on the decision process.

Petts also mentioned "a sixth criterion relates to the cost effectiveness of the process" (Petts, 1995), yet it was not felt appropriate to assess this until the full process of decision-making is through.

In his conclusions, Petts, 1995 stresses that effective public involvement is about citizens' empowerment. In this sense, the higher those citizens' are empowered, the better public involvement results are foreseen.

Judy B. Rosener, 1981 tested what she referred to as the “user-oriented” evaluation approach. Rosener’s, approach was based on micro analysis⁶ illuminates in the participation expectations of participation groups (Rosener 1981). As much as Beierle, 1998, Rosener, 1981 noted that, to generate reliable data it’s necessary to have clearly stated participation goals and objectives (Rosener, 1981).

The main contribution of the “user-oriented” evaluation approach as stated by Rosener lies on its ability to “*tell us who wins and who loses, and it identifies areas where conflict is difficult to resolve*” Rosener, 1981. Based on Rosener’s description of the main contribution of the user-oriented evaluation, it is obvious that her approach stands out in both the process of analyzing consensus building and/or spectrum of stakeholders and their relationships. In this regard, similarities can be traced between the User-oriented evaluation developed by Rosener, and the interest-based evaluation method identified by Beierle, 1998. The strength and the general focus of both approaches focus on providing information on whether participants’ goals and objectives were met.

In the search of efficient community participation evaluation approach, Laurian & Shaw, 2008 argue that “Although planning academics and practitioners understand the importance of participation and know that participatory processes often fail, the field of participation evaluation lags behind” (Laurian & Shaw, 2008). Having surveyed 761 geographically represented practicing planners all over USA, Laurian & Shaw explore how often, why and how planners evaluate participation in practice.

Laurian & Shaw’s 2008 study respondents identified several evaluation methods that are frequently used by them to evaluate projects, the spectrum of projects evaluated ranges within land use planning, transportation, housing, community facilities, environment, etc.

Results of Laurian and Show’s 2008 study show that, the focus of participation evaluation conducted by respondent ranges within three typologies named as

1. Participants' satisfaction (surveys)
2. Assessment of process
3. Assessment of outcomes

According to those typologies, Laurian and Show identified eight criteria, which were commonly used by their respondents to assess the success of participation in their daily practice. The eight criteria are

1. Increased understanding
2. Consensus reached/arrival at decision

⁶ Analysis typology that focuses at Local-level Studies.

3. Participant satisfaction
4. Increased trust among participants
5. Solution identified is workable, can be implemented
6. Attendance
7. Smooth process, little conflict
8. Number of responses

As a summary of their study, Laurian & Shaw proposed a typology of theory-driven evaluation criteria. The criteria used are derived from multiple possible goals of participation (Laurian & Shaw, 2008). The typology includes; 1) process-based goals as mutual learning and to strengthen democratic process; 2) outcomes-based goals; 3) user-based goals such as participant's satisfaction of other goals defined by them. Laurian & Shaw, 2008 expanded on Rosener's argument that participation formats should be selected based on the goals of participatory processes. As a result they added, "*Evaluation criteria should also be derived from the goal(s) of each participatory process*" (Laurian & Shaw, 2008).

In conclusion, although Laurian and Shaw 2008 recommended that current and future planners should encourage participation evaluation in planning curricula, they noted that, lack of resources for evaluation is another barrier to evaluation. This barrier is definitely more severe in developing countries where budgetary constraints are clear and more imminent.

The study of Community Natural resources management (CNRM) approach by Kellert et al., 2000 provides an interesting cross-cultural approach of evaluating C.P. Using case studies range from Kenya, Nepal, and USA, Kellert, et al assessed CNRM in the three countries. Data collection though was different among the three case studies (Kellert et al., 2000) , the results were generally applied to all of them. Kellert, et al listed four factors as to improve the quality of participation. These factors are 1) Equity among stakeholders; 2) Empowerment of the various actors; 3) Conflict resolution; 4) and Knowledge and awareness of participants. At the conclusions, Kellert, et al., 2000 recommended emphasis in institutional building as well as education to improve the CNRM.

To conclude this part, a summary of how community participation and participation evaluation is understood is shown in Table 13

Table 13 Summary of the how C.P is understood in contemporary C.P theories and Literature

Category	Reference	How C.P is Understood	Methods of participation Evaluation	Evaluation Coding	Comments
C	Innes and Booher	Framework based on 1. Researches on consensus building 2. Emerging ideas of complexity science. 3. The concept of communicative rationality.	Based on two Criteria: a. Process criteria b. Outcomes criteria	- Stakeholders - Goals of participation - Results of the participation	Process and criteria affects the quality of the participation.
C	Beierle and Cayford, 2002	C.P as Umbrella encompass diverse definitions includes: 1. Who the public is? 2. How public is represented? 3. Why public is involved? 4. What public is involved in?	Social Goals of informing the public, incorporating public values in decisions, improving the quality of decisions, and increasing trust in institutions.	- Decision-making. - Consensus/trust. - Education. - Stakeholders. -Incentives of participation. - Cost effectiveness	Evaluation based on three categories: - Contexts. - Process. - Results.
C	Petts ('1995)	-	- Representativeness - Effectiveness of method process. - Compatibility with objectives. - Degree of awareness. - Impact on decision process. - Cost effectiveness.	- Spectrum of stakeholder's. - Method of involvement. - Knowledge. - Capacities. - Objectives of participation.	Evaluation of community participation in waste management.
C	Rosener, J. B. (1982)	User oriented evaluation.	Reference to participation Goals and objectives.	- Goals. - Objectives	- Evaluation based on participation goals. - Citizen's motivation is important for better evaluation.
C	Laurian and Shaw, 2008	Based on open-ended questions to planning practitioners.	Theory driven evaluation criteria. Criteria based on participation goal. The balance of exchanges between agencies and citizens and power sharing is necessary.	- Learning /education - Goals and outcomes - Participants satisfaction	- Participation as center of evaluation. - Evaluation based on objectives - Process and outcome evaluation are separate. - Formal and informal tools are necessary to be used.

c	Kellert, et al. , 2000	-	Equity; Empowerment; Conflict resolution; Use of knowledge; Bio diversity protection.	- Equity - Empowerment. -Knowledge /capacities.	Based on natural resources management.
b / c	Rowe, G. & Frewer, L. J. , 2000	-	Nine Criteria (acceptance & resources): - Representativeness - Early involvement - Independence - Influence - Transparency - Cost-effectiveness - Task definition - Structured decision- making - Resources - Accessibility.	- Spectrum of stakeholders. - Stage of involvement. - Capacities. - Communication	- Differentiate between communicati on and participation. - Evaluation criteria are two folds: Acceptance. Process.

To recap this review, the results of the three typologies of literature reviewed are shown in Figure 27. Figure 27 provides a good understanding of how the different literature translates the concept of community participation and participation evaluation. According to this Figure was can notice that traditional community participation evaluation was generally based on four factors (level of control, the leadership, capacities of participants, power practiced and the spectrum of stakeholders).

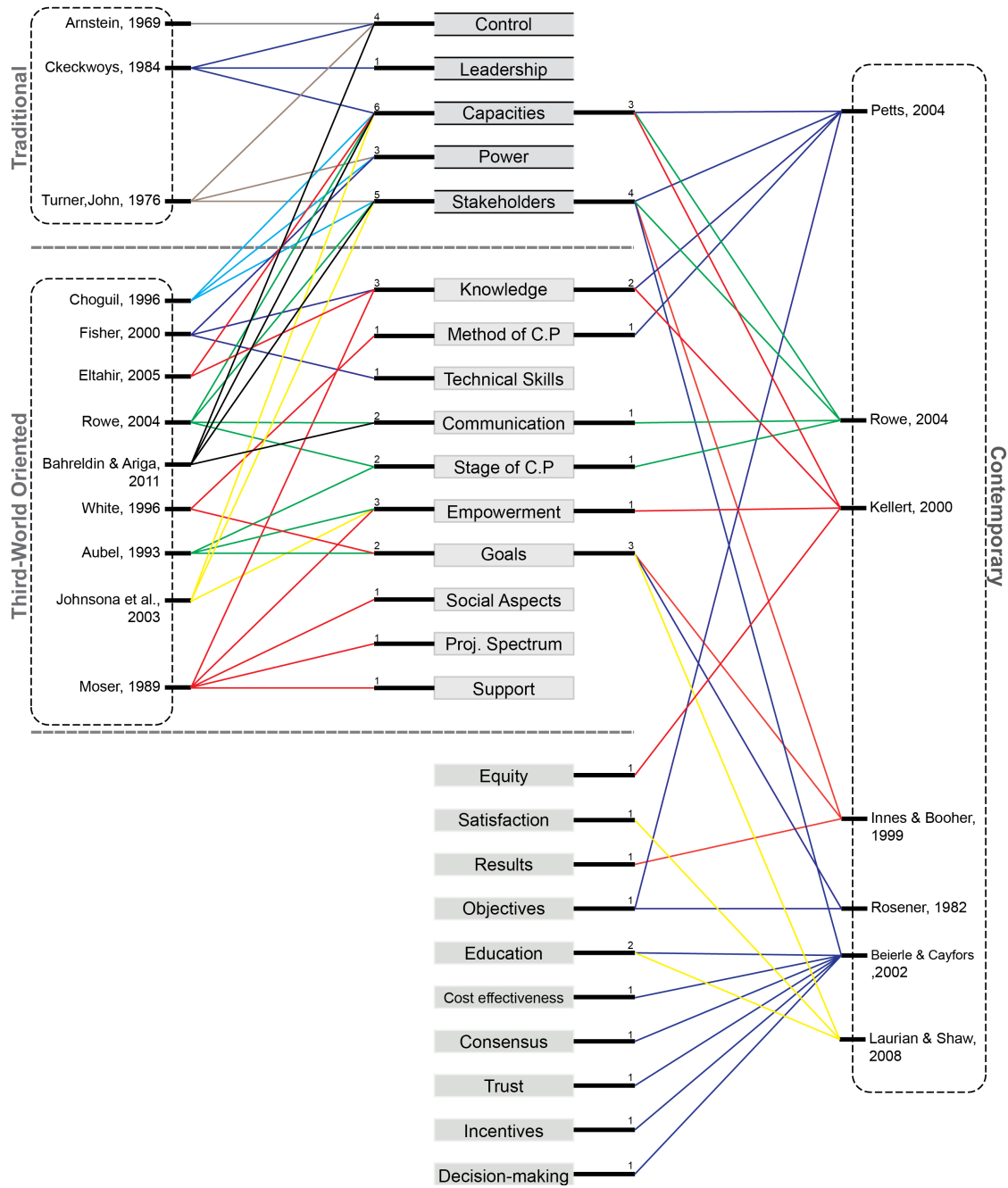


Figure 27 the spectrum of evaluation provided by different literature studied.

Figure 27 also show how each one of these three categories contributed to the community participation evaluation. For instance the contemporary literature in C.P though have added many new themes to be considered for better evaluation of participation exercise, they are far of being agreed upon by many scholars. The high level of frequency traditional as well as third world oriented literature generally hypothesize that factors of evaluation in these two typologies are generally agreed upon as oppose to the third category.

Figure 28 also states that the most common two feature used for evaluation among the literature reviewed are evaluation that is based on evaluating the spectrum of stakeholders participated as well as their capacities

(technical, financial, etc.). The latter statement confirms that although collaborative planning theorists claims that there has been a paradigm shift in community participation at the beginning of 1990s, the community participation evaluation tolls did not change.

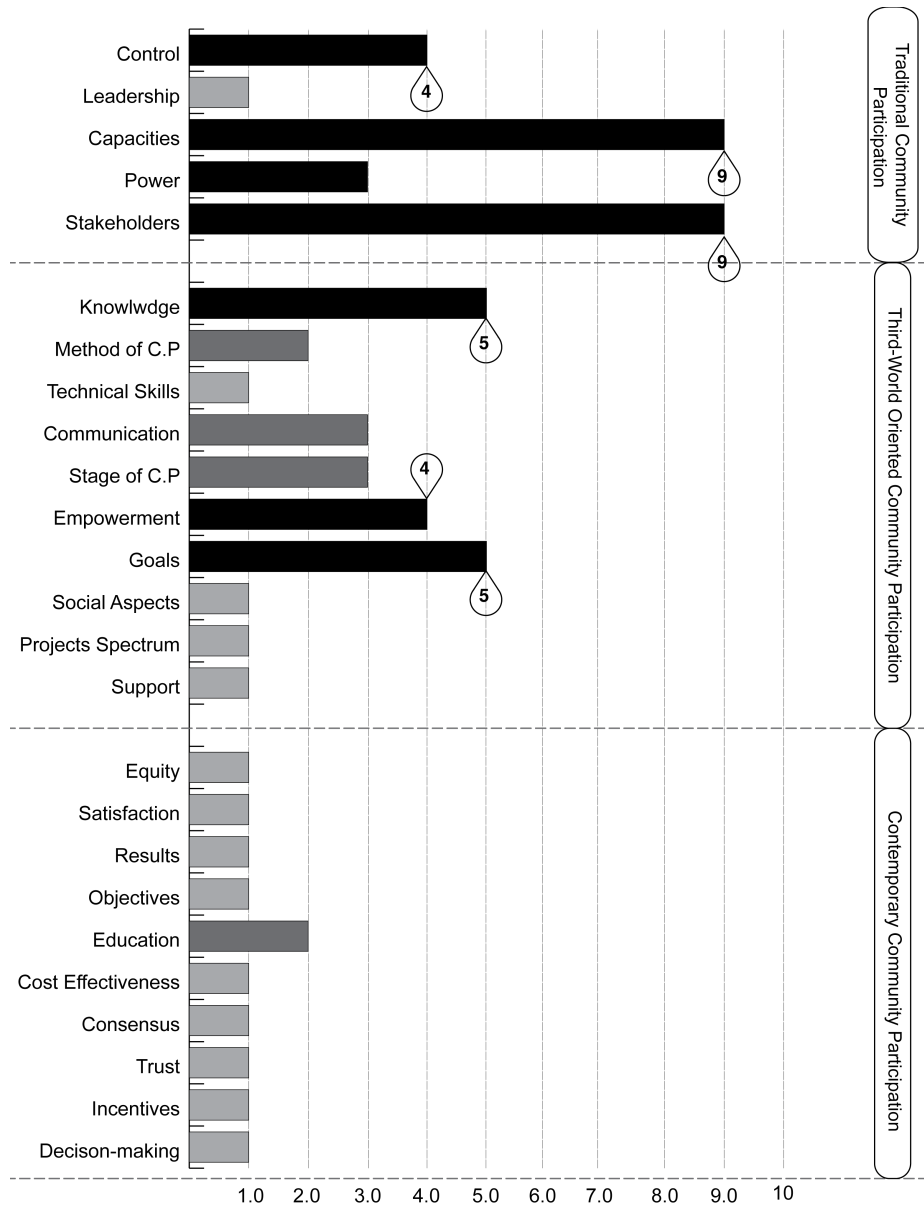


Figure 28 Breakdown of each literature category on the development of participation evaluation agenda

Capacities and spectrum of stakeholders involved seems to be a common major criterion for evaluating C.P among the three groups. These two criteria get the highest frequency among the three categories.

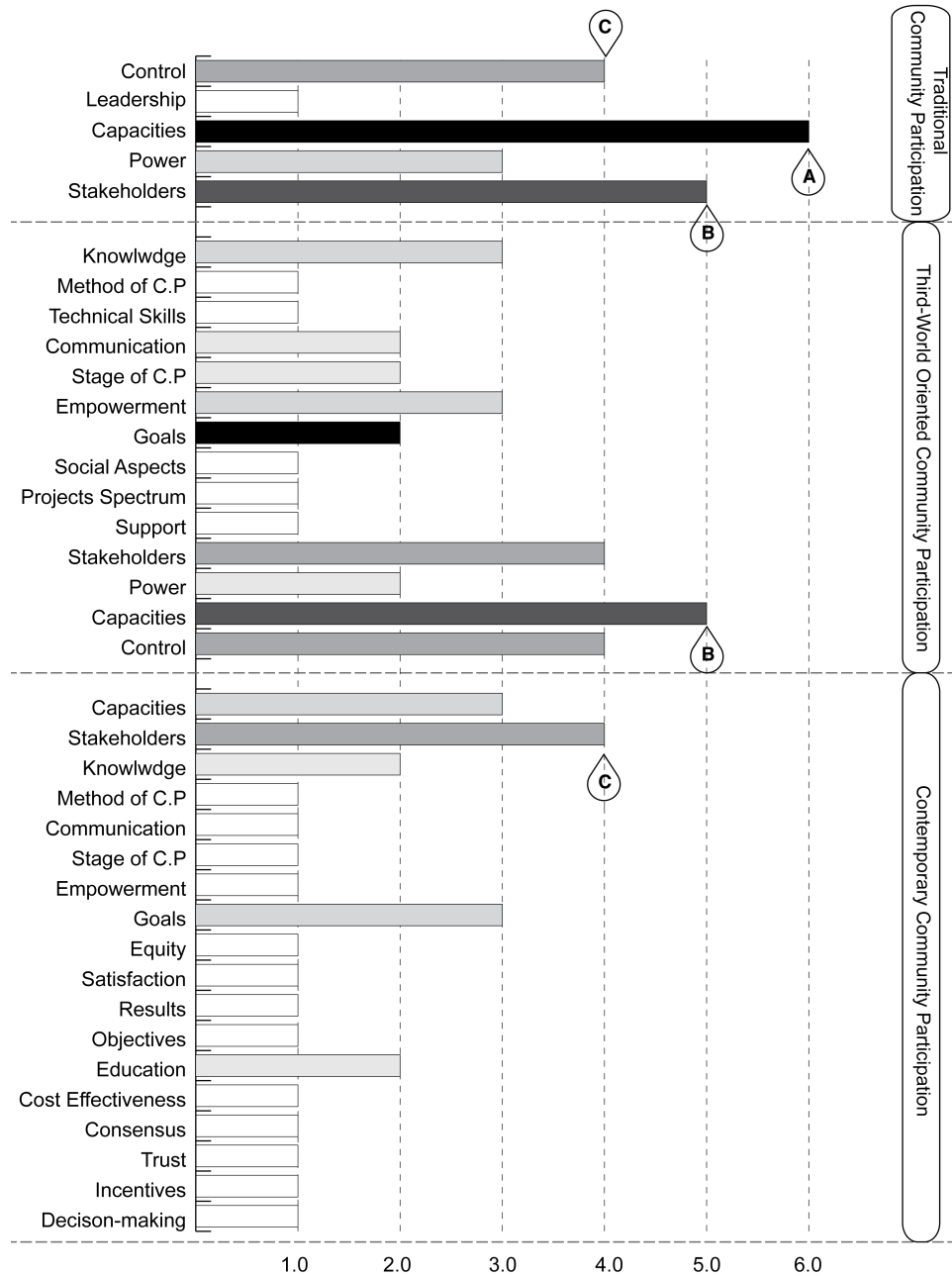


Figure 29 breakdown of each literature category on the development of participation evaluation agenda

Although Figure 28 shows the highest and the most commonly used evaluation agenda among the three categories of literature, it would be naïve to focus on the highest values as the most important issues. The reasoning for this is that this diagram represents only a sample of thousands of articles that studied this process. Thus the “Sprit” of the agenda should be more considered than it’s frequency. In addition, the highest values observed are accumulated through a period of forty years. The general trends of evaluation used in each time period i.e. traditional community participation might not necessarily be valid for the others i.e. contemporary, the above statements is actually proved by Figure 29.

To overcome this limitation we suggest looking at the spirit and the deep meaning of each evaluation criterion/agenda exhibited in Figure 26. Grouping the similar agendas under one large meaning /criterion yield general understanding of the concept behind the agenda rather than its specific purpose (generality versus specialty). Figure 29 shows the rearrangements of the same criteria /agendas exhibited in Figure 27 according to the above statement. As results, we can observe that six categories of general themes of evaluation. These themes encompass the understanding of community participation / evaluation as;

1. A mean to enable people to influence decisions and have more control over their issues (level of control).
2. A process that its efficiency and criteria of success depends on the participant's capacities (technical, knowledge, economical as well as cultural capacities).
3. To ensure good communication among stakeholders at different projects stages.
4. As an issue that is very much linked to the participants culture as well as their understanding of the ethics of working together.
5. A tool to involve a wide spectrum of stakeholders in the process as well as a tool being used in large spectrum of projects.
6. A process that is evaluated/conducted and managed according to its goals and objectives.

As we stated earlier in this chapter, our focus in our anticipated framework will be on the procedural aspects of community participation rather than the objectives oriented approaches. Hence, the six category of our subdivision in Figure 29 will not be included in this evaluation.⁷

⁷ Although we believe that it might be interesting to look at how objectives-based criteria influence the evaluation results, our research boundaries limited us to focus on the procedural aspects.

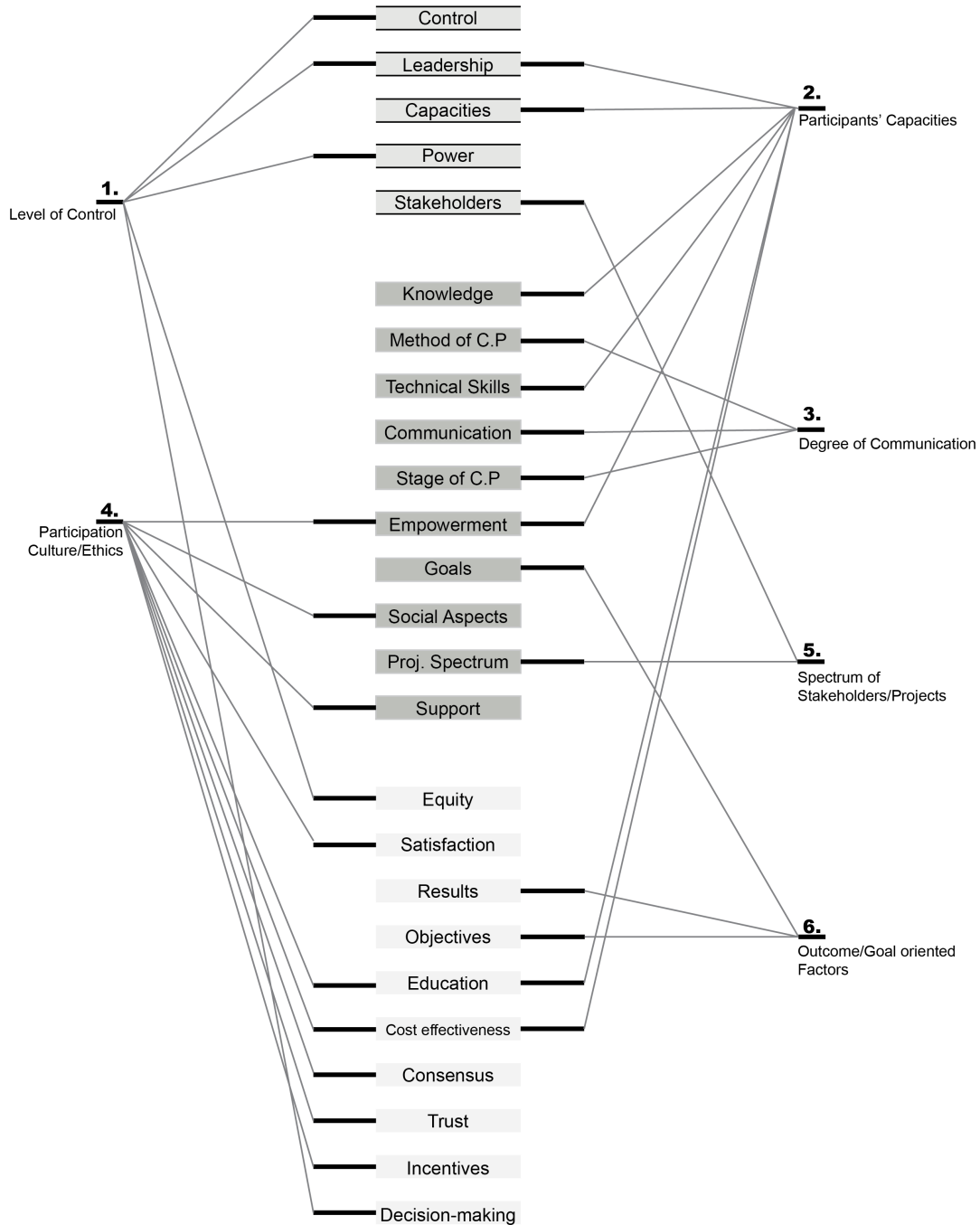


Figure 30 the six elements of evaluation based on literature studied

The six criteria showed above constitute a framework that we believed to be capable of providing reliable, relatively inclusive (not necessary comprehensive) evaluation framework for community participation in both case studies of Al-shigla and Al-salama.

Thus the five-element framework or criteria of success shown in Figure 30 will be used henceforth as our evaluation benchmark of which the participation quality of the two case studies will be benchmark against.

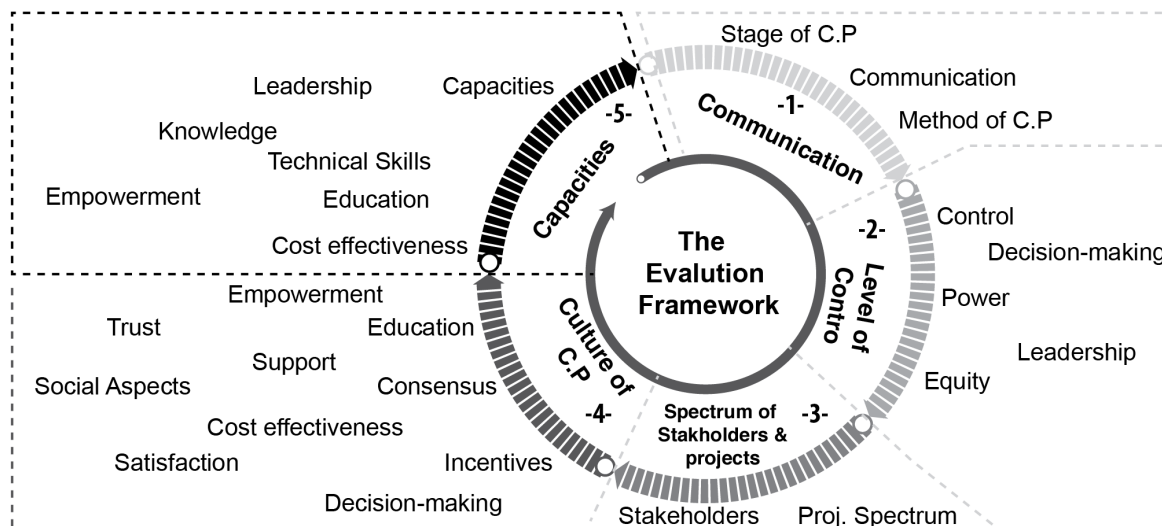


Figure 31 the five-element evaluation framework as composed from literature and theories studied

We believed that our framework developed is general enough to fit a wide variety of participation efforts i.e. our case studies in Al-shigla and Al-salama, yet it also provides space for identifying the differences among the case studies. We also think that this framework can fit easily into the three factors identified by (Beierle, 1998).⁸

6 Limitations of this framework

While this framework recognizes the spirit as well as the strengths of each of the articles of the literature reviewed, it suggests that the framework elements are very much intertwined/overlap each other rather than distinctive elements. This is evidence in Figure 27 where one criterion might belong to one or more general framework.

One of the expected limitations with this framework lies on its Composition. Very little contextually based literature was used in its construction and development. This means that, theory and hypothesis drive this framework much more than real practical projects. The limited number of third-world oriented community participation evaluation literature drives the limitation observed here. Nonetheless, limitation hypothesized here can only be testified through the actual application of this framework in real case studies. This application will be the subject of the next two chapters.

While implementing this framework we also need to understand that the special nature of each case study, implementing the framework does not necessary means encapsulating participation issues in the case studies within the five-framework elements. Understanding this will provide possibilities of evaluating the evaluation

⁸ Beierle, 1998 identified three factors necessary for the success of any evaluation framework, those factors are; 1) The framework should be able to identify strength and weakness of different participatory mechanism; 2) it should be objective and; 3) it should measure tangible outcomes.

framework itself through a parallel intangible factors analysis and evaluation.

7 Conclusions

The framework we propose here provides several factors of success and being comprehensive as well as localized. It is also flexible in the sense that it utilizes the spirit of the evaluation factors rather than their specific meaning (which might change over different case studies as well as time). Even if we succeeded on bridging the gap availed by the absence of efficient CPEF as noted by (Beierle, 1998), the challenge we will be faced with is how to evaluate the intangible factors of the C.P, which are essential parts of the complicated human behavior issues. This implies that it might be necessary for efficient C.P.E to go through two parallel procedure of evaluations;

1. The tangible factors-based evaluation (procedural evaluation). In this category we believe that our suggested five elements framework will efficiently function.
2. The intangible-based factors. Which are not easily foreseen, documented and not easy to trace. The sort of factors exhibited here are the ones that can only be revealed through extensive and in-depth studies i.e. case studies approach.

In general, the second approach is very difficult to achieve, as it does not have any benchmark or criteria of success. The approach depends very much on hidden socio-cultural values among the communities evaluated. At this point, as we will strongly depend on our framework for the evaluation purpose in the two case studies, the intangible approach will be used to cross check the vitality and efficiency of our developed framework of evaluation.

At this point, we understand that “ *there is no right or wrong evaluation framework, the choice of approach should be tailored to the kind of problem evaluator is interested in and the questions he or she is trying to answer* ” (Beierle & Jerry Cayford, 2002). Thus we are not expecting this framework to fit perfectly with all case studies in developing countries, nor in Sudan. Contextual differences still play a lead role in defining the appropriate method of evaluation. Yet, we believe that our framework is generally capable of providing the

1. Context-independent and;
2. Case study-sensitive evaluation framework

The above two characteristics are needed as standard benchmark of community participation evaluation. Nonetheless, we should observe this framework as comprehensive and applicable in the other contexts.

Chapter Four;

Al-shigla Case Study

This part provides further detailed investigation of the community participation in the first case study of Al-shigla.

Basic information about the case study, research design as well as the approach was also described in this section.

Al-shigla Case Study

1 Section One; back ground of Al-shigla case study and location information

1.1 Introduction

Al-shigla adjoins the west bank of the White Nile south of Omdurman province, the area is quite old, some people we interviewed claim that the area has been there for more than 300 years,¹ yet, the Sudanese modern history knows Al-shigla as the point where the “*MAHADI*” forces has crossed to Khartoum in 1885, leading to failure of the Egyptian Government and the inauguration of the first national government in the country. The name of the area “Al-shigla” comes from the local name of the *Acacia tree (Shigil)* that dominated the area. Locals used the *Shigil* trees to build fishing boats.² Having a long history of settlement, the traditional land administration system (until recently) was dominating. The existence of some tribes like *Gawama*, *Gomoeia* and *Kawahla* strengthen the traditional land acquisition system (*Al-Hiaza*). Yet, this system is diminishing as its giving its space to the modern land-lease base ownership with the government attempts to re-plan the area. Favored with the traditional extended family structure, the area is very densely populated, with very little access to basic service and bad environmental and road conditions. Being next to the water has created the hazard of flooding that strike quite often flattening many houses to ground. Poverty, In-sufficient water supply, power shortages, transportation inefficiency, garbage collection and disposal, poor vegetation and green covering are among the challenges that the area is facing now.

Located some 7 Km from the Centre of Khartoum (the capital), and some 3km from the newly planned business and financial neighborhood in Omdurman has given the area some extra importance specially that it borders the arterial road to the New Khartoum Airport. This road also connects Al-shigla to the main bridge crossing to Khartoum. Although the area is classified as a rural area, it represents a natural extension of its urban neighborhood *Abu-Seied*. In fact, administratively, both Al-shigla and *Abu-Seied* belongs to the same district administration office (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a).

¹ H. El-nasri and M. A. El-omdua, 2009

² According to Mr. M. A. El-omdua, fishing was the main income generating activity in the area.

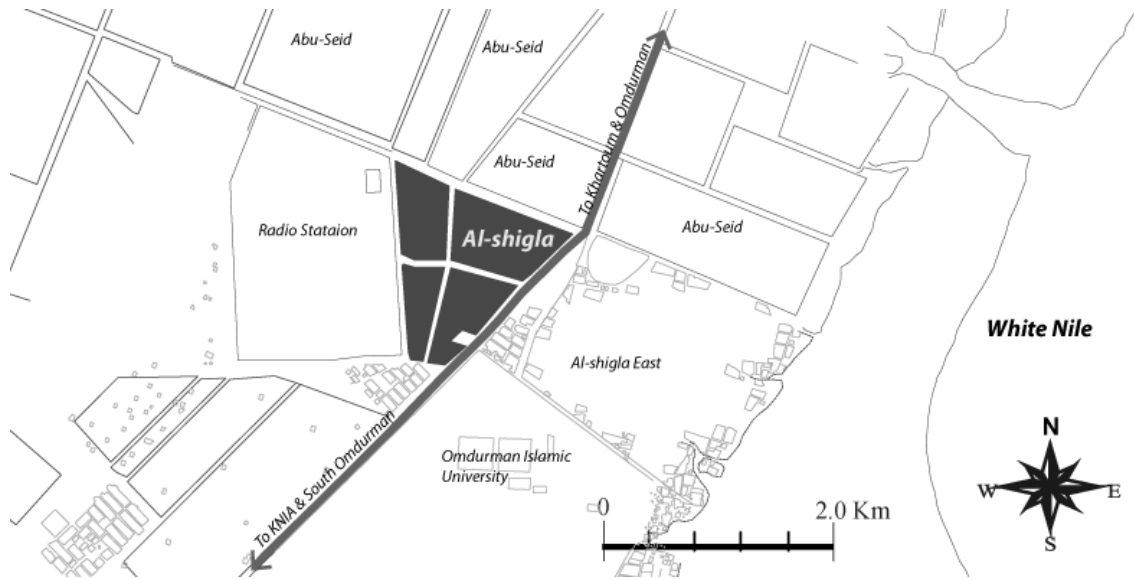


Figure 32 location of Al-shigla case study and its surroundings

Several socioeconomic and policy changes contributed to shape the current physical and cultural character of Al-shigla. The change from the traditional planning that is empowered by Nafeer to the current government dominated planning took about ten to fifteen years. Some of the factors that promoted these changes include the Peoples Committees act of 1992, the new Khartoum structure plan of 1990 and the National Comprehensive Strategy NCS 1992-2002. The changes above did not only change the administration structure in the area but also the physical settings and the cultural values. Figure 33 exhibits some of those major changes and milestone in the change process.

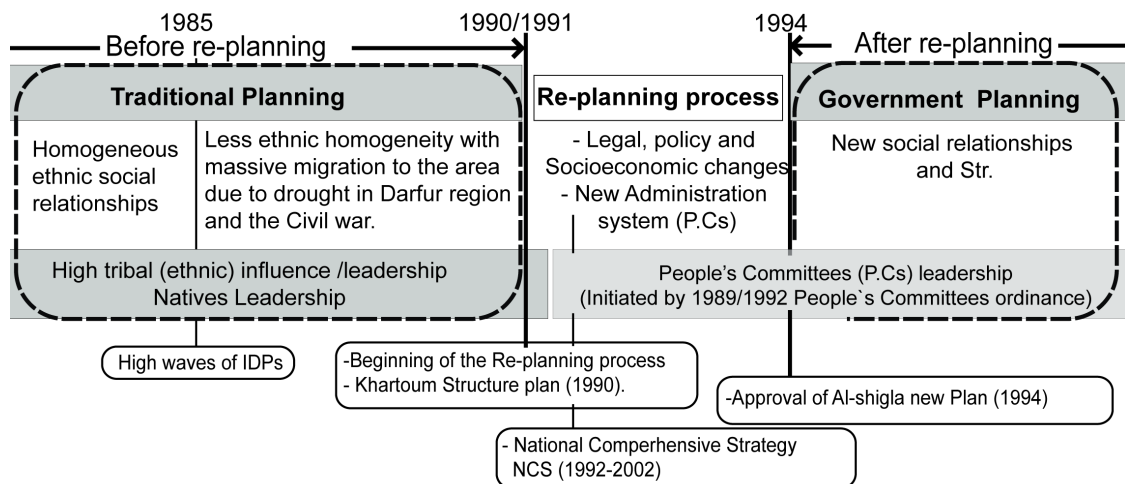


Figure 33 some of the major socioeconomic and policy changes contributed to the change in Al-shigla

1.2 The significance of Al-shigla case study

Two main factors contributed to the significance of Al-shigla. The first and the foremost general is that Al-shigla and its neighbor "Abu-Seied" are priority in most of the Master/ structure plans in Khartoum since 1970s. Both the

previous Greater Khartoum Structure plan (1990-2001) and the most recent Khartoum Structure Plan 2008-2033 consider Al-shigla as a key development Area. Although the area has gone through three previous re-planning attempts, Al-shigla is still troublesome and ill serviced.

The second reason, which directly feed into the uniqueness of the area, is that the area share the same characteristics of other sub-urban neighborhoods surrounding the capital region, such characteristics includes but not limited to; 1) having a homogeneous population; 2) ill serviced with poor environmental conditions; 3) having a good number of citizens' initiated projects.

The area is also one of the oldest villages in the capital region, thus both *Nafeer* and modern legislative planning arrangements can be observed there, this makes Al-shigla a unique comparison-based case study.

1.2.1 Population characteristics in Al-shigla

Population of Al-shigla is characterized by being very homogeneous. Some ethnic groups such as *Gawama*, *Gomoeia* and *Kawahla* dominate the area. Nonetheless, the speed of demographic change is rapidly accelerating. In 1960s the area became more heterogeneous as several displaced migrants from the drought-hit region of Darfur settled in the area (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a). The period of citizens' residence in Al-shigla signifies the general homogeneity in the area. Most of the settler are reportedly living there for at least 30 years (Bahreldin, 2009a).

Data of population characteristic in Al-shigla case study are very limited. The 2008 population census estimated Al-shigla total population as 14.608 inhabitants. This number is distributed in Al-shigla as follows;

Table 14 Population of Al-shigla case study

Area and Block Number	Population in thousands
Al-shigla West block 1	3.488
Al-shigla West block 2 North	3.523
Al-shigla West block 2 South	2.272
Al-shigla West block 4	1.462
Al-shigla West block 3	3.863

Average population density (arithmetic density) of the Al-shigla West is 6,181 residents/Km² Inhabitant / Km² (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011a). This figure is much higher than the average of the capital region estimated at 6.013 Inh. /Km² (Eltayeb, 2002).

1.2.2 Physical problems

Several challenges and problems are recently observed in Al-shigla. These problems can generally be summarized as follows

- a. Lack of open spaces and green coverage. Open spaces in Al-shigla covers less than 0.12 per cent of the total area of Al-shigla (see Figure 35 and Table 15).
- b. Few poorly distributed social services with very low community capacities.
- c. Poor environmental conditions coupled with poor surface drainage, garbage collection and lack of greenery (see Figure 34).

Some of the socioeconomic and ethnic related challenges include

- a. The high level of poverty in the area, which is generally estimated as 72 per cent of the total population (Bahreldin, 2009b).
- b. High level of unemployment rated as 29% per cent of the population (Bahreldin, 2009b).
- c. A low level of education also accompanied the above challenges. Literacy level is generally estimated at 31 per cent of the population.
- d. Other challenges includes the large household structure that was estimated between 7-9 persons (Hadiya, 2008)



Figure 34 Some of the major challenges and problems observed in Al-shigla

1.3 Descriptive analysis of the existing situation (features)

1.3.1 Land use in Al-shigla

Al-shigla is generally a housing neighborhood with very few in-house shops and services. The land use map of the area (Figure 35) states that the level of urban services and facilities is generally poor. Lack of green and open

spaces is observed. There are three markets that serve Al-shigla. The *Al-laffa Suk*, which is the old market located in the Northeast corner of the village. This market, which used to be the largest animal market in the south of Omdurman, is characterized as being dominated with supermarkets, restaurants and service functions. The second market (*Suk Al-nus*) is the largest. It functions as a market as well as a main hub for buses heading to the south part of the city. The third and the smallest market is named as the Inner Market (*Al-suk Al guwani*). This market only function in the morning and provides daily family needs.

Houses layouts in Al-shigla are characterized as single stories, which have one-to-two doors leading to male and female domains respectively. The *Hush* and *Daywan* are generally separated based on male –female domains. Mud or “Galoos”, and brick constituted the building material for most of the houses. Concrete is also used but mostly in the plots facing the major access street in which multi-story buildings are observed. The types of building materials used for construction signify citizens’ poor income level.

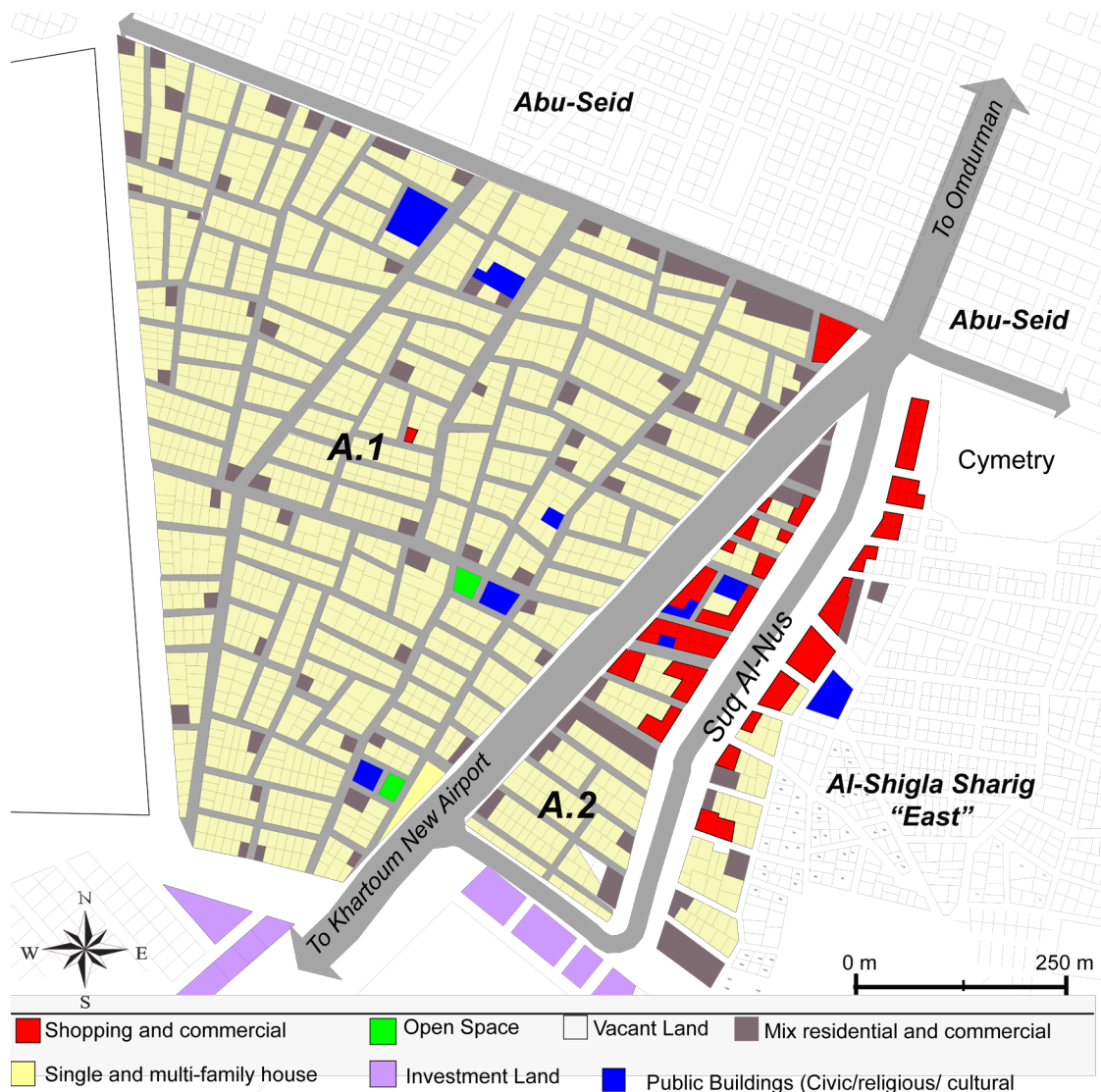


Figure 35 Land use map of Al-shigla as per the field survey in 2009; A1 defined Al-shigla west while A2 identifies Al-shigla Wasat.

A part from the housing activities, nine types of built spaces can be identified in Al-shigla. This includes but not limited to the Schools, Mosques and health facilities. The numbers and the distribution of most of those services is generally not enough and do not express the number of population serviced. Our field survey identified quite few public schools and private kindergarten. There is one primary health care unit PHCU that serves the entire population. Religious buildings (Mosques) are generally well distributed but quite small for the number of people serviced. Three mosques are observed. There is neither club nor community center in the whole area. Thus streets are generally used for several functions including public meetings other festivities.

Table 15 Percentages of Land uses in Al-shigla case study (based on Al-shigla West)

Divisions	Area	Percentage
Education	850	0.16%
Shopping and Commercial	1350	0.25%
Single and Multi-family housing	412685	77.21%
Mix residential and commercial	750	0.14%
Open Spaces	1000	0.19%
Green spaces and Parks	0	0.00%
Public buildings (Civic and religious)	2470	0.46%
Streets and roads	103413	19.35%
Industrial/Work	12000	2.25%
Total	534,518 Sq. m	100.0%

Table 16 Type of built spaces in Al-shigla (based on Al-shigla West)

Type	Al-shigla West	Al-shigla Wasat
Mosques	2	-
Khalwa	-	1
Churches		
Schools	Primary School 2	1
	High School	
Health Facilities	-	1
Public Spaces	1	
Market Places	1	1
Clubs and scoial gathering centres	-	
Kindergarten	3	1

1.3.2 Open and public spaces

Lack of open and public spaces characterizes Al-shigla physical settings. Within the area only one open space and no green and public parks are observed (see Table 15 and Table 16)³. The types of activities practiced there are generally sport activities (mainly football). These open space are also used for residents' festivities i.e. wedding, funeral, etc. The vegetation cover which is scares and limited can be seen within citizens' plots rather than in public /open spaces.

1.3.3 The state of basic services in Al-shigla

1.3.3.1 Drinking Water supply and electricity

In most of the villages surrounding Khartoum, the basic services such as power, water and education facilities are developed, financed and managed by the community. Al-shigla is not an exception. Citizens have managed to install and maintain an improved drinking water network system in the area since pre re-planning. Some international and local NGOs contributed to this. Nonetheless, after the Re-P.P process the quality and service standards has increased. Quite few plots of the total population were having access to improved drinking in before the re-planning process. In fact, the water networks before the re-planning process covers only 56 households. After the Re-P.P the water network covered the whole of Al-shigla West.

Power supply is not different than the water provision service. By 1987 many citizens in Al-shigla do have access to power supply. The old power supply system before the Re-P.P was completely done through self-help. After the Re-P.P the power supply project was tremendously large to cover all Al-shigla West.

1.3.3.2 Surface Drainage and Solid waste management

Like most of the newly developed and re-planned area in Khartoum, Al-shigla faces a serious surface drainage issue. Our fieldwork has shown major problems related to this issue. The two photos in Figure 36 shows that magnitude of the surface drainage challenges. In general, Al-shigla generally have poor access to storm water drainage. Although a major discharge channel run right at the North and east of the area. The inner channels are not functioning and badly maintained. Most of the inner channels were actually trenched and managed by locals.

The state of solid waste collection and treatment in Al-shigla is not any better than surface drainage. Municipal authorities collect the waste in weekly bases. Collected waste is discharged in dump grounds. No separation policy is maintained. Nonetheless, our observations showed that the quality and the service standard are not

³ This open space is planned as a government reserved GR land. But since it empty, it is used as an open space.

reliable. The level of solid waste management in Al-shigla is one of the worst observed in the villages around Khartoum (see Fig.5).



Figure 36 surface drainage and solid waste challenges in Al-shigla neighbourhood

1.4 Al-shigla before the re-planning process

As noted earlier, Al-shigla is quite old neighborhood that has gone under three previous re-planning attempts. The prime location of Al-shigla had contributed to its growth before and after the re-planning process. The same reason also contributes to the fast demographic change observed there after the re-planning process.

The general layout of Al-shigla before the re-planning process represents a traditional spontaneous urban settings. The map of Al-shigla in 1990 (four years before the approval of the new plan) as shown in Figure 37 signifies that. Al-shigla before the re-planning process illustrated somewhat irregular street patterns that resembles the traditional African and Islamic villages. The area is characterized by narrow roads that generally get wider at certain places of interest (public location or an elite's property). Dead end roads are also quite commonly observed in Al-shigla prior to the re-planning.

The area is characterized by several open spaces that are generally well distributed. These open spaces are used for general festivities and public events. The village was generally managed by at local level by the ethnic traditional leaders. The latter group is the estimated administration power at the city level. The poor public facilities and services in the area in courage several NGOs to work at Al-shigla of which some are international

NGOs of the settlers worked for the Sudan army (Hadiya, 2008). Hadiya, 2008 argues that this was the reason previous plan were not implement as conflict of interests so clearly seen during the three re-planning attempts.

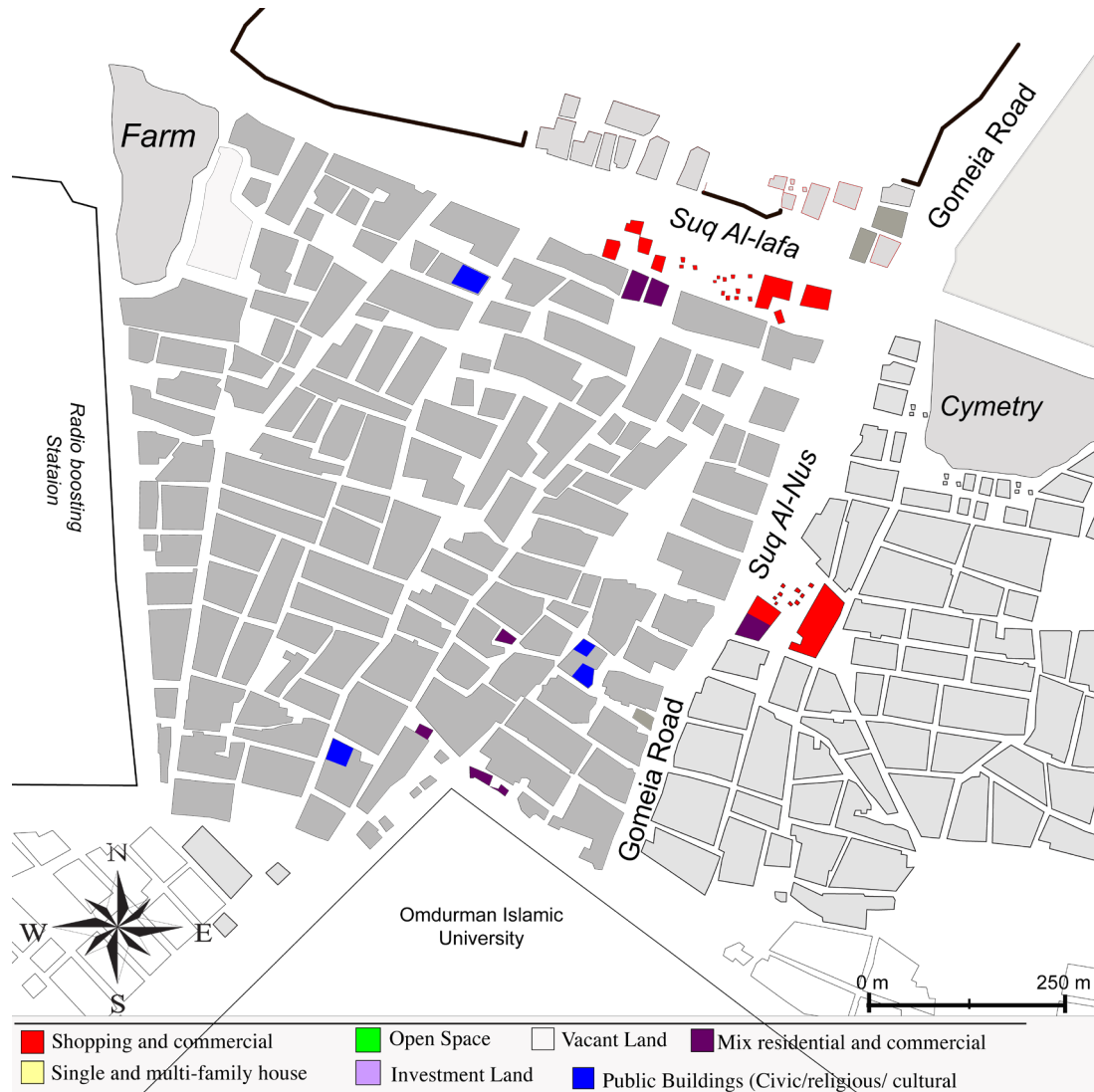


Figure 37 Al-shigla land uses before the re-planning process based on community leaders-modified map as in 1991

The houses design styles before re-planning also signifies local culture. Mud is used as a building material for the majority of houses in the area. The procedure of house building generally involves calling for Nafeer in which younger generations participate in the construction process. The plot sizes are generally large with an average of 400 Sq. M. Yet, several families might be living in the same plot due to the extended family culture. Houses are leased and managed based on traditional land management system named as *Al-Hiyaza*, in which ethnic and tribal heads manages the land. The former normally leases the land to the other residents. As a result, land speculation is reported to be very minimal (Hadiya, 2008).

Houses are generally divided into male and female domains. The latter domain is the most livable and generally adjacent to the other neighbors. Male domain (also called Daywan) is generally attached to the outer side of the

plot. Entrances to both domains are generally separated. Pit latrines and bathrooms are quite often also separated based on the same gender issue (see Figure 38).

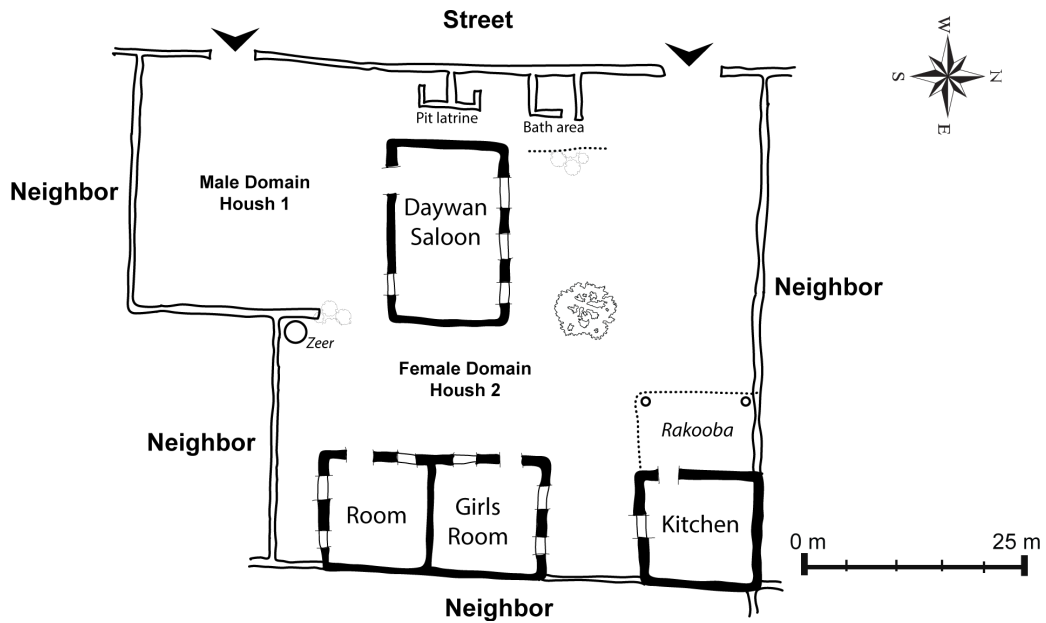


Figure 38 House Plan of Al-shigla before the re-planning process (North is facing down)

2 Section 2; Research approach in Al-shigla

2.1 Research design in Al-shigla case study

The research design for Al-shigla case study was based on the triangulation technique that allow for cross data checking. Data collected is benchmarked against the same five elements evaluation framework developed in chapter three. Al-shigla case study data collection was conducted in two periods of time (Sep. 2009 and Feb.-March 2010) through three different stages explained as follows

Stage A: in which several projects were selected to be the scope of research, these projects were chosen through a survey and informal interviews with various community leaders. The projects selected differ in nature (community development, service provision and land-use) but still represent the variety of projects being conducted in the area before and after the Re-P.P (see Figure 39 and Figure 42). Some of those projects have been either re-planned or completed after the Re-P.P, thus, they provide a better opportunity for comparing C.P before and after.

Stage B: in which community leaders have been requested to evaluate the projects they indicated earlier based on our five elements evaluation framework. Thus evaluation will include

1. Stakeholders involved (Who participated?).
2. Stage of citizens' involvement (When they participated?).
3. Role in participation.
4. Methods of participation (How they participated?).
5. Incentives that drive people to participate (Why they participated?).⁴

At this stage, six community leaders (traditional leaders), three People's Committees (P.C) members, four planners, two councilors and two of the Irifein) have been interviewed to identify how participation was achieved in those projects according to the categories mentioned above.

Stage C: in this stage, citizens were requested to evaluate their participation on those projects based on the categories identified above as shown in Figure 39. Two questionnaires were distributed, the first questionnaire was distributed in Sept. 2009 (for after Re-P.P participation evaluation), and the second in Feb.-March 2010 (for before Re-P.P). The questionnaires were conducted randomly through door-to-door survey. The first

⁴ The above five questions are a modified version of our framework. Direct use of our framework elements deem no understood by most of the quite large number of citizens during our pilot test in Al-shigla. This was necessarily for the data collections purpose.

questionnaire respondents were those identified themselves as the family heads *8) during the time of questionnaire, while the second questionnaire respondents were those selected from within the same “first respondents” on the condition that they have witnessed the projects prior to the Re-P.P (see Figure 39).

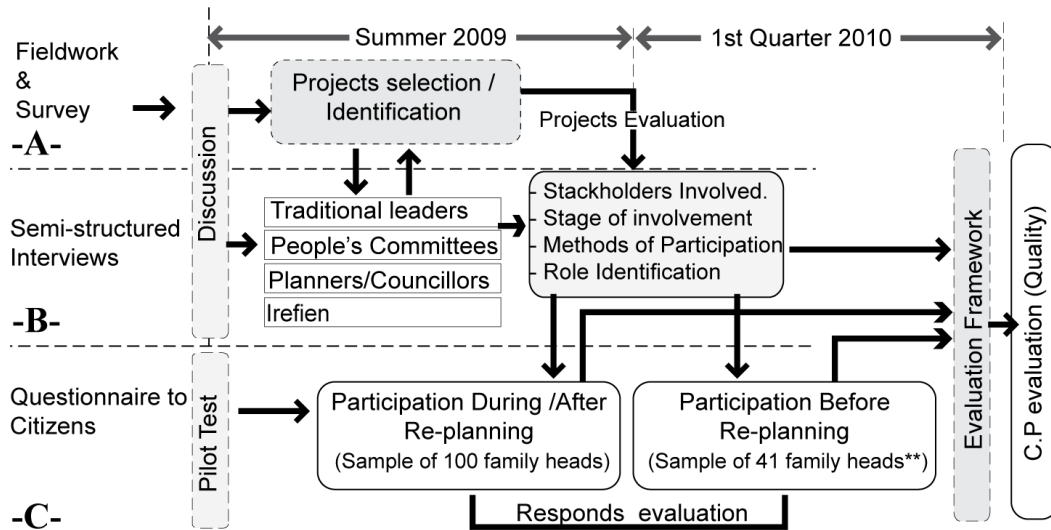


Figure 39 Research approach in Al-shigla case study and the different research modules

2.2 Research modules and approach

The general structure of Al-shigla case study research was designed to include three research modules. These modules, which are very much linked to our research design, are discussed henceforth.

2.2.1 Module one

In this module, five preliminary meetings with P.Cs and traditional community leaders of Al-Shigla were conducted. The meetings generally discussed research objectives and importance. The meetings were followed by informal discussions about community organizations' structure, behavior and dynamics both before and after the Re-P.P. The result was a community mapping for the area that identifies main community organizations, their objectives, activities as well as their level of interest.

2.2.2 Module two

Based on the community mapping process conducted at module one, a series of structured and informal interviews with community leaders were initiated. Structured interviews were used at this point. The objective of the interviews was to identify the most important participatory projects developed in the area before and after the Re-P.P. the interviews were also intended to gather basic data in regards to our evaluation framework developed in chapter three.

2.2.3 Module three

The second Triangulation process was achieved in this module. The Triangulation was achieved through two questionnaires distributed to citizens. The first questionnaire was assigned to collect data on citizens' level of participation in the projects identified as priority projects in module two. The second questionnaire focused on citizen's participation in the same projects identified prior to the re-planning process. Respondents of the first questionnaire were randomly chosen. The questionnaires were conducted through door-to-door surveys. The Second questionnaire respondents were chosen from the same first respondents in the condition that they have witnessed the projects implemented prior to the re-planning process.⁵

2.2.4 Module four

This module as a natural extension of module three through which the synthesis of the questionnaire distributed in module three have been carried out.

⁵ For questionnaire basic data as well as the distribution map see the appendices.

3 Section 3; Data Collection Process

3.1 Data collection process and procedures

3.1.1 Module 01, the community mapping process and basic community information

The purpose of this module is to identify main stakeholders groups and their structure. This module also aims at understanding the scope, level as well as magnitude of the community organizations' engagement in the community participation activities in the area. We have focus thus on organizations that are functions at the local level. This module stresses on understandings the real and actual onsite engagement rather than the planned or mandated procedure on the organizations' mandates.⁶

Since we will be comparing the two approach of C.P against each other, we adopted a strategy of community mapping both before the re-planning as well as after. We used the narratively and observations as an approach to get information about community structure both before and after the re-planning process. Our approach was based on Informal discussions as well as story telling with ethnic community leaders, tribal heads as well as Irifein.

The second step in community mapping process was to contact those organizations and their key members in order to obtain key information about that organization. The information we collected is

- a. Objectives of the organization/group
- b. Period of existence
- c. How accessible this group to community
- d. How organization activities are conducted
- e. Source of finance

3.1.1.1 Community structure in Al-Shigla

The process of community mapping of Al-shigla after the re-planning process shown in Figure 40 and Table 17 signifies nine different community groups.

Within these groups, three are the three Mosque groups. The latter groups are generally involved in Mosque development and maintenance. The mosque groups' activities in many cases extend beyond the mosque to host as well as commence some community-based activities such as neighborhood cleaning. Mosque groups also participate in various physical activities in Al-shigla.

⁶ For this reason, we intentionally ignored looking at the organizations constitutions if any.

Excluding the Sudanese Women Union, few women saving groups were also identified (total are two). These groups have a closed membership typology, which is either based on family network or ethnic connection. These groups are generally managed and administered by women. The group's main focus is to assist its member's financial capabilities through locally managed savings. Some of these groups do provide cooking utensils at low cost. These groups are generally closed, very homogeneous in terms of income level as well as ethnic background. Women group's in general do not have direct involvement in planning issue in the area.

After the re-planning process, Peoples' Committees (P.Cs) or "*al Ligan Al shabeiya*"⁷ were the most influential group within the community. P.Cs were empowered by the Peoples' Committees Act of 1992 by which P.Cs represents the lowest level of government at the community level. Nonetheless, P.Cs in Al-shigla were not elected. This created a general understanding that P.Cs are more of a government representative at local level than citizens' representative at the public authorities level. The consequences of this is that though P.Cs participated in mostly all projects implement after the Re-P.P, their participation was not very much appreciated by local citizens. In fact many local citizens do think that P.Cs are more of tools to implement and realize public authorities plans and programs at local level. Regardless citizens' and locals attitudes towards these actions. P.Cs act of 1992 signifies this notion.

Most of the projects after the Re-P.P, which were initiated by public authorities, treated P.Cs as citizens' representatives. This was very evident in projects like the water provision, power supply, Al-Ingaz school and Osman bin Affan mosque.

Several NGOs groups do existed in the area. For instance Women union as well as Students' union were grounded in the area after the re-planning process. Two collaborative associations were also observed. The latter association though has quite large and diverse membership, its contribution into the real planning activities is minimal. Much like women saving groups, collaborative associations help local citizens in having easy and affordable life through providing some of the festivities-related needs at low prices (i.e. cooking utensils, *Saywan* (Tent) and table wears and chairs).

To recap, the community mapping of Al-shigla after the Re-P.P (which is shown in Figure 40) can generally be summarized in the following three groups;

- a. Students, Youth and women Groups; these groups includes the Women Union, women saving groups, the Students Union and women study groups. These groups generally focus on gender or age-specific

⁷ Singular Ligan Shabeiya

issues rather than the physical planning and service provision projects. A part from women saving and study groups, other organizations are highly centralized. The local Women Union and Student Union branches tend to focus more on their mother organization objectives and programs rather than associating themselves deeply in Al-shigla area.

- b. Religious-based Groups; includes both the Mosque development groups as well as the Khalwa groups.
- c. Semi-state administered Groups; this include the Peoples Committees. These groups though work at the local level and administered by local citizens, they are strongly linked to state through their programs and projects. P.Cs generally get the least admiration from the citizens.
- d. Collaborative groups; these groups (total two)



Figure 40 Community mapping of Al-shigla after the Re-P.P (original map obtained from MPPU)

Table 17 Community-mapping of Al-shigla after the re-planning process

Number	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
1	Sheikh Attia Mosque Association No Specific Name	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In Al-shigla Sheikh Attia Mosque	High	No
2	Osman Bin Affan Mosque Association	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In Al-shigla Osman Mosque	High	No
3	Gibla Mosque Association	Mosque Development/management. Community social activities assistant	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In Al-shigla Osman bin Affan Mosque	High	No
4	Women Saving Groups (A) No Specific Name	Savings group	Savings group Kitchen utensils Bank	Member monthly payments	Association	Active	Low	In Al-shigla	High	No
5	Women Saving Groups (B) No Specific Name	Saving group	Saving group	Member monthly payments	Association	N.A	Low	In Al-shigla	High	No

Number	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
6	Students Union	Community development Students involvement. Students' assistant.	Culture and education Students mobilization	Government Donations Income generated by services	Institution	Active	Low	Outside Al-shigla	Very low	Yes
7	Women Union	Improve women role in Society. Literacy eradication.	Literacy eradication. Women mobilization	Government Donations NGO specific revenues.	Institution	Active	Low	Outside Al-shigla	Low	Yes
8	Collaborative Group	Help residents with the cost of related to specific activities (marriage, death, etc.)	Help residents with the cost of related to specific activities (marriage, death, etc.)	Self-help Donations	Collaborative Association	Active	Low	In Osman Mosque	Good	No
9	Peoples' Committees	Represents Citizens at government levels. Manage local development including education / health /Environment etc. Mobilize citizens for government-initiated projects.	Issuing Residents certificates. Education	Government Local revenues	Semi-Government	Active	Low	in Al-shigla P.Cs Headquarter	Low	Yes

The community mapping after the re-planning process signifies that community development issues are at the top priority in the objectives of most of the stakeholders. In general, a part from Peoples Committees, planning and urban development are not on the top list of most stakeholder's objectives. The majority of the stakeholders in pro-re-planning period depend on self-help and donations as income sources. Yet, government provides some subsidies to some of the Institutions that have specific characters and connections to public authorities. Examples include the Women and Students Union.

