

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF GOOD
GOVERNANCE: THE CASE OF ADDIS ABABA CITY
ADMINISTRATION**

**BY
KINDEYE FENTA**

**ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA
APRIL, 2011**

**CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF GOOD
GOVERNANCE: THE CASE OF ADDIS ABABA CITY
ADMINISTRATION**

**BY
KINDEYE FENTA**

ADVISOR: MULUGETA ABEBE (PHD)

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS IN
REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**



**ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA
APRIL, 2011**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF GOOD
GOVERNANCE: THE CASE OF ADDIS ABABA CITY
ADMINISTRATION**

BY: KINDEYE FENTA

Approved by Board of Examiners

	Signature	Date
1. _____ Director, RLDS	_____	_____
2. <u>Muliyata Abdoe</u> Advisor	<u></u>	<u>5/07/11</u>
3. <u>Fenta m.</u> Internal Examiner	<u></u>	<u>05/07/11</u>
4. _____ External	_____	_____ Examiner

I, undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University, and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been acknowledged.

Declared by:

Kindeye Fenta



Signature

5/07/11

Date

Confirmed by Advisor

Mulugeta Abebe (PhD)



Signature

5/07/11

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and for most, I would like to express my heart-felt respect and deepest gratitude to my resourceful and patient advisor Mulugeta Abebe for his scholarly advice, help, painstaking correction, guidance and comments. This thesis would not have been completed on time without his tireless effort.

I am also grateful to Dessie Menber, Mohammed Seid and Tsegaye Abreham for their assistance during the data collection process. My sincere appreciation goes to those organizations and individuals who volunteered to share me their opinion on the presumably politically sensitive issues. I am also grateful to all my colleagues who assisted me in one way or the other. Just to name a few- Shikur Seid, Alagaw Ababu and Haileysus Muluken, thank you for your material and scholarly assistance in improving my thesis.

Last but not least, my sincere appreciation goes to Diredawa University that financed my entire MA programme.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AACA	Addis Ababa City Administration
AACC	Addis Ababa City Charter
BPR	Business Processes Reengineering
BSC	Balanced Score Card
CSA	Central Statistical Authority
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
CUDP	Coalition for Unity and Democracy
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
EHRCO	Ethiopian Human Rights Council
EPRDF	Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGOs	Non Governmental Organizations
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
WB	World Bank

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS-----	i
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS -----	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS -----	iii
LIST OF TABLES -----	vi
LIST OF FIGURES -----	vii
ABSTRACT -----	viii

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION -----	1
1.1. Background -----	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem -----	4
1.3. General Objective -----	6
1.4. Specific Objectives-----	6
1.5. Research Questions -----	6
1.6. Research Methodology -----	7
1.6.1 Selection of the Study Area-----	7
1.6.2 Sampling Techniques-----	7
1.6.3 Source of Data -----	8
1.6.3.1 Primary Sources -----	8
1.6.3.2 Secondary Sources -----	9
1.6.4 Methods of Data Analysis-----	9
1.7. Scope of the Study -----	10
1.8. Significance of the Study-----	10
1.9. Limitation of the Study-----	10
1.10. Ethical Considerations-----	11
1.11. Organization of the Study -----	11

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS AND LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1. Introduction	12
2.2. Conceptual Framework	12
2.2.1. What is Governance?	12
2.2.1.1. Institutional Viewpoints of Governance	14
2.2.1.2. What are the Dimensions of Governance?	16
2.2.2. What is Good Governance?	17
2.2.2.1 Indicators of Good Governance	19
2.3 Challenges and Opportunities of Good Governance	21
2.3.1. Legislative (Council)	22
2.3.2 Civil Society Organizations	23
2.3.3. Executive/Civil Service	26
2.3.4 Medias	27
2.3.5 Political Parties	29
2.3.6 Decentralization	30
2.3.7 Corruption	32
2.3.8 Legitimacy	34
2.3.9 Participation	35
2.3.10. Transparency	37
2.3.11 Accountability	38
2.3.12 Effectiveness, Efficiency and Affordability	39

CHAPTER THREE

DATA PRESENTATION	41
3.1. Introduction	41
3.2. Background Information about Addis Ababa	41
3.3. Background Information about Respondents	42
3.4. Extent of Good Governance	44
3.5. Households Opinion on Council Members	46
3.6. Households Opinion on CSOs	47
3.7. Households Opinion on the Executive/Civil Service	48

3.8. Households Opinion on Media -----	49
3.9. Households Opinion on Political Parties -----	52
3.10. Household Opinion on Kebeles/Woredas -----	53
3.11. Households Opinion on Corruption -----	54
3.12. Households Opinion on Legitimacy -----	56
3.13. Households Opinion on Participation-----	57
3.14. Households Opinion on Transparency -----	59
3.15. Households Opinion on Accountability -----	61
3.16. Households Opinion on Effectiveness, Efficiency and Affordability-----	62

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION -----	66
4.1. Introduction -----	66
4.2. Conceptualization of Good Governance among Households -----	66
4.3. Political parties -----	67
4.4. Council-----	69
4.5. Media-----	71
4.6. Kebele/Woreda -----	74
4.7. Executive / Civil Service -----	77
4.8. Civil Society Organizations-----	79
4.9. Corruption -----	81
4.10. Legitimacy -----	82
4.11. Participation -----	83
4.12 Transparency -----	84
4.13. Accountability-----	85
4.14.. Efficiency, Effectiveness and Affordability-----	86

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION -----	88
5.1 Summary of Findings-----	88
5.2 Conclusion -----	92
5.3 Recommendations -----	94
REFERENCES -----	96
APPENDICES	

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Socio-administrative Characteristics of Addis Ababa -----	62
Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Sample Households-----	41
Table 3: Extent of Good Governance -----	42
Table 4: Households Opinion on Problems of the City Administration -----	43
Table 5: Households Opinion on the Effectiveness of the Council-----	44
Table 6: Households Opinion on CSOs-----	45
Table 7: Household Opinion on the Executive/Civil Service -----	46
Table 8: Opinion of Households on Political Parties -----	50
Table 9: Households Opinion on Kebeles -----	50
Table 10: Opinion of Households on Corruption -----	52
Table 11: Household Opinion on Legitimacy -----	53
Table 12: Opinion on Participation -----	55
Table 13: Household Opinion on Transparency -----	56
Table 14: Households Opinion on Accountability -----	58
Table 15: Households opinion on the quality and quantity of services -----	60
Table 16: Household opinion on the affordability of services -----	61

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Opinion on Governance across Different Administrations -----	43
Figure 2: Households Source of Information -----	47
Figure 3: Households Priority Interests with regard to information -----	48
Figure 4: Freedom and Independence of Media -----	48
Figure 5: Role of Medias on Good Governance -----	49
Figure 6: Opinion of Households on the Incidence of Corruption across Institutions -----	51
Figure 7: Households Trust in Institutions -----	53
Figure 8: Judgments of households on the participatory nature of institutions -----	56
Figure 9: Knowledge on Leaders, Budget and Activities of Institutions -----	57
Figure 10: Household Opinion on Accountability of Institutions -----	59
Figure 11: Opinion on the Performance of Institutions -----	60

ABSTRACT

This study has investigated the challenges and opportunities of good governance pertaining to the operation of institutions and the attributes of good governance in Addis Ababa. The Council, Political parties, the Media, Woredas (Kebeless), CSOs and the Executive/Civil society of the City are the institutions that were scrutinized. Absence of corruption, legitimacy, participation, transparency, accountability and efficiency and effectiveness are the attributes analyzed in the study. For this end, a mixed research approach that combined qualitative analysis and simple descriptive statistical method was employed. The former was used to analyze the information gathered from expertise and officials while the latter was employed to analyze the data gathered for 300 sample households.

The findings revealed that weak council and opposition political parties, lack of impartial and objective media, insufficient decentralization effort, political consideration in promotion and career development in the civil service, lack of enabling environment for operation of CSOs, high corruption incidence and rent seeking, lack of transparency and accountability, immature participation, inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the provision of at least some basic services posed the challenge to promote good governance in the City. Favorable constitutional arrangement and City Charter, the civil service reform, the effort to equip bureaus and offices in facilities and human power, the recent decentralization process, participation of mass based organizations in decision making and success in providing some services are assets to further consolidate good governance. The study concludes that overarching government control of all matters and lack of space for others results governance to be weak, fragile and slight though some improvements are observed.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Good governance has become a common term that is repeatedly used in development and political literatures since the end of the 1980s. Since then, it has gained significant attention in the world, especially, among international organizations as well as scholars in the academic world. However, during the Cold War, much importance was not given to good governance. What was rather given priority was the Structural Adjustment Program (Imran, 2009). The introduction and implementation of the SAPs since the 1980s has never changed the lives of people in developing countries despite the optimism of international financial institutions and leaders of the developing countries who adopted it as a tool to end poverty and misery. The failure of SAPs was faced in most developing countries where policies were effectively prepared but not implemented properly due to bad governance (ibid.). The significance of good governance for poverty reduction and sustainable development is accepted by both development practitioners and scholars of various academic institutions alike. Therefore, most developing countries build up and promote it as tool to escape from poverty and achieve prosperity. The same reality holds true for countries in Africa (Wohlmuth, 1998).

The concept of good governance has received increasing attention in Africa at the end of the 1980s, the time that coincided with the end of the Cold War. Consequently, regional institutions as well as the respective countries have acknowledged its significance. The increasing relevance of the concept for overall development policies, for strategies to speed up development processes, for measures to change development institutions, and for quality enhancement at sectoral development intervention is accredited. In Africa, where there has been a historical record of bad governance, improving the governance environment has been given a central place in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) – an initiative that represents the latest attempt by African leaders to place the African continent on a path of sustainable development encompassing good governance and prosperity with a consolidation of peace, security, and stability (African Development Bank, 1994). NEPAD has listed a number of prerequisites for African countries to move forward in their quest for sustainable development.

Key among these is the proper adherence to good political, economic, and corporate governance (Hope, 2003).

The historical condition of good governance in Ethiopia is not an exception to what was prevalent in other African countries. Throughout its long history, monarchial type of administration was the dominant governance style in which the monarchs were sensitive more to the “Divine Power” than their subjects. The business of governance and leadership were reserved for the “Royal families” while the majorities were relegated to the status of mere subjects. The subjects simply carried out their tasks in accordance with the commands of their “masters”. The monarchial system came to an end through revolutionary upsurge of the military junta in 1974.

The governance system was not changed as the country has adopted the doctrine of socialism in place of monarchial system. Similar to its predecessors, the art of governance was the business of few military officials who were known as Dergue. No efforts have been undertaken towards good governance. The authoritarian governance system continued unabated in spite of change of personnel. Ethiopia is currently experimenting with good governance. The 1995 constitution includes provisions on the formation of the three branches of government, multiparty political system, and acceptance of the international human rights conventions in the constitution (Dejene and Yigremew, 2009). Policies and legislation favoring legitimacy, accountability, transparency, the rule of law and popular participation are already in place (Kassahun, 2009). Moreover, in FDRE constitution, it is pointed out that the conduct of government affairs to be transparent and public officials to be held accountable for any failure in official duties (FDRE constitution, 1995).

Some studies (Kassahun, 2009, Chanie, 1997, Yigremew and Fenta, 1998), however, showed that Ethiopia’s move toward good governance is not yet well advanced. Most of the institutions and laws related to good governance face challenges. These include: one party dominated politics, as exhibited in the legislature; inadequacy of the decentralization efforts; government controlled media; underdeveloped civil society that lacks enabling environment to flourish, dismal human right records, and lack of transparency. Inadequate administrative capability of the government is also manifested in poor human resource planning, weak plan implementation,

ineffective recording and supervision, widespread corruption incidence, poor financial management, and poor coordination and perpetual reorganization of institutions. These are caused in turn by declining levels of payment that is hampering productivity and efficiency, aggravating labor turn over; imbalance between post of confidence and career post where even middle level positions are filled by political appointees; humiliating acts on career officials that create moral problems, job insecurity and lack of trust and confidence (Chanie, 1997).

The different regimes of Ethiopia had pursued different administrative system to run the City of Addis Ababa based on their respective interest. Before 1974 Addis Ababa was one of the few chartered cities of Ethiopia administered by a lord mayor (*kantiba*) appointed by the Emperor himself. It had considerable local autonomy because the lord mayor was largely free from the political control. In addition, it was the only local government authority empowered to finance projects by issuing its own bonds and borrowing from internal and external sources on its own right (Mehret, 1999). However election in the Council was reserved for few. This stood out as a manifestation of the undemocratic character of the city's governance since it lacked the central principle of democracy, one man one vote doctrine. Nevertheless, it needs to be pointed out that Addis Ababa qualified as a properly governed and well-managed city judging by the broad powers and legitimate functions given to it by the imperial charter (AACC, 1954; Koehn, 1974). After the political change in 1974, the city government lost all its influences and Addis Ababa eventually lost its autonomy. The appointment of the mayor and other civil servants required the membership in the single political party, the "Workers Party of Ethiopia". The end result was hindering of the provision of adequate municipal services to the citizens of Addis Ababa (Kokebe, 2007). After 1991, Addis Ababa became a chartered city as indicated in the Constitution of the Federal Government. The city council is elected directly by the residents of the city in very five years. Despite such legal provisions the nature of governance in Addis Ababa share what is prevalent in the country (Kokebe, 2007; Mehret, 1999). Thus, it is important to be clear about the sources and nature of governance. An understanding of the specific mechanisms and nature of specific costs imposed on the city residents by weak governance was needed to be looked into in order to design important solutions for dealing with it. These and other relevant points pertaining to good governance in Addis Ababa city administration were the focal issues of this paper.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Good governance could be advanced and realized when it is well designed, practiced and institutionalized. It will be realized when multiparty politics is well anchored and enforced; the state is held accountable; free, fair and periodic election is conducted and human and political rights are respected. In addition, devolution of power, enforcement of rule of law, inclusion of civil society and women in political sphere, transparent policy making, efficient and pro-poor services, and citizen participation on local politics, responsive institutions, and economic liberalization are important attributes of good governance (Anwar, 2007). In the absence of these aspects of governance no one can enjoy the fruits that are derived from it. Therefore, every attempt to establish good governance is evaluated in line with these attributes.

Ethiopia has faced a number of governance challenges. Among these the democratic process is fragile, tenuous, weak and barely institutionalized; multiparty politics is hampered by dominant one party system; transparency and accountability is hindered by the culture and practice of government secrecy thereby generating corruption and nepotism; service delivery is obstructed by inefficiency and ineffectiveness of institutions. Suppression of civil society organizations by imposing draconian laws and keeping the media under the sledgehammer of the state are also said to be common. On the contrary, some people argue that good governance and democracy are on the right track in the country. They mentioned some of the constitutional provisions such as those stipulating the holding of political power through regular and competitive election, legal existence of political parties, the freedom of the press, the separation of power along the three branches of the government and the decentralization processes as their evidence.

The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia stipulates that the residents' of Addis Ababa have full power of self-government (article 49, sub art. 2). Within this legal framework the Administration is expected to carry out its day today activities based on the principle of good governance. The Revised Charter of the City in its article nine also underlined that the City government is guided by the principle of good governance characterized by effectiveness, transparency, accountability and impartiality. In fact, one of the reasons to revise the previous proclamation of the City (Proclamation No.87/ 1997) was the need to organize the

management of the City from the perspective of good governance (*Negarit Gazeta, 361/2002*). However the implementation of this legal provision is contested.

The City Administration claimed that, good governance is its central agenda and is making maximum effort to promote it. It also argued that it tries to engage residents on different public issues, make an effort to be accountable and transparent in the conduct of its business, works on building efficient and effective civil service which enables to deliver services easily. However, residents of the city seemed to be unsatisfied on the efforts of the City Administration. They alleged that they are not empowered and fully participated; Services are not adequately delivered; accountability and transparency are not ensured; political biases and corruption are not checked; rule of law is not adhered. Therefore, what logically follows from these arguments was the need to study latter developments in Addis Ababa City Administration. This is highly important for both academic significance and practical applicability in the face of AACA unique feature in relation to the rest of the country.

Therefore studying the prevailing challenges and the available opportunities in a manner that contribute for the advancement of the concept and application of governance in general and good governance in particular in the study area is an imperative. Notwithstanding this significance of studying good governance in AACA, there has been no comprehensive and systematic study of the issue. However, there are some studies (Fenta, 1998; Molla, 2007; Anwar, 2007, ECA, 2005, etal) that are focused on either at the country level or other parts of the country. The contexts in these areas are different from the case of Addis Ababa. Most of these studies have also emphasized on single attributes of good governance (for instance on decentralization, specific service delivery, corruption, local level administration etc) there by lacks comprehensiveness by and large. This study, therefore, tried to deal with the central issues of good governance and its status within the existing political environment, both from the theoretical and practical viewpoints in a comprehensive manner.

1.3. General Objective

The general objective of this study was to identify and asses the major challenges encountered and the opportunities available in Addis Ababa City Administration, by taking important institutions that had an impact on it, along certain attributes that had been accepted by both international organizations and academia.

1.4. Specific Objectives

Based on the above general objective, the following key points were identified as the specific objectives of the study.

- ❖ To identify important institutions that had massive impact on the nature of governance in the City Administration and their performance in line with certain qualities.
- ❖ To examine the perceived and actual challenges they encountered in the process.
- ❖ To depict the perception of the residents on the nature of governance in general and each institutions in particular.
- ❖ To analyse the major opportunities to build and consolidate good governance

1.5. Research Questions

Good governance is a fluid and multidimensional concept which can be understood in different ways from different perspectives but based on the above objectives; one can draw the following important research questions:

1. What are the important institutions that had significant impact on good governance and how did they perform their activity?
2. What are the major actual and perceived challenges they faced?
3. How do citizens judge the status of good governance and their perception on the performance of these institutions in the City Administration? and
4. What are the major favorable opportunities for promoting good governance in the City?

1.6. Research Methodology

The methodological part of the paper focused on; selection of the study area; sampling techniques; source of data; and data analysis methods.

1.6.1 Selection of the Study Area

This study was held in Addis Ababa City Administration. Two Sub-cities were selected randomly among all the ten Sub-cities. Lottery method was employed for this purpose and accordingly Bole and Gullele Sub-city were pulled out. The primary data from the households were collected from four Woredas, two from each Sub-city, which comprised nine Kebeles before the current restructuring of the Kebeles. Even though, Kebeles are replaced by Woredas in the current restructuring of the city administration, documented data were available on the former, thus the two were used interchangeably and most of the data were derived from the former structures of the Kebeles.

1.6.2 Sampling Techniques

The households were among the primary data sources in this study. The total numbers of such sample survey respondents in the selected Kebeles/Woredas were 300 households. Multi-stage random sampling was employed to select them. Firstly, four Woredas were selected out of 24 Woredas in the two Sub-cities by random sampling techniques. The Woredas were: Woreda 10 and 11 of Bole Sub-city and Woreda 03 and 08 of Gulele Sub-city. Kebele 16, 18, 21 and 22 from Woreda 10; Kebele 03, 04, 05 from Woreda 03; Kebele 09 and 05 from Woreda 08 were selected to draw sampled households.

Following this proportional number of sampled households, 50 from each selected Kebeles, were chosen using random sampling. For all cases, except Woreda 11 of Bole Sub-city, the sampling frame of the study was obtained from the national population census of the 1994 since the latest national population census (2007) was not ready for Kebeles and Woredas of AACA.

The age and sex composition of the respondents was paid attention and endeavor was made to represent the cross section of the society.

1.6.3 Source of Data

The study was more of a descriptive type of research because descriptive research is the appropriate method for measuring public opinion and attitude towards governance. In addition the research had tried to investigate on the operation of public institutions which required referring of other documents and hence mixed type of research. Accordingly, it employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources.

1.6.3.1 Primary Sources

In order to collect the reliable and necessary data, the researcher triangulated the following commonly used techniques.

A) Sample Survey

Questionnaires for sample survey were prepared based on the objective, literatures reviewed and the conceptual frameworks developed for this study. Questionnaires were prepared in English and then translated to Amharic and again translated to English to check the validity of the translations. The questionnaires were more of structured type and some semi-structured questions were also incorporated. The questions were first involved in the pilot testing. The questionnaire was then refined and finalized based on inputs from the pilot survey, which had been administered to the sample members of the respondents. Completed questionnaire was checked for errors and inconsistencies by the researcher thoroughly check every question.

Three Enumerators who have University degree were employed and trained for two days. The training delivered to the enumerators focused on the explanation of concepts and the content of each item in the questionnaire, how to approach sample respondents, and how to keep recording. They also got close supervision of the researcher.

Sample respondents were selected in random sampling technique from each of the sampled kebeles. Data about the nature of the council, executive/civil service, kebeles, political parties, media and civil society organizations were collected from both male and female sex groups. The questionnaires were also composed to comprise the demographic characteristics of the respondents, extent of good governance in the City Administration and some attributes of good governance that surround these public institutions.

B) Key Informants' In-depth Interview

Key informants in-depth interview conducted regarding the major challenges and opportunities of good governance that encountered the legislative (council), executive, the media, political parties, kebeles and civil society organizations in AACAA. The challenges and opportunities, interaction and institutional structure and its impact on good governance were the central and parcel part of the interview. The main key interviewees of the research were purposely selected and attempt was made to have knowledgeable respondents from various sectors who were supposed to provide answers on governance issues. Accordingly, they were two from the Council, one from the Capacity Building Bureau, one from Civil Service Commission, four from the media, two from the political parties, two from the kebeles, one from university and three from CSOs. They were sixteen in number. Their number in each respective institution was determined depending on the importance and redundancy of the information they provided.

C) Direct Personal Observation

This instrument of data collection employed because it was important to crosscheck the data and information that gathered through the above two methods. It supported the whole information through personal contact with the events. To this end the researcher personally observed some administrative activities and municipal services that were carried out by the Administration and other institutions.

1.6.3.2 Secondary Sources

Regarding secondary sources, authentic and relevant literatures on the topic were reviewed. Data and factual information from various published materials, official documents such as the constitution and various legal instruments, newspapers, etc were referred. Books, working papers, articles, journals, reports, and statistical documents were also employed.

1.6.4 Methods of Data Analysis

After collecting the data, it was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequencies, tabular representation and graphs. Qualitative methods of analysis also used for data that were collected through personal observation and interview. Attempt was made to triangulate some works on governance in the country in general and Addis Ababa in particular with the data and information that came from the sample households and key informants.

1.7. Scope of the Study

While Addis Ababa City Administration encompasses ten Sub- cities, the study concentrated on households reside in two Sub cities which were selected randomly. The researcher further limited himself only to four Woredas. Furthermore, there were many issues to be studied; the study limited itself only to asses the situation of governance taking only certain attributes of good governance and taking only certain institutions. The study was more emphasized on the administrative and political aspects of governance.

1.8. Significance of the Study

Good governance is the key for development and prosperity. It is a critical factor in poverty reduction as well as development objective in its own right .Hence in countries, like Ethiopia, that make an effort to alleviate poverty and bring development, researches conducted on good governance has an important place. This research paper had, among other things, the following contributions.

- It recommended important points which contribute for consolidation of the governance system in Addis Ababa City Administration.
- It severed as input for further studies on good governance; particularly for those emphasizing at macro and micro level as this research tried to synthesize them.
- It used for officials and other stakeholder to know the interests of the residents of the city and showed what is expected from them as long as good governance is concerned;
- It showed the gap in governance and attempted to recommend points important to fill this space.

1.9. Limitation of the Study

- Governance as the concept is multidimensional that includes social, economic and political aspects. In this research, more emphasis was given to the political and administrative aspect of it. Here it is difficult to draw inferences, from the political and administrative dimension, about the social and economic aspects even though they are not mutually exclusive.

- The condition of governance of in Addis Ababa may vary from other areas. Hence conclusion, based on the status of good governance in Addis Ababa, to the rest of the country is incomplete.
- The issue of governance is highly sensitive to politics. Participants weighted the research based on political aspects than its academic value. Here, officials and research participants became reluctant to provide genuine information.
- Historically, due to the complexity and sensitivity of good governance issues and the above stated limitations, the study confined to assess the progress and challenges posed good governance beginning from the current administration. However, every effort was made to give some picture on previous governance efforts.

1.10. Ethical Considerations

This study is conducted in a manner that is consistent with ethical issues that need to be considered in conducting a research. Accordingly, letter from the Institute of Regional and Local Development Studies was written for the concerned bodies. Hence, most individuals, the researcher visited for interview, accepted and cooperated with the researcher. Moreover, a prior consent of the participants was requested before conducting the interview. The data gathered from those who did not want to be quoted is analyzed unanimously.

1.11. Organization of the Study

The thesis made to comprise five chapters. The first chapter is dedicated to the introductory part. It emphasized on briefing the concepts of good governance and how it evolved in development and political literatures. It also indicated the general and specific objective behind this research, the research question, the methodological part and others. The second chapter focused on the revision of related literatures and analysis of concepts that surround good governance. The third chapter emphasized on presenting the data collected from the sample households. The fourth chapter concerned with the analysis and discussion of the data gathered from sample households and key informants. The last chapter dedicated to the summaries, conclusions and recommendations of important points.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the concept of governance, its institutional understanding and dimensions were considered. Governance usually used together with the prefix “good” and what makes governance either sound or bad were observed. Identifying and analyzing challenges and opportunities to build and promote good governance were also assessed. This chapter also paid attention on the construction of conceptual framework that was employed throughout this study.

