

**AFRICAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACTION FORUM PHASE VII
ENHANCING PARTICIPATORY GOVERNANCE IN LOCAL DEVELOPMENT**

**THE ROLE OF NON-STATE ACTORS IN ENHANCING PARTICIPATORY
GOVERNANCE AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT**

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I: Introduction

Involving non-state actors in the formulation and implementation of public policies has become a major feature of political life in both developed and developing countries. This is a reflection of new forms of participatory democracy, which emphasize the need for a more consensual way of making policy through dialogue with all key stakeholders. At the same time, a broad range of non-state actors are becoming increasingly interested in becoming development partners. The benefits of such a deliberative process of policy formulation are numerous and include increased ownership, new public-private partnerships, consolidation of democratisation, and improved sustainability.

This paper looks into the role of non-state actors in enhancing participatory governance and local economic development under the African Local Government Action Forum, with a main theme of: Enhancing Participatory Governance in Local Development; and a sub-theme of Linking participatory governance to local economic development and poverty reduction.

The paper is divided into six. Parts. Part one is an introduction. Part two offers a number of definitions of key concepts. Part three looks into the possible roles of non-state actors and how these can be realised. Part four examines a number of Case studies, from Tanzania. Part five discusses the problems experienced and lessons learnt. Finally part six is a conclusion.

II. Definitions

In providing definitions, it is not intended to go into the details and the debates about the key concepts of non-state actors, participatory governance and local development. These have been debated in many a fora. Only working definitions appropriate to this paper will be presented.

The Partnership Agreement between the European Union (EU) and the African, Caribbean and Pacific Rim (ACP) countries signed in Cotonou, Benin in June 2000 defined non-state actors (NSAs) as: the private sector, the social and economic partners including trade union organisations, and the civil society in all its diversity.

Non-state actors can include a wide range of actors such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), trade unions, employers' organisations, private businesses, consumer organisations, academic and research institutions, citizens' groups, cooperatives, women's and youth organisations, church and religious associations and communities, independent foundations, organisations representing indigenous peoples, organisations representing national and/or ethnic minorities, organisations representing economic and social interests, organisations fighting corruption and fraud and promoting good governance, civil rights organisations and organisations fighting discrimination,

local organisation involved in decentralised regional co-operation and integration, cultural, research and scientific organisations, the media and others.

Each of these actors has a complementary role to play in achieving progress towards the MDGs by giving voice to specific segments in society and by advocating issues that are relevant for society's development strategies. Strengthening local non-state actors' capacities to enable them to contribute to the process of sustainable development and poverty reduction is becoming an issue of increasing strategic importance.

The concept of governance has evolved with time. By around 1997 governance was conceptualised by emphasizing the importance and the nature and relationships between the three major domains of governance, that is the state, the private sector and the civil society and linking this with sustainable human development.

Schneider (1999) introduced the concept of **participatory governance** in poverty reduction initiatives. Laying the ground for a new understanding of the term, Schneider notes, "the challenge is therefore not only to address poverty reduction and governance together, but also to design and operate the governance mechanisms in ways that make governance participatory." In Schneider's conceptualization, participation and transparency are cited as defining elements of governance, and accountability, empowerment and capacity building are seen as its building blocks.

Governance, as the understanding has evolved, goes beyond the management of institutions to include interactions between and among stakeholders and their social, economic and political environments. Governance is not only about managing resources, people or institutions, but also about understanding how relationships among different stakeholders impact their effectiveness and influence the process of development in their countries. The following definition derived from the synthesis of the previous work done on governance will be the one used in this document.

Governance is a complex system of interactions among structures, traditions, functions (responsibilities), and processes (practices) characterized by three key values of accountability, transparency and participation. The nature and quality of those interactions intended to lead to sustainable human development, determine how power is exercised, how decisions are taken, how stakeholders have their say and how decision makers are held accountable.

From this definition, it is obvious that by governance, we are not referring to the processes and structures that a given organization uses to orient and manage its general operations and program activities through board structures, distribution of responsibilities between board, management and staff, and internal procedures and systems. Rather we are concerned with governance that recognizes matters of public concern to include a range of activities and issues that require action and input not only from the state institutions, but also from other non-state actors, including civil society and the private sector. This conceptualization of governance focuses on the connections and interactions

between and among social, political and economic issues and institutions and on collaboration and dialogue between various actors in order to achieve good governance conducive to sustainable human development.