A part from the Mosque and religious groups, the community representation of most of the associations and organizations in Al-shigla after the re-planning process is questionable. A low level of community representation is observed in most of the groups shown in Table 17. This has influenced the leaders creditability of most of these associations. Table 17 again signifies low level of leaders creditability in organizations that are managed at higher level (Students union, Women Union, peoples Committees). Mosques and Women groups are an exception. Surprisingly, the organizations with lower level of leaders creditability are the ones that are actually officially registered.

3.1.1.2 Community in Al-shigla before the Re-P.P

Prior to the re-planning process several community organizations do exited. As shown in Table 18, we identified about 8 acting community groups and organizations before the re-planning process. Some of those groups identified are still active after the re-planning process i.e. Khalwa some of the women groups as well as Mosque management groups.

The main and the major group observed in Al-shigla before the re-planning process was the traditional and ethnic leaders group. This group though was very homogeneous; it exhibits a high level of coordination among its members. This group is generally composed of tribal and ethnic heads of those ethnic groups that live in Al-shigla. As the community does participate in selecting their ethnic leaders⁸, the degree of leaders' acceptance is significantly high. The tribal heads' group (named as *Majlis Alshioukh*) was empowered by the Native Administration Act. Although this act was abolished in 1971, yet this administration continued to function efficiently through solving local problems, maintaining and managing land acquisition through Al-hyaza system and even involved in land use planning.

Prior to the Re-P.P several NGOs were reported to work in the area. Among them is Qatar charity organization. NGOs have participated effectively through providing both technical assistant as well as some of the financial

⁸ M. H. Al-umda, 2009

resources. Their participation was generally concerned with basic service provision and community health. Local CBOs that work at Al-shigla level seem to have no traces. Thus, NGOs were directly involved with the community ethnic leaders in the project development and planning.

As much as after the Re-P.P, several women saving groups are reported. Although the number of this groups is less if compare to that observed after the re-planning process, they are generally exhibiting the same objectives at different magnitudes.

The community mapping of Al-shigla before the Re-P.P (which is shown in Figure 41) can generally be summarized in the following four groups;

- a. Women saving Groups, This group generally focuses on sharing household's items as well as acting as saving banks for the members. As before the re-planning, women groups are somehow close to the women from the same ethnic groups or those who are strongly connected together.
- b. Religious-based Groups; includes both the Mosque development groups as well as the Khalwa groups.
- c. Traditional and ethnic leaders groups.
- d. The *Irifein*
- e. International NGOs that acts at the local level.

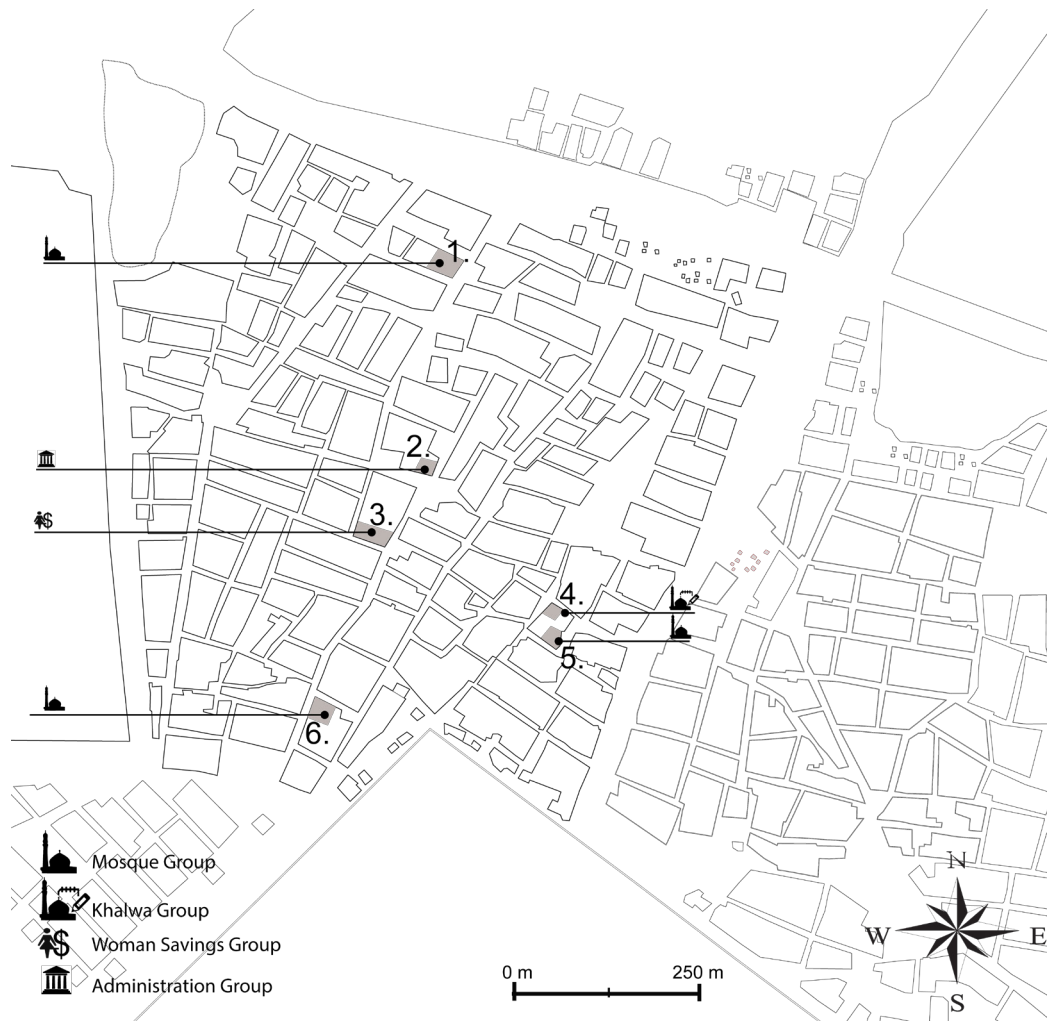


Figure 41 Community mapping of Al-shigla before the re-planning Process (Source MPPU, partially completed by community leaders)⁹

⁹ Since this map was partially completed by the local community leaders (about 65 % of it), We consider it as indicative rather than accurate and reliable.

Table 18 Community-mapping of Al-shigla before the re-planning process

No	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
1	Sheikh Attia Mosque Association "No designated Name"	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development Disaster mitigation	Self-help Donations NGOs Assistants	Association		High	In Al-shigla Sheikh Attia Mosque	High	No
2	Osman Bin Affan Mosque Association	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association		High	In Al-shigla Osman Bin Affan Mosque	High	No
3	Suk Khalwa	Khalwa Development/management.	Khalwa Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In Al-shigla	High	No
4	Women Saving Groups Number unspecified	Savings group	Savings group. Kitchen utensils Bank.	Member monthly payments.	Association	Some are still active	Low Very ethnic/tribal-	In Al-shigla	High	No
5	Qatar International Charity Aid	Community Development Health improvement Women empowerment	Financing and implementation of service and community development projects.	International Aid agencies. Donations Government Support	INGO			Outside Al-shigla	High	Yes

No	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
6	SES	Environmental issues Community development	Capacity building	Aid Government Support Donations	NGO	.	Low	Outside Al-shigla	High	Yes
7	Tribal Groups (Three main groups)	Increase the collaboration and welfare and connection among the ethnic group Area management	Social/financial and physical assistantship for those in need Area management	Self-help	Ethnic-based association	.	Limited	Al-shigla	High	No
8	Al-Nus Khalwa Association	Basic education Khalwa management	Basic education Khalwa management Disaster mitigation Environmental improvement	Self-help Donations Assistant from NGOs and religious groups	Association	.	Limited	Inside Al-shigla	High	Yes

- ❖ NGOs/CBOs are those officially registered / Associations are not.
- ❖ Institutions are those linked to an established mechanism already.

The above discussion signifies that there are generally three types of groups and stakeholders existed in Al-shigla before the re-planning process. These groups are the 1) religious based groups; 2) Women saving Groups and; 3) the administration group represented by the traditional and tribal heads. A part from two groups (tribal and ethnic leaders group as well as the NGOs) the objectives of most of the other stakeholders is more of special interest of that group rather than a public issue. Funding source of most of the stakeholders before the Re-P.P is generally based on self-help and donation. Government subsidies and support is very minimal. The latter observation might be justified by our findings though the community mapping process. The latter process revealed that quite few of these organizations does actually get officially registered. Thus they might not be entitled to any government support.

A part from Women Saving groups, community representation of most of the community groups before the re-planning process is very strong and evident. This excludes the NGOs that work from outside Al-shigla area i.e. Qatar International and SES. The Tribal and Ethnic leader' Group though was very representative, yet, after the draught in Darfur and the influx of several internally displaced peoples IDPs to Al-shigla their representation became questionable as the area gets more heterogeneous. Until the inauguration of P.Cs, traditional tribal leaders were highly appreciated and accepted. This observation feeds directly to the level of leaders' credibility. Table 18 signifies a high level of community leaders' credibility in the area.

To recap, the community mapping before the re-planning process illustrates that several community groups that are highly representative with high level of credibility existed. The same groups' objectives range from community education to activities that promote income generation. Quite few of those groups focus on general area development and planning. The funding sources of most of those groups depends on self-help, thus their financial capacities are very limited and recapped.

Community groups after the re-planning process though are slightly more than those before, they are more diverse and slightly financially capable. Several groups get subsidies from the government to help them in attaining their assigned objectives.

Unlike before the re-planning process, leaders credibility after the Re-P.P of many stakeholders is considerably low, with less community representation. Yet, it's observed that stakeholders gain slightly more financial capacities either with government support or through the higher income that is generally observed in the area.

4 Section 3; Projects spectrum and information

4.1 Module 02 projects spectrum and community participation

This module is set to identify the major projects that have been implemented in Al-shigla. Projects identified are those implemented through community participation as well as Nafeer both before and after the re-planning process. Our approach in this module is based on a series of interviews and hearing sessions with ethnic community leaders, Irifein, and tribal heads. People’s Committee members, planners as well as local officials and bureaucrats were also interviewed to identify major projects in the area after the Re-P.P. During the interviews we asked the community leaders to orderly rank the most important development projects implemented through C.P in Al-shigla. The outcomes of this module as showed in Figure 42 states that hierarchical order. Accordingly, projects that are highly ranked by community leaders will be used as a subject of our investigation and evaluation. Thus, these projects as shown in Figure 42 are

- a) From the service delivery category we will evaluate both the water provision as well as the power supply projects. These two project types will be evaluated both before and after the Re-P.P.
- b) From community development category we will study Al-shigla west Khalwa, Sheikh Attia Mosque and the Primary Health Care Unit PHCU in the pre Re-P.P arrangement. After the Re-P.P we will evaluate Al-ingaz School, the Primary Health care Unit PHCU, Osman bin Affan Mosque and the P.Cs center / office/Headquarter.
- c) From the third category we will study *Suk Alnus* and *Sug Allafa*.

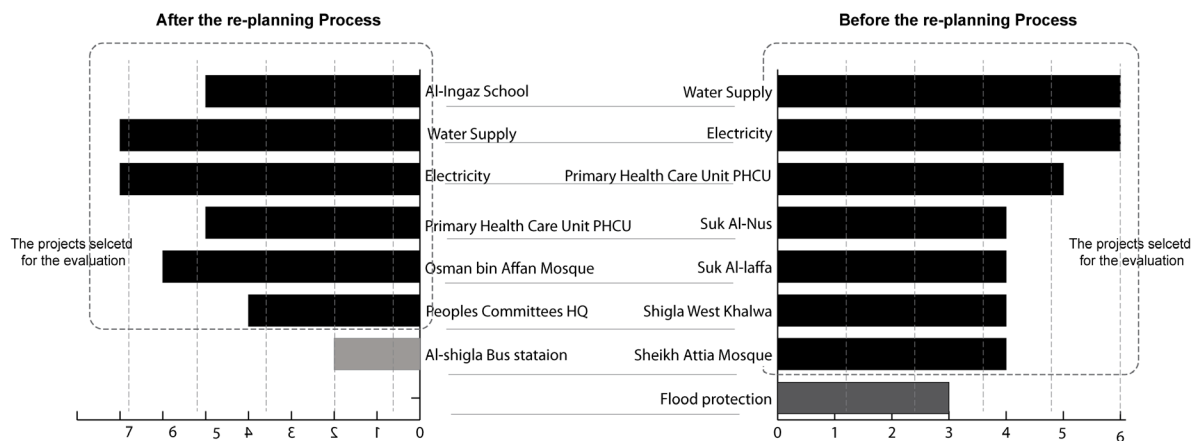


Figure 42 the Scope of the projects selected for evaluation

The projects selected above though exhibited three different typologies, we argues that C.P procedure are generally the same. Basic information about the projects selected is thus provided henceforth.

4.1.1 Community participation in development projects Before the Re-P.P

4.1.1.1 Service delivery projects

4.1.1.1.1 Drinking water supply project

Prior to the re-planning process (between 1980-1990), poor access to clean drinking water and electricity in Al-shigla set a difficult challenge for traditional community leaders. Al-shigla was depending on two borehole water wells as source for drinking water. Water was then distributed by carts to individual plots. The issue of sustaining access to clean drinking water through water network was essential and a priority (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011b).

This situation has urged community traditional leaders to consider improving the existing drinking water system through a network. By 1982, and after a series of discussions among themselves, Traditional / ethnic community leaders put publicly the project for further citizens' discussion and consultation. A community meeting (which was held in the Mosque) yielded in forming a committee that was responsible of negotiating the water project with respective planning authorities. NGOs (Namely Qatar International) provided some financial and technical assistant. Rural Water Corporation planned the project with some inputs from local planning authority. Water Corporation acts as a designer and a supervisor for the project that was implemented using local contractors. Public authorities partially subsidized the projects cost, which was divided among citizens. Some financially incapable citizens were hired as part of the un-skilled labor for the water provision. Several community meetings were conducted in "Sheikh Attia Mosque". Citizens, Mosque associations, community leaders and tribal heads attendance of those meetings was very high.

Project implementation started as early as 1984 and continued for about two months.¹⁰ The network was very basic small and of low capacity. Water, which is pumped from the two water wells, is stored at water tank that was partially subsidized by the public authorities. The water was then transported using plastic/rubber pipelines system. As shown in Table 19, this stage of the project covers only fifty-six households. One tap was installed in each household. The cost of installing the water service at the household at this stage costs about 2.800 SDG for the public network and extra 2.500 SDG as installation fees.¹¹ This mount was very high compared to the income level most of the citizens. This explains why only 56 households were able to get this service.

¹⁰ The actual project working time was about two months but due t lack of funds this project took about 5 months in total.

¹¹ Interview With Mr. Mohamed Hassan Algaali

4.1.1.1.2 The power supply project

In 1987, citizens urged community leaders to seriously consider a power supply project.¹² After a series of meetings, a committee was elected to negotiate with the public authorities (National Electricity Corporation NEC and municipal administration) regarding this project. Public authorities were slightly reluctant to provide those services for an area that is not part of the legal urban fabric. The cost of installing drinking water and electricity network in irregular street pattern was relatively high (see Figure 43). However, the committee, which was mostly composed of traditional leaders, had managed to secure authorities approval on partial power coverage for the area. By 1988 power lines were installed and partial coverage of electricity was available in Al-shigla (Figure 43) (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011b).

The service area of this project was generally small and limited. At this stage, a Part from some of the public facilities (the Mosques and Khalwas), only seventy-seven households were connected to this network¹³. This was both due to the high cost of installation as well as that electricity was seen as a commodity in area that lack access to clean drinking water¹⁴. Although there are no clear information about the actual cost of the project, yet only few community leaders, elites and tribal heads were able to afford it.

Table 19 Summary of the power supply and drinking water projects' main projects features

	Water Provision	Electricity Supply
Description	Partial coverage (Figuer.3) Low pressure One tap per household	Partial Coverage
Scope /Size	56 households	77 households
Duration	1984-1985 and 1987	1987
Cost per household	2800 SDG / Household. Network Cost 2500 SDG Installation fees	No information
Promoting Agencies	Traditional Leaders	Traditional Leaders
Other Agencies involved	NGOs/ Mosque groups/	NGOs/Mosque Groups
Funding sources	Self-help NGOs	Self-help NGOs
Participation Strategies	Financial /Physical Information	Financial Information Negotiation
Social Entrepreneurism	None	None

¹² Before this the only access to power supply in the area was through some of the community-managed diesel generators that are shared among several households, this service was too expensive and never to the standards needed.

¹³ Interview With Mr. Mohamed Hassan Algaali

¹⁴ Interview with Al-nasri

The majority of the power lines poles were locally manufactured using Nafeer. Yet, the actual installation was completed under the supervision of a local technician from the National Electricity Corporation NEC. Unlike the water project the whole cost of this project was paid by local citizens, a limited contribution from local organizations such as the Mosque groups was also reported.

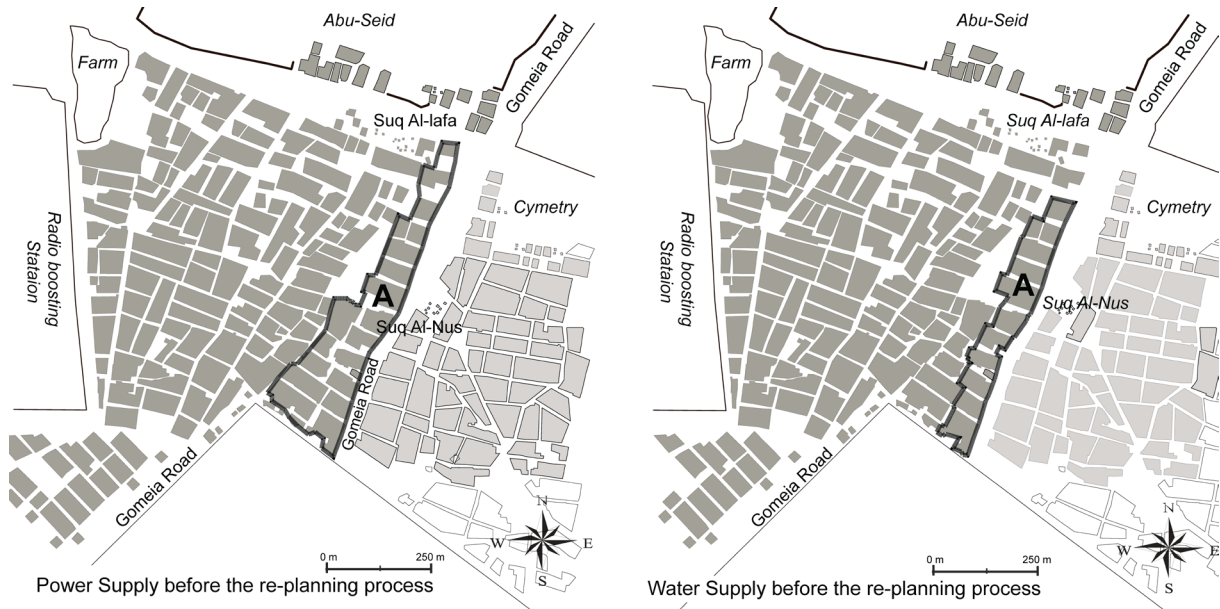


Figure 43 Area coverage of the water supply (to the right) and power supply projects in Al-shigla before the Re-P.P

The locations of power lines inside the area were decided on site. The NEC technician was on control regarding the technical decisions.

The process of consensus building for the water provision project discussed above is explained in Figure 44. This figure exhibits the strong role of traditional/ethnic community leaders and the community itself. In the two projects, Nafeer strongly contributed to project success. Figure 44 also exhibits that citizens' representatives were agreed upon even before the project is initiated. After consensus is reached among citizens regarding the committee and the project objectives, an out-sider assistant (National Electricity Corporation NEC or Rural Water Department RWD) is then approached. This is generally because the technical competency of the local communities was very low.

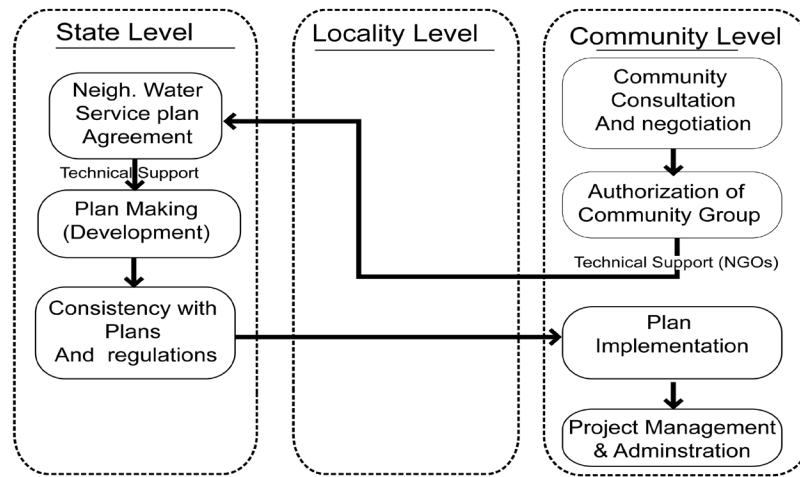


Figure 44 procedural arrangements and consensus building procedure for the Water provision project

4.1.1.2 Land Use Projects

4.1.1.2.1 The Market Places (Suk Al-Nus, and Suk Al-laffa)

Suk Al-Nus and Suk Al-laffa were the oldest market places in the area. While *Suk Al-Nus* is relatively new dated back to early 1970, *Suk Al-laffa* was the oldest. In fact some locals consider Suk al-laffa as the main reason that Al-shigla existed, as it was the market in which local farms products are marketed.¹⁵ Community leaders chose the location of both markets. The latters were dominantly developed, planned and managed by local traditional leaders. For Suk Al-laffa the process was very ethnic oriented in which the tribal and ethnic leaders met together to consider the market plan, location and design. After the location was decided and agreed upon, the market was divided into four zones. An ethnic leader manages each zone. This leader is responsible about layout plans, management, services and market hygiene. The process as well as the projects though technically incompetence, the level of Nafeer practiced was generally low. A health inspector was also available in weekly bases.

In contrast, Suk-Nus was implemented quite fast. Each ethnic leader called for a Nafeer by which the market area was cleaned and prepared. The main market buildings were also constructed (store and an office). Other temporary outdoor market sheds (*rawakeeb*) were also built in terms of Nafeer. The latter Nafeer was poorly attended. We argue that this was generally due to that the benefit of this project does not seem to be of a public interest.

¹⁵ Mr. Adam , an old ireif in Al-shigla..

Unlike Suk Al-laffa, Suk Al-Nus had some level of public authorities involvement. In fact, though the layout was jointly developed with the local government and ethnic leaders. The traditional leaders were responsible of project implementation and management. Community contribution in this project was generally higher than Suk Al-laffa.

4.1.1.3 Community development Projects

4.1.1.3.1 Sheikh Attia Mosque

This Mosque is considered as the oldest in Al-shigla before the re-planning process the name of the Mosque is referred to the name of its first *Imam* and *Sheikh* who first suggested building this Mosque. The project idea was rapidly accepted and agreed upon among both ethnic traditional leaders as well as the community. This Mosque development process was achieved in three different phases;

- a. Phase one in which a committee that is responsible of the Mosque development and fundraising procedure was elected.
- b. Phase two in which the fund raising process and Mosque planning arrangements were conducted.
- c. Phase three includes the Mosque implementation and management.

Phase one of the Mosque development was dominated by the traditional ethnic leaders, *Khalwa* Sheikh, *Irifein* and educated citizens. This group was approved and elected after a community leaders meeting prior to project initiation.

In phase two the project was publicized and the first Nafeer was called upon. As a result the project fund raising process started. Although citizens are generally poor, their contribution in the fund raising activity for this project was significant. Some NGOs as well as financially capable outsiders have also contributed. The ethnic leaders used their ethnic networks outside Al-shigla to further increase the process of the fund raising.

Phase three of this project was the project implementation. In this phase a second Nafeer was also called upon. This Nafeer was well attended by several community members. Elders and experienced citizens plotted the Mosque plan they prepared on the ground of the selected site, youth and young citizens prepared the foundations and built the walls, women prepared the food and drinks for the workers. The construction generally took about 30-40 days.¹⁶ After the project completion a new committee to manage the project was formed.

¹⁶ Most of the project work was done on the evenings and Fridays.

4.1.1.3.2 Health Service Centre (The Shifa-khana) Project

The now Primary Health Care Unit (PHCU) started by initiative from Islamic Da-awa Organization and the community leaders to promote better health in the area. The project immediately gained community support and efforts. Citizens have physically contributed to support this project especially at implementation stage. The project was however relatively small. Its functions include providing basic medical services to citizens such as injury treatment, medical injections and first aid as well as maternal health.

The location of the *Shifa-khana* was jointly decided between the NGO and community leaders. The construction Nafeer was well attended. With the NGO technical assistant the project was completed in about two weeks. After the project completion a local committee was composed to jointly manage the project with the local government and the NGO.

4.1.1.3.3 Al-shigla West Khalwa project

Together with *Sheikh Attia* Mosque, this project was considered as the major community development projects in Al-shigla before the re-planning process. At its first stages, this project did not get a lot of attention nor momentum. Yet, Mosque groups played a significant role of mobilizing citizens and promote this project, which serves as school as well as praying space for Muslims.

Traditional leaders and Mosque Imam suggested this project, which was achieved in relatively the same procedures of *Sheikh Attia* Mosque. These stages are described as

- a. Stage 1: which includes the fundraising process in this stage the first Nafeer was called upon.
- b. Stage 2: the construction of the project. This stage includes the second Nafeer by which the Khalwa was constructed and completed.
- c. Stage 3: completion and the management of the project itself.

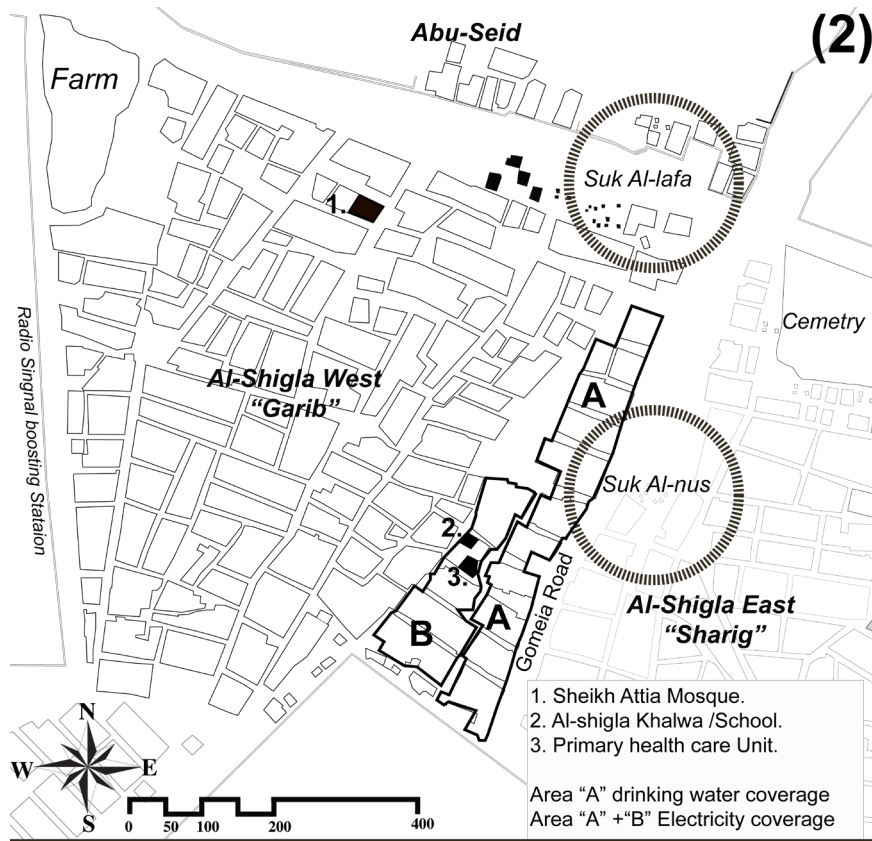


Figure 45 the locations of the projects selected for the evaluation before the re-planning process. Based on Al-shigla as in 1991/2.

4.1.2 Summary of community participation in projects before the Re-P.P

To recap this part, it is very evident that the procedural aspects of participation before the re-planning process focus on creating consensus among citizens and reaching agreement before seeking outsider's assistant and help. In this regard, its very common for most of the projects discussed to have a public meeting in which a committee is formed to carry out the project. Most of the service delivery projects are conducted this way. Community development projects however seems to be slightly different. Public meetings though are not generally mandatory, they only happen when the project is large in size and needs the community attention and support.

In general the projects before the re-planning process are conducted in four major steps as follows

- a. The project's committee selection and approval.
- b. The selected committee proceeds with the project by seeking approval/technical assistant as well as financial inputs from various stakeholders.
- c. Project implementation through strong community involvement.
- d. Project management in which community might and might not be strongly involved.

The consensus building process happens at early stages through project committee approval. At later stages consensus building depends on the project complexity and level of resources needed for that specific project.

4.1.3 Community participation in development projects in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P

4.1.3.1 Basic services provision projects

4.1.3.1.1 Water provision and power supply

Soon after the re-planning process, planning institutions incorporated a power supply project to the area. Although the older grid developed before the Re-P.P still exists, the new plan was more comprehensive and provided higher quality supply. The project, which was planned to supply the entire village, includes three electric transformers as well as several new concrete power poles. The project was anticipated to cover about 1200 households.¹⁸

As much as other service-delivery projects implemented during the National Comprehensive Strategy (NCS, 2000), the community generally bear the financial cost of the project. Every household was requested to pay 96.000 SDG to fund the public network (the cost of the power line and electric transformers from national grid to the road in front of private property). Individuals also cover the cost of in house installation.¹⁹

The National Electricity Corporation (NEC) developed the general plan of this project. Yet, a private contractor has implement the plan. The contractor was also responsible of the physical details in relation to the general plan itself i.e. the distant between the concrete-poles. Although citizens covered the installation cost, they did not participate in any of the major project stages. Peoples Committees were the only local-level organization that was involved in the pre-planning and implementation/financing stage.

A higher capacity water supply project was conducted soon after the re-planning process the scope of this project was set to cover the whole village providing access to clean and continuous supply (Figure 47). Planners (VRC) initiated this project; yet, the water corporations together with a private contractor were responsible about the project realization and management.²⁰ As much as the power supply project, citizens have paid the cost of the main/public network by themselves. The project cost was about 15% subsidized by government. Citizens' also covered the cost of the network from the public intake to their property.

As most of the projects implemented after the re-planning process, a contractor has implemented this project. The technical nature of this project makes it less participatory. Citizen's role for instance was only to finance the

¹⁸ The 1200 households are all the households exist in Al-shigla after the adoption of the new plan of Al-shigla.

¹⁹ Some of those who are slightly far from any power pole have to pay the cost of the pole that deliver the line close to their property.

²⁰ No clear information about the exact role of each of those participants.

project, which was dominated by the Rural Water Department as well as local bureaucrats. People committees also participated but as mediator between citizens and public authorities.

The consensus building process the water project and its development arrangements are shown in Figure 46. This diagram signifies strong domination of public authorities in issues like planning and project management.

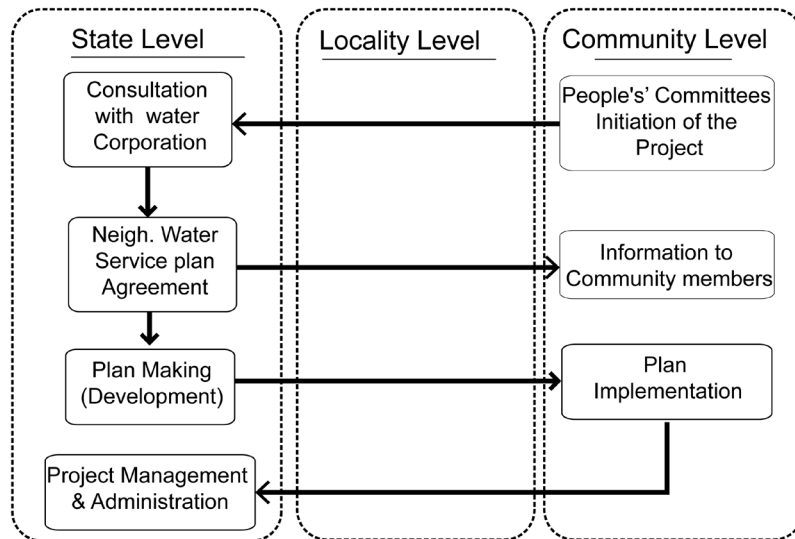


Figure 46 procedural arrangements for the water supply project after the Re-P.P

4.1.3.2 Community development projects

4.1.3.2.1 Al-Ingaz Wasat School

This school is the first and only school designed and built after the re-planning process. The school is located in Al-shigla Wasat, next to the market place (see Figure 47) accommodates nearly 300 students. This is generally four times as large as the older Khalwa.

City-planners as well as bureaucrats dominated the process of community participation in this project. This school was part of the new plan developed for Al-shigla after the re-planning process. The project, which was built using the standard school plans provided by Ministry of Education, took about two years to be implemented. A part from P.Cs at the local level, no other stakeholder was involved. Project implementation and management was done through collaboration within different public authorities (Ministry of planning, Ministry of Finance and Ministry of education).

4.1.3.2.2 Osman bin Affan Mosque

This Mosque was built soon after the re-planning process. The Mosque was part of the original plan developed for Al-shigla after the re-planning process. Yet, it hasn't been realized immediately due to lack of funds.

The Mosque extends in an area of 480 m² and occupying a central and of high reachability place that is neighboring the only open space available in the area after the Re-P.P.

Our interviews elicits that a part from Peoples' Committees and Mosque groups, no community member was involved in the process. The Mosque design, implementation, finance as well as management were completely done by Public Authorities. Community participation was not practice, yet after the project was completed the appointed imam formed a local Mosque committee for the building management.

Through the management of the Mosque, several community members do participate to keep the Mosque. But the number and the capacity of engagement are generally limited.

4.1.3.2.3 P.Cs office / headquarter

Although the initial idea of this project was formed by different P.Cs groups in Al-shigla (seven committees in the three parts of Al-shigla), the pc coordinator at the local city office was In charge of this project. People's Committees and local city office covered the project finance. At the community level some community members did participated financially. A local builder/community contractor prepared project plan. P.Cs called for a Nafeer to construct the building yet the attendance from community members was very poor. As a result P.Cs had to compete the project by hiring a contractor. However up to 2009 (the date in which this research was conducted), this project was not completed. In fact, a part from accommodating the non-frequents P.Cs meetings, the building is almost deserted.

To some up, a summary of the general information of the projects mentioned above i.e. the scope and size, promoting body/agency, source of funding and method of participation is shown in Table 20.. Table 20 generally illustrates that the procedural arrangement of projects implemented after the re-planning process signifies that project consensus is actually research or seeks after the project is planned and research implementation stage. This was evident in both the water supply as well as the power supply projects. Projects such as community development (Schools and Primary health care units), exhibits no citizens involvement.

Table 20 Summary of basic projects data

	Power supply project	Water Supply project	Al-Ingaz Primary School	P.H.C.U
Scope/Size	1200 households	1200 house holds	To accommodate 750 students	To serve the three block of Al-salama
Duration	-	9 months	-	6 months
Cost	-	96.000 SDG per household	N.A	N.A
Promoting body/agency	Planners	Planners, Rural Water Dept	Planners	Ministry of Health Planners
Other stakeholders involved	NEC, Citizens, P.Cs, Bureaucrats,	Citizens, P.Cs, Bureaucrats, Elites,	Local education office, P.Cs, Citizens	Planners, Bureaucrats, P.Cs
Funding Source	Citizens, the State	Citizens, the State	The State	The State
Citizens' participation strategies	Financial	Financial	None	None
Social entrepreneurship	None	None	None	None

- No information.

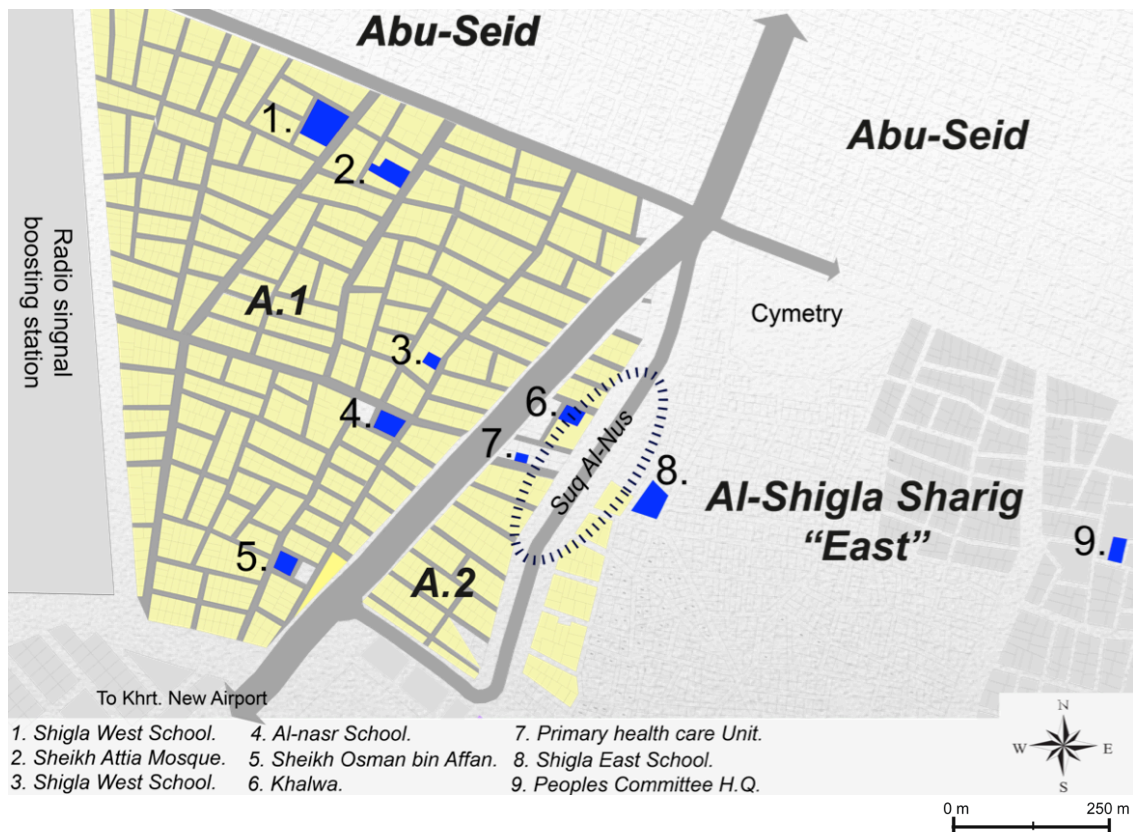


Figure 47 the locations of the major projects selected for the evaluation after the re-planning process, based on Al-shigla as in 2010

5 Section 4; Synthesis of community participation

5.1 Community leaders and citizens' evaluation (CLE and UBE)

5.1.1 Module 03, synthesis of C.P in the selected projects and interviews results (CLE)

Community leaders involved in the projects discussed above were requested to evaluate those projects based on our five elements evaluation framework stated earlier. Based on community leaders evaluation (CLE) several findings are observed in the case study area as shown in Figure 48 which shows the types of changes observed in C.P behavior before and after the Re-P.P in the projects studied before and after the re-planning process, for instance, the spectrum of stakeholders involved in the participation process as shown in Figure 48 a-1 states that, before the Re-P.P, traditional/tribal leaders, citizens and NGOs/CPOs were the three main players, planners were almost absent from project planning activities apart from the service delivery projects (drinking water and power supply). Bureaucrats however, had much more level of participation compared to that of planners. Although the role of bureaucrats, planners and P.Cs had increased after the Re-P.P, traditional leaders, citizens and NGOs/CPOs role decreased (Figure 48-b.1). P.Cs on the other hand had no role prior to the Re-P.P as they have been officially introduced in 1992.

While participation in most of projects stages is observed before the Re-P.P (Figure 48-a-2), "project implementation" dominates the stages that have most of the participation efforts both before and after the Re-P.P. Participation in objective definition and plan making stages after the re-planning process was very low. Participation on services delivery projects (drinking water and power supply) witnesses much earlier involvement than what was conceived after the Re-P.P (Figure 48-a-2). Religious buildings such as the Khalwa and the Mosque were favored with participation in almost all project stages.

CLE identified that citizens' role in participation has also changed favoring an increase role of being a recipient of a product (project), a source of information, or with no role as shown in Figure 48 -b-3. These contrasts the high-level of control citizens had on the process prior to the Re-P.P (Figure 48 -a-3), in other words, citizens' role as "in control", "a source of information" and as a real "participant" was higher than that conceived after the Re-P.P.

Eventually, C.P before the Re-P.P was generally achieved through four relatively equal techniques including; projects cost-sharing, workmanship (physical participation), sharing ideas and expertise and taking decisions (see Figure 48-a-4), however, after the Re-P.P, participation as a recipient of information (being informed) together with project cost sharing dominates (Figure 48 -b-4). Participation through "sharing expertise" and as "a decision-maker" was very low after the Re-P.P as shown in Figure 48 -b-4.

5.1.2 Module 04, the questionnaire results (UBE).

This module is set to triangulate data collected through the CLE. Thus, a user-based evaluation (UBE) through a questionnaire was conducted. At this module we used Statistical Analysis to analyse our collected data. Based on the two questionnaires, we tried to compare C.P in projects implemented before and after the re-planning process.

Questionnaire respondents were randomly selected from Al-shigla West. One hundred questionnaires were distributed with ninety-four collected for the first questionnaire. Second questionnaire respondents are those chosen from the same first respondents in the condition that they have witnessed all or some of the projects implemented before the Re-P.P. Basic questionnaire data are shown in Figure 49.

Basic Questionnaire Data	Questionnaire in Numbers			Gender %		Age Groups %			Marital Status %		
	Dist.	Collected	%	Male	Female	13 - 34	35 - 44	45 -	Married	Single	Others
Sep. 2009	100	94	94%	95%	5%	14%	36%	50%	86%	7%	6%
Feb.-March 2010	41	37	90%	97%	3%	0%	43%	57%	89%	3%	8%

Figure 49 Basic questionnaire Data

Among the three types of projects studied previously (service delivery, community development and neighborhood improvement), participation in service delivery projects is reported by UBE to have one of the highest values (Figure 50). This value maintained this high level both before and after the Re-P.P. Participation in disaster mitigation, private and public buildings construction shows quite a high level as well. Yet this high level is only observed before the Re-P.P. (Figure 50 -4). Participation in activities related to land use planning maintained a low level before as well as after the Re-P.P.

UBE also signifies that there was a general decrease in community participation in projects like community development and disaster mitigation i.e. flooding etc., neighborhood improvement and public buildings construction were not an exception. As seen in Figure 50, community involvement is slightly lower after the re-planning process. We argue that the non-participatory approaches adopted by public authorities during the re-planning process as well as after increased the image of the government as a provider, which is different than the image before the Re-P.P. The notion of government as a provider is generally associated with less involvement and participation. Our argument is supported by the decrease of both physical and financial participation in most of the projects implemented after the Re-P.P. (see Figure 51).

Citizens' responses to the two questionnaires as shown in Figure 51, have generally echoed what community leaders have noted earlier, for instance, questionnaire respondents echoed the changes observed earlier by

community leader in “the spectrum of stakeholders involved” as shown in Figure 51 -1, respondents noted that citizens, traditional leaders and “NGOs/CPOs and association” were the main players in C.P process before the Re-P.P. After the Re-P.P the dominance of Bureaucrats, P.Cs and planners is evident (Figure 51 -1).

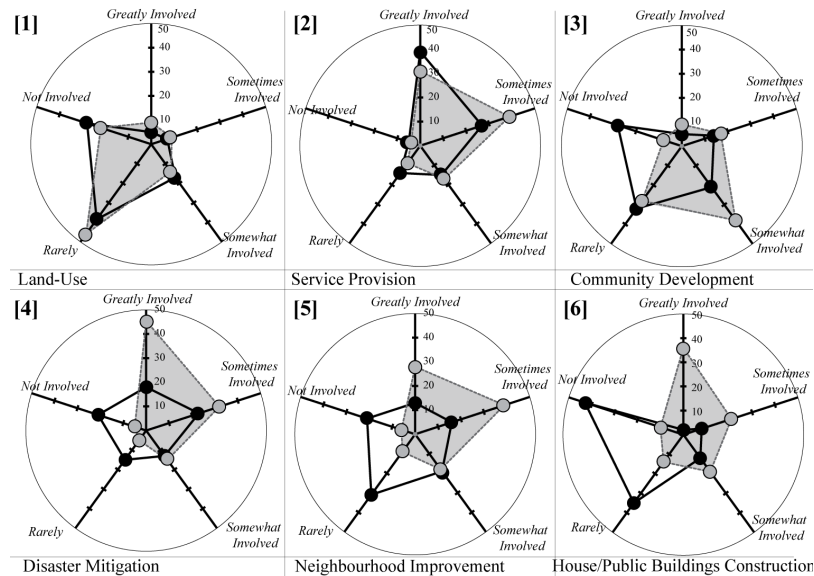


Figure 50 the UBE of community participation in the different projects categories

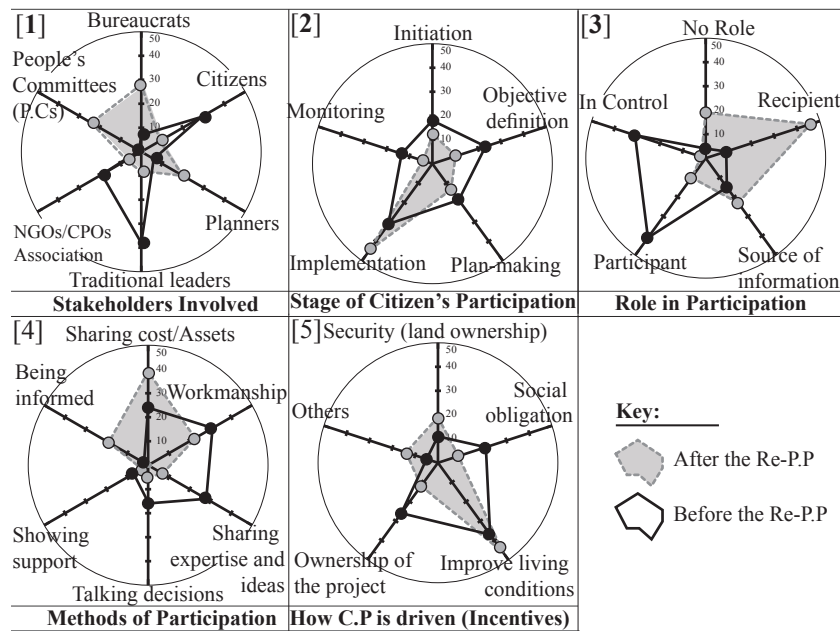


Figure 51 the UBE of their level of participation on the projects selected

The stage of citizens' participation (Figure 51 -2) as well as Citizens' role in the participation process (Figure 51 -3) also echoed what community leaders have noted in their evaluation in Figure 41. However, the motivation that drives citizens to participate changed from being driven by both the feeling of project ownership and the social obligation, to participation that focuses on improving living conditions (Figure 51 -5).

Using data from both the CLE in Figure 48 and UBE in Figure 50 and Figure 51 we envisioned a matrix by which the major changes in the participation behavior in Al-shigla before and after the re-planning process are easily identified and spotted. The matrix shown in Figure 52 Identifies three types of relationships changes related to C.P occurred before and after the Re-P.P including;

- a. Relationship between different stakeholders, among them, between them and the physical space.
- b. Types of arrangements practiced by each stakeholder in relation to projects evaluated
- c. Projects in which each stakeholders participated.

The changes observed in Figure 52 can be arrange and summarized within the three categories mentioned below.

- a. Which stakeholders were involved in in the community participation procedure in the selected projects?
- b. The relationship among those stakeholders, within them and between them and the physical space (projects they carry out).
- c. Types of arrangement that each stakeholder carry out with reference to the project types mentioned earlier.

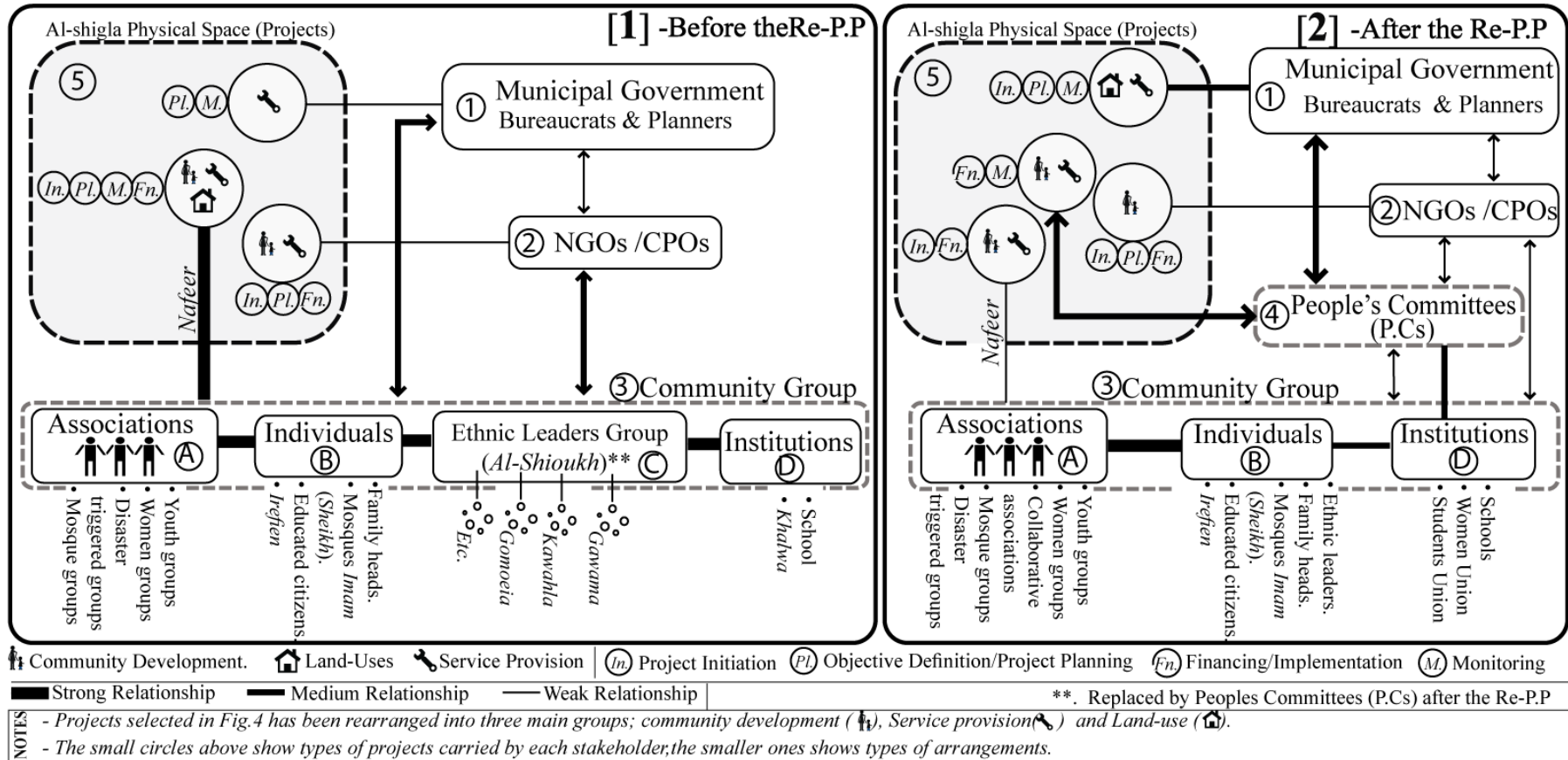


Figure 52 community participation matrix in Al-shigla case study

a) What groups/stakeholders were involved in the planning/ re-planning process?

Before to the Re-P.P, three main actors were involved in the project planning process; Community Group, CPOs/NGOs and government (Figure 52 - 1). The Community Group was composed of four strongly linked subgroups (Figure 52 -1-3) including the traditional tribal/ethnic leaders, Mosques groups and the widely respected individuals (Irefien, elders, family heads, educated citizens, Mosque/Khalwa *Imam*) and the less effective “institutions” (the school and the *Khalwa*). Tribal/ethnic group after the inaction of the Peoples’ Committees ordinances of 1992 has been replaced by the newly introduced “unelected” P.Cs, this resulted in gradual dissolution of this group in to individuals that still possess sort of importance as shown in both Figure 52 -1-c and Figure 52 -2-b. After the re-planning process served new institutions have emerged such as the women and students unions (Figure 52 -2-d and Table 17), collaborative associations have also taken a place in the associations subgroup (Figure 52 -2-a) especially with the slightly higher income citizens started to gain after the Re-P.P. NGOs/ CPOs role in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P was noticeably low.

b) The Relationship (Among, Within and to the Physical Space)

As shown in Figure 52 -1-3, prior to the Re-P.P, a horizontal, yet strong sort of community relationships among the four community subgroups existed. This relationship that is centered on the traditional tribal group created an interactive communication process, which resulted not only in easy but also binding decision-making process. In terms of projects conducted, Community Group prior to the Re-P.P had a strong relationship to the projects implemented (named as Al-shigla Physical space in Figure 52). Community Group collectively decided the location of many projects including the Mosque, *Khalwa* and the Market (Suk). Driven by the concept of *Nafeer*, Community Group had also designed and built several projects (Khalwa, School and health center).

NGOs/CBOs role in the area could arguably be considered as weak, yet, they maintained a relationship to Community Group that ranges from weak to medium (Figure 52 -1), NGOs helped in the provision of the water service and the health center (*Shifa Khana*).

Government institutions (Bureaucrats and Planners) linkage to Community Group is weak. Municipal government prior to the Re-P.P considers Al-shigla as unplanned, thus they placed a minimal physical intervention in the area. In this regard, community normally approaches respective government authorities in case they seek/need a service-delivery project. After the Re-P.P and the inaction of P.Cs ordinance, the Community Group contact with local government has to be channeled through P.Cs as shown in Figure 52-2-4. The latter, have medium connection to both government and the physical space (projects), yet, they kept a weak-vertical relationship to Community Group.

c) Types of Arrangement in the participation process

Before to the Re-P.P, Community Group was assigned to carry out four arrangements including; initiation (In), planning (PI), financing/ implementation (Fn) and monitoring (M) of “services delivery, community development and land uses projects” as shown in Figure 52 -1-5. Government institutions were involved in the planning and the management of service provision projects. NGOs role was at the level of initiation, planning and financing of community development and service delivery projects leaving the task of project management to either Community Group or likely to the government. After the Re-P.P (Figure 52 -2-5) NGOs kept playing the same role but the scope of their work focuses more on community development (poverty alleviation, literacy, Maternal health and women empowerment). Projects initiation and planning increasingly became a function that is carried out by the Government (bureaucrats, planners) with assistance from P.Cs. Along side with that, the scope of the projects undertaken by the government increased.

After the Re-P.P, government also deals directly with basic services, land-uses and area development. P.Cs become responsible for community level development projects including education, area development and land management. After the Re-P.P, Community Group itself focuses mainly in project initiation (the completion of the electricity service provision), financing of service delivery projects (including water, electricity and the Mosque) and community development (the School). The main changes observed (findings) can generally be summarized as follow

The above-mentioned changes are quite diverse as well as multi-facet. To simplify and recap this, the major community participation changes observed are summarized as follows in Table 21.

Table 21 Summary of the C.P changes observed in Al-shigla case study

Before the Re-P.P	After the Re-P.P
Planning is dominated by citizens' traditional leaders and citizens groups (citizens In control).	Bureaucrats, planners and P.Cs dominate the planning process (citizens as recipient).
Participation as a social duty for the group benefit (desire & need driven).	Participation is necessary for development (need/objective driven).
Participation is conducted in almost all project stages.	Participation focus on project implementation.
Participation is based on self-help, sometimes with outsider's technical assistant (e.g. NGOs /Government.).	Community becomes more government dependent with some self-help Activities.
Horizontal relationship among community groups (problem of leadership).	Vertical relationship to People's Committees (problem of representation)
Few locally-managed and controlled institutions and associations.	Several institutions and associations that are mostly managed by outsiders.
Ethnicity is major driver for community participation.	Participation is based more on civic structure rather than ethnicity.
Limited but accessible self-help based resources (absence of social entrepreneurship).	Relatively higher resources through Govt. & P.Cs but harder to access (higher income, but no social entrepreneurship).
Ethnic and traditional leaders as the center of local level consensus building.	P.Cs as the center of the process.
General decrease of NGOs role in the physical space.	Increasing role of planners, bureaucrats and P.Cs.
Community Groups participation through <i>Nafeer</i> is high.	<i>Nafeer</i> becomes less used and mostly focused on financing and project implementation.

Chapter Five;

Al-salama Case Study

This part provides further detailed investigation of the community participation in the second case study of Al-salama. As in Al-shigla, this chapter provides information about AL-salama case study, the research design and approach as well as research application.

Al-salama Case Study

1 Section One; The Location of Al-salama case study and basic information

1.1 Introduction

Al-salama is located South of the city of Khartoum at the south edge of the old (now removed) Green Belt.¹ The village is an important neighborhood in Jabal Awleiya locality. Extending some 980 meters East-West and 1820 meters North-South, the 1.74 Km² area is modestly connected to the center of Khartoum through an urban link/street that is primarily used for commuting purposes. The topography of Al-salama is generally flat with an altitude of 380 to 400 meter above sea level (Ali, 2005). The area as compared to Al-shigla is generally neglected and less incorporated in the previous Master and Structure plans of the capital region (see appendices).

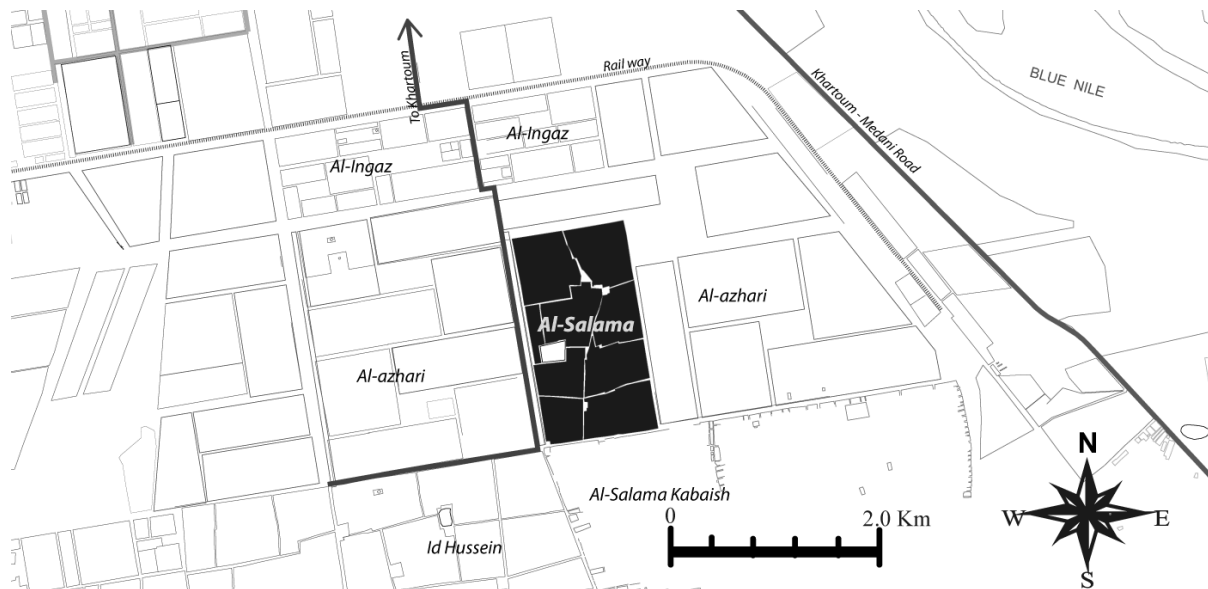


Figure 53 the location of Al-salama Case study

1.2 How does Al-salama evolve?

Many stories have been told about how the village of *Al-Salama* originated. Most of the elders interviewed claimed that the village is dated back to about 1890s. Nonetheless, Al-salama is originally a cattle-herders village at the fringes of the city of Khartoum. The Latter was the main market of the dairy products produced there. By 1930s, the area has witness a real development boost. Many settlers considered the digging of the Borehole

¹ Al-Ingaz neighborhood as shown in the above Figure is planned on top of the remains of this Green belt.

water well by *Al-shareef Youssef*² as the real formation of the village. Several cattle-herders “including *Al-shareef* herd” began to relocate to AL-salama taking the advantage of the borehole well as source for drinking water for both of them and their cattle. Many settlers name the area as *Salamat Al-shareef*.³

1.3 The significance of Al-salama case study

Various factors contributed to shape the importance of Al-salama. The most significant one is its historical importance as the only village that existed south of the Green belt surrounded Khartoum during the first Khartoum Master Plan of developed by Doxiadis and Associates in 1971.⁴ Population homogeneity exhibited in Al-salama also makes it a unique urban dependent village (see chapter one-Section two).

Prior to 1980s, Al-salama had drawn little attention to urban planning in Khartoum. In fact the village was neither shown in 1957 Master plan nor 1971 plan (see appendices). Nonetheless, Al-salama has gotten a lot of importance after Greater Khartoum Action Program, which was part of Khartoum Structure Plan of 1990. As a result, the area became one of the six priority development zones identified by this plan. The latest “new” Khartoum Structure Plan 2008-2033 retains this importance. Al-salama was thus qualified as one of the anticipated Urban Centers south of the city of Khartoum.⁵

1.4 Population characteristics in Al-salama

Although population data for Al-salama are limited and scant, the population census of the year 2008 shows that Al-salama has a total population of 19,243 inhabitants. The total population is distributed between the three blocks of Al-salama as 7,732 inhabitant in block one, 6,347 inhabitant in two and 5,164 inhabitant in block three.⁶ These figures exhibits that Al-salama is quite densely populated. A marginal majority of some ethnic groups such as *Ja`alin*, *Butaheen* and *Kawahla* is observed among our respondents as seen in Figure 54. The original settlers' ethnic group “*Butaheen*” is no longer the dominant ethnic group. The speed of demographic change is rapidly accelerating. The current ethnic affiliation of our sample, which is shown in Figure 54, exhibits the above statements.

² Al-shareef Youssef is one of the notable Muslims as well as religious and political leaders in the history of Sudan.

³ The name of al-salama it self comes from the name of a tree that was dominating the area, which settlers cattle depends on it as the main food. Nonetheless many of the citizens named it as *Salamat al-shareef* as a reward for him for digging the well.

⁴ An interview with Mrs. Kawther Moh. Ali, Senior Planner at MPPU.

⁵ Khartoum previous master and structure plans are attached at the appendices.

⁶ Although the previous population data were given by the local administration office, the author believe that these figures are over calculated and do not show the reality.

The population of Al-salama is characterized by a balanced male-to-female percentage. Population density ranges from 14056 Inhabitant / Km² in block one, to 7377 Inhabitant / Km² in block three. Unlike Al-shigla case study, population in Al-salama is generally heterogeneous. The highest density is observed in block one which was old the center and the origin of the village. Average population density (arithmetic density) of the whole village is 10690 Inhabitant / Km². This figure is higher than both the average of the capital region, as well as Al-shigla case study.

The original settlers' block (Block1) illustrates the most heterogeneous block among the others. Block two is more homogeneous, dominated by settlers from North of Sudan. Block three on the other hand (which accommodates most of the new comers) exhibits more balanced ethnic distribution, yet, less heterogeneous if compared to block one. This states that; unlike Al-shigla, Al-salama was and still heterogeneous with slight domination of the Butaheen ethnic group.

In general, Al-salama population can be characterized as middle aged. Figure 54 shows that 74% of our sample is younger than 50 years old.⁷ The elders, though are well represented in the P.Cs and village development committees, they shape only 26% of the total population. The average family size in Al-salama as much as other African cities is generally high. The majority of our respondents (64%) have a family sized between 6-9 Inhabitants, most of which has stayed more than 20 years in the area.

The period of resident in Al-salama has confirmed the rapidly changing demographic and population structure. One third of our respondents (35%) have stayed less than 10 years in Al-salama. In other words, 35% of our respondents settled in Al-salama after the Re-P.P.

⁷ Our sample was based on house-heads of randomly chosen plots within the three blocks. Sixty samples were selected from each block.