2. 2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1. What is Governance?

The word governance has become a very fashionable concept and is being used in a variety of ways. It became much popular when the dominant international financial institutions advocate it and they attached conditionality in dealing with developing countries. But this does not mean that the concept of governance is new. Early discussions go back to at least 400 B.C. to the Arthashastra, a fascinating treatise on governance attributed to Kautilya, thought to be the chief minister to the King of India. In it, Kautilya presented key pillars of the ‘art of governance’, emphasizing justice, ethics, and anti-autocratic tendencies (Kaufman D. and A.Krayy, 2007).

Despite the long provenance of the concept, there is as yet no strong consensus around a single definition of governance. Various authors and organizations have produced a wide array of definitions. Some are so broad that they cover almost anything, such as the definition of “rules, enforcement mechanisms, and organizations” offered by the World Bank’s 2002 World Development Report. Others like the one offered by Douglass North (2000), are not only broad, but risk making the links from good governance to development almost tautological:

“How do we account for poverty in the midst of plenty? We must create incentives for people to invest in more efficient technology, increase their skills, and organize efficient markets..... Such incentives are embodied in institutions”. A good example of narrower definition is given by the World Bank (1992) when it proposed on public sector governance as: “Governance is the

manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development".

In the Bank's latest governance and anticorruption strategy (2007), this definition has persisted almost unchanged, with governance defined as: "...the manner in which public officials and institutions acquire and exercise the authority to shape public policy and provide public goods and services". Kaufmann, Kraay, and Zoido-Lobaton (1999), defined governance in similar fashion, but with broader scope, with the World Bank as:

"...the traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. This includes the process by which governments are selected, monitored and replaced; the capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies; and the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them."

Governance is about power, relationships, and accountability – who has influence, who decides, how citizens and other stakeholders have their say, and how decision makers are held accountable (Schacter, 2000). The concept of governance combines ideas about political authority and the management of economic and social resources, as well as the capacity of governments to formulate sound policies and perform their functions in an effective, efficient, and equitable manner (Smith, 2007).

It appears alongside such concepts and terms as democracy, civil society, popular participation, human rights and social and sustainable development. The concepts also associated with public sector reforms. It is regarded as an aspect of the New Paradigm in Public Administration which emphasizes the role of public managers in providing high quality services that citizens value; advocates increases managerial autonomy, particularly by reducing central agency controls; demands measures and rewards both organizational and individual performance; and is receptive to computation and open minded about which public purpose should be performed by public servants as opposed to the private sector (CAPAM,1994).

For Agere (2000) a number of important relationships emerge from this new emerging concept, which has been the focused of debate in the political arena as well as in academic institutions. Among these, the relationship between government and markets, government and citizens, government and the voluntary sector (Private), elected (politicians) and appointed (civil

servants), local government institutions and urban and rural dwellers, the legislature and executive and between nation states and international institutions.

2.2.1.1. Institutional Viewpoints of Governance

Such variations in academicians in explaining the concept of governance is also reflected in major international and regional institutions. The following institutional view of governance clearly shows the ambiguity and vagueness of the concept.

The World Bank: Governance is defined as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources. The World Bank has identified three distinct aspects of governance: 1) The form of political regime, 2) The process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development and of 3) the capacity of governments to design formulate and implement policies and discharge functions (Annower U., 2010).

United Nations Development Program: Governance is viewed as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Going beyond the mediating role, another document of UNDP embraces the definition of governance from political dimension. According to this, "Governance is a political issue. It deals with power relations between central and local governments, between various actors in society (government, private sector and citizens) and between donor agencies and countries in which they work" (UNDP- Paragon, 2002).

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD): The concept of Governance denotes the use of political authority and exercise of control in a society in relation to the management of its resources for social and economic development. This broad definition encompasses the role of public authorities in establishing the environment in which economic operators function and in determining the distribution of benefits as well as the nature of the relationship between the ruler and the ruled (Annower U., 2010).

Asian Development Bank (ADB): Governance is "the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development. On this

meaning, the concept of governance is concerned directly with the management of the development process, involving both the public and the private sectors. It encompasses the functioning and capability of the public sector as well as rules and institutions that create the framework for the conduct of both public and private business, including accountability for economic and financial performance, and regulatory frameworks relating to companies, corporations and partnerships. In broad terms, then, governance is about the institutional environment in which citizens interact among themselves and with government agencies/officials (IDPAA PRIA, 2001).

Institute of Governance, Ottawa: Governance comprises the institutions, processes and conventions in a society which determine how power is exercised, how important decisions affecting society are made and how various interests are accorded a place in such decisions (Weiss, 2000).

Commission on Global Governance: Governance is the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and co-operative action may be taken. It includes formal institutions and regimes empowered to enforce compliance, as well as informal arrangements that people and institutions either have agreed to or perceive to be in their interest (Commission on Global Governance, 1995).

International Institute of Administrative Sciences: Governance refers to the process whereby elements in society wield power and authority, and influence and enact policies and decisions concerning public life, and economic and social development. Governance is a broader notion than government. Governance involves interaction between these formal institutions and those of civil society (Weiss, 2000).

Tokyo Institute of Technology: The concept of governance refers to the complex set of values, norms, processes and institutions by which society manages its development and resolves conflict, formally and informally. It involves the state, but also the civil society (economic and social actors, community-based institutions and unstructured groups, the media, etc) at the local, national, regional and global levels (Weiss,2000).

The above institutional views of governance clearly show that the business of governance is not solely reserved for the state and its institutions rather it is a multi actor issue that include civil society organizations, the private sector, and other formal and informal organizations that facilitate the smooth and harmony management of social, economic and political affairs.

2.2.1.2. What are the Dimensions of Governance?

The various explanation of governance given by both academicians and practitioners clearly depicted that governance is a multi dimensional, but complementary with each other, phenomenon. For instance, UNDESA (2000) and Ogundiya(2010) came up with the following dimensions of governance:

Economic governance: includes processes of decision making that directly or indirectly affect a country's economic activities or its relationships with other economies. Generally, economic governance has a major influence on societal issues, such as equity, poverty and quality of life. Economic governance is concerned with the decision-making processes related to the efficient allocation of economic resources in order to promote growth, the creation of wealth, equity and sustainable human development. It entails the creation of the enabling environment-within which such decisions could take place, and the promotion of cooperation and partnership between the major players in the economy conducive to economic growth and sustainable development. These include the government, private sector and the relevant organizations in the civil society.

Political governance: refers to decision making and policy implementation of a legitimate and authoritative state. The state should consist of separate legislative, executive and judicial branches, represent the interests of a pluralist polity, and allow citizens to freely elect their representatives. These relate to the issues of democracy, representation, and inclusion, power sharing and the relationship between the institutions of governance, such as the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, political parties and civil society organizations.

Administrative governance: is a system of policy implementation carried out through an efficient, independent, accountable and open public sector. These elements constitute the governance system, that is, the formal institutional and organizational structure of authoritative decision-making in the modern state. Administrative governance is concerned with the implementation of the decisions, the institutional framework, the knowledge, skills and experience of the personnel involved and the resources needed to ensure efficient and effective

implementation of public policies, the supply of the public services and the manner in which they are delivered.

Systemic governance: encompasses the processes and structures of society that guide political and socioeconomic relationships to protect cultural and religious beliefs and values, create and maintain an environment of health, freedom, security and with the opportunity to exercise personal capabilities that lead to a better life for all people (World Bank Institute, 2003). Systemic governance is concerned with the convergence of all the structures and processes of governance that brings together government, private sector and civil society in an efficient, effective and meaningful decision-making framework.

2.2.2 What is Good Governance?

Good governance is defined as the existence of political accountability, bureaucratic transparency, the exercise of legitimate power, freedom of association and participation, freedom of information and expression, sound fiscal management and public financial accountability, respect for the rule of law, a predictable legal framework encompassing an interdependent and credible justice system, respect for human rights, an active legislature, enhanced opportunities for the development of pluralistic forces including civil society, and capacity development (Hope, 2006).

Good governance is a societal state epitomized by, among others, the following characteristics: predictable, open, and enlightened policy making; a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; a strong civil society participating in public affairs; adherence to the rule of law; respect for basic human rights and freedoms; judicial independence; and consistent traditions and predictable institutions that determine how authority is exercised in a given nation-state, including: first, the process by which governments are selected, held accountable, monitored, and replaced; second, the capacity of governments to manage resources efficiently and formulate, implement, and enforce sound policies and regulations; and third the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern the political, economic, and social interactions among those same citizens and the state (ibid.).

Good governance takes place when the process [collective power is utilized for the realization of common objectives] is conducted within the framework of a written constitution, constitutionalism, the separation of powers and the rule of law, and ethical codes of conduct and traditions of the people; when it responds to the basic needs, wishes and aspirations of the people; when it is based on sound, efficient organizational and operational principles; and when the entire process is transparent and accountable, whose consequences are understood and predictable. Leadership, competence, political wills, integrity and capacity are critical to the promotion of good governance (UNDESA, 2000).

Bad governance occurs when the constitutional and legal provisions are faulted, law enforcement fails or is compromised, ethical and traditional codes of conduct are ignored or undermined; when accountability and transparency are lacking, appropriate organizational and operational principles are not applied, and the leaders are greedy, rapacious, corrupt, incompetent, and insensitive to the needs, wishes and aspirations of the people (ibid.).

Governance is sound when rule of law is respected, free and fair election is held, human and property rights are guaranteed, powers of the three branches of government are separated, freedom of association and press are enforced, legal frameworks are properly worked, the civil service is competent and accountable, inclusive policies are formulated, civil societies are flourished, public resources are fairly distributed, women are fully engaged in the process (ECA, 2005, WB, 2000). For Leftwich(1996) , good governance is understood in two different ways. The first is a narrow administrative and managerial view adopted by the World Bank. In this conception, good governance “consists of a set of rules and institutions and a system of public administration which is open, transparent, efficient and accountable.” The second notion of good governance is equated with democratic politics. In this sense it involves “competitive multiparty system, regular, free and fair elections, independent judiciary, free press and protection of human right”. Samia (2000) and Ruth Meena(2002) regards good governance as observance of gender based discrimination, protection of women right, and gender equality at all spheres including politics. Still others take broader view and extend the meaning to signify the relationship among various institutions of the state, non state and trans state actors (Pier, 2000).

However, the different conceptions are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive. Rather they show different aspects or a difference of emphasis. Whatever is emphasized, consensus is emerging that good governance entails popular participation, equity, access to information, freedom of expression, wider participation of civil society, legitimacy, pluralist polity, free and fair election, accountability, separation of power, check and balance, independent judiciary and legislative, and combating corruption(UNDP, 1997,ECA,2005,Anwar,2007,WB,2000).

2.2.2.1 Indicators of Good Governance

There are failures to achieve consensus among academicians and practitioners on the indicators of good governance. Disputes about governance indicators are “endemically ideological”. Decisions regarding what to measure and which indicators to use are based on public administration and political frameworks, and these are normative in character. This gives rise to a situation where the same indicator may have contradictory interpretations, depending on which ideological underpinning is utilized. Second, some regimes, although forced into compliance by trade and aid considerations, are reluctant to produce and disseminate governance indicators that reflect adversely on their progress towards good governance. This reluctance is compounded when indicators are used in cross-country comparisons and rankings (Kaufman D. and A.Krayy, 2007).

Despite such challenges, scholars in the academic world and policy practitioners came up with various indicators of good governance. For instance, The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa has identified six components of good governance: a political system that encourages broad input from all elements of civil society; impartial and credible electoral administration and an informed and active electorate; strengthened public sector legislative and administrative institutions; transparency, predictability and accountability in political, oversight and regulatory decision by government and public bodies; effective public sector management with stable macroeconomic policy, effective resource mobilization and efficient use of public resources; adherence to the rule of law in a manner that protects personal and civil liberties and gender equity and ensures public safety and security with equal access to justice for all.

The Asian Development Bank came up with the following governance indicators. These were: a stronger, more efficient public service that is capable of implementing policy and delivering

better public services to all; better and more transparent public financial management; wider access to justice and ensuring universal application; more participative and responsive government, particularly at local levels, and a government that fights corruption and waste at all levels (IDPAA PRIA, 2001).

From the above conceptual explanations and discussions on governance, its institutional viewpoints and dimensions; good governance, and its indicators, it is essential to develop a working definition and conceptual framework that guide this study. For this end, good governance is the synchronization of important institutions in one hand and its attributes on the other hand. The qualities and characters of CSOs, media, the City council, executive/civil service, political parties, and kebeles together with the attributes such as efficiency, effectiveness, accountability, transparency, legitimacy and minimal corruption determine the governance system to be “bad” or “good”.

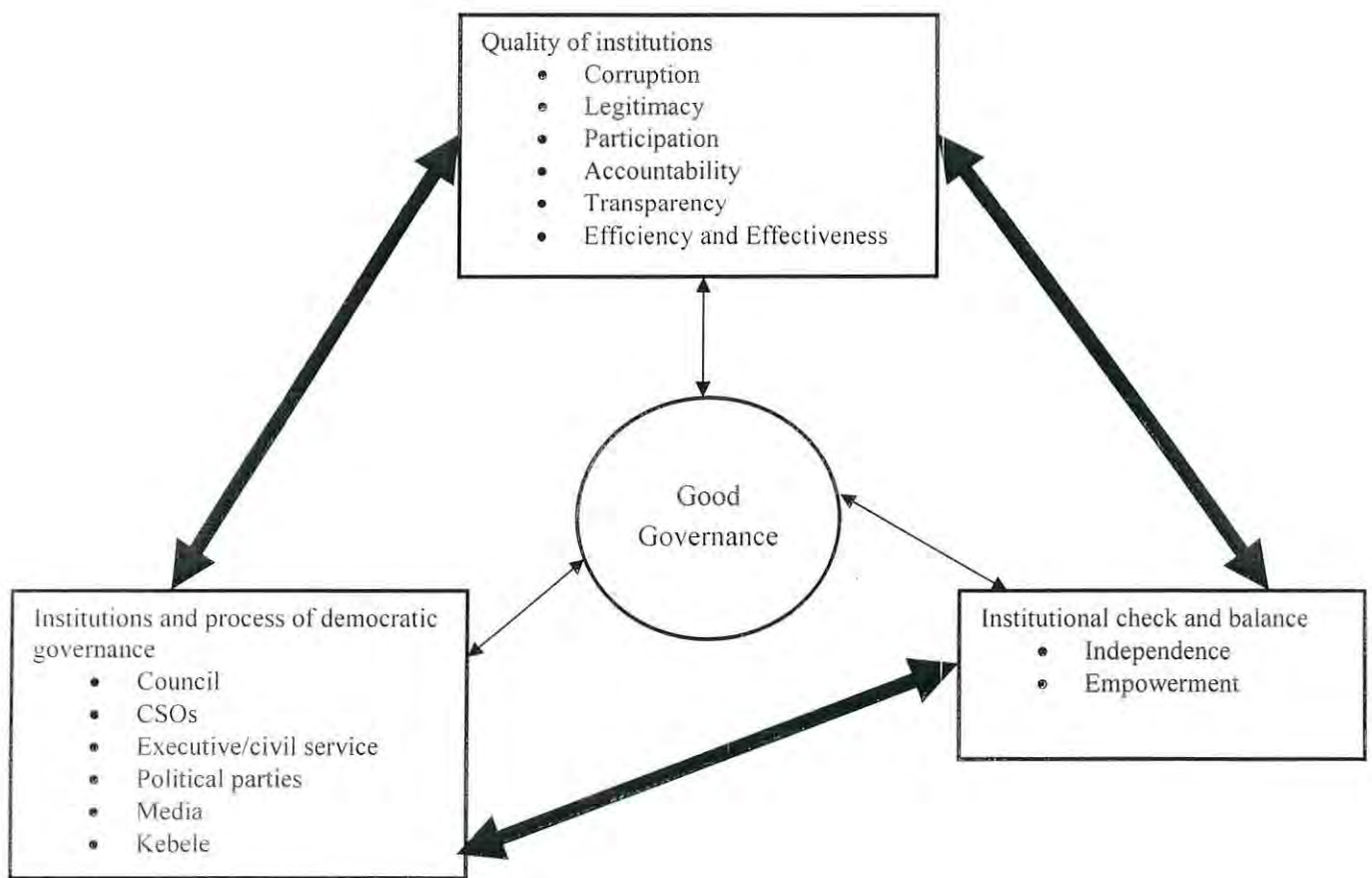


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

2.3 Challenges and Opportunities of Good Governance

Now there is clear consensus among scholars and institutions that good governance and sustainable development are two sides of the same coin. Good governance is a *sine qua non* for development in Africa (ECA, 2005). However, there are numerous challenges of good governance in many developing countries. ECA (2005), in its governance report, mentioned some of the challenges faced African countries. Among these: the democratic process is fragile, uneven, tenuous and remain weak and barely institutionalized, the culture of political authoritarianism manifested in military dictatorship and one party system is dominant; large discrepancies occur along ethnic, regional, religion, gender and other criteria; in most countries, institutional capacity is weak, there is little transparency and accountability, corruption is the common phenomena in the business of the government, inefficient service delivery is common and in some countries where the legacy of authoritarian rule has yet to recede still suppress the operation of civil society organizations by imposing draconian laws on their activities and keeping the media under the sledgehammer of the state.

There are, however, some progresses in the continent. Among these: the scope of political representation has widened, there is more social inclusiveness, the government no longer monopolize the public sphere, a legal framework that espouses the autonomy of electoral institutions, the public are engaged and began to determine its own fate, the rule of law is respected at least in some countries, the civil service is began to be filled with professionals, multi party politics is began to be anchored in most countries constitution (ECA, 2005).

The performance of countries in realizing good governance greatly varies. It is recognizing this disparity that the research is conducted and tried to investigate the major challenges that encountered and the opportunities available at the City level. This has provided an important insight on the exercise of good governance at grass root level. For this end, relevant literatures on the opportunities and challenges of good governance were revised. However it is significant to be acquainted with the idea that the net result of the challenges and opportunities that surround the legislature, the executive/bureaucracy, political parties, civil societies, local governments and media are the challenges and opportunities of good governance in the City. The same argument holds true on the attributes of good governance.

2.3.1. Legislative (Council)

Legislatures are vital institutions for all democratic governance because they facilitate both vertical and horizontal accountability of the rulers to the ruled. Indeed, as noted by Steven Fish, “stronger legislatures [implies] stronger democracies” (Fish 2006). Legislatures foster increased accountability, and thus “good governance” on the part of the executive branch when they develop into independent institutions of countervailing power. The legislature has major roles to play. Effective legislatures can contribute to effective governance by performing important functions necessary to sustain democracy in complex and diverse societies (John and Robert, 1999). Democratic societies need the arena for the airing of societal differences provided by representative assemblies with vital ties to the populace. They need institutions that are capable of writing good laws in both the political sense of getting agreement from participants, and in the technical sense of achieving the intended purposes (ibid.) In other words; parliamentary (legislature) roles are identified as ways to strengthen democratic systems of government (Gordon Barnhart, 1999).

Thus, legislature today has become more and more a multi-functional institution performing a variety of roles many, of these being inter-related and often meshing into one another (Subhash, 2000). Over the years, the functions of the legislature have no longer remained restricted merely to legislating. Legislature has, in fact, emerged as a multi-functional institution encompassing in its ambit various roles of developmental, social engineering and legitimizational, representational, informational, financial and administrative surveillance, grievance ventilation and redressal, national integrational, conflict resolution, leadership recruitment and training, educational and so on (ibid.).

Joe, Barkan et al(2010) came up with three core functions that are performed collectively inside the legislature: Representation, legislating in the broad sense (i.e. making laws that set forth government policy), and oversight or monitoring of the executive branch. These core functions promote good governance in one way or another. For instance, effective oversight is beneficial for a political system for, at least, two basic reasons (West and Cooper, 1989): first, because the oversight activity can actually contribute to improving the quality of the policies/programs

initiated by the government; second, because as the government policies are ratified by the legislative branch, such policies acquire greater legitimacy.

Scholars have also paid some attention to the tools that parliaments and legislatures can employ to oversee the government and the government's activities. These studies have underlined that the legislatures may adopt several tools to oversee the actions of the executives such as hearings in committees, hearings in the plenary assembly, the creation of inquiry committees, parliamentary questions, question time, the interpellations and the ombudsman (Richardo et al., 2006, Pennings, 2000). Scholars have noted, however, that the presence of the oversight tool is a necessary but insufficient condition for effective oversight. Effective oversight, as was observed, depends not only on the availability of oversight tools, but depends also on additional conditions. Effective oversight may depend on the specific oversight powers given to the parliament, on whether the parliament has the ability to modify legislation (Loewenberg and Patterson, 1979), on whether parliaments and parliamentarians are given proper information to perform their oversight tasks adequately (Frantzich, 1979), on the role of individual MPs, on the role of committee chairs, on the saliency of issues and on how aggressively the opposition performs its role (Rockman, 1984).

However, all legislatures experience difficulties in performing some of their functions, and newly developed legislatures are likely to experience difficulties with all of them. Common challenges faced by legislatures include the following: lack of political will and institutional consciousness; poor perceptions by and relations with civil society; lack of formal lawmaking and oversight authority; inadequate access to information; inadequately prepared legislators; lack of and inadequately trained staff and ineffective organization and facilities (John, K.J and Nakamura, R. 1999).

2.3.2 Civil Society Organizations

There is no consensus as to the definition of 'civil society', but one way to think of it is in terms of activities that are undertaken for the public good by groups or individuals in the space between the family, the state and the market (Salamon and Anheier, 1998). Some theories of civil society posit it as a 'space' independent of the state and the market (Cohen and Arato,

1992). Others equate it with the voluntary sector (Keane, 1998). Civil society can be also viewed as the totality of groups and individuals in a country, who show a regular concern for the social and political affairs in that country without fulfilling the function of political parties. This definition requires that we look today not only at NGOs which, as noted, are often taken as synonymous with civil society by western donors but also at a rich array of heterogeneous civic elements that includes trade unions, foundations, faith-based and religious groups, community-based organizations, social movements and networks and ordinary citizens who are active in the public sphere.

Civil society is viewed as a non-political sphere where individuals come together and form associations voluntarily. De Tocqueville depoliticized the concept by separating 'political society' from 'civil society' and designating as civil society 'associationalism' of a cultural, as opposed to a political nature (Kumar, 2001). It is important to note that while civil society retains autonomy from the state, that autonomy is rarely absolute. Within this relatively autonomous sphere, civil society interrogates the state and negotiates with it through opposition or cooperation/collaboration to realize its aims. Civil society organizations (CSOs) are moving rapidly into development partnerships (Howell and Pearce, 2001) and can play a watchdog function at local, national and transnational levels.

There are several reasons why civil society is indispensable for ensuring good governance. First, civil society considers improvement of people's lives as the top priority and an end itself. Second, civil society organizations are usually independent and can act as watchdogs by monitoring implementation of governmental commitments in different sectors. Third, civil society can fill the legislative and policy gap by advancing anti-corruption proposals that may not be supported by political parties. For example CSOs can oppose dubious legislative bills and/or advocate rights of vulnerable groups that are numerically too small to have a political weight vis-a'-vis economic interest groups. Fourth, Civil society can operate on the basis of ideas rather than prestige, power and money (ibid.).

There are also other several ways in which civil society can contribute to good governance. Firstly, they can able to build state capability. They do this through participatory policy and

budget formulation, delivering basic services, providing training to public service providers and they can raise citizen's awareness about rights. Secondly, civil society organizations able to promote state accountability by influencing standard setting, carrying out investigation, demanding awareness from the state and by applying sanctions where the state is found to be lacking. Thirdly, they able to build state responsiveness by identifying and voicing the needs of citizens and pursuing social inclusion through various strategies including advocacy (Jones and Fletcher T., 2008).

Diamond(1997) also identify the following function of civil society in relation to promoting democratic governance as: limiting the power of the state; monitoring human rights and strengthening the rule of law; monitoring the democratic process; educating citizens about effective citizenship; building a culture of tolerance and civic engagement; incorporating marginal groups into the political processes; providing autonomous means from the state to raise the level of material development; information sharing; and building a constituency for political and economic reforms. Heam (1999) complements these roles by adding accountability in the allocation of resources, open dialogue, the power to lobby the legislature and defending of human rights as key functions of civil societies.

However, civil societies influence on government policy formulations and evaluations is little or non-existent. Their involvement in planning, implementing and monitoring pro poor growth has been minimal and their roles as being modern watchdog institution has been crippled (ECA, 2005, Wilson, 2005). Capacity gaps among civil society have been rampant. The weakness of civil society is also related to the limited funding, institutional capacity constraints, competition between organizations and limited political space. The latter problem is linked to the introduction of NGOs registration bills, in which the openness of the government to civil society participation in the policy arena has not yet been secured and properly institutionalized. There are also concerns that, with the move away from donor project-based funding towards sector-wide and general budget support approaches, civil society organizations will have less freedom to voice critical viewpoints (Jones, Nichola and Fletcher T., 2008).