Poverty Reduction and the importance of Local Economic Development (LED)

There is general agreement within the international development agenda that all efforts must be made to fight poverty. Indeed, goal number one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. While the fight against poverty must as of necessity be multi-thronged, it is nevertheless agreed that good governance and local economic development (LED) are important ingredients that can lead to successful poverty reduction undertakings, especially in the rapidly growing urban areas of developing countries.

There is growing consensus that local government authorities (LGAs) can play a major role in creating conditions for sustainable development and poverty reduction by ensuring more effective and accountable local infrastructure and service delivery for the poor; and improving dialogue between the state, citizens and their communities and the private sector.

An effective LED is in line, at the international level, with the Millennium Development Goals; and the UN Global Campaign for Good Governance. It is also in line with many national policies. For Tanzania, these include the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (Tanzania 1999), the National Framework on Good Governance (Tanzania, 1999), the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (Tanzania 2000); and the Local Government Reform Programme (Tanzania 1998). This paper broaches the role that LGAs in Tanzania can play to alleviate poverty.

Conceptualising Local Economic Development

The concept of LED became emphasised at the international level in the 1980s, as one of the principal avenues for concerted official action to promote and attract domestic and foreign investment. In developed countries such as USA and Europe many industrial heartlands were suffering economic decline. A new policy emerged that encouraged local authorities to actively intervene in local economies to protect jobs, help industries to restructure and to promote inward investments (Macfarlane 1997). The concept found its way to Africa in view of the myriad of economic problems the continent is suffering from. It came hand in hand with the emphasis on good governance and decentralisation and poverty alleviation

As with most social concepts there may not be a universally agreed definition for LED (D'Archy and Guissani, 1996). The LED process establishes partnerships between local governments, community organisations and the private sector to exploit and manage locally available resources to create jobs and stimulate the economy of a well-defined territory. Thus the emerging consensus is that among the core elements of LED are sets of initiatives designed both to promote growing local economies as well as to address

poverty alleviation. While LED is relevant to all local authorities, it is particularly important to the urban areas of Africa, which are growing at very high rates as a result of many of the youths abandoning the rural areas and swelling the ranks of the unemployed or the over-stretched informal sector. LED programmes focus on improving living conditions in both rural and urban areas, thus leading to a higher level of welfare for a nation's citizens.

LED is implemented through a stakeholder consultative process that should make specific efforts to involve informal sector operators. Effective participation however is only achievable in the presence of good governance. Removing impediments to good governance is imperative for the successful implementation of LED.

The Strategic importance of LGAs in LED

Although poverty alleviation programmes emanate from the national level, there is a broad room for programmes and activities that can be undertaken at local level. The potential significance of local level anti-poverty approaches is based upon, *inter alia*, local government authorities' responsibilities for the provision and co-ordination of local services, for the facilitation of community poverty initiatives, for issuance of building permits, and for local licensing and regulating of many local economic activities.

LGAs are strategically well placed to undertake local long-term planning in the area of poverty alleviation working together with the private sector, NGOs and CBOs, and the citizens in general. Moreover, it is a function of LGAs to manage and generate local projects whose aim is to address inequalities between citizens, since they are the key authority to mediate the public good. Rogerson (1999) identifies and expounds on five broad intervention measures by LGAs that have a close relation to LED and poverty alleviation. These are: Regulatory frameworks; access to municipal services; employment creation and support for income-generating activities; security and protection from crime and natural disasters, and co-ordination and integration.

Before delving into these, there is need to mention that in terms of the legal framework and in terms of the on-going institutional reforms in many African countries, LGAs are well poised to spearhead LED. With respect to the latter process, which essentially focuses on the local control and use of resources, and on exploiting local institutional capabilities to create employment, LGAs have a comparative advantage over central government institutions because they operate within local communities. Besides, the mandate of LGAs for decision-making and for the control of resources is also expanding as a result of the ongoing decentralisation programmes in southern Africa. This is strengthening their positions in managing LED. Poverty reduction requires a participatory framework for the inclusion of the affected communities and other stakeholders for which LGAs are vital.