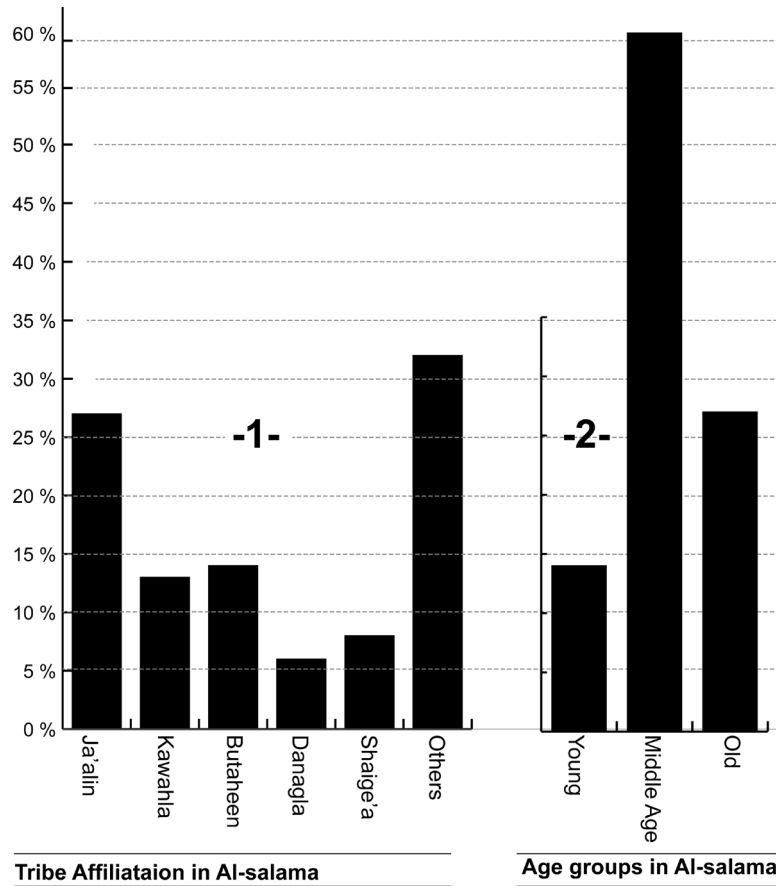


Figure 54 ethnic affiliation and age groups of the sample selected for this case study

Although, the Sudanese economy was booming in very high rates, Sudan is still poor country with very low per/capita. It is not surprising thus that most of respondents in Al-salama (86%) rated their income level as low (less than 25.000 ¥ a month). In fact, only 4% of the respondents consider their income as high (above 70.000 ¥ a month). On the other hand, most of our respondents (64%) prove to work in private sector and/or craft industry. This majority has poor access to social security system, which is generally implemented among government employers and workers.

1.5 The Socioeconomic factors in Al-salama

1.5.1 Education

There is no doubt that education is normally associated with other socio-economic factors. In Al-salama this has been manifested. Although prior to the Re-P.P there were only two schools, the status of schools numbers in the area has boomed since 2007. Many private as well as high schools have been introduced after the Re-P.P. the conditions of government-run schools are generally poor; the level of education in the area has generally improved. The local education office reported that primary school intake in 2010 was as high as 1270 students

(Local education office statistics). The figures observed here are much higher than those possible before the re-planning process at all scales.

Education level among the residents is not an exception. Our respondents showed that quite majority of the residents are well educated. 47% of the total respondents do have a university or higher level of education. In fact, the level of education among our sample (see Figure 55) has surpassed that of the city of Khartoum, the country at large as well as that of Al-shigla case study. The education facilities on the other hand are generally miss-distributed, do not represent the actual citizens' densities and distribution, but they are far more efficient than those existed prior to the Re-P.P.⁸

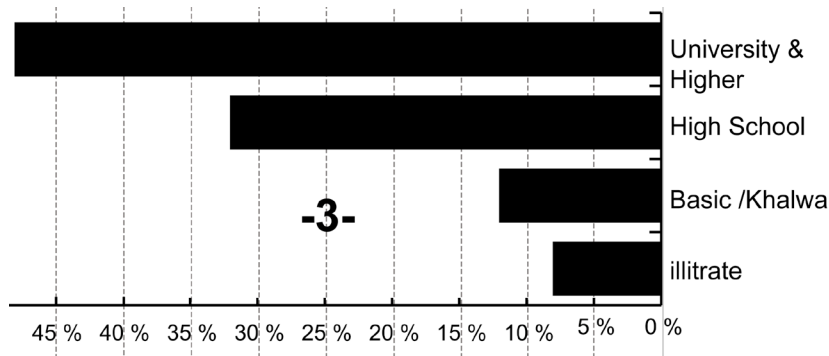


Figure 55 the level of education of questionnaire respondents

1.6 The State of Basic Services in Al-salama

1.6.1 Drinking Water supply

In most of the villages surrounding Khartoum, the basic services such as power, water and education facilities are developed, financed and managed by the community. Al-salama is not an exception. By the year 1978 citizens have managed to install and maintain an improved drinking water network system, which will be discussed later. Nonetheless, after the Re-P.P process the quality and service standards has increased. Less than 28% of the total population were having access to improved drinking prior to 1978. Our survey showed that 96% of the respondents do have access to improved drinking water supply, though they report the standard of the water supply as low with frequent water supply shortages. This figure is higher than the average of the country at large. World Bank records that only 38% of the Sudanese population has access to improved water supply (source)

⁸ Prior to the Re-P.P, there were only two schools in the whole of the village.

1.6.2 Electricity

Since 1972 many citizens in Al-salama do have access to power supply. The old power supply system before the Re-P.P was completely done through self-help and citizens' limited financial abilities. After the Re-P.P the power supply project was tremendously large. By the year 2007 more than 61% of the total population were having access to electricity.

A survey conducted prior to the re-planning process revealed that only 57% of the population do have access to electricity through the National grid (Ali, 2005). Ever since, the number of people getting serviced is increasing. Our surveys showed that xx% of the respondents do have access to electricity service in their property.

1.6.3 Surface drainage

Like most of the newly developed and re-planned area in Khartoum, Al-salama faces a serious surface drainage issue. Worries about the magnitude of this problem are equally shared between citizens and the local government officials.⁹ The two photos in Figure 56 and Figure 57 shows that; the magnitude of the surface drainage challenges. Locals blame Planning Authorities for not responding adequately.¹⁰

As much as other neighborhoods in the capital region, Al-salama, have poor access to storm water drainage. There are no dedicated channels for such purpose. The inner roads developed after the re-planning process block the water natural flow. In fact during rainy seasons citizens quite often dig trenches across these roads to allow the water to flow.

⁹ Citizens during the PRA workshop have ranked the surface drainage related problems as top priority, the same also applied for the how Planners and Bureaucrats interviewed understand the problems in Al-salama.

¹⁰ The head of peoples committees in block one reported that though citizens told the planners about the site topography and storm water drainage flow, the final re-plan had ignored their comments. The result was a surface drainage system that is poorly functioning as shown in figure 4.



Figure 56 the f garbage collection and storm water drainage challenges observed in Al-salama



Figure 57 surface and storm water drainage challenges in Al-salama, power supply system is seen at the background

1.6.4 Solid waste

The state of solid waste collection and treatment in Al-salama is relatively better compared to surface drainage. Municipal authorities collect the waste in weekly bases. Collected waste is discharged in dump grounds. No separation policy is maintained. Nonetheless, more than 93% of our surveyed sample does have access to this service. Again, the quality and the service standard are not reliable and always questioned by citizens (see Figure 56 and Figure 57). Our observations rate Al-salama level of solid waste collection and management as the same as that applied to most of the other third class neighborhood in the capital region.

1.7 Descriptive Analysis of the existing situation (features)

1.8 Land use in Al-salama

Al-salama is generally a housing neighborhood with very few in-house shops and small craft industry¹¹ allocated within the village limits. The land use map of the area (Figure 58) states that the level of urban services and facilities is generally poor. Lack of green as well as strategically distributed open spaces are clear. There are two markets that serve Al-salama. The *AL-beiara Suk*, which is the historical market located in the old historical center of the village is characterized as being small, but easily accessible marketplace. The other market (*Suk Al-laffa*) serves others neighborhoods surrounding Al-salama such as *Al-azhari*, *Id-hussein* and *Al-salama Kababish*, but it is larger and accommodates more market functions. The main bus station that serves the area is also located in this market.

Houses styles in Al-salama are generally the same as that of other Sudanese villages. Most of the houses surveyed are generally having one to two doors leading to male and female domains respectively. The *Hush* and *Daywan* are largely separated from the livable part of the house (see Figure 59). Most of the houses of the sample surveyed are built using Red Brick (69%), other buildings materials includes mud or *Galoos*¹² (12%) and concrete (16%). The types of building materials used for the houses construction shows the poor income level of most of the settlers.

¹¹ Such as Iron-forming, wood work, carpeting, etc.

¹² Galoos is a traditional form of mud construction mostly used in the rural Sudan.

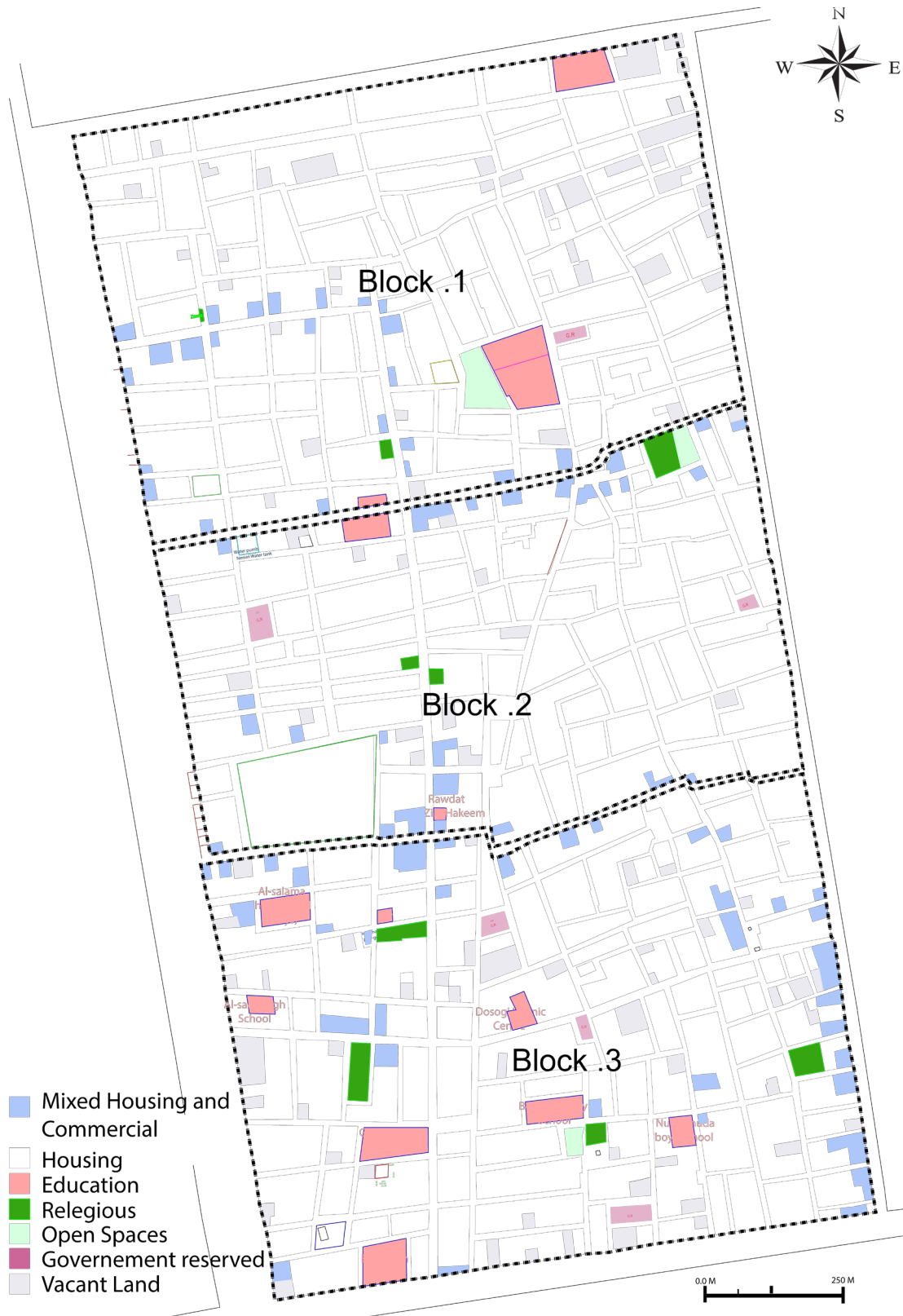


Figure 58 Land use map of Al-salama after the Re-P.P as in 2011

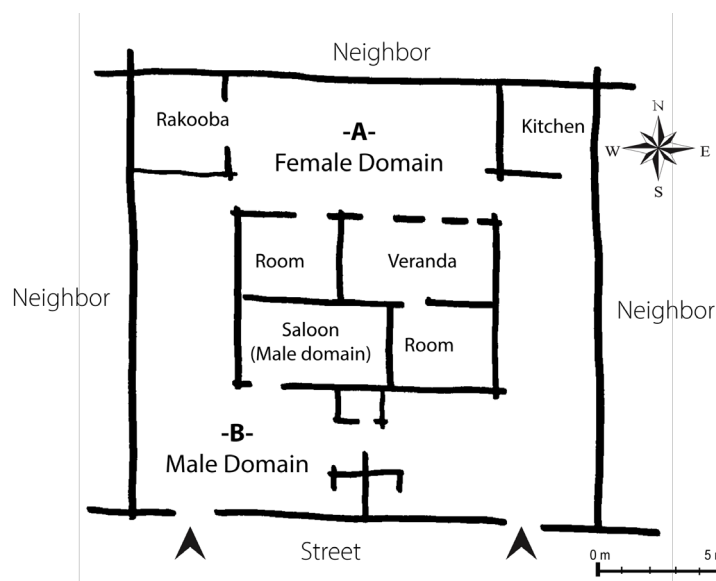


Figure 59 the plan of House No. 147 in Al-salama (Note the male and the female domain (A & B) separation)

A part from the housing activities, five types of built spaces can be identified in Al-salama. This includes but not limited to the Schools, Mosques, health facilities, Clubs and cultural buildings. The numbers and the distribution of most of those services is generally not enough and do not express the population distribution. Our field survey identified adequate number of schools of which many of them are private. There is generally only one primary health care unit PHCU that serves the 19,243 populations. Religious buildings (Mosques) are generally distributed quite intensively. Disregarding the grand Mosque, five other mosques do exist in the area as shown in Table 22. Two Khalwa as well as one club are also observed in the area.

Table 22 types of built spaces in Al-salama

		Block1	Block 2	Block3
Mosques		0	1*	4
Khalwa		3	0	2
Churches		0	0	0
Schools	Primary School	3	1	3
	High School	1	0	3
Health Facilities		1	0	0
Public Spaces		1	0	0
Market Place		1**	1**	0
centres Clubs and scoial gathering		1	0	0
Kindergarten		3	2	3
Zaweiya		2	1	0

* This is the oldest Mosque in the area, built around 1962 but renovated 3 times before re-planning.

** The Market place and the old Centre of the village extends between Block 1 and 2.

1.9 Open & public spaces

As much as most of the organized villages in Khartoum (see Al-shigla case study), lack of open and public spaces characterizes Al-salama. Within the three blocks constitutes Al-salama only one public space is observed (see Table 22 and Figure 60). The types of activities applied there are generally sport activities (mainly football) as well as student out door activities. The latter activity is taking the advantage of that this open space is neighboring four primary schools as seen in Figure 60. This open space “which is the only open space that managed to survive after the re-planning process” is also used for public meetings and general festivity activities in the area. Thus although it is located in block 1, it serves all the three blocks of Al-salama.¹³



Figure 60 General overview of the main open/public square in Al-salama. The four primary schools are seen in the background.

Green spaces and parks in Al-salama as well as most of the re-planned and third class areas in Khartoum are rare. In Al-salama no public park or public green spaces is observed. The vegetation cover is also scarce and limited

1.9.1 Vegetation cover

In general, although Al-salama lived with the history of neighboring the green belt during thirty years of its history (1960s to 1990s),¹⁴ good vegetation cover hardly exists in the public areas. Green vegetation is very minimal and

¹³ The author observed several squatter open spaces in Al-salama; yet, our investigations revealed that they are either vacant private property that is used by residents as open spaces as well as playing fields or government reserved land.

¹⁴ The green belt was built as part of 1957 Master plan, but as a result of urban expansion of the city of Khartoum the belt was removed following the 1990s Structure plan.

if exists it is generally located inside private building and properties. Our survey revealed that 52% of our sample does has sort of green vegetation either inside their plot or within two to three meters from their property line. Although a better vegetation cover is observed in block one and two of Al-salama as compared to block three, it is generally believed that green coverage in Khartoum has recently increased.¹⁵

1.9.2 Traffic, people movement and transportation (network system)

Before the re-planning process, Al-salama was connected to the center of Khartoum through the main road passes west of the neighborhood (see Figure 53). There were two main inner roads that intersect at the old center of the village where the market, grand Mosque and *Al-shareef* borehole water well are located.

The routes of the inner roads structure did not change much from those before after the re-planning process. Nonetheless, their capacities and impacts on the village are evident. The paved asphalt roads though have contributed to the increase of the land price in the area; they have created a surface drainage problem in Al-salama by blocking the natural water flow. The miss understanding of the Site topography contributed to the poor surface drainage observed in Al-salama.

¹⁵ An interviews with Mr. Osman Al-Ashai', a former community leader and People Committee member. July 16, 2011.

2 Section 2-a; Research approach in Al-salama case study and Data collection

In this case study, the same technique of triangulation “stated in chapter two” is used to check the quality of data. Data collected is benchmarked against the same five elements evaluation framework developed in chapter three. The research design of Al-salama case study tried to overcome some of the difficulties and limitations faced while conducting data collection in Al-shigla. To be more specific, research design in Al-salama case study includes a questionnaire to collect basic demographic data about the area including income level, education, gender, age etc.¹⁶ research design of Al-salama also includes Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) workshops as data collection/analysis tool. PRA is a rapid, yet reliable tool of collecting a quality qualitative data. The PRA workshops were introduced as an alternative to the interviews-based approaches adopted in Al-shigla case study. This was necessary as interviews in Al-shigla showed some level of bias among the interviewees. However, using PRA does not necessarily imply t abandoning interviews as a research approach.

Research design in Al-salama case study is thus design in four different modules. The four modules as shown in Figure 61 are thus discussed henceforth.

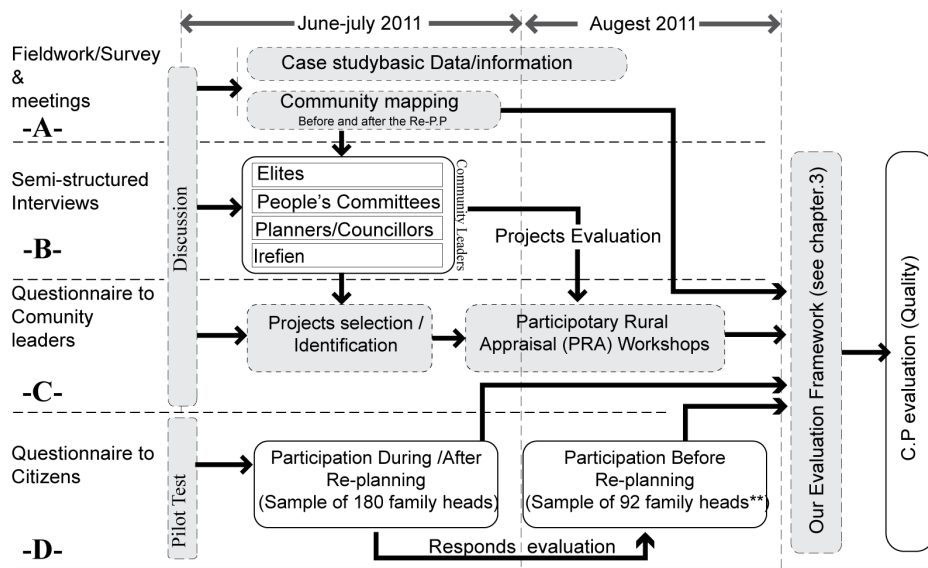


Figure 61 Research approach in Al-salama case study and the different research modules

2.1 Module one

In this module, two preliminary meetings with P.Cs of Al-salama block one and two were conducted. The meetings generally discussed research objectives and importance as well as the community benefits and gains

¹⁶ This basic demographic information was not available at local government level in Al-shigla as well as Al-salama. Thus we tried to use the questionnaire to provide some of these data.

out of this research. The meetings were followed by informal discussions about community organizations' structure, behavior, objectives and dynamics both before and after the Re-P.P. The result was a community mapping for the area that identifies main community organizations, their objectives, activities as well as their level of interest.

2.2 Module two

Based on the community mapping process conducted at module one, a series of structured and informal interviews with community leaders were initiated. A questionnaire was also distributed to the main community leaders identified by the community mapping process. The objective of the questionnaire was to identify the most important participatory projects developed in the area before and after the re-planning process. The questionnaires were also intended to gather basic data in regards to our evaluation framework developed in chapter three.

2.3 Module three

Two Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) workshops were conducted. The workshops were organized in terms of focused groups that include citizens, planners, and policy-makers. The aim of the workshops was generally to analysis the projects that have been stated as a priority by the majority of the community leaders through the questionnaire in module.1.

As results two workshops were deemed a priority. The first PRA workshop was set to answer these questions with regard to C.P projects identified by community leaders after the Re-P.P. The questions are;

- Who are the main stakeholders involved in the planning process of those projects?
- In which stage of participation citizens are involved?
- What role does citizens play in the participation Process?
- What methods of participation were used in the process?

The second workshop was set to answer the same questions, but with focus on projects prior to the re-planning process.

2.4 Module four

The second Triangulation process was achieved in this module. The Triangulation was achieved through two questionnaires distributed to citizens. The first questionnaire was assigned to collect basic citizens' demographic data as well as their level of participation in the projects identified as priority projects in module two. The second questionnaire focused on citizen's participation in the same projects identified prior to the Re-P.P. Respondents of the first questionnaire were randomly chosen. Respondents were also equally distributed among the three

block of Al-salama.¹⁷ The questionnaires were conducted through door-to-door surveys. Targeted respondents were the family-heads of the randomly selected plots. The Second questionnaire respondents were chosen from the same first respondents in the condition that they have witnessed the projects implemented prior to the re-planning process. Respondents' distribution as well as collected questionnaires generally exhibits a balanced distribution of collected forms among the 3 blocks that form Al-salama.¹⁸

¹⁷ Sixty respondents from each block

¹⁸ For questionnaire basic data as well as the Respondents' distribution map see appendices.

3 Section 2-b; Data Collection Process

3.1 Module One, the community mapping process & basic community information

In this module, we adopted a strategy of community mapping both before the re-planning as well as after. We used the narrative as an approach to get information about community structure both before and after the re-planning process. Our approach was based on informal discussions as well as story telling with community leaders as well as *Irifein*. The aim of this step was to identify the main community organizations their functions, objectives and levels of engagement in the community participation projects.

At the second stage, we contacted those organizations' key members and leaders to obtain key information about those organizations. Our objective in this step is to understand the scope, level as well as magnitude of those organizations engagement in the community participation activities in the area. Our goal is to look at the actual conditions, capacities and engagement of these organizations in the area rather than what is anticipated by them.

3.1.1 Community mapping of Al-Salma after the re-planning process

The spectrum of community groups identified in Al-salama after the Re-P.P accompanied with their level of engagement, basic information about their activities, members as well as their income sources is shown in Table 23. As a result, eighteen different community groups have been identified in Al-salama after the re-planning process. Within those eighteen groups, six are the Mosque groups. The latter groups are generally involved in Mosque development and maintenance. The Mosque groups' activities in many cases extend beyond the Mosque to host as well as commence some community-based activities such as neighborhood cleaning. Mosque groups however are less involved in urban planning issues in Al-salama.

Excluding the Sudanese Women Union, several women saving groups were also identified (see Figure 62). These groups are relatively adopting closed membership typology i.e. members from the same family or the same ethnic group. These groups are managed and administered by women. The group's main focus is to assist its member's financial capabilities through locally managed savings. Some of these groups do have a system by which public goods are provided to its member at low-to-no cost, i.e. cooking utensils. These groups are generally closed, very homogeneous in terms of income level as well as ethnic background. Women group's in general do not have direct involvement in planning issue in the area.

Another active, yet, less engaged group is the sport group. Although this group located in block one, which has better access to the main open space in which sport activities are practiced, the influence of this group in the urban development is minimal.

A very respectful group that seems to be admired more than the existing NGOs/CBOs is the elite group. This group is generally dominated by four categories of citizens includes; 1) Educated peoples; 2) Higher income citizens; 3) Religious leaders and; 4) Schools/Khalwa teachers. Male generally dominates the elite group. This is not surprising as women chances to get higher level of education as well as income are generally less than male.

An interesting observation of the community in Al-salama after the Re-P.P is that male and female in general have a different domain in volunteer activities and participation. Although male and females might be participating in the same projects, they generally conduct different tasks. This is quite common in this Muslim community. We also observed that the spatial distribution of those groups generally exhibits a concentration in block one of Al-salama. Block one is actually the original block in the area that is mostly inhabited by the original settlers.

To recap, the community mapping of Al-salama after the re-planning process (as shown in Figure 62 and Table 23) can generally be summarized in the following groups;

- a. Students, Youth and women Groups; this group includes the women union, women saving groups, students union and women study groups. This group generally focuses on gender or age-specific issues rather than the general public matters.
- b. Religious-based Groups; includes both the Mosque development groups as well as the Khalwa groups. Semi-state administered Groups; this include the Peoples Committees as well as the local trade union. These two groups though work at the local level and administered by local citizens, they are strongly linked to state through their programs and projects. Thus these two groups generally get the least admiration from the citizens.

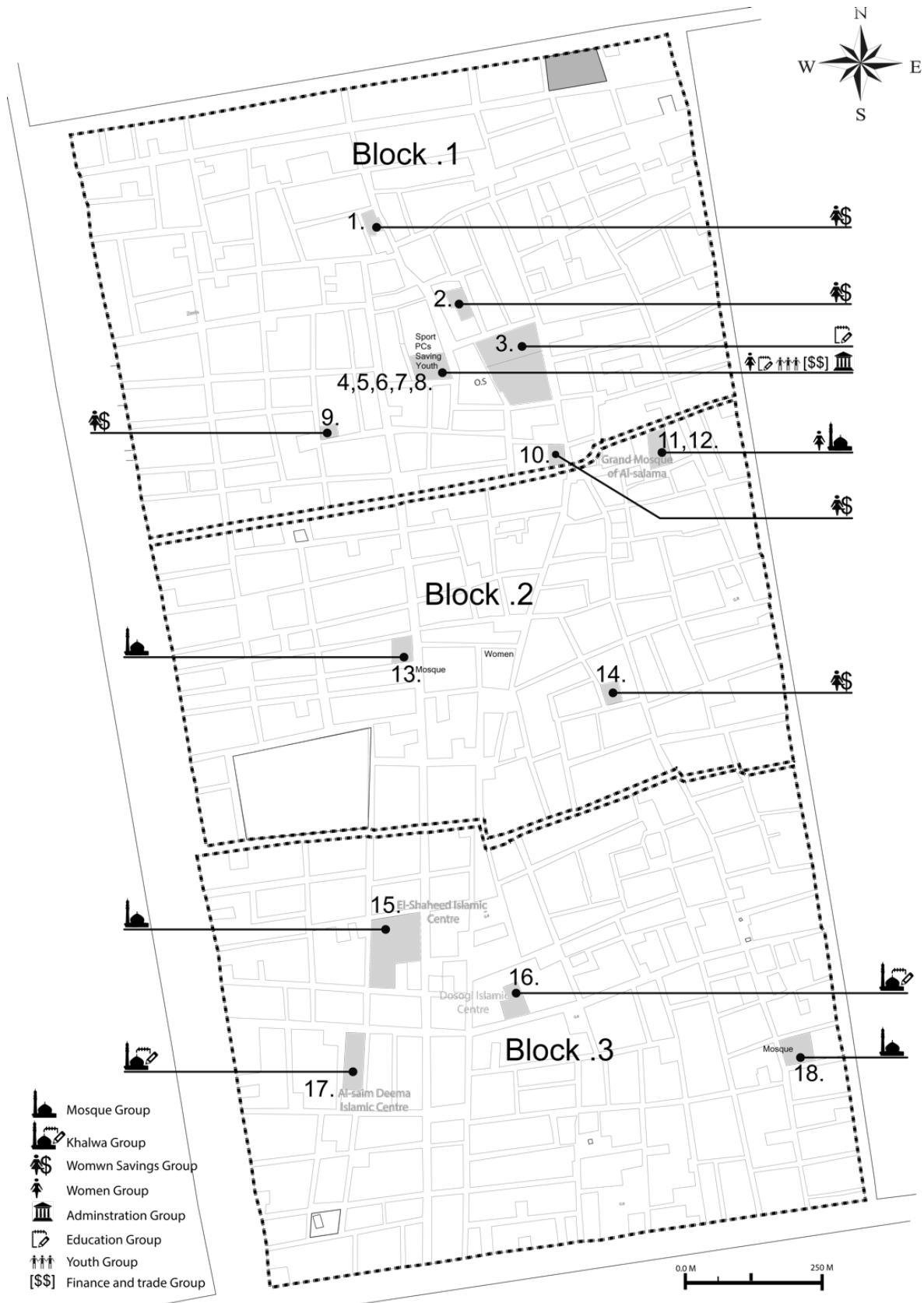


Figure 62 Community mapping in Al-salama After the Re-planning Process (based on 2011 fieldwork)

Table 23 community mapping process in Al-salama after the re-planning process

Al-salama After the Re-P.P										
No	Name of Organization Association	Objectives of the Organization	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
1	Women Saving Groups (a) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group Kitchen utensils Bank	Member monthly payments	Association	Active	Low	In	High	No
2	Women Saving Groups (b) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group	Member monthly payments	Association	Active	Low	In	High	No
3	Students Union	Students' assistant. Community development through Students involvement.	Culture and education Students mobilization	Government funds Donations Income generated by services they provide	Institution	Active	Low	Outside	Very low	Yes
4	Peoples' Committees	Represents Citizens at government levels. Manage local development including education / health /Environment etc. Mobilize citizens for government-initiated projects.	Issuing Residents certificates. Education	Government Local revenues	Semi-Government	Active	Low	In	Medium	Yes
5	Trade Union	Provide cheaper basic daily food needs.	Provide cheaper basic daily food needs.	Members subscription Donation Profit	Institution	Inactive	High	In	High	Yes

6	Youth /Sport Groups (No Specific Name)	Football development for youth fans	Football development	Donations Members Subscription	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
7	University and higher institutes Students Association	Area development	Assist in filling education gaps at local schools. Organize summer schools for senior high school students.	Donations. Members subscription	Association	No	High	In	High	Yes
8	Women Union	Improve women role in Society. Literacy eradication.	Literacy eradication. Women mobilization	Government Donations NGO specific revenues.	Institution	Active	Low	Outside	Medium	Yes
9	Women Saving Groups (c) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group	Member monthly payments	Association	Inactive	Low	In	High	No
10	Women Saving Groups (d) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group Cooking Utensils Exchange	Member monthly payments	Association	Active	Low	In	High	No
11	Women Study Groups	Community Development	Quran and illiteracy eradication group	Members monthly payment Donations	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
12	Grand Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
13	Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
14	Women Saving Groups (e) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group	Member monthly payments	Association	Active	Low	In	High	No

15	Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
16	Khalwa Group	Education Khalwa Development/management.	Education Khalwa Development	Self-help Donations Students fees	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
17	Khalwa Group	Education, Khalwa Development/management.	Education Khalwa Development		Association	Active	High	In	High	No
18	Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations						

3.1.2 Community in Al-salama before the re-planning process

Prior to the re-planning process several communities do existed. As shown in Table 24, we identified about eight acting community groups before the re-planning process. Many of the groups identified are still active even after the re-planning process. To be more specific, most of the women saving groups as well as the Khalwa and Mosque management groups continued to function even after the re-planning process. The number of these groups however does changed with more of them observed after the re-planning process.

The community mapping of Al-salama before the Re-P.P (which is shown in Figure 63) can generally be summarized in the following three groups;

- a. Women saving Groups, This group generally focuses on sharing household's items as well as acing as saving banks for the members. As before the re-planning, women groups are somehow close to the women from the same ethnic groups or those who are strongly connected together.
- b. Religious-based Groups; includes both the Mosque development groups as well as the Khalwa groups.
- c. Elite dominated Groups; this includes the organizations that are run by the elite groups.

As observed after the Re-P.P the spatial distribution of the community organizations generally show concentration around the grand Mosque and the old bore hole Water Well/the market area. We also observed that the objectives of the community organization before the re-planning process mostly reflects its members' general interests rather than the community at large. An exception to this might be the Community Leaders and Elite group.

In general, several, changes are observed within the community organizations before and after the re-planning process, for instance the community organizations before the Re-P.P generally seems to be less organized, but they are highly involved in the projects initiated and implemented in the area. Community organizations before the Re-P.P also focus more on the local issues of Al-salama. In the contrary, after the Re-P.P, community organization seems to be more organized, with higher magnitude and number including NGOs (which have no existence before the Re-P.P). Nonetheless, community organizations after the re-planning process are less involved in the participatory work in Al-salama. In this regard, the community organizations seem to be more diverse in the issues they touch. This came at the cost of them ignoring the local issues as compared to before the Re-P.P.

Its also observed that most of the community groups before the re-planning process does have a higher level of community representation than those after. In other words, the few community organizations existed before the re-planning process represents the various age, income and ethnic groups in the community. This was directly

reflected on the creditability of the leaders of those organizations. In general Table 24 and Table 23 illustrates that leadership creditability before the Re-P.P is higher than that observed after.

We also observed that of one the common factor of the community groups both before and after the Re-P.P is the low level of state contribution in community activities. Most of the groups identified depend largely on their limited members donations and membership fees. This might be referred to that quite few of those organizations do actually have official registration (See Table 24). The last two observations are a common challenges observed in the Sudanese civil society.

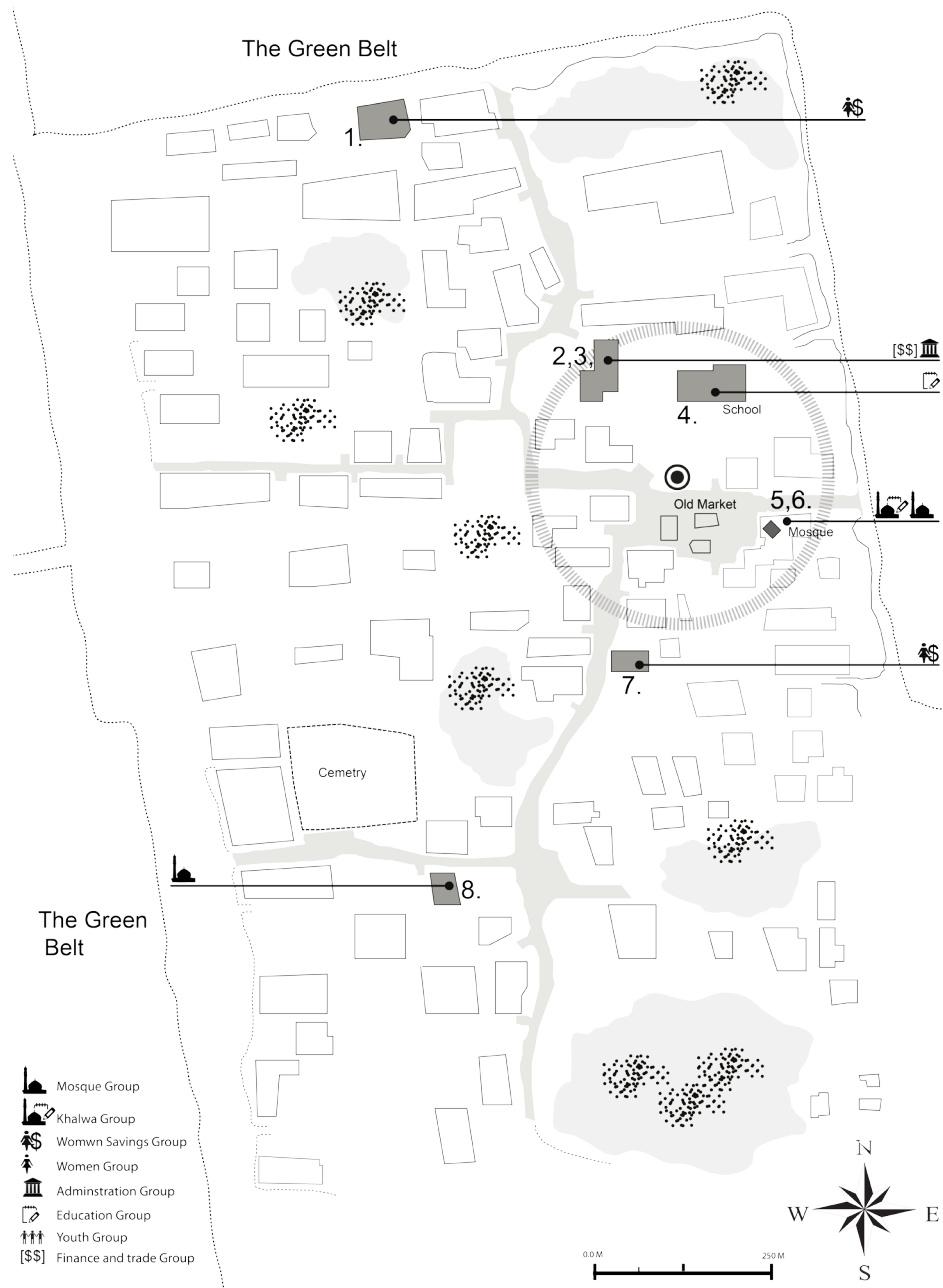


Figure 63 Community mapping of Al-salama before the re-planning process

Table 24 Community mapping of Al-salama before the re-planning process

Al-salama before the Re-P.P										
No	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
1	Women Saving Groups (a) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group Kitchen utensils Bank	Member monthly payments	Association	Inactive	Low	In	High	No
2	Elite Group	Represents Citizens at government levels. Manage local development including education / health /Environment etc. Mobilize citizens for government-initiated projects.	Issuing Residents certificates. Education	Government Local revenues	Semi-Government	Active	Low	In	Medium	Yes
3	Trade Union	Provide cheaper basic daily food needs.	Provide cheaper basic daily food needs.	Members subscription Donation Profit	Institution	Inactive	High	In	High	Yes
4	Illiteracy eradication group	Education for illiterate senior citizens	Alternative School	Self-help Donations Students nominal fees	Institution					
5	Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Inactive	High	In	High	No

Al-salama before the Re-P.P										
No	Name of Organization Association	Objectives	Main Activities	Funding Sources	Type of Org./Inst.	Current Conditions	Community representation	Location of Organization.	Leaders credibility	Official Registration
6	Khalwa Group	Education Khalwa Development/management.	Education Khalwa Development	Self-help Donations Students fees	Association	Active	High	In	High	No
7	Women Saving Groups (a) (No Specific Name)	Savings group	Savings group Kitchen utensils Bank	Member monthly payments	Association	Inactive	Low	In	High	No
8	Mosque Development Group	Mosque Development/management.	Mosque Development/Community Development	Self-help Donations	Association	Inactive	High	In	High	No

3.2 Module Two Projects Spectrum and community participation

This module is set to identify the major projects that have been implemented using community participation in Al-salama both before and after the re-planning process. The objective of this module is to identify the projects that will be the basis of our investigations. Our approach in this module was based on a questionnaire distributed to community leaders. Respondents include People’s Committee’s members, planners, Irefien, Elites as well as local officials and bureaucrats. A total of 180 questionnaires were distributed with 141 collected. The community leaders were asked to list four of the most important projects that have been implemented in Al-salama. The result of the community leaders’ questionnaire as shown in Figure 64 states that hierarchy the most important projects in Al-salama are

- a) Al-salama School
- b) The water supply project
- c) The power supply project
- d) The primary health care Unit

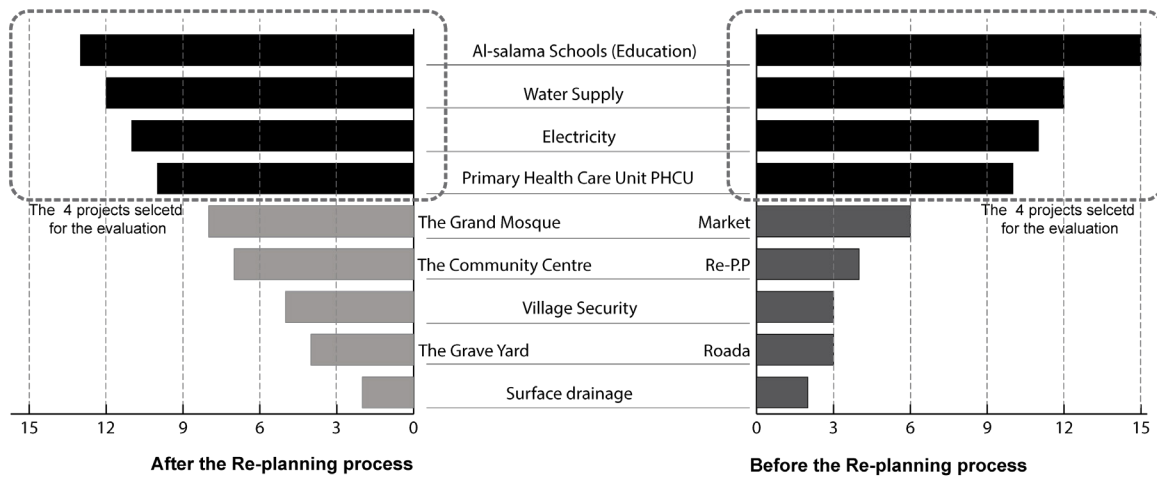


Figure 64 the scope of projects identified by community leaders as priority projects

As a result of this questionnaire and our basic investigations/interviews about the projects identified in Figure 64, the four projects stated above will be our subject of our investigations regarding community participation in al-salama both before and after the re-planning process.

3.2.1 Community participation in development projects in Al-salama before the Re-P.P

3.2.1.1 Service delivery projects

3.2.1.1.1 Drinking water supply project

Al-salama was one of the first villages in Khartoum in which a modern drinking water network was installed.¹⁹ Unlike the first network that was completely done by citizens' efforts, state shared nearly 30% of the cost of this network. The state contribution however, was mostly materialized, i.e. providing water pipelines, fittings, as well as other accessories necessary for the network.

The first stage of this project started as early as 1980s and continued for about a year. The network was very basic. Water, which is pumped from the well, is stored at water tank that was partially subsidized by the state. The water was then transported using plastic/rubber pipelines system. The cost of installing the water service at the household at this stage was relatively high for the income level most of the citizens can afford. Accordingly, less than fifty households did have this service installed in their plots.²⁰

Prior to state approval of the water network, citizens were requested by Rural Water Department to approach the planning institutions (Ministry of Planning) for surveying the area and registering the *Hiyazat*.²¹ The Land administration at the Ministry of Planning assigned a surveyor for this purpose. Each household paid 30 SDG (about 1200 JPY) to cover the survey cost.

The concept of the social entrepreneurship was very evident in this project. Community leaders (the Elite group) had used the profit gained from selling the water to finance other projects including electricity supply, schools maintenance, etc. In fact the income generated by selling the water represents about 50% of the cost of the electricity supply project and nearly 40% of the schools maintenance cost managed by community leaders and elites.²²

Although a technician from the Rural Water department was present during implementation, the Village improvement committees and elites were actually the main supervisor of the project. Water pipeline installation was completed by citizens themselves. Reducing the water connection fees paid by citizens was an incentive

¹⁹ Interview with Mohammed Khawaga, and engineer at the local planning office.

²⁰ No information about the exact amount of money paid by each household.

²¹ *Al-hiyaza* is a traditional land management system practiced in rural Sudan.

²² The second meeting with community leaders (August, 23rd 2011)?

used to encourage those who participate in laying down the water pipeline. The inauguration of the drinking water network project was precedent by major greening project supported by the former president of the republic *Gaffar Numiri*.

3.2.1.1.2 The power supply project

The power supply project in Al-salama was the third oldest major service project in Al-salama. Started in 1976 but extended up to 1989. Prior to approaching the respective government authorities (mainly N.E.C), community leaders (elites, Mosque Imam, Educated citizens and tribal leaders) call for a public meeting to discuss this issue. The meeting resulted in forming a committee composed of the same community leaders as well as two more citizens to be responsible of all arrangements related to the electricity provision process.

For three year (1979 to 1982) the committee main task was to convince National Electricity Corporation to extend the National Electricity grid to the area. The process of extending the National power grid to areas that are considered unplanned was generally not common.²³ Nonetheless, a two stages agreement was finally reached between the community from one side and NEC as well as planning authorities from the other. Accordingly, the power lines were finally at al-salama. by the end of in 1982. By 1983 households start to have power connections.²⁴

At the first stage of the project, the power lines served only the three major public buildings. To be more specific, power lines served the grand Mosque, the school as well as the water-borehole well power pumps. The second stage of the project was extending the same network to the other neighborhoods households.

Community paid the cost of the whole process. This includes the cost of concrete poles.²⁵ The electric wires as well as the technicians' tips/incentives. The money gained from selling the water produced by the borehole water well was also used to partially finance this project. Citizens have to pay the connection fees (estimated as 1500 Yen) plus the cost of the electric pole that transfers the power in to their property. The latter cost was estimated as 3.600 Yen.

The NEC workers and technicians started the poles manufacturing process in Al-salama's main square (the square in front of the schools in Figure 60). After some days community leaders realize that the work is not fast

²³ Although some exceptions applied, but this was uncommon practice before the formal re-planning or integration of the village.

²⁴ A meeting with community leaders prior to the PRA workshop, August 9th 2011.

²⁵ The cost from the main connector line was shared between Al-salama and Id-hussein neighborhoods. A cost of 28 high-tension power poles that extends 9 Km from the National grid was divided between the two-served neighborhoods.

enough. Thus, to speed the process as well as to lower the installation cost, community leaders mobilized the community members in order to locally produce the concrete power poles. A Nafeer supervised by the National Electricity Corporation technicians as well as the community leaders and elite was then called-upon. To incentivize citizens, community leaders decided that those who don't participate in this process would have to pay for the cost of the concrete pole connecting them to the grid. Community in general was actually displeased with those who did not participate in this Nafeer.²⁶

The third Nafeer practiced during this project was named as "*Fuk Al-silik*" Nafeer. This Nafeer literally means the Nafeer of electric-wire unfolding. This Nafeer was practiced in the afternoon for about five successive days. Most of the households participated in this process, each with a clearly defined role. For instance women were assigned to prepare the food and drinks. Young male are the one who are doing most of the physical work. Old men, together with community leaders were mostly supervising the work and giving instructions.²⁷

The power grid layout was planned and casted-in-situ. Community leaders together with NEC technicians were taking decisions on the spot regarding the location and the distance between each power pole. A local resident working at the Agriculture Bank borrowed the Bank digging machine to be used for digging poles holes.²⁸

²⁶ The cost of the electric wires was also paid by the community, but with some subsidy from the electricity corporation.

²⁷ According to Mr. Mustafa Karenka, the Nafeer process was called-upon after the community leaders realize that the technicians provided by the NEC are intentionally slowing down the work to keep their daily incentives going.

²⁸ At later stage NEC provided their pole-hole digging machine to boost the process.

3.2.2 Community development projects

3.2.2.1 Health Service Centre (The *Shifa-khana*) building²⁹

The *Shifa-khana* started by citizens as a health service center. Its functions include providing basic medical services to citizens such as injury treatment, medical injections and first aid. Such services do not require a trained medical doctor, thus only a general practitioner was stationed in this center.

This project started by an initiative from a group of citizens that suffers from lack of access to trained nurses. The Elite Group then responds and took over this responsibility, which was deemed as a priority in the area. After a partially represented public meeting in the Grand Mosque, the Elite Group was granted the community support to carry on in this project. The major challenge for the Elite Group was to convince the health administration to provide them with a resident staff member. As soon as this was secured, community leaders called for Nafeer to construct the *Shifa-khana* as well as the home for the resident medical staff.

Community leaders decided the location of the new *Shifa-khana*.^{30, 31} Yet, setting the location was not an easy task as most of the citizens were not willing to provide piece of their "property" to this public building. Accordingly, community leaders decided to use part of the existing Mosque for this purpose. Citizens participated in this Nafeer in different forms. Some, mostly the young male joined the construction work. The elders assisted a local builder/carpenter with the in-situ-design of the three rooms *Shifa-khana* layout. Some have financially supported the citizens. Others donated some basic furniture for the new building. Women participated was limited to preparing of food and drinks for the working male.

It took about a month after the work was finished to get the project started and functioning. A part from Al-salama village, the *Shifa-khana* did served other village surrounding the area. Although the number of citizens attended the first meeting of this project was generally few, Nafeer process was well attended and represented. In fact the whole construction process was completed in about four days.

²⁹ *Shifa-khana* is a local name of a Turkish origin, it is generally represented the smallest unit of providing basic health services in the Ministry of Health in Sudan.

³⁰ Deciding the location of the *Shifa-khana* was not an easy task for the community. Yet, they chose to locate it in a high land. The final decision was left for the two oldest members of the community leaders whom chose this location.

³¹ Based on an interview with Mustafa Hamdan, 2001, the locations of all public facilities were decided upon Elite Groups recommendations.

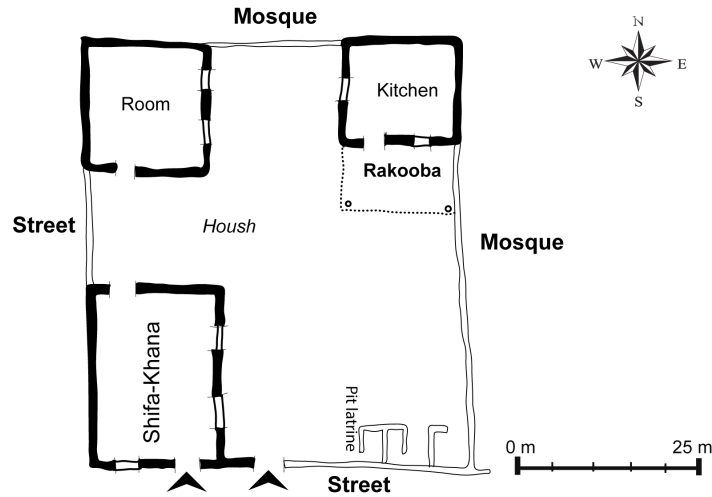


Figure 65 the general layout of the Shifa-khana building before the re-planning process

3.2.2.2 The Primary school and illiteracy eradication program

This project was the first major community development project in Al-salama prior to the re-planning process. The project started as illiteracy eradication program initiated by the local Elites. Initially, a local citizens Daywan was used as a classroom. The success and the positive response to the project encouraged the Elites to consider expanding it into a primary school where their children can get primary education.

The community-managed schools concept during 1960s-1970s was not alien to the Sudanese villages. These schools, which were named as “*Madaris Algwa Al-shabeiya*” were generally encouraged by local governments. Unlike other public schools, community-managed schools were administered at the locality level rather than the state level.

The Village Development Committee of Al-salama³² initially suggested this project. The project was achieved in four different stages described as:

- a. Stage 1: which includes creating a registry of all children at the age of education in Al-salama.
- b. Stage 2: getting a teacher who is capable, as well as willing to work in a remote village like Al-salama.
- c. Stage 3: includes the provision of temporary spaces where classes can be taken.
- d. Stage 4: establishing and building school that can educate the younger generations in the area.

³² Village Development Committee was developed by local elites with the local government support

The first stage was smooth yet, it took longer than expected to register the children's at the school age.³³ . In the second stage citizens approached the local education office, which recommended a teacher for managing this project. Daywan *Fadl-Allah* was used temporarily as a classroom until the school gets built. A total of thirty-four potential male students were registered. This number was generally beyond expectations, thus the Elites opt for a co-education school.

Prior to stage 4, a meeting with all anticipated students' parents was called upon. This meeting resulted in forming a committee to realize this project. The project fundraising process started with the formulation of this committee. Students' parents, local citizens have all contributed to finance this project. Unfortunately, the contributions collected were not enough. Accordingly the committee used the community leaders' ethnic affiliation to help in collecting donations. Each community leader was requested to collect donations from their families and tribal connections outside Al-salama.

Choosing the appropriate location of the school was a difficult task to both the committee and the Elite group. As shown in Figure 63 Al-salama has several lowlands, which were used as cattle farms. Finding a higher ground that is suitable for the school was a challenge for the committee and the elite group at this point, NIMBISM was quite evident among citizens. For instance most of the settlers refused to allow this school next or at their property. The Committee was thus forced to select a low-ground area for the project .

The local education office appointed local contractor to build the school, however most of the workers were from within Al-salama. A Nafeer was called upon to manufacture the brick necessary for the construction. The same Nafeer was also used to dig the school foundations as well as collecting material donations such as cement, wood, etc.

After the school was built, the administration was assigned to the school council composed of the students' parents. State contribution was limited to providing teachers as well as the curricula, yet teacher's salaries, school management and other arrangement were all beard by the school management committee.³⁴

³³ Most of the children did not have a birth certificate. The committee had to contact government officials to issue the age-estimation certificate for all the kids to be enrolled

³⁴ In general the committee was actually the same one, which started the project.

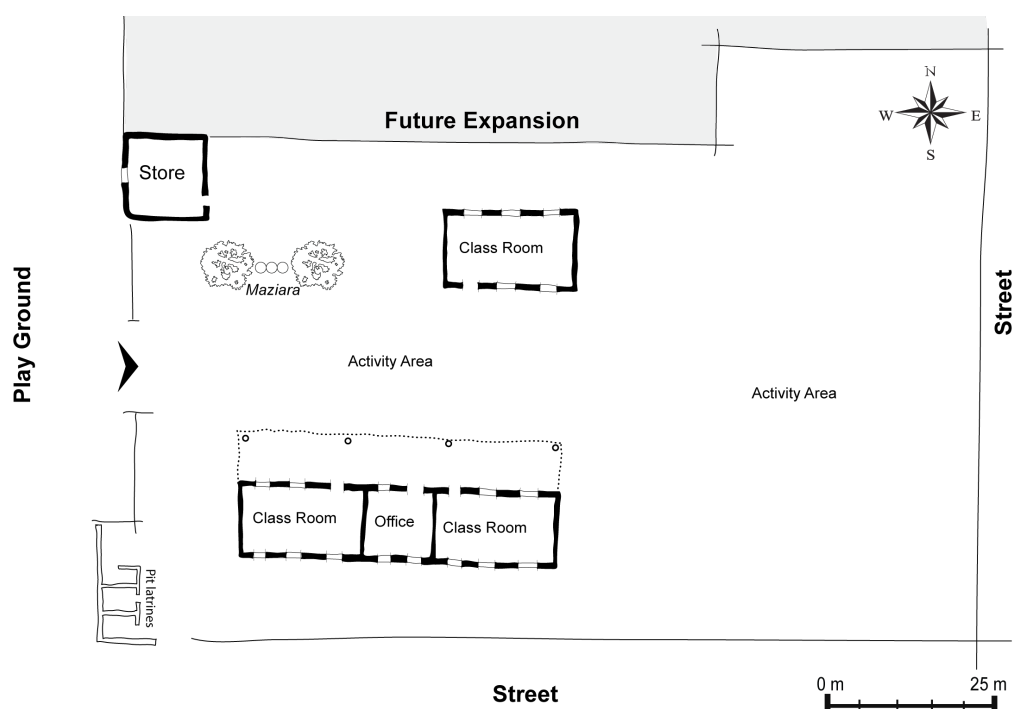


Figure 66 the general layout of the school building before the re-planning process.

After this school was built it became a center of volunteers work. in other word, it becomes the meeting place as well as the place in which most of the public-related activities were practiced.

To some up this part, a summary of the scope of the projects discussed above is shown in Table 25 that exhibits the scope of the projects, size, promoting agency, funding sources as well as participation strategy implemented

Table 25 general details of the pre-re-planning process projects

	Power supply project	Water Supply project	The Primary school	The Shifa-khana Building
Scope/Size	About 140 households	About 85 house holds	To accommodate 750 students	To serve the three block of Al-salama
Duration	7 month	5 months	-	6 months
Cost	-	-	N.A	N.A
Promoting agency	Citizens Elites	Elites Citizens	Planners	Ministry of Health Planners
Other agencies involved	NEC, Citizens,, Bureaucrats,	Citizens, Bureaucrats, Elites,	Local education office, P.Cs, Citizens	Planners, Bureaucrats, P.Cs
Funding Source	Self-help, State subsidy	Self-help, State subsidy	Self-help, State Material subsidy	Self-help, State subsidy
Citizens' participation strategies	Physical, Financial	Physical, Financial	None	Physical, Materials, Financial
Social entrepreneurship	None	Yes, Used to finance other projects	None	None

3.2.3 Community participation in development projects in Al-salama after the Re-P.P

3.2.4 Community development projects

3.2.4.1 Al-salama Primary Schools complex

The primary schools complex³⁵ built in Al-salama after the Re-P.P (see Figure 60 and Figure 67) is actually the same old primary school initiated planned, constructed and managed by the community before the Re-P.P. By which, the school was divided into two primary schools named as *Amna Bint Wahab* for girls and *El-Bara Bin Malik*. These two schools were further expanded by adding new classes, more staff as well as service buildings. The decision of dividing the old school into two-primary school (boys and girls) though was faced by some citizens' objections due to the rising citizen's fears that that their kids will have to head for farther schools. Their fear was soon swept a way as they realize the size of the two schools is getting larger with more students intake. In fact the new schools welcomed students even from neighboring neighborhood i.e. *Al-azhari* and *Id-Hussein*.

The two schools are further divided. They accommodate now four schools, which accept a total of 680 students. This schools complex is now the largest in *Jabal Awleiya* Locality.



Figure 67 General view of the schools complex (Top), bottom left and bottom right is the main entrances of both *El-Imam Anas Bin Malik* and *El-Bara Bin Malik* primary Schools.

³⁵ This school complex now accommodates 4 schools, two for boys and the same for girls.

City-planners as well as bureaucrats dominated the process of community participation in this project. The initial survey done by planning institution prior to the re-planning process identified the number of potential students in Al-salama. Accordingly planning authorities decided to split the existing co-education type of school in two schools (boys and girls). The plans and layouts of the new schools improvement were completely developed by the Re-planning Committee. After the plan approval by the Ministry of Planning the plan was handed over to the Ministry of Finance to include it as part of the yearly budget. A contractor was selected for the implementation.as soon as the project was completed it was handed over to the office of education at the *Jabal Awleiya* locality.³⁶

Community participation as practiced in this project was very limited and low. The analysis of this project in the PRA workshop (see the next section) exhibits that citizens did not participate in most of the project stages.

3.2.4.2 The Primary health care Unit

The primary health care unit was planned immediately after the land registrations process was completed in Al-salama. Nonetheless, the actual implementation (expansion) of this project took over eight months. Although this project is considerably small to discuss (see Figure 68), the procedural aspects of this project illustrates complete dominance of public institutions on its initiation, planning, finance as well as implementation.

This project involves only four stakeholders within whom citizens were not included. However, this projects shows how the health services are generally designed and planned in village organization process. From the community level only P.Cs were consulted about the project, yet their role was generally minimal. Ministry of health local office was generally in charge of the whole process, with some low-level participation from planners and bureaucrats. The project, which was completed by a contractor, took only 5 months to complete, after which the Primary Health Care center was operated.



Figure 68 general photos of the Primary Health care Unit

³⁶ This office represents Ministry of Education at locality level.

3.2.5 Service delivery Projects

3.2.5.1 The power supply project

Soon after the re-planning process, planning institutions incorporated a power supply project to the area. Although the older grid developed before the Re-P.P still exists, the new plan was more comprehensive to cover the three blocks that constitutes AL-salama with better power supply quality.

The project includes six large electric transformers as well as several hundred of new concrete power poles. The project was designed to cover about 1200 households. As much as other service-delivery projects implemented during the National Comprehensive Strategy (NCS, 2000), the community generally bear the financial cost of the project. Every household was requested to contribute to fund the public network (the cost of the power line and electric transformers from National grid to the road in front of private property).

The National Electricity Corporation (NEC) developed the general plan of this project. Yet, a private contractor has implemented the plan. The contractor was also responsible of the physical planning details in relation to the general plan itself i.e. the distant between one electric- concrete-pole to another.

Although the cost of the installation process was beard by citizens, they did not participate in any of the major project stages. Peoples Committees were the only local-level organization that was involved in the pre-planning and implementation/financing stage.

3.2.5.2 The water supply project

After the re-planning, a higher capacity water supply project turn to be a priority. Accordingly a new water supply project was developed to cover the whole village and provide access to clean and continuous supply. The new plan though was implemented in relatively a short time (6 months), it did not incorporate neither the existing network nor its infrastructure. To be more specific, none of the existing water wells, storage tanks as well as the pre-re-planning water networks that was developed by local citizens was indorsed. Planners (VRC) initiated this project; yet, the water corporations together with a private contractor were responsible about the project realization and management.³⁷ As much as the power supply project, citizens have paid the cost of the main/public network by themselves. They were also required to pay for the cost of the network to their property.

³⁷ No clear information about the exact role of each of those participants.

As most of the projects implemented after the re-planning process, a contractor has implemented this project. The technical nature of this project makes it less participatory. Citizen's role for instance was only financing the project, which was dominated by the rural water department as well as local bureaucrats. People committees also participated but as mediator between citizens and public authorities.

To sum-up the basic information about the four projects mentioned above are grouped in Table 26, which generally shows that the community development projects (the P.H.C.U and the school) were generally financed by the state. Accordingly citizen's contribution in these two projects was low-to-none. The service delivery projects however exhibit some citizen's participation. But that was only at the level of the project finance.

Table 26 summary of the projects implemented after the re-planning process

	Power supply project	Water Supply project	The Primary schools complex	P.H.C.U
Scope/Size	1200 households	1200 house holds	To accommodate 750 students	To serve the three block of Al-salama
Duration	-	9 months	-	6 months
Cost	-	-	N.A	N.A
Promoting agency	Planners	Planners, Rural Water Department	Planners	Ministry of Health Planners
Other agencies involved	NEC, Citizens, P.Cs, Bureaucrats,	Citizens, P.Cs, Bureaucrats, Elites,	Local education office, P.Cs, Citizens	Planners, Bureaucrats, P.Cs
Funding Source	Citizens, the State	Citizens, the State	The State	The State
Citizens' participation strategies	Financial	Financial	None	None
Social entrepreneurship	None	None	None	None

No information on the real projects costs was available.

3.3 Module Three, the Participatory Rapid Appraisal PRA workshops

As mentioned earlier, the Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) workshops used the focus groups techniques to group participants based in their involvement in the projects identified by the questionnaire in module two. Accordingly, two workshops emerged. The first workshop was set to evaluate community participation in development projects before the re-planning process, whereas the second workshop was intended to do the same process of evaluation for participatory projects after the re-planning process. The procedure as well as the evaluation process of the two PRA workshops is based on covering four issues that reflects the sprits of our five framework elements.³⁸ These components are thus explained henceforth.

3.3.1 Stakeholders Involved and their relationship

The community participation evaluation in this part was accomplished as followed:

- First, participants were asked to identify the main stakeholders involved in every project by writing them in a piece of paper.
- Second, The entire list of stakeholders provided by participants was displayed to them.
- Third, participants were asked to re-arrange participants list according to their importance by using three different sizes of round-shape colored papers. The size/color of the paper used shows the importance of the stakeholder (the larger the size selected the more important is the stakeholder).
- Fourth, participants were requested to create a relationship among those stakeholders groups based on Venn Diagram, the stronger the relationship, the closer each stakeholders' circle will be to each other's).

3.3.2 Stage of participation

- In this stage, participants were given the list of the "Project Cycle" stages of involvement, these stages are identified here as;
 - a) Project initiation.
 - b) Objectives definition.
 - c) Project planning (plan-making).
 - d) Project financing.
 - e) Project implementation and project monitoring (project management).

³⁸ Our field survey in Al-shigla revealed that using the same wording of the five elements framework is not very well understood among locals. Thus the four components above are a re-frame version of our five elements framework.

- Using five different colors of papers (to represent five degrees of importance based on size), participants were requested to evaluate citizens' level of participation in each one of the above mentioned project stages.

3.3.3 Role in participation:

In this part, participants were requested to evaluate citizen's role in the participation process played in those selected projects by using four different colors papers that represents four different roles identified as:

- A recipient of project/ information (No role).
- Source of information.
- An active participant.
- And; in control.

3.3.4 Method of participation:

In this part, participants were asked to evaluate the method of citizen's participation on those projects by using five different colors that represents the following five criteria:

- Sharing expertise
- Workmanship (physical)
- Taking decisions.
- Sharing cost/asset (financial) being informed

PRA workshops participants and projects discussed

The first workshop as mentioned earlier is intended to evaluate participatory projects after the re-P.P. the subject of evaluation (the projects) are the ones that are considered as the most important projects in the area as defined by Module 02 in this research. The participants of this specific workshop are those who were involved in all or one of the stages of the above-mentioned projects after the re-planning process. The workshop participants' includes; 1) Peoples committee members; 2) planners; 3) Irifein; 4) and some of the elite groups that have participated in this process (for the list of participants see the appendices). Some of the Master program students from the University of Khartoum also participated as mediators.

The second workshop used the same techniques as the first one. Nonetheless, focus groups of this specific workshop are different. Since this workshop tackles projects prior to the re-planning process participants were those who have witnessed one or more of those project. Accordingly, the elders dominated this workshop.

Participant of this workshop were also few due to the same reason. The workshop participants were mostly the elite groups, Mosques imam as well as some of the *Irifein* (see the community mapping section Two).

3.3.5 The PRA Workshops results and findings

The results of the Participatory Rapid Appraisal workshops conducted in the previous section exhibits different approaches of community participation in projects implemented before and after the re-planning process. Based on the four categories of analysis/appraisal we identified earlier (stakeholders involved and their relationships, stage of participation, role in participation as well as the method of participation), Participatory Rapid Appraisal workshops shows that participation within the same period i.e. after the re-planning process is also different. Several factors contribute in shaping these differences. Among those is the type of the project conducted (service provision, community development and land-use) as well as the level of control exhibited in each of the projects.

The PRA workshop outcomes, which are shown in Figure 69 and Figure 70, illustrate several findings about the participation behavior before and after the re-planning process. For instance, the water supply project before the re-planning process (Figure 70-a-1) exhibits six different stakeholders identified in column 1-a. the role and the importance of each one of those player is further explained in column 1-b. column 1-c however, shows the relationship among the different stakeholders as seen by community leaders.

Column two exhibits the stage of participation based on project cycles stages of participation, which ranges from project initiation to project management. The stakeholder is arranged according to their participation in each one of those stages. The higher the level of stakeholder participation, the closer the stakeholder circle is from the “project stages” axis.

Column three shows the role that each stakeholder played in this process. Again, the stronger the role, the closer the stakeholder circle to the upper axis. Columns four applies the same three-level technique to show the method of participation of which each stakeholder was involved.