2.3.3. Executive/Civil Service

The executive occupies a strategic position in the governance study because it constitutes the fulcrum of the policy processes in terms of formulation and implementation. The capacity of the executive is central to designing and implementing government policies and aggregating the general interest of the public. This capacity depends on numerous factors. According to ECA (2005) the quality, caliber and legitimacy of elected executive and the cabinet and the quality of the bureaucracy are important determinants of capacity of the executive and thus for good governance.

A well established and institutionalized bureaucracy can assist and strengthen a weak elected political authority, but a weak bureaucracy will likely undermine the lofty goals of good political leadership. State capacity and its development depend on four main factors. First there is the quality of the leadership and the professionalism of its civil machinery. Second is the degree of popular legitimacy, which in turn, depends on the representativeness of the system. Third is the nature of remuneration and training for the civil service or the public sector. A poorly remunerated work force is less likely to be motivated. Fourth is the center-local power relationships designed to facilitate local participation and networking with organs of the civil service in policy making and efficiently implementing and delivering services to the people (ibid.).

The nature of the public sector has fundamental implications for the performance of the political leadership and the executive. Professionalism, discipline and technical skills are core issues in administrative competence and capability. No subjects are of greater concern to the effectiveness than of government machinery and individual civil servants than those affecting appointment, promotion, and discipline. The machinery set up by the government to regulate appointment, promotion and discipline should attract and retain the best personnel and maintain the morale of civil servants. The selection criteria to entry to civil servants should be based on impartial criteria. Procedures must be based on the criteria of merit and public interest-not on political and patronage or nepotism. It is also important for the civil service and the executive to reflect the cross section of the society in such away that people from different region, religion, sex etc. will be represented (ibid.).

2.3.4 The Media

The liberalization of political space has allowed private newspaper, radios and television stations to flourish in many developing countries and provide an opportunity for diverse source of information and views as well as a means for the people to influence governance. The government no longer monopolizes the public sphere; the people also participate in it (ECA, 2005). The role of the state towards media business is more of regulatory.

The media have become a major forum for the discussion of national policy. Other new avenues for public participation include governance forums initiated by government institutions in cooperation with other agents, public hearings of parliamentary committees and presentations and roundtables conducted by civil society groups, opinions and think tanks (ibid.). The media give priority to provide background analysis and interpretation of events, facilitate public debate and expression, and deliver timely factual coverage of events. As far as governance is concerned, the role of media can be observed as watchdogs, agenda setters and gate keepers (Norris, P., 2010). As watchdogs, the news media have a responsibility to help the public interest, ensuring the accountability of powerful decision makers by highlighting cases of malfeasance, misadministration, and corruption, thereby strengthening the transparency and effectiveness of governance. As agenda setters, the news media have a responsibility to raise awareness of pervasive social problems, helping to turn public attention to matters of common interest, to inform governing officials about social needs, and to inform the international community about development challenges. As gatekeepers, the news media have a responsibility to reflect and incorporate the plurality of viewpoints and political persuasions in reporting, to maximize the diversity of perspectives and arguments heard in rational public deliberations, and to enrich the public sphere. Despite such roles the Media have encountered numerous Challenges. These challenges are linked with the state, economy and problems that surround the profession itself.

The role of the state may be particularly important in setting the broadest context. Constitutional and legal restrictions can severely curtail freedom of expression and publication, including stringent libel laws and restrictive official secrets acts, which severely curtail how reporters can act. Human rights watch agencies and organizations concerned about protecting press freedom regularly document cases of outright violence, imprisonment, and intimidation used against

journalists and broadcasters, which have been commonly been employed to shut down newspapers and to silence critical voices (Committee to Protect Journalists, 2007). States also continue to use the techniques of official propaganda and censorship, and state monopolies of radio and television channels, and the policy framework regulating publication, broadcasting, and telecommunications, can limit a plurality of voices on the airwaves. Freedom of expression for investigative journalism can also be restricted by requirements for registration or licenses for journalists or newspapers; by denial of travel visas for foreign reporters or by bans on sending journalists abroad; by broadcasting regulations and laws governing broadcasting contents; and by a legal framework governing official secrecy or freedom of information, intellectual property, libel, and taxation. Where the interests of the news media are too closely aligned with the powerful or affluent, the press can fail to be sufficiently independent or critical watchdogs serving the broader public interest (Norris, 2010).

Markets can also fail in societies in which competition is severely limited through heavily regulated oligopolies in commercial ownership, particularly overconcentration of ownership of the airwaves. Commercial pressures may also undermine the capacity of the news media to fulfill these functions, when concern about the market for news leads to an emphasis on soft news dominated by entertainment, celebrity culture, and trivia, rather than serious coverage of public affairs serving the broader interest. The roles of journalists can be restricted by the economic market for news, including the structure, resources, and ownership of the mass media. Important factors include the patterns of state-owned, public service, and commercial television; the availability of community radio and other local media outlets; the diversity of ownership of the print sector; levels of public access to the mass media and to newer information and communication technologies; and the role of global news flows and the permeability of cultural trade across national borders (ibid.).

Roles are also shaped by the profession, especially by standards of training, entry, and accreditation of reporters and broadcasters; by organizational routines and the composition and social diversity of newsrooms; and by the role of professional bodies, such as journalism associations, trade unions, and press councils. These are influenced by the broader context of values and norms embedded in the national cultures of journalism (Mark, 2002).

2.3.5 Political Parties

In many respects, the existence of a set of active political parties is a *conditio sine qua non* for the achievement of good governance. The role of political parties appears to be two-fold. In the first place, political parties serve as instruments for the recruitment and selection of political elites, because the people at large cannot – or should not – become involved in day-to-day politics. Further, political parties serve as political vehicles that, by their existence and functioning, help to avoid the tyranny of a small elite group over the majority of the population.

The discourse of (good) governance, however, does not take the responsiveness of political parties as a primary criterion to judge the political system of developing countries (Cranenburgh, 1998). But this fact does not reduce the role of political parties as significant actors in promoting good governance.

Political parties would be mechanisms to organize participation in public affairs in an increasingly differentiated and complex society, being regarded as organizations which bring together people with a shared outlook on the world or political ideology and which serve to aggregate demands that these people have *vis-à-vis* the political system. Thus understood, political parties are the means through which participation in politics gets actual meaning and becomes a reality. In situations where the involvement of the people at large in day-to-day political affairs is practically impossible – a feature that characterizes most contemporary societies – political parties are the vehicles that bring citizens into closer contact with their representatives and, through the contact between members and professional politicians, help to develop common viewpoints on public affairs (Wil Hout, 2003). Political parties are also directly involved in the electoral process, functioning of the legislature, the promotion and protection of human rights, anti-corruption strategies, decentralization and local governance systems and governance in crisis and post – crisis situations. In this sense, they are cross-cutting and are, therefore, examined in each of the related chapters (Shabbir and Linda, nd).

However many political parties suffer from internal weakness, lack of managerial skill and training and limited financial resources. In the same vein, many political parties in Africa have little capability to effectively articulate issues, engage in debate, promote their manifesto, vision

of society, and defend their interest and the rights of their supporters (ECA, 2005, Anwar, 2007).women are also underrepresented in the governance realm(ibid.).

2.3.6 Decentralization

Decentralization deals with the allocation of power, authority, and responsibility between center and periphery for political, fiscal, and administrative systems. As a tool for restructuring governance architecture, decentralization has been the topic of extended international attention and debate (Rondinelli et al., 1989; USAID, 2000; Smoke, 2003; Rodden, 2004; Sharma, 2006).

As the decentralization revolution got under way in the 1980s, academics and practitioners alike believed that this structural change was an important way to ensure good governance. Economists, for example, built on the work of Tiebout (1956), Coase (1960), and Oates (1972, 1977) to argue that decentralization would increase allocative efficiency by subjecting public spending priorities to local demand. They indicated that because information on the performance of government institutions is more readily available to citizens in decentralized systems, they are in the best position to make demands for effective services and to reward and punish local politicians; information on local preferences is also more available to decision makers because they are in daily contact with citizens. Moreover, when citizens are taxed for local services, they will have incentives to insist on good-quality services and hold officials and service providers accountable for their actions. For similar reasons, proponents of neoliberal economic reforms argued that decentralization would increase the efficiency of government, mobilize additional public resources, and improve fiscal decision making; it was seen as an important means to redress decades of statist development strategies that had resulted in low growth rates and high levels of corruption in the production of public service (Weingast, 1995).

Political Scientists became advocates for the benefits of decentralization. In the distant past, some had argued in favor of centralization as a response to the threat of participation “overload” and the destructive power of centrifugal conflicts and loyalties in nation building (Huntington, 1968 and McConnell 1966). By the early 1980s, however, many found important reasons for citizen participation in local elections and government decision making as a palliative to over centralized and authoritarian governments (Wunsch and Olowu, 1990). More effective democratic states needed strongly participatory local democracy, they argued; as citizens have

opportunities to participate, they become more effective at rewarding and punishing the behavior of local officials. As a consequence, rational politicians have incentives to be responsive to local needs and local concerns. This is, furthermore, an effective “school” for democracy, providing an arena for learning skills of deliberation and the rules that structure conflict resolution in democratic systems (Fung, 2004).

Similarly, disciples of Public Management anticipated that decentralization would produce more responsive decision making, higher quality services, and public administrators who would be motivated to perform well (Rondinelli, 1989 et.al.). When government administration is brought closer to those who receive services, they argued, beneficiaries of these services would become active in demanding good quality. Because those responsible for the quality of services are local, citizens will be more motivated to complain and demand improvements if services fail or decline in quality. Moreover, civil servants will have incentives to orient their behavior toward good service provision because of the potential for public disruption and complaints from those who are dissatisfied “customers.” Corruption would also be more visible at local levels and thus easier to control. Public sector reformers agreed with fiscal decentralizers that services would become more efficient if they were paid for by local taxes and fees.

And indeed, by the early 1990s, those concerned about public finance began to fear that decentralization could lead to increased fiscal deficits and imperil macroeconomic stability (Burki P., and Dillinger, 1999; Campbell, 2005; Wiesner, 2003). In some cases, local government debt burdens became the responsibility of national governments, causing central bankers to have second thoughts about the wisdom of local officials. In addition, economists were often disappointed that local governments were not more proactive in generating local revenues. Instead of increasing the robustness of local taxation, many sub-national governments increased their demands on central governments for more revenue sharing (Guigale and Webb, 2000). In politics, the practice of decentralization also brought mixed reviews. In some cases, evidence surfaced that local elites could benefit inequitably from decentralization. Scholars found evidence of considerable potential for interest group capture in small electoral arenas and they raised questions about the survival of “authoritarian enclaves” in local settings (Hutchcroft, 2001).

Others demonstrated that local governments often reflected the social, political, and economic conflicts that divided local communities; they questioned the view of those who believe that decentralization means more power and equity for ordinary citizens. Some came to the conclusion that there was no inherent reason why decentralized governments should be any neither more democratic than centralized ones nor any a priori reason why local elections should guarantee the emergence of more effective leadership (Hiskey and Seligson, 2003). Although theoretically citizens should have greater say in the policy and programmatic choices of government under decentralized arrangements, practice suggested that this was not necessarily the case (Blair, 2000; Goldfrank, 2002; Montero and Samuels, 2004).

Those who focused on public management found that the quality of decentralized services also varied significantly across localities. They discovered that the incentive structures of local institutions were not necessarily aligned with pressures to improve performance. Indeed, research indicated that elected municipal authorities were not necessarily motivated to perform any better than their central counterparts in prior periods (Crook and Manor, 1998). Moreover, local corruption could be as invidious and difficult to root out as central corruption. The expectation that privatization and contracting out of local public services would automatically result in great improvements was also dashed; such experiences were often fraught with conflict, performance problems, and corruption (Angell, and etal, 2001). In addition, in the wake of decentralization, citizens, parties, legislatures, and politicians had to sort out many ambiguities in the power relationships and administrative responsibilities among national, state, and local governments (Eaton, 2001, 2004). Debates about redefined relationships slowed the impact of change and often left citizens, politicians, and administrators frustrated.

2.3.7 Corruption

Nye (1967) defined that corruption is a behavior which deviates from the formal duties of a public role because of private regarding (personal, close family, private clique) pecuniary status gains, or violates rules against the exercise of certain type of private regarding influence. This includes such behavior as bribery, nepotism and misappropriation. UNDP (1998) also indicated that corruption is the misuse of public power, office or authority for private benefit – through bribery, extortion, influence peddling, nepotism, fraud, speed money or embezzlement.

Yadav (2005) argued that in a country where the level of education is higher, its citizens would have a better understanding of the country's values and their own respective roles. In such a country, there would be a relative absence of the above mentioned adverse factors that give rise to corruption. Similarly, Yadav (2005) argued that both corruption and bad governance can be contained if the formulation and implementation of projects and policies are transparent and involve community. However, sometimes the government or public administrators like secrecy in the belief that transparency would rob them of the room to maneuver in case of unforeseen circumstances. It may be true that the authorities may gain some room for maneuvering through secrecy, but it does not necessarily improve the policy outcome. On the contrary, the extra room may lead to a worse outcome. The public or market participants have to know what goals the authorities are aiming for and how they would go about achieving them. On the basis of that information, the public formulates its own plans and action. If the public fully understands the authorities' goals and policies and believes that the authorities would stick by those, it would be able to align its own goals and actions with the government objectives. The public and private sector goals and actions would be complementary and better aligned. In contrast, in a regime of secrecy, the general public would have to make guesses about the government's goals and policies, often incorrectly; its action would be poorly coordinated with those of the government, which could undermine achievement of government objectives (ibid.).

Pillay (2004) argued corruption in relation to the civil service that the normal motivation of public-sector employees to work productively has been undermined by many factors – including declining civil service salaries and promotion unconnected to performance. Staff members have also been demoralized by dysfunctional government budgets, inadequate supplies and equipment, delays in the release of budget funds, and a loss of organizational purpose. The motivation to remain honest has further been weakened as a result of senior officials and political leaders using public office for private gain. In addition he highlighted the major contributions to corruption were undesirable social controls, antiquated laws, excess demand, entrepreneurial politics, bureaucratization, excessive discretion; and defective administrative arrangements (including inadequate controls).

Some scholars argue that corruption has some benefits for those involved in the illegal activity but with the possibility of high risk. For instance, Yadav (2005) argued the benefit consists of gain of money, titles, prestige, goods and services, or power in other forms. The cost is the possibility of monetary penalties, incarceration, loss of face in the family and society, and so on. The same author argued that corruption margin (benefit less cost) is higher in situations where, first; government rules are kept secret: If the rules pertaining to government behavior vis-à-vis its citizens are kept in secrecy, then there will be greater uncertainty about their true meaning or intentions. This leads to differences in interpretations and bribes becoming a means to resolve the differences. For example, if the rules about setting government expenditure priorities are not made public, then it is very difficult to hold the government accountable for its action or inaction. Second; the laws are not widely known: Even if the laws or rules are made public, if they are drafted in a complex manner such that the general public remains confuse about them, then again laws are likely to be applied unevenly and the poor and innocent would become victims of corruption. Lack of knowledge of government objectives and policies by the general public or market has been a major source of poor governance and corruption. Third; the enforcement is weak: If the implementation of laws is not monitored or the culprits are not penalized, then the risk of sanction declines or the corruption margin increases. This can happen, for example, when the governing elite are non-democratic, or checks and balances are absent. Fourth; the society tolerates corruption: Corruption may emerge or persist if the society does not openly oppose it out of fear of victimization at the hands of those in power, or if members are ignorant of their rights and the illegality of corrupt practices. In such situations, the prosecution of wrongdoers becomes very difficult, and corruption continues unopposed.

2.3.8 Legitimacy

A democratic government cannot make every decision based on consensus, nor can it afford to take a vote on every policy decision it faces, especially those decisions that are matters of executive and administrative policy (rather than legislation). Almost all legislative and administrative policy outcomes will be opposed by significant minorities, and sometimes even by majorities. A widely held sense of legitimacy amongst the citizenry is what enables a state to obtain compliance for those decisions without having to resort to force (Robert, M. etal. 2000).

Legitimate political systems are those that can depend on compliance from citizens, business, and civil society. Just as we speak of democratic legitimation as the sense that democracy is “the only game in town,” state and government legitimacy can be seen as the sense that there is no alternative set of structures or institutions that people with the right to make authoritative, binding societal decisions. It is the sense that rule-makers have the right to make laws, and that those laws ought to be obeyed (Tyler, 1990). At its broadest, this sense of legitimacy comprises the belief that those in power have a right to make binding decisions because: first; they are duly elected to that office by widely accepted procedures; second; they exercise power in a widely accepted way; and third; that the rules that govern the state (e.g. the constitution) reflect widely accepted values and norms (Robert, M. etal. 2000).

Legitimacy constitutes a form of “diffuse” support for a political system, a form of support that does not have to be earned but rather inheres in the institutions of the political system rather than the current occupants of those institutions (which is referred to as “specific” support) (Easton, 1965). While specific support is based on short-term satisfaction with government actions and policy outputs, diffuse support is said to be based largely on longer-term, affective attachments to authority usually learned in childhood, attachments that are unrelated to cost-benefit calculations.

A legitimate political system is likely to be a more stable political system. Legitimacy acts as a buffer to cushion the system against shocks from short-term dissatisfaction with policy and performance (Easton, 1965). It should bring about more cooperative behavior on the part of its citizens; they are more likely to obey the law and refrain from anti-system behavior (e.g. protest) if they view the sources of those laws as legitimate (Tyler, 1990).

2.3.9 Participation

Participation is defined as an essential and basic right. It entails the close involvement of people in economic, political, cultural, and social processes that affect them. It facilitates the access of people as individuals or groups to a wide range of opportunities which, in turn, promote the responsiveness of governance actors towards people centered development. According to Cornwall(2002),it includes three main forms of participation: (i) economic participation, which

provides opportunities for people, including women and marginalized groups, to use their capabilities and endowments to avail opportunities and gain income to increase their choices; (ii) political participation, which includes the freedom of speech and association, a guarantee of human rights, free and fair elections, multi-party system, and rule of law; and (iii) social and cultural participation, which implies the rights of all people and their communities to shape their own social and cultural environments including expression through language, art and music. These forms of participation are complementary. Progress in one area can reinforce progress in another (DESA, 2007).

Participatory governance provides citizens with access not only to information, but also to decision-making and power to influence public choices. It means access not only for a privileged few, but for all, including those who are still too often excluded from the benefits of development, particularly the poor, the marginalized, and vulnerable groups. At the national level, it means expanding the very concept of governance, recognizing that protection of the public interest is a responsibility not only of the government and the political process, but also of civil society and the private sector (ibid.).

Many recent trends have improved the environment for participatory governance. These trends include the rapid pace of democratization in developing countries through the holding of regular elections; evolution of multi-party systems representing different interests; and new institutions for protecting basic human rights; dismantling of state controls and the provision of new opportunities for participation in economic activities; the information revolution through radio, television, the internet, and news media which has dramatically increased the access of the people to the information about national and global events; and the expansion of non-governmental organizations, which work in sectors such as poverty eradication, primary health care, education, and shelter. These developments contribute to the enhancement of governance capacity (ibid.).

Despite the progress made in participatory governance, some segments of society continue to be excluded from the benefits of development including the rural and urban poor, ethnic and religious minorities, women, and children. As Habermas (1996) more recently conceded ,the

condition that constitute the ideal speech situation of the deliberative public sphere rarely obtains in reality. In a brilliant critique of assumption underpinning deliberate democracy, Kohn (2000) argues that inequality of status, class, and social position are reproduced in the way people communicate with each other in any social space, including those created with ideals of free and deliberation in mind.

2.3.10. Transparency

Transparency entails availability of information on all matters related to the governance process. It means that the duties and responsibilities of public officials and the manner in which they are performed or delivered are known or knowable to those interested; and that the public officials themselves are aware of the rules and conventions that describe their duties and prescribe their performance (UNDSEA, 2000, WB, 2005).

In essence transparency has to do with the quality of information, its availability and accessibility. Openness and predictability in the conduct of the governance processes are the major characteristics of transparency. This entails the willingness to engage in public debates on public policy issues, and tolerance for public scrutiny and public questioning on economic, social and political options. And the acceptance of the possibility that, on any given issue, one could be wrong and the other are right. Transparency facilitates the growth of trust and confidence, and thus enhances the possibilities of cooperation and partnership between government, private sector and civil society. It is this openness and predictability that inhibits the temptations to corruption and stunts its growth where it unfortunately exists (ibid.).

Transparency feeds on itself. The more transparency there is in society the more people get accustomed to expecting it, and the more it is demanded. The more information is made available on citizenship entitlements, social services, jobs availability, education and training, credit to the private sector, or support for the civil society organizations, the more people appreciate the practical value of transparency the greater is the appetite, and demand, for more information about governance, and the government is obliged to respond to such demands. The less transparency there is, people are likely to know very little about what government does or ought to do. And imperceptibly, a disinterest in public affairs emerges, thus incrementally

creating a culture of 'distrust' in public affairs, ignorance and the fear of government. Bureaucrats would build walls around themselves with only a few openings for the favored ones. Transparency thus implies more open governance processes. And this in turn entails an open society in which there are reciprocal relationship, mutual trust and respect. There is a very close linkage between accountability and transparency. It is not possible to have accountability without transparency. It is the existence of transparency that facilitates the rendering of accountability. Without the availability and accessibility of the relevant information, which is the essence of transparency, it would be difficult to call to account any public official or the elected representative. Accountability and transparency strengthen the legitimacy of government, its policies, decisions and those who implement them, the public officials. They contribute to the sense of ownership by the people that they, as citizens, are in charge of their government (ibid.).

2.3.11 Accountability

Accountability can be explained as the obligation of power-holders to account for or take responsibility for their actions. "Power-holders" refers to those who hold political, financial or other forms of power and include officials in government, private corporations, international financial institutions and civil society organizations (Carmen M., 2004).

Accountability is a consequence of the implicit 'social compact' between citizens and their delegated representatives and agents in a democracy. A fundamental principle of democracy is that citizens have the *right* to demand accountability and public actors have an *obligation* to account. As Mulgan (2000) has stated, "those calling for an account are asserting rights of superior authority over those who are accountable". Government officials and bureaucrats are accountable for their conduct and performance. In other words, they can and should be held accountable to obey the law and not abuse their powers, and serve the public interest in an efficient, effective and fair manner.

Systems of accountability that are internal to the state are often referred to as "horizontal" mechanisms of accountability (Schedler et al. 1999). These include: political mechanisms (e.g., constitutional constraints, separation of powers, the legislature and legislative investigative commissions); fiscal mechanisms (e.g., formal systems of auditing and financial accounting);

administrative mechanisms (e.g., hierarchical reporting, norms of public sector probity, public service codes of conduct, rules and procedures regarding transparency and public oversight), and; legal mechanisms (e.g., corruption control agencies, ombudsmen and the judiciary) (Goetz and Gaventa, 2001).

There is considerable difference of opinion among scholars of accountability as to how narrowly or broadly the concept of accountability should be defined. Some, for example, see accountability as an essentially ex-post phenomenon while others argue that principles of accountability should ideally be applied before, during and after the exercise of public authority (Ackerman, 2004). Related to the ex-ante/ ex-post debate, some observers have argued for making a clear distinction between government responsiveness vs. government accountability – the former referring to whether governments respond to citizens’ expressed needs, and the latter to whether citizens are able to hold governments to their promises. Other scholars, while acknowledging the difference between the two concepts, understand them as going hand in hand and see less of a need for treating them distinctly (ibid.).

Generally, accountability and transparency are integral parts of democracy and good governance. They cannot prevail without democracy. There cannot be good governance without accountability and transparency. Yet democracy itself cannot exist without accountability and transparency. Nor good governance prevails without democracy. There is thus an interdependent and mutually supportive relationship between accountability, transparency, democracy and good governance. What promote and sustain this relationship is the habit of constitutionalism and good leadership. Collectively they render government and its agencies as “user-friendly” (DESA, 2007; Anwar, 2007; ECA, 2005; Goetz and Gaventa, 2001).