Local governments are catalysts for local economic development, local participation and local governance. Their closeness to the population eg through engaging with non-state

actors facilitates grass-root immediate involvement in the development process and in public affairs. Non-state actors being key stakeholders in local development

III: POSSIBLE ROLES OF NON-STATE ACTORS AND HOW THESE CAN BE REALISED

Having presented a long list of non-state actors (NSA) above, we now turn to the possible roles that these can play in realising participatory governance and local development.

Projects formulation: NSAs can play a major role in identifying projects that are relevant to their areas/needs. **Prioritisation** means that both local government authorities and NSAs can agree on how to set their priorities in view of the limited resources that the LGAs can have. Every year, local authorities prepare their budgets, that is identifying their sources of revenue, how much income they expect to earn and to look at how the income is to be spent. **Participatory Budgeting** is a crucial area where the NSAs can play a crucial role in local development. For example, the Harare Communique drawn by mayors, chairpersons, town clerks, secretaries, local government associations, non-state actors and collaborating partners who participated in the Regional Workshop on Participatory Budgeting in Africa, held in Harare on 6th -7th March 2007 agreed that experiences with participatory budgeting had shown that local authorities which do not practice it have failed to close the gap between the demand for services and their provision. On the other hand, in local authorities where participatory budgeting is practiced, NGO networks and private sector have been encouraged to partner with local governments in improving the livelihood of citizens and the delivery of public services. Participatory budgeting demonstrates that a truly democratic and transparent administration of resources is one of the most effective ways to avoid the corruption and mishandling of public funds and to ensure that investments are directed towards the most pressing needs of the poor and other disadvantaged groups. In recent times, both citizens as well as development partners (donors) have called for participatory monitoring and evaluation in order to facilitate transparency in defining progress and impact on the ground.

Participatory budgeting can play a big role in local economic development through private and public partnership since it:

- Provides options for diversifying or growing a local area in specific sectors such as retail trade development, tourism promotion and business attraction;
- Enables participatory transformation of urban areas and rural districts into viable economic centres which are able to generate and grow personal disposable incomes for the local population;
- Can stimulate business and employment creation through Private/Public Partnership projects
- Can enable local government authorities to promote specific key activities such as tourism, sports, music, food, theatre and other cultural attractions.

NSAs can play a role in efficient **resource mobilisation and usage**. Since their ownership is enhanced, they can ensure that resources are utilised efficiently, but can go

further and mobilise resources including their own labour and other resources. NSAs can be **implementers** themselves like when they act as local contractors or sub-contractors, or service providers. Many NSAs have played a leading role in providing health facilities and education services to a sizeable number of the local populations. They can also act as **supervisors** of the various undertakings thus playing an important role in the domain of accountability, transparency and integrity. This arises from their traditional role as organisations that fight for the rights of citizens.

Many NSAs play an important role in **Advocacy and Reform**. There are a number of NSAs that have traditionally played the role of lobbying and pressurizing governments, including advocating for the interests of the marginalized and those who get poor services, or who get services not worthy their payments. They can act as the watchdog of citizens' interests and government and private sector's responsibilities, by highlighting cases of negligence, favouritism and inequities in the process of decision-making.

NSAs can also play **public awareness** roles like educating the public to demand and further their rights and responsibilities; and sensitize the private sector, and public servants on integrity and accountability systems.

IV. Some considerations from Tanzania

In this section we turn our attention to Tanzania, where Local Government Reform is going on and where the Tanzania Vision 2025 expresses the hope and determination to rid the country of poverty, disease and ignorance by achieving a high and sustained growth, halving poverty by year 2010 and eliminating it altogether by year 2025. It seeks to do so in a framework of good governance; a system of public management which is transparent, responsive to popular interests, responsible and accountable, and where officials are capable, efficient, ethical and professional and work in the interests of the served public.

Local Government Reform in Tanzania

Tanzania has been implementing a local reform agenda. The main principles of the Reform were pointed out in the government's policy paper on local government reform published in October 1998. These are:

- Letting people participate in government at the local level and elect their councils
- Bringing public services under the control of the people through their local councils
- Giving local councils powers (political devolution) over all local affairs
- Determining the appropriate and cost effective organisational structures for local government authorities.
- Improving financial and political accountability
- Securing finances for better public services
- Creating a new local government administration answerable to the local councils and to local needs
- De-linking local administrative leaders from their former ministries

- Creating new central-local relations, based, not on orders, but on legislation and negotiations.