Project Type	Period	1. Stakeholders Involved & relationship			2. Stage of Stakeholders's Participation	3. Role in Participation	4. Method of Participation
		a. Stakeholders	b. Important Players	c. Stakeholder's Relationships			
(c). Education / the Primary School	After the Re-P.P	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bueargrats. - Local Education Office (LEO) - Planners. - Peoples Committees. - Citizens. 	<p>Group A: LEO, Bueargrats</p> <p>Group B: Planners, Citizens</p> <p>Group C: P.C, Planners, Citizens</p>	<p>Local Education office, P.Cs, Citizens, Planners, Bueargrats</p>	<p>Project Initiation: Planners</p> <p>Goals Identification: Planners</p> <p>Project Planning: LEO</p> <p>Project Finance: LEO</p> <p>Project Implement: LEO, Buea.</p> <p>Project Mangement: P.C, LEO, Buea.</p>	<p>No Role: Planners</p> <p>Source of Info./ inactive: Planners</p> <p>Active Participant: LEO, P.C</p> <p>In Control: LEO, Buea.</p>	<p>Sharing Expertise/knowledge: LEO</p> <p>Physical: Planners, Buea.</p> <p>Taking Decisions: LEO</p> <p>Sharing Cost / Assest: LEO</p>
	Before the Re-P.P	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Citizens - Local Education Office (LEO) - Elite. - Associations 	<p>Group A: Elites</p> <p>Group B: LEO, Citizens</p> <p>Group C: Asso.</p>	<p>Local Education Office, Elite, Asso., Citizens</p>	<p>Project Initiation: Elites</p> <p>Goals Identification: Elites</p> <p>Project Planning: LEO, Elites</p> <p>Projects Finance: Citizens, RWD, Asso.</p> <p>Project Implement: Citizens, LEO, Asso.</p> <p>Project Mangement: Elites, LEO, Citizens</p>	<p>No Role: Citizens, Assoc.</p> <p>Source of Info./ inactive: Citizens, Assoc.</p> <p>Active Participant: Citizens, Elites</p> <p>In Control: Elites, LEO, Citizens</p>	<p>Sharing Expertise/knowledge: Elites, LEO</p> <p>Physical: Assoc., Citizens</p> <p>Taking Decisions: Elites, LEO, Citizens</p> <p>Sharing Cost / Assest: Citizens, CBOs, LEO</p>
(d). The Health Centre	After the Re-P.P	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Planners. - Bueargrats. - Ministry of Health MOH - Peoples Committees. 	<p>Group A: Ministry of health (MOH), Planners</p> <p>Group B: Ministry of health (MOH), Planners</p> <p>Group C: P.C, Bueargrats</p>	<p>Ministry of health, Bueargrats, P.Cs, Planners</p>	<p>Project Initiation: Planners</p> <p>Goals Identification: MOH</p> <p>Project Planning: MOH</p> <p>Project Finance: MOH</p> <p>Project Implement: L. MOH office</p> <p>Project Mangement: MOH, Buea.</p>	<p>No Role: P.C, Planners</p> <p>Source of Info./ inactive: Buea.</p> <p>Active Participant: MOH</p> <p>In Control: MOH</p>	<p>Sharing Expertise/knowledge: MOH</p> <p>Physical: MOH</p> <p>Taking Decisions: MOH</p> <p>Sharing Cost / Assest: MOH, Buea.</p>
	Before the Re-P.P	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Citizens - Bueargrats. - Ministry of Health MOH - Elites - CBO 	<p>Group A: Elites</p> <p>Group B: Ministry of Health (MOH), Citizens</p> <p>Group C: Asso., CBO</p>	<p>Ministry of Health (MOH), Elite, CBO, Asso., Citizens</p>	<p>Project Initiation: Citizens</p> <p>Goals Identification: Elites, CBOs</p> <p>Project Planning: MOH</p> <p>Projects Finance: Citizens, CBOs, Asso.</p> <p>Project Implement: Citizens, CBOs, Asso.</p> <p>Project Mangement: Elites, MOH, CBOs</p>	<p>No Role: Citizens, Assoc.</p> <p>Source of Info./ inactive: Assoc.</p> <p>Active Participant: Elites, Citizens, CBOs</p> <p>In Control: Elites, MOH</p>	<p>Sharing Expertise/knowledge: MOH</p> <p>Physical: Citizens, CBOs, Assoc.</p> <p>Taking Decisions: Elites, CBOs, Citizens, MOH</p> <p>Sharing Cost / Assest: Citizens, CBOs, MOH</p>

Figure 69 results of the two PRA workshops (community development projects)

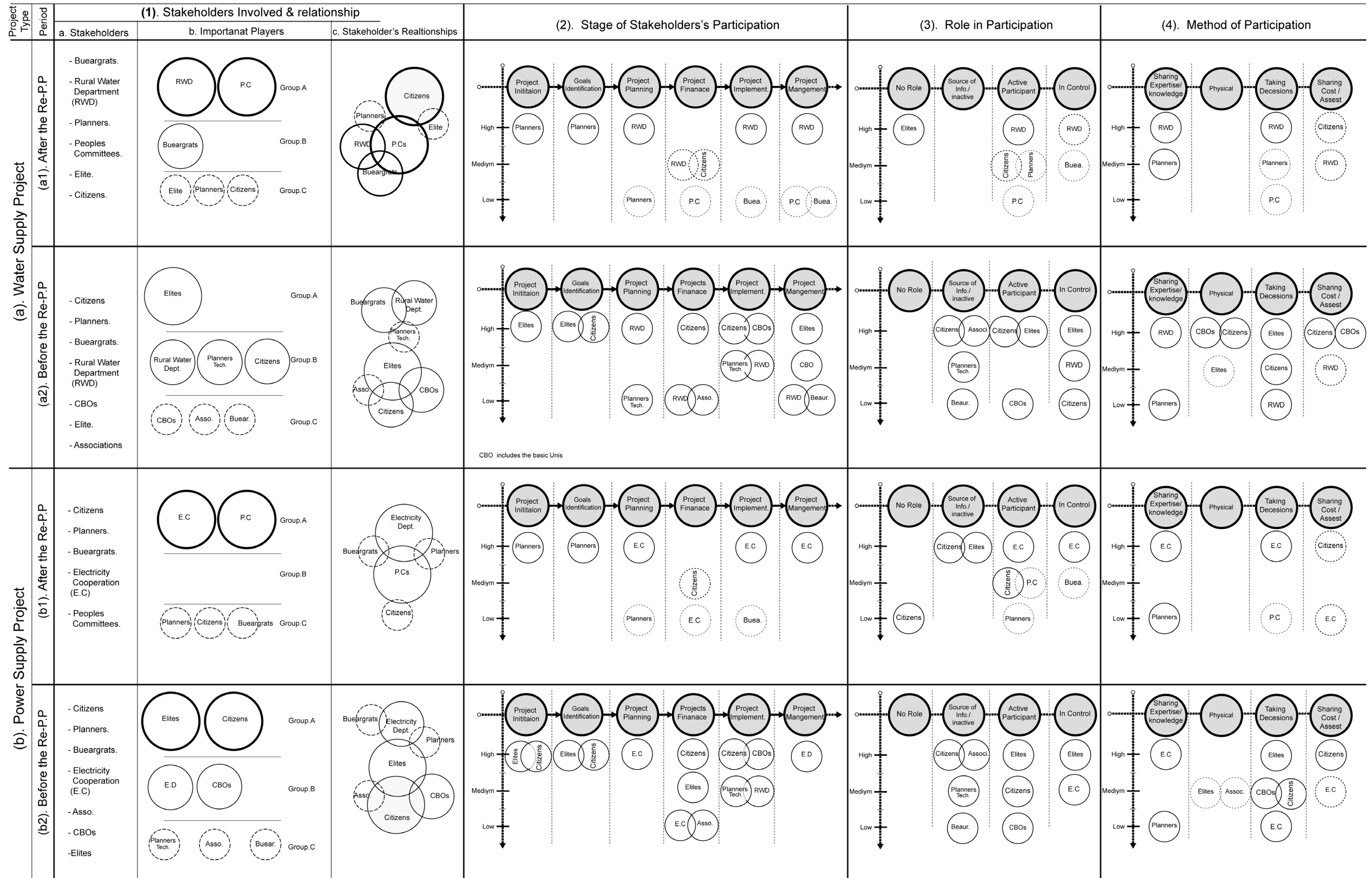


Figure 70 results of the two participatory workshops (service delivery projects)

The results of the two Participatory Rural Appraisal workshops exhibits several shortcomings related to projects implemented before and after the Re-P.P. while these differences will be discussed in details it generally shows that community was in control of most of the projects implemented before the re-planning process. Community groups such as elites, CBOs as well as associations were strongly involved in the process. Projects technical matters were mostly assigned to Public Authorities. Citizens' level of participation as well as the stage in which they participated seems to be higher before the re-planning process than after.

PRA workshop also shows that, while participation in most of the project stages is observed before the Re-P.P, project financing dominates the stage of which citizens were involved after the re-planning process (Figure 69-2 and Figure 70-2). Community building projects i.e. the school and the health facilities do not have any type of citizens' involvement after the Re-P.P. this generally raise an argument that citizens' are involved in projects that have a larger in footprints and place budgetary constrains to the government. The service delivery projects (water supply as well as power connections) signify this clearly.

The role citizens' play in the participation process was also altered, favoring a role of being a source of Information as well as cash. This largely contrasts their strong role prior to the re-planning process as a decision-maker, active participant as well as in control (Figure 69-3 and Figure 70-3).

Eventually, C.P before the Re-P.P was generally achieved through four major techniques shown in Figure 69-4 and Figure 70-4. While participation in terms of the physical efforts, taking decisions as well as sharing project cost was generally equally achieved, sharing expertise and knowledge was the lowest participation method used before the Re-P.P.

3.3.5.1 Workshop results analysis

To grasp an in-depth understanding of how community participation is practiced before and after the re-planning process we translated the same results obtained through the PRA in Figure 69 and Figure 70. Accordingly we identified that two main groups do exist in most of the project implemented, the Public Authorities group (Group a in Figure 71 and Figure 72), which includes the bureaucrats, planners, P.Cs as well as the technical offices i.e. RWD and NEC, and the Community Groups (Group b in Figure 71 and Figure 72). The size of the first group is relatively smaller before the Re-P.P with limited activities that are generally limited to providing technical assistant. Nonetheless, this groups but gets bigger after the re-planning process. The relationships between the two groups are generally weak, albeit among the two groups members, the same relationship exhibits a relatively strong connections (see Figure 71-b and Figure 72-b). Community group as compared to the public authorities group does have more and diverse constitutes before the Re-P.P, yet the components of this groups gets smaller after the re-planning process.

Participatory Rapid Appraisal workshops findings as well as community leaders interviews exhibits different roles and arrangement played by each group and stakeholders. For instance, citizens' arrangements range from initiating, financing and managing the projects before the Re-P.P to only focus in financing in most of the projects after the Re-P.P (see Figure 69 and Figure 70). In this regard, community group in general tend to contribute in less arrangement after the re-planning process than before. This contrast the public authorities group, which is growingly dominating the major arrangements related to all projects. In Figure 71-c and Figure 72-c, we re-organize the arrangements shown by the Participatory Rural Appraisal in Figure 69-3 and Figure 70-3 based on each stakeholder.

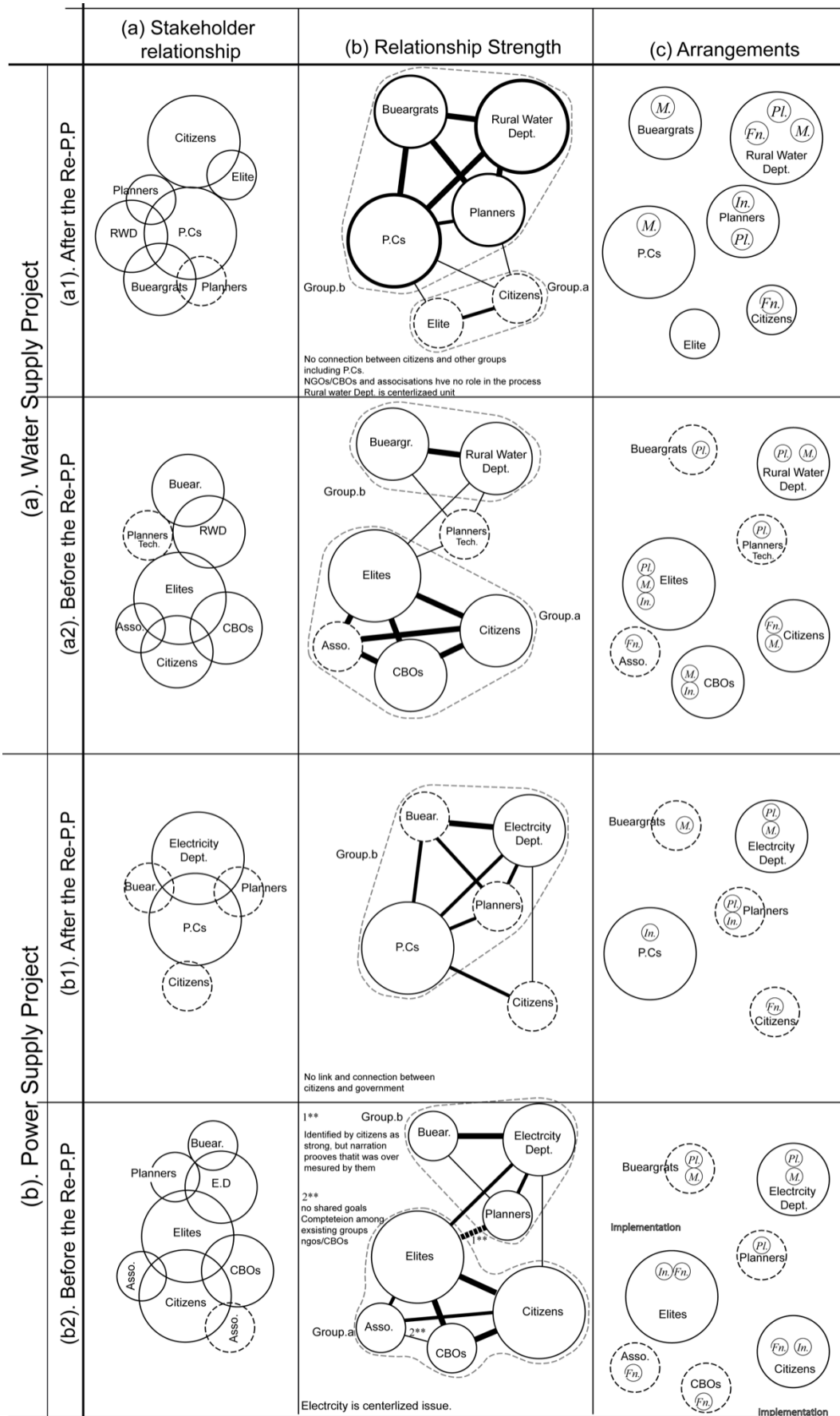


Figure 71 syntheses of the PRA Workshops outcomes

	(a) Stakeholder relationship	(b) Relationship Strength	(c) Arrangements
(c). Education /the Primary School	After the Re-P.P	<p>No connection between citizens and other groups including P.Cs. NGOs/CBOs and associations hve no role in the process Rural water Dept. is centerizead unit poor institutional arrangement and cooperation/ cordniation.</p>	
	Before the Re-P.P	<p>Influence o elites on local educaion office</p>	
(d). The Health Centre	After the Re-P.P	<p>poor institutional coordinations</p>	
	Before the Re-P.P		

Figure 72 syntheses of the PRA Workshops outcomes

At this point the major challenge is whether it is possible to identify a common community participation typology by which planning arrangement (participation) as well as power and control is exhibited “both before and after the re-planning process”. Identifying such a typology is not easy, provided that the different projects studied and the complexity of the participation process itself. Thus, at this point we used the statistics to try to understand how those typologies “if they exist” work. To do this we codified the Participatory Rapid Appraisal workshops finding (see Figure 73). The codes we used are;

- a. Number (3) represent strong relationship as well as major stakeholder.
- b. Number (2) represent medium relationship as well as moderate stakeholder.
- c. And number (1) resembles a weak stakeholders as well as a weak relationship.

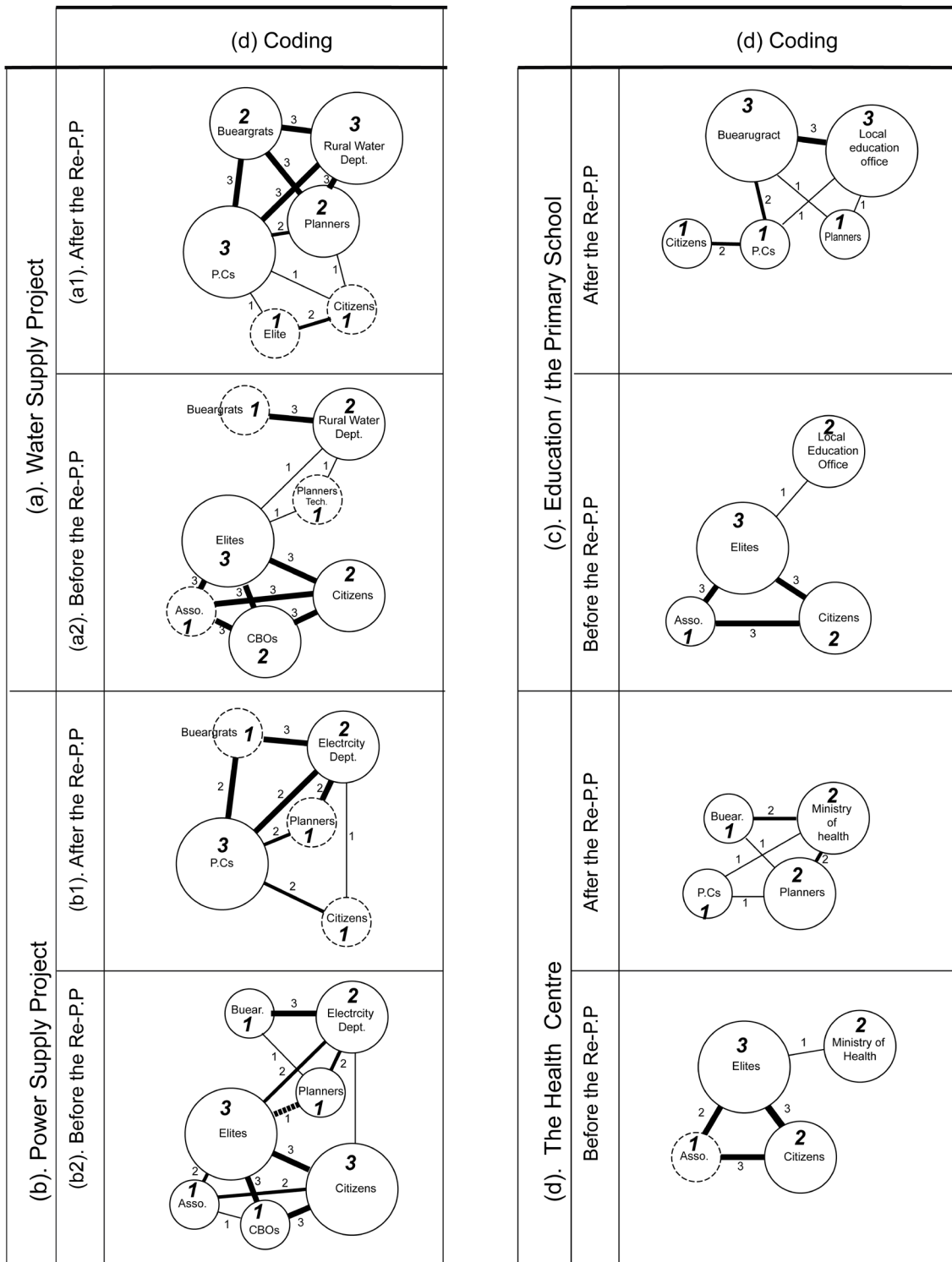


Figure 73 the coding process of participation activities and relationships

The coding process (shown in Figure 73 and the appendices) resulted in two general typologies of C.P that explains the major stakeholder as well as their relationships. The two typologies, which are shown in Figure 74, signify our earlier findings about the domination of public authorities and the decreased level of community participation after the re-planning process.

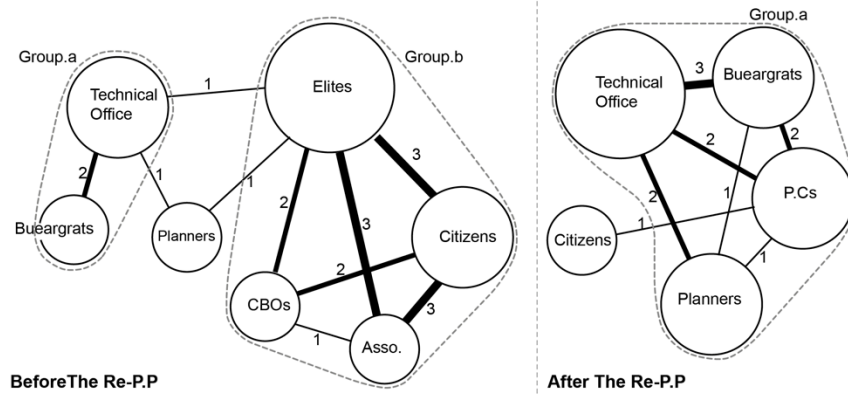


Figure 74 the results of the coding process of the main stakeholders as well as their relationship

Figure 74 signifies the major stakeholders of the two groups of participant identified earlier. An interesting observation shown in Figure 74 is that citizens seem to have the weakest relationship in the whole matrix. Also there is no direct channels of communication between citizens and other state agencies i.e. planning agencies as well as bureaucrats. Elites on the other hand are the center of attention regarding C.P before the re-planning process. Although they are connected to both planners as well and technical offices such as the water corporation, their relationship is generally weak. The gap shown here seem to exists in the community participation both before and after the re-planning process.

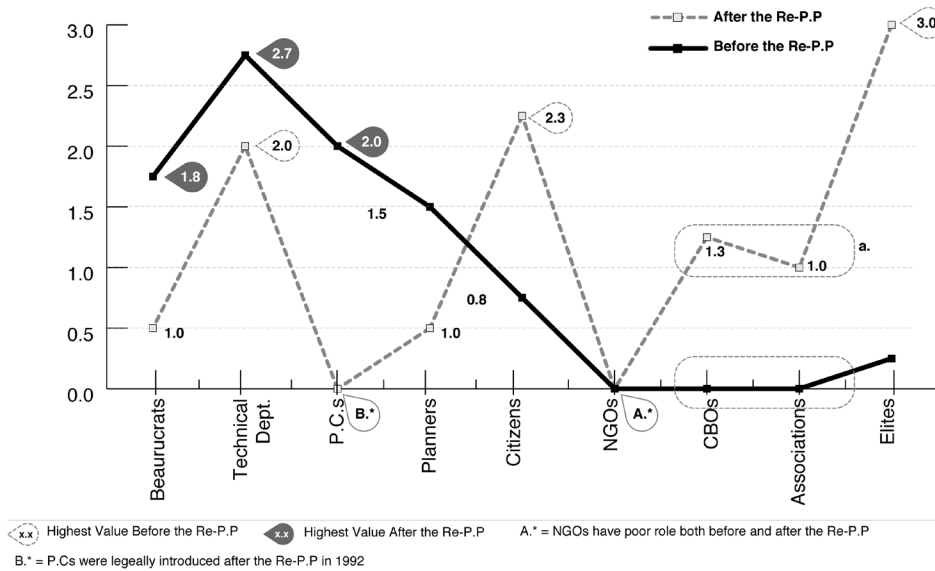


Figure 75 A graphical representation of the two-community participation typologies observed in Al-salama

The graphical representation of the two typologies identified in Figure 74 is shown in Figure 75. Figure 75 illustrates that many stakeholder though were considered as important player by community leaders during the PRA, they actually played no real role both before and after the re-planning process. Examples to this are the NGOs and the CBOs. According to our findings here, Both NGOs and CBOs have a very marginal role in the

participation process in Al-salama. P.Cs before the re-planning process as shown in Figure 75 also have no role. This is due to that P.Cs were officially introduced through the Peoples' committees Act of 1992.³⁹ This act was after the re-planning. An interesting observation here is that CBOs as well as association shows higher role before the re-planning process than after. While this seems to contradict our previous findings in the community mapping process in which it revealed major increase in the numbers of community groups after the re-planning process, Its evident that the intensity of community engagement counts more than the number of community groups involved.

Using data from Figure 74, the Participatory Rapid Appraisal workshops (PRA) results as well as the interviews conducted we can develop a matrix that can identify the major changes in the participation behavior in Al-salama before and after the re-planning process. The matrix, which is shown in Figure 76, identifies four key issues related to the two-community participation typologies existed before and after the re-planning process. Those issues are

- a. What groups/stakeholders were involved in the planning/ re-planning process?
- b. Relationship between stakeholder, among them, between them and the physical space (the projects in which they participate).
- c. Types of arrangement practiced by each stakeholder (with reference to projects identified).
- d. Project in which each stakeholder participated.

³⁹ The localizations of the P.Cs in Al-salama took almost ten years after the P.Cs act was enacted.

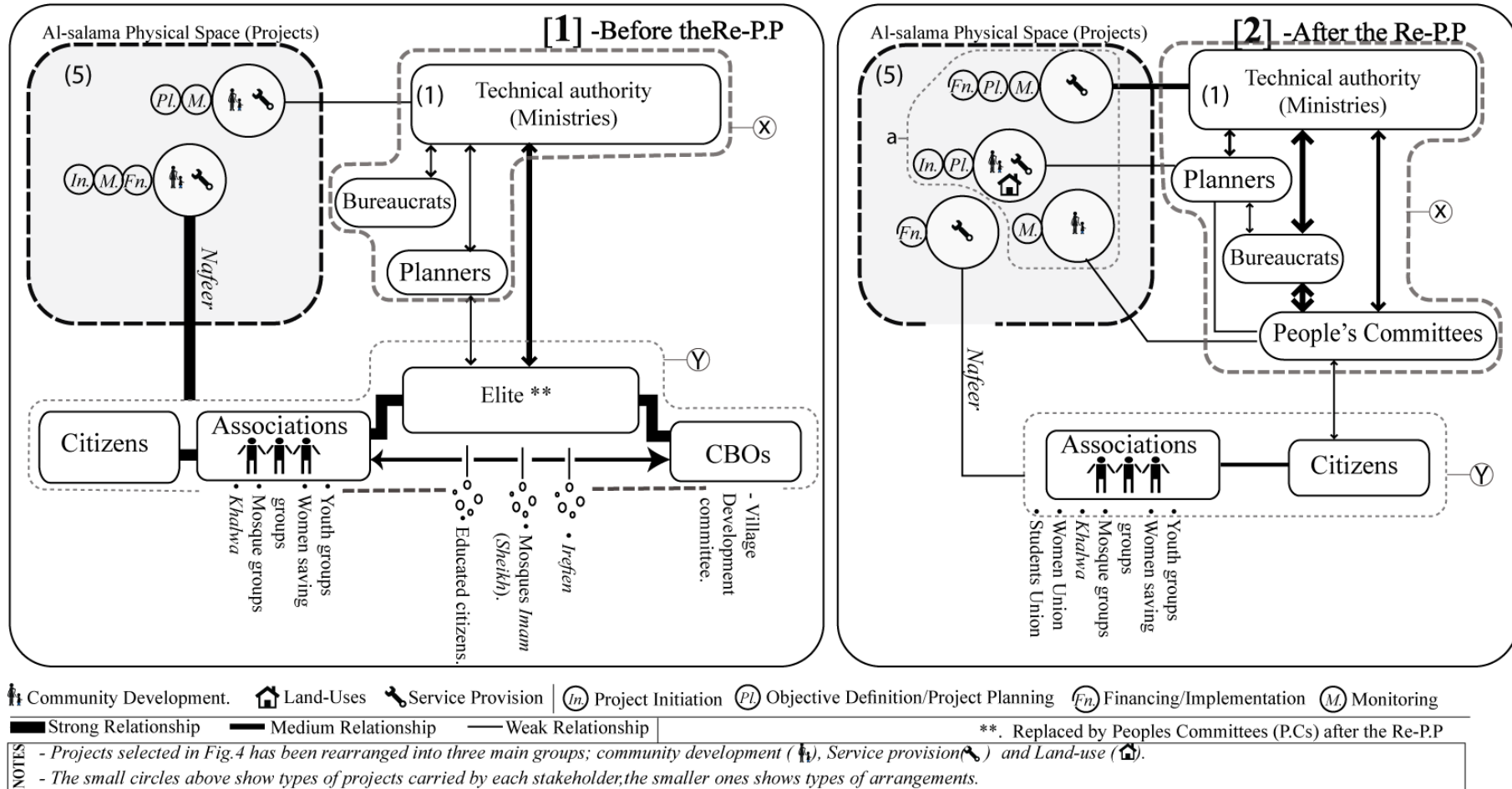


Figure 76 a Matrix of community participation in development projects in Al-salama

Figure 76 provides elaborated explanations of changes observed in community participation before and after the re-planning process. The above-mentioned changes are thus discussed henceforth;

3.3.5.1.1 What groups/stakeholders were involved in the planning/ re-planning process?

Prior to the re-planning process two main stakeholders are observed in the project studied (see Figure 76). The community group (composed of CBOs, Elite, Associations as well as citizens (Figure 76-x)) as well as the Public authorities group (Figure 76-y). The latter group include stakeholder like Planners, Bureaucrats as well as the technical office i.e. water and electricity department. The community group has very strong relationships among its different members. This was observed in most of the projects identified in Figure 76-1-5. The weakest link among this group was observed between the CBOs and the Associations. While community leader did not provide any reasonable explanation for such weak relationship. We argue that these two stakeholders were competing to gain the social respect and support of the community, thus they see each other's as rivals rather than same side players. Another reason might be referred to the types of projects selected. Projects studied might be of a great interest to most of the CBOs but not the associations.

Elites dominated the community group. Although the Elite group was not elected as in Al-shigla, they generally have the citizens' consensus to take projects leadership on their behalf. The elite groups, which include the Mosque *Imams*, the educated citizens as well as the *Irefien*, were very diverse group and largely accepted among citizens.

The Public Authorities group however seem to have less connections among its participants. Bureaucrats and planner are weakly linked to the technical offices (water and electricity department). In general, the relationship between planners and bureaucrats from on side and the technical offices of water and electricity department from the other seems to be very weak in the four projects discussed here. The latter finding signifies that planning before the re-planning process is more of a political decision rather than a technical process.

After the re-planning process several changes are observed. The Community Groups in general became much smaller in which only citizens as well as associations are represented. The associations group however became much larger than before the re-planning with several new bodies represented i.e. the Women and Students unions. Interesting to mention is that the relationship between the citizens groups and the associations gets weaker after the re-planning process. We hypothesize this to that; most of the association ran general programs that are driven by their central offices rather than the context-driven ones. Evidences of a major social transformation in the Sudanese civil society around 1990s were observed (see Agnes, 2001). The new administrative body (the Peoples Committee) acted as the mediator between the Public Authorities and the Community Groups. Planning authorities had weak relationships to both bureaucrats and peoples committees but

slightly stronger connection to technical office. The latter findings are not a surprise as planners tends to initiate most of the service delivery project in Al-salama, but they leave the technicalities to the respective authorities (water department or electricity corporation). What is very evident both before and after the Re-P.P is the absence of NGOs from the planning sphere.

3.3.5.1.2 The relationship among those stakeholders, within them and between them and the physical space of Al-salama; the projects they conduct).

In Figure 76 a horizontal and strong relationship is observed among the Community Groups before the re-planning process. This relationship is slightly dominated by the elite Group. The community Group before the Re-P.P had strong connection to Al-salama physical space in which several Nafeer-driven projects were implemented. Public authorities Group (Figure 76) generally had weak to medium relationship among its. This was manifested in the poor coordination among the public authorities group before the re-planning process. As a result this group relationship to the physical space was also weak.

After the re-planning process several changes are observed. Community group is shrunken to only accommodate two components. A new body (the Peoples committees) was emerged as a mediator but legally represents the local government. Community group relationship to the physical spaces was thus decreased. On the contrary, public authorities gain more control on the physical arrangements in Al-salama (see Figure 76-a).

3.3.5.1.3 Types of arrangement

Community Group before the re-planning process exhibits three types of arrangements including the initiation, management and financing of both the service delivery projects as well as the community development projects (see Figure 74-1). The Public Authorities group focused in two arrangements, the planning as well as the management of the same two projects typologies. This generally shows that while Public Authorities deal with the technicalities of all the projects studied, the management of those projects was generally shared between community and the government. None the less all the four projects discussed were initiated as well as financed by the community, often with minor subsidy from the government.

After the re-planning process, both the magnitude as well as the spectrum of the arrangement conducted by the Community Group decreased. Accordingly, Community Group only participated in financing service delivery projects. In the contrary, Public Authorities role has tremendously increased. Each one of the Public Authorities group members does have different set of arrangement practiced in Al-salama physical sphere. The technical offices though have the highest number of arrangements (financing, planning as well as managing), these arrangements are only practiced within the service delivery project (see Figure 76-1). The other major changes observed are represented in Figure 74.

The above-mentioned changes are quite diverse and incommensurable. To simplify and recap this, the major community participation changes observed in the community participation matrix in Figure 76 are summarized as in Table 27.

Table 27 summaries of changes in the community participation before and after the re-planning process

Factor of comparison	Nafeer-driven participation (Before the re-planning process)	Legislative planning-led participation (After the re-Planning process)
The key player in planning	Planning is dominated by elites and community groups (community are in control)	Public authorities and P.Cs dominates the participation process (community as a recipient of a product)
Stage in which participation is conducted	Participation is conducted in most of the project stages with different, yet relatively close level among all stages	Participation is necessary for financing projects
Typology of participation	Participation is generally based on self-help with some technical assistant from outside.	Community is more government dependent a part from financing services delivery projects.
The use of Nafeer	Nafeer dominated how citizens participated	Nafeer is considerably low and based on project finance
CBOs involvement style	Few locally managed but highly involved community organizations and associations	A lot of externally and internally managed CBOs and associations that do not consider site specific challenges.
Resources availability	Limited, yet accessible self-help based resources, with some social entrepreneurship been practiced for the community benefits.	Higher resources but harder to access. Social entrepreneurship is missing.
Main challenges	Problems of elite domination in the projects management. Elites committee was always approved by citizens though	Problem of representation with the strong top-down approaches exhibited by the un-elected P.Cs
Nature of Participation	Participation as a social duty as well as respect earning tool	Participation is need driven and manipulated by state.
The center/focus of participation	Elites, and citizens are the center of building consensus	Bureaucrats are the center of the process

3.4 Module Four; the questionnaire results and Data triangulation

In this section, we used the Statistical Analysis Software (SPSS) to analyse our questionnaire-collected data. Our analysis is based on identifying the frequencies of basic demographic data as well as to triangulate data collected in the previous section (see the appendices). Our analysis also includes a cross-tabulation process by which we tried to understand factors that affect the quantity (number of participants) as well as the quality of community participation (degree of participation and engagement) in Al-salama. We also tried to compare the services level before and after the re-planning process based on those questionnaires.

Our questionnaire was generally divided into two main sections⁴⁰ to collect two types of information, these information are

- a. Collect basic demographic data as well as area specific conditions.
- b. Collect as well as triangulate data regarding citizens' participation in projects implemented before and after the Re-P.P. The first questionnaire collects basic data about participation activities after the Re-P.P. The second collect the same information about the same activities before the Re-P.P.

Questionnaire respondents' were selected from the three blocks constitutes Al-salama. Sixty respondents from each of the three blocks were randomly selected for the first questionnaire. Second questionnaire respondent are those selected from the same first respondents in the condition that they have witnessed all or some of the projects studied/implemented before the re-planning process.

The analysis of the first part of our questionnaire (respondents' demographic data) shows that the majority of our respondents are male (91 %). Most of which are aged between thirty to forty-nine years (73%). the income level of most of our respondents is generally low with 78% reporting to have low-income level. In fact this was observed in the way the buildings were built and maintained. Unlike Al-shigla, our respondents are generally having higher level of literacy with only 17% illiterate. Further information about our respondents is provided in the appendices.

The results of our questionnaires exhibit low level of citizens' involvements in NGOs and CBOs. Less than 17% of our respondents are officially connected to any NGOs or CBOs within Al-salama. This figure is decreasing before the re-planning process to only 12%.

⁴⁰ See the appendices for questionnaires Samples

The state of service delivery in Al-salama after the re-planning process is significantly better than that before. Our questionnaire results as shown in Figure 77 revealed that the state of water supply, electricity, garbage disposal as well as human waste witnessed better service level after the Re-P.P than after. The latter observations signify that while physical settings as well as eservice standards of the area have generally improved after the re-planning process, the level of citizens' organization was poor.

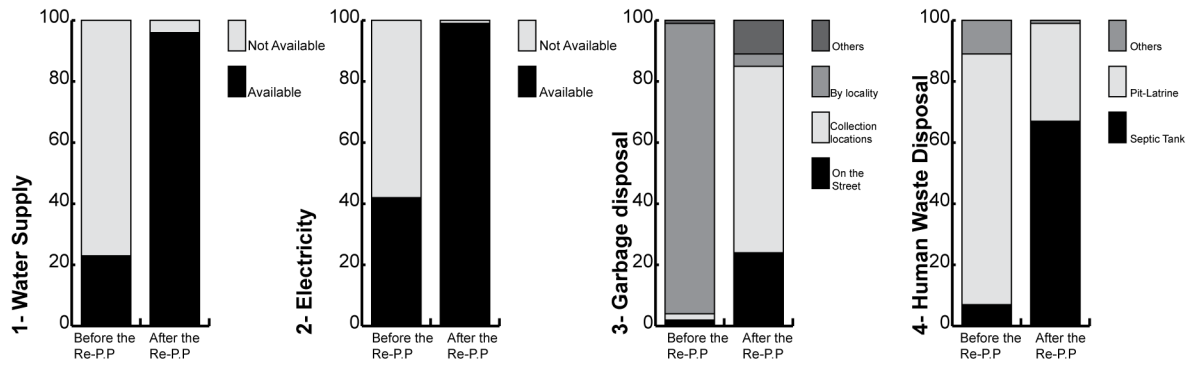


Figure 77 the state of basic services in Al-salama before and after the Re-P.P

Part two of the questionnaire was used for the purpose data triangulation. Accordingly, in this part, citizens' were asked to evaluate their participation in the projects initiated in Al-salama before and after the re-planning process. The results of the questionnaire as shown in Figure 78 generally echoed our findings through the PRA workshop. For instance, respondents have confirmed that there was a major change in the participant's spectrum itself after the re-planning process. This change was illustrated by the domination of bureaucrats, planners as well as peoples committees in the planning process arrangements, which used to be dominated by citizens, elites as well as CBOs.

Respondents also confirmed the change of their role in the participation process from being in control as well as active participant, to participation that is dominated by them being as a recipient of a product as well as source of information. Quite majority also noted that they did not have any role in the process.

Two interesting findings shown in the questionnaire results in Figure 78 are; 1) unlike Al-shigla case study, the process of sharing expertise was not evident in Al-salama. Participation through expertise sharing though was higher before the re-planning process. The level was generally low before and after; 2) although participation that is driven by improving citizens' living conditions was generally dominant after the re-planning process, Nafeer social obligation was very strong before the re-planning process. This seem to be driven by that the sense of project ownership within the community before the Re-P.P was generally higher than that observed after.

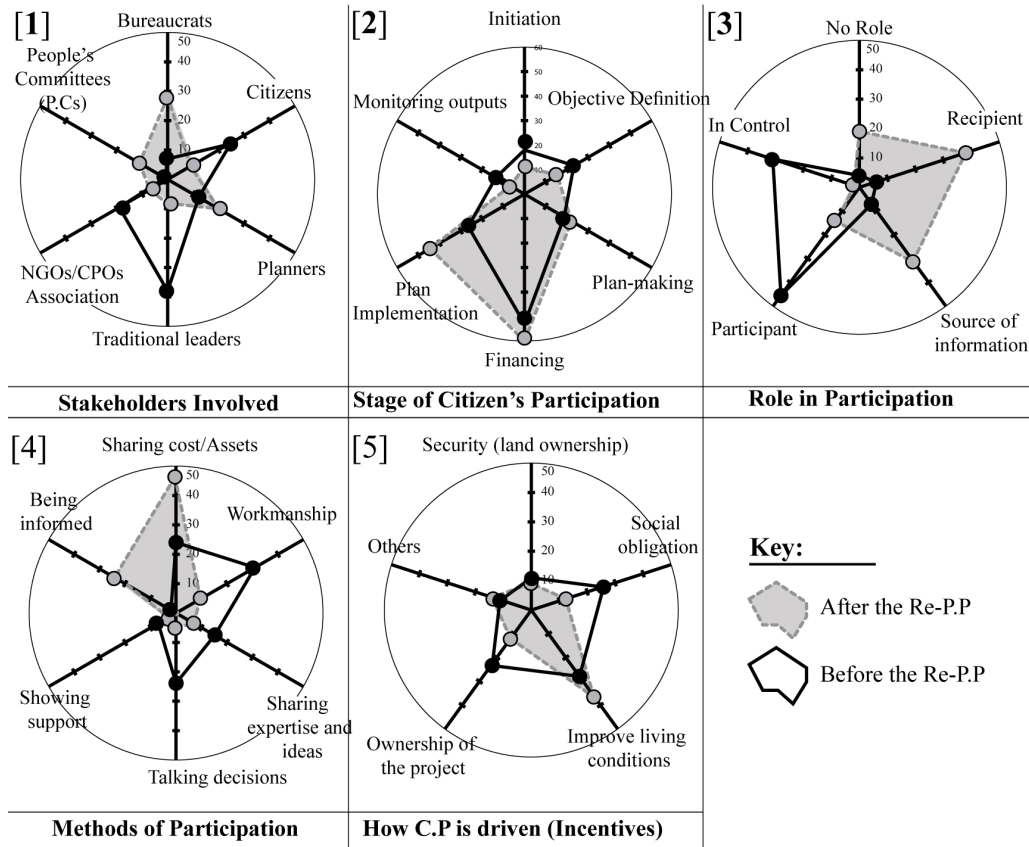


Figure 78 Citizens' participation in different development projects in Al-salama

Chapter Six;

Benchmarking our case studies; the application of our five elements' framework on the two case studies (Case studies Analysis)

This part benchmarks the findings of the two case studies upon the five elements evaluation framework developed in Chapter three. This Chapter thus identifies the Pros and Cons of each type of participation practiced.

Benchmarking Our Case Study, The Application Of Our Five Elements Framework

1 The Five Framework Elements

The application of our five framework elements developed in chapter three will be used at this point to benchmark the two types of community participation practiced before and after the re-planning process in both case studies. Through this framework both the Pros and Cons of each one of the participation typologies practiced will be stressed upon. At this stage our five elements framework is further divided into twenty-six subcomponents as shown in Table 28. These components are more content-related¹ rather than representation of the wholeness of the framework. In other words, framework subcomponents are the factors that deemed strong in the two case studies during the data collection stage. Our evaluation of the community participation projects in both Al-shigla and Al-salama case studies will thus be benchmarked against those twenty-six subcomponents.

Table 28 the breakdown of our five elements framework into its 26 sub-components

(1) The communication factor	(2) Capacities and resources of participants	(3) Level of control Factor	(4) Participation culture	(5) Spectrum of stakeholders and projects
Link among different stakeholders	Technical knowledge	Consensus on decision making	Incentives that drive people to participate	Project spectrum/Range/ Scope
Leadership	Level of education	Level of community control over projects	Commitment to projects	Spectrum of stakeholders involved
Creditability of leaders	Income level	Committed leadership	The use of <i>Nafeer</i>	Variety of projects
Frequency of communication	Complexity of Information to be shared	Level of control over method of participation	Behavioral knowledge of community participation	Complexity of Information to be shared among stakeholders
Earliness of involvement stage	Ethnicity	Commitment to projects		
Openness/interest expression	Social entrepreneurs			
Easiness of info. Transfer				

The process of community participation benchmarking in both Al-salama and Al-shigla case studies is thus discussed henceforth.

¹ Related to the type of data collected from the two case studies.

1.1 The communication factor

Before the re-planning process, Al-shigla case study showed a horizontal, yet strong relationship (communication) between the four community subgroups existed (Figure 79-1). This relationship though helped in both easy communication and binding and acceptable decisions among those groups, it failed to adopt a single voice when communicating with higher-level authorities. Leadership seems to be one of the main problems faced by the Community Group especially after the influx of many immigrants into the area around 1986. This influx resulted in a higher ethnic heterogeneity. Unlike after the Re-P.P, the process of C.P before the re-planning process started “early” in the process (Figure 79-1-5), was used “often” and was somehow “ongoing” especially in service delivery projects and religious building (Mosque and Khalwa).

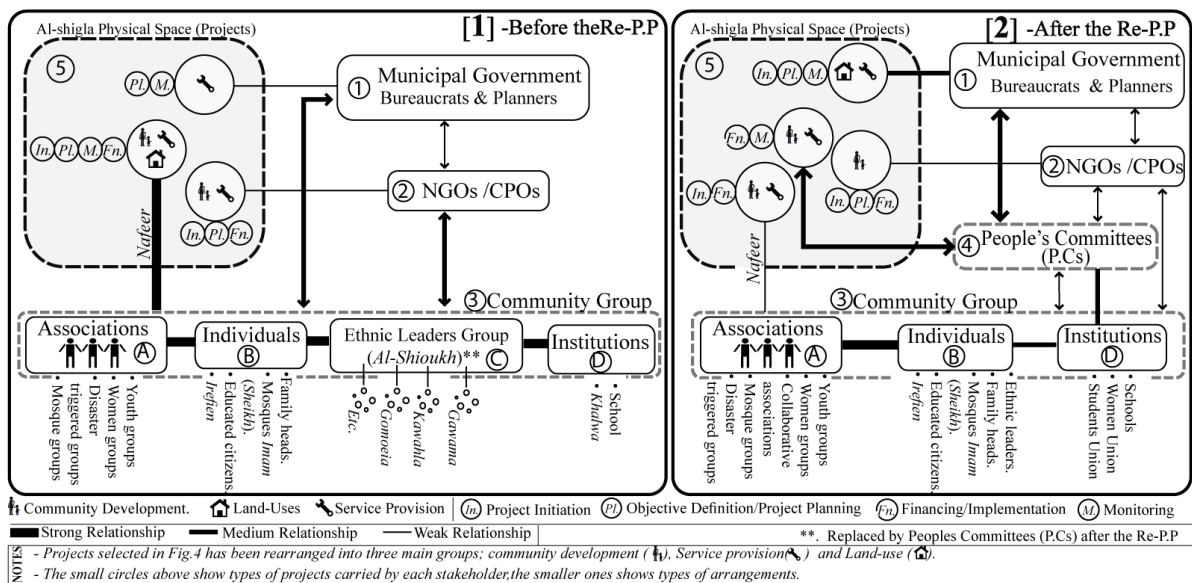


Figure 79 the community participation matrix in Al-shigla

In both Al-shigla and Al-salama, The relationship between the two main groups of stakeholder identified before the re-planning process is deemed weak. The communication within each one of those groups exhibits different settings. For instance communication within the Community Group as exhibited in Figure 79 and Figure 80 shows strong as well as horizontal communication. This illustrates higher problems sharing skills. The strong relationship observed helps in creating a consensus as well as connecting the community together. Unlike Al-Shigla case study, leadership does not seem to be a problem in Al-salama (see Figure 80-1). In fact, the Elite Group though was not elected; yet, they were chosen to represent the community for most of the project implemented before the re-planning process.

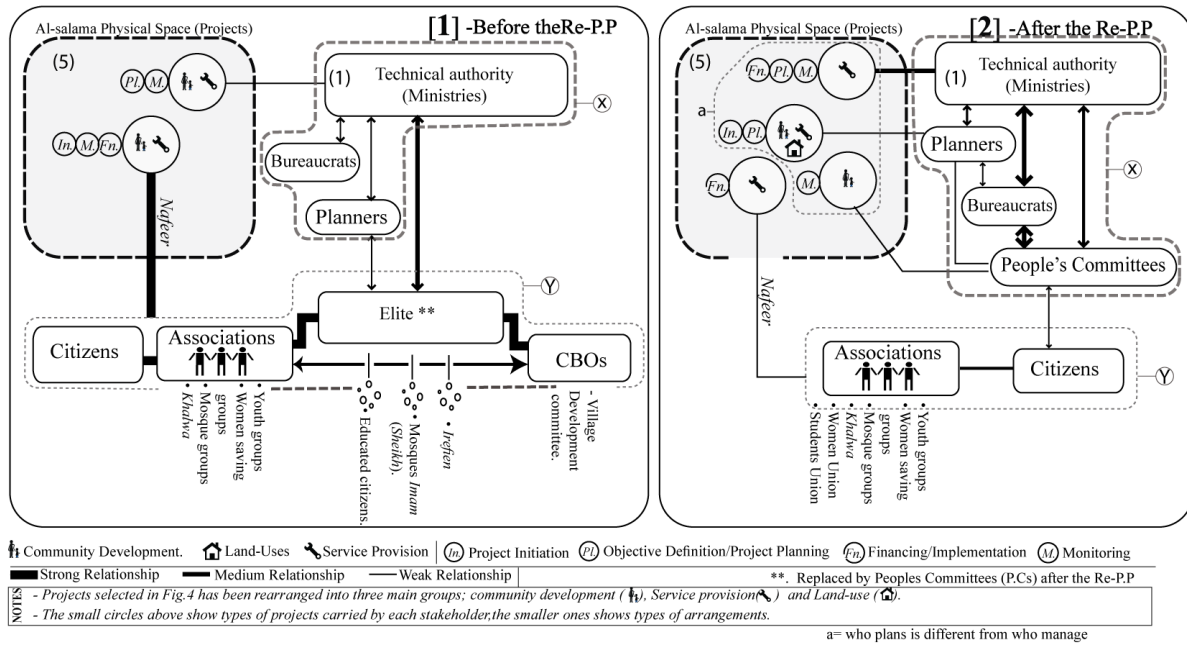


Figure 80 the community participation matrix in Al-Salama

In both case studies, the communications among the community groups before the Re-P.P is characterized as starting early in the process. In service delivery projects there is generally a meeting or Nafeer prior to the project initiation to elect/approve the committee that will carry-on that specific project. Although the same members seem to be dominating most of those groups, there is generally a consensus among the community.

In Al-salama, Participation in pre-re-planning as evaluated through the PRA workshops (see Figure 69-2 and Figure 70-2 in Chapter 5) happens in most of the project stages. Also, C.P in Al-salama before the re-planning process generally starts early in the process, happens often and can generally be described as ongoing. The latter features are considered as very important for both the success as well as the continuity of the participation process (see (Kelly & Barbara Becker, 1999)). Those characteristics are observed more in the service delivery project rather than the community building ones i.e. the school as well as the health center.

At this point it should be observed that not all the horizontal relationship among the community groups were actually strong. In Al-salama for instance, Associations and the CBOs relationship seem relatively weak. We argue this weakness to the rivalry between those two groups to earn the social esteem. Another reason is that; activities conducted by the associations before the re-planning process do not necessarily strongly linked to community urgent needs. Associations before re-planning process seems to be more reactive to the sort of activities developed in the area.

Public Authorities group is an exception. The communication among Public Authority three group members (Planners, Bureaucrats as well as Technical Authorities/Offices) in Al-salama seems to be fragile and unsustainable (Figure 74 and Figure 76 in Chapter 5). In fact, the communication among these groups seems to be more of role playing rather than informational as well as expertise sharing. The Public Authorities reluctances in participating in many of the community-initiated project in what is legally considered "un-planned" areas is common and was observed in both service delivery as well as the community building projects. The latter observation is common in Al-salama and Al-shigla.

In the two cases, the introduction of P.Cs in 1992 shifted the administrative control to them. Because P.Cs were appointed, their level of acceptance was low, in fact, many citizens have complained that "*Public Committees represent some individual interests and not necessarily the public interest*" (Bahreidin & Ariga, 2010), the problem at this point was "leaders creditability" and "representation". For instance, the physical space of Al-shigla accordingly became a place where government practical administrative/planning actions were largely channeled through them (P.Cs) (Figure 73-2). This type of approaches which was named by (J, A, M, & Al., 1986) as "*A Manipulative Mode*" generally sustains less chances of genuine C.P.

Al-salama C.P typology shown in Figure 74 and Figure 76 in Chapter 5 reproduced the weak relationship between the two main community groups even after the re-planning process. Interestingly, while the relationship among Public Authorities group after the Re- P.P are comparatively stronger than that conceived before (Figure 74 and Figure 76/Chapter 5), Community Group experienced the absence of several key stakeholders. The introduction of the unelected P.Cs as a citizen representative seems to have contributed to this.² At this point PRA projects evaluation shows that planning turn to be more of "a provider-to-a recipient" communication style rather than a negotiated consensus-based approach. This is exhibited in Figure 74 and Figure 76 (in Chapter 5) which shows that participation "if happens" it does that at the project financing stage by which citizens were expected to finance the cost of the services delivered to them. The participation process after the re-planning process was neither often nor ongoing. It also generally happens at the late stage of the process (financing).

Last not least, leadership creditability before the re-planning process was never a question. Although elite group was not an elected group, but the continuous practice of forming committees through community consultation has largely increased the level of leaders creditability. As a result, the same faces were elected for the different projects. On the contrary, after the Re-P.P the introduction of P.Cs in 1992 was a major change in the community leadership structure. Even though some of the traditional elite groups became P.Cs members already, the fact

² Unlike Al-shigla, there are no evidence to prove this in Al-salama.

that P.Cs were appointed decreases their credibility. Figure 76/Ch.5 and Figure 52/Ch.4 as well as our questionnaire results shows that P.Cs are considered as a lower level of government at local level rather than community representatives.

The recap to this is that the community synergy as well as the communication among different stakeholders before the re planning process is generally higher and stronger than that after the re-planning process.

1.2 The spectrum of stakeholders and projects factor

The community mapping conducted in the two case studies (see Table 17 and Table 18 for Al-shigla case study and Table 23 and Table 24 for Al-salama) illustrates the various community organizations existed, their capacities as well as the scope of challenges they dealt with before and after the re-planning process. In Al-shigla, the community mapping signifies that, after the Re-P.P few new institutions such as the Women, Students Unions and collaborative associations (saving groups) have emerged as a positive addition in the association group of stakeholders especially with the increase of citizens' financial abilities after the re-planning process, yet, Students and Women Unions were known as organizations that are set to implement central programs at local level rather than dealing with local needs. Nonetheless, the increasing number of stakeholder's spectrum after the Re-P.P (Figure 17-b) was also accompanied by an increase on the scale and complexity of projects that are implemented including the water provision, the re-planning of the market space and the electricity provision project, this illustrates that C.P spectrum after the re-planning process is larger than that observed before.

In Al-salama, traces of higher number of community organizations as well as association seem to be evidence after the re-planning process (Table 23 and Table 24 /Ch. 5). The same mapping however, shows that, albeit there was larger number of CBOs after the re-planning, their participation in community initiated projects was less. The key Associations after the re-planning process were generally implementing central programs at local level rather than considering the special community needs. Examples of this are the Women and Students Union.

The stakeholders that have been participating in the projects as stated by the PRA workshops echoed the latter observation. In most of the project exhibited in this study the spectrum of stakeholders participating showed higher number before the re-planning process than after. This was very much evident among the Community Group, which turns to be losing most of the major players.

On the other hand the level of complexity as well as the spectrum of the projects implemented seems to be higher after the Re-P.P. Table 25 /Ch.5 shows the number of household been served by both the power as well as the water supply after the re-planning process in both Al-salama and Al-shigla is much higher than that served

before. The same also applied for the intake of the schools and the capacity of the *Shifa-Khana*, which turned to a PHCU.

1.3 The capacities and resources of participants factor

Our introduction to Al-shigla case study exhibits that the area is generally characterized as having high level of illiteracy rate, low-income level as well as poor health conditions. This signifies that community capacities (education, financial and mental health) are quite low and at challenging state. Nonetheless, most of the changes observed after the re-planning process support the argument that after the Re-P.P community education level as well as income generated has increased. The increase of the number of education facilities in Al-shigla supports this argument.

With the lack of basic demographic data, though it is hard prove our second argument, yet, "*Security of land tenure coupled with higher land prices that Al-shigla had witnessed after the re-planning process participated in creating a relatively higher income environment compared to that before*"³. An increase in citizens' income was also observed in the type of building materials and techniques used in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P (the shift from mud-built houses to red brick-built ones). As this proposes higher citizens' capacities in terms of project financing and social entrepreneurship, in the ground, the latter did not exists neither before nor after the Re-P.P (a part from limited women saving groups).

While the concept of "Learning-by-doing" is believed to be one of the strongest approaches of community learning/knowledge transfer, the decrease on the physical participation (workmanship) in project implementation (Figure 51-4/Ch.4 and Figure 78-4/Ch.5), together with increasing number of projects implemented by outside contractors after the Re-P.P (drinking water service, power supply and school) show a possible decrease in traditional technical knowledge transfer among citizens. Nonetheless, the increasing number of education facilities in and around Al-shigla after the re-planning process from one school to three suggests possible increase in literacy level, in fact male literacy level has gone up to 53% in 2002 compared to 31% in 1992, higher literacy level is proved by (Bhattacharyya, 2006) to increase participation quality.

Physical participation was commonly observed in most of the projects implemented before the re-planning process (the water supply, power supply as well as the school), the physical participation process does include chances for community learning of building techniques. This is quite important in low- income communities such as Al-salama. The community learning was evident in the P.H.C.U project in which the main carpenter /

³ Interview with Al-Nasri , a community leaders and a former councilor in Al-shigla.

community builder was actually a general worker/apprentice during the school project. House building process before the re-planning process in AL-shigla also signifies this. Community learning through the physical participation and Nafeer process was common and evident.

Projects after the re-planning process were implemented through a contractor. Compared to before the re-planning process projects, which were generally implemented in a shorter period, the chances for community learning were less. The economic theory's concept of "The leaning by doing" simply has no grounds after the re-planning process.

In Al-salama, There is no doubt that after the re-planning process both the income as well as the education level were higher. The increase number of schools intakes as well as the numbers of schools in Al-salama after the re-planning process clearly illustrates that. For instance, Literacy level has gone up from about 13-21 % before the re-planning process ⁴ up to 83% as found in our field survey.

The change observed in the quality of building materials used after the re-planning process though suggest higher citizens incomes, it could always be argued that the increased level of land tenure security applied after the re-planning was the major driver to improve the building materials quality used rather than the increase in the income level. Although there are not enough researches to document the land prices changes before and after the re-planning process, an interview with Mr. Khawaga M.^{43 5} illustrates that land and property prices has increased up to three times one year after the Re-P.P.

An interesting observation in Al-salama is that the concept of social-entrepreneur strongly existed prior to the re-planning process. The income generated through the management of the water well contributed in financing both the electricity as well as the school projects. It also helps community groups to manage the project as well. This concept does not have any traces after the Re-P.P process. The limited level of citizens' control seen after the Re-P.P might have contributed to that.

The community mapping of Al-salama also signifies that the community groups after the re-planning process though are less engaged in the projects in Al-salama, their funding sources are partially supported by the government. Examples are the Women and Students Union. Community mapping also exhibits and increase of the number o the Women Saving Groups. This generally suggests the improvement of the resident's level of income.

⁴ Estimates from Mr. Osman M. Al-Asshai (a former Elite and community leader)

⁵ the Resident Engineer in Al-salama Local Planning Office.

1.4 The level of control factor

Looking at the participation process as a function of who decides and who provides as stated by Turner in 1976, Community Group in Al-shigla and Al-salama before the re-planning process (driven by the concept of *Nafeer*) turned from a group that decides and mostly provides, to a group that increasingly have no power in decision making, but might be asked to provide certain financial or workmanship resources, this was very evident in most of the projects implemented after the Re-P.P. Service delivery projects (Water and electricity supply) which require certain level of technical skills were an exception. The opposite of the above statement applies to Public Authorities group by which the state poor contribution in projects implemented before the re-planning expresses their limited control (though state does have the power). Both state power and control were demonstrated after the re-planning process in all the projects evaluated.

In both case studies, Figure 81 and Figure 84 exhibits and increase control of Municipal Government and Public Authorities (planners and bureaucrats) after the re- planning process over community participation in projects selected. On the contrary, As shown in Figure 82 and Figure 83, the level of citizens' control applied before the re-planning process shows higher citizens' control than that applied after, this was observed not only in the spectrum of projects implemented (the larger circles in Figure 82 and Figure 83) but also in the types of arrangement conducted (the smaller circles in Figure 82 and Figure 83).

The *Nafeer* ideology has contributed to the increase level of control exhibited before the Re-P.P. On the other hand, the level of control exhibited by Public Authorities has gone up after the Re-P.P. The type of controlled practiced by public authorities after the re-planning process is ranked to what Midegely, 1986 named as the "a manipulative mode", by which states don't really involves citizens as much as it manipulate their participation to reach certain states goals.

The level of citizens' control applied before the Re-P.P fits nicely into (Checkoway, 1984) "Neighborhood Planning Model", which he claims to offer better citizens control over project planning issues when compared to his other model named as "Sub-area Planning". The latter model, fits nicely into C.P accomplished after the Re-P.P. Thus, according to Chekoway's model, C.P before the Re-P.P in Al-shigla does have higher citizens control than that observed before.

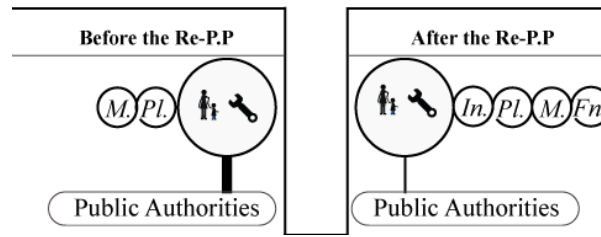


Figure 81 level of Municipal Government control over projects and types of arrangements conducted in Al-shigla
(Note: symbols and abbreviations are the same as that of figure 79)

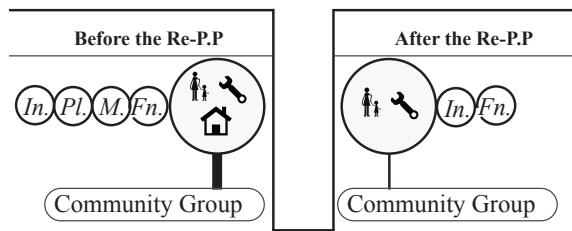


Figure 82 level of Community Groups' control over projects and types of arrangements conducted in Al-shigla
(Note: symbols and abbreviations are the same as that of figure 79)

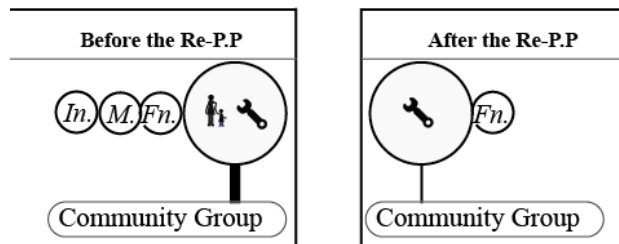


Figure 83 level of Community Groups' control over projects studied in Al-salama

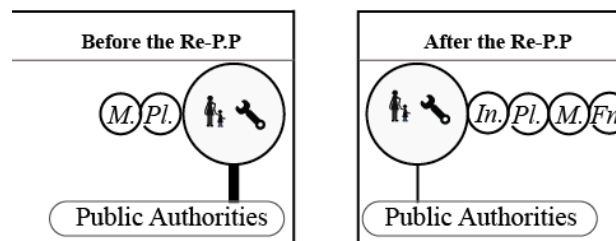


Figure 84 levels of Public Authorities control over projects studied Al-salama

1.5 The factor of participation culture

The culture of participation as discussed in our evaluation framework is pretty new criteria by which community participation quality can be measured. For this purpose we will look at aspects such as the incentives that drives peoples to participate, the level of commitment applied to the project, the use of Nafeer as well as the behavioral

knowledge of the participation process (called some times as community synergy). We will also look at both the earliness as well as the continuity of the community participation process.

In both case studies, our questionnaires (Figure 51-5/Ch.4 and Figure 78-5/Ch.5) signifies that, Incentives that drive people to participate have changed from participation that stems mostly from a social behavior (Social duty) and the feeling of project ownership before the Re-P.P, to a form of participation that is based on improving living conditions and getting legal land ownership. The social institution and the traditional Sudanese form of self-help (*Nafeer*) that is identified as "*including a group recruited through family networks, In-laws and village neighbors for some particular purpose, which then disbands when that purpose is fulfilled*" (Manger, 1987), shares major part of the participation efforts before and after the Re-P.P. *Nafeer* which is based on group work for either the benefit of an individual (house building, wedding, social activity, etc.), or for the benefit of the society as whole was evident. Many projects in the two case studies (both before and after the re-planning process) including Al-shigla west *Khalwa*, Sheikh Attia Mosque, Primary Health Care Unit, Al-salama School, power and water supply in Al-salama were implemented and planned using *Nafeer*.

Being an institution that is based on social responsibilities rather than power relations, *Nafeer* places high "social commitment to those who are involved. In fact, in some Sudanese native administrations "*..Trials are held for people who do not participate*" (Gad Allah, 2005). This confirms that *Nafeer*-driven projects involves higher commitments than those initiated after the Re-P.P. Interestingly, Government planning institutions especially after the Re-P.P are frequently using *Nafeer*, as plan implementation tool.

However, we should not understand that *Nafeer* as practiced before the Re-P.P was completely a self-driven activity. The power supply as well as water provision projects in Al-salama illustrated that elites were incentivizing community to participate. As compared to Al-shigla case study, *Nafeer* seems to be less practiced in Al-salama, but of course much higher than after the Re-P.P.

In Al-salama, prior to the Re-P.P, the community participation was practiced as a social duty that involves the family as a whole (not only individuals). Several *Nafeer* processes involve different community members and components. *Nafeer* contributed at different level to the implementations, management as well as financing project like the power supply, water supply, the school as well as the PHCU. The fact that *Nafeer* is considered a duty rather than a voluntarily work might have boosted the citizens involvement before the re-planning process as well as improve the level of commitment both citizens and community leaders assigned to projects implemented in Al-salama.

In both case studies, community participation after the Re-P.P exhibits an early as well as ongoing participation process. The continuity as well as the earliness of the participation deems to provide sense of project ownership, which in turns develop the commitment to that respective project. On the other hand, most of the features discussed above seem to be less grounded after the Re-P.P. Nafeer as we mentioned earlier seems to be "manipulated" to the level of projects finance only. No other kinds of Nafeer were experienced after the re-planning process. The community synergy however remains largely the same. Our fieldwork observation illustrated that Al-salama community is well connected. Yet it is relationship to P.Cs and the physical spaces is quite poor.