2.3.12 Effectiveness, Efficiency and Affordability

One of the fundamental principles of good governance is that public services, development and other administrative activities should be provided in an efficient and effective manner. It would certainly be strange to argue that a government that is very inefficient or ineffective can have a high governance quality. Shah (2005) considers two features of government performance: responsiveness (“whether the public manager is doing the right things—i.e., delivering services

consistent with citizen preferences”) and efficiency (“whether the public manager is doing them right—i.e., providing services of a given quality in the least-cost manner”). Similarly, La Porta et al. (1999) include “efficiency”—“successful provision of essential public goods”—and “effective spending”. As these examples suggest, there are actually (at least) two dimensions of state capacity: the degree of successful policy implementation—effectiveness—and the amount of government output delivered relative to input—efficiency. An efficient, transparent, and accountable public sector, greater focus on the citizenry, reorganization, simplified procedures and forms, and the use of modern technology to improve governance enables to provide efficient, effective and affordable services and hence good governance (Shah M., 2005). Efficient, affordable and effective delivery of public services is a major *raison d’être* of government and a core responsibility of the executive. The popular perception in Africa is that improved social services should be one of major dividends of democracy and good governance. Quality social services and good infrastructure are directly correlated with poverty alleviation because they reduce vulnerability and empower people. A democracy and good governance that does not produce tangible public goods in the form of accessible and efficient social services in the medium to long term is likely to elicit frustration and resentment from the people—and ultimately to disillusionment with the democratic process (ECA.2005).

To conclude, good governance is a normative concept with difficulty in providing unanimous definition but with wider consensus on its contribution for development. The net result of the challenges and opportunities that pertains important institutions and their attribute pose the challenges and opportunities of good governance. Council that lacks political will, institutional capacity, trained staff and facility, and ineffective organizations; CSOs with limited funding, capacity, and narrow political space; executive/civil service characterized by inefficiency, ineffectiveness, and patrimonial; media that lacks professionalism, enabling environment, and resource; political parties that are conditioned by limited by finance, lack of vision, mission, leadership, and internal weakness; decentralization that are not well equipped with sufficient financial, administrative and political power pose challenges of good governance. In the same vein, high corruption incidence, inefficiency, ineffectiveness, exclusion, and limited transparency, accountability, and legitimacy are also obstacles for consolidating good governance. The opposite are opportunities to promote good governance.

CHAPTER THREE

DATA PRESENTATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by highlighting some background information on Addis Ababa. The data that were collected from the sample households are presented in this chapter using tabular forms as well as in figures. A simple statistical description of the data is presented. It also attempted to give some demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as key informants. The chapter ends with providing some concluding remarks about the responses of the respondents.

3.2. Background Information about Addis Ababa

The City of Addis Ababa is over a hundred years old. It was established in the late 19th century by Emperor Menelik II as the permanent capital of the then emerging modern Ethiopian state. It is located 8° 50' North, to 9° 06' North and 38° 05' eastern longitude lines. The city is located in the central highlands of the country from 2000-2500m above sea level and is encircled by mount Entoto hills in the North and by farm lands in the West, East and South. Over the years, the city has grown into an important urban center following the process of modernization and economic development which Emperor Haile Selassie I zealously pursued in the aftermath of World War II. The city covers a total area of 540 square kilometers. Out of Ethiopia's estimated urban population of nearly 9 million, about 27 percent of the total lives in Addis Ababa, and this qualifies the city as the country's foremost urban center (Mehret, 1999; CSA, 1999, Addis Ababa Investment Authority, 2005).

Addis Ababa is relatively well developed in social and physical infrastructures if one compared it with the national one. For instance, in 2006/7, the net enrolment ratios of primary schools in Addis Ababa were 98.7% while it was only 79.1% for the rest of the country. At the same year, there were 143 government, private, other government and non-governmental hospitals in the country of which 30(42.9%) were in Addis Ababa (FDRE, 2008). Average infant mortality rate from 2005-2008 was 45 for Addis Ababa while the national average during the same years was 77 (ibid.).

A glance at the governance history of Addis Ababa revealed that different regimes had pursued different administrative systems to run the city based on their respective interest. During the imperial period, the municipality had a 30-member lawmaking council in which 8 government officials appointed by their respective ministers and 22 elected members from the residents of the city (2 councilors from each of the then 10 woredas) (AACC,1954;Kohen,1974;Mehret,1999). During the Derg regime, the increasing relevance of party membership led to the recruitment of cadres instead of professionals and thus to the bureaucratization of the administrative machinery and as a result hindering the adequate provision of municipal services (Kokebe, 2007). Addis Ababa relatively enjoyed autonomous administration after the collapse of the Derg in 1991.

Table.1 Socio-administrative Characteristics of Addis Ababa

Item No.	Sub City	No. of Kebeles	No. of Woredas	Population	Area Coverage in Hectare
1	Arada	10	10	212,009	1156.24
2	Addis Ketema	9	10	255,092	898
3	Lideta	9	10	201,613	1240
4	Kirkos	11	11	220,991	1626.40
5	Yeka	11	13	364,484	8230.40
6	Bole	11	14	308,714	12093.40
7	Akaki Kaliti	8	11	181,202	12613.40
8	Nifas Silk Lafto	10	12	316,108	6059.40
9	Kolfe Keranio	10	15	428,654	6510.40
10	Gulele	10	10	267,381	3273.40
	Total	99	116	2,738,248	53701.04

Source: CSA, 2007, Addis Ababa Investment Authority, 2005; Addis Negarit Gazeta 2010

Before 2002, Addis Ababa was structured in 6 Zones, which were divided into 28 Woredas and 328 Kebeles. After 2002, Woredas were renamed to Sub-cities and their number was reduced to 10. Subsequently the number of Kebeles was reduced to 203 and in 2005 to 99. However, the administrative structure has been reorganized in 2010 and Kebeles are renamed as Woredas. As the result the previous 99 Kebele administration of the City organized into 116 Woredas either by merging or dividing Kebeles (Addis Negarit Gazeta, 2010; Kokebe, 2007).

3.3. Background Information about Respondents

A) Households

The demographic characteristics of sample respondents contain 208 (69.334%) males and 92 (30.667%) females. In terms of age, 55 (18.334%), 180 (60%) and 65 (21.667%) are between 18-

25 years, between 26-40 years and above 40 years respectively. An examination of occupational distribution of the sample households showed that the majority of the households were civil servants 180 (60%) and those who are employed in private were 22.667%. More than 50% of the respondents had certificate and lower educational performance. The demography of the sample (figures are percentages of the total sample) is presented below (in table 2).

B) Key Informants

Important persons that were supposed to have know-how on good governance in Addis Ababa City Administration were selected from the Bureau of Capacity Building, Civil Service Commission, Political Parties (CUDP, *Medrek*), Civil Society Organizations (EHRCO, Inter-Africa Group, Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association), Media Agencies, Councils, Woreda (Keble) Officials and some academicians. The selected experts consisted of thirteen male and three female participants.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of Sample Households

Number of persons interviewed		N= 300	
Gender		Religion	
Male	69.334	Orthodox Christian	63.334
Female	30.667	Muslim	21.667
Age		Protestant	9.334
≤ 25 years	18.334	Other Christian	5
26 – 40 years	60	No religion	0.667
> 40 years	21.667	Income	
Occupation		≤ 500 Birr	4
Civil servant	60	501-1000 Birr	15
Private	22.667	1001-1500 Birr	16.667
Housewife	4	1501-3000	20.667
Student	1.667	3001-5000	2.667
Other (pension)	1.667	> 5000	3.334
No response	10	No response	37.667
Education			
Primary only	16.667		
Secondary only	16.667		
Certificate	18.334		
Diploma	15		
Degree	27.667		
Master and above	4		
No response	1.667		

Source: Own Survey

3.4. Extent of Good Governance

To assess opinion of residents on the extent of good governance in Addis Ababa City Administration, a number of questions were asked. Among these they were asked to explain what good governance mean, to what extent good governance prevails, the extent they are satisfied with the prevailing good governance, to compare good governance across time in Addis Ababa City Administration. Accordingly, 88.334% of the respondents stated that the nature of good governance in the City Administration has problems while 9% said that AACA has succeeded to establish complete and full good governance. On the edge of the other spectrum, 2.667% of the respondents believed that there is no good governance at all.

Table 3. Extent of Good Governance

	F (Frequency)	% (Percentage)
To what extent good governance prevailed		
Complete good governance	27	9
Good governance with minor problem	145	48.334
Good governance with major problem	120	40
No good governance	8	2.667
Satisfaction with the prevailing good governance		
Very satisfied	35	11.667
Fairly satisfied	177	59
Less satisfied	58	19.334
Unsatisfied	40	13.334

Source: Own Survey

Parallel with the extent of the prevailing good governance, an effort was made to assess how much respondents are satisfied with the way good governance works in practice in their City. 11.667% said that they were very satisfied and 59% were fairly satisfied while more than 32% said they were unsatisfied (19.334%) or not at all satisfied (13.334%). Respondents were also asked to evaluate the nature of governance in AACA at different administrations. Before the 2005 national and regional election about 23.33% and 44.334% believed that governance was positive and negative respectively. The trusteeship administration was not sound as only 20% judged it as “positive” in contrast to those who evaluate it as “negative” (51.667%). In the current city administration the respondents are more optimistic as 61.667% rated it as positive.

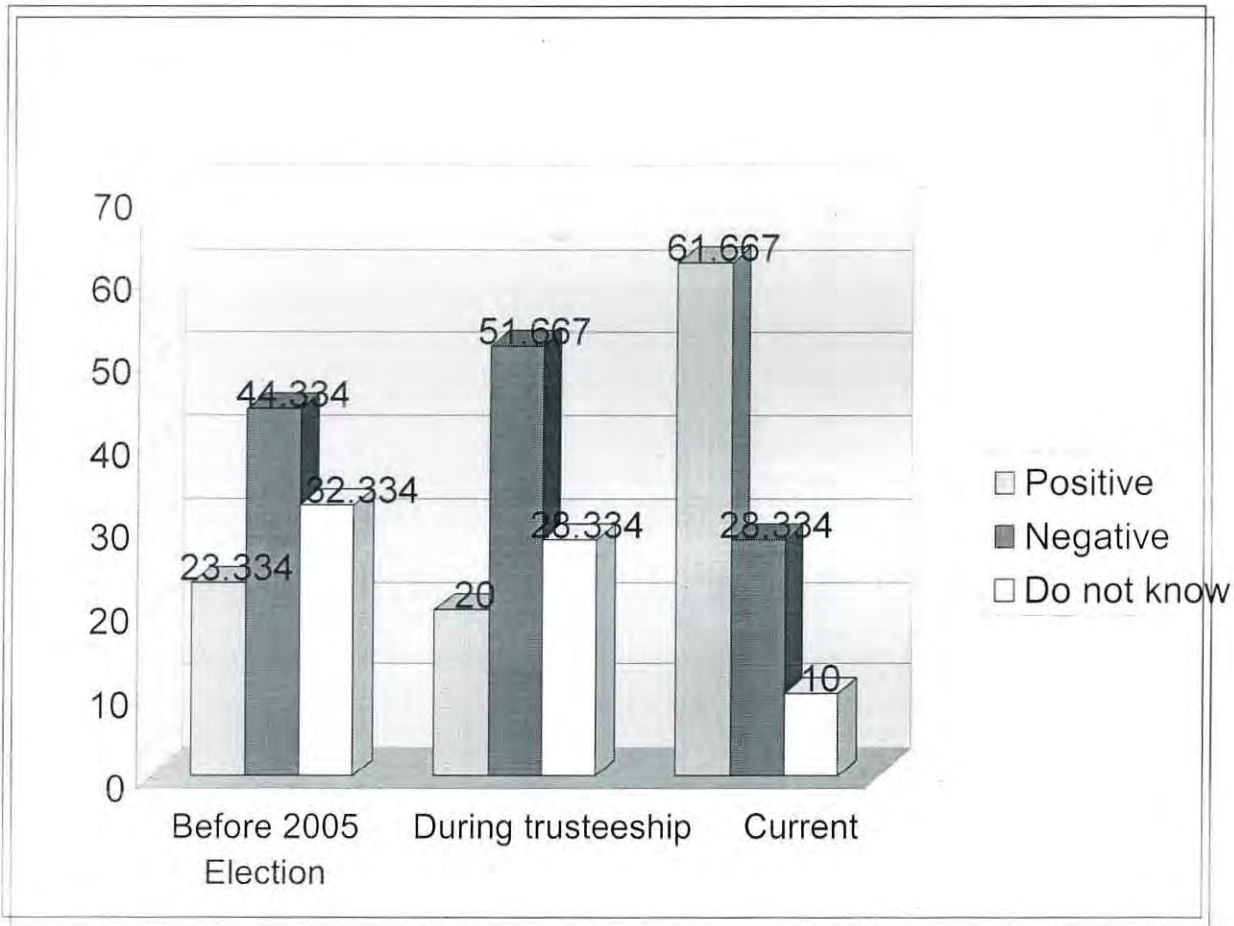
Only 28.334% said it as negative. There are significant improvements in the knowledge and experience of respondents on governance across time in this assessment. 32.334% and 28.334% said they do not have any knowledge in the nature of the administration before 2005 election and trusteeship administration. However, it reduced to 10% in the current city administration, placing them better than the administration before 2005 election and during the trusteeship administration. The researcher was also interested to know the degree that how much the agenda of governance was taken as serious problem in the eyes of the City residents. For this purpose, they were asked to identify the most impressive problem that faces the city. About 34% took good governance as the most serious problem next to poverty. The respondents were also asked to come up with the body or event that was responsible for the lack of sound governance in the City. Accordingly, the government was taken as primarily responsible (59.334%). 11.667% of the respondents also mentioned other realities such low level of education, ethnic clashes and security problems.

Table 4: Households Opinion on Problems of the City Administration

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Most serious problem that need immediate solution		
Lack of good governance	102	34
Poverty	138	46
Unemployment	42	14
Other	18	6
Who is responsible to the lack of good governance?		
Government	178	59.334
Opposition political parties	20	6.667
The public	32	10.667
History	35	11.667
Other	35	11.667

Source: Own Survey

Figure 1: Opinion on governance across different administrations



Source: Own Survey

3.5 Households Opinion on the Council

With regard to information with the council, the majority (66%) of the respondents have listened or watched council members' debates, meetings or field visits while nearly one third (34%) failed to do so. Among those who listened or watched the debates more than 91% found the debate either mostly (42.307%) or usually (49.038%) informative and responsive to the needs of residents of the city. In contrast, there were few respondents who thought that the debates never reflect the needs and aspirations of the residents as it was not informative and responsive. What was interesting is the belief of respondents on the effectiveness of the Council to check the

performance of the executive. More than 56% of them indicated that it always or mostly held the executive in an effective manner. But a significant portion (45.667%) judged it as emerging institution in its independence and strength.

Table 5: Households Opinion on the Effectiveness of the Council

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Have you listened/watched the council debate of the city?		
Yes	198	66
No	102	34
If yes, how do you see the relevance		
Mostly informative and responsive	88	42.307
Usually informative and responsive	102	49.038
Never informative and responsive	18	8.653
Total	208	100
Council effectiveness to hold executive		
Always effective	50	16.667
Mostly effective	120	40
Less effective	105	35
Not effective	25	8.334
Independence and strength of the council		
Weak and subordinate	63	21
Weak but emerging in its independence	137	45.667
Moderate and independent	90	30
Strong and independent	10	3.334

Source: Own Survey

In the other extreme, a number of respondents (43.334%) concluded that the Council is less or not effective to hold the executive.

3.6. Households Opinion on CSOs

As table six below clearly points out, 44% of the sample households considered civil society organizations influence on government policies and programs as either non-existent (23.334%) or of a limited influence (20.667%). It was only 17.667% of the respondents who considered their influence strong enough. The majority thought that they had fair influence over the government. With regard to the independence and operation of civil society organizations, it was only 17.973% of the respondents who thought that they have relative autonomy. The majority of the respondents (56.862%) believed that civil society organizations are allowed to function

independently but subject to harassment if they disagree with the government (26.797%) while 30.065% of the respondents believed that they operate under fairly control space by the government. One fourth of the respondents thought that civil society organizations allowed to function in a very strict control environment.

Table 6: Households opinion on CSOs

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Influence of CSOs on government policies and programs		
Strong influence	53	17.667
Fair influence	115	38.334
Limited influence	62	20.667
No influence	70	23.334
CSOs independence and freedom of operation		
Allowed to function independently	55	17.973
Allowed to function independently but subject to harassment if they disagree with the government	82	26.797
Allowed to function under fairly control environment	92	30.065
Allowed to function in a very strict control environment	74	23.856
Other (non-existent)	3	0.980

Source: Own Survey

3.7. Households Opinion on the Executive/Civil Service

With regard to the executive/civil service, 48.334% of the respondents judged them either they had low commitment to democracy (33.334%) or no commitment at all (15%). 31.667% believed that the executive had completely committed to democracy while 19.334% thought that the executive undermined democracy to the worse. Concerning the composition of civil servants/executive, nearly 86% of the respondents said the executive/civil service largely or to some extent reflects the cross section of the residents of the city. The respondents were skeptical on how much merit based principles govern the appointment, promotion and career development in the civil service/executive as only 31.667% believed that the expertise of individuals had given more weight.

Table 7. Household Opinion on the Executive/Civil Service

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
How do you judge inclination to democracy		
Completely committed to democracy	95	31.667
Low commitment to democracy	100	33.334
No commitment	45	15
Degraded democracy	58	19.334
Other	2	0.667
Composition of the civil service		
Largely reflect the cross section of residents	85	28.334
To some extent reflect the cross section of residents	173	57.667
Never reflect reality of residents	42	14
Criteria for recruitment appointment, promotion etc		
Party membership	170	56.667
Expertise on the area	95	31.667
Having relative, wealth etc	12	4
Other	23	7.667
Improvement of the civil service/executive overtime		
Highly improved	48	16
Moderately improved	205	68.334
Not improved at all	45	15
No response	2	0.667

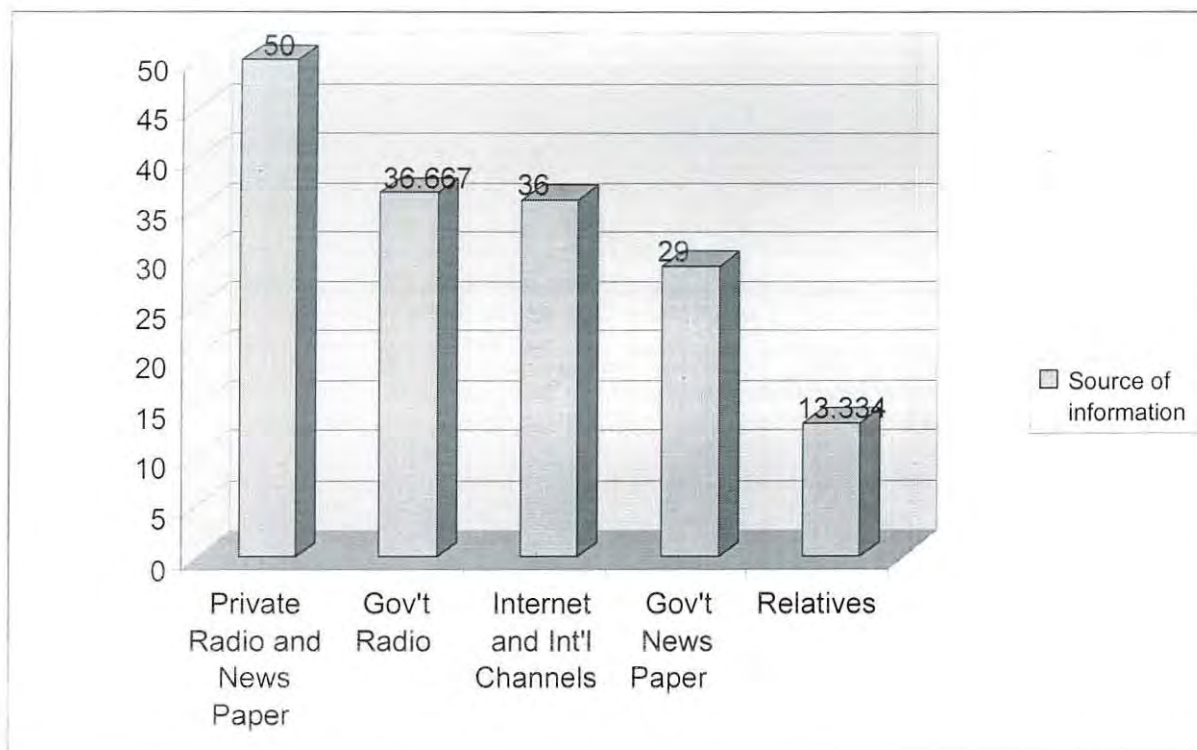
Source: Own Survey

The majority (56.667%) believed that political consideration, being member of the ruling political party, influenced the executive/civil service. Social links of ethnic, religious and kinship ties and wealth etc had also their own contribution (11.667%). The effort to improve the civil service/executive has been accredited by the majority of the respondents. However there is difference when one talked about the degree of the change. It was only (16%) that certified the change as being high who was proportional with those respondents who thought there were no changes at all. The majority observed moderate changes and improvements.

3.8 Households Opinion on Media

The respondents were asked to identify their source of information they need, to locate the type of information they most need, to judge whether there were an enabling environment for the operation of the media and the role of media on good governance. The most important sources of information in the sample households were private radio and private news paper (50%), government radio (36.667%) followed by internet and international TV channels (36%).

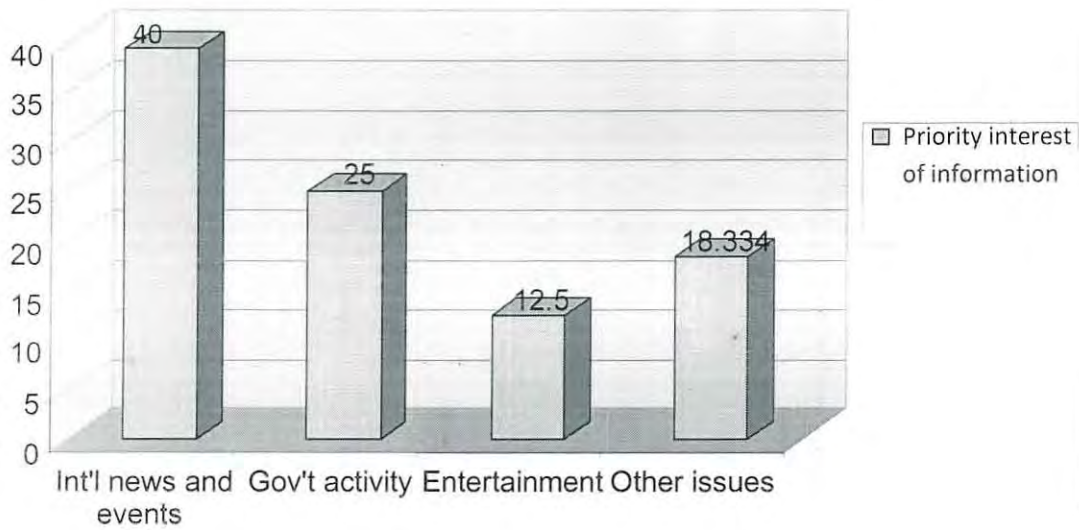
Figure 2. Households' source of information



Source: Own Survey

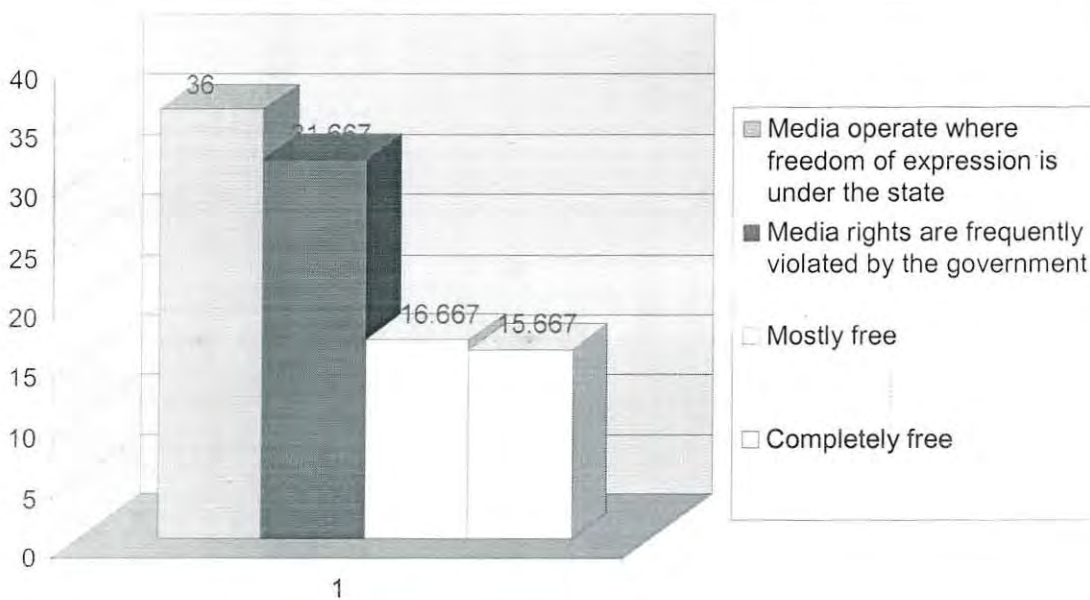
When asked about the types of information they were most interested in, respondents cited, issues of international news and events as their top priority that accounted around 40%. Issues of government activities and entertainment were the second and the third priority interests of the respondents.