So the overarching goal of the reform is “to create good governance based on political and financial accountability, democratic procedures, and public participation”. Thus the framework is there that is conducive to enabling participatory governance and local development.

Involving non-state actors in participatory governance and local development

Involving non-state actors in participatory governance and local development in Tanzania is still evolving. The concept of local economic development has yet to take root. To a large extent local government authorities are dependent on the central government for over 70% of their expenditure; much of which is lopsided in favour of recurrent expenditure and personal emoluments.

In executing their functions, local authorities are required to take the necessary measures to suppress crime, maintain peace and good order and to protect public and private property. They are also required to regulate and improve agriculture, trade, commerce and industry; further welfare and relieve poverty and distress; and to assist and ameliorate life for the young, the aged, and the disabled or infirm. Moreover, under the Human Resources Deployment Act of 1983, local authorities were given the task of formulating employment-generating projects and of giving guidance regarding the undertaking and execution of self-help schemes. Given the thrust to address issues of poverty both at international and national levels, local authorities are supposed to play a key role to eradicate poverty as a way of improving governance and increasing the welfare of their residents. Clearly this could be achieved by collaborating with NSAs.

As a general observation, thinking and planning for local economic growth is new to local authorities in Tanzania. The Local Government Reform Programme envisages a change in this attitude. Urban authorities that have adopted the Sustainable Cities Programme, such as Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Arusha, Moshi, Morogoro, Mbeya, Iringa and Mwanza have invariably set up working groups to propose ways of dealing with petty trading and informal sector activities in urban areas. The idea however has been to make these less of a nuisance rather than foster local economic growth.

There are no examples of assessment of local poverty, unemployment, income or any such indicators in Tanzania. There are no specific measures to attract employment to the local authorities. As far as we can gather, there are no specific locally developed strategies to deal with local poverty. There are limited schemes to deal with informal sector activities, but the main approach is that of confrontation where local authorities want to remove petty traders from certain locations on the one hand, and where the petty traders refuse to be removed, on the other. Throughout the 1990s and 2000s, clashes took place now and then between local authorities and informal sector operators about where they should locate their business or indeed, whether they carry out business at all. (see also BOX 2) No solution seems to be in sight. Some authorities have taken initiatives to

collaborate with NGOs or other stakeholders with some promising success. An example is the support for the Centre for Informal Sector Promotion that the Moshi Municipal Council has been giving to this NGO. Some NGOs go for training small businessmen in various technical and managerial fields.

As such, there are cases of successful engagement between NSAs and local authorities. There are also cases where problems have been experienced and improvements are required.

Success examples of engagement with non-state actors

Success examples can be cited in education, health, water provision and environmental management including solid waste disposal. Success too can be cited in the area of human settlements, where local governments have worked with NSAs to improve living conditions and to regularise areas. The Sustainable Cities Programmes in Tanzania have all accomplished considerable success through working with communities who through working groups, identify and prioritise areas of concern and take implementing action. A good example is the regularisation of unplanned areas in Tanga Municipality carried out recently.

BOX 1: REGULARISATION OF KWANJEKA NYOTA SETTLEMENT, TANGA CITY

Like many urban areas in Africa, Tanga, the third largest urban area in Tanzania has its own share of unplanned development accommodating some 23% of the city's population. The Sustainable Tanga Programme was launched in 1997 with the support of DANIDA, one of whose targets was to support the upgrading of unplanned settlements through a participatory approach utilising the full involvement of residents and other stakeholders, and by limiting the further growth of unplanned settlements. Regularisation of the unplanned settlement was organised from the community to the full council level. The sub-working group provided a link between community members and ward executives where decisions made by the community were [assed through, and then forwarded to the Working Group at City level which was responsible for communicating with the City Urban Planning Office or the STP. The urban planning department provided expertise, as well as making alternative land available for displaced owners, and issuing of residential licences to property owners. Residents were allowed to make a follow-up on any issue.

Landowners in the settlements were sensitised and agreed that their area be regularised. Each landowner paid 12,000/= . The people agreed on their own private land and agreed to allow land for roads as well as land for public uses such as open spaces. As a result, the area has been regularised, boundaries verified and residents issued with residential licences thus securing their tenure. Security of tenure has enabled those who want, to get loans from financial institutions and thus improve their economic status. As a result of this success, other unplanned settlements have come forward requiring that their settlements be regularised as well.