To recap the benchmarking process, the five framework components were further divided into 26 sub-components. The subcomponents illustrate the same characteristic of the main framework elements as being very much intertwined/overlapped each other. Using these 26 sub-components, the comparative evaluation is thus more explained in Table 29.

Table 29 the Five Elements Evaluation Framework application on community participation findings in the Case study Areas (highest values are highlighted with grey).

(1) The Five framework Elements	(2) Framework Subcomponents	(3) Benchmarking Value				(4) Notes and Comments	
		(a) Al-shigla		(b) Al-salama			
		Before Re-P.P	After Re- P.P	Before Re- P.P	After Re- P.P		
(1)	Communications	Link among different stakeholders	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	-
		Leadership	Lower	Higher	Higher		Traditional /ethnic leaders versus P.Cs
		Creditability of leaders	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Elected traditional /ethnic leaders versus P.Cs
		Frequency of communication	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	-
		Earliness of involvement stage	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	-
		Openness/interest expression	-	-	Higher	Lower	-
		Easiness of info. Transfer	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Participants in control.
(2)	Capacities /Resources	Technical knowledge related to projects studied.	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Traditional technical knowledge in small projects through learning by doing.
		Education level of participants	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Increase number of educational facilities support this argument (No official Data).

		Income level of participants	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Formulation of many collaborative associations after the Re-P.P.
		Complexity of Information to be shared	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Planning projects tackled after the Re-P.P are more complex than those tackled before (see Figure 48)
		Ethnicity	Higher	Lower	-	-	
		Social entrepreneurs	-	-	Higher	None	Not available before and after the re-planning process in Al-shigla, but was significant in Al-salama before the re-planning process.
(3)	Level of Control	Consensus on decision making	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	
		Level of community control over projects	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	-
		Committed leadership	-	-	Higher	-	-
		Level of control over method of participation	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Decision making level.
		Commitment to projects	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Sense of ownership.
(4)	Culture of C.P	Incentives that drive people to participate	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Participation as social commitment.
		Commitment to projects	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Sense of ownership.
		The use of <i>Nafeer</i>	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	
		Behavioral knowledge of C.P	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Culture of <i>Nafeer</i> decreases after the re-planning process.
(5)	Sphere /Spectrum	Project spectrum/Range/ Scope	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Projects scales and and complexity are higher after the Re-P.P
		Spectrum of stakeholders	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Based on the community mapping of both Al-shigla and Al-salama, more participants before the re-planning process are observed in both case studies, yet, they are generally less engaged.
		Capacity of stakeholders' engagement	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	
		Variety of projects	-	-	Higher	Lower	
		Complexity of Information to be shared	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Issues that are tackled after the Re.P.P are more complex, comprehensive and of a large scale than those tackled before.

2 Summary of the benchmarking process

As the comparison framework used for benchmarking in this Chapter has been explicitly developed to compare and evaluate C.P in the case study area, its structure provides a space for much larger level comparative analysis, which in turn, can guide planners and policy-makers to identify what sort of measures are necessary to be undertaken to bridge C.P gaps. Yet, this framework should not be expected to provide an absolute benchmark for the participation process, as a formula of measuring the degree of input of each framework component is necessary to be developed. Equally, achieving a highly reliable level of community participation evaluation in different contexts requires projects to be studied and evaluated as early as possible throughout their various development stages. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this research and its context (projects studied, sample size and comparison/evaluation framework used), we can conclude that, in general and in both case studies three out of five framework components (see Table 29) do have a higher value before the Re-P.P than after, these components are; the communication among stakeholders groups, level of community control in project development and culture of community participation.

3 Concluding remarks

Without quality participation that is culturally and socially grounded, the journey of improving C.P in both traditional and legislative planning might lead to rough roads. In this regard, many factors are identified as barriers towards effective participation in both types of C.P, for instance barriers to efficient C.P in legislative Re-P.P includes:

1. Poor community leaders creditability and the low level of information flow between different stakeholders.
2. Low citizens control over planning projects (low governance), together with poor communication (consensus) among different stakeholders.
3. The use of the concept of *Nafeer*, as a project implementation/ financing tool, but not to build consensus and exchange ideas as was before the Re-P.P.
4. C.P stage is mostly late on the process (implementation/financing), which in return limits citizens' ability to influence the plans generated.
5. C.P is largely understood as "one-to-one" relationship between planning authorities and citizens' representatives (P.Cs), the role of NGOs/CPOs and direct citizens' participation is very minimal.

6. Although the structure of the civil society in the two case studies as noted in the community mapping has increased after the Re-P.P with more institutions and associations, the intensity of civil society engagement in development projects decreased.

On the other hand, citizens' initiated (Nafeer-driven) C.P major weaknesses traced are:

1. The low technical and economic capacities of participants, which could arguably be the reason behind the limited sphere and the complexity of projects conducted before the Re-P.P.
2. Nafeer-driven participation, which is highly based on ethnicity though might raise-up questions and doubt on its applicability and efficiency in urban/heterogeneous areas.
3. Limited number of institutions/associations that act outside the ethnic/religious structure.
4. Poor sense of leadership in projects implemented before the Re-P.P, this was caused by the horizontal "community groups" relationships that dominate project-planning sphere before the Re-P.P. the above observation only apply to Al-shigla case study.

At this point, it is necessary to point out some weaknesses observed in both C.P approaches, including the low level of literacy among citizens (which had placed some research carry out difficulties), poor women involvement and the weak economic abilities of most of the stakeholders. Nonetheless, the main strength of C.P in legislative planning in the Re-P.P discussed is its technical abilities that are empowered by the power of administrative authorities. Civil society after the Re-P.P was also larger and diverse, yet, less engaged in local development challenges.

On the other hand, the main strength of Nafeer-driven C.P lies behind its ability to create open discussion platform among stakeholders, therefore providing higher possibilities of reaching consensus. Nafeer-driven projects also provide citizens with more chances to initiate, develop, implement and manage development projects.

Although it is not easy to generalize the results observed, they have pointed-out the importance and the efficiency of certain aspects of C.P in the traditional/ethnic communities which can be used to enhance and bridge C.P in the common "re-planning" approaches.

We understand that participation "...must necessarily start where the local institutions and leaders are, not where you would like them to be" (Fisher, 2001), thus, the findings of our research suggest that the socially accepted

concept of *Nafeer* could increase the efficiency of the legislative planning system, provided that it has been seriously considered as a planning "support" tool especially in the Re-P.P of the "pre-urban" areas where citizens' traditional culture does exist. In this regard, attempts to enhance and improve the traditional participatory planning in Al-Shigla and Al-salama should focus on:

1. Promoting capacity development-driven participation by improving citizens' technical, economical and civic capacities.
2. Increasing citizens control in projects by changing their role from being "an Actor" in the process of participation to be "an Author", this can be achieved through an empowerment strategy that acknowledges both citizens' low capacities and the importance of them being in control.

As for legislative planning, the following three points can help to improve C.P in Al-shigla, this includes that;

1. Planning authorities should focus on building an institutional culture that promotes community participation;
2. Al-shigla and Al-salama communities were too large to participate as a whole in the decision-making process, thus, to ensure leaders credibility the process of identifying citizens' representatives in various development projects need to be improved, by doing so the relationship between citizens and planning authorities will not require intermediate mediators as was observed after the Re-P.P in (Figure 79 and Figure 80);
3. The frequent use of *Nafeer* in "plan implementation" by planning authorities shows that *Nafeer* is not alien to the legislative planning, this enforces that *Nafeer* can be utilized to improve C.P in legislative planning especially that some of the main weakness of C.P in legislative planning (leaders creditability and consensus building) are actually a "Nafeer" strength. To achieve such a goal, sincere collaboration among various stakeholders is required.

Chapter Seven;

Conclusions

This part summarizes conclusions of the two case studies, the general research conclusions as well as further recommendations for future research

Conclusions

This thesis compiles a highly discussed and priority issues present in the Sudanese capital region as well as in many cities in the developing world today. This research brings forward the importance of learning from our previous experience to enhance our future. The problems and challenges exhibited in this thesis shows a common issues that many of the Sudanese cities are facing today. We believe that this research represent a unique as well as vital contribution to both academic and professional planning practice.

There is no doubt that the Village Organization process was generally successful and accompanied by an admired progress in urban as well as economic conditions. Yet, we should understand that this research is not trying to evaluate the Village Organization Program as much as the community participation within the process itself. This clarification was set earlier as one of the research boundaries. According to this, the findings of this research suggest that the Village Organization process did not encourage legitimate approach to community participation in the case studied areas. The structure of the village re-planning generally exhibited that the process as well as the projects assigned to it are designed and implemented in such way that government stakeholders ensured that they have final Control. The control is maintained by several arrangement including

1. Timing; participation does happen only at the late stage of planning or at stages that don't actually influence the decisions making and planning process.
2. Quality; participation was generally restricted to financing as well as implementing the projects planned mostly by public authorities.
3. Structure; Peoples' Committees were not elected nonetheless, they were seen as citizens' representatives. This did have an impact on widening the gap between public authorities and community.
4. Law and mandates; planning bylaws and mandates don't provide room for genuine participation (see Chapter two-section three of this dissertation).

Indeed the village organization process as well as the re-planning yield unprecedented collaboration among different "planning institutions" that could be argued as the first of its magnitude in the physical planning practice in Khartoum. Nonetheless many researchers noted that collaboration exhibited was not enough (Dennis A. Rondinelli, 1981). Lack of collaboration among planning organizations is major deficits in Sudanese planning. Our exploratory questionnaire conducted in chapter three identified this clearly.

Our conclusions in this research are structured from specific to general. The specific conclusions shows general outcomes resulted through various research carryout stages and modules. Whereas, general conclusions represent the common conclusions related to our research question and hypothesis.

1 The five elements evaluation framework

The two case studies used in this thesis (Al-shigla and Al-salama) together with our developed “evaluation framework” allowed for in-depth analysis and discussion around this topic. The case studies deemed to be essential and practical especially that they recognize the lack of similar examples in which traditional as well as recent community participation procedural aspects are appraised.

At this point some epistemological questions related to the application of our developed framework arises. These questions are; 1) whether our evaluation framework fits its purpose? And; 2) does it provides effectives criteria of success to measure community participation in the two case studies covered.

The answer to these questions, a careful inquiry that is related to the framework application in the two case studies is value laden. In regards to our first inquiry, the framework we provided seems to have perfectly provided a clear guidance on factor that can be considered in order to efficiently measure participation. The five elements framework seems to be very representative in the two case studies we provided.

Regarding the second query, we believe that our framework though effectively identified the factors to measure success of the community participation process; it failed to provide clear criteria of success. We argue that the latter is just as debatable as the community participation concept itself. Thus, defining common criteria of success seem to be difficult and scant. According to this we hypothesize that " in the lack of clear criteria of success, theories and practices can effectively fill in this gap". The hypothesis above has been already applied in this thesis.

The use of the intangible outcomes as a parallel evaluation criterion along our framework signifies the strength of the framework we developed. For instance the community mapping process and the field surveys outcomes fits nicely into our framework with several crossings observed. Nonetheless, we do argue that this represents a case-specific issue rather than a general feature related to our five elements evaluation framework. Testifying the efficiency of this framework will requires several case studies of different character and magnitudes rather than two slightly different case studies as presented in this thesis

This hypothesizes that measuring community participation efficiency could possibly go beyond our five elements framework. Albeit the two case studies contribute to the improvement of our evaluation framework, the level

difference between them signifies that they are simply not enough to determine our framework efficacy. This recognizes the need to more research in this direction.

2 The case studies

The conclusions drawn by the two case studies exhibits that Village Organization and the re-planning process are very delicate issues. The cultural consequences of the process (including community participation) need to be considered properly prior to any intervention. The failure to do so might result in less community synergy as well as lower level of participation. Our findings here are inline with (Eltahir, 2008) findings that participation does affect the physical space structure as well as citizens' cultural identity.

The case studies also show that, government initiated plans/projects i.e. villages re-planning and incorporation does have a professional technical component. The latter, starts at early stages but still lack of enough financial resources. A contrasting approach is observed by Nafeer-driven projects in both Al-shigla and Al-Salama case studies.

A procedural pattern of community participation before and after the re-planning is thus observed. Accordingly, before the re-planning process, people get organized first and then at later stage they seek external assistant i.e. technical, financial, legal, etc. This was evident in most of the projects including the water provision, power supply as well as the schools. This community organization takes different shapes. For instance in small projects as well as projects that are highly technical i.e. the primary health care unit and the Khalwa in Al-salama as well as the Sheikh Attia mosque in Al-shigla, the process of community organization was among the community leaders, traditional ethnic leaders and the elite. Public consensus was not necessarily until the later stages of the project. On the contrary, the process of community organization in technically complicated and financially challenging projects occurs right at the early stage of the project. Examples are the school project; the water and power supply projects in Al-salama as well as the power supply, water provision in Al-shigla.

The type of external assistant requested by citizens depends on the nature and magnitude of the projects under consideration. Yet, it is generally range from; 1) financial assistant; 2) technical assistant; 3) legal and/or administrative assistant; 4) a mix of the three types mentioned above. An interesting argument that raise it self here is whether the level and earliness of the process of community organization is linked to the level of complication and technical difficulties in the projects under consideration. In other word, the more complicated are the projects the earlier the participation is exercised.

3 The patterns/typologies of community participation observed in this research

Community participation before and after the re-planning process signifies two patterns of community participation. These patterns exhibit a relationship between three main components identified as 1) the community group; 2) public agencies and; 3) the physical spaces in which projects and plans are realized and developed. The patterns which is shown in Figure 85 signifies that

1. Within Nafeer -driven community participation, strong relationship between community and the physical spaces existed. This relationship is dominated by projects financing and to a lower extend project planning, which is generally a task that is done by an outsider (public authorities or NGOs, CBOs). As a result a low level yet continuous two-way communication channels are open with public agencies through which information as well as decisions are taken. Project finance (though generally beard by the community) is also considered in this process. Within this pattern the community generally manages projects with some public authorities assistant in technical matters.

In this pattern, the community generally initiates the projects. Thus, gain high degree of commitments among community group. Community in general gets organized first before requesting any technical assistant.

2. The second pattern signifies legislative planning arrangements. This pattern exhibits major domination of planning power that is assigned to public authorities group. This power illustrates that projects are thus initiated and managed by the same public authorities. A part from project financing, community is generally excluded from these procedures. Communication between community and public authorities is generally weak, and characterized by being one way procedure by which community is requested to bear some financial cost related to the projects under consideration. This is especially evident in service delivery projects.

The level of commitment at community level in this pattern is minimal, mostly encapsulated in the financial contribution requested. As a result, this pattern deemed costly (timely, financially as well as resources wise), as public authorities have to take responsibility of various projects arrangements.

Information in the first participation typology (Nafeer-driven) is generally collected by local communities but shared with project planning team and public authorities. An exception to this is the projects that have been completely done by community groups without further assistant from the public authorities. Examples like Sheikh Attia Mosque and Al-nus Khalwa in Al-shigla case study signifies this argument. At this point, we also argue that; the more important, complicated, technical-oriented and larger scale the project is, the better the information get

transferred between community groups and public Authorities. as appose to this, information transfer in the legislative pattern of community participation tends to be mono-directional (from public authorities to community). Our findings in section Three-Chapter Two (Figure 12) signifies that in legislative planning, within the re-planning arrangement there are three types of information that are transferred from public authorities to community groups, these are 1). The intension to initiate plans/project; 2). Projects arrangements; 3). And the final “approved” plans/projects.

Considering it as a procedure that take action between community groups and public Authorities, decision-making in the first participation typology is more of a consultation nature through which none of the different stakeholders in Al-salama or Al-shigla does have the absolute control (See Figure 79 & 80-Chapter Six). An exception to this is the decision-making procedure within the community, which shows a domination of some groups i.e. ethnic leaders or the elite.¹ In the second pattern (Legislative planning participation pattern), decision-making as much as plans are generally Top-down.² Therefore a decision tends to have a one-way flow (from public authorities to community group).

In the second pattern we argues that knowledge exchange does not share the same strength in the relationship between public authorities and the community. The fact that efficient knowledge exchange happens only through participation (J, A, M, & Al., 1986) has contributed to this. In fact the stage that can possibly have the most efficient knowledge exchanges procedure (the Planning Stage) as stated by (FISHER, 2010), shows the least participation effort in the legislative planning participation pattern. The above two statement don't only support our previous argument but they raise a question of whether C.P as practiced in legislative planning is sustainable and value-laden.

¹ Through some of these groups do dominate the decision-making process; there is high level of consensus among them.

² At this point P.Cs were considered, as the lowest level of government as stated in P.Cs Act of 1992. Yet this argument would be different in case we consider P.Cs as a local-level community group.

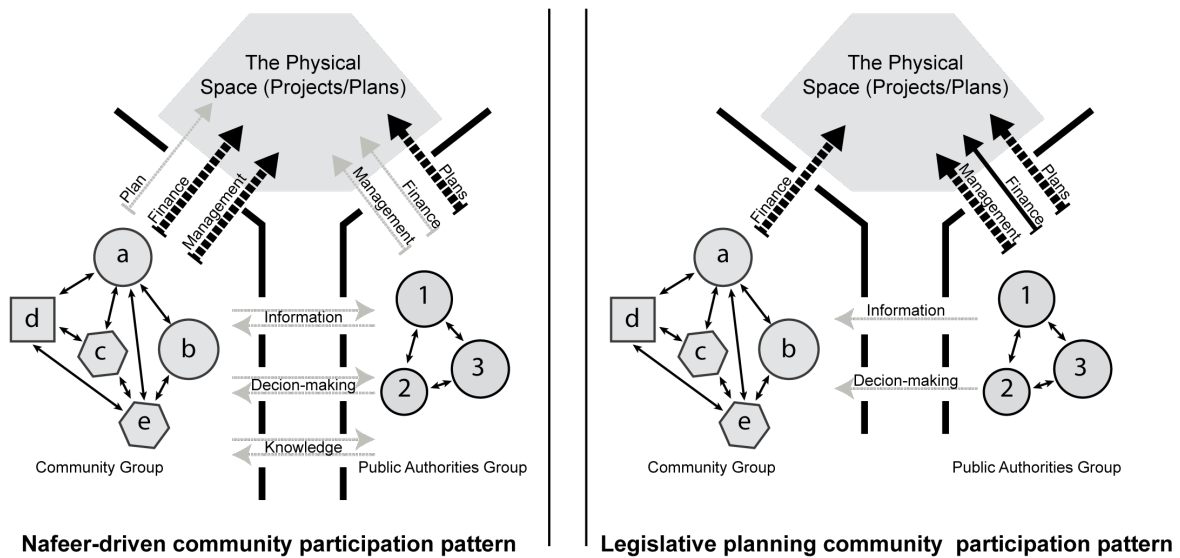


Figure 85 The structure of the two community participation patterns observed in the Village Organization Process,

The one on the left represents before the Re-P.P and the right one shows after the Re-P.P Note; this diagram should be read in conjunction with Figure 79 –Chapter Six and Figure 80-Chapter Six.

Common to the two patterns, community is considerably covering the majority of the projects cost. This mount though is largely voluntarily paid in Nafeer- driven participation,³ it requires some incentives within the legislative planning arrangements. The above statement is generally true in community development projects and to a lower degree in the service delivery projects.

The two patterns above illustrated several shortcomings, deficits and gaps that need to be overcome if the efficiency of participation exercises is deemed necessary. While we observed three levels of challenges that are based on the three main relationships (Community Groups, Public Authorities and the Physical Space), we argue that gaps associated with community as well as public agencies to the physical setting can be bridged by effectively linking those two players. Our argument is grounded on (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011) findings that “Legislative planning weaknesses are actually a Nafeer strength”. The above argument signifies that, our main suggestions should highlight bridging community- public authorities links and relationship.

In the first pattern (Nafeer-driven) participation we generally observed that the major challenge is localized the planning arrangement at the community level. The low community capacities as seen in the last two chapters suggest citizens’ inability low-level of participation behavior in technically challenging projects. In the second pattern however, the communication channels through which projects/ plans arrangements are discussed needs

³ Though it is generally voluntarily, but it can be ranked to a social commitment.

to strengthen and supported. We argue that; lack of trust between community and public authorities observed in both Al-Shigla and al-Salama is a result of this gap.

4 Nafeer ideology

Nafeer-driven participation as practiced in the two case studies exhibits slightly different approach with generally the same procedures. For instance, unlike Al-shigla, Al-salama case study proved that Nafeer-driven participatory approaches are not associated only with ethnicity and tribal structure as noted by many researchers i.e. (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2010; Eltahir & Hamid, 2007; Geoffroy, 2005; Manger, 1987) . This signifies that Nafeer-driven participation does work even in heterogeneous area like Al-salama. This observation enforces the possibility of channeling Nafeer-driven participation to the spectrum of legislative urban planning in which the latter arrangements are generally carried out in a very heterogeneous environment. The validity of channeling Nafeer to legislative planning is supported by our earlier findings in which many of the weak areas in community participation practiced within legislative planning are actually Nafeer strength.

At this point, our findings in Al-shigla and Al-salama illustrate that; the current definition assigned to Nafeer is generally under-played. (Manger's, 1987)⁴ definition though has explained that Nafeer itself is not a continuous process it encapsulate Nafeer in the physical efforts exerted by participants.

The two case studies appraised in this research illustrated three Nafeer typologies. These typologies are explained as follows;

1. Physical Nafeer; this is the most common Nafeer that is generally practiced and understood on most of the literature (including (Manger, 1987)). This type of Nafeer is characterized by the physical efforts exerted to fulfill a certain goal i.e. building public building, a private house, digging channels, etc.. The physical nature of this type asserted the domination of male on it is activities. Participation activities that requires only paying a certain mount of money to fulfill a certain goal also fits in this category. This category normally provides low chances for citizens' involvement in projects initiation, planning and management of service delivery and community building projects.
2. Social Nafeer; The second type of Nafeer is less practiced in most of the urban areas as it involves participation to be treated as a social activity. This typology involves the participation of expertise's knowledge as well as income to clarify and reach a level of understanding regarding a challenge faced.

⁴ Manger, 1987 define Nafeer as "including a group recruited through family networks, in-laws and village neighbors for some particular purpose, which then disbands when that purpose is fulfilled"

Both male and female participate in this typology, which its activities are publicly opened. Social Nafeer is grounded in project initiation and implementation, but it hardly reflects the planning stage side.

3. **Physiological Nafeer;** We argue that this is the ultimate level of Nafeer practiced. This type generally exhibits a context of solving problems and challenges together as a community. Information, knowledge, expertise and responsibilities are shared among different participants. Different community groups are thus represented. Unlike the social Nafeer, this type is driven more by shared goals rather than the family, ethnic connections.

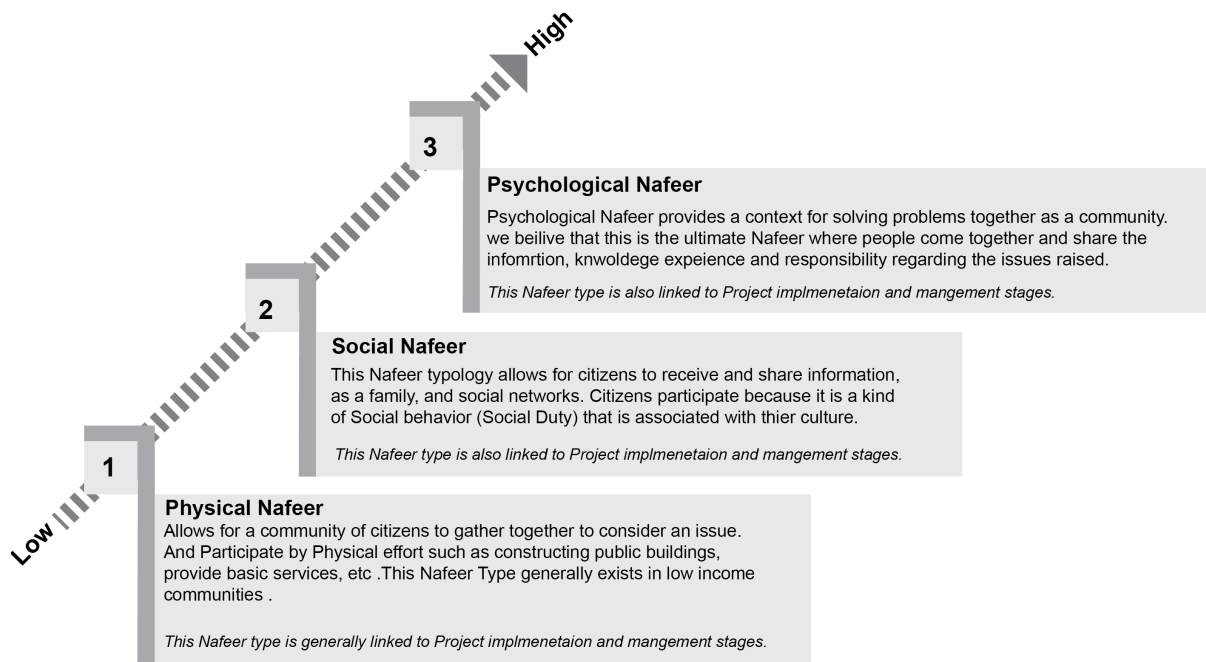


Figure 86 the three Nafeer typologies as re-defined by this research

The three Nafeer typologies identified above are used to a varying degrees before and after the re-planning process. In this sense, there are no evidences that a certain Nafeer typology is associated with a certain planning procedure i.e. before / after the re-planning process. Nonetheless, the physical Nafeer is generally observed to occur both before and after the re-Planning process. In other words, Nafeer as physical participations identified in both “citizens-initiated” planning as well as planners-centered re-planning process. This is strongly evident in service delivery mechanism.

Despite that Social Nafeer generally observed in pre re-planning projects, there are evidences that it does exist to a lower level after the re-planning process. Al-salama case study exhibits this very clearly especially with women contributions in the saving groups. Nafeer such as “Fek Alsilik” Nafeer in Al-salama also illustrate this. The level of Nafeer stated above are used to a varying degrees before and after the re-planning process. To clarify this, the three Nafeer typologies identified in Figure 86 have been practiced to a various levels before and

after the Re-P.P. For instance, Nafeer types used after the Re-P.P are dominated by the physical Nafeer, which is practiced in the project implementation stage. Other project stages i.e. projects initialization, objectives definition, management and administration do not exhibit any type of the three Nafeer typologies stated earlier.

On the contrary, Nafeer before the Re-P.P generally exhibits all the three typologies. Social and psychological Nafeer are traced in the project Initiation and objective definition stages. Social Nafeer is also observed in the project planning stage. In the project implementation stage, both physical as well as social Nafeer are traced. Project management and administration stage as much as the project-Initiation stage, is dominated by social and psychological Nafeer.

The above statements illustrate that the highest levels of Nafeer are generally attained prior to the re-planning process. Projects stages though don't clearly state a cutting edge observation, they illustrate that the "Planning Stage" within Nafeer practice is generally the stage that is getting the least degree of Nafeer both before and after the re-planning process.

The above statements also signify that Nafeer is not a voluntarily work as many researchers has noted (see (Hiatai, 1998.), Eltahir, 2003). On the contrary, Nafeer seem to be a form of social contracts through which community needs are realized. Our argument is supported by that there are generally a lot of commitment related to Nafeer practice. Whether Nafeer is practiced for the benefit of an individual or the benefits of the society at large, people who participate in Nafeer are sure that others will participate in theirs. (Gad Allah, 2005) argues, "In some native administration in Sudan, trials are held for those who do not participate in Nafeer".

In this regard, the two case studies of Al-shigla and Al-salama as well as other research on this matter (Ali, 2005; Eltahir, 2005; Ibrahim, 2007) shows that Nafeer is generally practiced at the local level. This implies that Nafeer application in higher government (state or National level) might require conceptual as well as procedural changes to the concept itself.

The discussions exhibited above amplify that Nafeer former definitions do not actually define Nafeer as much as they describe the process by which some of its activities take place. According to the two case studies, we define Nafeer as

1. A principle and an ideology by which people come together to consider an issue of importance to an individuals as well as the group.
2. A goal by which social satisfaction and community synergy is reached
3. A mean to attain certain physical, social and physiological goals.

4. And a method to realize individuals as well as communal needs. Also as a tool to attain consensus.

5 Testifying our research objectives and hypothesis

This research critically analyzed the institutional arrangements, decision-making processes and stakeholder characteristics to attain the research objectives. The five research objectives identified in chapter one has been covered through the different stages of this research. For instance, the first and the second objectives (to explore the concept of C.P with reference to local planning tradition and to emphasis on the importance of Nafeer) have been covered in chapter two, but with detail analysis in chapter four and five. The third objective (developing a set of criteria to measure C.P) has been covered in Chapter Three. Chapter one as well as the research techniques applied in the specific case studies (chapter four and five) explains how our fourth research objective was met. The conclusions drawn by this chapter as well as benchmarking process of each of the two case studies in Al-salama and Al-shigla fulfilled our last objectives (identifying and understand the Pros and Cons of each type of community participation practiced).

Accordingly to our findings, the two hypothesis raised at the beginning of this dissertation have a varying degree of accuracy. For instances, results of the comparing the two-participation process signify the strength of Nafeer-driven community participation in favor of the legislative planning. The statement above does positively answers our first hypothesis. An interesting observation at this point is that; through the comparison process, what is generally considered as the major weakness in the Nafeer-driven participation (the technical component), is actually a legislative planning strength. The same applied for the easiness of consensus building, which is both strength of "Nafeer-driven participation" and a weakness in the "legislative planning". The fact that the weakness of each of these approaches is strength of the other amplifies that "if these two approaches were combined they can affectively bridge the community participation challenges in Khartoum". This statement also positively answers our second hypothesis.

The major epistemological enquiry at this point is; whether this research has answered our research questions raised at chapter one. By using the common Nafeer definitions provided earlier in this research, we believe that the first research question rose at chapter one can be negatively answered. Nafeer (as defined by most of the current literature) cannot fill the gaps of participation in the legislative planning practice. Our justification to this is grounded on that the major gap observed in community participation practice as noted earlier lays on the relationship gap between public authorities as well as community groups. To fill this gap we need to bridge the "information", "decision-making" as well as "knowledge" barriers observed in Figure 85. These three elements cannot be bridge by using Nafeer as defined above. The statement provided here does not necessarily signify Nafeer weakness as much as the weakness related to it is definition.

As a matter of fact, using the alternative definition supplied by this research we can conclude that, under certain measures, Nafeer can actually bridge two of the three gaps observed in Figure 85.

Nafeer older definition as a physical as well as financial participation can hardly contribute to enrich the communication between these two important stakeholders. On the contrary, the third as well as second level of Nafeer definition provided by this research (Physical and Social Nafeer) can actually fill in this gap. Although this thesis demonstrated the possibility of bridging community participation in legislative planning through Nafeer, the procedural and policy related arrangement for such bridge is a delicate issue. Porting Nafeer to legislative planning though proved feasible, it requires cultural and procedural changes in what we have named earlier as planning tradition. Planning mandates, planners' perceptions and planning practice have to be flexible enough to accommodate such changes. For this to happen research institutions can play a vital and significant role.

At this point it is necessary not to over-estimate Nafeer strength. Nafeer had been defined by this research can be a good "planning support" tool but not a "planning methodology". The two case studies show that Nafeer is too weak when it comes to the planning stage of most of the projects. Local communities tend to involve an outsider (Government, NGOs, etc.) at that specific stage. Nonetheless, the strength of Nafeer in consensus building is highly observed in the case studies. The latter statements bring Nafeer closer to the Communicative Planning Rationalities in which the focus of participation is more on bringing stakeholders together and reach consensus as well as learning from each other. This is exactly where Nafeer strength is spotted.

6 Contributions of this research, recommendations for further research and research limitations

6.1 Research contribution

In the absence of relevant literature and theories on community participation in the third world, this thesis is a major contribution to fill in that gap. The body of this research yields four main contributions to both academic as well as professional practice. Due to the nature of the research methodology applied here, some of these contributions transcend the regional boundaries of Sudan. These contributions are listed as follows

Contribution 1: A major epistemological contribution of this research is exhibited in the research methodology itself. The formation and structure of our framework provides space for further application in other similar contexts. Thus its applicability transcends the regional borders of Sudan. This framework we visualize as "representative, not necessarily comprehensive" (Bahreldin & Ariga, 2011). The conceptual/metaphorical structure of the framework is also a contribution that will allow for a context-driven evaluation framework to be

delivered when necessary at different context. To our knowledge, this is the first evaluation framework that is structured with reference to evaluating community participation in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Contribution 2: This research contributed to empower the concept of Nafeer in Sudan. The research outcomes ameliorate and alter the general misconception and oversight assigned to the concept of Nafeer through providing a cohesive and comprehensive definition of Nafeer itself. The research also transcends its definition to explain different molds of Nafeer that are traced in both communities driven as well as legislative planning approaches within the two case studies. Bearing in mind the limitations mentioned earlier, this research proved that traditional forms of community participation (such as Nafeer) can actually improve and enhanced current legislative planning practice.

Contribution 3: This dissertation attempts to bridge the gap exist in the community participation evaluation and community participation literature. Many studies have focused on studying community participation, few actually touch upon participation evaluation, even fewer discussed upon this topic in the third world. The fact that “community participation evaluation still lags behind” (Laurian & Shaw, 2008) places high emphasis on this research. This research contributes to the few literature that examines the community participation in Sudan and community participation evaluation worldwide.

Contribution 4: the Participatory Rural appraisal workshop used in this research manifested the first urban development-oriented forum in the case study of Al-salama. The success of the workshop in brining together planners, citizen’s leaders as well as policy makers shows how research institutions can bridge the procedural and trust gap exhibited in chapter four and chapter five. The PRA has created informal think-tank that function as a multi-disciplinary development conference in Al-salama area. Again, we believe that was very unique to happen in Khartoum.

6.2 Research recommendations

With references to the conclusions / contributions availed by this research we opt to find these recommendations as grounded and value laden. The recommendations stated here are arranged from general to specific. Our recommendations thus include;

- a. Both Community participation and Nafeer should be given especial attention in the plan development procedure. A need to consider them as an integrated part of the planning process is evident and necessary for plan efficacy. Participation evaluation should also be considered as interrelated step in the project procedure. We believe that this is essential to signify public role as an author rather than an actor in the participation process.

- b. A need to change the common understanding of community participation as a relationship between public agencies and citizens is evident. In this sense, community participation in service delivery projects should be multi-stakeholder process by which all stakeholders that might have legitimate interest in the projects should be included.
- c. The non-participation behavior observed after and during the re-planning process should be viewed as a part of complex decision-making process. The solution for such drawback is multi-disciplinary as well as multilayered. Policy, planning.
- d. Our research approach in both Al-salama and Al-shigla signifies that, research institutions and universities are well trusted and appreciated by both public authorities and community. Under these conditions a great opportunity is availed to research institutions to bridge the gap shown in our conclusions.
- e. As noted in chapter two, community participation policy arrangements are the one of the major drawback in improving the process. Hence, a simple suggestions to improve how planning mandates conceive of community participation should incorporate the necessity to enforce a set of planning articles that mandates genuine C.P in planning and provide citizens more control over issues affecting their lives. However, both planning theory and practice have shown that mandating C.P is not enough to insure its vitality as it might ends up to be a set of rituals that are practiced because the law requires them (see Chetkow-Yanoov, B. (1982) and Innes, J. E., & Booher, D. E. (2000)). A culture that promotes and encourages community participation is necessary to be prevalent if the participation practice is hoped to be effective.
- f. To insure that planning mandates provide better guidance for planners, this research opts to find these suggestions as valid:
 - i. Planning mandates should encourage C.P to start as early as possible and to be ongoing. This is especially necessary at the early stages of planning up to the approval.
 - ii. Rather than considering C.P as a relationship between a state agencies and citizens, planning mandates need to emphasis that diverse stakeholders that have legitimate interest in the plan should be included.

Planning mandates also should encourage and stress the use of diverse techniques of participation involvement. At this point, we understand that best participation technique is in-lined directly to participation objectives. Thus the latter as well should be encouraged to be defining at the beginning of each participation process.

6.3 Research limitations

Several research limitations and shortcomings were spotted during the journey of this research. The limitations observed are of two kind; 1) the ones that are related to the research design it self and ; 2) the ones that are related to the research carryout methodology itself. The two limitations are strongly interrelated to affect each other. Some of these limitations are thus explained henceforth.

The case-study research approach used in this research has limited our research validity, restricting the ability to make generalizations from the research findings. Nonetheless, the choice of the two case-studies approach as a research methodology was consciously selected based on two main reasons; 1) the lack of in-depth community participation evaluation in the general literature as noted earlier (see (Beierle & Jerry Cayford, 2002; Laurian & Shaw, 2008; Rosener, 1982)) ; 2) case studies approaches are best fit for creating theories and raising more hypothetical questions. Yet, in order to achieve these too goals various case studies are required.

We understand that one of the major research weaknesses of the case study based researches are its limited ability to statistically generalize the results obtained (Shelia, S. and Harry, T., 2005; Yin, R, 2009). At this point its important to note that this specific research is not intending to generalize specific findings, in the contrary, our research is designed to accumulate in-depth knowledge of the two-selected case studies based on the procedural aspects related to C.P within the; 1) Service provision projects and 2) Village integration/re-planning process. Lack of generalization in this research is seen as a necessary limitation.

A major limitation assigned to the research conduction procedure was related to how researches on re-planning and village organizations are viewed by the several public servants. The high level of criticisms applied by international NGOs as well as many researchers to the policy related to the Village Organization process (Eltahir, 2005; Geoffroy, 2005; POST, 1994, 1996) resulted on that many planners and public servants are reluctant to provide access to information related to those processes to outsiders. Unlike Al-salama, this limitation was clearly observed in Al-shigla.

Last not least, (Laurian & Shaw, 2008) observations about the "resources limitations" in third word-based research is strongly evident here. Lack of resources i.e. trained assistants, time and fund were some of the limitations observed in this research. Some contextual and demographic factors have also altered our research design. For instance, due to the high level of illiteracy, the questionnaire module turned in many cases to

structured interviews.⁵ This was strongly observed in Al-shigla case study but to a lesser magnitude in Al-salama.

6.4 Future development and recommendations for further research

The contribution availed by this research to the body of knowledge related to community participation in the Sudanese perspective cannot be completed without further directions to future research and development. We envisioned several future research directions that can contribute to the improvement of participation practice in Sudan. In this sense we recommend that future research can focus on

1. Further improve the outcomes of this research and the evaluation framework used through covering more case studies that are in lined with the research objectives and methodology. This will further testify both the applicability as well as the efficiency of our developed framework.
2. Having covered several and variant case studies, a cross-case study comparison would be interesting to look at. The fact that Nafeer has shown some differences in Al-shigla and Al-salama signifies the vitality of cross-case study comparison.
3. We also encourage future researches to testify the cultural, physical and policy consequences of porting Nafeer to improve the community participation in Sudan. We argues that, This can be made possible through converting those the strength of each kind of participation identified into a unified model of community participation that can be used in village organization as well as the re-planning process in Sudan.
4. Although the two case studies provided rich in-depth study of community participation in the village organizations as well as re-planning affected areas, more research is needed before we can generalize our results or judge upon the methodological significance and shortcomings of this research. In this regard, the analysis conducted in this research was largely not entirely based on our community participation evaluation framework. The latter, explicitly ignored the factor of "goals/purpose" of community participation. While this ignorance was justified in chapter three, our approach in the case studies exhibits that despite the lack of clearly stated goals, participants' level of expectations from participatory exercises was assumed "as equal as participation goals". Our assumption here signifies the possibility of applying recent community participation theories and paradigm shift that stresses on participation goals in third world communities. Examples to this include communicative planning rationale. Objectives-oriented community participation evaluation, which was not focused on during this

⁵ Nearly 20 per cent of the respondents in Al-shigla, and about 5 per cent of those in Al-salama were illiterate.

research, might yield interesting findings in the two cases presented in this research. We do encourage future researches to testify our developed framework by applying it to more case studies.

In conclusion, According to the two case studies exhibited, it seems that planning authorities find it more effective to invest in planning new projects and plans than evaluate previously implemented plans/project. Lack of program evaluation is evident in both case studies. We argue that planning agencies do lack the resources and staff necessary to get engage in to the evaluation process it self. The last statement thus encourage for alternative approaches of evaluation i.e. including the evaluation process as integrated part of the planning process.⁶

To recap, more studies such as this to document as well as appraise the potentials of using traditional forms of community participation (Nafeer) in improving legislative planning will be useful and essential for building a grounded, yet, culturally sensitive community participation model in Sudan. Nonetheless, Incorporating Nafeer participation approach into the legislative planning's community participation cycle still requires convincing evidences that planning and Village Organization Program effectiveness depends on indorsing more participation. For this to work, more research is required.

⁶ The rational-adaptive planning model does have these procedures as integrated part of the planning process.

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Appendices

This part includes further investigations elaborating on certain interesting as well as important issues emerging from the community participation as well as evaluation. This part also includes some of the basic data in regards to our research methodologies used i.e. Questionnaires, Interviews as well as the PRA Workshops.

LIST OF APPENDICES

LIST OF APPENDICES	1-1
1 Dissertation Abbreviations, Local Terms And Notes.....	1-3
1.1 Definitions Of Abbreviations Used In This Dissertation	1-3
1.2 Definitions Of Local Terms Used In This Dissertation	1-4
1.3 General Notes and observations	1-5
2 Further Investigations And Literature Review Of Community Participation	2-6
3 Published Articles Related To This Dissertation.....	3-7
3.1 Peer-reviewed Journal articles and conferences presentations.	3-7
3.2 Book section and presentations.....	3-7
4 Schedule / And Interviews Information	4-9
4.1 Ministry of Planning and Public Utilities (MPPU) and Academicians interviews.....	4-9
4.2 Al-shigla Case Study.....	4-9
4.3 Al-salama Case study.....	4-10
5 Further Investigations On Al-Shigla Case Study.....	5-11
5.1 Questioners Data in Al-shigla Case Study.....	5-12
5.1.1 Sample Of The Questionnaire Distributed To Planners And Professional	5-12
5.1.2 Planners' Questionnaire; Sample of the Invitation Letter	5-14
5.1.3 Sample of Questionnaire Distributed to Citizens	5-15
5.1.4 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To NGOs/CBOs	5-16
5.1.5 Al-shigla First Questionnaire Distribution Map	5-18
5.1.6 Al-shigla Second Questionnaire Distribution Map	5-19
6 Further Investigation on AL-salama Case Study.....	6-20
6.1 Sample Of Questionnaires Used In Al-Salama Case Study	6-21
6.1.1 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Citizens	6-21
6.1.2 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Bureaucrats And Public Servants	6-22
6.1.3 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Peoples' Committees.....	6-23

Appendices

6.2	Al-Salama Questionnaires Distribution Map	6-25
7	Al-salama Further Questionnaires Investigations	7-26
7.1	Further Investigations and cross tabulation	7-26
8	The Participatory Rapid/Rural Appraisal (PRA) Workshop Process	8-30
8.1	The Four Investigations Panels Used During The Workshops Stages	8-31
8.2	The Coding Process of the PRA Workshops Results	8-32
8.2.1	Water Supply project Coding Process	8-32
8.2.2	Power Supply project Coding Process	8-32
8.2.3	Al-salama Primary School Project	8-33
8.2.4	The Primary Health center Project	8-33
8.3	Results of the Coding Process.....	8-34
9	Captions From The First And The Second PRA Workshop.....	9-35

1 Dissertation Abbreviations, Local Terms And Notes

1.1 Definitions Of Abbreviations Used In This Dissertation

This part include description of all the abbreviations used in this dissertation

Abbreviation used	Description
C.P	Community Participation
P.C	People Committees
UPA-1986	Urban Planning Act 1986
UPLDA-1994	Urban Planning and Land Disposition Act 1994
WW2	World War two
GOS	Government of Sudan
CTPB	Central Town Planning Committee
NPPC	National Physical Planning Council
VRP	Village re-planning Committee
LDC	Least developed Countries
PL	Planning
RPL	Re-planning
Govt.	Government
NCS	National Comprehensive Strategy
NGO	None government organization
CBO	Community based organization
MPPU	Ministry of Planning and public utilities
cm	Centimeter
e.g.	For Example
Fig.	Figure
GNP	Gross National Product
i.e.	That is to say
Km	Kilometer

Appendices

LS	Sudanese Pound
Sq km	Square Kilometer
U of K	University of Khartoum
UN	United Nations
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
FCM	Federal Cabinet of Ministers
NCPP	National Council for Physical Planning
UBE	User Based Evaluation
CLE	Community Leaders' Evaluation
PHCU	Primary health care Unit
MPPU	Ministry of Planning and Public Utilities
VOD	Village Organization Department
VOP	Village Organization Program
VOC	Village Organization Committee
SPLA	Sudan' Peoples Liberation Army
LDC	Least developed countries
NCPP	National Council for Physical Planning
FMESP	The Federal Minister of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning
FCM	Federal Cabinet of Ministers
<i>USAID</i>	United States Aid
<i>CIDA</i>	Canadian Intentional Development Agency
<i>SIDA</i>	Swedish Intentional Development Agency
<i>GTZ</i>	The German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), GIZ (former GTZ)
<i>PRA</i>	Participatory Rapid Appraisal
<i>Re-P.P</i>	Re-planning process
PHCU	Primary Health Care Unit
NEC	National Electricity Corporation
RWD	Rural Water Department

1.2 Definitions Of Local Terms Used In This Dissertation

Local Word / Term	Definition / Description
<i>Nafeer</i>	Traditional form of Community Participation practiced in Sudan
<i>Muhafaza</i>	Municipality.
<i>Wilaya</i>	Equal to state. Like prefectures in Japan
<i>Mahaliyat</i>	A Local administration unit
<i>Sheikh</i>	Head of settlement, native administration. Also used as title for religious leaders.
<i>Khalwa</i>	Praying, teaching as well as housing space for Muslims. Literally it means a private or isolated place

Appendices

<i>Imam</i>	A religious leader. The person who pray ahead of other Muslims
<i>Zaweiya</i>	Small praying place for Muslims
<i>Fazza</i>	Another word used to define Nafeer. But this one mostly used during conflicts and wartime.
<i>Omda</i>	Head of settlement, native administration
<i>Ustaz</i>	Teacher
<i>Lijan Shabiyat</i>	The local Arabic name for People's Committees initiated under P.Cs act of 1992
<i>Irifein</i>	Singular Irief, the elders in the community whom are known for their wisdom
<i>Wasat</i>	Middle of center
<i>Sharig</i>	East
<i>Garib</i>	West
<i>Shigil</i>	The local name given to the Acacia tree.
<i>Al-Nus</i>	Same as <i>Wasat</i> , means center.
<i>Al-hiyaza</i>	A traditional form of land ownership and management practices in rural Sudan.
<i>Shifa-khana</i>	Health Service Centre
<i>Ujamaa</i>	Originated from the Swahili language to describe the extended family or family hood. Ujamaa was used as the
<i>Al-Hiaza</i>	The land Owned by the traditional land administration system
<i>Daywan</i>	Male domain in the house
<i>Hush</i>	Yard
<i>Majlis Alshioukh</i>	Traditional ethnic leaders' council
<i>Rawakeeb</i>	Shelters and Sheds
<i>Zaraib</i>	Singular (<i>Zareeba</i>), Animal and cattle keeping space.

1.3 General Notes and observations

1. In this dissertation many similar words are used to express the same meaning, such examples includes the use of words like community-driven, Nafeer-driven, Non-legislative planning. On the other hand word like Legislative planning, Experts-driven planning and government initiated planning are also used to represents government conducted planning.
2. The Term re-planning process as used in this dissertation generally exhibits the re-planning process associated with the Village Organization Program of 1985/6.
3. The terms "Participation Tools" and "Participation methods" are used to represent, the same mechanism. In addition, the two terms "community participation" and "community involvement" are used to refer to the same meaning of involving citizens.

2 Further Investigations And Literature Review Of Community Participation¹

¹ Please note that this part maintains different page numbering style

Community Participation; a general review:

1 Definitions of community participation:

The notion of community participation or community involvement has been quite known for different communities worldwide, quite often with different names and sometimes different approaches, participation which is also known some times as “popular participation” Public participation¹, grass-roots development or community development has gone through a series of paradigm shift which has been always interpreted with different names, the word “Machizukuri” which is considered as relatively a new term in planning in Japan, stands for “community building” (Watanabe, 2007) but it has been widely accepted term of community participation and involvement, this word “Machizukuri” has borne with the post war Japanese democracy and located in local communities , according to WATANABE, this word is firstly used in 1952 by Professor Masuda, Watanabe Believes that the concept of “Machizukuri” is “very vague and ambiguous” (Watanabe, 2007) .in Sudan the word “Nafeer” stands for collective work or action, originated from the Arabic Word “Nafar” that related to collectiveness reaction (Mostly in war time)but it is also stands for a group of people that is more than ten ,nevertheless, the term is mostly related to labor work and physical participation, and it is widely accepted substitute for the word “public participation”.

Nevertheless it seems the definition of this word is evolving as much as the participation paradigm is doing, this means it is not only the participation as an approaches is a “learning process” (Fisher, 2001) but also the definition itself, community development for instance was the word used to represents participations in 1950s and 1960s as has been stated by DESAI.

‘Community development’ fad of the 1950s and 1960s (in action and theory) was largely (not entirely) responding to the same concerns and ideas as this more recent fad of participation” (DESAI, 1995)

United Nations definition for Community participation till 1970s was actually the same definition of community building (the same meaning of the Japanese word of Machizukuri), it was until 1979 that United Nation has define participation as “*sharing by people in the benefits of development, active contribution to development and involvement of people in decision making-making at all levels of society*” (UN, 1979). In 1998,based on Intermediate technology group working experience in development projects in third world, Blackburn has defined participation as “*Participation is more a set of principles than an ideology, an ethic more than a model... deep down, participation is about learning to respect and listen to the opinions, feelings, and knowledge of those we have in the past ‘targeted’; being transparent regarding our intentions to intervene in their lives...being careful to decentralize and delegate, allowing the less powerful to manage greater resources and assume more responsibility; sharing our knowledge and expertise... in short, it is about opening up, taking risks and showing trust. Such changes do not come easy to those weighted down with the baggage of long years of formal education and hierarchical cultures*”. (Blackburn, 1998).

¹ Platt argues that community participation is different from public participation.

Some researchers has gone even further trying to find a definition of the word participation in plan making, while Platt in 2003 has started what he has called "A radical Approach" that differentiate between public participation and participatory planning by arguing that community participation is "a process led by planning authorities .the planners try to anticipate the need of the public and try to synthesis them into plan that meets the needs of every one while also conforming the national policy, participation fits the timetable that is set, but not necessarily adhered to." (Platt, 2003) , Platt called for a participatory planning approach which will give the citizens the full control on planning issues affect them, therefore he defines participatory planning as "a set of process through which diverse groups and interests engage together in reaching the consensus Ron a plan and it is implementation" (Platt, 2003).earlier than that, in 1995, Desai argues that Public participation and community participation are different (see (DESAI, 1995))since the latter is always initiated by community movement as self-driven activity without planners or politicians manipulation, while the former is government initiated, administered and controlled. Both Platt and Desai agreed on that there is a difference created on the participatory planning depending in whom started and control this participatory initiative.

The exact meaning of participation is not very well defined and that theoretically might create a lot of frustration especially in cross-cultural participatory dialogue where the participation notion might be differently understood. Since the practice and the applications of community participation itself is different, it no wonder that each community or organizations or even stakeholders might develop their is own definition of the word "participation", having these definitions disparities of the (participation approach) being understood, Uphoff stated that "the concept of participation cannot even be contained in a single definition"((Uphoff, 1979) as in (DESAI, 1995)).

In spite of all these definition that stands for community participation, but in general whenever participation is mentioned in urban or rural planning arena it is mostly connected to community involvement in making plans.

Having stated that, it is then quite obvious that most of the participation literature has failed to gain a common understanding of "participation" .Most of the literature that deals with this issue are either "Project based Literature" which is mostly a descriptive and analytical (mostly based on a real case study) or a very theoretical and conceptual participatory frame work, the link between these two approaches "the Conceptual and the Project based" is very difficult to achieve since it has to do with human behavior which is hard to conceptualize.

2 Types of Community involvement:

In planning for a public engagement "Involvement" component within a community regardless what capacities does that communities has it is quite essential, although community participation has several approaches to be conducted but the question of "What types of involvement are required and when?" Remains as a difficult question to answer since those involvement types are also varied in definition.

It is true that in planning "*not all participation is necessary, or necessarily participatory, it's a process that can be and has been abused and misused*" (Fisher, 2001), although participation is very important but example all over the world has shown that sometimes bureaucrats and politicians manipulate it for their own sake,(see figure 01) therefore careful consideration of how community participation should be tackled, initiated , developed and managed is required.

Involvement of community in planning could happen in many different forms depending on many factors such as ,the social structure of that community, the nature of the participatory project or programme, the urgency and the resources allocated for that project, it is therefore has different scenarios in third world countries than those of developed countries, but in general they can be summarized in terms of how participation is done in three forms that can be differently applied, these forms physical, Social and psychological. James Taylor illustrates these three types of involvement and has linked them to the type of benefits that can results from adopting those participatory techniques as in the following table.

Table 1 Citizen Involvement Types and benefits. Source: (Taylor, 2006)

Involvement Type	Benefits
Physical	Allows for a community of citizens to gather together to consider an issue.
Social	Allows for an affected citizens group to receive and share information.
Psychological	Provides a context for solving problems together as a community.

A second approach that defines participation types is based on how the information flows between different participation actors (Community, Professionals and Bureaucrat) has been set out by Yaa Ntiamoa. Seven levels of participation types based on third world community has been identified ranging from the simple Passive approach to the more dynamic self-mobilization approach, this approach looks too much similar to Arnstein ladder in the way it is organized in hierarchal form, however these types has been define according to USAID experience in development projects in Africa, which makes it easier to understand the third world countries participatory dilemma rather than Arnstein's ladder. The following table shows Yaa Ntiamoa's participation types:

Table 2 USAID Participation types as in (Yaa Ntiamoa-Baidu, 2001.)

Type of participation	Description
Passive Participation	People participate by being told what is going to happen or what has already happened. This tends to be a unilateral Announcement and people's responses are not taken into account.
Participation by Giving Information	People participate by answering questions designed by researchers and project managers. They do not have the opportunity To influence proceedings as the findings are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.
Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted, and external agents listen to views. Agents define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in the light of people's responses. People do not share in decision-making as their views may or may not be taken on board.
Participation for Material Incentive	People participate by providing resources (e.g., labor in return for food or cash). Such people are not involved in the experimentation and have no stake in people as forest guides maintaining activities when incentives end.
Functional Participation	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related the project. Their participation tends to occur at later stages of a project after major decisions have been made. They may become self-dependent but are initially dependent on external facilitators.
Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local groups or the strengthening of existing ones. Groups take control over local decisions; thus,

people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices

Self-mobilization People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. They may or may not challenge existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power.

Participation types, can also be studied on terms of who make decisions in the innovation process whether the decision is made with organized communication with each other or not. Nina Lilja and Jacqueline A. Ashby in 1990 identified five types of participation based on how decision are taken in a rural farming community, these models are:

Table 3 Types of participatory research See (Ashby, 1999)

Type of Participation	Description
Type A (on-farm research):	Scientists make the decision alone without organized communication with farmers.
Type B (consultative):	Scientists make the decision alone but with organized communication with farmers. Scientists know about farmers' opinions, preferences and priorities through organized one-way communication with farmers. Scientists may or may not let this information affect their decision. The decision is not made with farmers nor is it delegated to farmers.
Type C (collaborative):	The decision is a shared decision between farmers and scientists involving organized communication with each other. Scientists and farmers know about each other's opinions, preferences and priorities through organized two-way communication. The decisions are made jointly; they are not made by scientists' on their own nor farmers alone. No party has a right to revoke the shared decision.
Type D (collegial):	The decision is made by farmers collectively in a group process or by individual farmers who are involved in organized communication with scientists. Farmers know about scientists' opinions, preferences, proposals and priorities through organized two-way communication. Farmers may or may not let this information affect their decision. When this type of participatory research is initiated, a scientist may be facilitating the collective or individual decision-making of farmers or may have already built the ability of farmers to make the decision without outsider involvement. Farmers have a right to revoke the decision.
Type E (farmer experimentation):	Farmers make the decision individually or in a group without organized communication with scientists

Who should be involved?

Involving the whole community in the Participation process is quite essential, community with their different compositions that include women, youth and children and their demographic differences such as age, sex, income level, Young and old people, rich and poor, retired and working, rural and urban, west-siders and east-siders, natives and immigrants) are all quite important to be involve into the decision-making process, however it is also important to note that not all participation is necessary.

The form of participation and methods might vary for each one of the above mentioned groups (See types of community involvement above), Taylor has identified five groups as the major stakeholders that we should look at on any participatory approach,

“The first group includes the experts who can provide information on the proposal and also assist in facilitating the process. In the case of habitat development, this would involve the planners or the designers (architects, landscape architects) of the proposal. Leaders and representatives from local community organizations can articulate issues and needs. The third group is perhaps the most important and includes those people that will be directly affected by the project. It may be important to invite local politicians or other influential individuals and could help support the activity. Finally, it is critical to make the process open and transparent as possible. This means that the general public must be also given the opportunity to participate.” (Taylor, 2006)

Table 4 Public Engagement Participants

Participants in the Engagement Process
1. Project personnel, the “experts”
2. Community organizations
3. Groups to be affected, the stakeholders
4. Influential individuals
5. Public at-large

How can we involve the people? Involvement Techniques:

Deep understanding of participation techniques and group dynamics is highly required when dealing with participation issues in planning, for that reason planners need to develop by themselves some extra capacities other than making plans “*planners be trained, not only in technical skills, but also be able to act as facilitator and a net-worker in expediting the participatory process*” (Shmulei, 2005).

The process of identifying key stakeholders in participatory approach is quite essential since participation approaches and techniques will vary accordingly. UN-Habitat has identified seven types of often used participation techniques, Fisher sort them out in two groups based on the way these techniques are carried out, the first group is the formal approach (see Figure 4) while the second is the informal, the informal participatory approach might be very useful at the early planning stage where trust and consensus building is required, it might also be very useful in communities that has poor capacities with low educational level and economic opportunities. However the second approach “the formal approach” is mostly used in organized communities and communities organizations (NGOs, NPOs and CPOs), this approach requires a lot of preparations in advance which make it more difficult to manipulate comparing it with the former approach, but nevertheless there is no approach that is always good or bad, the choice of the participation method or approach as has been stated before is very subjective to the prevailing social, economical and administrative conditions.

Table 5 Techniques for Citizen Engagement

Participation Techniques
Informal approaches
“In the street” conversations
Open house (presentation &/or exhibit
Mass media
Formal approaches
Surveys
Focus groups
Facilitated workshops
Design charettis

An innovative and efficient approach that often used by designers and planners is “community design charette”, this approach which has been adopted from architecture (Eric D. K.& Barbara, 1999) “involves a workshop involving local citizens facilitated by architects/landscape architects/planners to identify opportunities and constraints on maps of their community so that issues are spatially defined for planning purposes” (Platt, 2003),the planners and professional here works as mediator to assist the participants at the workshop by providing alternatives proposals.

During 1970s, what is called as “The body count method?” was commonly used as participation techniques in the west, planning institutions and agencies were so keen to achieving contact with maximum possible number of citizens in any planning process, while “today, most planners place greater emphasis on representative and meaningful citizens participation and less on the number of citizens participating” (Eric D. K.& Barbara, 1999). the word “representative” as has been defined by Eric is “a process that includes citizens who represent a broad perspective of views and values in the community “ (Eric D. K.& Barbara, 1999),this include young and old people, rich and poor, retired and working, rural and urban, west-siders and east-siders, natives and immigrants, etc. Eric also suggests that the word “Meaningful” will require that “citizens will actually influence the plan through their participation”, (Eric D. K.& Barbara, 1999).

Eric approach has defined clearly that it is very important to look at the “quality” of the participation not the “quantity”, he also identified that it will be more valued citizens should have control on their plans rather than just being driven or manipulated,

3 Planning at the local level (Neighborhood level):

The extent to which community participation can be efficiently evaluated and studied is mostly happening at the local level, where community is directly affected by all planning decisions that are taken by the local government, whereas at the central or regional level community participation require high level of democracy and open communication channels between the planning authorities, administrative authorities and the community, Nicholas Ridley’s 1980s Urban concept the of (NIMBYism) “Not in My back Yard” might explains why it is a bit difficult to conduct participation at the regional level in a newly developed participatory planning approach.

Barry Checkoway (1984) has identified two different approaches to tackle planning problems at the neighborhood level, he call the two approaches "Subarea planning" and the "Neighborhood planning". The major difference between Checkoway' two approaches are basically about "who control the planning process" (Peterman, 1999).

Sub area planning (as in Checkoway) is initiated at the city level and involves the deconcentration of central planning activities to the neighborhood level, whereas neighborhood planning is community based and involves the development of plans and programs by and for community residents themselves. The latter approaches according to Checkoway are planning lead to community empowerment while the former is "a new form of centralization" (Checkoway, 1984).

These two concepts of community planning were based on who initiate and commence the planning process, what kind of plans are produces and the level of community participation included. subarea planning as been stated by Checkoway has the following characteristics: it is "usually initiated by municipal officials...may follow steps of rational planning...may produce written plans ... [and] help[s] fulfill minimal requirements for citizen participation in federal funding programs" (Checkoway, 1984).in somehow this definition seems to be very general since it defines the normal plans that cities continued to produce but at smaller geographical area. Citizens generally are engage in planning here in terms of information receiver, consultation and placating.

To define the level of participation that is mentioned in Checkoway article it might be essential to go back to the 1969 article of sherry Arnstein (A Ladder of citizens participation), Arnstein described participation in a series of increasingly meaning full inputs into the decision-making process, the extent of citizens powers has been defined in terms of rungs , she identified seven different levels of participation the lowest of them is "Manipulation" while the highest of them is "citizen Control" (Arnstein, 1969),although Arnstein's ladder has gain so much important as it is frequently quoted in most of the research related to community participation, however this concept is not enough to understand the participatory behavior neither in Sudan nor in other developing countries, Peattie argues that ."This {Ladder of citizens participation} is not a helpful way to try to understand citizens participation in third world " (Peattie, 1990), he also continued "Citizens power is more complicated than a simple transfer of power from top to bottom " (Peattie, 1990), but nevertheless Arnstein's ladder of participation will be helpful for the purpose of understanding Checkoway' article where it is seems that subarea planning fell in the middle of the second stage(Tokenism) of Arnstein's Ladder of participation, although Checkoway preferred his second model "Neighborhood planning" but for a 1960s participatory approach it seems like subarea planning was quite acceptable as a good community involvement tool and that is why This approach (Subarea planning) continues to be the approach that has been supported by the American planning association (APA) and this is the type of planning described in both the 1979 neighborhood planning guide for citizen and planners (Bryant, 1979 as in (Peterman, 1999))and the more recent guide of 1990 (Jones, 1990).

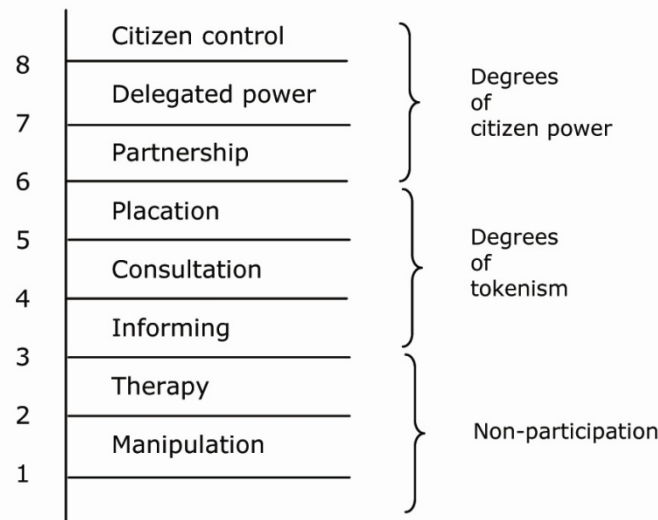


Figure 1 Arnstein's Ladder of participation, Source: (Arnstein, 1969)

The second concept that is covered by Checkoway was Neighborhood planning which has to do with issues of urban decline including housing revitalization, physical improvement, social services, health , safety and community empowerment. Although the planning carry out process of this concept was not clearly described by Checkoway, but it seems that this concept (which he prefer than the subarea concept) offered community more power to deal with planning issues directly by themselves. Therefore this model could be located at a higher level in Arnstein's ladder in comparison with the subarea model (see (Checkoway, 1984)).

Some important consideration regarding community participation in planning:

Having stated those issues, it will be then confusing why does community participation (in Sudan) work in many rural areas and sub-urban areas while in city and urban areas it is considered as a manipulation (According to Arnstein model), to understand the nature of this query it might be helpful to look at the NCL research of 1990 regarding why some communities are more effective than others in working more effectively across political, social and economic boundaries, the NCL research identified ten factor for having effective community participation, these are:

- **Good timing and clear need.** Are the stakeholders ready to collaborate and is there a sense of urgency about working together?
- **Strong stakeholder groups.** Are they credible, well organized, and able to effectively represent their interests?
- **Broad-based involvement.** Are all the important sectors concerned with the issue being addressed represented as contrasted with a few, predominately from one sector? Are women as well as men involved at all levels? Are their priorities listened to and incorporated into decision?
- **Credibility and openness of process.** Do all the stakeholders see the process as fair including shared decision making, the process open to all not just a rubber stamping activity by a dominant party, and governed by agreed upon procedures that assure these qualities of mutual engagement?