Figure 3. Households Priority Interests with regard to information



Source: Own Survey

Figure 4. Freedom and Independence of Media

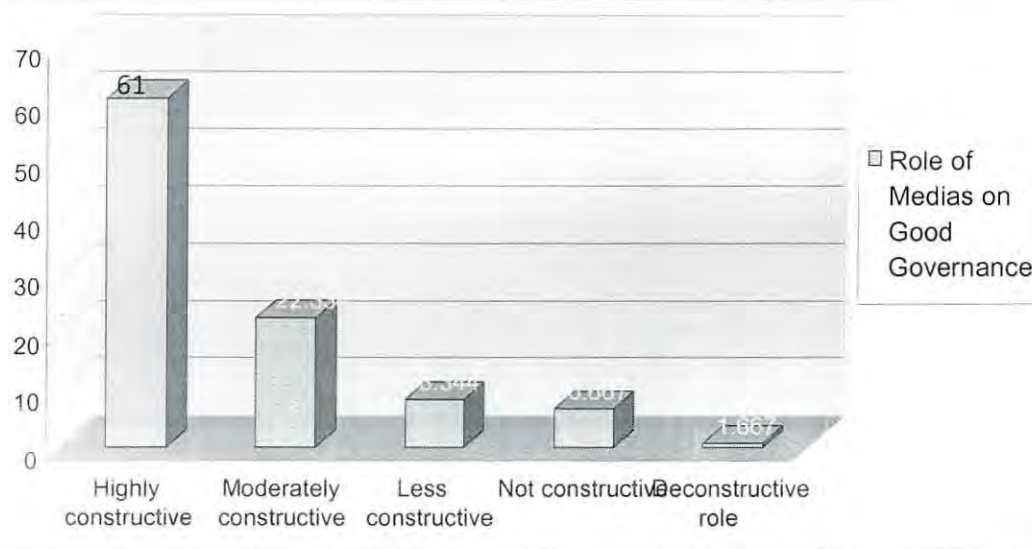


Source: Own Survey

As figure four clearly depicts, the respondents expressed the unfavorable environment for the operation of media in which 36% of the respondents believed that the media operate where

freedom of expression is under the control of the state. The significant majority (nearly 32%) indicated that media rights are frequently violated by the government.

Figure 5. Role of Medias on Good Governance



Source: Own Survey

Six in ten of the respondents thought that media have a highly constructive role on promoting good governance. On the other extreme, only a few individuals, below 2%, of the respondents who recognized the deconstructive role of media on sound governance.

3.9. Households Opinion on Political Parties

While 49.334% of the households believed that the political system was competitive enough, 50.667% of the households responded that it was not competitive. Less than 20% of the respondents said that opposition parties in the council of the city administration have strong influence on polices, programs and legislations. In contrast, nearly 65% of the households said that opposition political parties have either poor (21.667%) or no influence (42.334%) on policies and programs. As table seven below clearly indicates, opposition political parties are essential constituent in maintaining and consolidating good governance (65%). It was only 21.667% of the respondents who agree with the idea that in the absence of opposition political parties good governance can be realized and maintained.

Table 8: Opinion of households on Political Parties

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Competitiveness of the political system		
Highly competitive	50	16.667
Moderately competitive	98	32.667
Less competitive	100	33.334
Not competitive at all	52	17.334
Influence of opposition political parties on policies, programs and legislation of the city administration		
Strong influence	55	18.334
Moderate influence	53	17.667
Poor influence	65	21.667
No influence	127	42.334
In the absence of opposition political parties, good governance can be maintained		
Agree	65	21.667
Disagree	195	65
Neutral	40	13.34

Source: Own Survey

3.10. Households Opinion on Kebeles/Woredas

Concerning the capacity of kebeles, one fourth of the sample respondents believed that they had poor capacity to manage responsibilities. The majority (35.667%) thought that they had moderate capacity. The households were more assented over whether kebeles/woredas responded to complaints of the people. Some 82% believed that their complaints were dealt satisfactorily either always (16%), or usually (14%) or sometimes (51.667).however, 17.667% of the respondents indicated that their complaints are not satisfactorily dealt.

Table 9: Households Opinion on Kebeles

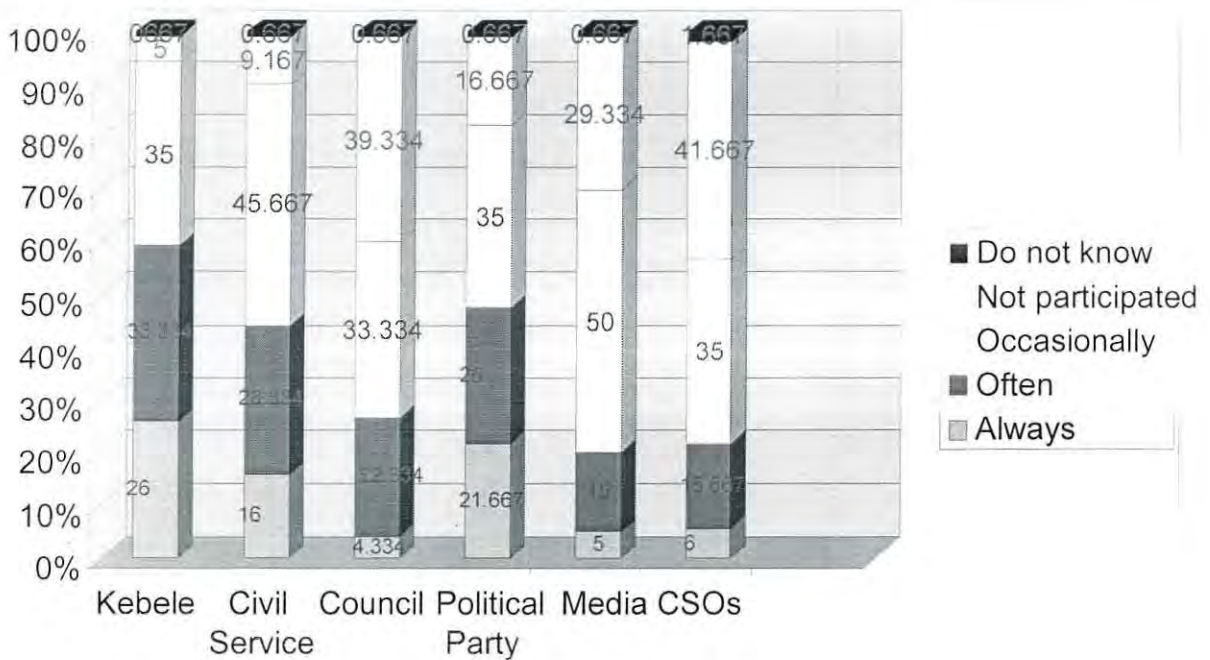
	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Capacity of kebeles/woredas to manage their responsibilities		
Strong capacity	78	26
Moderate capacity	107	35.667
Poor capacity	75	25
No capacity	40	13.334
Frequency of kebeles whether complaints are dealt with satisfactorily		
Always	48	16
Usually	42	14
Sometimes	155	51.667
Never	53	17.667
Other	2	0.667

Source: Own Survey

3.11 Households Opinion on Corruption

Extreme corruption incidence is one of the challenges that encounter the city administration. More than 85% of the sample households thought that there is either extreme corruption (56.667) or moderate corruption (29.167). It was only a small proportion (less than 1%) who thought that there was no corruption at all. As the following figure clearly depicts, respondents perceived that officials in all institutions involved in corruption though the degree and frequency vary across them. More than one fourth of the respondents thought that kebele officials always involved in corruption.

Fig 6: Opinion of households on the incidence of corruption across institutions



Source: Own Survey

While council members, media and civil society organizations exhibited by far the lowest incidence of corruption (at least with regard to “always involve in corruption”) because only 5% or less of the respondents had judged them as always corrupt. Officials at the kebeles, political parties and civil service/executive were the most corrupt since 59.334%, 47.667 and 44.334% of the respondents respectively judged them as “always” or “often” involved in unethical behavior.

While only twenty percent said the media were “always” or “often” involved in corruption and the same held true for CSOs. 56% of the respondents said they had paid money or gave gifts to conduct their own affairs. It was only 26.667% of the respondents who did not encounter corruption when they carried out their concern. In such extreme situation, it was important to know who would be able to protect residents from corruption. In line with this, 51.219% said anti-corruption institutions can defend them. While nearly one fifth believed that the community themselves could check corruption incidence. Concerning the attempt of the city administration, the respondents seemed to be divided as 32.334% and 31% considered its commitment as “moderate” and “low”. It was only one fourth of the respondents who considered the commitment of the City Administration to contain corruption as strong enough.

Table 10: Opinion of households on Corruption

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Do you pay money, give a gift etc. to conduct your affairs?		
Yes	168	56
No	80	26.667
Neutral	52	17.334
Total	300	100
Who protects the people from corruption		
Local authorities	53	16.158
Media	17	5.183
Anti corruption institution	168	51.219
Council members	18	5.487
Community	60	18.292
Other	12	3.658
Total	328	100
The effort of the administration to address corruption problem		
Strong commitment	78	26
Moderate commitment	97	32.334
Less commitment	93	31
No commitment	32	10.667
Total	300	100

Source: Own Survey

3.12 Households Opinion on Legitimacy

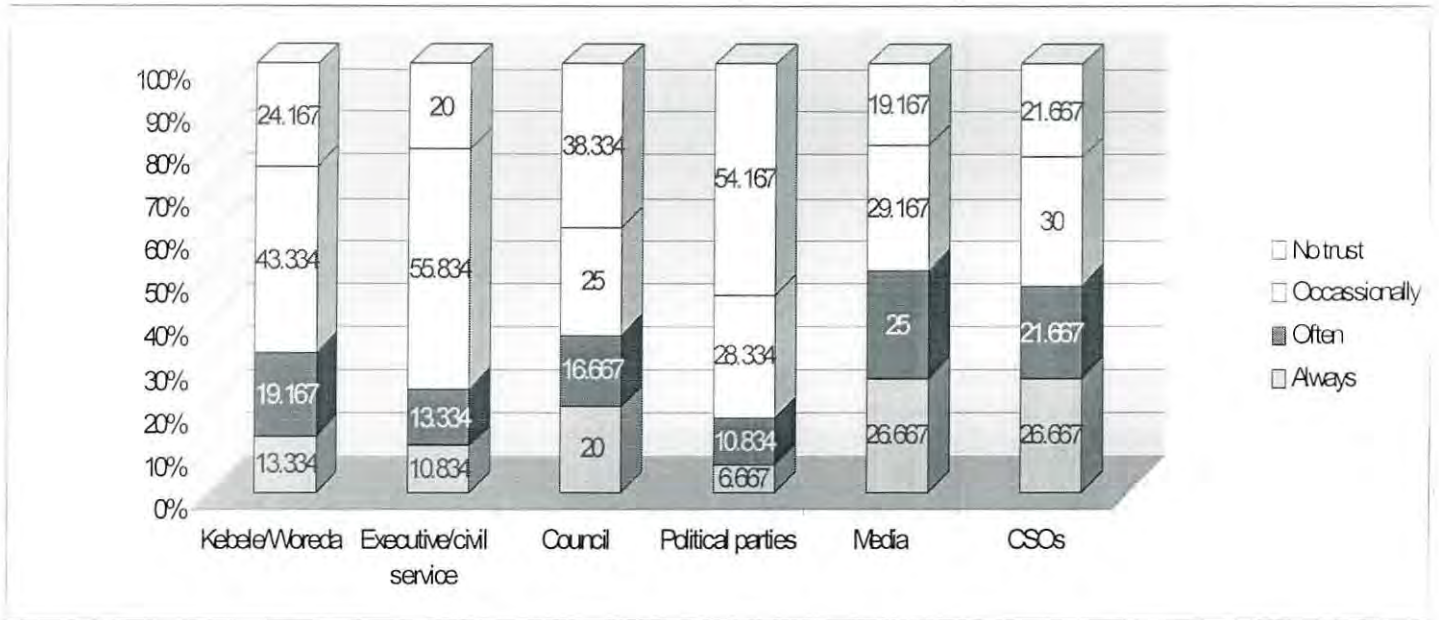
To recognize the legitimacy of the city administration, sample households were asked whether the administration treated all citizens fairly, duly elected to the office in widely accepted procedure, exercise power in widely accepted way and how much legitimacy has accrued to the institutions. There was a wide agreement among respondents, 56%, that the city administration had the right to make abiding decisions whether or not they agree with it. Similarly fifty one percent thought that the administration treated all people regardless to which region, religion, ethnicity they belonged to. The respondents were more divided whether the administration came to power by accepted procedure or not, as 46% agreed and nearly 39% disagreed and 15% came neutral.

Table 11: Household Opinion on Legitimacy

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
The city administration has the right to make decisions that all people have to be abide whether or not they agree with then		
Agree	168	56
Disagree	85	28.334
Neutral	47	15.667
The administration treats all people fairly		
Yes	153	51
No	102	34
Neutral	45	15
The administration is elected to power by democratic procedure:		
Agree	138	46
Disagree	117	39
Neutral	45	15
Generally, the administration is legitimate enough to be supported		
Yes	188	62.667
No	107	35.667
Neutral	5	1.667

Source: Own Survey

Figure 7. Households Trust in institutions



Source: Own Survey

As the figure above clearly shows, households trust in institution vary which range from media and civil society organizations as the highest and political parties as the lowest in trust. The kebeles and the civil service are not also much trusted.

3.13 Households Opinion on Participation

Around 34% of the sample households indicated they are either members or wish to be members in professional associations followed by more interest and membership in religious associations (27.693%). Membership or the desire to be a member in sports associations (13.230%) and political parties (20.615%) ranked the lowest. It was encouraging that over 55% of the respondents participated on various public issues. However, despite such a large number, their participation was often passive (i.e. nearly 80% of the respondents just listening and making comments) and less frequent in attending such public issues. Unfortunately, the most common reason that households gave for having not participated was that they lacked the interest (more than 48%). Officials were considered as influential figures (although 46% of the respondents believed they did not consult them). In many aspects of the households' life, officials had consulted (51.667%) them when policies, rules and regulation that substantially affected their life

were formulated. The respondents were more divided on the capacity of communities influences on decision as 27.334% were moderately confident and 27.334% were less confident.

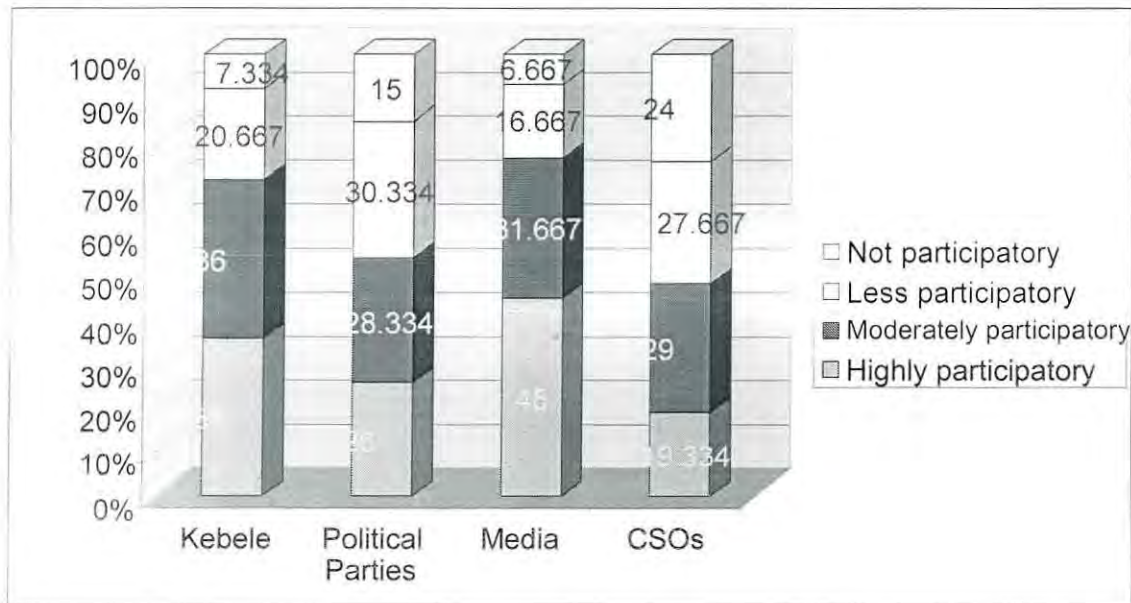
Table 12: Opinion on Participation

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
In which association/organization are you a member/wish to be		
Religious association	90	27.693
Political parties	67	20.615
Sports association	43	13.230
Professional association	110	33.846
Other (if any)	15	4.615
Total	325	100
Participation in public issues		
Yes	168	56
No	132	44
Total	300	100
Reason for not participating		
No formal invitation	13	9.629
Lack of time	27	20
Lack of information	30	22.223
Lack of interest	65	48.148
Total	135	100
How frequently participated in these public issues?		
Always	30	17.857
Often	45	26.785
Sometimes	83	49.404
Once	10	5.952
Total	168	100
What is the most activity that you do when you participate?		
Just listening	58	29.743
Making comments	95	48.717
Asking questions	42	21.538
Total	195	100
Do officials consult when they formulate policies and rules?		
Yes	155	51.667
No	140	46.667
Other	5	1.667
Total	300	100
Confidence in your communities capacity to influence decisions		
Fully confident	113	37.667
Moderately confident	82	27.334
Less confident	82	27.334
No confident at all	23	7.667
Total	300	100

Source: Own Survey

As the graph below clearly depicts, the media (45%) and kebeles (36%) were considered as highly participatory. Participation in civil society organizations (24%) and political parties (15%) were ranked as the lowest. Generally taking the combination of the degrees of participation in each institution, civil society organization were the least participatory in the other extreme case the media were considered as the most participatory in their activity.

Figure .8 Judgments of households on the participatory nature of institutions



Source: Own Survey

3.14. Households Opinion on Transparency

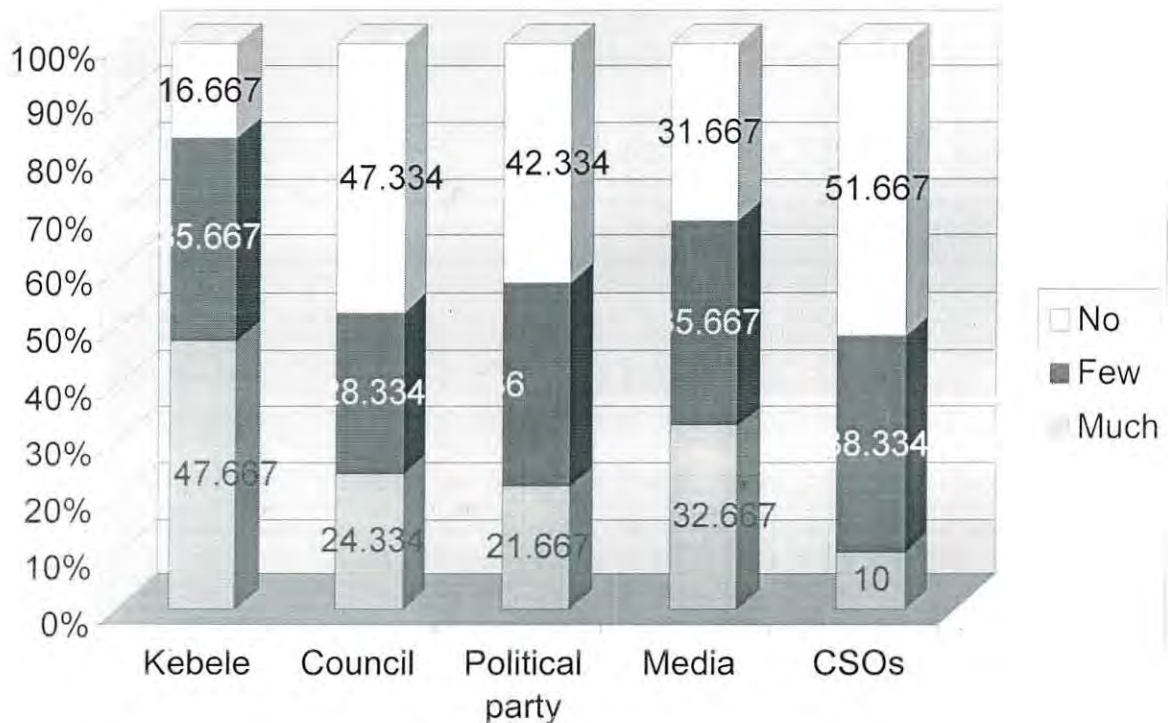
Table 13: Household Opinion on Transparency

	Frequency	%(Percent)
Commitment to ask information on the activities, politics, plans and budget of institutions		
Much committed	105	35
Committed enough	90	30
Less committed	48	16
Not committed	57	19
Experience on accessibility of leaders, officials in various institutions		
Easily accessible	35	11.667
Accessible but with some difficulty	105	35
Accessible but with complex procedure	128	42.667
Too distant to reach	32	10.667

Source: Own Survey

65 percent of the respondents had either much (35%) or enough (30%) commitment on demanding and sharing information on various government policies, plans and budget. Despite such strong commitment, however, 42.667% of the sample households felt that complex procedures faced when they attempted to meet officials to conduct their business. Though leaders were accessible; the procedure was so complex as 42.667% of the respondents felt. Furthermore, one in ten of the sample households explained that leaders and officials in various institutions were too distant to reach.

Figure 9 Knowledge on Leaders, budget, activities etc of institutions



As the above figure clearly illustrates, the knowledge of respondents on the activities, organization, leaders, budget etc greatly varied across various institutions. Kebeles and media ranked highest as 47.667% and 32.667% of the respondents respectively had much information while CSOs and council ranked the lowest as 51.667% and 47.334% of the respondents had no any information respectively. In the case of media, the households seemed to be divided as 32.667%, 35.667% and 31.677% of the respondents had much, few or no information. Nearly 80% had no or few information on the activity, leadership, budget etc of political parties.

3.15. Households Opinion on Accountability

There was much reluctance on the part of respondents to publicly express any form of disagreement or criticism of authorities. It was revealed that 55% of respondents highly felt insecure in confronting or criticizing the performance of authorities. Public officials are not used to being scrutinized or criticized for their performance and the sample households explained that any expression against the interest of officials was not encouraged or accepted.

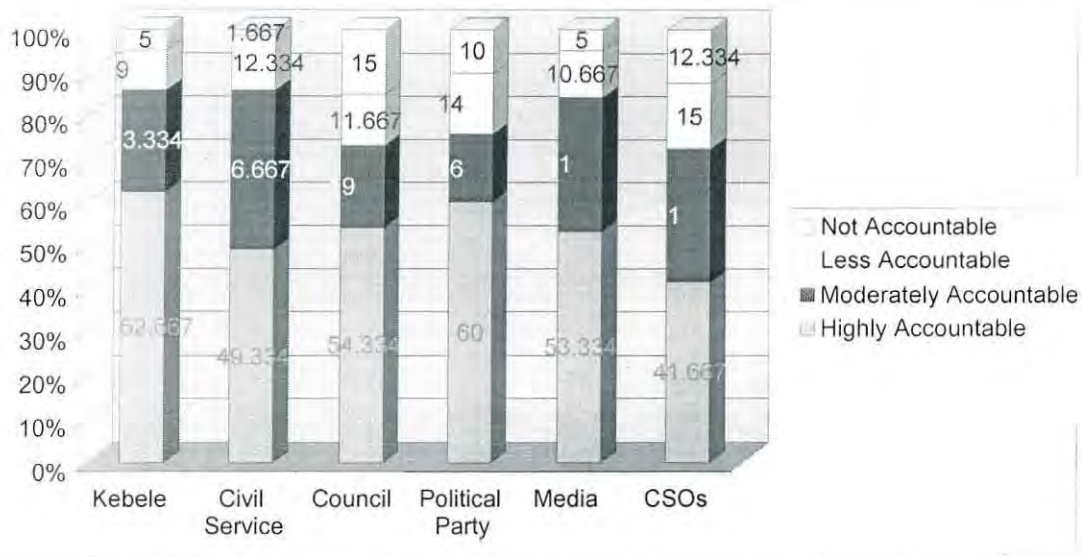
Table 14: Households Opinion on Accountability

	F (frequency)	% (Percent)
Feeling if you criticize or confront the performance of authorities	70	23.334
Highly secured	35	11.667
Moderately secured	13	4.334
Less secured	165	55
Insecure at all	17	5.667
Neutral		
Treatment of individuals who question, criticize or provide alternative view on government policies, rules or activities		
As political opponent	175	58.334
As providers of constructive comments	105	35
Does not receive special attention	10	3.334
Neutral	10	3.334
If authorities make wrong in their activities		
They make it public willingly	28	9.334
They make it public when there is rumor	92	30.667
They do not make it public unless they are asked by top officials or court	173	57.667
Other	7	2.334

Source: Own Survey

58.334% of the respondents believed that if they question, criticize or provide alternative view points, they would be treated as political opponents. It was only 35% of the respondents who thought that if they criticized, questioned or developed alternative idea they did not insulted by officials. The other interesting point was that, 57.667% of the respondents thought that when authorities made wrong, they did not make it public unless they are asked by top officials or courts. It was less than ten percent of the respondents who thought that officials who make wrong activities will make it public willingly.