Source: Mahenge 2007.

In the Tanga example, the local authority, the central government and the development partner worked hand in hand with NSAs, particularly local residents and farm owners to regularise an unplanned areas. given the prevalence of unplanned areas in the cities of the Region, approaches based on the full involvement of NSAs, such as community-based land management can go a long way to ameliorate the lives of the poor in these unplanned and poorly services areas.

Examples of cases where NSAs co-operation is crucial

There are many cases where meaningful engagement between non-state actors, participatory governance and local development is crucial. We hereby give two examples: Dealing with the informal sector (petty traders); and addressing conflicts over land use between herders, environmentalists and agriculturalists. These have been randomly selected, but have been crucial in the social-economic development of many a Tanzanian; and I trust similar problems are experiences in other African countries.

The Problem of the Informal Sector

Thousands of people, particularly the young leave their rural areas and move to urban areas - not in search of “bright lights” – many live in miserable circumstances- but in search of ‘bright opportunities’. In Tanzania some 800,000 people are added to the labour force annually, only about 30,000 of whom, get employed. The rest cannot find formal employment and end up doing all kinds of informal businesses. A good rapport between public authorities and these petty economic actors has been difficult to find.

For instance in the case of petty traders who crowd the city area, the Mwanza City Profile of 2003 reports that:

“Informal sector activities such as trading are being carried out haphazardly; Petty traders mostly operate in an ad hoc manner conditioned by factors such as demand, season, availability etc. The trade may be carried out in different places at different times depending on where the operator believes he might find potential customers; hence they are often unregistered and unknown to local authorities”¹.

BOX 2: THE NEVER-ENDING WAR BETWEEN LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND PETTY/STREET TRADERS IN DAR ES SALAAM

Throughout 2003, running battles were waged between petty/street traders and the Dar es Salaam local authorities. The authorities, with the support of the central government have aimed at removing traders from certain parts of the city to others, as a way of cleaning up the city, easing movement, allowing other traders to conduct their business,

¹ Mwanza City Profile, Prepared in 2003 pg 69.

and generally enforcing law and order.

Clashes are on record between street traders (popularly known as *machingas*) and the police and city *askaris* in January 2003 in the Buguruni area, February 2003, in the Manzese area and on various occasions throughout the year in Dar es Salaam's central areas. The epitome for the year was possibly the killing of a city chief militia on December 4th 2003 by a group of petty traders who invaded the City Workshop to reclaim their wares seized earlier during a clash with city *askaris*.

No solution for the problem of street traders seems to be in sight though various alternatives have been proposed and tried out, without much success. In January 2004, the city authorities undertook a major exercise to remove street traders and kiosks.

The call by the Dar es Salaam Regional Commissioner that Dar es Salaam was full and could take no more immigrants will probably fall on deaf ears and clashes between traders and authorities can be expected in the future.

In 2006 another major exercise to remove petty traders and quacks from parts of the city; and to demolish all unauthorised structures, was undertaken by the Dar es Salaam Municipal authorities with the support of the central government, with, among others, the aim of cleaning up the city. Efforts to relocate these traders have found limited success. Many are slowly re-colonising their former areas, sometimes playing hide and seek games with public authorities. Clashes continue between authorities and petty traders²

The government has decided on a project to construct a large multi-million dollars market building for the traders in Dar es Salaam. However, when completed it will only take up a fraction of the petty traders plying the streets of the city. Experience from the near past, when the National Income Generation Programme (NIGP) constructed two large market building to take up petty traders was no successful.

Full engagement between NSAs and public authorities is essential as a possible way of addressing the problems of petty traders,.

The Problem of Herders

Tanzania has been experiencing a problem of managing the needs for land for migrant cattle keepers, and other land users including agriculturalists. In December 2000, 400 people fled their homes in Kilosa for fear of being attacked by Maasai after clashes on 8th Dec left 31 people dead. The 8th Dec attack was in revenge of an earlier killing of 2 Maasai and slaughtering 35 cattle by Kilosa farmers. Clashes started after farmers had confiscated cattle, which had been grazing on their fields either by accident or deliberately. Kilosa has good pasture lands, and Maasai herders had moved 250,000

² The latest clash took place just recently on 29th May 2007 between city militia and police and well-prepared petty traders, the latter not wanting to be moved from a trading area in Magomeni, Dar es Salaam. See the *African*, 30th May 2007.

heads of cattle there. There is no demarcation between pastoral and farmers' land. Pastoralists will go for the best pasture wherever it is, but at the same time, farmers have been encroaching on what had traditionally been regarded as herders' land. The Government has many times promised to demarcate land for pastoralists but this difficult. Kilosa residents and authorities have on numerous occasions appealed to the government for action for past two decades but no successful action has been forthcoming to solve the problem. As a result, clashes continue to this day in various parts of the country (including Zanzibar) between migrant cattle keepers and farmers.