- **Commitment and/or involvement of high level, visible leaders.** If the mayor, for example, can't be involved, does she send a representative with decision-making authority? Are the citizens or civic society organizations putting forth their best representatives for participation?
- **Support or acquiescence of "established" authorities or powers.** Have key institutions or power blocs – for example, the city council, chamber of commerce, local NGOs, minority groups - agreed to support and abide by recommendations arrived at through the collaborative process?
- **Overcoming mistrust and skepticism.** Have efforts been made early on to deal with these issues and to overcome them?
- **Strong leadership of the process.** Has the process of collaboration been managed effectively? Some examples of this key role are: keeping stakeholders at the table through periods of frustration and skepticism; acknowledging small successes along the way, helping stakeholders negotiate difficult points, and, enforcing group norms and ground rules.
- **Interim successes.** Have intermediate successes been achieved, built on, acknowledged and celebrated to provide encouragement and sustainability?
- **A shift to broader concerns.** Are the participants in the process focusing less on narrow, parochial interests and more on the broader interests of the community as they mature in their efforts to work together? (Chislip, 1994)

In rural Sudan, the social and tribal connections in the sub-urban areas of the cities², are quite strong, there always and invisible administrative system apart from the legal government initiated system, these types of coherent and homogeneity will mostly create a very strong group of stakeholders with strong commitment, clear goals and having acceptable strong leadership system which is giving every one the chance to monitor the results of any program, a lot of the new rebuilding projects that are developing now in Darfur region or at the southern and the eastern region are using the community or tribal leaders to facilitate the project implementation. For this reason the colonial power has tried since a very beginning of their government system to approach the tribal leader to include them in the government structure to insure their commitment and participation in government project.

Participatory Planning Process:

So far, there are a lot of models that tried to anticipate and simulate the participatory planning process, although most of these models are based on a series of successive events that ends up including citizens in planning process, but in reality, participatory planning might be linear (as in most of these models) but mostly non-linear process, Fisher has advice that planner shouldn't developed strategic plan as part of every participation planning (PP) process he called the strategic plans as "rich and expensive dessert, it shouldn't be consumes at every participatory planning session" (Fisher, 2001)

UN-Habitat on their training Manuel about participation has included participatory planning (PP) as one of the most efficient planning methodologies, they have identified six non linear (But looks linear) phases that can be applied either entirely or

² The capital region has been taken as example for this part of research

partially, depending on the complexity of the problem or the opportunity being addressed, within each one of those phases there are some steps that need to be performed to accomplish that phase

Table 6 Participatory planning (PP) phases as Extracted from (Fisher, 2001)

	Phase	Activity
Phase I:	Initiating the Participatory Planning Process	This involves the triggering event that motivates groups to call for action
Phase II:	Building Productive Partnerships	This initial effort to enlarge the circle of visionaries or problem solvers
Phase III:	Reaching Out - or Focusing In	Discuss the options of engaging in a long-range strategic planning process, what people refer to as reaching out, or directing the participatory planning effort Toward more immediate problem solving.
Phase IV:	Fact-Finding and Analysis	This include either short-term problem solving or long-range visioning, there will be a series of steps to be completed before defining a strategic plan or outlining a detailed course of action.
Phase V:	Planning a Course of Action	This phase of the planning process also involves deciding who will do what with whom within certain resource parameters, including time frames and time commitments, to accomplish their goals and objectives or fulfill their vision
Phase VI:	Implementing Actions, Measuring Impact and Moving On	This phase of the process is usually outside The direct mandate of the participatory planning team's responsibilities. Nevertheless, it is important for planning teams to be familiar with implementation issues and concerns.

Fishers described Participatory Planning Phases (PP Phases) as a non-linear structure (the phases are more cyclical than linear), he also noted that strategic planning is an option but is not recommended (see the last paragraph), while calling for Communication, shared leadership and teams work to be part of the culture of the participatory planning. Fisher concludes by saying "Participatory planning is a voyage of discovery. Enjoy it and learn from it" (Fisher, 2001).

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3 Published Articles Related To This Dissertation.²

3.1 Peer-reviewed Journal articles and conferences presentations.

- a. Evaluation Of Two Types Of Community Participation In Development Projects: a Case Study of the Sudanese Neighborhood of Al-shigla. *Journal of Architecture and Planning*. Architecture Institute of Japan (AIJ), 76(670), pp.2369-2379. Dec. 2011
- b. Community Participation In Planning; Evaluation of Public Participation in the Sudanese Planning Mandates, in: 5th International Conference & Workshop On Built Environment In Developing Countries, Penang: 5th ICBEDC 2011. Sep. 2011.
- c. Evaluation of Community Participation In Development Projects; A Case Study of the Sudanese Neighborhood of Al-shigla, in: Asian Planning Schools Association (APSA), (pp. 143-152). Tokyo. 2011.Sep. 2011.

3.2 Book section and presentations.

- a. Sudan, in: Ryser, J. and Franchini, T. (Eds.), *The International Manual Of Planning Practice (IMPP)*, (pp. 136-144). ISOCARP. Dec. 2008
- b. Community Participation and Urban Development: Evaluation of Community Participation Practice in the Sudanese Capital Region, in: *The International Society of City and Regional Planners ISOCARP 46th Congress*. Nairobi: ISOCARP. Sep. 2010

² Please note that this part maintains the same page numbering of the original published articles.

EVALUATION OF TWO TYPES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

A case study of the Sudanese Neighborhood of *Al-shigla*
開発プロジェクトにおける二種類の住民参加タイプの評価
スーダン共和国アルシグラ地区を対象として

*Ibrahim Zakaria BAHRELDIN** and *Takashi ARIGA***
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Many of the peripheral communities surrounding the Sudanese cities and urban regions are ethnically and culturally homogeneous, keeping many of their cultural and social values alive, this has created a situation where the traditional “community-driven” planning and the legislative “government-initiated” replanning (village incorporation) spatially occur in the same space, often over a short period of time. While these two “timely different” planning approaches might share the same objectives, their approach of involving citizens and building consensus is generally different, quite often conflicts. The purpose of this article is three folds: to emphasise on the importance of the traditional form of Sudanese community participation named as “Nafeer”; to develop a conceptual framework for evaluating community participation in development projects; and to use this framework to evaluate both the traditional “community-driven” and the legislative “government-initiated” forms of community participation in the neighborhood of Al-shigla. Using an analytical approach through a comparison strategy, this article argues that community participation quality and quantity prior to the replanning process is higher than that conceived after.

Keywords : *Al-shigla (Khartoum), Replanning Process, Community Participation, Evaluation Framework, Nafeer.*
アルシグラ「ハルツーム」, 再計画過程, 住民参加, 評価フレームワーク, ナフィー

1. Introduction:

1-1. Background of Problems

Many of the peripheral communities/villages surrounding the Sudanese cities and urban regions are ethnically and culturally homogeneous, keeping many of their cultural and social values alive. This has created a situation where the traditional “community-driven” planning and the legislative “government-initiated” replanning (village incorporation) spatially occur in the same space, often over a short period of time. While these two “timely different” planning approaches might share the same objectives, their approach of involving citizens and building consensus is generally different, quite often conflicts as in many cases “*what is considered by authorities as unplanned is actually community planned*” (Abu Sin & Awadalla, 1984).

The traditional community participation (C.P) is generally powered by a traditional form of participation known as *Nafeer*, the latter is very much connected to local culture and traditional administration systems. In the contrary, Government re-planning attempts that followed Khartoum Structure Plan of 1990 had lead to many sociocultural consequences. Nonetheless, the growing demands of community involvement in the country coupled with the necessity to improve community participation in the replanning process require understanding how community participation is achieved in both approaches.

1-2. Brief Description of Planning in Sudan

In Sudan, while “*decentralization was seen as more than a practical necessity in a country that is greater in size than Western Europe*” (Dennis,1981), the Central Government still plays an influential role in city planning. Local Governments in Sudan are divided into two tiers, *Wilayat* (singular *Wilaya*, like the prefecture in Japan) and *Muhafazat* or Municipalities (singular *Muhafaza*).

Each one of those government administration levels has different roles in city planning that is defined by either local government or physical planning acts/ordinances. Although the influence of the Central Government is still dominant, the role of most respective local planning authorities has changed since 1994 Physical Planning ordinance and Local Government act of 2003. Accordingly, city planning became a function conducted by the Local Government (*Wilaya* level). In this regard, “*States (Wilaya) and urban (town-city) plans need consent at the national level, while local plans require consent at states (Wilaya) level.*” (Suleiman, Moh’d N ,Bahreldin, Ibrahim Z. And Osman, Salah M (2008).

Planning acts/ordinances, understand C.P as an issues that is mostly related to “replanning the existing villages” rather than the planning of new areas, this stresses that C.P is largely encapsulated in village replanning / integration rather than urban development/regenerations. Yet, the scope

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of C.P in those acts/ordinances is restricted to “inform citizens” about government intention to carry out replanning/planning projects, government is also mandated to publicize approved plans through public gazettes, the process of plan publicizing is followed by allowing citizens to appeal against planning decisions.

2. Research Purpose and Question

The purpose of this paper is three-folds: to emphasise the importance of a traditional form of Sudanese C.P named as “Nafeer”; second; to develop a conceptual framework for evaluating C.P in development projects; and, to use this framework to evaluate both the traditional Nafeer-driven and the legislative government-initiated forms of C.P in a pre-urban community in the Sudanese capital region. This paper uses an analytical approach through a comparison study.

While this article admits the differences between the two periods of study in terms of social settings, community structures and planning types, it argues (the hypotheses/idea) that the quality of C.P prior to the replanning process (Re-P.P) in Al-shigla is higher than that conceived after the same process.

3. Participation Evaluation Methodology (a Framework)

Concealing divergent, often confusing views related to its meaning, purpose and practice, the word “participation” is very vague and has brought up many controversial and contradicting debates. It is no wonder then that measuring participation quality will be as debatable as the concept itself due to the lack “... of appropriate benchmarking against which the quality of participation exercise might be compared” (Lowndes et al, 1998); such a lack is an obstacle to conduct a satisfactory participation evaluation, this states that there are generally two challenges when evaluating community participation, those challenges are “what to measure?” and “how to measure?”. To deal with these challenges we understand that most of the common C.P models and frameworks are partially incapable by themselves to generate reliable evaluation results without obvious limitations, especially if we consider applying those models in developing countries. Hence, it would perhaps be useful to review some of those models/literature, adapt their strengths and then re-frame them to create a grounded, yet logical way of evaluating community participation.

While the frequently quoted article of Arnstein, “*Ladder of Citizens Participation*” has linked citizen participation with citizen power and control, as “*the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future*” (Arnstein, 1969). Power relationships can sometimes be “manipulated” by the state, giving the example of people’s congress in Libya, Midgley called this sort of approach “A manipulative Mode”, which he describes as “...*although the state does not oppose community involvement, it seeks to neutralize spontaneous participatory activities hoping to channel them through established mechanisms*” (Midgley et al, 1986).

In 1984, Checkoway identified two planning models at the neighborhood level named as the “*Neighborhood Planning Model*”, which

Checkoway identified as “*community based and involves the development of plans and programs by and for the community residents themselves*”, and the “*Sub-area Planning*” that “*is initiated at the city level and involves the deconcentration of central planning activities*” (Checkoway, 1984). The first approach (Neighborhood planning) is claimed by Checkoway to offer more citizens control over their issues and therefore has better chances of successful meaningful participation.

Admiring Arnstein ladder as viable in developed world, Choguill argues that the ladder “*might not be suitable to understand C.P in developing world*” (Choguill, 1996), hence, he delivered his “New Ladder of Participation”, which focused on the element of people empowerment, in this regard, C.P practices noted that higher citizens capacities and resources (economical, technical and knowledge-based) yield better participation results (see Bhattacharyya, 2006 and El-tahir, 2008).

Having looked at community participation in housing from a perspective of who decides and who provides, Turner noted that the practical problem of citizens participation is to answer the questions of “*Whose participation? whose decision? and whose action?*” in a way that fits the participation circumstances (Turner, 1976). As Turner’s approach suggests the importance of looking at the question of power in C.P in a similar way to Arnstein ladder (whose decision), he has gone further by addressing the importance of looking also at the sphere of stakeholders involved (whose participation) and the spectrum of those who take action (whose action). W.R. & Sewll developed Turners’s question about “whose participation” by identifying that “Who should participate” is seen ideally as taking into account the views of all “*those who have legitimate interest in the matter*” (W.R. & Sewll, 1977).

On its attempt to reform the planning system in the United Kingdom to make it more flexible in terms of C.P, the Office of Deputy Prime Minister has noted three important measures necessary to be undertaken in order to build an effective community involvement. Having stressed the importance of enacting strong legislations and policies, ODPM noted the importance of having “*A culture which encourages and facilitates participation and community involvement*” (ODPM, 2004), although this report did not provide explanations on how exactly the term “culture” should be interpreted, yet, the context suggests that it resembles both institutional and citizens’ culture.

To conclude, the literature reviewed, suggests that C.P is largely seen as a mean to enable people to influence decisions and have more control over their issues, to involve a wide spectrum of stakeholders in the process, to ensure good communication among them, to empower people and increase the efficiency of resources used in the process, and as an issue that is very much linked to culture which will affect positively or negatively the quality of participation.

The strengths of each one of the above studied literature have been grouped together. The result is a framework that is believed to be capable of providing reliable, relatively inclusive (not necessary comprehensive) evaluation framework for C.P. This framework is thus composed of:

1. Communication among stakeholders.
2. Capacities /resources of participants.

3. Level of control over participation issues.
4. The participation culture.
5. Sphere/spectrum of stakeholders/projects involved.

While this framework recognizes the strengths of each article of the literature reviewed, it suggests that the framework elements are very much intertwined/overlap each other rather than distinctive elements. The five framework elements will be used as the evaluation method by which the two C.P approaches in the case study will be benchmarked against.

4. Al-shigla Case Study (An Introduction)

Al-shigla study area is an old village,¹⁾ composed of scattered houses that evoke the original settlers profession as cattle herders and farmers. The area is located in the west bank of the White Nile South of Omdurman province and is geographically composed of three physical segments; Sharig "East", Wasat "Middle" and Garib "West" (Fig.1-3). The area is disadvantaged by low level of education,²⁾ poor environmental conditions including lack of open spaces, poor social services and green coverage. Lack of proper drinking water supply and insufficient power service were two of the relentless problems occurred there.

Al-shigla was a low-income, high density neighborhood (6,181 resident/Km²). Several ethnic groups dominated the area such as *Gawama*, *Gomoeia*, *Kawahla*, etc. Yet, the area became more heterogeneous as many displaced migrants from the drought-hit region of *Darfur* settled in the area between 1980-1985.

The significance of Al-shigla came from that the area and its neighbor "Abu-Seid" are priority in both the previous Greater Khartoum Structure plan (1990-2001) and the most recent Khartoum Structure Plan 2008-2033, although the area has gone through three re-planning attempts, Al-shigla is

still troublesome and ill serviced. The area is also one of the oldest villages in the capital region (dated back to 1885), thus both *Nafeer* and modern planning arrangements can be observed there, this makes Al-shigla a unique comparison-based case study .

5. The Replanning process of Al-shigla

As part of Khartoum Structure Plan of 1990-2001 and the Village Replanning Committee efforts to manage sprawl and regulate land ownership, Al-shigla has gone in 1990 through a Re-P.P, this process includes two types of arrangement:

- Property right regulation and road widening
- Planning and provision of basic services necessary for the area.

It took about four year until the final plan (new plan) of Al-shigla was finally approved in 1994, during this period several legal and physical changes occurred, for instance the Peoples's Committees ordinance was enacted in 1992, accordingly, traditional community leaders were replaced by a new set of nominated representatives (Peoples's Committees). During the same period, the National Comprehensive Strategy NCS (1992-2002) was inaugurated, some of the projects studied in this article were actually implemented as part of NCS.

After the approval and the beginning of the implementation of Al-shigla new plan, several socioeconomic changes were observed, many households (182 households) were relocated to other areas due to land insufficiency in Al-shigla itself, the replanning process also resulted in an increase of land price. Accordingly, many citizens started selling their property to re-settle in other cheaper areas. The outcomes of the Re-P.P and its consequences was less homogeneous society that is represented by the newly introduced P.Cs.

Prior to the RE-P.P, the traditional/ethnic leaders were in control of the planning process in the area in terms of managing the land subdivision through *Al-hiyaza* (sort of traditional freehold ownership), setting out locations of main community services such as *Khalwas* ³⁾ Mosques and *Suk* (Market) and providing community with basic infrastructure (water and electricity). Most of those projects were driven by a traditional form of community participation named as *Nafeer*.⁴⁾

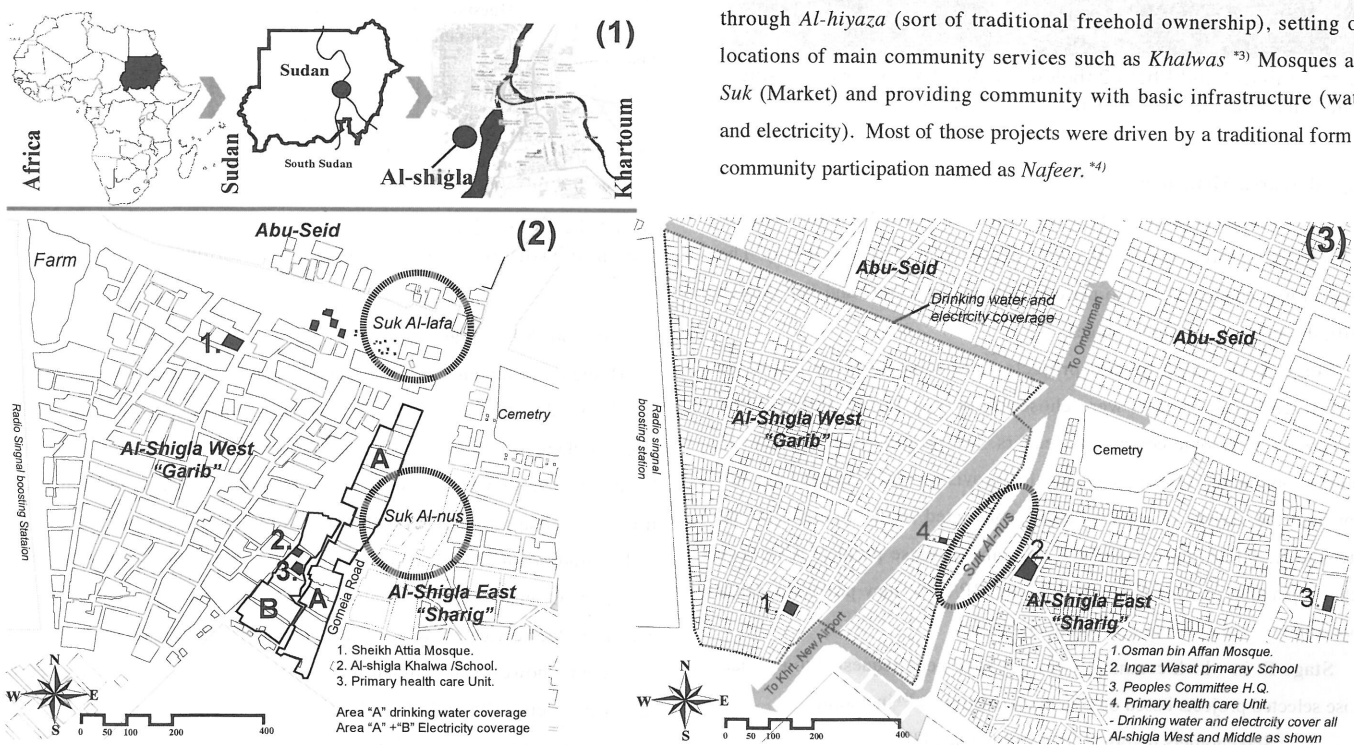


Fig.1 Location of the case study in the Khartoum State (above), the old map of Al-shigla (1990) below-left and the new approved plan of Al-shigla (1994) below (right). Projects studied are marked and highlighted.

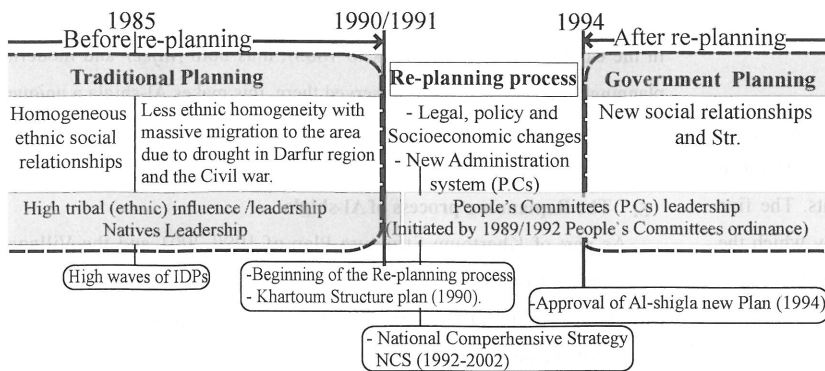


Fig.2 Timeline of legal, administration and social changes observed in Al-shigla.

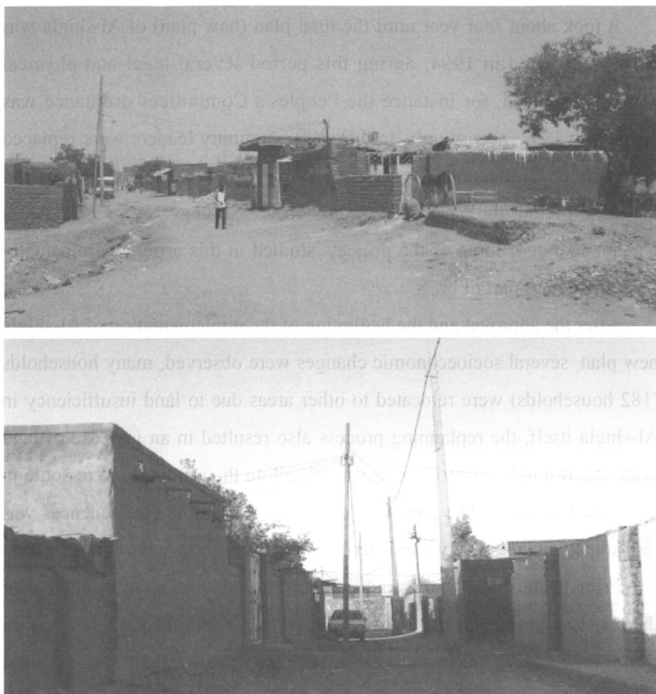


Photo 1 (above) and Photo 2 (below) General Views from Al-shigla indicating some of the challenges/problems occurred there.

6. Research Methodology

This research investigates different projects that have been implemented in Al-shigla before and after the Re-P.P (see Fig.1-2 and Fig.1-3). The research was conducted in two periods of time (Sep. 2009 and Feb.-March 2010) through three different stages.

Stage A: in which several projects were selected to be the scope of research, these projects were chosen through a survey and informal discussions with some community leaders. The projects selected differ in nature (community development, service provision and land-use) but still represent the variety of projects being conducted in the area before and after the Re-P.P (Fig.1-2 and Fig.1-3). Some of those projects have been either replanned or completed after the Re-P.P, thus, they provide a better opportunity for comparing C.P before and after.

Stage B: in which community leaders have been requested to evaluate those selected projects based on five main categories ⁵⁵ including:

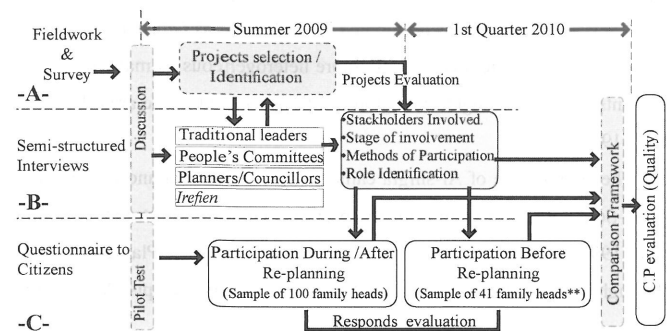
1. Stakeholders involved (Who participated?).
2. Stage of citizens' involvement (When they participated?).

3. Role in participation.
4. Methods of participation (How they participated?).
5. Incentives that drive people to participate (Why they participated?).

At this stage, six community leaders (traditional leaders), three People's Committees (P.C) ⁶⁶ members, four planners, two councilors and two of the *Irefien* ⁶⁷ have been interviewed to identify how participation was achieved in those projects according to the categories mentioned above.

Stage C: in this stage, citizens were requested to evaluate their participation on those projects based on the categories identified above as shown in Fig.3-1. Two questionnaires

were distributed, the first questionnaire was distributed in Sept. 2009 (for after Re-P.P participation evaluation (Fig.1-3)), and the second in Feb.-March 2010 (for before Re-P.P (Fig.1-2)). The questionnaires were conducted randomly through door-to-door survey. The first questionnaire respondents were those identified themselves as the family heads ⁶⁸ during the time of questionnaire, while the second questionnaire respondents were those selected from within the same "first respondents" on the condition that they have witnessed the projects prior to the Re-P.P (see Fig.3-2). ⁶⁹



Basic Questionnaire Data	Questionnaire in Numbers		Gender %		Age Groups %			Marital Status %			
	Dist.	Collected	Male	Female	13 - 34	35 - 44	45 -	Married	Single	Others	
Sep. 2009	100	94	94%	95%	5%	14%	36%	50%	86%	7%	6%
Feb.-March 2010	41	37	90%	97%	3%	0%	43%	57%	89%	3%	8%

Fig.3-1 Top and 3-2 Bottom Research methodology and structure (top), and basic questionnaires data at the bottom.

7. Research Findings

Based on community leaders interviews and evaluation several findings are observed in the case study area as shown in Fig.4 which shows the types of changes observed in C.P behavior before and after the Re-P.P in the ten projects studied, for instance, the spectrum of stakeholders involved in the participation process as shown in Fig.4-a-1 states that, before the Re-P.P, traditional/tribal leaders, citizens and NGOs/CPOs were the three main players, planners were almost absent from project planning activities apart from the service delivery projects (drinking water and power supply). Bureaucrats however, had much more level of participation compared to that of planners. Although the role of bureaucrats, planners and P.Cs had increased after the Re-P.P, traditional leaders, citizens and NGOs/CPOs role

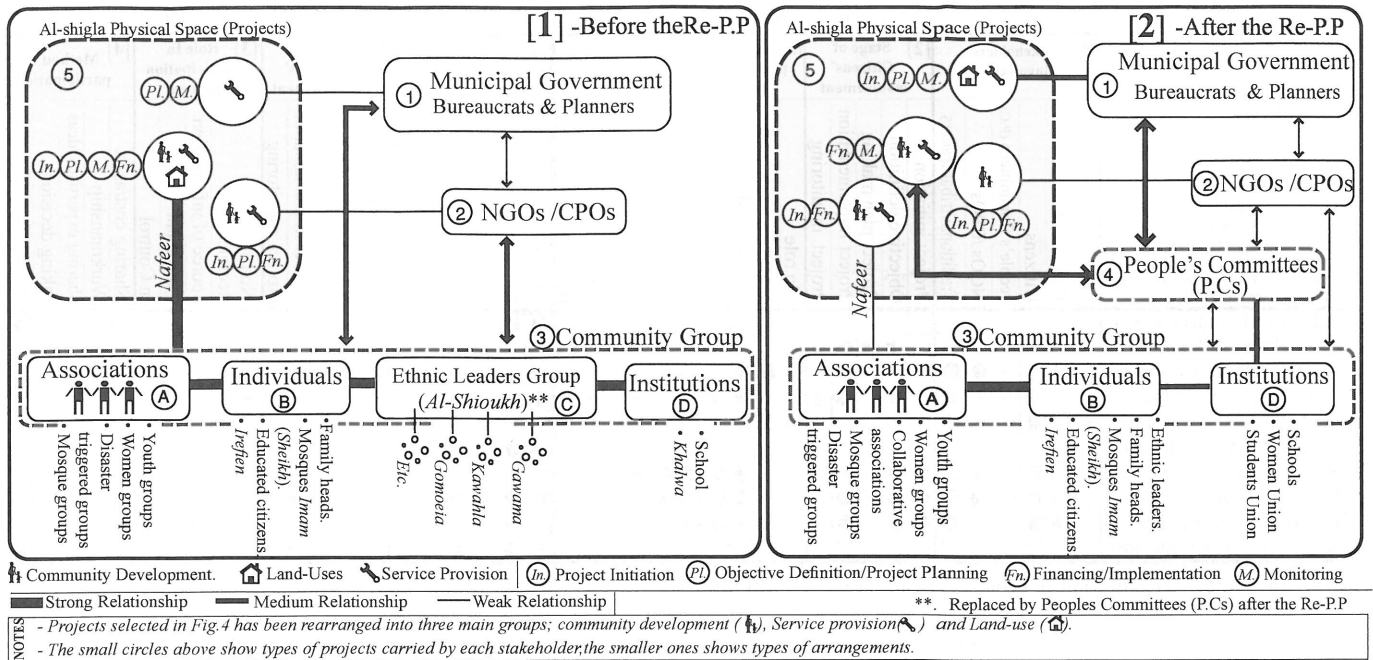


Fig.6 Relationship among different stakeholder groups, within the groups and between them and physical space (projects) before and after the Re-P.P.

A. What Groups were Involved (Stakeholders)

Prior to the Re-P.P, three main actors were involved in the project planning process; Community Group, CPOs/NGOs and government (Fig.6-1). the Community Group was composed of four strongly linked subgroups (Fig.6-1-3) including the traditional tribal/ethnic leaders, Mosques groups and the widely respected individuals (*Irefien*, elders, family heads, educated citizens, Mosque/*Khalwa Imam* ^{*10}) and the less effective “institutions” (the school and the *Khalwa*). Tribal/ethnic group after the inaction of the Peoples’s Committees ordinances of 1992 has been replaced by the newly introduced “unelected” P.Cs, this resulted in gradual dissolution of this group in to individuals that still possess sort of importance as shown in both Fig.6-1-c and Fig.6-2-b. After the Re-P.P new institutions have emerged such as the women and students unions (Fig.6-2-d), collaborative associations have also taken a place in the associations subgroup (Fig.6-2-a) especially as the slightly higher income citizens started to gain after the Re-P.P. NGOs/ CPOs role in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P was noticeably low.

B. The Relationship (Among, Within and to the Physical Space)

As shown in Fig.6-1-3, prior to the Re-P.P, a horizontal, yet strong sort of community relationships among the four community subgroups existed. This relationship that is centered on the traditional tribal group created an interactive communication process, which resulted not only in easy but also binding decision-making process. In terms of projects conducted, Community Group prior to the Re-P.P had a strong relationship to the projects implemented (named as Al-shigla Physical space in Fig.6). Community Group collectively decided the location of many projects including the Mosque, *Khalwa* and the Market (*Suq*). Driven by the concept of *Nafeer*, Community Group had also designed and built several projects (*Khalwa*, School and health centre).

NGOs/CPOs role in the area could arguably be considered as weak, yet, they maintained a relationship to Community Group that ranges from weak

to medium (Fig.6-1), NGOs helped in the provision of the water service and the health centre.

Government institutions (Bureaucrats and Planners) linkage to Community Group is weak. Municipal government prior to the Re-P.P considers Al-shigla as unplanned, thus they placed a minimal physical intervention in the area. In this regard, community normally approaches respective government authorities in case they seek/need a service-delivery project. After the Re-P.P and the inaction of P.Cs ordinance, the Community Group contact with local government has to be channeled through P.Cs as shown in Fig.6-2-4. The latter, have medium connection to both government and the physical space (projects), yet, they kept a weak-vertical relationship to Community Group.

C. Types of Arrangement

Prior to the Re-P.P, Community Group was assigned to carry out four arrangements including; initiation(*In*), planning(*Pl*), financing/ implementation(*Fn*) and monitoring(*M*) of “services delivery, community development and land uses projects” as shown in Fig.6-1-5. Government institutions were involved in the planning and the management of service provision projects. NGOs role was at the level of initiation, planning and financing of community development and service delivery projects leaving the task of project management to either Community Group or likely to the government. After the Re-P.P (Fig.6-2-5) NGOs kept playing the same role but the scope of their work focuses more on community development (poverty alleviation, literacy, Maternal health and women empowerment). Projects initiation and planning increasingly became a function that is carried out by the Government (bureaucrats,planners) with assistance from P.Cs. Along side with that, the scope of the projects undertaken by the government increased.

After the Re-P.P, government also deals directly with basic services, land-uses and area development. P.Cs become responsible for community

level development projects including education, area development and land management. After the Re-P.P, Community Group itself focuses mainly in project initiation (the completion of the electricity service provision), financing of service delivery projects (including water, electricity and the Mosque) and community development (the School). The main changes observed (findings) can generally be summarized as follow,

Table 1 Spectrum of Main C.P Changes Observed in Al-shigla.

Before the Re-P.P	After the Re-P.P
Planning is dominated by citizens' traditional leaders and citizens groups (citizens In control).	Bureaucrats, planners and P.Cs dominate the planning process (citizens as recipient).
Participation as a social duty for the group benefit (desire & need driven).	Participation is necessary for development (need/objective driven).
Participation is conducted in almost all project stages.	Participation focus on project implementation.
Participation is based on self-help, sometimes with outsider's technical assistant (e.g. NGOs /Government.).	Community becomes more government dependent with some self-help Activities.
Horizontal relationship among community groups (problem of leadership).	Vertical relationship to People's Committees (problem of representation)
Few locally-managed and controlled institutions and associations.	Several institutions and associations that are mostly managed by outsiders.
Ethnicity is major driver for community participation.	Participation is based more on civic structure rather than ethnicity.
Limited but accessible self-help based resources(absence of social entrepreneurship).	Relatively higher resources through Govt. & P.Cs but harder to access (higher income, but no social entrepreneurship).
Ethnic and traditional leaders as the center of local level consensus building.	P.Cs as the centre of the process.
General decrease of NGOs role in the physical space.	Increasing role of planners, bureaucrats and P.Cs .
Community Groups participation through <i>Nafeer</i> is high.	<i>Nafeer</i> becomes less used and mostly focused on financing and project implementation.

8. Discussion (Benchmarking of Community Participation)

The evaluation framework developed earlier is used at this point for the comparison, this framework provides space for grounded evaluation through identifying both strengths and weaknesses, which will provide guidance to improve C.P. Framework elements are thus discussed henceforth.

8-1. Communication

Before the Re-P.P, a horizontal, yet strong relationship (communication) between the four community subgroups existed (Fig.6-1). This relationship though helped in both easy communication and binding and acceptable decisions among those groups, it failed to adopt a single voice when communicating with higher-level authorities. Leadership, seems to be one of the main problems faced by Community Groups specially after the influx of many immigrants into the area around 1986 (Fig.2), this influx, resulted in a higher ethnic heterogeneity. Unlike after the Re-P.P, the process of C.P before the replanning process started "early" in the process (Fig.4-a-2), was used "often" and was somehow "ongoing" specially in service delivery projects and religious building (Mosque and Khalwa).

The introduction of P.Cs in 1992, shifted the administrative control to

them. Because P.Cs were appointed, their level of acceptance was low, in fact, many citizens have complained that "*Public Committees represent some individual interests and not necessarily the public interest*" (I. Bahreldin and T. Ariga, 2010), the problem at this point was "leaders creditability" and "representation". The physical space of Al-shigla accordingly became a place where government practical administrative/planning actions were largely channeled through them (P.Cs) (Fig.6-2). This types of approaches was named by Midgley. et al, (1986) as "*A Manipulative Mode*" which generally sustain less chances of genuine C.P.

8-2. Capacities/Resources of Participants

"*Security of land tenure coupled with higher land prices that Al-shigla had witnessed after the replanning process participated in creating a relatively higher income environment compared to that before*".^{*(11)} An increase in citizens' income was also observed in the type of building materials and techniques used in Al-shigla after the Re-P.P and during the field survey (the shift from mud-built houses to red brick-built ones). As this proposes higher citizens' capacities in terms of project financing and social entrepreneurship, in the ground, the latter did not exist neither before nor after the Re-P.P (a part from limited women saving groups).

While the concept of "*Learning-by-doing*" is believed to be one of the strongest approaches of community learning/knowledge transfer, the decrease on the physical participation (workmanship) in project implementation(Fig.5-4), together with increasing number of projects implemented by outside contractors after the Re-P.P (drinking water service, power supply and school) show a possible decrease in traditional technical knowledge transfer among citizens. Nonetheless, the increasing number of education facilities in and around Al-shigla after the Re-P.P from one school to three (see Fig.1) suggests possible increase in literacy level, in fact male literacy level has gone up to 53% in 2002 compared to 31% in 1992, higher literacy level is proved by Bhattacharyya (2006) to increase participation quality.

8-3. Level of Control

Looking at the participation process as a function of who decides and who provides as stated by Turner in 1976, Community Group before the Re-P.P (driven by the concept of *Nafeer*) turned from a group that decides and mostly provides, to a group that increasingly have no power in decision making, but might be asked to provide certain financial or workmanship resources (Fig.3), this was very evident in most of the projects implemented after the Re-P.P. Service delivery projects (Water and electricity supply) which require certain level of technical skills were an exception.

As shown in Fig.7, the level of citizens' control applied before the replanning process shows higher citizens' control than that applied after, this was observed not only in the spectrum of projects implemented (the larger circles in Fig.7) but also in the types of arrangement conducted (the smaller circles in Fig.7).

The level of citizens' control applied before the Re-P.P fits nicely into Checkoway's 1984 "*Neighborhood Planning Model*", which he claims to offer better citizens control over project planning issues when compared to his other model named as "*Sub-area Planning*". The latter model, fits nicely into C.P accomplished after the Re-P.P. Thus, according to Checkoway's

model, C.P before the Re-P.P in Al-shigla does have higher citizens control than that observed before.

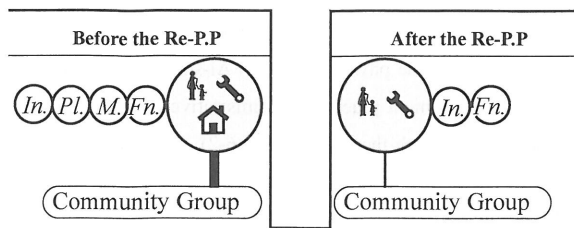


Fig.7 Level of community control over projects and types of arrangements conducted. (Note: Symbols and abbreviations are the same as that of Fig.6)

8.4. The Participation Culture

Incentives that drive people to participate have changed from participation that stems mostly from a social behavior (Social duty) and the feeling of project ownership before the Re-P.P, to a from of participation that is based on improving living conditions and getting legal land ownership (Fig.5-5). The social institution and the traditional Sudanese form of self-help (*Nafeer*) that is identified as “including a group recruited through family networks, In-laws and village neighbors for some particular purpose, which then disbands when that purpose is fulfilled” (Manger, 1987), shares major part of the participation efforts before and after the Re-P.P. *Nafeer* which is based on group work for either the benefit of an individual (house building, wedding, social activity, etc), or for the benefit of the society as whole was evident. Many projects (both before and after the Re-P.P) including Al-shigla west *Khalwa*, Sheikh Attia Mosque, Primary Health Care Unit and People’s Committees headquarter (Fig.4 and Fig.6) were implemented and planned using *Nafeer*.

Being an institution that is based on social responsibilities rather than power relations, *Nafeer* places high “social” commitment to those who are involved. In fact, in some Sudanese native administrations “...trials are held for people who do not participate” (Gad Ellah, 2005). This confirms that *Nafeer*-driven projects involves higher commitments than those initiated after the Re-P.P. Interestingly, Government planning institutions especially after the Re-P.P are frequently using *Nafeer*, as plan implementation tool.

8.5. Sphere/Spectrum of Stakeholders And Projects Involved

After the Re-P.P few new institutions such as the Women, Students Unions and collaborative associations (saving groups) have emerged as a positive addition in the association group of stakeholders especially with the increase of citizens’ financial abilities after the Re-P.P; yet, Students and Women Unions were known as organizations that are set to implement central programs at local level rather than dealing with local needs, nonetheless, the increasing number of stakeholder’s spectrum after the Re-P.P (Fig.4-b) was also accompanied by an increase on the scale and complexity of projects that are implemented including the water provision, the replanning of the market space and the electricity provision project (see Fig.3), this suggests that C.P spectrum after the Re-P.P is larger than that before.

To conclude and simplify the process of comparing participation in

the two periods, the comparison framework components have been broken down into 25 sub-components as in shown Table.2.

Table 2 Evaluation Framework Application on C.P Findings in The Case Study Area (highest values are filled with grey color).

	Framework Subcomponents	Benchmarking Value		Notes / Comments
		Before Re-P.P	After Re-P.P	
(1) Communications	Link among different stakeholders	Higher	Lower	-
	Leadership	Lower	Higher	Traditional /ethnic leaders vs P.Cs
	Creditability of leaders	Higher	Lower	Elected traditional /ethnic leaders vs P.Cs
	Frequency of communication	Higher	Lower	-
	Earliness of involvement stage	Higher	Lower	-
	Openness/interest expression	-	-	-
	Easiness of info. transfer	Higher	Lower	Participants in control.
(2) Capacities /Resources	Technical knowledge	Higher	Lower	Traditional technical knowledge.
	Education level	Lower	Higher	Increase number of educational facilities support this argument (No official Data).
	Income level	Lower	Higher	Formulation of many collaborative associations after the Re-P.P.
	Complexity of Information to be shared	Lower	Higher	Re-P.P are more complex than those tackled before (Fig.4).
	Ethnicity	Higher	Lower	-
	Social entrepreneurs	-	-	Not available before & after the Re-P.P
(3) Level of Control	Consensus on decision making	Higher	Lower	-
	Level of community control over projects	Higher	Lower	-
	Committed leadership	-	-	-
	Level of control over method of participation	Higher	Lower	Decision making level.
	Commitment to projects	Higher	Lower	Sense of ownership.
(4) Culture of C.P	Incentives that drive people to participate	Higher	Lower	Participation as social commitment.
	Commitment to projects	Higher	Lower	Sense of ownership.
	The use of <i>Nafeer</i>	Higher	Lower	-
	Behavioral knowledge of C.P	Higher	Lower	Culture of <i>Nafeer</i> decreases after the re-planning process.
(5) Sphere /Spectrum	Project spectrum/Range/ Scope	Lower	Higher	Projects scales and and complexity are higher after the Re-P.P
	Spectrum of stakeholders	Lower	Higher	more participants before the Re-P.P
	Variety of projects	-	-	-
	Complexity of Information to be shared	Lower	Higher	Issues that are tackled after the Re.P.P are more complex than those tackled before.

The first component of the evaluation framework (communication), includes five framework subcomponents that show higher value before the Re-P.P than after, these subcomponents are the link among different stakeholders, creditability of leaders, frequency of communication, earliness of involvement stage and easiness of information transfer. On the contrary, the leadership subcomponent shows higher value after Re-P.P participation

efforts. This implies that in the “communication” framework component C.P before the Re-P.P does have higher value than that conceived after. The comparison process of other framework components are explained in Table.2.

9. Conclusions And Suggestions

As the comparison framework used has been explicitly developed to compare and evaluate C.P in the case study area, its structure provides a space for much larger level comparative analysis, which in turn, can guide planners and policy-makers to identify what sort of measures are necessary to be undertaken to bridge C.P gaps. Yet, this framework should not be expected to provide an absolute benchmark for the participation process as a formula of measuring the degree of input of each framework component is necessary to be developed. Equally, achieving a highly reliable level of community participation evaluation in different contexts requires projects to be studied and evaluated as early as possible throughout their various development stages. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this research and its context (projects studied, sample size and comparison/evaluation framework used), the paper can conclude that three out of five framework components (Table.2) do have a higher value before the Re-P.P than after, these components are; communication among stakeholders groups, level of community control in project development and culture of community participation.

Without quality participation that is culturally-sound, the journey of improving C.P in both traditional and legislative planning might lead to rough roads. In this regard, many factors are identified as barriers towards effective participation in both types of planning, for instance barriers to efficient C.P in legislative Re-P.P includes:

1. Poor community leaders credibility and the low level of information flow between different stakeholders.
2. Low citizens control over planning projects (low governance), together with poor communication (consensus) among different stakeholders.
3. The use of the concept of *Nafeer*, as a project implementation/financing tool, but not to build consensus and exchange ideas as was before the Re-P.P.
4. C.P stage is mostly late on the process (implementation/financing), which in return limits citizens’ ability to influence the plans generated.
5. C.P is largely understood as “one-to-one” relationship between planning authorities and citizens’ representatives (P.Cs), the role of NGOs/CPOs and direct citizens’ participation is very minimal.
6. Although the structure of the civil society in Al-shigla has increased after the Re-P.P with more institutions and associations (Fig.6-2-D and Fig.6-2-A), the intensity of civil society engagement in development projects decreased.

Citizens’ initiated (*Nafeer*-driven) C.P major weaknesses traced are:

1. The low technical and economic capacities of participants, which could arguably be the reason behind the limited sphere and the complexity of projects conducted before the Re-P.P.

2. *Nafeer*-driven participation, which is highly based on ethnicity might raise up questions and doubt on its applicability and efficiency in urban/heterogeneous areas.
3. Limited number of institutions/associations that act outside the ethnic/religious structure.
4. Poor sense of leadership in projects implemented before the Re-P.P, this was caused by the horizontal “community groups” relationships that dominate project planning sphere before the Re-P.P.

At this point, it is necessary to point out some weaknesses observed in both C.P approaches, including the low level of literacy among citizens (which had placed some research carry out difficulties), lack of social entrepreneurship in project financing, poor women involvement and the weak economic abilities of most of the stakeholders. Nonetheless, the main strength of C.P in legislative planning in the Re-P.P discussed is its technical abilities that is empowered by the power of administrative authorities. Civil society after the Re-P.P was also larger and diverse, yet, less engage in local development challenges.

On the other hand, the main strength of *Nafeer*-driven C.P lies behind its ability to create open discussion platform among stakeholders, therefore providing higher possibilities of reaching consensus. *Nafeer*-driven projects also provide citizens with more chances to initiate, develop, implement and manage development projects.

Although it is not easy to generalize the results observed, they have pointed-out the importance and the efficiency of certain aspects of C.P in the traditional/ethnic communities which can be used to enhance and bridge C.P in the common “replanning” approaches.

We understand that participation “...*must necessarily start where the local institutions and leaders are, not where you would like them to be*” (Fisher, 2001), thus, this paper suggests that the socially accepted concept of *Nafeer* could increase the efficiency of the legislative planning system, provided that it has been seriously considered as a planning “support” tool especially in the Re-P.P of the “pre-urban” areas where citizens’ traditional culture does exist. In this regard, attempts to enhance and improve the traditional participatory planning in Al-Shigla should focus on:

1. Promoting capacity development-driven participation by improving citizens’ technical, economical and civic capacities.
2. Increasing citizens control in projects by changing their role from being “an Actor” in the process of participation to be “an Author”, this can be achieved through an empowerment strategy that acknowledges both citizens’s low capacities and the importance of them being in control.
3. A gradual displacement of the ethnic-based participation with more civic-oriented, yet, democratic community involvement is necessary, this is essential due to the limitation drawn by that ethnicity and illiteracy are barriers to fruitful participation (See Plah.C, 2003 and Bhattacharyya, 2006). However, it is also essential to rethink ethnicity in the Re-P.P, in fact ethnicity efficiency in consensus building makes it very useful at the early stages of settlement development up to the optimum integration to the urban fabric.

As for legislative planning, the following three points can help

to improve C.P in Al-shigla, this includes that; 1).planning authorities should focus on building an institutional culture that promotes community participation; 2).Al-shigla community is also too large to participate as a whole in the decision-making process, thus, to ensure leaders credibility the process of identifying citizens' representatives in various development projects need to be improved, by doing so the relationship between citizens and planning authorities will not require intermediate mediators as was observed after the Re-P.P in Al-shigla (Fig.6-2-4); 3).The frequent use of *Nafeer* in "plan implementation" by planning authorities shows that *Nafeer* is not alien to the legislative planning, this enforces that *Nafeer* can be utilized to improve C.P in legislative planning especially that some of the main weakness of C.P in legislative planning(leaders creditability and consensus building) are actually a "*Nafeer*" strength. To achieve such a goal, sincere collaboration among various stakeholders is required.

To conclude, while most of the suggestions mentioned above require efficient communication among different stakeholders, the challenge at this point will be to further improve those suggestions in a way that can bridge the participation gaps/deficits identified by this paper.

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Notes

- The term "before Re-P.P" as used in this article express the period of time before the year 1991(to be more specific the time between 1978 and 1991), whereas, "after Re-P.P" express the period between 1994 (the time when Al-shigla plan was approved) up to 2008 (the year when this study has started).
- *1) Sudan modern history knows Al-shigla as the place where MAHDI forces have crossed the Nile to Khartoum in 1885, yet, locals believe that the age is 200 years earlier than that.
- *2) 31% and 28% literacy level for male and female respectively.
- *3) Singular Khalwa, a small-size praying space for Muslims, also used as Islam teaching place.
- *4) *Nafeer* is a traditional form of C.P practiced mostly in Sudanese rural communities and to a lesser extend in urban areas, it is similar in its process to the known Tanzanian concept of "Ujamaa".
- *5) We understand that one of the limitations assigned to interviews-based researches is that data collected might be biased by interviewees own opinion, to overcome this possible limitation, the research carry-out strategy tried to use a slightly different approach (the five main categories) than the original "Framework". Yet, the approach used was necessary to identify changes that happen in participation before and after the re-planning process in accordance to the generated Framework. Thus, this article used a modified version of Cohen and Uphof (1977) three dimensions of participation. We believe that the simplicity and the generalization of those dimensions (Who "Stakeholders", How "technique/method" and what "stage of involvement") adding to them the "citizens' role in participation" and the "incentive that drives people to participate" can generates findings that can fit nicely into our Framework.
- *6) The Arabic name of People's Committees is "Ligan Shabeiya".
- *7) People whom are known of their wisdom and knowledge,some of them have lived long enough in the area that they are frequently consulted by the replanning team.
- *8) In this African Muslim community, the family head normally represents the whole unmarried members in the household, thus questionnaires focused on them. Yet, the disadvantage of this approach is that most of the family heads are male (which was quite obvious in questionnaire details (Fig.3-2).
- *9) Due to illiteracy limitations, questionnaires turns in many cases into structured interviews.
- *10) The title of the Mosque or Khalwa religious leader.
- *11) Interview with Al-Nasry, a former Councilor and P.C member, Sep. 17th 2009.

和文要約

スーダンの都市をとりまく周縁部の多くは、民族的あるいは文化的に均質であり、それぞれの文化・社会的特性が保たれている。そのため、伝統的な「コミュニティ主導型」の計画と、ヴィレッジインコーポレーション (Village incorporation) と呼ばれる法的な「政府主導型」の再計画が、短期間に同じ場所でおこるといった状況がみられる。

これら「時間的に異なる」二種類の計画は、同じ目的を共有することがある一方で、コミュニティ参加による合意形成のアプローチに関しては異なる点が多く、しばしば摩擦を生んでいる。

そんななか本研究では、以下の三点を目的とする：①「Nafeer」と呼ばれるスーダンの伝統的なコミュニティ参加手法の重要性を明らかにする、②開発計画におけるコミュニティ参加の評価に関する理論的枠組を構築する、③アルシグラ (Al-shigla) 地区における伝統的な「コミュニティ主導型」・「政府主導型」双方のコミュニティ参加手法に関して2の理論的枠組を用いて評価する。

本研究では比較分析を通じて、再計画プロセスの前に行われるコミュニティ参加が、プロセス後のそれよりも、質と量の両面で勝っていることを議論する。

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**Community Participation In Planning;
Evaluation of Public Participation in the Sudanese Planning Mandates**

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ABSTRACT: In the last four decades, the concept of community participation is increasingly getting attention in most of the world. While there is quite extensive literature on the concept itself, the process of community participation evaluation still lags behind. The necessity to improve community participation requires understanding the context where plans are formulated, developed, approved and implemented. This context is guided by three main elements including; planning mandates and bylaws; planners' perception about community participation; and the actual planning practiced by planning institutions.

Using Cohen and Uphoff (1977) three dimensions of participation as a benchmark, this article includes analysis of the extent that planning mandates in Sudan provide guidance for planners in terms of how to involve citizens in the planning process.

This analysis was achieved through extensive literature reviews and study of planning mandates between 1950-2000. The conclusions drawn by this article show that planning mandates in Sudan have addressed the issue of community participation apprehensively in a very informative nature, the process of involving citizens in the planning process "as mandated" focus on "area re-planning" much more than "urban/city planning".

Keywords: Planning Mandates; Community Participation evaluation; Sudan

1. INTRODUCTION

Undeniably, the last four decades of planning tradition have shown obvious divergence from planner-centred planning approaches to participatory planning concepts. Coupled with overwhelming literature worldwide, this divergence has been articulated in quite different terms including Arnstein ladder of participation (1969) and the recent communicative turn, i.e. Communicative Planning (Forrester, 1993) and Collaborative Planning (Healy, 1998).

In contrast, the experience of many developing countries, including Sudan, is different. With only eleven years of democratic governance since the country's independence in 1956, coupled with a rich history of political turbulences, rapid urbanization and migration trends, "community participation" (C.P) has struggled to find its way in the physical planning sphere. In this regard, citizens that have "strong sense of egalitarianism and a tradition of electing tribal and local notables" (Betchtold, 1990) found themselves been lead to community

participation that is described as “restricted to citizens mobilization” (Abureidah,1987).

The poor performance of C.P in Sudanese legislative planning should then lead us to examine the situations and the contexts where planning objectives are defined, plans are developed, decisions are made and projects are implemented and evaluated. This legislative environment is generally guided and driven through three types of arrangement including:

1. Planning mandates and bylaws that provide legal guidance for planners and policy-makers.
2. Planners’ perception about C.P develops by both on job and university training/education.
3. The actual planning practice, which translates and endorses those guidance/knowledge accumulated in the planning process.

Planning research has indicated that “Planning bylaws and mandates result in stronger local plans” (Berke et al.,1996; burby et al.,1997). Also, building effective C.P in planning requires “A robust framework of legislation and guidance which sets clear standard” (ODPM, 2004). In this regard, the necessity to improve community participation in the Sudanese planning system requires understanding how it is achieved in the policy and mandates that guide planners/policy makers. Hence, this article ‘which is part of ongoing research’ will focus on the extent that Sudanese Planning mandates interpret the concept of community participation.

2. EVALUATING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION (LITERATURE REVIEW)

Although literature on community participation is substantially increasing, the question of finding both “criteria” and a “benchmark” of community involvement evaluation is still unclear. In this regard, Raimond (2001) noted that literature on public participation lacked sound evaluation of the community participation process. Such a lack can be referred to several reasons including; the vagueness and ambiguity of the community participation as a concept (Lang, 1987); the lack of “... definition and criteria of success in participation” (Laurian, 2008) and the lack of “... appropriate benchmarking against which the quality of participation exercise might be compared ” (Lowndes et al, 1998). However, Conley and Moote (2003) noted three alternative approaches for evaluating collaborative planning practices, these are based upon; 1). Comparing the

outcomes of the collaborative decision-making process against its goals; 2). Comparing multiple efforts. 3). Comparing practice to theory.

We understand those three approaches as viable and worthwhile. Thus in this article we will be using an evaluation strategy/scale that is very much based on Conley and Moote's, (2003) third approach.

3. RESEARCH PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

In this article, the degree to which planning mandates provide guidance for planners and policy makers is evaluated and appraised. While this article is not trying to test hypothesis regarding C.P in planning mandates, it provides wider understanding and rich descriptive measurements of how community participation is mandated in the Sudanese planning laws.

This research employs a historical approach that is mainly achieved through an extensive literature review of planning mandates from 1950 (the year of the first planning mandate enactment) up to 2000 (the year that the most recent physical planning related mandate was enacted). Data collected was obtained from both the Sudanese Ministry of Justice and the Sudan Judiciary Library.

To deal with the difficulty of finding appropriate benchmarks to measure participation, we will be using an evaluation typology that is based on a modified version of Cohen and Uphof's (1977) three dimensions of participation. The simplicity and the generalization of those dimensions (Who "Stakeholders", How "technique/method" and what "stage of involvement") make them perfect candidates to measure the extent to which planning mandates provide guidance for planners. Thus, "participation dimensions" as used in this article are explained herewith;

- "Who" is used to express the spectrum of stakeholders involved in the process.
- "How" refers to the mechanism by which C.P is accomplished, this stands for what kind of participation is achieved in different project cycles.
- "What" explains the different stages or phases involved in the planning or projects, generally identified in this article as plan initiation, plan making, plan approval, implementation and monitoring.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Legal and policy framework of C.P in Sudan

The legislative framework of C.P in Sudan is generally comprised of at least three main documents including: 1). The Federal Government planning mandates; 2). State planning ordinances; and 3). Local governments' guidance and regulations.

In general, based on the Capital Region of Sudan, the last two documents provided explanations of federal level mandates at local level accompanied with explanations of issues related to building regulations/permits and environment¹. In this sense, this article will focus on studying the Federal Government planning mandates.

Table.1 identifies all the federal-level planning mandates enacted during the period of study, according to this table three categories of ordinances/acts are observed, these categories are: 1). Physical planning mandates (Category a), 2). Land-based mandates (Category b), 3). Environmental-based mandates (Category c).

Table 1. Spectrum of Planning Mandates and their Subdivisions.

Year	Mandate/Act name	General theme	C.P	Category
1950	Town Re-Planning Act	Informal settlement	Yes	Planning (a)
1961	Cities and villages Planning Act	Planning/ informal settlements	Yes	Planning (a)
1975	None-registered land Act	Land regularization	None	Land (b)
1975	Environment conservation act	Environment protection	None	Environment (c)
1983	Land Re-adjustment and registration	Land regularization	None	Land (b)
1983	Land Re-adjustment and registration Act (revision)	Land regularization	None	Land (b)
1986	Land disposition act	Land regularization	None	Land (b)
1986	Spatial Planning Act	Re-Planning	Yes	Planning (a)
1991	Supreme Council for Env. and Natural resources Act	Council formulation Environment	None	Environment (c)
1994	Spatial Planning and Land disposition Act.	Planning/ re-planning/Land	Yes	Planning (a)/Land (b)
2000	Environment protection Act	Env. Improvement	None	Environment (c)

¹ The centrality of planning practice in Sudan had left quite thin margin for both States and Local level authorities to develop their own planning-related mandates. In the case of Khartoum, none of the local-level laws have included articles that enforce C.P.

A general study of National planning mandates identified in table.1 shows that both category “b” (Land-based) and category “c” (Environment) of the planning mandates lack articles that promote C.P. Those two categories however, have focused entirely on land issues (such as land re-adjustment and acquisition procedure) and environmental issues in the third category. In the contrary, the study of the physical planning mandates (category a) identified four various mandates that provide guidance for planners in terms of how to achieve C.P within the physical planning process explained as follow:

a. The 1950 Town Re-Planning Decree (TRD)

The 1950 Town Re-planning Decree was the first Sudanese planning mandate that deals (in detail) with cities and towns. TRD was also the second enacted physical planning mandate in the country. Having focused on informal settlements “re-planning/reintegration”, C.P in this decree was achieved through three folds of arrangement, including;

- Obligating public authorities to show their intention to develop any re-planning scheme to public (article No 3).
- Plan arrangements and developed scheme should be publicize by using appropriate media (article No 8-2, 9 and 13-2).
- Re-planning-affected citizens (beneficiaries) have the right to appeal against the re-planning committee decisions (article No 22).

b. 1961 Cities and Villages Planning Act (CVPA)

Although this was the first planning act enacted after the country independence, yet it was the act that (has) only minimally addressed community involvement. Apart from obligating public authorities to show their interests in initiating any planning scheme to the public (article No.4), there was no further article that promoted C.P. Absence of C.P articles in the country’s first planning act after independence can arguably be referred to the nature of the governance carried-out by the military dictatorship that took power a year before the law was enacted. However, it should be noted that this act was the first to focus entirely in the “planning” issues rather than “re-planning”.

c. 1986 Spatial Planning Act (SPA)

This act was enacted during the second period of democracy in the country (1986 - 1989), thus, the political environment was favoring putting forward good citizens' involvement measures and guidance. Nonetheless, no spectacular change towards citizens' involvement was observed in this act. Yet, the SPA succeeded in setting out new administrative measures at both state and federal level. For instance, the "Village Re-planning Committee (VRC)" was established to be responsible for tackling the growing problems of informal settlements in/around large cities in Sudan through preparing official village plans. This act also introduces the National Physical Planning Committee (NPPC) of which four members (planning experts) are nominated by the Minister (article No.5). Nonetheless, this act sustained the public agencies responsibility to publicize their intention to initiate any planning project (article No.3-7).

d. 1994 Spatial Planning & Land Disposition Act (SPLD)

This act was seen as the major transformation in the physical planning development in the country (GOS, 1997). SPLDA was the first mandate that combines both Physical planning and land administration mandates in a single legal document.

This act was preceded by a series of large-scale physical, structural and legal changes including: 1). The inauguration of The National Comprehensive Strategy (NCP) of (1992-2002) which was the first national strategy to state clearly the role of C.P in service provision and management of urban area by calling for "community must be included to decide upon their planning priorities in plan implementation, housing projects, public buildings provision, public spaces development and greening"(GOS, 1992); and 2). The amendment of the Peoples Committees (Ligan Shabieia) act of 1992 that was intended to laid the ground for more civil-based local level administration by allowing citizens to participate at local level administration. 3). Last but not least, the inauguration of the capital region new Structure Plan which incorporated "informal settlements treatment" as a key element in its development strategy. C.P directives in this act are:

- Obligating public authorities to show their intention to develop any planning / re-planning scheme to public. (Section 2 No 12, and section 4 No.19).

- Lowering the decision-making process to state level by mandating all states to form their own planning committees (article No.10 and 11-s).
- Re-planning-affected citizens have the right to appeal against the re-planning committee decisions (article No 4-38).
- Re-planning arrangement, modified/approved plans should be made public (article No.4-28-1)

5. RESULTS/DISCUSSIONS

A part from the “physical planning” legislations (category a), planning mandates in Sudan (as shown in Table.1) lack legislation that is solely dedicated to promote C.P. these mandates introduced C.P as a function that is mandated within three types of arrangement including;

- a. The obligation of the government planning authorities to show their interest to initiate planning/re-planning projects to public through an appropriate media and/or public gazette (TRD of 1950; CVPA of 1961; SPA of 1986 and SPLD of 1994).
- b. The obligation of the government to publicize planning arrangement and approved plans for “re-planned” areas to the public, accompanied by schematic layouts, details and information about where citizens can see the Approved plans (TRD of 1950 and CPVO of 1961).
- c. The right for the “re-planning projects” affected citizens to appeal (TRD of 1950; SPLD of 1994).

The extent of how those legal planning arrangements fit into our community participation evaluation typology (the modified Cohen and Uphof (1977) three dimensions of participation) shown in table.2 is thus discussed henceforth. Yet it must be noted that, as those dimensions are discussed individually in this article, in reality they are very much intertwined/overlap each other.

Table.2: The application of the three dimensions on planning Mandates/bylaws

	How Community Participation is Achieved		Who is Involved? (Stakeholders other than Govt.)	What is participation		Notes/ Reference	
	Short Description of article Content	Method		Stage of C.P	Activities		
Planning Ordinances/Acts	TRA 1950	State Governor should show Govt. Interest to initiate re-planning projects to public.	Public announcement	Beneficiaries	Before re-planning Initiation.	Re-planning	Article No.3
		Plans and arrangements should be made public	Public Information Notice	Beneficiaries	After project approval	Re-planning	Article No. 8-2, 9 and 13-2
		Beneficiaries has the right to appeal re-planning decisions.	Appeal	Beneficiaries	After approved plans are made public.	Re-planning	Article No.22
	CVFA 1961	Govt. Institution (Minister of Housing) Should show Govt. interest to initiate planning projects to public.	Public announcement	Public	Before re-planning initiation	Planning	Article No.4
	SPA 1986	Govt. Institution (Minister/NCCP). Should show their interests to initiate planning projects to public.	Public announcement	Public	Before re-planning Initiation.	Planning	Section 3-7
	SPLD 1994	Govt. Institution Should show their interest to initiate planning projects to public.	Information	Public	Before planning Initiation.	Planning	Section 2, article No.12
		Govt. Institution Should show their interest to initiate re-planning planning projects to public.	Notice / Information	Public	Before re-planning Initiation.	Re-planning	Section 4, article No. 19
		Beneficiaries has the right to appeal re-planning decisions.	Feed back	Beneficiaries	After planning	Re-planning	Section 4, article No.21
		Modified plans should be made public.	Notice / Information	Beneficiaries	After re-planning	Re-planning	Section 4, article No.31-2
		Minister approval of plans should be publicize.	Notice / information	Beneficiaries	After Approval	Re-planning	Section 4, article No.24-2
Re-planning program and arrangements details at (local level) should be publicize.		Notice / information	Beneficiaries	After approval	Re-planning	Section 4, article No.28-1	
Re-planning affected citizens have the right to appeal.		Appeal	Beneficiaries	After approval	Re-planning	Section 4, article No.38	

5.1 Who Participates

While its neither possible nor feasible to involve every single community member in the planning process, “Who should participate” is seen ideally as taking into account the views of all “those who have legitimate interest in the matter” (Sewell, W. R. D., & Coppock. 1977). In this regard, the scope of stakeholders mandated to be involved in the planning process as noted by the physical planning mandates (Table.2) are limited to two folds of stakeholders;

1. Public Agencies(Government Institutions), including the (VRC), planners, policy-makers, NCCP, Minister of housing and State Governor (Wali).
2. Directly affected citizens/beneficiaries.

This suggests that the concept of public agencies as “plan producers” and citizens as “recipients” of this plan has a strong presence in planning mandates. Ahmed (1992) backed-up this suggestion by noting that planning in Sudan is generally a function that happens inside government institutions.

Other community sectors such as NGOs/CPOs research and education sector though might have legitimate interest in the process; yet, they are not mandated to be involved in the planning process, a part from some university professors that are appointed as NCCP member.

5.2 How Participation is mandated/achieved

Participation techniques/methods have been much studied as a core concept of many C.P studies, such as Arnstein's ladder of participation (1969), Choguill's new ladder of citizens' participation (1994) and by theorists of collaborative planning (Innes, (2000) and Forrester, (1993)). Although its generally agreed that "C.P techniques" must be synced to "participation objectives", it is widely understood that there are general hierarchies of levels of participation techniques that ranges from information giving at the lowest level of participation to full public/ stakeholder control over planning issues.

Table.2 shows that Sudanese planning mandates address C.P as a process of informing citizens about planning projects through disseminating information to large numbers of people and allowing citizens to appeal (re-planning process). In this regard, while there is no satisfactory requirement for how the "plan publicity" should be done, the level of publicity mandated is limited to advertisement in public gazette and on site notice. As this is regarded as a tool for good intention, it does not insure that citizens will be well informed about these projects, especially if we consider the high level of illiteracy in the country ².

However, planning mandates that have covered the re-planning process (TRA of 1950 and SPLD of 1994) have provided two methods of which the re-planning decisions can be challenged: a). By appealing to the Minister of Planning; b). By appealing to the Civil Court.

While, the right of appeal has been granted to citizens as part of the re-planning process, planning mandates do not provide enough guidance and channels to insure that appeals actually have an influence in the final plan.