Figure 10. Household Opinion on Accountability of Institutions



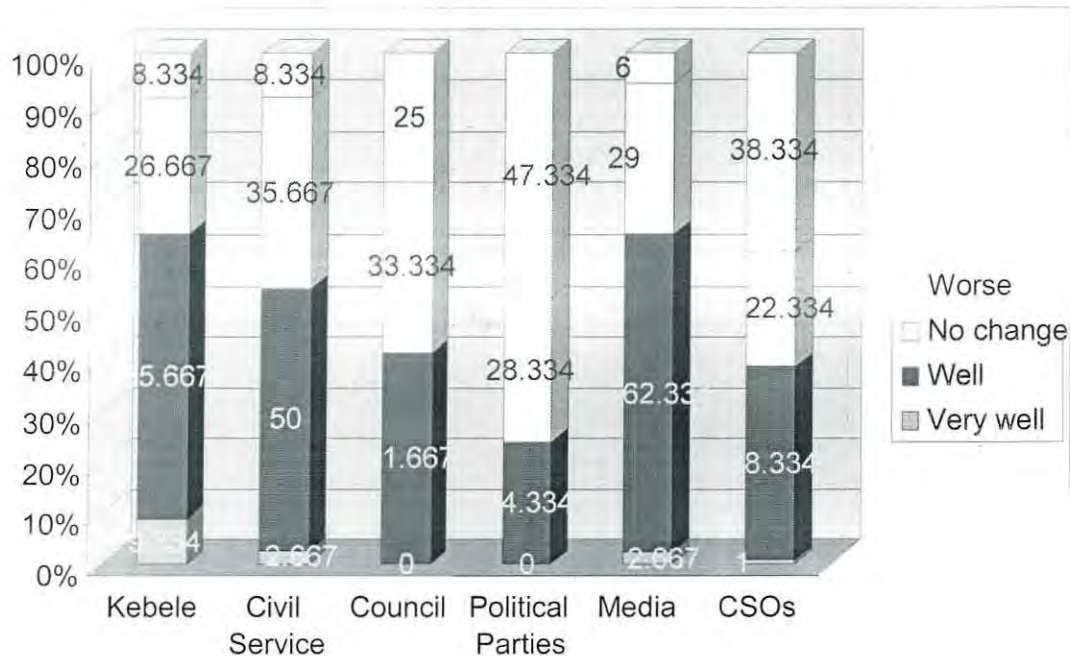
Source: Own Survey

As the above figure clearly illustrates the respondents judged the accountability of the institutions in different ways. Most institutions were considered as highly accountable to the public. It was relatively the civil society organizations that were leveled as the lowest while kebeles were ranked at the top.

3.16. Households Opinion on Efficiency, Effectiveness and Affordability

Concerning with services provided by the government, more than 65% of the respondents indicated that the government fully or moderately addressed the needs of the poor. While 33.334% of the sample households said that services provided by the government were poor or did not address the needs of the poor.

Figure 11. Opinion on the performance of institutions



Source: Own Survey

As the above figure clearly depicted, more than 50% of the households thought that the media, kebeles and civil services performed their activities in a good manner while the performance of political parties and civil society organizations ranked as lowest in the eyes of households.

Table 15. Households Opinion on the Quality and Quantity of Services

No	Services	Quality and quantity of services (%)				
		Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
1	Health service	17.667	25	33.334	19	5
2	Promote democracy	3.334	11	21.667	35.667	28.334
3	Education	11	28.334	28.334	23.334	9
4	Reducing crime	22.667	34	29.334	10	4
5	Fighting corruption	7.667	14	26	32.334	20
6	Creating jobs	15	33.334	43.334	5.667	2.667

Source: Own Survey

As the above table clearly depicted, the City Administration has mixed result in providing effective and efficient services. It was more successful in providing health services and education, reducing crime activity and creating jobs. On the contrary, based on respondents' judgment, it was not as such successful in fighting corruption and promoting democracy in the City.

Table 16. Household opinion on the affordability of services

No.	Services	Affordability of services				
		Free	Not costly	Fairly costly	Costly	Very costly
1	Health	18.334	25.667	20	24.334	11.667
2	Education	36	30.667	13.334	15.667	4.334
3	Housing	1.667	15	19.334	25	39
4	Transport	7.667	10.667	16	31.667	34
5	Water	5	29.334	38.334	21.667	5.667
6	Electricity	2.667	24	27.667	25.667	20

Source: Own Survey

Similar to table 15 above, affordability of services greatly vary across services. The City Administration was much successful in providing affordable education and health services for residents. However, sample households felt that the administration is weak in providing affordable shelter and transport services.

To conclude, more than 88% of the respondents stated that the nature of good governance in the City Administration has faced many problems. Thus, the agenda of governance was taken as serious issues as 34.167% of the sampled households considered it as the most impressive problem next to poverty. However, comparing with the past, households had also observed some positive developments in the current Administration. The majorities (more than 65%) of the respondents have listened or watched Council members meeting and debate and they also found that it is weak and subordinate to contain the executive. Observing at CSOs, it was only 17.667% of the respondents who considered CSOs influence on government policies and programs as strong enough, the majority believed that CSOs are either non-existent or have limited influence. Their operations are under the control of the government. A glance at the executive/civil service

revealed that 48.334% of the households judged the executive/ civil service had low or no commitment to democracy. However, more than 85% of the respondents said that the executive/ civil service largely or to some extent reflect the cross-section of the residents of the city. 56.667% believed that political consideration influence promotion and career development in the executive/civil service. The effort to improve the civil service has been accredited by the majority of the respondents as 68.334% thought that it has been moderately improved. The respondents have expressed the unfavorable environment for the operation of the media and indicated that media rights are frequently violated by the government even though, six in ten of the households, they thought that media have a highly constructive role in promoting good governance. The most important source of information were private radio and news paper and issues of international news and events took the interest of most households more than half of the respondents believed that the political system is not competitive enough. Nearly 65% of the households said that opposition political parties have either poor or no influence on policies and programs of the city government even though they are essential constituent in maintaining and consolidating good governance. Concerning to the Kebeles, it was only 25% of the respondents who believed that the kebeles had strong capacity to manage their decentralized responsibilities. It is occasionally that the Kebeles satisfactorily dealt complaints of the households.

More than 85% of the sample households thought that there are either extreme (56.667%) or moderate (29.167%) corruption. However, they were divided over the effort of the City Administration to contain it. There were wide agreements (56%) over the City Administration's right to make abiding decisions. Similarly 50% of the households thought that the Administration treated all people equally and is believed to be legitimate enough to be supported. 56% of the respondents participated in various public issues even though their participation was often passive. Mostly, officials consulted them when policies and programs were formulated though the capacity of the community on influencing decisions was not significant. 57.667% of the respondents thought that when authorities make wrong they did not make it public and 58.334% of the households' believed that if they criticize authorities; they would be treated as political opponents. More than 65% of the respondents indicated that the government fully or moderately addressed the needs of the poor though it has mixed results in providing effective services.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter some background and historical experience of governance in Addis Ababa has been discussed, attempt also made to analyze the challenges and opportunities that faced various institutions. Some attributes of governance and their status also discussed.

4.2. Conceptualization of Good Governance among Households

A glance at the households' conceptualization of good governance indicates that they conceived it in various ways which often conform with one or more attributes of the concept. Although the term is familiar, it was the few who adequately grasp the concept in a comprehensive manner. This is particularly visible with regard to the important actors that can realize and promote good governance. Almost all the respondents considered good governance as the domain of the government; other non- state actors are not mentioned. Most of the sample households recurrently defined the concept as: "A mode of administration which is characterized by the prevalence of rule of law, equitable distribution of resources of the country, fair treatment of people without any discrimination along the line of race, gender, ethnicity and religion".

Others explained it as a political system characterized by existence of free and fair election, and the exercise of power based on a given legal provisions in an acceptable way. In a similar vein, others defined it as a system of administration that has legitimacy and support of the public and resign from office based on the rule of the game. Transparency, accountability, participation, serving the people and quick response are repeatedly mentioned to constitute the definition of sound governance.

Similarly, some respondents attached it with equal treatment of the nations and nationalities of the country and sharing them the benefits and burdens equally. The researcher also observed some definitions that are related with the economic, social and educational aspect of the sample households. For instance, a respondent who is unemployed defined good governance as "treating individuals based on their expertise and educational achievements". By the same token, a lawyer

has explained it as “an arrangement in which people are administered by law that ensures their freedom and liberty”. Some also attached it with sustainable and inclusive economic growth as well as people centered development. All the households that attempted to explain good governance unanimously agree on the positive aspect of good governance although they provide these definitions from their own perspective. However, the researcher also came up with few individuals who argue that the concept is attributed to the conspiracy of the west and international financial institutions to keep the third world perpetually suppressed and remain exploited. But such arguments are not as such valid as many researches proved that good governance bring development (Hope, R. Kempe, 2009).

4.3 Political parties

The existence of active political parties is a central tool to achieve good governance in every type of administration at every level. The majority of the respondents advocated the idea that in the absence of opposition political parties, it is difficult to realize sound governance. Multi- party political system was appreciated as far as governance is concerned. Unfortunately, the political system is characterized by the absence of competitiveness as more than half of the respondents looked it at. In Ethiopia in general and Addis Ababa in particular, the political landscape is dominated by EPRDF evidenced by the party’s overwhelming dominance over both federal and regional political institutions. The 2005 election was an exception as Coalition for Unity and Democracy controlled 137 of the 138 seats of the council even though they did not take over to administer the city on the ground that is claimed to be characterized by electoral fraud.

Political parties were not that much trusted as the sample respondents had reflected. They are not in a position to aggregate the demand of the masses and institutionalize such demands and aspirations. They rather conduct their businesses in non- transparent means and they do not perform their activity in appropriate way and have little capability to articulate their interest. Hence, entrenching the governance realm on the basis of democratic principles through multi-party democracy becomes challenged. Though most political parties raise the banner of democracy in principle they are not democrat in practice. The net result is that the opposition parties, as they are currently operating, are not significant actors in the promotion of good governance. What lies behind this disturbing fact?

The ruling party has frequently alleged that the opposition political parties are mere “messengers of foreign forces” or “neo-liberal messengers” that are out to surrender the sovereignty of the country to alien forces. It has relegated them to the status of anti-democratic forces and has committed itself to marginalize them from the political scene. *Addis Ra`ey*, (November, 2010¹), EPRDF’s voice, clearly revealed that the ruling party will confront the opposition parties and strives to maintain the current political status quo unless they change their “anti-constitution” behavior. Of course, the way to contain them is indicated to be through constitutional and legal means. But this does not mean that the ruling party is interested to totally close the political space but to reduce the power and influence of the incumbent opposition political parties. This is stated to be the result of two major reasons: the first reason is that one of the pillars of democratic principle is the right to association and expression and it is the dedication of EPRDF to acknowledge this fundamental constitutional principle. Secondly, the anti-democratic forces, if supported by the public, can not be checked by legal means; rather they may spread out through covert means and develop to be a threat against the party. In fact, it is revealed that the interest of the ruling party is working together and even consolidating political parties that are loyal to the constitution (ibid).

The hegemonic aspiration of the ruling party, however, had allegedly prohibited its adversaries from playing their role in the governance of the city. For many scholars, EPRDF is not committed to multi-party democracy. Democracy in the EPRDF model is understood as “participation of the Ethiopian people at the grass roots level”, via the party and the government organs which “mobilize the people”, not for debating and voting, but for executing policies and measures decided elsewhere (Abbink, J. 2009). As far as good governance is concerned, it is difficult for opposition political parties to contribute what they are expected as the political environment is too narrow (Alemu, 6 January, 2011)². The city administration is not entertained by diversity of ideas. Good governance can be realized and sustained in a political system committed to democracy and the rule of law.

¹ The researcher has translated the local calendar to Gregorian calendar.

² Alemu Koira is the Head Secretary of the Ethiopian Federal Democratic Forum, 6 January, 2011

However, it is also argued that competition among the leaders of political parties is crucial sources that contributed for their weaknesses. Most of them lack party discipline, internal democracy and means of handling differences that arise within themselves (Reporter, January, 25, 2011). They are fragmented on the basis of personal interest and that antagonism and hostile competition among political parties has created winners and losers (Merga, 8 January, 2011)³. Therefore, many political parties have had their own internal problems that undermine their significance in promoting good governance. Kassahun (2003:145) also stated this in a manner that reflects the dialectical interaction of vexing political parties` behaviors and the social norms that sustain such behaviors which is worth quoting here as:

The leaders of some opposition parties seem to have let themselves fall prey to the influences of the remaining traits of the traditional Ethiopian political culture. These include, among other things, harbouring personal grudges against constructive criticism (internal and external), discouraging a culture that espouses divergent views in open debate and exchange, downplaying the active participation of the membership in deciding on important matters which affect the organisation, and so on. Such negative trends can do nothing but increase the likelihood of further fragmentation, thereby exacerbating situations that render sustainability a futile and far-fetched aim.

4.4 Council

The City Council of Addis Ababa is the supreme legislative body of the City Government in which its members are directly elected by residents of the City for a term of five years. The current City Council of Addis Ababa is established during the May 2008 election in accordance with the Addis Ababa Revised Charter of Proclamation No. 361/2003 Article 12. The number of Council members is not fixed and determined according to the electoral law of the country (article 12 sub art. 2 of the Revised Charter). There are 138 members and except one seat hold by CUDP others are occupied by EPRDF of which 109 are males and the remaining 29 are females (Addis Council, 2010). The City Council makes laws in matters pertaining to the city that reach the public (the Revised Charter, Article 14). Furthermore, the Council monitors, controls, evaluates and supports the executive bodies within the City Administration based on the stated laws through its seven Standing committees with the aim of providing the city resident with timely services (Addis Council, 2010). As part of the decentralized administrative

³ Dr. Merga Bayissa is the Vice-President and External Relation Officer of CUDP, 8 January 2011

structure, the Sub-cities and kebeles have established their own Council within their perspective jurisdiction.

Despite such promising legal provisions, many perils surround this supreme legislative body at each tier of the City Administration. The mayor of the city (quoted in Addis Council, September, 2010)⁴ expressed the problem associated with the previous administrations in the following ways:

Prior to the transition of power from the Ad-hoc Administration in 2008, during both the transition government and the ad-hoc administration, the three governmental bodies in relation to separation of power were not well defined particularly with respect to initiating and making laws, the legislative and the executives were blurred.

The same situation still persists if one observes the individual council members and their position within the executive organ of the City Administration. In reality, there is no clear separation of power between the legislative and the executive. The legislative [Council] body performs on behalf of the demands of the executive not on the interest and aspiration of the people. It is difficult to argue that they are autonomous in a manner that conforms to the provisions of the law of the City (Merga, 8 January 2011), which allow them to be free and be accountable only to the constitution, the Charter, their conscience and the residents of the city. (Alemu, 6 January 2011) also challenges this provision on the ground that the party discipline and the doctrine of democratic centralism prohibit individual members of the Council to express his idea freely. Thus, individual Council member pays loyalty not to their constituent areas but to the top echelon. In such environment the argument of the critics holds true and the role of the Council to check the executive is restrained. This idea also concurs with the observation of the sample households. Most of them, above 66%, considered the Council as weak whose independence is not still mature enough.

In addition to the problems stated above, the Council seemed to face enormous capacity challenges. "Previously, there were no committees which initiate and investigate laws, gather public opinions and present proposals to the council. There were even instances where draft laws had not been thoroughly discussed and debated" (Mayor of Addis Ababa, 2010) as cited in the

⁴ Currently the Mayor of the City Administration is Honorable Ato Kuma Demekssa

Addis Council. There are also other obstacles to the Council. Most members of the Standing Committees are not only small in number but also appointees in other sectorial Bureaus and positions that prohibit them from participating in the Committees activity. They, often, fail to attend committee meetings as a result of unmanageable burden. Each Standing Committee has the power to supervise, control, evaluate and support the activities of the sectors and bureaus that are assigned to them by the Council. However, some heads of the Standing Committees are simultaneously vice sectorial officer, business processes owners, etc thereby rendering the act of control and supervision meaningless (Lemlem, 18 January, 2011)⁵. Planning and implementation report of the respective Bureaus and Offices is also sometimes delayed and failed to be submitted to the Standing Committees. The Standing Committees failed to visit most areas where activities are carried out on the ground (ibid.). Furthermore, agenda of the council usually failed to arrive on time (Solomon, 19 January, 2011)⁶. Its effectiveness has also been challenged as it failed to entertain divergent ideas; almost all members came from one political party.

There are some progresses that can be considered as opportunities for the Council to promote sound governance in the Administration. The great asset lies in the Revised Charter itself as it clearly stipulates the council's power and function (article 14(1) and (2)). The attempt to set up institutions and skilled manpower is also appreciated. There are also efforts to deliver trainings that are supposed to raise the skill and knowledge of the members.

4.5 Media

EPRDF seizure of power was accompanied with liberalization efforts that lead to the mushrooming of the private media in general and the print one in particular. It has been given constitutional guarantee. Article 29 (2) of the FDRE Constitution, for instance, prescribes that "everyone has the right to freedom of expression without any interference." The right includes the "freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or print, regardless of the form of the art, or through any media of his choice."

⁵ Honorable Dr. Lemlem Mekonnen is member of CUDP party and the Council, 18 January, 2011

⁶ Honourable Ato Solomon Bahiru is Member and Core Processes Owner of Law Making of, Monitoring, Evaluation and Control of Addis Ababa Council, 19 January, 2011

The media can be an effective conduit for the awareness creation in the area of good governance, and serve as an outlet for different outlooks and ideas of people with different backgrounds (Fitsum, 15 January 2011)⁷. Vibrant media also have the function to educate the public, encourage civil engagement, drive the city development, and expose corruption and serves as voice for the poor (Dagnachew, 13 January 2011)⁸. The media try to keep the public interest and to ensure the accountability of decision makers by highlighting and exposing cases of malfeasance, misadministration, and corruption, thereby strengthening the transparency and effectiveness of the governance system (Sewnet, 13 January, 2011)⁹. The media also raise awareness regarding the pervasive social problems and to inform governing officials about social needs. In this regard it appears that the media are taken as important stakeholders to ensure and sustain good governance in Addis Ababa City Administration. For example, FM 96.3 radio has a weekly program on good governance and also holds live programs that directly participate the public, twice a week (ibid.).

Encouraging positive news stories about community development initiatives such as attempts at bolstering the economy, building stable societies, fostering harmony within and between communities, and strengthening consensus between diverse groups are the agenda that are enjoyed by the media (Sewnet, 13 January, 2011). Informants argued that these significances of the media in the milieu of good governance seem to be a recent development. The informant marked that “the earlier focuses of the [government] media were accentuating development issues. However, now it is understood that development can not be realized without good governance and we are so committed to it”. The tool to realize this goal is through developmental journalism which is the common agenda for every government media and by extension to the private ones. However, this “shift in approach” does not serve as a genuine forum for entertainment of different ideas and opinions. The so called developmental journalists are always covering development activities in the content of their programs and news that magnified the image of the administration. Hence, they mostly serve as tools of indoctrination. It could be argue that the reason behind household’s prioritization of international new and events

⁷ Fitsum Mamo is the Editor- in- chief of Awramba Newspaper, 15 January, 2011

⁸ Dagnachew Geyon is the Editor-in-chief of Addis Lisan Newspaper, 13 January 2011

⁹ Sewnet Ayele is the Radio Team Leader of FM Radio 96.3, 13 January

over government activities related local news is the indoctrinating agenda of the media that generated public disinterestedness.

The private media that began to relatively flourish for at least 14 years [since 1991] until the 2005 national and regional election is being gradually attenuated (EHRCO, 2010). Currently, the country is ranked as one of those countries that have the most restrictive media environment. Journalists particularly from the private media were harassed, jailed and exiled (Tronvoll, 2010:4). "Private media outlets were closed down and journalists reporting on the [2005] crackdown and voicing criticism of government policies were harassed and intimidated, forcing them to flee the country" (ibid.). Thus the private press has largely been silenced and is no longer able to serve as the forum for alternative ideas and opinions, as it once did. Since the 2005 national and regional elections, the private media that are not affiliated to the ruling party become under severe control. Many journalists were throw into jail, new legislation were passed by the parliament that hinder the operation of media, particularly the private media (ibid). An informant from the private media explained the media environment as follows:

The implementation of the rights enshrined in the Constitution is totally embarrassing. It is hardly possible to get information that the public has the right to know from officials. Though every government bureau has its own public relation officers, those who are willing to give interviews are very few. Especially those media outlets that are known for their criticisms are the very victims of government retribution.

The government media are neither independent nor medium of free and open debate (Merga, 8 January, 2011). Even though, editorial independence is protected by law, fear and self censorship encompass journalists because of the harsh nature of the recent law passed by the parliament (ibid.). Few dare to write articles that are very critical of the government and that fear of retribution from the government makes them express their mind in a much suppressed manner (*Fitsum, 15 January, 2011*). The view of the majorities of the sample households also confirm the view that the media, specially the private ones, operate where freedom of expression is assumed to be the gift of the government that can be revoked at will.

What are considered as challenges pertain to lack of professionalism in certain specialized areas, lack of time on the part of authorities, high cost of some programs, lack of materials and

facilities (Seifa, 14 January, 2011)¹⁰. Developmental media that comprise “development journalist” focus on news, features, analysis, and current affairs that help to support processes of socioeconomic and political development along the ruling party ideology. Even those media that highlight problems and weaknesses in governance and push the government to be responsive to public concerns and opinions face serious threats either in overt or covert way.

Despite these challenges, the constitution stipulated that the media should be free and independent that serve as an opportunity for tackling the above challenges and developing robust and professionalized media. In fact, the private radio and newspaper still serve as the most important sources of information. The view of the government media is that the editorial policy is enabling.

4.6 Kebele/Woreda

The current government of Ethiopia adopted decentralization as a mechanism of administration and pursuant to this policy Addis Ababa has a full measure of self government as stated in article 49 sub-article 2 of the FDRE constitution. Similarly, decentralization is exercised in Addis Ababa City Administration as it has three tiers of administration. The Revised Charter of the City Administration in its article 10 clearly portrays the structure of the City Government as City Government Organ, Sub-City Organ and Kebele Organ (*Federal Negarit Gazeta Proclamation N.o 361/2003*). These local decentralization efforts are supposed to empower the communities and enable local autonomy which is a cornerstone in the creation of sense of ownership. The kebelles (now called Woredas) are the lowest tier in the hierarchy of the administration. Article 38 sub- article 1 of the City Administration stated that Kebeles are centers for development and direct popular participation as well as a location for the delivery of basic services (ibid.).

The above legal provision is the foundation for kebelles to convey and exercise good governance in their jurisdiction. As Steiner (2008) explained decentralization is considered as a means to achieve good governance as it advances public participation, enhances accountability of public officials, and lowers corruption incident. In line with this account, Meron (3 January , 2011)¹¹

¹⁰ Seifa Deribe is the Deputy Editor-in-Chief of Addis Zemen Newspaper, 14 January, 2011

¹¹ Meron Chemedas is the manager of Woreda ten of Bole Sub-city, 3 January, 2011

consider good governance as a means through which power that reside in the hands of the people is exercised that serves the people by means of being responsive and prioritizing the public interest over the private ones. For this end, the city administration has launched the decentralization effort. However, to perform all these activities there should be substantial power that are assured by law. The power can be political, administrative or financial.

In practice, local decentralization is not adequately addressed and the process has faced enormous challenges. Every office is lead by the cabinet members who are political appointees and most of them are members of the ruling party (Tadesse, 7 January, 2011)¹². Similarly Vaughan and Tronovoll (2003) further highlighted this difficulty by arguing that administrative and political structures usually overlap and interweave in such a way that, in practice, the local administrative units (kebeles) are infrequently neutral or independent. They rather tended to have to work in ways which often make them barely distinguishable, in practice, from the ruling party itself.

Article 38(1b) of the Revised Charter of the City Administration shows that kebeles have the power to facilitate conditions for availability of services within the reach of the respective residents. However, informants prove that in larger development projects are undertaken by the government and the responsibility of the Kebele authorities is to select sites that are suited to the project. The Kebele authorities are generating their own income that is invested for small scale development activities. For instance, Meron(3 January, 2011) indicate that her kebele has the plan to dig nine water walls in this budget year. However, substantial amount of their budget is drawn from the higher levels of the Administration. This financial allocation is legally embodied in the Revised Charter article 57(2) and (3) as follows: Sub-Cities are to receive budgetary subsidy from the council and certain amount of such budgetary subsidy shall be apportioned to their own executive organs and Kebeles. The City Council may grant special subsidy to Sub-Cities and Kebeles to cover the expenditure of projects under certain conditions. The lucrative source of income is reserved for the higher tier of the administration.