Recently, partly as a result of the need to preserve the wetlands that feed impact on the main rivers that generate hydro-electricity power for the country the government has organised the removal of thousands of herders from parts of the country, and redirected them elsewhere. This has caused major tensions between the herders and public authorities. The receiving authorities have also complained that their areas cannot accommodate large herds of cattle, and have no infrastructure such as cattle dips. The article in Box 3 clearly illustrates the problems that are being faced by the herders who have been required to move from the Ihefu Wetland areas.

BOX 3: GOVERNMENT CRITICIZED FOR IHEFU EVICTIONS

The government has been criticized for forcibly evicting herdsmen from Ihefu valley in Usangu, Mbeya to the southern coastal areas. Representatives from Hakiardhi, Pingo's Forum and the Legal and Human Rights Centre criticized the move, describing the action as human rights abuse. Speaking on behalf of other civil societies, a representative of Hakiardhi, Emanuel Mvula, said the act was against human rights. "It will bring great economic problems to the herdsmen. The government should have exercised patience instead of forcing them out. They needed time to prepare themselves and the government should have allocated them another area before issuing the directive" Mvulla said.

Mvulla said pastoralists were shifted to Lindi Region, which had no livestock infrastructure such as cattle dipping facilities. As a result a good part of their stock has died for lack of pasture and water on the way.

There are reports that pastoralists are harassed by local government officials demanding bribes, as they trek their stocks to designated areas. They take five days to travel from the Usangu Valley in Mbeya to Lindi. "In every station they stopped on their way, they were asked to pay Tshs 100,000 to 200,000 to the authorities", he said.

Moreover, the exercise is said to have separated pastoralist families. "Those moving from Mbeya to Lindi are youths. The elders, women and children are left behind", he said.

Source: The Guardian, 5th April 2007

The above examples with relations to the plight of herders implicate the importance of Non-state actors. On the one hand we see them advocating on behalf of pastoralists. On the other, it may well be that a much wider consultation between NSAs and public authorities is necessary to solve the problem of herders and to avoid the human, economic and social loss that has been experienced over the past decades.

V. PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED AND LESSONS LEARNT

In cases where non-state actors have been involved in the implementing of local social and development programmes, success has been realised. Project ownership has been an important outcome as well as more transparency and a more efficient use of the resources. Problems experienced include those where public authorities show unwillingness to share powers either between central and local authorities, or between public authorities in general (including local authorities) and non-state actors. Sometimes the urgency of the planned undertaking limits the scope of involving NSAs. This would appear to be the case in the decision to remove herders from the Ihefu Wetland referred to above. Participatory governance many times involves patience and long negotiations as well as a willingness to share power.

Local authorities themselves have limited capacity to engage meaningfully into participatory governance. Since they rely to a very large extent on central government transfers, they have little room to devote to their own initiatives. They also lack well-motivated manpower to spearhead and promote civic engagement.

On the other hand the non-state actors themselves have their own problems. There are those, which depend on donor assistance so that when that assistance dries up, they fail to continue with their activities. Capacity building among these groups (eg to be able to negotiate, and to oversee projects) is an important ingredient. Lack of effective power from marginalized groups (such as pastoralists and hunters and gatherers), poor communications and mobilisation, poverty and low levels of education, multi-ethnicity and diversity, polarised politics and so on have serious implications for the sustainability of engagement with non-state actors.

VI: CONCLUSION

Some good progress has been made in promoting the role of non-state actors in participatory governance and local development. However, much remains to be done. On the one hand, public authorities must realise the advantages of working closely with non-state actors and therefore be willing to share powers with them. On the other hand, an enabling legal and regulatory and policy framework for promoting participatory governance needs to be cultivated. Serious steps need to be taken to build the capacity of non-state actors themselves so that they can discharge their duties appropriately.