The duty-right relationship (Fig.1) between the two stakeholders mandated to be involved shows that; "re-planning" is generally gaining more participation and feedback possibilities than planning. The latter, has less C.P

² Noted by United Nation Development Program (UNDP) in 2008 as 35% in the north of the country, this percentage normally increases in the low-income re-planning areas.

arrangements, as information dissemination is the only form of C.P mandated within its arrangement.

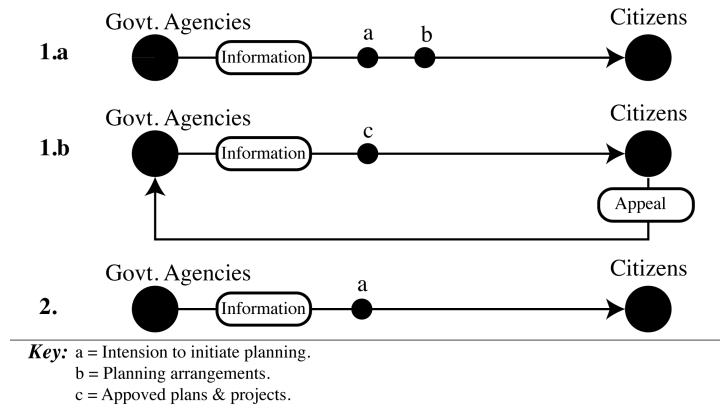


Figure.1: Framework of how C.P is mandated in the Sudanese planning mandates, the re-planning arrangement on top (1.a and 1.b) and planning arrangement at the bottom.

5.3 What is Participation

Identifying the stage that citizens should be involved in is a key issues in planning process. Many scholars believe that to insure meaningful stakeholder involvement, participation must occurs “early, often and [be] ongoing” (Wondololeck & Yaffee, 2000, p.103). In this regard, the extent to which planning mandates have looked at the stage at which participation should take place (explained in Fig.2), tends to restrict “direct” C.P to “plan initiation”(information) and “post plan approval” stages (information and appeal).

Planning mandates in general require planning authorities to publicize plans/projects and hear appeals only after the plan has been selected from within the alternatives available and that it has been approved for implementation (Fig.2). In this regard, Hamdi and Goethert experiences in land regulations and housing in developing world shows that the planning stage is the most crucial stage of citizens’ involvement (see Hamdi and Goethert 1997 pp.77-78). This generally suggests that participation as mandated, is actually happening in the less important stages. Appeal, on the other hand, is mandated to take place after all planning decisions are taken and plans are approved. Taking into account the lack of public hearing in those mandates, its then obvious that there is narrow margin for citizens to actually influence plans.

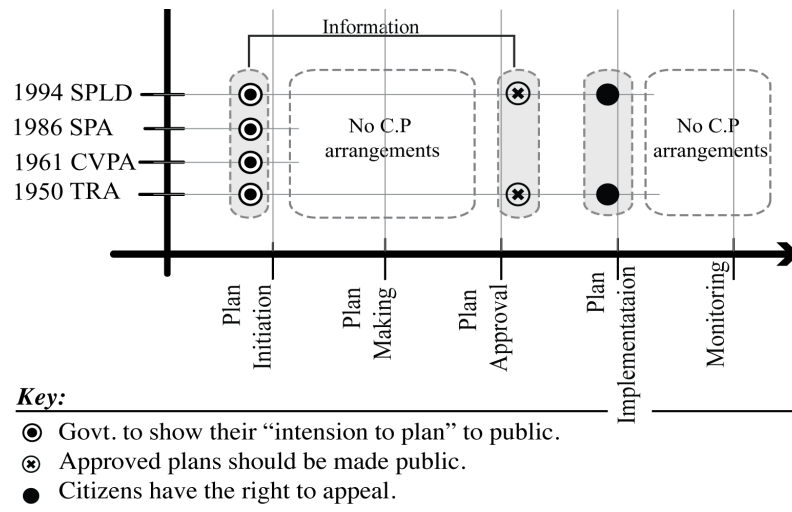


Figure2. Relationship between stages of planning "Project Cycle stages) and C.P in different planning mandates. The X-axis shows planning stage,Y-axis shows different planning mandates.

To conclude, the extent that planning mandates address C.P can be summarized as follows;

1. C.P has maintained a very informative nature in terms of how the participation process should be tackled in all planning mandates.
2. C.P focus on quantity of participants rather than the quality of participation process.
3. C.P is a process that is largely (though not entirely) related to re-planning or illegal settlements regularization.
4. C.P addresses what should be done in terms on involving citizens, but not necessarily how (tools and measures).
5. C.P as mandated in planning bylaws focus on involving citizens in the less important planning stages (initiation and post-approval) (Fig. 2). Stages like plan development and decision-making get the least focus.
6. Citizens' right to appeal is mandatory (in re-planning), but not necessary to affect the plan.
7. While the planning mandates have been issued in different periods to tackle imminent problems at time of inaction, C.P articles in planning mandates seems to be a replica of each other in terms of who is involved, how and when. This raises an argument whether community participation in planning mandates is seen as rituals rather than responding to the social and political circumstances.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Although this article did not include any case study to testify whether the actual planning practice is generally echoing research outcomes, nonetheless, research findings suggest that community participation is not restricted only to mobilization as noted by Abureidah, (1987). Participation as a recipient of information, coupled with citizens' right to appeal, dominates the planning mandates guidance on C.P. In this regard, features of non-participation and tokenism, as stated by Arnstein, (1969) are strongly observed here.

Hence, simple suggestions to improve how planning mandates conceive of community participation should incorporate the necessity to enforce a set of planning articles that mandates genuine C.P in planning and provide citizens more control over issues affecting their lives. However, both planning theory and practice have shown that mandating C.P is not enough to insure its vitality as it might end up to be a set of rituals that are practiced because the law requires them (see Chetkow-Yanoov, B. (1982) and Innes, J. E., & Booher, D. E. (2000)). A culture that promotes and encourages community participation is necessary to be prevalent if the participation practice is hoped to be effective.

Our findings shows that three out of the four mandates studied were initiated to respond to the growing issue of informal settlements that dominates the urban theme in the country from 1980 up to 1994. Although this explains why C.P guidance in planning mandates focused on the "re-planning" process, a formula that integrates the planning process to C.P mandates is required, especially with the recent economic development, urban changes and increasing urbanization.

To insure that planning mandates provide better guidance for planners, this article opts to find these suggestions as valid:

- Planning mandates should encourage C.P to start as early as possible and to be ongoing. This is especially necessary at the early stages of planning up to the approval.
- Rather than considering C.P as a relationship between a state agencies and citizens (see Fig.1), planning mandates need to emphasis that diverse stakeholders that have legitimate interest in the plan should be included.
- Planning mandates also should encourage and stress the use of diverse techniques of participation involvement. At this point, we understand that best participation technique is in-lined directly to participation objectives.

Thus the latter as well should be encouraged to be defining at the beginning of each participation process.

The conclusions drawn by this article do not imply that planning mandates do not provide community participation guidance to planners and policy-makers; on the contrary, they are akin to building blocks of basic informative community participation that focus on quantitative approach. Nonetheless, it should be noted that bylaws/mandates sometimes leads to system inefficiency if not associated with authentic culture that promotes participation, this is necessary step to retain and maintain sustainability of the participation process. In this regard, while this article shows how the mandates category of planning tradition interpret community participation, research in this matter is encouraged to touch upon the other two categories noted at the beginning of this article.

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EVALUATION OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

A Case Study of the Sudanese Neighborhood of Al-shigla

*BAHRELDIN Ibrahim*¹ and *ARIGA Takashi*²

1.0 Introduction and background

The importance of applying genuine community participation (C.P) approach in Sudan is supported by both research (Ahmed, 2000; El-Tahir, 2008; Ibrahim, 2008) and practice (Hassan, 2009 and A.Rahaman 2009). The growing demands of community participation in the country coupled with the necessity to improve community participation in the service delivery projects require understanding how community participation is achieved and conducted in the recent practices. In this regard, the failure of many participatory processes places high importance on their evaluation to improve the practice (Chess, 2000). Identifying “what technique work best and how” in specific planning conditions accents the importance of adopting certain community participation typology that fits and sync nicely with local community/planning conditions. At this point community participation evaluation comes practical. Nonetheless, despite the massive literature in community participation in planning practice and research “...*the field of participation evaluation lag behind*” (Laurian, 2008). In Sudan, public authorities low capacities in managing “land and services” schemes resulted in scheme in-efficiency. Public authorities had failed to sustain basic service (water and electricity) in many re-planned/regulated sites. Citizens in many areas found themselves responsible of securing those services by themselves, often with minimal local government assistant. A traditional form of community participation known as “*Nafeer*” is the driving force for many of those citizens-initiated projects.

2.0 Research Purpose and Question

The purpose of this article is to evaluate C.P in two types of services delivery projects (the traditional community-initiated, and government initiated). This article uses “*an analysis through a comparison*” strategy by evaluating two timely different approaches of accomplishing C.P through comparing them against a certain framework/benchmark. The strategy used provides sound understanding of “Pros” and “Cons” of both forms of C.P, which can help to promote/understand and improve community participation practice in service-delivery projects in re-planning/land regularization projects. We recognize the two approach of planning as generally different in terms of physical settings, administrative structure and planning type. Nonetheless, this paper argues that traditional forms of community participation are favored with participation qualities that are sometimes superior to those of the legislative planning.

3.0 Measuring Participation “The Dilemma”

Despite the over-whelming literature on community participation, the question of finding both “criteria” and a “benchmark” of community involvement evaluation is still unclear. In this regard, Raimond (2001) noted that Literature on public participation lack of sound evaluation of the community participation process. Such a lack can be referred to several reasons including; the

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² Professor, Graduate School of creative Science and Engineering , Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan.

vagueness and ambiguity of the community participation as a concept (Lang, 1987); the lack of “... definition and criteria of success in participation” (Laurian, 2008) and the lack of “... *appropriate benchmarking against which the quality of participation exercise might be compared*” (Lowndes et al, 1998). This states that there are generally two challenges when evaluating community participation. Those challenges are “What to measure?” and “How to measure?”

In this article, the first challenge is dealt with by proposing “evaluation framework” that is drawn from several literatures that looked at community participation³. The four components of the evaluation framework (shown in Figure.1) are:

- Spectrum of Stakeholders involved in the C.P process.
- Level of control and acceptance among stakeholders.
- Relationship among and between stakeholders.
- Capacities and resources of stakeholders.

In this regard, the suggested evaluation framework assumes that framework elements are very much intertwined/overlap each other rather than distinctive elements.

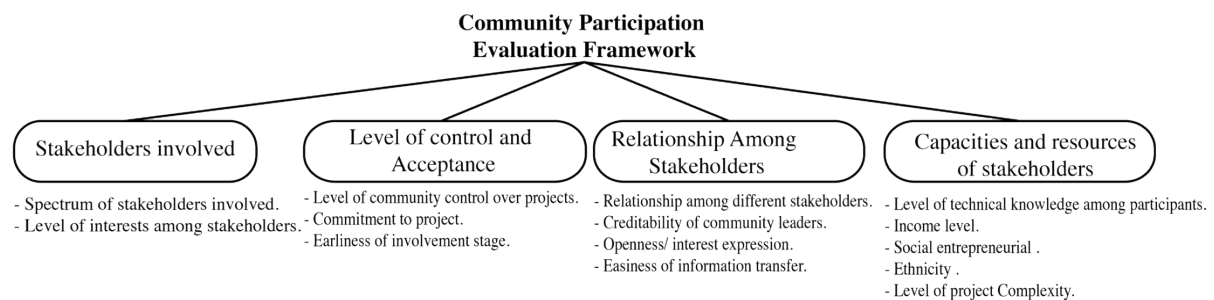


Figure 1: Component of Community Participation Evaluation Framework

To deal with the second challenge (how to measure) we used evaluation strategy that is based on comparing two approach of C.P against the proposed benchmarked stated above.

For the purpose of data collection, this article used a typology based on modified version of Cohen and Uphoff (1977) three dimensions of participation. The simplicity and the generalization of those dimensions (Who “Stakeholders”, How “techniques/method”, and What “stage of involvement”) make them perfect candidate to collect data on how community participation is conceived in service delivery projects in Al-shigla. Thus, “participation dimensions” as used in this article are: stakeholders involved, stage of involvement, role in participation, method of participation.

4.0 Research methodology:

This research was conducted in two stages:

Stage.1: This stage was conducted in September 2009. In which community leaders have been requested to evaluate community participation in electricity and water provision projects before and after the re-planning process (Re-P.P). Community leaders evaluations (CLE) were based on the four elements of “participation dimensions” (the modified Cohen and Uphof (1977) participation dimensions). Community leaders were also interviewed regarding the process of C.P in the service delivery projects studied. Community leaders interviewed are those who had been directly involved in those projects. Four traditional community leaders, three People’s Committees (P.C) members, two councilors were interviewed.

Stage.2: At this stage, a user-based evaluation (UBE) was conducted. UBE was based on the same criteria identified in stage.1. Two questionnaires were distributed. The first was distributed in Sept.2009 for after Re-P.P participation evaluation⁴. The second questionnaire was conducted in Feb.-March 2010⁵ (for before Re-P.P). Questionnaires were conducted randomly through door-to-door survey. The first questionnaire respondents were those identified themselves as the family heads during the time of questionnaire, while second questionnaire respondents were those selected from

³ The process of how this framework is developed is not part of this article.

⁴ The Sample size was 100 households’ heads (94 respondents).

⁵ The sample size was 41 households’ heads (37 respondents).

within the same “first respondents” on the condition that they have witnessed the projects studied prior to the Re-P.P⁶.

5.0 Community Participation in Sudan; an introduction

In Sudan, it is mandatory that certain forms of community participation to be conducted during settlements re-planning/planning process. In this regard, planning bylaws understand community involvement as a process that is set to; “inform citizens” about government intention to carry out re-planning/planning projects. Government is also obliged to publicize approved plans through public gazettes. Allowing citizens to appeal against planning/re-planning decisions follows the process of plan publicizing.

Although the National Compressive strategy (NCS) of the year 1992 stated clearly that “community must be included to decide upon their planning priorities, plan implementation, housing project, public building provision, public space development and greening” (Government of Sudan, 1992), Planning practices have barely shown any traces of genuine participation process. Services delivery projects are not an exception. Those projects are mostly planned, approved and implemented without genuine community participation.

6.0 Al-shigla Case-study:

Al-shigla is an old village composed mostly of mud houses that evoked the original settlers profession as cattle herders and farmers. The area is located in the west bank of the White Nile South of Omdurman province (Figuer.2). The area is disadvantaged by poor environmental conditions including; lack of open spaces, poor social services and green coverage. Lack of proper water supply and insufficient power service were two of the relentless problems occurred there.

The significance of Al-shigla stems from being one of the oldest settlements in the southern part of Khartoum⁷. Thus, Al-shigla provides rare conditions for exploring the traditional Nafeer⁸-driven participation process that are generally characterized as;1) Mostly practiced in rural and pre-urban communities (Geoffroy, 2005); 2). Happens where social/ethnic and family relationships are strong (ibid);3). Developed in relatively low income communities with strong family connections.

Before 1992, Al-shigla was a typical self-planned (unplanned) settlement, it is not “a slum” but rather ill-serviced low income area that is settled by socially homogeneous residents. Several ethnic groups dominated the area. Traditional ethnic leaders controlled the planning process in the area. They also managed the land subdivision and the provision of basic infrastructure (water and electricity). “Nafeer” was the main driver of those projects.

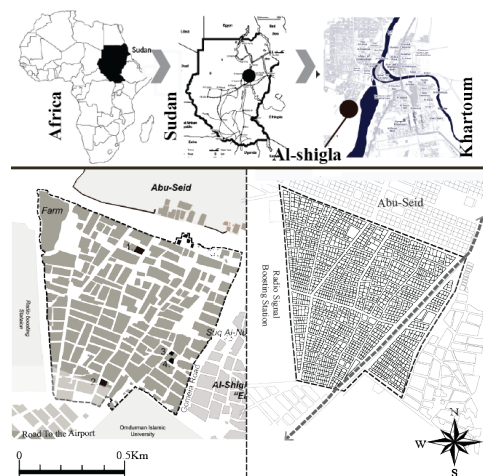


Figure 2: Location of Al-shigla (top). The Map of Al-shigla before the Re-planning (bottom left) and after (bottom right)

⁶ Projects studied in this article (water supply and electricity) represent two out of ten projects evaluated using this questionnaire. Thus, in this article, UBE results are used as supportive (secondary) data, but not to build an argument.

⁷ Although Sudan modern history knows Al-shigla as the place where MAHDI forces have crossed the Nile to Khartoum in 1885, yet, locals believe that the area is 200 years older than that date.

⁸ Nafeer is a traditional form of C.P practiced mostly in Sudanese rural communities and to a lesser extent in urban areas, it is similar in its process to the known Tanzanian concept of “Ujamaa”.

6.1.0 Community Participation in Service Delivery Projects Before the Re-P.P:

Prior to the re-planning process (between 1980-1990⁹), lack of access to clean drinking water and electricity in Al-shigla set a difficult challenge for traditional community leaders, Al-shigla was depending on two water wells as source for drinking water. Water was then distributed by carts to houses. The issue of sustaining access to clean drinking water was essential and a priority.

After a series of discussions among themselves, Traditional community leaders put publicly the project for further citizens discussion. The discussions “which were held in the Mosque” yielded in forming a committee that was responsible of negotiating the water project with respective planning authorities. NGOs provided some financial and technical assistant. The actual project was planned by Water corporation with some inputs from local planning authority¹⁰. Water corporation acts as a designer and a supervisor for the project that was implemented using local contractors. Some financially in-capable citizens were hired as part of the un-skilled labor for the water provision. Several community meetings were conducted in “Sheikh Attia Mosque”. Citizens, Mosque associations, community leaders and tribal heads attendance on those meetings was very high.

In 1987, citizens started looking at the power supply issue. After a series of meetings in the Mosque. A committee was elected to negotiate with the government regarding this project. Public authorities were slightly reluctant to provide those services for an area that is not part of the legal urban fabric. The cost of installing drinking water and electricity network in irregular street pattern (see Figure.3) was relatively high. However, the committee¹¹ managed to secure authorities approval on partial power coverage for the area. By 1988 power lines were installed and partial coverage of electricity was available in Al-shigla (Figure.3-2).



Figure 3: Drinking water supply and electricity coverage before the Re-P.P

6.2.0 Community Participation in Service Delivery Projects Post Re-P.P

In 1996 (after the Re-P.P), Peoples Committees (P.Cs)¹² mobilized citizens to complete the water project. P.Cs took the lead role in this project. After a series of consultations with Water Department and Ministry of Planning at the State of Khartoum, an agreement was reached. Accordingly, citizens financed the cost of the installation and preparations of the drinking water network (which was implemented by a contractor). In return public authorities subsidized project equipment (pipelines and fittings). Public authorities were responsible of preparing the appropriate technical drawings. This agreement was followed by informing citizens about plan outcomes. Citizens were also informed that their participation is necessary to finance and realize the project. Several information sessions and meetings were conducted at the Mosque to publicize the project.

⁹ Many internally displaced people moved to the area due to civil war in the south and the drought in the west of the country.

¹⁰ Local planning authority was responsible of managing local land ownership system.

¹¹ Mostly compsed of traditioanl leaders

¹² Part of the local government administration level, similar in its structure to the revolutionary councils in Libya.

According to CLE (Figuer.4), participation in service-delivery projects in Al-shigla changed from an issue that was discussed between traditional community leaders and bureaucrats to be more technical oriented issues that strongly involve planners in the process. The shortcoming of this was less citizens' participation as in Figuer.4.

The stage in which citizens were involved also changed from participation in the major "project preparation" stages (initiation and objectives definition) to function more on project implementation. Project monitoring and administration in both pre/pro re-planning process were conducted by public authorities.

Community leaders evaluated "citizens' role" in participation before the Re-P.P as "participant" and "in control". This is higher than their evaluation of the same issue after Re-P.P, which they identified as focus more on being a "recipient" of information or a product as well as source of project funding.

Method of participation changed slightly from pre-re-planning process to post re-planning process. Participation in sharing project cost was dominant before and after the Re-P.P. The value of participation on "decision-making" prior to the Re-P.P (rated as medium) was replaced by citizens being "informed" about decisions made in regard of the project.

The user-based evaluation (UBE) in Figuer.5, which was based on the two questionnaires, has generally echoed what CLE noted in Figuer.4.

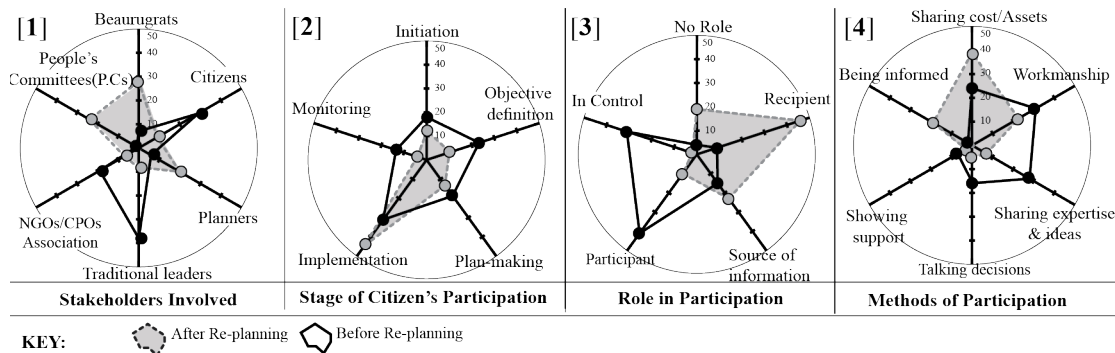


Figure 5: User based Evaluation UBE of Community Participation in Al-shigla.

However, UBE showed that the main changes observed in the participation behavior are mostly related to the: 1). Spectrum of stakeholders involved, 2). Role in participation 3). And the method of participation. The stage of citizens' participation has slightly changed though.

Figuer .6, which is based on results of CLE, UBE and interview shows the relationship among the main stakeholders and the role they played in service delivery. Figuer.6 shows that:

- An increased role of public authorities and peoples committees is noticeable after the Re-P.P (form planning and management to full control of the process).
- The strong link among community groups replaced by strong link between public authorities and P.Cs.
- Decrease of community groups' stakeholders' spectrum.
- After the Re-P.P, community participation was restricted to financing projects and informing citizens.
- NGOs disappeared as stakeholder after the Re-P.P.
- Before the Re-P.P, Nafeer is generally used in two specific project stages "project initiation" and "financing".

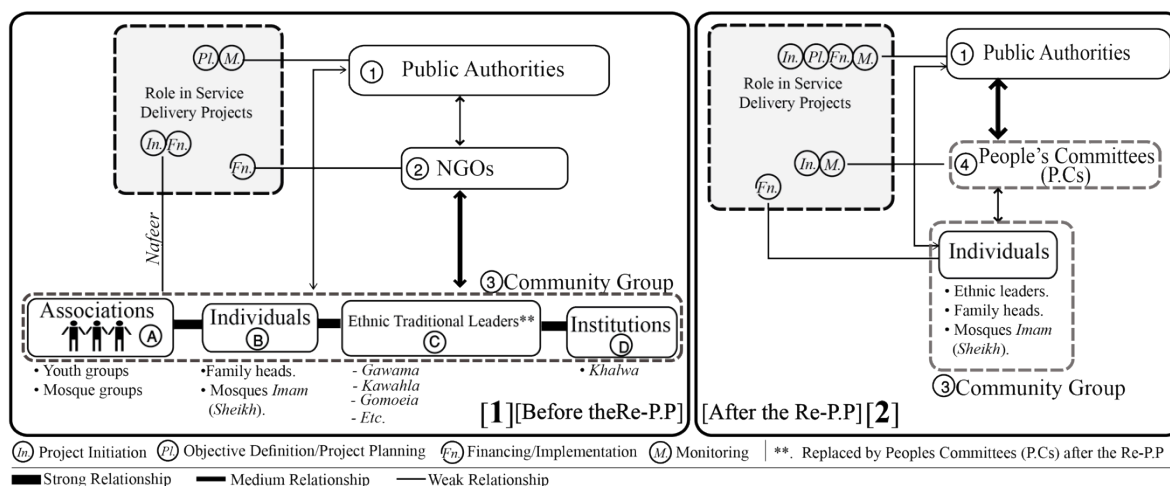


Figure 6: Relationship among main stakeholders and types of arrangement conducted by each stakeholder before and after the re-planning process.

8.0 Discussions and Arguments:

The extent of which participation in service delivery projects fits in to our evaluation framework developed earlier is thus discussed henceforth. Yet, as framework elements are discussed individually in this article, in reality they are very much overlaps each other.

8.1.0 Spectrum of stakeholders involved:

While its neither possible nor feasible to involve every single community member in the planning process, “Who should participate” is seen ideally as taking into account the views of all “*those who have legitimate interest in the matter*” (W.R.& Sewll. 1977). In this regard, the scope of stakeholders involved in the service delivery projects prior to the Re-P.P is slightly higher than that involved after. Figuer.6-1 shows that four main “community group” stakeholders participated in the service delivery projects before the Re-P.P. These groups include; the ethnic traditional leaders, influential individuals (such as Mosque Imam¹³ and Sheikh) and the established institutions (such as the Khalwa and the Mosque associations). Traditional leaders were generally the center of community groups. Most of those groups transformed to individuals after the Re-P.P.

NGOs had played relatively weak role prior to the Re-P.P. The absence of NGOs from the service delivery in the area after the re-planning process is evident. An interesting hypothesis places itself at this point is whether NGOs involvement in service delivery projects is linked to low government intervention/involvement in the process (which was evident before the Re-P.P).

The decrease of number of stakeholders involved after the Re-P.P (Figuer.6-2) was accompanied by an increase of the scale and complexity of the service delivery project (see table.1). For instance, after the Re-P.P, drinking water and electricity covered both Al-shigla west and middle (1430 households), same projects before the Re-P.P covered only 56 and 77 households respectively.

8.2.0 Communication and creditability of leader:

Both drinking water service and electricity supply projects “implemented before the Re-P.P” yield a process of getting citizens consensus on two main issues; the first was the formation of the committee that represents citizens (elected by citizens). The second was to reach consensus on the service delivery arrangement/plan. The land ownership issue, which was not legally recognized by central planning authorities, might have affected citizens’ participation. In this regard, many citizens looked at having the water pipeline and electricity line poles next to their property edges as a safeguard from future property change by planning authorities. Public authorities, on the other hand were hesitant to go for a comprehensive service-delivery plan prior to the Re-P.P due to the same land issue.

While the administration change that brought P.Cs as citizens representatives yielded in better communication between P.Cs and decision-making authorities (Figuer.6-2), the relationship between citizens and P.Cs was weak (Figuer.6-2). Many citizens believe that personal interest of P.Cs member

¹³ The title of the Mosque or Khalwa religious leader.

was higher than public interest. Nonetheless, projects implemented after the Re-P.P were designed and approved without negotiating their outcomes with citizens. Collaboration between citizens and P.Cs in the project implemented after the re-planning process was minimal. At this point, it must be noted that although citizens were not very much satisfied with P.Cs, the strong relationship between P.Cs and local government “drawn by P.C Act of 1992” accelerated the process of project planning and thus implementation.

8.3.0 Level of citizen’s control:

The technical nature of the two projects types studied placed limitation on the level of citizens’ control. Nonetheless, unlike post Re-P.P, local citizens and community leaders initiated the service delivery projects. The result was relatively higher citizens control over the initial stages of the projects implemented.

Projects studied showed that public authorities generally consider C.P as a tool to reduce the cost (financial, social and political) and as a tool to recruit labor without really involving citizens. This was evident in Khartoum State evaluation program of the “National Comprehensive Strategy” (NCS 1992-2002). In which 93% of the cost of projects implemented during this period (including those of Al-shigla) was actually covered by citizens (table.2).

Table.2: State contribution vs Community contribution in service delivery projects in the NCS-Khartoum state evaluation¹⁴. (In million SP)

Division	State contribution (in thousand SP)	Community Contribution	Community contribution vs State Contribution
Water	92.380	1,227.334	93 %
Electricity	40.922	543.532	93 %

In this regard, participation in service delivery projects before the Re-P.P started quite early in the process. Citizens were often consulted regarding the projects but participation process was not “ongoing”. Participation after the Re-P.P started relatively late in the process (after project agreement was reached) and was never an ongoing process.

8.4.0 Capacities and resources:

While CLE and UBE show a decrease in citizens control in service delivery projects implemented after the Re-P.P (Figuer.4 and 5-3), the initiation of the professional service delivery projects after the Re-P.P increases the complexity of the projects (higher water pressure, larger area to cover) (see table.1). “Security of land tenure coupled with higher land prices that Al-shigla had witnessed after the re-planning process participated in creating a relatively higher income environment compared to that before” (Al-nasry, 2009). Higher citizens’ economic capacity was also evident¹⁵.

The high volume of water and electricity required for Al-shigla after the Re-P.P shows more complex planning issues. According to the Spatial Planning and Land Disposition Act of 1994, these arrangements require the approval of the state planning authority (which was not the case prior to Re-P.P).

At this point, it should be noted that higher level of citizens’ control would not guarantee better project results. Citizens’ capacities (technical, economic and education) are equally important when looking at level of citizens’ control.

To sum-up, the results of comparing C.P in the service delivery before and after the RE-P.P against the evaluation framework are shown in Table.3.

¹⁴ Source: Ministry of Planning and Investment, Evaluation of the third program of the comprehensive national strategy.
¹⁵ Land prices have increased up to two fold after the Re-P.P.

Table .3: The application of the evaluation framework elements on the two types of C.P in service delivery projects (before and after the Re-P.P)-Higher values are marked with “A” and highlighted.

	Stakeholders involved	Level of Control				Relationships among Stakeholders				Capacities and Resources of participants			
	Spectrum of stakeholders	Level of interest among participants	Level of community control	Relationship among stakeholders	Credibility of leaders	Earliness of participation	Openness of interest discussion	Information transfer	Level of technicality	Income level	Social entrepreneur	Ethnicity	Level of project complexity
C.P in projects Before the Re-P.P	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A			-	A	
C.P in projects after the Re-P.P				A					A	A	-	-	A

As shown in table.3, three out of the four-participation framework elements does show higher value in projects implemented before the Re-P.P.

Results observed in table.3 generally support the argument raised at the beginning of this article. In another words, Nafeer-driven, traditional forms of community participation dominated before the Re-P.P show higher values of “stakeholders involved”, higher “level of control” and better “relationships among stakeholders”. Participation in services delivery projects after the Re-P.P has shown higher values of capacities and resources.

Results observed cannot easily be generalized as they depend on the nature of the case study covered, CLE, UBE and the evaluation framework used. Nonetheless, they managed to point out some strength and weakness of each types of participation based on our evaluation framework.

9.0 Conclusion

Several advantages and disadvantages of both forms of C.P in service delivery projects are observed here. For instance, after the Re-P.P, several problems and constrains can be traced in relations to community participation in service delivery in Al-shigla.

The first problematic issue is that community participation in projects studied is restricted to citizens’ participation in financing the project. It is also happen late in the process (financing and implementation stages).

The second problematic issue related to how citizens were represented in the process. Peoples Committees are not truly citizen’s delegates. Moreover they often get involved to express their believes and interests rather than citizens’.

The third problematic issue is that community participation in service delivery projects is largely seen as a process that includes three main players (public authorities, citizens and peoples committees).

Other community groups, NGOs and research institutions have no role in the process.

Projects studied showed several advantages of both approaches. For instance community participation before the re-planning process proofed that:

- It provides citizens with relatively more control on their issues and therefore more citizens’ satisfaction.
- It sustains better chances for interest’s expression.
- High level of well-connected community groups is also observed.

The main advantage of C.P in service delivery projects after the re-planning process lies behind the higher level of public authorities commitment and attention. Thus, technical and operational aspects are rapidly achieved.

At this point, it’s essential to note that, before the re-planning process, property right proofed it self as an essential element that affects C.P in services delivery projects. The nature of land ownership system affects the level and the quality of both citizens and government participation.

To conclude, we suggest that at early stages of settlement development, it is necessary to consider the existing social and administration structure as a method of building consensus in service delivery projects. Traditional forms of community participation yield better citizens’ satisfaction and coordination with community leaders (as shown in CLE and UBE). This is necessary up to the integration of the settlement into the legal fabric.

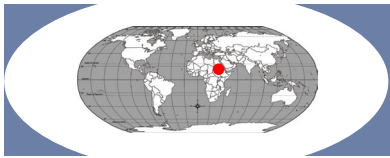
Also, rather than considering community participation as a relationship between public agencies and citizens (see Figuer.6), C.P in service delivery projects should include the diverse stakeholders that might have legitimate interest in the projects.

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Notes:

In this article, the terms "participation tools" and "participation methods" are used to represent the same mechanism. In addition, the two terms “community participation” and “community involvement” are used to refer to the same meaning of involving citizens.



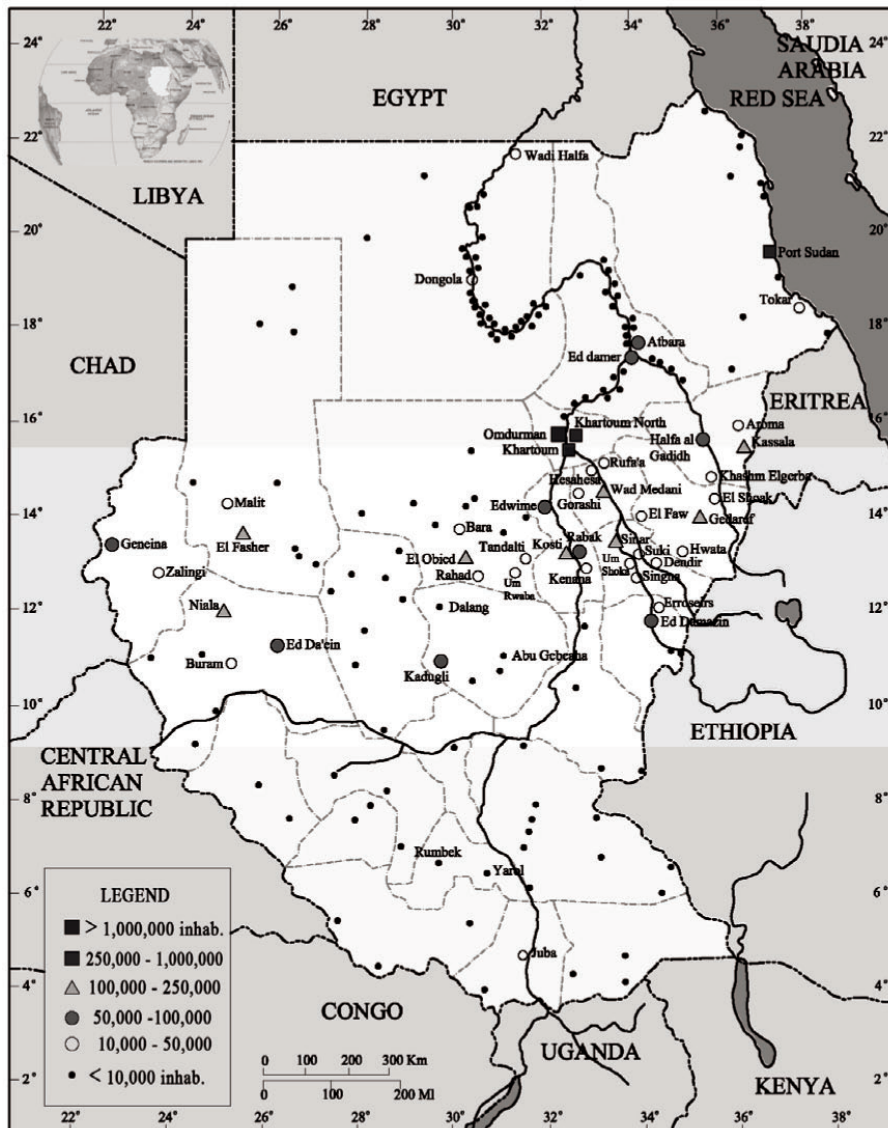
SUDAN

SUBSAHARAN AFRICA



GENERAL COUNTRY INFORMATION

Sudan is the largest country on the African continent covering 2,506,000 sq. km in which water covers 129,810 sq km and land covers 2.376 million sq km. Bordering the Red Sea, between Egypt and Eritrea, in a long coastal line of 853 km, the country has borders with eight African countries: Central African Republic 1,165 km; Chad 1,360 km; Democratic Republic of the Congo 628 km; Egypt 1,273 km; Eritrea 605 km; Ethiopia 1,606 km; Kenya 232 km; Libya 383 km and Uganda 435 km.



Map 1: Location

- Population

Most of the population lives along the river Nile and its tributaries and the most densely settled area is at the juncture of the White Nile and the Blue Nile. Desert occupies a large area of land, reason why the country is some times described as a longitudinal oasis.

- Total population: 34.9 (millions) in 2003



- Annual population growth rate (%), 2003 - 2015= 1.9%
- Urban population (% of total) = 38.9%
- Climate: tropical in the south; arid desert in the north; rainy season varies by region (April to November)
- Major languages: Arabic; Nubian, others.
- Economic overview. GDP per capita value (PPP US\$) is 1,910. Sudan has made a very good turn around from a struggling to a very strong economy. Crude oil now dominates Sudan's exports and constitutes the main source of the country's income. Although agriculture is still Sudan's most important sector it contributes less than oil to the country's GDP. Estimates for 2003 indicate that the service sector is the leading contributing sector to Sudan's GDP: 41%; followed by agriculture 38.7% and industry 20.3%.

PART I: PLANNING FRAMEWORK

- **Administrative structure**

Sudan is a Federal Republic. The supreme authority is based on the federal system. Within the federal system the country is organised in states (Wilayah; singular Wilaya), municipalities (Mahaliyat), localities and popular committees (Iijan shabiyaat). The latter is responsible for local development and supports the localities.

There are 26 states (Wilayah): A'ali an Nil, Al Bahr al Ahmar, Al Buhayrat, Al Jazirah, Al Khartoum (the capital), Al Qadarif, Al Wahdah, An Nil al Abyad, An Nil al Azraq, Ash Shamaliyah, Bahr al Jabal, Gharb al Istiwa'iyah, Gharb Bahr al Ghazal, Gharb Darfur, Gharb Kurdufan, Janub Darfur, Janub Kurdufan, Junqali, Kassala, Nahr an Nil, Shamal Bahr al Ghazal, Shamal Darfur, Shamal Kurdufan, Sharq al Istiwa'iyah, Sinnar, Warab.

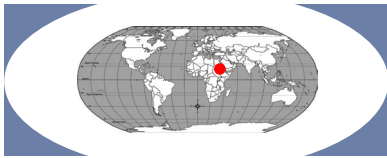
10 of these Wilayah are located in southern Sudan which has a special situation according to the country's Interim Constitution and the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) which has ended the longest civil war in Africa.

The territory of Southern Sudan comprises all lands and areas that constituted the former three Southern Provinces of Bahr el Ghazal, Equatorial and Upper Nile within their boundaries of January 1 1956, subject to the outcome of the Abyei Referendum in accordance with the provisions of Article 183 (3) of the Interim National Constitution and the South Sudan Interim Constitution. The administrative structure of the southern states is based on regions, counties, localities (payams) and villages (bomas)

Table 1: Sudan administrative structure

WILAYAH	CAPITAL CITY	AREA (SQ.KM.)	POP. EST. 2002
1. A,ali an Nil	Malakal	77,773	N.A
2. Al-BahrAl-Ahmar	Port Sudan	218,887	728,000
3. AlBuhayrat	Rumbek	40,235	N.A
4. AlJazirah	Wad Madani	23,373	3,583,000
5. AlKhartoum	Khartoum	22,142	5,139,000
6. Al-Gadarif	Gadarif	75,263	1,567,000
7. AlWahadah	Bantio	360	N.A
8. Al-Nil Al-Abyad	Rabak	30,411	1,555,000
9. Al-Nil Al-Azraq	Al-Damazin	45,844	675,000
10. Ash Shamaliyah	Dongla	348,765	603,000
11. Bahr Al-Jabal	Juba	22,956	N.A
12. Gharb Al-Istiwa'iyah	Yambio	79,319	N.A
13. Gharb Barh Al-Gazal	Wau	93,900	N.A
14. Gharb Darfur	Geneina	79,460	1,653,000
15. Gharb Kurdufan	Al-Fula	111,373	1,164,000
16. Janub Darfur	Nyala	127,300	N.A
17. Janub Kurdufan	Kadugli	79,470	1,143,000
18. Junglay	Bor	122,479	N.A
19. Kassala	Kassala	36,710	1,213,000
20. Nahr An Nil	Al-Damar	122,123	936,000
21. Shamal BahrAlGazal	Awil	33,558	N.A
22. Shamal Darfur	Al-Fashir	296,420	1,552,000
23. Shamal Kurdufan	Al-Obeid	185,302	1,530,000
24. Sharq Al Istiwa'iyah	Kapoita	82,542	N.A
25. Sinnar	Singa	37,844	1,236,000
26. Warab	Warab	31,027	N.A
Total	-	2,347,063	N.A

Notes: (1)-included in Bahr al Gazal., (2)-included in Sharg al Istiwa'iyah; N.A: Not Available



SUDAN

SUBSAHARAN AFRICA



- Administrative divisions

- President of the Republic (elected by universal suffrage)
- National Congress (Parliament) 75% elected by universal suffrage
- Ministers and Council of Ministers (nominated by the President). The Council of Ministers constitutes the supreme federal executive authority
- Wali (State Governor) elected by general votes
- State Ministers nominated by the Wali
- Commissioner (Mutamad), head of localities nominated by the Wali
- 131 Mahaliyat headed by Mutamad.

- Federal relations

There is a Federal Government Chamber responsible for federal and state government co-ordination, communication and organisation. All communications between the federal government and the 10 southern states have to be channelled through the Government of South Sudan.

- Legislative branch

The bicameral body consists of the National Assembly (450 seats appointed by the National Congress Party (NCP) 52%; Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) 28%, Northern Opposition 14% and Southern Opposition 6%. Members serve four-year terms), and the Council of States.

- Legal system

It is based on the English Common Law, the Islamic Law (Sharia) and the consensus of the people. In the case of Southern Sudan, legislation reflects the values and the customs of the people of Sudan, their traditions and religious beliefs.

• Administrative competences for planning

A three tier system is in charge of the organisation and administration of physical planning:

- First level: National

The 1994 Physical Planning and Land Disposal Act established a National Council for Physical Planning (NCPP) which is responsible for physical planning at national level. This council is chaired by the Federal Minister of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning (FMESP). The Councils' main duties and responsibilities include the following:

- formulating the national spatial policies and strategies
- coordinating the activities of the parties involved in physical planning process
- conducting research on, and studies of physical planning, land use, transportation, town and village infra structure and services, in collaboration with the planning authorities at different levels
- reviewing structure plans adopted by regional (state) authorities prior to the approval by the Federal Cabinet of Ministers (FCM)
- approval of urban agglomerations and settlement systems and hierarchy for the big national development schemes, or those encroaching different states.
- approval of land conversions in plans adopted by the FCM, excluding conversions of open public spaces
- monitoring of physical planning activities at state level
- preparing the schemes of the physical planning laws necessary to implement urban and spatial development policies and strategies
- managing urban planners training programmes.



The membership of the NCPP includes all State Ministers responsible for Physical Planning and Public Utilities (SMPPPU), and other members who represent those national ministries whose activities affect physical planning (e.g. Department of Survey and the Ministries of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Finance and Economic Planning and Local Government). It also includes five appointed members who have experience of, and are responsible for authorising investments which affects physical plans.

Ultimately the Federal Cabinet of Ministers (FCM) must approve all physical or structure plans prepared by the state authorities for different urban agglomerations in different states. These plans are referred to the MESP which refers them, in turn, to the MESP for submission to the FCM.

- **Second level: Regional (States or Wilayat)**

The State (regional) Ministry of Physical Planning and Public Utilities (SMPPUs) is the regional body responsible for physical planning at this level.

The State Committee for Physical Planning (SCPP) is responsible for licensing and granting planning permissions at the state level (Wilaya). This committee is constituted by a decree issued by the state (appointed) governor (wali), acting on the recommendation of the State Minister of Physical Planning and Public Utilities. The appointed members of this committee are representatives of different government related departments and authorities (technocrats), in addition to three other professional physical planning experts (non-technocrats).

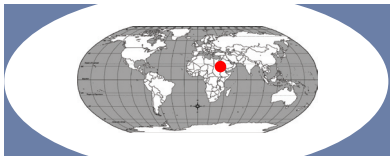
The main duties and responsibilities of the State Planning Committee are:

- preparing the state (Wilaya) policies and strategies for physical planning and housing that should conform with the National Policies and Strategies
- approving planning schemes and development plans for cities, towns and villages of the Wilaya, pending their approval of the state minister of the MPPPU
- approving of detailed plans for vacant or developed areas within the approved development plans
- approving State housing schemes
- approving development plans for settlements located within big economic development projects
- approving and monitoring re-planning and urban renewal schemes
- issuing land development permissions and state physical planning guidelines/directives and building codes
- land use conversions and planned areas for both developed or undeveloped sites
- land classification
- approving of state transportation plans
- issuing appropriate bye-laws to conserve historical and heritage buildings and sites
- formation of planning sub-committees upon the approval of state ministers of MPPPU.

- **Third level: Local Level (Mahaliyat)**

According to the Local Government Act of 2003, which provides the establishment of citizens' popular committees and local elected councils, the planning duties and responsibilities of this level include:

- construction and maintenance of storm water drainage system and drinking water establishment in rural areas
- construction of public rest houses and landscape and recreation areas
- lighting of roads and public spaces
- encouragement of public participation in road construction and paving
- maintenance of internal routes and dirt tracks
- allocation of water and land transportation terminals
- organisation of animal collection folds (Zaraib) for vermin animals
- organisation of low-rise buildings (ground floor only) including granting of building permits
- protection of land from encroachments and squatting



SUDAN

SUBSAHARAN AFRICA



Administrative structure and planning implementation						
	LEVEL	SIZE	DESCRIPTION	NAME	SCALE	DESCRIPTION
1	National (Federal)	30.9 million Inhab. [estimated]	Ministry of Environment and physical planning (MEPP) "The Nation council for physical Planning" (NCP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Socio-economic plans Policy statement Strategy Legislations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Text Diagrams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Long term strategy (10-25 year) Federal Laws Legal Structure Organizational Structure for physical planning Building and planning Cods. Planning guidelines
2	Regional Level States (Wilayat)	26 States (Wilayat) (5 million inhab. In Khartoum state [estimated])	State Ministry of physical planning and Public utilities (SMPPPU) "State Physical planning Committee" (SPPC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regional dev. Plans Structure plans Housing projects Urban design projects Action plans Infrastructure planning and projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maps Text statement Diagrams 1/250.000 1/10.000 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New physical development proposals Urban and rural growth boundaries City and Towns planning Bylaws Building Codes Planning Ordinance Physical planning guideline
3	Local Level (Mahaliya)	(131) Municipalities (Mahaliyat)	State Ministry of physical planning and public utilities "SMPPPU" branches at the Mahaliyat "Local physical planning committee" (LPPC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Detailed plans Service allocation Subdivision and amalgamation approvals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maps Diagrams 1/5000 1/2500 1/1000 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allocation of Social services Delegated planning powers from the (SPPC) Allocation of general service buildings such as (mosques, schools, health, police, stations, kindergarten, etc.

• This Level is activated only at the National Capital "Khartoum". Wilayat AL-Khartoum.
 • Southern states (10 no) has different structure since they have a large level of self governance according to the interim constitution and comprehensive peace agreement

- proposing of residential, agricultural and industrial land development and investment
- helping village planning.

• Planning legislation

- Main planning legislation

- Town Re-Planning Act, 1950 (Abolished by Physical Planning act 1994)
- Physical Planning and Land Disposal Act, 1985 (abolished by Physical Planning Act 1994)
- Physical Planning Act, 1994 (Federal Act)
- Environmental Conservation Act, 1975 (Federal)
- Local Government Act, 2003 (Federal)
- Non Registered Lands Act, 1971 (Federal)
- Lands Settlement and Registration Act, 1925 (Federal)
- Land Demarcation & Survey Act, 1905 (amended 2001)

The first physical planning Act of Sudan was put in force in 1950 (Town Re-Planning Act). After independence of the country, the Town and Village Planning Act of 1956 was put in force, associated with the Town and Village Planning Ordinance. Even before that a planning scheme - the Urban Lands Disposal Scheme - was issued in 1947. The main features of this scheme were as follows:

- abolishing land acquisition through the freehold system
- classifying the residential lands in three classes (first, second and third) and the commercial ones in two classes (first and second)
- introducing the leasehold system for land acquisition
- introducing the open auctions system for land acquisition



In 1947 the first Central Town Planning Committee was constituted by a Decree issued by the General Governor of Sudan. This Committee was to plan the extensions to big urban centres, which at that time witnessed a mass inward population after the Second World War, together with the establishment of the first industrial areas in some of these centres.

In 1950 the Town Re-Planning Act sought to improve the physical conditions of the big urban centres introducing the necessary roads improvements, regulating the plot shapes and sizes, and providing for public transportation terminals and open spaces.

After Sudan gained its independence in the 1956, the Town and Village Planning Act empowered the Minister of Local Governments establish a Central Town Planning Committee to advise and assist him to perform his job. In 1957 a Town and Village Re-planning Ordinance was issued to help implementing the above mentioned Act.

The 1950 Re-Planning Act was revised in 1956 and in 1961, till at last it was cancelled (abolished) upon the issuance of the Physical Planning and Land Disposal Acts of 1985.

The present legal basis for physical planning in Sudan is the Physical Planning and Land Disposal Act of 1994 which amalgamates the two Acts of 1985. The 1994 Act is a Federal Act which provides that any building or land development requires licensing by the Town Planning Board at the required level.

Licenses are issued if the proposed developments conform with the approved detailed or outline Schemes. These schemes must conform with regional outline Schemes which in turn must conform with the national outline Schemes. The regions and/or states can however issue their own building bye-laws, building codes and other related controls.

PART II: PLANNING PROCESS

- **Planning system**

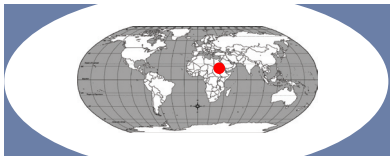
- **Plan making**

Ten major types of changes are the subject of spatial planning:

- changing of land uses: housing, agricultural purposes, etc.
- changes for infrastructure: roads, water, sewerage, etc.
- changes in the dimensions of buildings: height, density, etc.
- regulating land development: quality of urban life
- managing urban growth: urban growth boundaries, urban renewals
- reducing the regional disparity between regions: balanced development
- regulating, de-integrating of squatters, IDPs, adjacent villages and classifying human settlements
- environmental conservation and protection
- conservation of historical sites and architectural heritage
- land disposal and acquisition for public and private purposes

- **Who gives consent?**

The physical planning structure aims to ensure that lower order plans are not in conflict with policies or strategies set at the higher level. As a consequence states (Wilaya) and urban (town-city) plans need consent at the national level, while local plans require consent at states (Wilaya) level. More specifically consent for change is given by:



SUDAN

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LEVEL	TYPE OF ARRANGEMENT
National Level (Federal Government)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legislations and policy statements • Formulation of national physical development policies, strategies and guidelines • Final approval of regional and physical development plans • Training of physical planners
Regional Level States (Wilayat)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation and approval of regional, urban, village physical development plans • Preparation, implementation of housing schemes at the regional level • Defining urban growth boundaries • Upgrading approvals of settlements (village to town) • Regional physical planning policies and strategies • Regional land development (urban and rural) • Re-planning schemes • Regional by laws and building codes • Land use conversion • Co-ordination between urban development parties • Allocation of lands for new settlement (regional)
Local Level Municipalities - Mahaliyat (Town + Village)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Issuance (granting) of building permits • Detailed plans • Implementation of plans and projects • Approval of residential plots subdivision and amalgamation • Allocation of social services within the approved development plans

- *Federal (national) Government*

It is responsible for changes which relate to the organization of development and location of new settlements associated with big economic development projects, national intra-regional projects, and securing co-ordination between different spatial planning authorities at regional levels. A Federal Ministry for Environment and Spatial Development and the higher Council for Physical Development have been established for this purpose.

- *State Governments (Wilayat)*

The Wilayat are responsible for controlling urban and rural land use changes. They are answerable however to the Ministry of Physical Planning and Public Utilities which is advised by the State Planning Committee.

- *Local Level (Mahaliyat)*

Authorities at this level are primary responsible for changes concerned with land use, land subdivisions and allocation of social services within approved plans.

- **Participation and appeal**

Affected parties (individuals, organisations or authorities) can object at different planning levels. For decisions taken at the state level (Wilayat) appeals can be to the State Physical Planning Committee, but appeals on the decision of the Committee are addressed to the State Minister of Physical Planning and Public Utilities. Appeals concerning regional planning schemes can be made to the State Courts but in the case of unauthorized developments, the appeals are made to a special appealing committee, the Higher Appealing Committee for Unauthorized Settlements.

A federal authority known as Diwan–Al-Mazalim (Public Grievances and Correction Board) has been established to deal jurisdictionally with complaints against all government decisions including physical planning decisions.

In the case of redeveloping built up areas for public purposes, the state has to advertise in the public press and explain its interest in replanning a specific area. In such circumstances people can object directly to the physical planning authority (i.e. the State Planning Committee and the Minister).



PART III: EVALUATION

• Application of the planning system in practice

Before the independence in 1956 the very limited physical planning activity was focused on the capital city of Khartoum. Plans were made for defence purposes (during the early Turkiay period) and for accommodating new coming colonizers (Macklean Plan 1910) at the beginning of the Anglo-Egyptian condominium.

After 1956 master plans were prepared specifically for the National Capital of Khartoum (Greater Khartoum) in 1959. In this plan the grid iron residential subdivision type was introduced for the first time into Sudanese town planning. This approach has been applied to all Sudanese towns until the present days.

The main problem which affected physical planning performance in Sudan was the lack of recognition of the important role of physical planning, both by the government and the public. The economic development plans allocated only a small amount of resources to implementing planning schemes. The uninterrupted civil wars and social unrest of the country are also major factors affecting physical development in practice.

Planning practice in Sudan is mainly concentrated at the regional level, where most of the development plans are prepared for the towns and the cities within these regions, without regard to their regional context. No regional plans were ever prepared. At national level the main body for physical planning - the National Council for Physical Planning - is not fully operational. Two technical committees were formed to advice the NCPP concerning the evaluation of two development regional plans for the capitals namely Kassala and Gedarif. In addition a national committee was established to prepare the National Physical Planning Directory.

Little planning activity has taken place because the Mahaliyat have been granted only very limited delegated competences instead of real planning powers.

• Distance between planning legislation and physical development

The main draw backs of the planning system which have been observed in practice and which required improvements include:

- the incomplete coverage of the planning system for the country as a whole, due to civil wars, natural disasters and social unrest
- the sprawl of the Sudanese towns led to very low density towns and cities
- the absence of regional plans and legislation
- the absence of transparency and good governance in planning
- the unauthorised and squatter settlements around most of the Sudanese cities
- the lack of coordination between the different planning bodies and organisations
- the lack of respect of the planning system and the regulations showed by politics and the general public
- although the Interim Constitution gives the States the right to launch their own legislation, most states have not yet established their planning organisations because of lack of adequate funds and their dependence on the central government
- the inefficient participation of all stakeholders in planning slows down the preparation and adoption of plans.
- the lack of a clear definition of role of physical planning
- political interventions and political instability
- the lack of qualified experts and transference of experiences, especially at regional and local levels. As a result the plans lack credibility.
- the length of time taken to approve and adopt plans
- most of all, previously adopted urban plans are obsolete and surpassed (no goals are achieved)
- the Mahaliyat lack the powers required to undertake their diverse and wide-ranging functions
- the undefined power boundaries, especially between local (Mahaliyat) and state levels.



- **Future prospects of the planning system**

Some progress has been made since the advent of Peace and the discovery of oil.

Moh'd Nageeb Suleiman
Ibrahim Zakaria Bahreldin
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2006

Community Participation and Urban Development: Evaluation of Community Participation practice in the Sudanese Capital region.

One of the main obstacle that hinder meaningful community participation in Sudan is the nature of the successive governments that has ruled the country since independence, as community participation is considered a “democratic process” the country has witness less than 11 years of multi-party democratic governance since independence in 1956, frequent military coup dominates the political sphere in the country, in contrast, citizens has “ *a strong sense of egalitarianism and a tradition of electing tribal and local notables, coupled with an easily observable insistence on verbal give-and-take regardless of rank or position of the authority* ” (P.K.bechtold,1990). Yet, it was very hard for the two democratic periods in the country history to promote the concept of community involvement as they have applied a very central decision making process that makes it hard to monitor the very vast country, thus, limiting Community participation to a certain process of Squatter development , illegal settlements upgrading, or small scale citizens initiated projects that mostly goes to the level of “self-help” rather than community participation. This has created a situation that citizens has been denied access to planning process, allowing state to decides what is suitable for them.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the process of community participation in Sudan in legislative planning (planning acts and bylaws) and community-level plans based on several projects studied to determine to what extend the concept of community participation has been used or abused in Sudanese planning practice. The methodology used in this paper is based on literature review backed-up with a fieldwork and semi-structured interviews with community leaders, local councillors and members of legislative council, the subject of this paper is the capital region of Sudan (Khartoum), three case studies that represents the local level at the city of Khartoum has been chosen for the study (Fig-01).



Figure 1: Location of the country, City of Khartoum and the Case-studies Areas.

1. Legislative Planning and Community Participation:

1.1 Community Partciapation and planning laws:

Planning legislation and planning laws in Sudan (which are mostly inherited or deprived from the British colonial administration) have very few contents that related to community

participation. The legislative framework of community participation in Sudan is comprised of at least four main different types of documents, which are explained below;

1. The Interim Constitution of the republic of 2005 and Local government acts.
2. Federal Government planning acts and laws (Fig.02).
3. State Government planning acts and laws.
4. Local governments Guidance and Regulations.

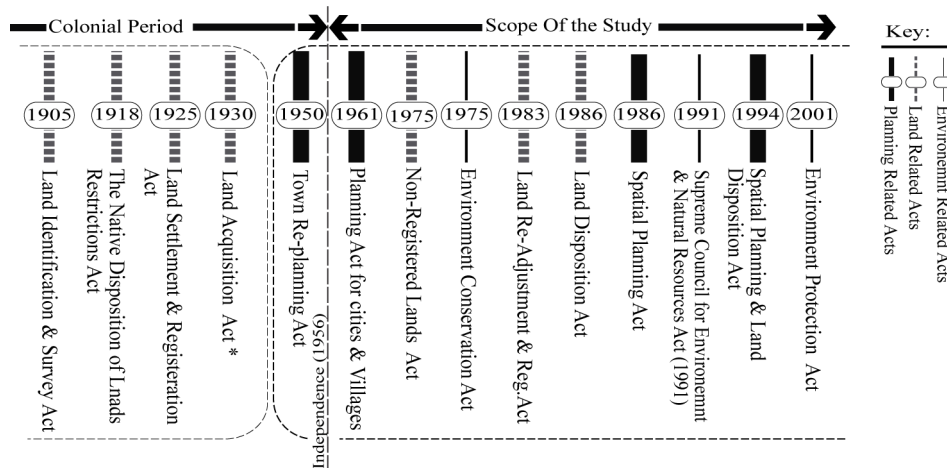


Figure 2: Planning Acts and laws of the Sudanese planning sphere. Source: Compiled By Author from various sources.

At local government planning level there are no planning laws and acts, (only guidance and regulations)¹. Physical Planning–related acts and laws in the Sudanese capital region from the other hand are based on various planning regulations that deal with three main issues;

- “Environment-related” Acts (Environmental conservation act 1975 (Federal) and Environment protection act 2001(Federal)).
- “Land administration-related” Acts, (Non-registered land Act of 1971(Federal), Lands Settlement act of 1983(Federal) and land disposition act of 1986(Federal).
- Physical development and planning (this includes 5 different act that will be covered as below);

The 1950 Town re-Planning Act:

1950 Town re-Planning Act was the first planning act that deals with cities and towns in the country history of planning bylaws, this act was basically focusing in the area re-planning as the number of squatter settlements was increasing. Community participation in this act was achieved through obligating the government to show their intension to develop any re-planning scheme and then later make this scheme public by using appropriate media, re-planning affected citizens also have the right to appeal against the “re-planning” committee decisions.

1961 Planning Act for Cities and Villages:

The 1961 Planning Act for Cities and Villages although it was the first planning act enacted after the country independence in 1956, yet it was the act that has minimally addressed C.P. Apart from obligating the government to show their interests in initiating any planning scheme to public (which was first introduces by 1950 town re-planning act) there

was no article that promotes the C.P, this can arguably be referred to the kind of the government (Military dictatorship) that took the power a year before the law was enacted.

1986 Spatial Planning Act:

1986 Spatial Planning Act has witness some minor changes towards involving citizens in the planning process, first this law has been enacted during the second democracy in the country, so the political environment was somehow assisting the act to be put forward. As a result of this act a new set of planning measure at both state and federal level has been introduced. For the first time the “Village re-planning Committee” has been established to be responsible of tackling the growing squatters settlements re-planning projects of the big cities (Khartoum and Port Sudan), this act also introduce the National Physical Planning Committee (NPPC) of which four of its members are nominated by the minster, this Act has also maintained the government responsibility of informing public about their intension to initiate plans.

1994 Spatial Planning & Land Disposition Act:

The 1994 Spatial Planning & Land Disposition have been widely looked at as a noticeable transformation in the legal reference of the Physical planning development in the country as it was the first act that combines together both Physical Planning and Land Administration Laws in a single legal Document, A part from increasing the number of (NPPC)ⁱⁱ to Five members (Also Nominated), 1994 act has initiated a good Moves in lowering the decision-making process to state level by requiring all states to form their own planning committees that are responsible of approving plansⁱⁱⁱ, this act also has given for the first time the state minster of planning the right to initiated re-planning projects in their areas without asking the state governor approval.

Planning acts and bylaws has always addressed the issue of community involvement in the Scope of “re-planning process”; it’s until 1994 (Spatial Planning & Land Disposition act) that C.P process has been apprehensively introduced to the sphere of urban areas Development. However, at both federal and state level, there is no legal procedure for neither direct nor representative citizens participation; a part from the four/five “Appointed” members of the planning committee (as Noted in 1985,1994 physical planning acts), “those members are mostly either previous Planning Practitioners or University Professors”. Yet, there is no legislation that solely dedicated to community Participation, the legal references of planning machines in Sudan has failed to addressed clearly the concept of C.P a part from the following four issues:

- The obligation of the government planning Institutions to show their interest to initiate Planning/re-planning projects to public through an appropriate media and/or public Gazette^{iv}.
- Obligations of the government to publish approved plans for the “re-planned” areas in public Gazettes accompanied by schematic layouts and details and information about where citizens can see the Approved plans^v.
- The structure and members nomination procedure of the Planning / re-planning committee at national and local level^{vi}.
- The right for the re-planning projects effected citizens to appeal^{vii}.

The Sudanese planning laws and legislation therefore have apprehensively addressed the question of who participates, how and when in quite few of the previous planning acts, yet, the Focus of C.P articles in Sudanese Planning acts focuses more on Squatters settlements and re-planning issues through a very informative nature of involvement rather than urban areas development.

2. Community participation at the local level (Case Studies):

Three case studies (4 projects) has been chosen representing three different planning approach, a re-planning project, squatter settlement relocation project and a service provision project for an already planned and a newly re-planned area, the three case studies are Al-shigla (an old settlement in Omdurman City), Ishash Fallata (a relocation project in the City of Khartoum) and Cafoory project as been studied by (Hamid,G.M.2000) in Khartoum North.

2.1 Al-shigla Study Area:

Soon after the preparation of the Khartoum Structure plan of 1990, several re-planning projects has been initiated at the capital region mainly under the supervision of the Village planning committee, yet its important to note that the result of many of these projects besides residents getting legal land ownership document “*is neatly demarcated streets and nothing more*”^{viii} Al-shigla which is geographically composed of three physical segment “east, *wasat* (Central) and west” is one of these areas that have been re-planned accordingly.

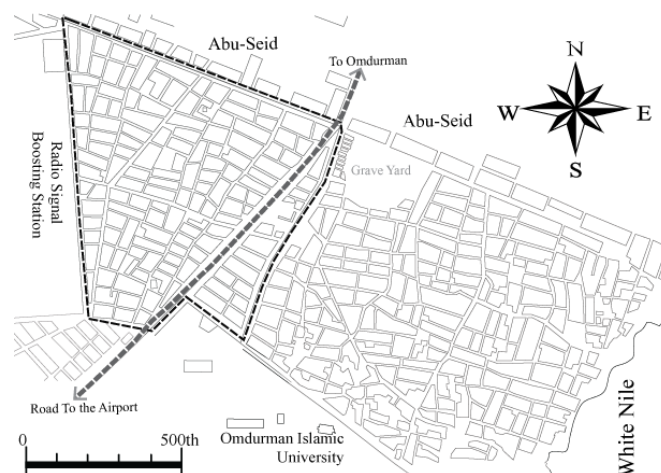


Figure 3: layout of Al-shigla Case study area (Approved plan shown in dotted line)

Source: redrawn from the original Plan obtained from Survey Department, Omdurman Office.

Al-shigla is a very old village that was rapidly swallowed into the urban fabric, lays in the west bank of the White Nile south Omdurman province, represents a natural extension of its urban neighbour (*Abu-Seid*). Extending some 189.6 Hectare with a very high density and poor living conditions, Al-shigla represents a homogeneous social group dominated by three tribes mainly (*Gawamaw, Kawahla and Gomoeia*). Located 8Km from the Centre of Khartoum, has given the area some importance especially that it lays along the arterial road to the new international Airport (under construction), which divide the area into two main parts.

2.1.1 Community participation in the re-planning Process^{ix}:

Al-shigla area has gone under a re-planning process since 1992 (*approved 1994*) as part of the state of Khartoum efforts to cope with sprawl and squatters, the re-planning decision was taken at the state level followed by forming a re-planning committee from both state and municipal planners (backed up with land surveyor, sociologist and councillors), this committee has then been backed up at the local level by the public committees and *Irefien*^x. Community participation Al-shigla re-planning process was conceived by involving three main actors including:

- “Nominated” members in the re-planning committee (As per 1950,1985 & 1994 planning act). To provide some technical and administrative advice.
- Popular committees (which is considered as citizens representatives as per 1989 and 1992 Popular committees law) to mobilize citizens and carry out administration work in regards to the planning committee.
- Irefien whom were the Primary reference for the re-planning committee to get decisions about who is liable to own a land.