¹² Tadesse Belay is the Manager of Woreda Three of Gulele Sub-city, 7 January, 2011

Notwithstanding the City Administration's transfer of substantial administrative functions and power, political and financial power is still concentrated in the City Administration. Kassahun's (2009), and Vaguhan and Tronvoll's (2003) argument on the decentralization effort of the country and its achievement partially holds true for the City Administration as well. The central government's reluctance to grant full autonomy to local governments for making policies indicates that decentralization is a highly political process that cannot be realized without the will and commitment of the government. If the central government is not fully committed to decentralization but embarked on the reform by default (in contrast to by design), it is highly likely to slow down the process wherever possible and to leave the most crucial aspects of public decision-making under central control (Vaguhan and Tronvoll's 2003). Decentralization at the Kebele level also suffers from lack of human capacities that can expedite devolved authorities. Meron (3 January, 2011) highlighted this shortcoming as follows:

Shortage of human and material capacity are severe that prohibit us from being efficient and effective. For instance, three business processes (yesera hidet) that requires nine officers are done by one person. To provide identification card, there are three business processes that need three officials which, however, have only one official in its current operation. In all offices there are shortages of professionals though the degrees vary across them.

Kassahun (2009: 135) succinctly stated the national problems of decentralization that also well captured the situation in Addis Ababa as follows:

An insufficient increase in popular participation, a lack of downward accountability plus the related problems of corruption, clientelism and patronage, and an inadequate level of competence, coupled with low human and financial capacity at the local level, all constitute serious constraints to achieve effective decentralization.

However, there are also some progresses towards good governance through decentralization that should be appreciated. The required institutions that facilitate the implementation of reform policies such as BPR and BSC are instituted. Training has usually been delivered for cabinet members and top leaders at the kebele level; an attempt has also been made to bring service providers closest to the public. Provision of skilled human power and other inputs that facilitate sound governance at the kebele level are also being carried out. The City Administration, through the Capacity Building Bureau, has also prepared a program that emphasizes on good governance. The programme, which is being implemented, provides detail procedures that underlie the tasks

of building the capacity of human power, provision of materials and facilities (Capacity Building Bureau, 2010). As the lower administration units [Woredas] are closest to the community, there are attempts to decentralize certain tasks so as to execute them in an effective manner. This effort entails not only decentralizing the tasks but also the power to make decisions on the tasks to be performed (Abreham, 22 January 2011)¹³.

4.7 Executive / Civil Service

The Revised Charter of the City Administration clearly depicted the Authorities that comprise the executive organ of the administration. The Mayor, Deputy Mayor, the City Manager and Deputy City Manager are the executive body of the City. Besides, article 26, 27, 28 and 29 state that the Office of the City Government Chief Auditor, Addis Ababa City Police Commission, Public Prosecution Office of the City Government and Ethics and Anti-corruption Commission are the other executive bodies of the City Administration respectively (*Federal Negarit Gazeta Proclamation N.o 361/2003*). The Mayor is the chief executive officer of the City and is accountable to the Federal Government and the City Council.

Recruitment of the executive bodies is mainly based on political affiliation and loyalty of individuals to the winning party in the council (Abreham, 22 January, 2011). Article 13 of the Revised Charter illustrates that a political party occupying the majority of seats of the Council or, where such does not exist, coalition of political parties, has/ have the power to give leadership to the executive organ of the City. The present City Government is established by the May 2008 election which brought a landslide victory to the ruling party, Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democracy Front (EPRDF). AACAA established the executive bodies that are categorized into either the municipal or non-municipal sections which also listed their powers and activities. The executive bodies have been organized to provide effective services to customers and facilitate developmental activities. It is organized based on the reforms of Business processes Reengineering (BPR). This in turn, is supposed to further strengthen the ongoing development and good governance (Addis Council, September 2010). All these are theoretical articulations of which their practicality is far more divergent from these articulations.

¹³ Ato Abreham Chosha is the Deputy Head Of the Capacity Building Bureau Of the City Administration. 22 January, 2011

Good governance can be realized and sustained where the executive is committed to democracy and the rule of law (Merga, 8 January 2011). The executive's commitment for good governance, however, is questioned by informants. The executive is largely remained unaccountable, closed, bureaucratic, non-customer oriented, capacity strained, patrimonial and parochial (ibid.). The large and politicized bureaucracy requires huge expense which directly drained the treasury of the City (ibid.). The public sector is composed of technocrats who use the arrangement for their own interest serving the residents. The opinion of the sample households also concur with the informants argument; they argued that the executive has low or no commitment to democracy and that political loyalty is given more weight to the expertise and the knowledge of individuals.

An informant from the Capacity Building Bureau undermines the critics on the ground that most problems are inherited from the past. He added that the City Administration treats civil servants based on the expertise and knowledge of individuals. In a similar fashion Zegeye (24 January, 2011)¹⁴ further consolidate this argument as:

Any civil servant is eligible to compete for recruitment and promotion. However, preferences, as part of an affirmative action package, is given to female candidates, candidates with disabilities and members of comparatively less represented nationalities provided that they have equal or close scores to other candidates.

Concerning the composition of the civil service, they usually reflect the cross section of the society. They do not discriminate based on patrimonial ties such as religion, region, gender etc. at least for positions that are less politically sensitive. But for those positions, that are more or less politically sensitive, appointment, promotion, and career development in the civil service/ executive are based on political considerations. This argument also coincides with the idea of sample households.

The major challenges of consolidation of good governance in the context of the executive/ civil service are rent-seeking and corruption which are partly driven by unsatisfactory salaries and other benefits (ibid.). The respondents also felt that there is extreme corruption incidence within the civil service. They are not accountable in many areas. Taking affirmative action into

¹⁴ Ato Zegeye Yemanebirhan is the Commissioner of Addis Ababa Civil Service Commission, 24 January, 2011

consideration, merit is the stipulated criterion for the selection and promotion of the civil servant. However, as one goes upward to the hierarchy of the Administration, political considerations become more influential in the recruitment and promotion of the public servant. Similarly, informal talks with some officials at every level of the administration showed that the biggest challenge to the promotion of civil servants according to the law is the prevalence of corrupt practices within their own respective institutions. In those institutions, the promotion of civil servants for reasons of loyalty or other ascriptive criteria is not uncommon practice.

However, the effort of the administration to build a fair, transparent, efficient, effective and ethical civil service through reforms such as BPR and BSC are appreciated. Even if critics take such reforms as politically motivated, some better achievements have been witnessed. For instance, in many offices, the researcher has observed complaints-handling means as well as operating systems for budgeting, procurement, and some aspects of personnel management such as salary surveys and records management, suggestion box for their customers. Young graduates from universities and colleges are also employed in the civil service. There are also attempts to provide services through installed computerized system. Although sample households were divided on the degree of the transformation, they accredited the effort to improve the civil service.

4.8 Civil Society Organizations

Civil Society Organizations are parallel to the long history of the country. Modern interest groups such as labor unions and professional associations began to emerge as CSOs following the Labor Relation Decree of the government that was proclaimed in 1963 (Sisay, 2002). Since then civil society organizations have played significant role in the social, economic and political issues. Among others, their role in areas of democracy and human right include: advancement of civic education and raising people's awareness, helping people to claim for their rights, complementing the role of the government in democratization process, reforming the state, conflict resolution and peace building, monitoring democratic process, rule of law and protection of human rights violations and promoting fair and democratic elections (ibid.). They are also important development actors in the areas of education, training, health and sanitation etc.

Despite such roles, CSOs has faced enormous challenges. Bureaucratic registration process and problems associated with obtaining license, government's interference in CSOs work, and absence of independent and efficient judiciary are some of the challenges they face (Sisay G., 2002). The other issue that was hotly contested and allegedly repressive as far as CSOs concerned is the charities and societies proclamation No.621/2009. Critics argue that the repressive provisions stipulate that Ethiopian Charities or Societies should not receive more than 10% of their budget from abroad which otherwise should be registered as either Ethiopian Resident Societies or Foreign Charities (art.2-4). Charities and societies that are not registered as Ethiopian Charities or Societies are prohibited from working in the areas of the advancement of human and democratic rights, promotion of equality of nations nationalities and peoples, and other right-based matters like promotion of children's and disabled rights, conflict resolution and reconciliation, and justice and law enforcement service (art.14). The argument is that under the general state of poverty prevalent in Ethiopia putting in place a strong and internally-driven civil society organization cannot be possible. The net effect is, according to critics, the absence of well developed charities or societies working in the aforementioned areas (Merga, 8 January, 2011). For instance one informant mentioned the consequence of the charities and societies proclamation as follows:

We recognized that we should generate ninety percent of our income from domestic sources. This is so difficult in countries like Ethiopia where the habit of donating money for CSOs is not common. We, therefore, developed cost-reduction strategy that emphasize on reducing our employees. We also limited our operation only in the areas of legal consultation. Due to the restricted capacity we have, conducting research on legal provisions has been reduced (Zenaye , 5 January, 2011¹⁵).

An informant from Civil Society Organization that operate in the area of human rights advocacy has also informed the researcher that, as the result of the new legislation, they have reduced their office from eleven to three (anonymous informant, 13 January, 2011). There are also other informants who argued that the number of charities working in the above mentioned areas had decreased and the existing ones are limited to the regions in which they operate (anonymous informant, 17 January 2011). A number of charities and societies have decreased from a total of 3822 to 1615 after the issuance of the new charities and societies proclamation out of which only

¹⁵ w/ro Zenaye Tadesse is the Director of Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association, 5 January, 2011

97 are registered as Ethiopian charities and societies (Markos, 2010). The researcher manually counted from the list of registered charities and societies around 18 that are working or organized in areas related to the issues raised above and most are societies of a particular group like journalists, lawyers, and women. The majority of the households also emphasized on the limited capacity of CSOs on influencing government policies. They also acknowledged the harsh environment in their function. They operate in government controlled environment and are subject to harassment if they disagree with the government.

The government argues that the proclamation is necessary so that foreign influences could be reduced and enable charities and societies to make meaningful contribution by addressing pressing problems. There are also informants who consider the proclamation as an opportunity to develop mass based organizations. It is argued that the focus rather should be on keeping the mass based organizations free from government intervention and influence in one way or the other (anonymous informant, 06 January 2011). Studies conducted with regard to the contribution of NGOs asserted that they had not made a critical contribution for entrenching democracy and good governance (Kassahun, 2002). Mennasemay (2009a, pp. 9-10) has also argued that civil society in Ethiopia, primarily understood to be “a site of palliative social care to the underprivileged...”, far from being antithetical to authoritarianism, and site of resistance and autonomy, naturalizes inequality and denies the underprivileged’s agency by treating them as recipients of assistance. On the other hand, Abbink (2009) argued that many NGOs operating in Ethiopia have made significant contributions in “enlightening” and “empowering” the people and hence promoting democratization in the last decade. They also tend to explicitly ally themselves with the opposition groups in case where they actively involve (Lidetu, 2010). The respondents also trust them more than any institution in the study even though they considered them as not participatory, transparent and accountable in comparison with others.

4.9 Corruption

Extreme corruption incidence is one of the most challenging problems that encounter the City Administration. Observing at the sample households responses give some picture on the degree and frequency of corruption, nepotism and favoritism. The problem of corruption has been considered as a hurdle against good governance. Most of the key informants approached by the researcher consider corruption and rent seeking as the core challenge to realize good governance

in their respective areas. Informal talks with many officials and households revealed that corruption is the common practice in discharging administrative affairs in the city. Sample households believed that officials of institutions that are the focus of the study engage in corrupt activity though the intensity varies across them. Particularly, activities on land administration and revenue collection are affairs in which corruption and rent seeking are widely prevalent. It has become more systematic and sophisticated. The administrations at Kebele level are perceived to be corrupt which also holds true for the civil service at the top level. The sample households complain that they are asked to pay money, give gifts to complete of their affairs on time. The media and civil society organizations are the two institutions that were somehow perceived to be free from corruption.

The city administration has moderate commitment to contain corruption as argued by the majorities of the sample households and the anti-corruption institution is perceived to have modest contribution for the reduction of corruption. However, the efforts to curb corruption in the city are by and large the preserve of administrative institutions to the exclusion of non-state actors. The limited zeal and role of the media in investigating and exposing official wrongdoings also aggravated the problem.

4.10 Legitimacy

The residents of the city seems to gave a certain degree of legitimacy for the administration evidenced by their level of trust on the administration, their perception of equal treatment, and their recognition of the power of the city administration to make decisions. The sample households argue that they are fairly treated regardless of ethnicity, religion and gender. They also thought that the administration has a right to make decisions that abide all residents of the city. Trust in various institutions may be viewed as the central indicator of the public's underlying feeling about its polity in general and the nature of governance in particular. Comparatively speaking, while the media and CSOs command the highest level of trust by the sample households, political parties, the civil service and Woreda administrations command the lowest one in the hierarchy of trust. Those institutions that receive minimal trust are at the same time considered as institutions that faced high corruption incidence. Hence, there is positive relationship between trust in institutions and corruption incidence.

The other issue related with legitimacy is whether the City Administration came to power through democratic ways or not. The majority of the sample households agree that it came to power by democratic means and hence legitimate. A significant portion of the respondents, however, disagree on this issue as more than one third of the respondent become reluctant on the administration and concluded that it is not legitimate enough to be supported. The divergence in the view of households to some degree is acceptable and does not bring legitimacy into question for legitimacy does not require blind and total acceptance. "A certain questioning skepticism can be healthy for good governance and indeed vital for democracy, leading citizens and civil society organizations to scrutinize what government does and to check abuses of power" (Diamond, 2007).

4.11 Participation

Public participation on development activities or other administrative issues either individually or in group, directly or through representatives is the key to maintain and promote good governance. In this regard, a significant portion of residents of the city claimed that they have been participating in various public issues. Others claimed that they have failed to participate which is largely the result of lack of interest that in the end militates against good governance. Even those who participate in various public issues are of the view that their participation is nominal in the main and hence not empowering. It is more a kind of campaign that is not only shallow but also indifferent to the interest and aspiration of the people. Their participation is usually passive which hardly go beyond listening what the leaders say. Their participation did not proceed along the stages of planning, implementing, evaluating and assessing the results of their discussion.

The lack of public participation emanates from the absence of systems that encourage persistent free and competent participation. The forums of participation were either limited or on single issues. Usually participation is coincided only to public gathering. The people is said to be participated only when they held meetings. Public gathering by itself was considered as an end to participation. Observing at the sample households give some picture on the above challenges of governance in the context of good governance. The majority of the respondents explained that the officials consult them when they formulate policies, rules and regulation that affect their life in one way or another. However, they are skeptical on the effect of their opinions and ideas on policies designed and rules devised. Problem identification, prioritization and implementation

were usually the business of the few privileged authorities. Thus participation is conceived or rather misconceived as informing the people what has been planned. There are not any institutional mechanisms that allow the people to supervise and evaluate the concerned authorities regarding the proper implementation of plans. The prevailing form of participation is not only exclusionary of the masses but also the technocrats. It is not exaggeration to say that the civil servants and professionals are not invited to generate new ideas or suggest their opinions on issues that are pre-determined by political appointees at a higher level. Rather, those who ask questions and raise different ideas or provide options were either marginalized or considered as political opponents.

However, there are attempts to engage the mass based organizations in the decision making processes. This is again marred by the absence of independent and powerful mass based organization that are in a position to articulate the interests of their members. They are not only dependent on the government for almost every thing they need but also recent in their origin in the discourse and practice of associational life in Ethiopia. Regarding these organizations, a document prepared by the mayor office of the city has this to say:

These mass based organizations [the Youth, Women and Residents Association] are at their infant stage. They are encircled with wide attitudinal gap, organizational and practical problems. The attempt to establish strong leadership that grows from strong popular movement is not yet started (Mayor's Office, 2009).

4.12 Transparency

Most of the households want to have an understanding of administration activities, policies, and budgets. However, the process to meet the leaders and officials in various institutions is not smooth. In a system of governance that is characterized by transparency, information is expected to be freely available and directly accessible to those affected by such decisions. The administrations' decisions are not enforced in a manner that follows specified rules and regulations. The decisions are not vividly observable for the residents of the city. The tradition of sharing public information in a systematic or formal manner is not well developed. Although many offices and bureaus had public relation officers, transparency is limited especially with regard to financial information (for example, regarding the administration revenues, budgets, expenditures, audits and financial decision-making processes).

It is important to note that this lack of a culture of transparency and information-sharing is not only limited to the public sector but also observed among civil society organizations, the media and political parties. Most NGOs the researcher encountered are reluctant to "reveal" detailed information about their own organization's performance and governance. During interviews with NGO representatives only very few were willing to provide unrestricted access to information about project proposals, budgets and evaluation reports. Within this context, legislations passed regarding the media, political parties and charities and societies have positive contribution.

In comparison, the knowledge of the sample households' on the organizations, activities, leaders, budget of various institutions vary from institution to institution. They have sufficient information on Woredas and media while their knowledge on civil society organizations, the council and political parties is limited.

However, there are some positive developments on access to information for the public. The researcher observed a quarterly financial statement of Woredas that are posted within their premises that are easily readable for the public notwithstanding the fact that most of this information is provided in technical language which is difficult for ordinary people to understand.

4.13 Accountability

Accountability is the flip side of transparency and is concerned with the obligation to answer for the fulfillment of assigned and accepted duties and responsibilities within the framework of the given authority and resource. The Revised Charter of Addis Ababa consists of specific provisions on the conduct of the administration and indicates that governance should be based on accountability and transparency.

The sample households are reluctant to publicly express any form of disagreement or criticisms against authorities. Meron (3 January 2011) explained the situation as follow: "Such criticisms are often made in the absence of authorities while in a public meeting people dare not to speak up". In the sample households nearly six out of ten respondents believed that if they question, criticize or provide alternative views they would be treated as political opponents. When the

authorities make wrong they are not willing to explain what was going on. They are usually accountable to the higher tier of the administration. In comparison, the Woredas are more accountable to any other institution as they are closest to the public.

One of the opportunity to have governance characterized by accountability emanates from the charter and other legal provisions as they clearly states the powers and functions of the executive, the judiciary, the mayor, council, Manager and other officials in the city at its different tiers of the administration. But good governance can be realized when laws are appropriately implemented. In addition, the current processes of decentralization offered important potential for promoting change in the attitudes and behaviors of both citizens and authorities as far as accountability is concerned. Efforts to engage various mass based organizations are also important potential for further consolidation of accountability in the conduct of the business of the administration. Accountability can be realized when there is a vigorous and pluralistic mass based organizations and that is monitoring what government does, scrutinizing government budgets, expenditures, and legislation, raising questions, and demanding corrections when mistakes are committed. However, as long as these organizations persist as politically affiliated, they can not play the above role. They will do it if they emerge as free and independent.

4.14. Efficiency, Effectiveness and Affordability

Addressing the needs of the poor, for example, in terms of accessing essential public goods increase legitimacy and hence promote good governance. Depriving the poor from essential public goods and services, in contrary, undermine the legitimacy of any political system. In the sample households the majority indicated that public services provided by government fully or moderately address the needs of the poor. The administration was more successful in providing affordable health and education services although their quality are compensated. Thus, the administration is entertained by mixed results. In comparison, the media, kebele and the civil service were judged as more effective in performing their respective activity in good manner. In the contrary political parties and civil society organizations were the least.

To conclude, most households conceptualize good governance in various ways which often conform with one or more attributes of the concept. However, it was the few who grasp the

concept in a comprehensive manner. The political system is characterized by the absence of competitiveness. Opposition political parties are weak to articulate and institutionalize the interest of the mass; lack party discipline; have no practice internal democracy; competition over leadership; hostile and antagonistic relation; the influence of the ruling party have undermined political parties role in promoting good governance. Capacity challenges; small and occupied members in the standing committees; the blurring of authority are the major challenges that encounter the Council. The restrictive media environment; weak capacity; limited facility; and the approach to development journalism hinder the media to be vibrant and forum for entertaining different ideas and opinions. Overlapping of administrative and political structures; limited power for generating income; shortage of human power and facilities are the challenges of the lower tiers of the administration. The executive/civil service characterized by unaccountability, closed, noncustomer oriented, capacity strained, extreme corruption incidence and recruitment based on political consideration undermine the effort to establish vibrant sound governance in the City. The bureaucratic registration process; harsh environment for operation; and non participatory, unaccountable and non transparent nature of CSOs are hurdles of good governance.

The various constitutional and legal provisions on Addis Ababa, political parties, the media, the Council, civil society, woredas/kebeles are important assets to consolidate good governance in AACA. Furthermore, the effort to bring reforms at the civil service; the deployment of human power at various levels of the Administration; the attempt to set up institutions; the effort to bring genuine decentralization are also opportunities to consolidate sound governance in the City.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In this final chapter, three sections are presented. The first part dealt about the summary of the major findings of the research. The second part has been tried to indicate important lessons that drew from the major findings. The last section is concerned with the recommendations that may serve as input for promoting good governance in Addis Ababa City Administration.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The concept of good governance as mode of Administration is familiar for most of the sample households. Rule of law, equity, impartiality, free and fair election, legitimacy, transparency, accountability, participation, quick response, equal treatment of the nations and nationalities of the country, meritocratic doctrine, inclusive and sustainable growth and liberty and freedom were reflected in one way or another in most of the definitions that were provided. The government is at the domain behind every definition of the respondents. Thus, many attributes of good governance are not strange; the political, economic, administrative and systemic dimensions of governance are putted in place in their understanding. Even though, few respondents considered good governance as the conspiracy to exploit developing countries by the developed one, most of them came up with the positive notion of it. It was in line with their conceptualization that most of the respondents evaluated the existing governance in the City Administration has encountered with problems, although they vary on the degree of the obstacle. In comparison with the past, some progress has been achieved and the majority of the households satisfy with the prevailing governance. There are significant improvements in the knowledge and experience of the respondents to good governance. It was also taken as serious problem next to poverty.

The Council of the city is one of the important institutions in the City Administration. The council is not as such effective to check the executive wing of the administration. It was only less than 20% of the respondents that thought it is always effective to discharge its responsibility of holding the executive. It is weak in its strength and highly subordinate to the executive. The EPRDF overwhelmingly dominate the seats in the council and the members are more take care of their party's affairs. It is not entertained by diversity of ideas and opinions. However, in the

eyes of the respondents its debate and discussion found to be informative and responsive to the needs of the poor. Even though standing committees are established to control, supervise and support the respective bureaus and offices assigned to them, they faced capacity challenges.

The commitment of the Executive/ civil service towards democracy lies at the center in any effort of achieving good governance. The sample households were more divided on their attempt to judge the executive/civil service. 48.334% judged them either they had low (33.334%) or no (15%) commitment to democracy. On the other end of the spectrum, 31.667% believed they had completely committed to democracy. The composition of the civil service is said to be reflect the cross section of the society. Political considerations are taken for appointment; promotion and career development particularly as one go up to the hierarchy of the administration. Though they vary on the degree of the change, the households observed some improvements in the civil service.

Six in ten of the respondents acknowledge the constructive role of the media, either the private or government media, on good governance. The government media, which usually highlight success stories of the government, serve as tools of indoctrination. They are neither independent nor medium of free and open debate. The private media are the dominant source of information for most of the respondents. Although government media pay more attention to its development activity, international news and events catch the interest of the respondents. Usually such news came from the private media which are the most important source of information than any other. However, the media environment is not conducive particularly for the private one. The majorities of the sample households also confirm the view that the media, specially the private ones, operate where freedom of expression is assumed to be the gift of the government that can be revoked at will.

Sixty five percent of the sample households disagree on the idea that good governance can be maintained in the absence of opposition political parties. Thus multi- party political system was appreciated to promote governance. However, their influence on policies, programs and legislation of the city administration has been assigned to be minimal. More than 65% of the households considered political parties either they do not or have limited influence. The political

environment is thought to be unfavorable to political parties to articulate their interest. The political landscape is dominated by EPRDF as evidenced by the party's overwhelming dominance in the council. Problems that are either emanated from themselves or from the overt and covert attack of the ruling party live very little room for opposition political parties to play their role in governance.

Decentralization as a mechanism of administration has a legal support in Addis Ababa, pursuant to this provision; woredas have given decentralized authorities and functions. Households were, however, more skeptical on the capacity of woredas to manage their decentralized role. The respondents also felt that the woredas are usually delayed to satisfactorily deal complaints of the residents. In practice, local decentralization is not adequately addressed and the process has faced enormous challenges. Administrators in each woreda are usually assigned by officials at the top. Administrative and political structures usually overlap and interweave in such a way that it made them to fully committed for their party at the expense of the need and aspirations of the residents in their jurisdiction. Their budget is highly driven from the higher levels of administration. Lacks of facilities and materials as well as trained professionals are also hurdles.

Civil Society Organizations are important non state actors on realizing good governance in the City. The sample households also, more than 56%, perceived their strong or fair influence on government policies and programs. However, they encountered many challenges of which the greatest is the environment they operate. Concerning their independence and freedom of operation, it was less than twenty percent of the respondents that the judged the environment as enabling. The Charities and Societies Proclamation that recently passed by the parliament has significantly affected CSOs that operate in the areas of advancement of human and democratic rights, promotion of equality of nations nationalities and peoples, and other right-based matters. These organizations that operate in the above areas are expected to generate 90% of their budget from domestic sources which is difficult to do so and lead many CSOs to be shrank in their activity.