The re-planning committee normally held face-to-face meetings with selected families that are affected by the re-planning to define landownership, no public meeting is conducted, Public Committees (not elected) represents citizens at this process, many citizens has complained that public committees represents some individual interest and not necessary the public interests. The re-planning process of Al-shigla is shown in (Figure 4).

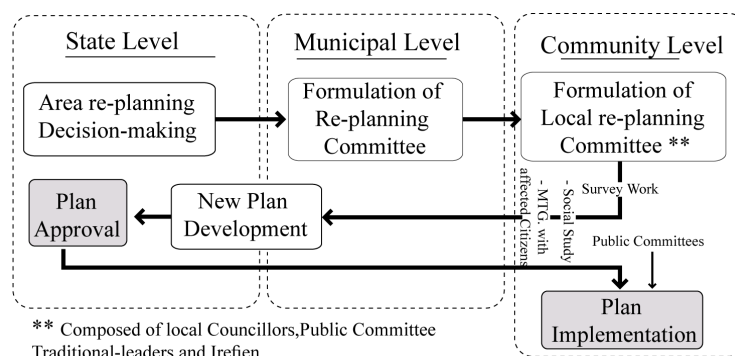


Figure 4: Al-shigla re-location Project process Source: developed by the author

2.1.2 Community participation in citizens initiated after re-planning:

Soon after the re-planning process is finished and the plan was approved, citizens have started mobilizing themselves to sustain a proper drinking water and electricity supply services, a committee is then composed of some citizens (backed-up at later stage with public committees) to deal with the issues. The committee held several meetings with the state planning authorities and the water department resulting on an agreement that citizens will get a subsidized price for water pipes plus the necessary technical support, In return, Citizens should bear the rest of the cost which has been divided among the households to be paid in instalments, electricity and water departments has supervised the Installation work that is done by a private contractors (with some financially incapable citizens as workers for

the water service project), by the year 2003 the electricity provision project was finally finished followed by the water service. Soon after this project is completed and despite the fact that the 1994 plan was not satisfactory implemented, the land price has risen at the area, resulting in many people selling their lands and re-settling in other cheaper places.

2.2 *Ishash Fallata Case Study*

Ishash Fallata relocation project has started as part of the greater Khartoum Action program in the 1990s Structure Plan developed by Doxiadis Associates and A.Moneim Mustafa, the project has got a great importance as an important Urban renewal program since it was one of five pilot projects assigned to promote the urban development of the city of Khartoum,

The original settler of this neighbourhood descends from (Fallata tribe) which is originally from West Africa, Their old site of “Ishash Fallata” was located south of Khartoum race course, 5 kilometres from the city centre extending 77hectare, well serviced with transportation access and electricity, but with very vulnerable health and security conditions.

A limited participatory approach has been achieved during the relocation stage; citizens have been consulted and asked to contribute to the city planning department efforts through “a Relocation Committee” composed locally form Planners, a Councillor, a Sociologist, NGOs, Irefien and Native Leaders, Ishash Fallata social and ethnic structure “as much as Al-shigla” was very Homogeneous, resulting in strong social capital that makes it easy to reach a consensus among citizens. Many local /international NGOs and research institutions were either involved directly in the project or indirectly through frequent advices provided. Public committees have no role in this specific project (as it started before they have been legally introduced).

Citizens with the assistance of the Relocation Committee members has disassemble their houses, taking the parts that can be used in their new neighbourhoods, NGOs were involved in teaching citizens some Various low-cost construction techniques, although citizens has not participated in the plan making process of their new homes, the project has resulted in a surprisingly peaceful relocation process, the new area was named by citizens as “*Al-wazeer Dagas*” showing not only their satisfaction about getting a better-serviced land but also their surprise that the re-location process was so smooth. The re-location process of Ishash Fallata is shown in (Figure 5).

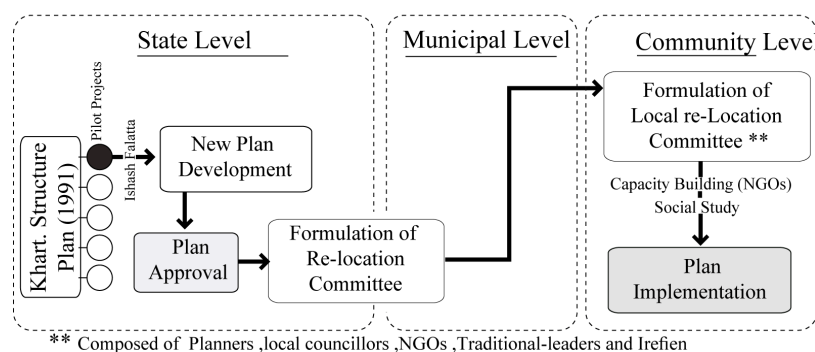


Figure 5: *Ishash Fallata re-location Project process*

Source: developed by the author

2.3 Cafoory Case Study:

The third case study, which was explained by (HAMID.G.M 2000) is Cafoory area in Khartoum north. Unlike the first two Cases, this area has a higher income groups and relatively higher level of education among citizens, the area thus is classified as a second and first class residential area according the country land subdivision structure.

(HAMID.G.M 2000), has provided the example of community initiated project in the sphere of legislative planning in Cafoory area, which is originally an agricultural land in Khartoum, covered by a land readjustment scheme, it has then been classified as a residential area. According to the readjustment process the government has to provide basic services and infrastructure to the land and sells it in relatively higher prices than the market, and then the profit is divided between the original landowners and the investor (Government). However, Practice has shown that the government mostly failed to provide the land with neither the infrastructure nor the basic services, yet, those lands are always rapidly sold out due to the high land demands.

Having suffered from lack of drinking water, citizens have formed a committee that has managed with the assistance of some volunteered engineers (some are from the water Department) to accomplish proposal of implementing drinking water service system of 24 Km lengths of pipeline, two water wells and a 5000-gallon water Tank. Citizens groups has contacted the respective government authorities (State level) which accordingly provided them with some technical assistance the cost of the network installation has been divided by the households of the area, Later the water department engineers supervised the installation of the pipe lines to insure it fits their specifications which will make it easy for the water department to mange and administered the network after installation, the project finished after six months, and the water department has taken over the administration soon after that ,the project has also been looked at as and important project that has been inaugurated by the state Governor. The process of building consensus and plan making of cafoory project is shown on (Figure 6).

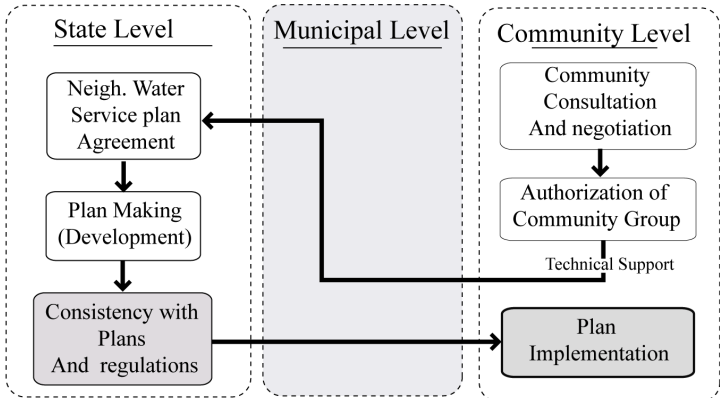


Figure 6: Cafoory Project Consensus building and plan-making process Source: developed by the author from original text in (HAMID.G.M 2000).

3. Discussions and arguments

3.1 How participation is achieved in the three case studies;

To assess how participation is being done in these three project we looked at four evaluation criteria shown in Fig.04 that are based on both interview results (al-shigla and ishash fallata) and literature review (Cafoory).

	Evaluation Criteria																			
	Stakeholders Involved (Who Participate)					Stage of Citizen Involvement				Role In Participation			Method of Participation							
	Planners	Bureaucrats	Community	Popular Committees	NGOs /CPOs	Traditional/Tribal Leaders	Project Initiation	Objective Definition	Project Plan Making	Project Implementation	Project Monitoring	No Role	Receipt	Source of Information	Participant	In Control	Sharing Cost/Asset	Workmanship	Sharing Expertise /Ideas	Taking Decisions
Al-shigla Re-planning	●	●	○	◐	-	○	-	-	◐	(N.A)	●	●	◐	○	-	●	◐	○	-	●
Al-shigal Service Provision	◐	●	○	◐	-	○	●	●	-	●	-	○	◐	◐	-	●	◐	-	○	●
Ishash Fallatta Relocation	●	●	◐	(N.A)	◐	◐	-	-	◐	-	●	●	●	○	-	◐	●	○	-	●
Cafoory Service Provisison	●	●	●	-	-	-	●	●	○	◐	-	○	◐	●	-	●	△	◐	◐	○

Figure 7: how participation is achieved in the three case studies (4 projects).

3.1.1 Who’s involved in the planning process?

The diagram shows that in the three case studies bureaucrats and planners dominates the planning process, community has some influence in case of community initiated services projects (Al-shigla and Cafoory) especially at the early stages of project (project initiation and objective definition). Popular committees have started to show up as an important player in al-shigla project (that was very soon after P.C were officially introduce in 1989/1992). Traditional leaders from the other hand seem to have a very poor role in the participation process a part from ishash fallata relocation project.

3.1.2 Stage of citizen’s participation:

The diagram also shows that participation in project initiation and objectives definition stages of government-initiated projects (Re-planning of al-shigla and relocation of ishash fallata) doesn’t exist. Plan implementation is the planning stage that is favoured with most of the participation efforts in all the four projects types studied. Project monitoring and of course plan making are actually the sole responsibility of the planning institution. Yet its interesting to see that Cafoory project has a relatively higher level of participation in plan making, this is basically due to that some engineers from within the community participated in the first feasibility study of the project (Hamid.G.M.2000), (Bhattacharyya.2006) argument of that literacy and education increases the quality of participation seems to be evident here.

3.1.3 Citizens Role in Participation:

In most of the case studies the role of citizens in the participation process is mostly seen as a recipient of a product that is being planned by an outsider or a source of information for planners and bureaucrats, citizens initiated project has slightly higher value of citizens participation, yet, its obvious that citizens has no control over project in their local communities including the ones that are initiated and financed by them, accordingly citizens are totally excluded from the governance of local projects which always goes back to government institutions.

3.1.4 Methods of Participation:

Three forms of participation methods seem to dominate citizen's involvement, these are sharing project cost, workmanship (physical participation) and of course being informed about the project as required by Town re-planning act of 1950 and 1994 physical planning act. Again Cafoory comes out as the project that has more varieties of participation methods which could possibly referred to that citizens representative have some competence if compared with Government Planners. However it's obvious then that the least participation method used was to allow citizens to take decisions. Decision-making regarding projects that affect citizens are always the responsibility of the state.

As (Fig.7) has generally shows how C.P is accomplished in the three case studies, it fails to explain the relationship between participation level and project stages, which have been explained in (Fig.8) that shows the plan-making and plan monitoring stages are the stages that gets the lowest level of participation, a noticeable increase on the participation In project implementation in all case studies is evident here, this strongly shows that participation in government-initiated plans (Al-shigla & ishsh Fallata) is very much implementation-oriented. project monitoring is always the responsibility of the government institutions.

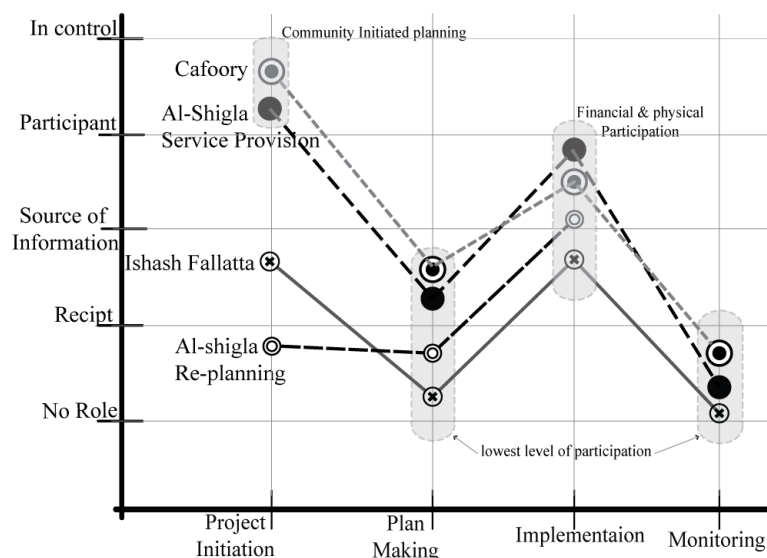


Figure 8: level of participation in relation to participation stages in the three case studies.

4. Findings and conclusions:

Generally speaking, The process of C.P in the Sudanese capital region seems as if the government is taking the advantage of people as a source of funds and cheap labour for projects that serves them without actually involve them in the decision-making (as was shown in the example of al-shigla, ishash fallata and Cafoory). Khartoum state evaluation program of the National Comprehensive Strategy (NCS 1992-2002) has also supported this as it has shown that (55% to 93%) of cost of projects implemented during this period was being covered by citizens (see Kafeel, 2001), yet, Although NCS calls for involving citizens *“community must be included to decide upon their planning priorities, plan implementation, housing project, public building provision, public space development and greening”* (Government of Sudan, 1992), yet, practices in the projects studied here shows citizens has limited access to decision-making.

Lack of comprehensive, approved and Binding plans for the city of Khartoum at both local and state level from the other hand is one of the drawback of the city participation practices, uncertainty and fear of planning project delay due to the lack of comprehensive plans might force planners/politicians to take decisions immediately without further consultation, this “Re-active” planning approach seems to be preferred by planner when comparing it with participatory planning in terms of financial and time resources. The case of ishash fallata had shown that when a project is being conducted as part of an approved plan (in this case Khartoum Structure plan of 1990) its chances to get a large spectrum of stakeholders involved (city planners, politicians, community leaders, NGOs CPOs and research institutes) is much higher.

Planning acts/laws from the other hand, although in principle requires some sort of C.P Measures to be taken, yet, these measures has a very informative nature. Citizens right to appeal against re-planning committee decisions that has been granted to them by the planning acts is not structurally supported, the local administration department of al-shigla for instance has no office that accept citizens appeals, a former councillor has noted that “citizens kept complaining that their complaints has not get any attention from neither decision-makers nor the planners”^{xi}.

It’s then necessarily that certain policies and capacity building strategies to be set for an effective community participation in the capital region especially in the recently booming and rapidly growing urban development projects, It’s also important to insure that citizens voices are being heard either directly or through their “elected” representatives to insure that they speaks for the community and not for themselves (as was shown in al-shigla).

In conclusion, Citizens initiated project in al-shigla and Cafoory despite their relatively small scale, but they have very clear and shared Goals among various participants these two elements are very essential for successful participation.

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ⁱ Sort of explanations of federal and state level planning acts at the local level.

ⁱⁱ The NPPC has been renamed by 1994 planning law as National Council of Physical Planning (NCPD).

ⁱⁱⁱ According to the same law, the state planning committees should also form Municipal planning committees for easy decision-making mechanism.

^{iv} Lands Settlement and Registration Act, 1925, article 19-c -Town Re-planning Act 1950, Article 3 & 9 - Physical planning Act 1985,Article 7- Physical Planning Act 1994,Article 12 and 19.

^v Town re-planning act of 1950 and1985.

^{vi} Town re-planning act 1950,Article 12; Town Planning Act 1985,Article 5-1; Physical planning 1994,Article 4-E & 27.

^{vii} Town re-planning act 1950,Article 4 & 22Physical planning act 1994,Article 21 and 28.

^{viii} Agnès de Geoffroy (2005). *IDPs and urban planning in Khartoum*. FMReview .No.24.Nov.2005.

^{ix} The 1994 approved plan of Al-shigla has not yet been completely implemented up to the time that this paper was written.

^x Old people that are known for their wisdom and knowledge about the community.

^{xi} Personal Interview with A. Al-Nasri (Former Councillor in Al-shigla)

4 Schedule / And Interviews Information

4.1 Ministry of Planning and Public Utilities (MPPU) and Academicians interviews

Number	Interviewee Name	Position / Job Title	Date and Place of Interview	Projects Spectrums / Topic of discussion
1	Seif Eldin Sadig Hassan	Executive Manger Khartoum New Structure Plan Prof. University of Khartoum,	Aug. 17 th 2009	C.P in planning mandates
2	Elsadig Omer	Head of Village Organization Department MPPU	Jul. 26 th 2009	Al-shigla, Al-salama, the VOP structure
3	Salah Osman Mahmoud	Head of Khartoum Structure plan high committee. Prof. University of Khartoum,	June 18 th 2009 Aug. 12 th 2009 Aug. 18 th 2009	The VOP structure. C.P in planning
4	Abdella Osman	Head of planning, MPPU	June 27 th 2009	The VOP structure
5	Moh Ali abdelhalim	Minister of Planning advisor on Environmental Issues MPPU	Aug. 17 th 2009	The VOP structure Al-shigla, Al-salama, the VOP structure C.P in planning
6	Suzan Omer	Senior planner MPPU	July 6 th 2009 August 6 th 2011	Al-salama Case study
7	Kawther Mohammed	Senior Planner and Executive member of the Soba and Kalakla planning		Al-salama Case study
8	Seddig Osman	Senior Planners, Meffit Consult New Structure plan project	Aug. 3 rd 2009 Aug. 28 th 2011 Sep. 6 th 2011	The VOP structure C.P in planning
9	Samawal Abd-Alrazig	Senior Planner	Aug. 2 nd 2009	Al-shigla Case study
10	Mona Mustafa	Ass. Prof. Omdurman Islamic University	Aug. 11 th 2011	C.P in planning The essence of Nafeer
11	Abdelrahaman Mustafa	Head of UNHABITAT office, Khartoum State	Aug. 19 th 2009 Aug. 25 th 2009	C.P in planning The essence of Nafeer

4.2 Al-shigla Case Study

Number	Interviewee Name	Position / Job Title	Date and Place of Interview
1	Omda Mohammed	Head of Gowama Tribe and P.Cs head in Al-shigla West	Several informal interviews
2	Al-nasri Hassan	Former Counselor and Ireif	Several informal interviews
3	Adam Hassan	Former Ireif	July 24 th 2009
4	Gaffar Mohammed Kobur	P.Cs	July 24 th 2009
5	Ahmed A.Allah Mosa	P.Cs	July 24 th 2009

4.3 Al-salama Case study

Number	Interviewee Name	Position / Job Title	Date and Place of Interview	Projects Spectrums / Topic of discussion
1	Mustafa Hamdan Karenka	P.Cs Head	Aug. 17th 2011	
2	Hassan Al-asshai	Former community leader and Ireif	Aug. 17th 2011	
3	Hasaan Wadidi	Local engineer	Aug. 19th 2011	
4	Abdel-Razig Mergani	Former community leader and P.Cs member	August 17th 2011	
5	Adam Omer	P.C Member	Aug. 19th 2011	
	Khawaga Mohammed	Municipal Engineer	August 17th 2011	The Re-P.P procedures and projects
	Salah Subaai	Ireif	Aug. 19th 2011	

5 Further Investigations On Al-Shigla Case Study

5.1 Questioners Data in Al-shigla Case Study

5.1.1 Sample Of The Questionnaire Distributed To Planners And Professional

Planners /Professionals Survey Questions

PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING

1. How do you define community participation in city planning? ما هو تعريفك للمشاركة الجماهيرية في التخطيط العمراني ؟

2. How important do you consider Public Participation in Planning Process? لاي مدى تعتبر المشاركة الجماهيرية مهمة في عملية التخطيط العمراني ؟

- Always important and integrated part of our planning department مهمة على الدوام - Often considered important principle. غالباً ما تكون مهمة - Sometimes considered important. أحياناً تعتبر مهمة.
 Only important when it serve potential needs مهمة فقط عندما تخدم عرض تخطيطي محدد - Never an important principle. ليست بالمهمة على الإطلاق. Never an important principle.

3. Have you ever carried out planning that includes public ideas and Thoughts in planning Process? هل قمت سابقاً بإعداد أى مخططات عمرانية تتضمن رؤى أفكار و تطلعات العامة

Yes No Don't Know

If yes: please proceed to Question No 4, (proceed to Question (7) if your answer is No) إذا كانت اجابتك بنعم الرجاء الانتقال للسؤال رقم (4) أما إذا كانت اجابتك بلا الرجاء الانتقال للسؤال رقم (7)

4. Would you please state briefly when and how this Participatory approach has been accomplished / achieved now? الرجاء توضيح متى تم ذلك و الطرق التي تم التهاجها اضافة الى عملية المشاركة في حد ذاتها؟

When متى تم ذلك	How كيف	Purpose الغرض من المشاركة

5. At which stages of planning do you think community is most likely be efficient when involves in planning? فعالية وكفاءة

- Goal Formulation تحديد الاهداف - Plan Making اعداد المخطط - Decision making اتخاذ القرارات - Implementation التنفيذ - Others (Please Indicate) أخرى (حدد)

6. At what level of planning should public be involve? أي مستوى من مستويات التخطيط هو الأفضل لاشراك العامة في عملية التخطيط العمراني

- Local level المستوى المحلي - City level مستوى المدينة - Regional level المستوى الإقليمي - All levels كل المستويات - Don't Know لا أعرف

If your answer to question "2" was "Never an Important etc.":

7. "Why do you think Community should not be included in the Planning Process"? لماذا تعتقد أنه من غير المفيد اشراك العامة و دمجهم في عملية اعداد المخططات العمرانية و تنفيذها ؟

- Community does not have enough capacities to be included in the planning process. المجتمع غير مؤهل فعليا للمشاركة في عملية التخطيط.
- Difficult to put together all communities planning ideas. صعوبة تجميع كل أفكار المجتمع في مخطط واحد.
- Not easy to reach every one of them. صعوبة الوصول لكل أفراد المجتمع.
- Participation will not make difference. مشاركة المجتمع في عملية التخطيط لا يشكل أى فرق لعلى على نتائج المخطط.
- Others please specify (حدد) أخرى

8. Do you encourage Community Participation even if it does not generate any Plans? هل تشجع المشاركة الجماهيرية في عملية التخطيط العمراني حتى لو لم ينتج منها أى مخططات ؟

Yes No Don't Know

Please provide explanation of your answer الرجاء التوضيح

9. Who needs to be involved in the citizen participation effort? When will they be involved? How and what purpose of their involvement. من الذى يجب أن يشارك في عملية التخطيط العمراني؟ متى وكيف وبما الغرض من هذه المشاركة في الأساس؟

Who من	When متى	How كيف	Purpose الغرض

10. Using Scale of (1 - 100%) How Do you Rate the Role of Each one of These Players In City Planning and Urban Design? كيف تقويم النسبة المئوية لدور أى واحد من المشاركين الاتيين في عملية التخطيط العمراني ؟

1- Decisions Makers 2- Planners 3- Community Based Organizations 4- NGOs / NPOs 5- Citizens 6- Others (Explain)

11. Do you think it would be efficient and feasible if public should be included in town planning committee? هل تعتقد أنه من المهم و المفيد أن يتم دمج و اضافة ممثلين العامة و الشعب في لجان التخطيط العمراني؟

Yes No (Please Explain)

12. If yes, in which form إذا كانت اجابتك بنعم ، باى شكل من النواع المشاركة ينبغي للعلماء الدخول الى لجان التخطيط؟

- Observant مراقبون - Consultant استشاريون - Decisions maker مخدئ قرار - Others (Please Specify) أخرى (الرجاء التحديد)

من واقع تجربتك هل هناك قضايا عمرانية محددة تستأثر بقدر أكبر من المشاركة الجماهيرية عن غيرها؟

13. From Your Experience; are there issues that acquire more participation than others? _____
 Yes (Please Explain) _____
 No _____

14. What problems do you face in participation? _____
 ما طبيعة المشاكل التي تواجهونها كمخططين في إطار توظيف و دمج العامة في عملية التخطيط العمراني بصورة مجزية و فاعلة؟

15. Has your institution developed any experiment or method to increase community involvement في؟ وكفاءة المشاركة الجماهيرية في التخطيط العمراني؟
 هل قامت مؤسستك بتتمة أو تطوير أي تجربة أو اتجاه لرفع مستوى وكفاءة المشاركة الجماهيرية في التخطيط العمراني؟
 Yes (Please Explain) _____
 No _____

COMMUNITY BASED ORGANIZATIONS

1. What is the most important development issue in your area (level of planning), and why it is important? _____
 ما هي أهم قضايا التخطيط المعاصرة في إطار (عملك/مستوى التخطيط الذي تعمل به) و لماذا

2. Do you consider community leaders demands (give examples)? _____
 هل تأخذون في الحسبان متطلبات و احتياجات قادة المجتمع المدني في إطار المخططات العمرانية التي تقومون بها؟ الرجاء اعطاء أمثلة

Yes _____ No _____ Don't Know _____

3. How influential are community leaders in their neighborhoods? ؟
 لاى مدى يعتبر قادة المجتمع المدني و القادة الشعبيين مؤثرين في إطار عملية مشاركة العامة في التخطيط العمراني

very Strong _____ Weak _____ Don't Know _____

4. Do you believe that CPOs, NPOs and NGOs can be efficiently affecting the role of City Planning Department? و ؟
 هل تعتقد أن المنظمات غير الربحية و منظمات المجتمع المدني بإمكانها أداء دور قوى و فعّال من خلال دمج العامة في عملية التخطيط العمراني؟
 Yes _____ No _____ Don't Know _____

PLANNING ORGANS CO-ORDINATION

1. Are you satisfied with? : هل أنت راض عن :
 The coordination among your Planning institutions? ؟
 التنسيق داخل مؤسسة التخطيط العمراني التي تتبع لها

Yes _____ No _____

The coordination with other planning organs? ؟
 التنسيق مع مؤسسات التخطيط العمراني الأخرى

Yes _____ No _____

The coordination with state planning authority? ؟
 التنسيق مع لجان و مؤسسات التخطيط في المستويات الاطى من مستوى مؤسستك التخطيطية؟

Yes _____ No _____

The coordination with local community/community leaders /NGOs Etc.? ؟
 التنسيق مع المجتمعات المحلية و قادة المجتمع المدني و المنظمات التطوعية الخ؟

Yes _____ No _____

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

(This information will remain confidential and be used for statistical puroposes onlv.)

1. What is your age Group? ؟ العمر

_____19 and under _____20 - 29 _____30 - 39 _____40 - 49 _____50 - 59 _____60 +

2. How long have you been working in your current job? ؟ كم مضى على عملك في وظيفتك الحالية؟

_____2 and under _____3 - 5 _____6 - 10 _____10 +

3. What is your gender? ؟ الجنس

_____ Male ذكر _____ Female أنثى

CONCLUSION

(Thank you very much for Devoting some of your time for this research)

If you would like to be involved in any future studies and questionnaire regarding this research personally Please provide mailing information:
 (Research results will be sent to all participants interested whether they choose to participate on this research or not)

Name: _____

E-mail address _____ Telephone or Fax: _____

Completed Questionnaires can be Hand over to me or mailed to: E-mail – pprsudan@gmail.com

5.1.3 Sample of Questionnaire Distributed to Citizens

المشاركة الشعبية في التخطيط العمراني و التصميم الحضري - الاستبيان

هل لديك أي اهتمام بالكيفية التي يتم بها تخطيط مدينتك /حيك؟			
[] نعم	[] قليل من الاهتمام	[] لا	
هل تعتقد بأن أبداع رأيك في قضايا التخطيط المعاصرة قد يحقق تغيير ايجابي في المخططات المستقبلية لمنطقتك؟			
[] نعم	[] لا		
[] مهممة على الدوام	[] غالبا ما تكون مهمة	[] أحيانا تعتبر مهمة	[] غير مهمة
لأي مدى تعتبر المشاركة الجماهيرية مهمة في عملية التخطيط العمراني؟			
هل تشجع المشاركة الجماهيرية في عملية التخطيط العمراني حتى لو لم ينتج منها أي مخططات ؟الرجاء توضيح الاجابة؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
التوضيح :			
من الذي يجب أن يشارك في عملية التخطيط العمراني , كيف ,وما الغرض من هذه المشاركة في الأساس؟			
من الذي يجب أن يشارك؟ الغرض من المشاركة؟			
هل تعتقد أنه من المهم و المفيد أن يتم دمج و اضافة ممثلى العامة و الشعب في لجان التخطيط العمراني؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
[] مرافيون	[] استشاريون	[] متخذى قرار	[] أخرى(حدد)
إذا كانت الاجابة بلا, حدد لماذا؟			
مالذي يجب على سلطات التخطيط أن تقوم به لتشجيع مشاركة الجماهير في العملية التخطيطية؟			
[] نعم	[] قليل من المشاركة	[] لا	
هل تشترك في اتخاذ القرارات التي لها علاقة بالتخطيط العمراني في منطقتك/حيك؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
هل تعتقد بأن لديك القدرة للمساهمة بفعالية في التخطيط العمراني لمنطقتك. وضح؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
التوضيح :			
لأي مدى تعتبر قادة المجتمع المدني و القادة الشعبيين مؤثرين في اطار عملية مشاركة العامة في التخطيط العمراني؟			
[] نعم	[] تأثير قوي جدا	[] تأثير متوسط	[] تأثير ضعيف
هل فمت بالمشاركة في اجتماع عام من قبل لعض تطوير البيئة السكنية للحي؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أذكر	
هل تعتقد أن المنظمات غير الربحية و منظمات المجتمع المدني بإمكانها أداء دور قوى و فعال من خلال دمج العامة في عملية التخطيط العمراني؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
هل تتمتع أنت أو أي فرد من افراد الاسرة بعضوية أي مؤسسة اجتماعية أو جمعية طوعية؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
هل أنت راض عن			
1. [] ادارة الجمعية	2. [] برامج الجمعية(البنية اتخاذ القرار)	3. [] نشاطات الجمعية	4. [] شمولية تمثيل المواطنين في الجمعية

هل أنت راض عن التنسيق بينك و بين بقية المواطنين في اطار الحى السكني؟			
[] نعم	[] لا	[] لا أعرف	
كيف تقيم الجهود المبذولة من ادارة التخطيط العمراني لمقابلة و تحقيق احتياجاتك؟			
[] كافية	[] مقبولة	[] ضعيفة	
كيف تقيم الجهود الذى تبذله اللجان الشعبية لتحقيق بيئة حضرية أفضل للمواطنين في حيك السكني؟			
[] كافي	[] مقبول	[] ضعيف	
كيف تقيم الجهود الذى تبذله أنت كمواطن لتحقيق بيئة حضرية أفضل للمواطنين في حيك السكني؟			
[] كافي	[] مقبول	[] ضعيف	

معلومات شخصية: (هذه المعلومات ستبقى سرية و ستستخدم لأغراض احصائية فقط)						
المجموعة العمرية	[] 19-0	[] 29-20	[] 39-30	[] 49-40	[] 59-50	[] 60+
الجنس	[] ذكر	[] أنثى	الحالة الاجتماعية			
الاسم	التلفون					[] أخرى
البريد الإلكتروني	اسم ألباحث					
التاريخ:						

5.1.4 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To NGOs/CBOs

Questions to community leaders (NGOs,CPOs,NPOs)

How long has your Organization been actively working?

What issues that are related to urban development do you rise up?

Development of the community organizations.

Has participation been spontaneous?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know.

Is Your NGO fulfilling its objective?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know.

What is the basic activity of the organization/Group.?

Why the Organization/NPO/NGO been established.

What role does the Organization/NGO/CPO plays in Neighborhood Planning?

Do you think you managed to fulfill the needs of your people/Task Area/NGO?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

How gender is addressed in your organization, how women are included?

What source of finance do you as organization have?

PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING

1. Who needs to be involved in the citizen participation effort? When will they be involved? How and what purpose of their involvement.

Who	When	How	Purpose

2. How participation is achieved in the neighborhood?

3. What are the issues that get more participation from your community?

4. When Does Participation reach A High Level and when does it decline?

PLANNING ORGANS CO-ORDINATION

1. Do you coordinate with other voluntary agencies?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

2. Are you satisfied with?

The coordination among your Organization?

___ Yes ___ No _____

The coordination with neighboring neighborhoods/NGOs having the same Objectives?

___ Yes ___ No _____

The coordination with state/local planning authority?

___ Yes ___ No _____

The coordination with your local community/Task Area?

___ Yes ___ No _____

3. Do you have co-operation with your state/local government?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

4. What problems do you face in Coordination with other groups?

5. Do you think you have been able to affect state/local government decisions?

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

6. Would your organization encourage community participation even if it does not generates any plans

___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

Please provide explanation of your answer

CONCLUSION

(Thank you very much for Devoting some of your time for this research)

If you would like to be involved in any future studies and questionnaire regarding this research personally Please provide mailing information:

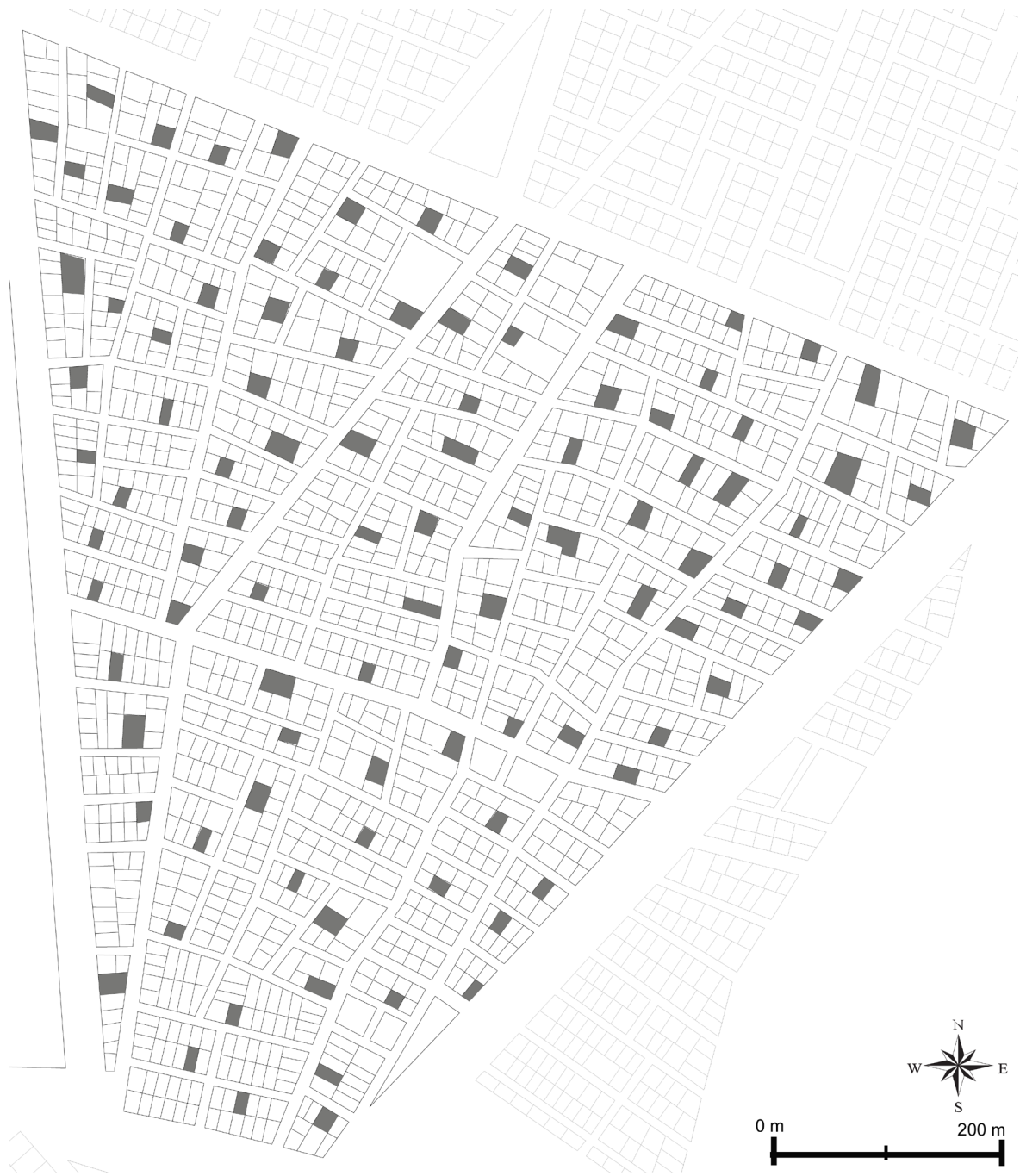
(Research results will be sent to all participants interested whether they choose to participate on this research or not)

Name: _____

E-mail address _____ Telephone or Fax: _____

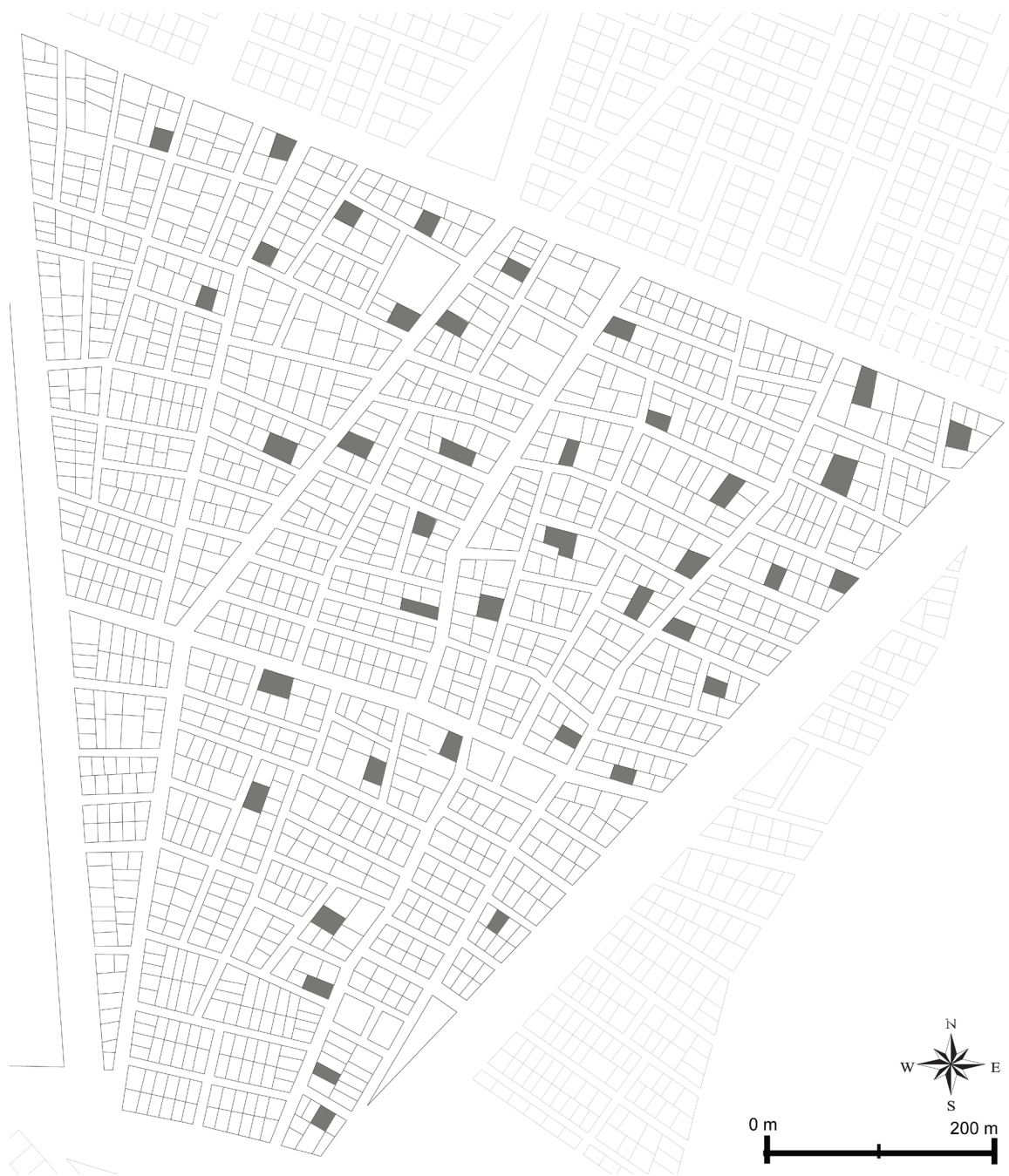
Completed Questionnaires can be Hand over to me or mailed to: E-mail – pprsudan@gmail.com

5.1.5 Al-shigla First Questionnaire Distribution Map



NOTE: Questionnaires were distributed to plots highlighted in grey

5.1.6 Al-shigla Second Questionnaire Distribution Map



NOTE: Questionnaires were distributed to plots highlighted in grey

6 Further Investigation on AL-salama Case Study

6.1 Sample Of Questionnaires Used In Al-Salama Case Study

6.1.1 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Citizens

المشاركة الشعبية في التخطيط العمراني و التصميم الحضري – الاستبيان – (م. ط)

تاريخ تسليم الاستمارة: اسم الباحث: تاريخ أستلام الاستمارة:

معلومات المشاركين: (هذه المعلومات ستبقى سرية و مستخدم لأغراض أحصائية فقط)						
1	الاسم					
2	الفئة العمرية	1. 29-18 عام []	2. 39-30 عام []	3. 59-40 عام []	4. 60 فما فوق []	
3	الجنس	1. ذكر []	2. أنثى []			
4	المستوي التعليمي	1. أمي []	2. أساس/خلوة []	3. ثانوي/فني []	4. جامعي []	5. فوق الجامعي []
5	الحالة الاجتماعية	1. أعذب []	2. متزوج []	3. أختي []	4. أخرى []	
6	الدخل الشهري	0 الي 1000 ج	1000-2000 ج	2000-3000 ج	3000-4000 ج	4000 فما فوق
7	الموطن الأصلي/ القبيلة					

8	فترة الإقامة بالسلمة	1. الميلاد-10 اعوام []	2. 10-15 عام []	3. أكثر من 15 عام []		
9	حجم الأسرة	1. من 1-3 أشخاص []	2. من 3-5 أشخاص []	3. من 5-7 أشخاص []	4. أكثر من 7 أشخاص []	
10	نوع السكن (المباني)	1. جالوس []	2. طوب أحمر []	3. خرسانة []	4. أخرى (حدد) []	
11	المهنة	1. موظف []	2. عامل []	3. أعمال حرة []	4. عاطل []	5. أخرى []
12	مدة الرحلة الي العمل	5-30 دقيقة []	30-60 دقيقة []	60-90 دقيقة []	أكثر من 90 دقيقة []	

13	كيف يتم التخلص من الفضلات/القمامة بالمنزل	1. العراء []	2. مناطق تجميع []	3. بواسطة المحلية []	4. أخرى []
14	وسائل التخلص من الفضلات الشخصية بالمنزل	1. العراء []	2. مرحاض بلدي []	3. سايفون []	4. مجاري/شبكة []

15	هل تتمتع بعضوية أي جمعية شعبية/طوعية أو نادي داخل محيط السلمة شمال؟	1. نعم []	2. لا []	3. لا أدري []
16	هل تتمتع بعضوية أي جمعية شعبية/طوعية أو نادي خارج محيط السلمة شمال؟	1. نعم []	2. لا []	3. لا أدري []

الرجاء تقييم التعبيرات الآتية معطيا درجاه تبدا من 2+ الي 2- بالتأشير داخل الاماكن المعطاة.

17	كيف تقييم الأدوار التالية في إطار المشاركة الشعبية بالسلمة شمال؟	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. التعاون بينك و بقية المواطنين في الحي	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. دور اللجان الشعبية في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. دور الجمعيات الشعبية والطوعية/النوادي في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

18	حسب الوضع الراهن : لأي مدى تقييم مستوي مشاركتك في مجال:	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. اقتراح المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. تخطيط المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. اتخاذ القرار بشأن المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	4. تمويل وتنفيذ المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

19. الرجاء اضافة أي معلومة تعتبرها مهمة فيما يتعلق بالمشاركة الشعبية بمنطقة السلمة شمال:

6.1.2 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Bureaucrats And Public Servants

المشاركة الشعبية في التخطيط العمراني و التصميم الحضري – الاستبيان- (ت. ن)

تأريخ تسليم الاستمارة: أسم الباحث: تأريخ أستلام الاستمارة:

معلومات المشاركين: (هذه المعلومات ستبقى سرية و مستخدم لأغراض إحصائية فقط)							»
1. الاسم							1
2. الفئة العمرية							2
1. 29-18 عام []		2. 39-30 عام []		3. 59-40 عام []		4. 60 فما فوق []	
3. الجنس							3
1. ذكر []							2. أنثى []
4. المستوي التعليمي							4
1. أمي []		2. أساس/خلوة []		3. ثانوي/فني []		4. جامعي []	
5. الحالة الاجتماعية							5
1. أعذب []							2. متزوج []
3. آخري []							6. آخري []
6. الدخل الشهري							6
0 الي 1000 ج		2000-1000 ج		3000-2000 ج		4000-3000 ج	
7. الموطن الأصلي/ القبيلة							7

الرجاء تقييمه التعابير الآتية معطيا درجاة تبحاء من 2+ الي 2- بالتأشير داخل الاماكن المتاحة.

8	كيف تقييم الأدوار التالية في إطار المشاركة الشعبية بالسلمة شمال؟	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. دور اللجان الشعبية في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. دور الجمعيات الشعبية والطوعية/النوادي في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. التعاون بين الوحدة الادارية و بقية المواطنين في الحي	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	4. التعاون بين الوحدة الادارية و الجمعيات الشعبية والطوعية	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	5. التعاون بين الوحدة الادارية و مؤسسات الولاية الخدمية الاخرى	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

9	حسب الوضع الراهن : لأي مدي تقييم مستوي مشاركة الوحدة الادارية في مجال:	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. اقتراح المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. تخطيط المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. اتخاذ القرار بشأن المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	4. تمويل وتنفيذ المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

.10

- منذ متي وأنت في طليعة هذه المؤسسة؟
- ما هي أهم نشاطات هذه المؤسسة ؟
- ما هي مصادر تمويل نشاطات الوحدة الادارية؟
- ما هو دور النفير في تشكيل البيئة السكنية بالسلمة شمال؟
- هل هناك مشاريع تنسم بحجم أكبر من مشاركة المواطنين مقارنة بكل المشاريع التنموية المنفذة/المقترحة؟

19. الرجأ اضافة أي معلومة تعتبرها مهمة فيما يتعلق بالمشاركة الشعبية بمنطقة السلمة شمال:

.....

.....

6.1.3 Sample Of Questionnaire Distributed To Peoples' Committees

المشاركة الشعبية في التخطيط العمراني و التصميم الحضري – الاستبيان-(ل.ش)

تأريخ تسليم الاستمارة: أسم الباحث: تأريخ أستلام الاستمارة:

معلومات المشاركين (هذه المعلومات ستبقى سرية و تستخدم لأغراض إحصائية فقط)						
1	ألم					
2	الفئة العمرية	1. 29-18 عام []	2. 39-30 عام []	3. 59-40 عام []	4. 60 فما فوق []	
3	الجنس	1. ذكر []	2. أنثى []			
4	المستوي التعليمي	1. أمي []	2. أساس/خلوة []	3. ثانوي/فني []	4. جامعي []	5. فوق الجامعي []
5	الحالة الاجتماعية	1. أعذب []	2. متزوج []	3. أختي []	6. أخرى []	
6	الدخل الشهري	0 الي 1000 ج	1000-2000 ج	2000-3000 ج	3000-4000 ج	4000 فما فوق
7	الموطن الأصلي/ القبيلة					

8	فترة الإقامة بالسلمة	1. الميلاد-10 اعوام []	2. 10-15 عام []	3. أكثر من 15 عام []		
9	حجم الأسرة	1. من 1-3 أشخاص []	2. من 3-5 أشخاص []	3. من 5-7 أشخاص []	4. أكثر من 7 أشخاص []	
10	نوع السكن(المباني)	1. جالوص []	2. طوب أحمر []	3. خرسانة []	4. أخرى(حدد) []	
11	المهنة	1. موظف []	2. عامل []	3. أعمال حرة []	4. عاطل []	5. أخرى []
12	مدة الرحلة الي العمل	5-30 دقيقة []	30-60 دقيقة []	60-90 دقيقة []	أكثر من 90 دقيقة []	

13	كيف يتم التخلص من الفضلات/القمامة في منزلك	1. العراء []	2. مناطق تجمع []	3. بواسطة المحلية []	4. أخرى []
14	وسائل التخلص من الفضلات الشخصية بالمنزل	1. العراء []	2. مرحاض بلدي []	3. سايفون []	4. مجاري/شبكة []

الرجاء تقييم التعابير الآتية معطيا درجته بدءا من 2+ الي 2- بالتأشير داخل الأماكن المتاحة.

15	كيف تقييم الأدوار التالية في إطار المشاركة الشعبية بالسلمة شمال؟	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. التعاون بينك و بقية المواطنين في الحي	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. دور اللجان الشعبية في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. دور الجمعيات الشعبية والطوعية/النوادي في تطوير السلمة شمال	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	4. التعاون بين اللجنة الشعبية و بقية المواطنين في الحي	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	5. التعاون بين اللجنة الشعبية والمحلية/الوحدة الادارية	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	6. التعاون بين اللجنة الشعبية و الجمعيات الشعبية والطوعية	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

16	حسب الوضع الراهن ،أي مستوى تعتبر مشاركتك كمواطن مؤثره في	عالي جدا 2+	عالي 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	1. اقتراح المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	2. تخطيط المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	3. اتخاذ القرار بشأن المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	4. تمويل و تنفيذ المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

المشاركة الشعبية في التخطيط العمراني و التصميم الحضري – الاستبيان-(ل.ش)

17	حسب الوضع الراهن، لأي مستوى يعتبر دور اللجنة الشعبية مهم/مؤثر في	ممتاز 2+	جيد 1+	غير متأكد 0.0	ضعيف 1-	ضعيف جدا 2-
	5. اقتراح المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	6. تخطيط المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	7. اتخاذ القرار بشأن المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
	8. تمويل وتنفيذ المشاريع التنموية في السلمة	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

18.

- منذ متي وأنت في طليعة هذه المؤسسة؟
- ما هي أهم نشاطات هذه المؤسسة ؟
- ما هي مصادر تمويل نشاطات اللجنة الشعبية؟
- ما هو دور النفير في تشكيل البيئة السكنية بالسلمة شمال؟
- هل هناك مشاريع تنسم بحجم أكبر من مشاركة المواطنين مقارنة بكل المشاريع التنموية المنفذة/المقترحة؟

19. الرجأ اضافة أي معلومة تعتبرها مهمة فيما يتعلق بالمشاركة الشعبية بمنطقة السلمة شمال:

6.2 Al-Salama Questionnaires Distribution Map



Questionnaires were distributed to plots highlighted in grey

7 Al-salama Further Questionnaires Investigations

7.1 Further Investigations and cross tabulation

In Figure 1 below, the cross-tabulation between the education level and the input in different project stages signifies that there is a significant relationship between the level of participation practiced (both before and after the Re-P.P) and the level of education of the participants in all the four stages of projects identified. While the cause-effect of this relationship is not clear, we can observe that the level of participation and engagement (as measured by our respondents) positively co-related with the level of education. For instance the highest value of participation quality was given by the respondents in figure 1 are consistently observed in those who have a university or higher degree in all projects stages. The level decreases as the education decrease. At this point it is very essential to mention that, though this positive correlation does exist, there is no evidence that the level of education can increase "the quality" of participation.³

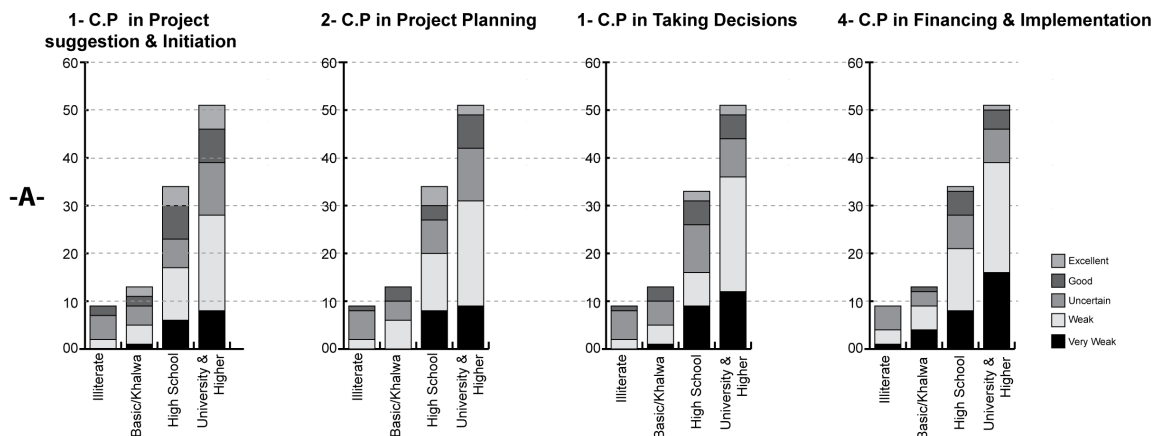


Figure 1 level of education vs input in different project stage Cross-tabulation

Another interesting observation is that, the "quality" of community participation in Al-salama (both before and after the Re-P.P) seems to positively correlate with period of residence in Al-salama. In other words, those who

³ The fact that the level of education is generally high in Al-salama might support this argument.

lived longer in Al-salama generally have higher level of participation in all project stages than the others who don't. Figure 2 signifies this correlation very clearly. Unlike the first observation, there is strong evidence that the quality of participation does increase with the period of residence. This is signified by that level of participation does increase with the period of resident though the respondents' number is generally the same.

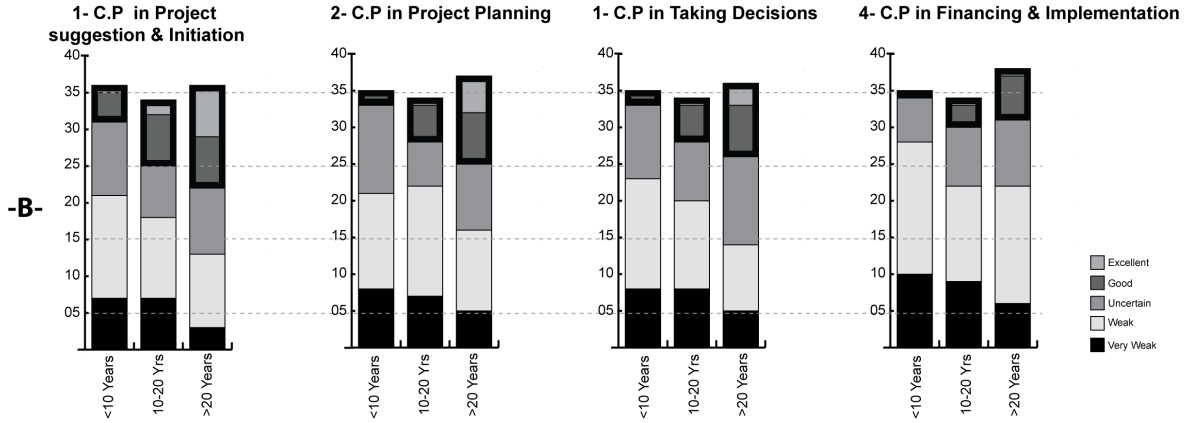


Figure 2 residence period vs input in different project stage Cross-tabulation

On the contrary, no clear correlation seems to exist between the residential block and the level of participation. Since most of the original settlers were settled in block 1. As per our previous finding, it's generally expected that block 1 does have the highest level of participation in regards to the two other blocks. Questionnaire cross-tabulation shown in Figure 3 failed to show that. Nonetheless, the same figure shows that the quality of participation in block 1 does have a high-level. Among the four stages of project planning, block 1 consistently exhibits the highest participation level.

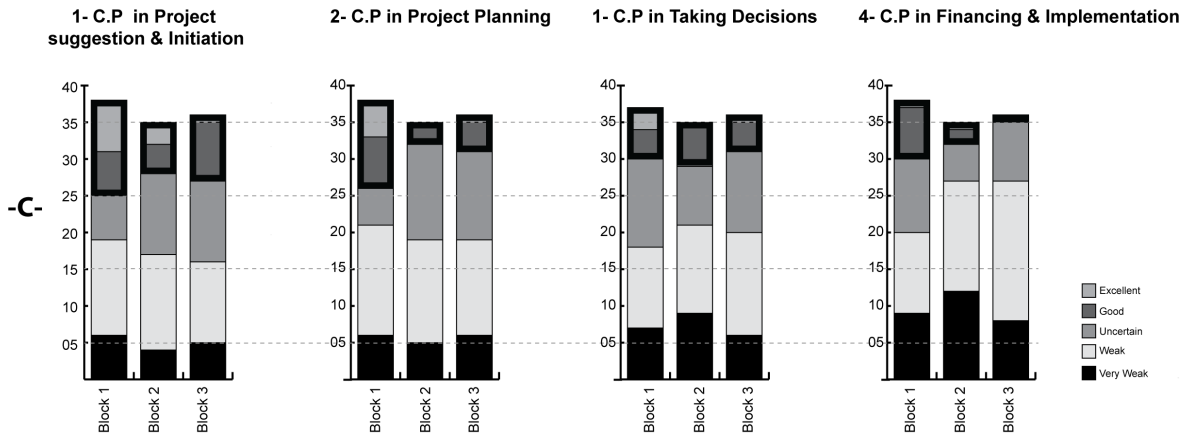


Figure 3 block of residence vs input in different project stage Cross-tabulation

The correlation between 1) The education level; 2) the income level; 3) the period of residence in Al-salama; 4) the affiliation to different NGOs/CBOs in the area; 5) as well as the stage of projects in which participation takes place shown in Figure 4 revealed several interesting findings. For instance the level of education in Al-salama is

significantly "negatively correlated " with citizens' membership of NGOs out side Al-salama area (see figure xx). Level of citizens' education is also negatively correlated with the input in decision-making.

Justifying the above-discussed relationships is difficult; yet, they these relationships illustrate the tendency of highly educated citizens to be members of local NGOs/CBOs. The observation above also exhibits that highly educated citizens are less involved in the decision making process. This can be justified by that most of those "highly educated" citizens have actually moved to the area after the re-planning process (see figure xxx). A second justification to this is that we observed a domination of the same faces in the planning process. Many of today's P.Cs members were part of the elite group before the re-planning. a third justification which is very much related to the decision making procedure after the Re-P.P is that decision making is generally assigned to bureaucrats and technicians, thus, citizens " in general" have no role in that.

Our third observation in this section is that there is generally strong link between those who suggests, plan, take decisions as well as finance projects (see Figure 4). This observation might be interpreted as that the same group/s of citizens do dominate the participation process throughout its different stage. In other words, the spectrum of citizens' participation does not change as the projects stages develop. This suggests that although the participation process after the Re-P.P is generally low, there is a consistency of citizen's participation is different project stages.

Appendices

Correlations

		Education		Period of residence	Membership of NGOs	Membership of NGOs	Your input in	Your input in	Your input in	Your input in Financing	
		Level	Monthly Income	in Al-salama	at Al-Salama Level	outside Al-Salama	Suggesting	Planning	taking decisions	and implementation	
Spearman's rho	Education Level	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.131	-.134	.181	-.191*	-.131	-.145	-.245*	-.141
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.219	.171	.063	.050	.179	.136	.011	.146
		N	107	90	105	106	106	107	107	106	107
	Monthly Income	Correlation Coefficient	.131	1.000	.086	.000	-.103	-.021	-.041	-.015	.107
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.219	.	.424	1.000	.330	.840	.701	.888	.314
		N	90	91	89	91	91	91	91	90	91
	Period of residence in Al-salama	Correlation Coefficient	-.134	.086	1.000	-.092	-.190	.215*	.115	.204*	.083
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.171	.424	.	.351	.052	.027	.240	.037	.395
		N	105	89	106	105	105	106	106	105	106
	Membership of NGOs at Al-Salama Level	Correlation Coefficient	.181	.000	-.092	1.000	.207*	-.287**	-.240*	-.054	-.097
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	1.000	.351	.	.031	.003	.012	.583	.317
		N	106	91	105	108	108	108	108	107	108
	Membership of NGOs outside Al-Salama	Correlation Coefficient	-.191*	-.103	-.190	.207*	1.000	.000	-.031	-.072	.055
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.330	.052	.031	.	.997	.747	.461	.575
		N	106	91	105	108	108	108	108	107	108
	Your input in Suggesting	Correlation Coefficient	-.131	-.021	.215*	-.287**	.000	1.000	.755**	.644**	.552**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.179	.840	.027	.003	.997	.	.000	.000	.000
		N	107	91	106	108	108	109	109	108	109
	Your input in Planning	Correlation Coefficient	-.145	-.041	.115	-.240*	-.031	.755**	1.000	.771**	.447**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.136	.701	.240	.012	.747	.000	.	.000	.000
		N	107	91	106	108	108	109	109	108	109
	Your input in taking decisions	Correlation Coefficient	-.245*	-.015	.204*	-.054	-.072	.644**	.771**	1.000	.565**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.888	.037	.583	.461	.000	.000	.	.000
		N	106	90	105	107	107	108	108	108	108
	Your input in Financing and implementation	Correlation Coefficient	-.141	.107	.083	-.097	.055	.552**	.447**	.565**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.146	.314	.395	.317	.575	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	107	91	106	108	108	109	109	108	109

Figure 4 Education level, income, period of residence, and memberships of NGOs co-relation

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

8 The Participatory Rapid/Rural Appraisal (PRA) Workshop Process

8.1 The Four Investigations Panels Used During The Workshops Stages

المجموعات المشاركة في المشروع (المخطط) وقوة الاتصال / التعاون بينها	
[1]	
 جامعة الخرطوم - كلية العمارة // ورشة تقييم المشاركة الشعبية في مشاريع التنمية المحلية السلعة - الخرطوم // السبت 20 أغسطس 2011	

دورة نشاطات المشروع /المخطط	
[2]	
إقتراح المشاريع	دورة نشاطات المشروع / المخطط
	إقتراح المشاريع
	▼ تحديد الاهداف و المقاصد للمشروع
	▼ تخطيط و تصميم المشروع
	▼ تنفيذ و تمويل المشروع
	▼ إدارة المشروع
 جامعة الخرطوم - كلية العمارة // ورشة تقييم المشاركة الشعبية في مشاريع التنمية المحلية السلعة - الخرطوم // السبت 20 أغسطس 2011	

دور المجموعات المشاركة في عملية التخطيط	
[3]	
	المشاركة كمتحكم في المشروع
	المشاركة كعضو فعال
	المشاركة كمصدر للمعلومات
	المشاركة كمستفيد من المشروع
	بلا دور في خلال مراحل المشروع
 جامعة الخرطوم - كلية العمارة // ورشة تقييم المشاركة الشعبية في مشاريع التنمية المحلية السلعة - الخرطوم // السبت 20 أغسطس 2011	

كيفية المشاركة في المشاريع	
[4]	
	المشاركة بالخبرات المكتسبة و الفكر
	المشاركة الجسمية البدنيه
	المشاركة في إتخاذ القرارات و تحديد الأولويات
	المشاركة في التكاليف الماديه والعينية للمشروع
	المشاركة بإعلام المشارك عن المشروع
 جامعة الخرطوم - كلية العمارة // ورشة تقييم المشاركة الشعبية في مشاريع التنمية المحلية السلعة - الخرطوم // السبت 20 أغسطس 2011	

8.2 The Coding Process of the PRA Workshops Results

8.2.1 Water Supply project Coding Process

Before the Re-Planning Process									
	Bureaucrats	Rural Water Dept.	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		3	3	3					
Rural Water Dept.	3		3	3					
P.CS	3	3		2	1				1
Planners	3	3	2		1				
Citizens			1	1					2
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations									
Elite			1		2				

After the Re-planning process									
	Bureaucrats	Rural Water Dept.	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		3							
Rural Water Dept.	3			1					1
P.CS									
Planners		1							1
Citizens							3	3	3
NGOs									
CBOs					3			2	3
Associations					3		2		3
Elite		1		1	3		3	3	

8.2.2 Power Supply project Coding Process

Before the Re-Planning Process									
	Bureaucrats	ED	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		3	2						
ED	3		2	2	1				
P.CS	2	2		2	2				
Planners		2	2						
Citizens		1	2						
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations									
Elite									

After the Re-planning process									
	Bureaucrats	ED	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		3		1					
ED	3			2	1				2
P.CS									
Planners		2							1
Citizens		1					3	2	3
NGOs									
CBOs					3			1	3
Associations					2		1		2
Elite		2		1	3		3	2	

8.2.3 Al-salama Primary School Project

		Before the Re-Planning Process							
	Bureaucrats	LEO	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		3	2	1					
LEO	3		1	1					
P.CS	2	1			2				
Planners	1	1							
Citizens			2						
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations									
Elite									

		After the Re-planning process							
	Bureaucrats	LEO	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats									
LEO									1
P.CS									
Planners									
Citizens								3	3
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations					3				3
Elite	1				3			3	

8.2.4 The Primary Health center Project

		Before the Re-Planning Process							
	Bureaucrats	MOH	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats		2	1	1					
MOH	2			2					
P.CS	1			1					
Planners	1	2	1						
Citizens									
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations									
Elite									

		After the Re-planning process							
	Bureaucrats	MOH	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats									
MOH									1
P.CS									
Planners									
Citizens								3	3
NGOs									
CBOs									
Associations					3				2
Elite	1				3			2	

8.3 Results of the Coding Process

Before the Re-Planning Process										After the Re-planning process									
	Bureaucrats	Rural Water Dept.	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite		Bureaucrats	Rural Water Dept..	P.CS	Planners	Citizens	NGOs	CBOs	Associations	Elite
Bureaucrats	0	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rural Water Dept.	3	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
P.CS	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Planners	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Citizens	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	3
NGOs	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CBOs	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	2
Associations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	3	3
Elite	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	0	2	3	0	0

9 Captions From The First And The Second PRA Workshop





Some Captions from the First and the Second PRA Workshops



Go to people
Live among people
Learn from people
Plan with people
Work with people
Start with what the people know
Build on what people have
Teach by showing: learn by doing
Not a showcase but a pattern
Not odds and ends but a system
Not piecemeal but integrated approach
Not to conform but to transform
*Not relief but release*¹

¹ James Y.C Yen, Founder of the rural construction in china.