The sample households' response (more than 85%) concluded on the high degree and frequency of corruption, nepotism and favoritism. Sample households believed that officials in the

institutions that are the focus of the study engage in corrupt activity though the intensity varies across them. Particularly, activities associated with land administration and revenue collection are the areas in which intensive corruption and rent seeking are the norm. The administrations at Kebele level are perceived to be corrupt which also holds true for the civil service at the top level. The media and civil society organizations are the two institutions that were somehow perceived to be free from corruption. The attempt to curb it is some what anchored in the households. The sample households argue that they are fairly treated (on average 51%) regardless of ethnicity, religion and gender. They also thought that the administration has a right to make decisions that abide all residents of the city. The media and CSOs command the highest level of trust by the sample households, political parties, the civil service and Woreda administrations command the lowest one in the hierarchy of trust. The majority of the sample households (62.5%) also agree that the administration came to power by democratic means.

The significant portion of the households participate in public issues even though they are usually passive and do not assess the results of their discussion and discourage to talk what they think. The expertises are not encouraged to come with different ideas and opinions. Others failed to participate which is largely the result of lack of interest (48.148%). There are recent developments to engage individual residents and mass based organizations though the latter are usually politically motivated. Media and Kebeles, unlike CSOs, are highly participatory. Though most of the households committed to know the activities, policies, and budgets, of various institutions, the processes to meet officials are difficult. Information on the activities of institutions is not usually accessible. In comparison, the knowledge of the sample households' on the organizations, leaders, activities and budget vary across institutions. Their knowledge on Woredas and media are better than their knowledge on civil society organizations, the council and political parties. Some improvements are also observed particularly after the reform program over the civil service is introduced.

The sample households are reluctant to publicly express any form of disagreement or criticisms against authorities. Nearly six out of ten of the respondents believed that if they question, criticize or provide alternative views they would be treated as political opponents. When the authorities make wrong they are not willing to explain what was going on. They are usually more

accountable to the higher tier of the administration than to the public. In comparison, the Woredas are more accountable to any other institution as they are closest to the public.

The city administration achieved mixed results in providing basic services. It was more successful in the provision of affordable health and education services though their quality was poor. The efficiency and effectiveness of kebeles, media and civil society organizations were better than political parties and civil society organizations.

5.2 Conclusion

The concept of good governance is familiar to most people. However, no one is fully approached its underlying attributes as the one given by academician, international financial institutions or regional organizations. The greatest shortcoming on its conceptualization magnified when one observes the actors that are supposed to maintain good governance. In most definitions, good governance is considered as the sole domain of the government. Other non state actors that have positive contribution are undermined in the definition of good governance.

The present governance system is marked by some positive and encouraging improvements as well as some challenges that need immediate action. The Federal Constitution provides provisions for the city to be self-ruled. Equally, the city chartered allows further decentralization of powers and function to the lower tier of the administration. In both of the legal provisions, administration is expected to be conducted along transparent and accountable manner. Systems of check and balance, independent and free media, the existence of vibrant civil society, provision of accessible and fair social services, participation of people in their affairs, adoption of multi party politics and conducting free and fair elections are anchored in different legal provisions pertaining to the city. All these provisions are important potential tools for the city to further consolidate its governance. The attempt to reform the civil service at any level, to charge trained human power, to set up institutions, to introduce genuine decentralization, etc are the important opportunities in one way or another for promoting good governance in the City. The more interest and commitment of citizens to know about the status of governance in their city is also an important asset. Even though these legal provisions and some positive achievements are necessary to promote sound governance they are not sufficient. Good governance still remains

weak, fragile and slight. The important institutions have faced many challenges and some qualities of governance are still not well anchored.

The political system is not competitive. Opposition political parties are not in a position to aggregate the demand of the mass. The high interests of the ruling party to marginalize them in combination with the lack of party discipline, fragmentation and competition over leadership prohibit them to play constructive roles in promoting governance. The council, which is the reflection of this political arrangement, is not effective to hold the executive. It is overwhelmingly dominated by EPRDF members who are much committed to the affairs of their party and its discipline. Members of the standing committees in the council are appointees in other offices and bureaus that consider their task in the council as supplementary. The government media are usually machines of indoctrination that are not best suited to entertain different ideas and opinions. They highly emphasize in the successes of the government on achieving miracle economic development as they are developmental journalists. The private media, though the environment is harsh to operate, are important means to channel divergent ideas and give critical comments on officials' activity. However there are certain private outlets that are radical in the sense that they lack objectivity and impartiality. They are there to serve the interest of a particular group undermining their role as inclusive voice. Further more, lack of professionals, materials and facilities hinder both private and government media to emerge as vibrant.

The decentralization process is not genuinely implemented which partly the result of the fusion of administrative and the political structures. The woredas relied on the higher tier of the administration, to generate their income. They are more vertically accountable than to the residents in their jurisdiction. The shortage of trained human power also hinders them to effectively implement their decentralized role. However, there are some commitments on decentralizing some administrative and financial powers and functions. Moreover, there are measures to equip them with facilities and personnel. The executive/ civil service are characterized by bureaucracy, secrecy and non transparency. The meritocratic principle of promotion, appointment and career development are compromised with political considerations; at least at the top hierarchy of the administration. High corruption incidence and rent-seeking also undermine the civil service to be effective and efficient. However, there are positive

developments in the civil service particularly after the introduction of BPR and BSC. Much effort has been made to make the civil service to be transparent, accountable, customer oriented, and, hence, some tangible changes have been observed in some offices and bureaus. The civil society organizations, particularly those operate on human right advocacy, promotion of equality of groups, conflict resolution adversely affected by the new Charities and Societies legislation. The attempt to institutionalize mass based organizations are not well articulated and their subordination on the shoulder of the government prohibit them to serve an alternative forums for various sections of the society.

All the above institutions face high corruption incidence and rent seeking, relatively win the trust of the few, lack transparency and accountability, much exclusionary and failed in their efficiency and effectiveness. However, there are significant differences across them. Moreover, there are significant improvements in some institutions. For instance, even though kebeles are highly engaged in corruption and consequently lack legitimacy, they have been found highly participatory, accountable and transparent and mostly effective. Political parties and civil society organizations have faced severe challenges usually as the result of lack of political will of the government and absence of an enabling environment. Generally, overarching government control of all matters and the lack of space for non state actors and the formulation and implementation of laws on the media, political parties, societies and charities as well as its effort on improving the civil service, the attempt on decentralization process comprise challenges as well as opportunities in the country in general and the city in particular.

5.3 Recommendation

Most of the features of the governance in the city are the reflection of the existing political and administrative system in the country itself. Therefore, challenges encountering and available opportunities in the country similarly posed challenges and opportunities in the city. However there are some options that can be addressed by the efforts of the administration.

Since good governance in Addis Ababa is to some degree the product of the interplay among residents of the city and the administration, the former should have and equip with clear conceptualization on the concept. They can strive for it and practice it only when they have clear understanding. It is important to provide some lessons on the concept as they pave the way for adopting and implementing democratic and participatory governance.

The Council of the city is one of the important institutions to maintain good governance in the City. The council members should not only calculate the affairs of their party but also be accountable and maintain the interest of their constituents. It can not be effective to check the executive wing of the administration if members face capacity challenge, standing committee members are assigned in other responsibility. In the standing committee assigned council members who can spend their energy and time on their job. Provide training, facilities and share experiences with peer cities are also important forums to realize their responsibilities. The following measures are also important to consolidate good governance.

- It is better to apply the meritocratic principle in the appointment, promotion, and career development of civil servants/ the executive than Political considerations. Assess the current operation of the media and devise new approach that shall entertain different idea and equip them with facilities and professionals. Encourage the private media as partners and recognize their constructive role.
- Good governance can be further consolidated when competitive political systems came into the political scene. Political parties shall cease their hostile relations and came together for the interest of the residents. It is also important to create conducive political environment.
- Further implement the decentralization processes that shall be accompanied with genuine social, political, administrative and fiscal powers and functions. Parallel with this, equip them with the necessary facilities and human power.
- The city administration should create favorable conditions to CSOs so that they can positively contribute to the city's administration in general and good governance in particular.
- Further consolidate anti-corruption institutions and engage the community in the effort to curb it,
- Engage residents of the city either individually or in groups in every governance effort. However, in the latter case care should be taken to make them independent and much committed to the interest of their members and encourages individuals who provide alternative ideas, suggestions or critics.
- Promote, in each offices and bureaus at every level, culture of accountability and transparency, customer oriented, effective and efficient service provisions. Particularly introduce mechanisms that promote downward accountability and transparency.

REFERENCES

- Abbink, Jon (2009): *The Ethiopian Second Republic and the Fragile "Social Contract"*, in Africa Spectrum, 44, 2, 3-28.
- Ackerman, John (2004). *Social Accountability for the Public Sector: A Conceptual Discussion*. Draft paper prepared for the World Bank.
- Addis Ababa Care-taker Administration (2005): 1997 Eth. calendar (9/2004 to 3/2005) half year work progress report, Addis Ababa.
- Addis Ababa Investment Bureau (2005): *Addis Ababa City Government Investment Guide*: Addis Ababa.
- Addis Council (May, 2010): Addis Ababa Council Magazine. Vol. I, No. I . Addis Ababa Printed by Efficient.
- _____ . (September, 2010): Addis Ababa Council Magazine. Vol. II, No.II. Addis Ababa Printed by Efficient.
- Addis Negarit Gazeta of the City government of Addis Ababa: Proclamation No.15/2009, second year, No. 21, 2010, Addis Ababa.
- Addis Ra'ey (June, 2010): EPRDF's Magazine. Vol.III, No.III, Mega Printing Press, Addis Ababa.
- _____ . (November, 2010): EPRDF's Magazine. Vol.III, No.IV, Mega Printing Press, Addis Ababa.
- Agere, Sam(2000): *Promoting Good Governance: principles, Practices and Perspectives*: Common Wealth Secretariat.
- Angell. A., Pamela L., and Rosemary T.(2001): *Decentralizing Development: The Political Economy of Institutional Change in Colombia and Chile*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Anowar Uddin (2010): *Impact of Good Governance on Development in Bangladesh*: Roskilde, Denmark.
- Anwar Muktar (2007): *Meeting the Challenges of Good Governance, Democratic Transition and Consolidation in the Harari People National Regional State*. AAU.
- Ayenew, Mehret (1999): *The city of Addis Ababa: Policy options for the governance and management of a city with multiple identities*, in FSS Discussion Paper No. 2, Forum for Social Studies, Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.

- Burki, S. and William Dillinger (1999): *Beyond the Center: Decentralizing the State*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Campbell, Tim (2005): *The Quiet Revolution: Decentralization and the Rise of Political Participation in Latin America's Cities*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Capacity Building Bureau (2010), *Woreda's Good Governance, Popular Participation and capacity building program*. Addis Ababa, the City Cabinet, the City Manager.
- Carmen M. and Reiner F. Singh (2004): *The Role of Civil Society in Holding Government Accountable: A Perspective from the World Bank on the Concept and Emerging Practice of Social Accountability*. World Bank, Social Development Paper No. 76.
- Chanie, Paulos (1997): *Administrative capability in Ethiopian Civil Service: Problems become Prospects*. Paper Presented at the Third Annual Conference of Management in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. Ethiopian Management Profession Association.
- Coase, Ronald H. (1960): "The Problem of Social Cost." *Journal of Law and Economics* (October): 1-44.
- Cohen, J. and Arato, A. (1992): *Political theory and Civil Society*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Commissions on Global Governance (1995): *Our Global Neighborhood*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Common Wealth Association of Public Administration and Management (1994): *A New Paradigm in Public Administration: A Report by Common Wealth Association of Public Administration and Management on Conference held in Prince Edward Island, Canada, 28-31 August, 1994*.
- Cornwall, A. (2002): *Making Spaces, Changing Places: Situating Participation in Development*. Brighton, Sussex, England.
- Cranenburgh, Oda van (1998): 'Increasing State Capacity: What Role for the World Bank?', *IDS Bulletin*, 29(2), pp. 75-81.
- Crook, Richard C., and James Manor (1998): *Democracy and Decentralisation in South Asia and West Africa: Participation, Accountability and Performance*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- CSA (2008): *Population and Housing Census 2007*. Addis Ababa; CSA.

- Degene Aredo and Yigremew Adal(2009): *Indigenous Institutions and Good Governance in Ethiopia: Case Studies*, in OSSREA (2009); Good Governance and Civil Society Participation in Africa. Addis Ababa.
- Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) (2007): *Towards Participatory and Transparent Governance*: United Nations New York, Division for Public Administration and Development Management.
- Diamond, L. (1997): *In Search of Consolidation*, in Diamond, L., M. Plattnerly, Chu and H. Tlen(eds.). *Consolidating Third Wave Democracy: Themes and Perspectives*. Baltimore: Hopkins University.
- _____. (2007): *Building Trust in Government by Improving Governance*. Paper Presented to the 7th Global Forum on Reinventing Government: “Building Trust in Government” Vienna, June 27, 2007.
- Djankov, Simeon, Rafael La Porta, Florencio Lopez-de-Silanes, and Andrei Shleifer (2002): “The Regulation of Entry.” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 117 (1): 1–37.
- Easton, David (1965): *A Systems Analysis of Political Life*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Eaton, Kent (2001): “Political Obstacles to Decentralization: Evidence from Argentina and the Philippines.” *Development and Change* 32 (1): 101–27.
- _____. (2004): *Politics beyond the Capital: The Design of Sub national Institutions in South America*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Economic Commission of Africa (2005): *Governance Report in Africa*. Addis Ababa.
- Ethiopia Human Rights Council (2010): *Compiled Regular Report: from January, 2007 to September 2009*, Addis Ababa.
- FDRE (2008): *Combined Report to African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights*. Addis Ababa
- FDRE Constitution: *Federal Negarit Gazeta-First Year No. 1*, Addis Ababa-21 August 1995.
- African Development Bank (1994): *African Development Report*. Abidjan.
- FDRE, Central Statistical Authority, *Ethiopia: Statistical Abstract*, Addis Ababa: February, 1999.
- Federal *negaret Gazeta* (1997): Addis Ababa City Charter Proclamation No. 87/1997, third year, No. 52, Addis Ababa.

- Federal Negarit Gazeta of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Proclamation No. 361/2003, 9th Year No. 86 Addis Ababa 24 July III, 2003.
- Federal Negarit Gazeta of the federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2009): Charities and Societies Proclamation No. 621/2009, No. 25, Addis Ababa.
- Fenta Mandefro (1998): *Decentralization in Post-Derg Ethiopia: Aspects of Federal Relations*. AAU.
- Fish, S. (2006): *Stronger Legislatures: Stronger Democracies*. *Journal of Democracy* 17, 1 January, pp. 5-20.
- Frantzych, S.E. (1979): "Computerized Information Technology in the US House of Representatives", *Legislative Studies Quarterly*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 255-280.
- Fung, Archon (2004): *Empowered Participation: Reinventing Urban Democracy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Goetz, A. and John G. (2001). *Bringing Citizen Voice and Client Focus into Service Delivery*. IDS Working Paper No. 138. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- Goldfrank, Benjamin (2002): "The Fragile Flower of Local Democracy: A Case Study of Decentralization/Participation in Montevideo." *Politics and Society* 30 (1): 51–83.
- Gordon, Barnhart (1999): *Parliamentary Committees: Enhancing Democratic Governance* United Kingdom, the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (CPA).
- Guigale, M., and Steven B. Webb. (eds.) (2000): *Achievements and Challenges of Fiscal Decentralization: Lessons from Mexico*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Habermas, J. (1996): *Between Facts and Norms: Contribution to a Discourse Theory of Law and Democracy*. W. Rehg, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Hiskey, Jonathan T. and Mitchell A. Seligson (2003): "Pitfalls of Power to the People: Decentralization, Local Government Performance, and System Support in Bolivia." *Studies in Comparative International Development* 37 (4): 64–89.
- Hope K.R... (2009) 'Capacity Development for Good Governance in Developing Countries: Some Lessons from the Field', *International Journal of Public Administration*, 32: 8, 728 — 740.
- _____. (2006): *Capacity Development and Good Governance*, in A.S. Huque and H. Zafarullah (eds.) *International Development Governance*, Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press/Taylor and Francis.

- _____. (2003): *The UNECA and Good Governance in Africa*. Harvard International Conference, 2003, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Howell, J. and Pearce, J. (2001): *Civil Society and Development: A Critical Exploration* Colorado. Available at: <http://www.Isc.ac.uk/Depts/global/yearbook/CulContRep.htm>
- Huntington, Samuel (1968): *Political Order in Changing Societies*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Hutchcroft, D. (2001): "Centralization and Decentralization in Administration and Politics: Assessing Territorial Dimensions of Authority and Power." *Governance: An International Journal of Policy and Administration* 14 (1): 25–54.
- IDPAA, PRIA (2001), *Democratic Governance and Poverty Eradication in South Asia*; Regional Advocacy Training Program for Civil Society Members, Module 1.
- Imran Sharif Chaudry (2009): *factors affecting good governance in Pakistan: An Empirical Analysis*. *European Journal of Scientific Research* 35 (3).
- John K. Johnson and Robert T. Nakamura (1999): *Legislature and Good Governance*. A Concept Paper presented to UNDP, 1999, p. 1.
- Jones, N. and Fletcher T. (2008): *Promoting Good Governance through Civil Society - Legislature Linkages: Opportunities and Challenges for Policy Engagement in Developing Country Contexts*: UK.
- Kassahun Berhanu (2009): *Decentralization and Governance: The Ethiopian Experience*, in OSSREA (eds.): *Good Governance and Civil Society Participation in Africa*. Addis Ababa.
- _____. (2003): *Party Politics and Political Culture in Ethiopia*. In M.A
- _____. (2002): *The Role of NGOs in Protecting Democratic Values: The Ethiopian Experience* in Bahiru Z. and S. Pausewang (eds.) *Ethiopia: The Challenge of Democracy from Below*, Addis Ababa; Forum of Social Science.
- Kaufman, D. and A. Kraay (2007): *Governance Indicators: Where are we, Where should be Going?* World Bank policy Research Department Working Paper No. 4370, Washington.
- Kaufmann, D., A. Kraay and Pablo Zoido-Lobaton (1999b): *Governance Matters*. Washington.
- Keane, J. (1998): *Democracy and Civil Society*. London: Verso.

- Koehn, P.M. *Municipal Administration in Addis Ababa: Performance, Resource Mobilization and Structural Coordination*, in Asmelash Beyene, (ed.): *Studies in Ethiopian Government and Administration*, Faculty of Arts, Haile -Selassie University, 1974.
- Kohn, M. (2000): *Language, Power and Persuasion: Towards a Critique of Deliberative Democracy*, *Constellations* 17(3).
- Kokebe Haile Gabriel (2007): *Good governance translated? The Case of Participatory Neighbourhood Development in Addis Ababa/Ethiopia*, 8th N-EARUS Conference, September 6-8, London.
- Kumar, K. (2001): *Revolutionary Ideas and Ideals*. London: University of Minnesota Press.
- La Porta, Rafael, Florencio Lopez-de-Silanes, Andrei Shleifer, and Robert Vishny(1999): The Quality of Government. *Journal of Law, Economics and Organization* 15 (1): 222–279.
- Leftwich, A. (1996): *On the Primacy of Politics in Development*. In Leftwich(ed.) *Democracy and Development*, Cambridge: England policy press.
- Lidetu, A. (2002): *Medilot: Be Ethiopia Akerakari Poleticawe Gudayouch Yesostegna Amarach Mina* (The Role of the Third Alternative in Ethiopia's Controversial Political Issues (2010)). No Publisher and Place of Publication.
- Loewenberg, G. and Patterson, S.C. (1979): *Comparing Legislatures*, Boston, Little, Brown.
- Mark Deuze (2002):“*National News Cultures: A Comparison of Dutch, German, British, Australian and U.S. Journalists.*” *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly* 79 (1): 134–49.
- Markos, B. (2010) Proclamation 621/2009. *On NGOs Involvement in Conflict Resolution in Ethiopia*: AAU. Ethiopia.
- Mayor Office (2009): *2010 Budget Year of Addis Ababa City Administration*. Prepared by the Core Business Owner of the Supervision and Support Department of the Mayor Office.
- McConnell, Grant (1966): *Private Power and American Democracy*. New York: Knopf.
- Mennasemay M. (2009a): *A Millennium Democratic Goal for Ethiopia: Some Conceptual Issues*: *Africa today* 55(1), 3-32.
- Mohammed S. (eds.) (2003): *African Political Parties: Evolution, Institutionalisation and Governance* Pluto Press; Virginia.

- Molla Redad(2007):Assessment of Status and Challenges to Good Governance : The Case of Oflla Woreda, Tigray Regional State. AAU
- Montero, Alfred P., and David J. Samuels (2004): "*The Political Determinants of Decentralization in Latin America: Causes and Consequences.*" Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Mulgan, Richard (2000): '*Accountability: An Ever-Expanding Concept?*', Discussion Paper No. 72. Graduate Program in Public Policy, Australian National University.
- Negarit Gazetta, *Charter of the City of Addis Ababa*, 13th Year, No. 10, 1954.
- Norris P. (eds.)(2010): *Public Sentinel: News Media and Governance Reform*. World Bank, WashingtonD.C.
- North, Douglass (2000): *Poverty in the Midst of Plenty*. Hoover Institution Daily Report, October 2, 2000. Retrieved at www.hoover.org.
- Nye, J.S. (1967): "*Corruption and Political Development: A Cost-Benefit Analysis*". *American*
- OECD (1995): *Participatory Development and Good Governance*, Paris: OECD, 1995.
- Ogundiya, S.(2010): *Democracy and good governance: Nigeria's dilemma*. African Journal of Political Science and International Relations Vol. 4(6), pp. 201-208, June 2010.
- Parnini, Syeda Naushin(2006) '*Civil Society and Good Governance in Bangladesh*', Asian Journal of Political Science, 14: 2, 189 — 211.
- Pennings, Paul (2000): *Parliamentary Control of the Executive in 47 Democracies*. Paper prepared for the workshop on "Parliamentary Control of the Executive", ECPR Joint Sessions of Workshops, Copenhagen, April 14-19.
- Pier. J. (2000): *Debating Governance*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pillay. S. (2004): *Corruption – the challenge to good governance: a South African perspective*. The International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 17 No. 7, pp. 586-605
- Political Science Review*, LXI, 2, June, pp. 417-427.
- Press Freedom Barometer (2007).http://www.rsf.org/article.php3?id_article=24909.
- Rauch, James E., and Peter B. Evans (2000): "Bureaucratic Structure and Bureaucratic Performance in Less Developed Countries." *Journal of Public Economics* 75:49–71.
- Reporter News Paper (January 25, 2011): *When Will Do Political Parties Come Together?* Vol. 16, No. 20, P. 6.

- Riccardo Pelizzo, Rick Stapenhurst and David Olson (2006): *Parliamentary Oversight for Government Accountability*. Washington, D.C. U.S.A.
- Robert Mattes, Yul D. and Cherrel A. (2000): *Views of Democracy in South Africa and the Region: Trends and Comparisons*. Cape town, South Africa.
- Rockman, B. A. (1984) :“Legislative-Executive Relations and Legislative Oversight”, in *Legislative Studies Quarterly*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 387-440.
- Rodden, J. (2004) ‘*Comparative Federalism and Decentralization: On Meaning and Measurement*’, *Comparative Politics* 36(3): 481—500.
- Rondinelli, D., McCullough, J.S. and Johnson, R.W. (1989) ‘*Analyzing Decentralization Policies in Developing Countries: A Political-Economy Framework*’, *Development and Change* 20(1): 57—87.
- Ruth, Meena (2002): ‘*Democracy, Gender and Governance in Africa*’ in Abdella B. and Saied A. (eds.) *Breaking Barriers, Creating New Hopes: Democracy, Civil Society and Good Governance in Africa*, Asmara: Africa World Press.
- Salamon, L. M. and Anheier, H. K. (1998): ‘*Social Origins of Civil Society: Explaining the nonprofit Sector Cross-Nationality*’, *Voluntas* , 9: 213_248.
- Samia, E. (2000): *Governance and Civil Society: Gender Perspective*, Paper Presented for OSSREA Workshop on Promoting Good Governance in Eastern and Southern Africa Nov., A.A, OSSREA.
- Schacter, M. (2000): *Monitoring and evaluation capacity development in sub-Saharan Africa: lessons from experience in supporting sound governance*; ECD Working Paper Series No. 7, Washington,DC: World Bank.
- Schedler, A., L. Diamond and M. Plattner (eds.) (1999): *The Self-Restraining State: Power and Accountability in New Democracies*. Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner.
- Shabbir Cheema and Linda M.(nd): *Democracy, Governance and Development: A Conceptual Framework*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
- Shah Mohammad (2005): *E-governance in Bangladesh: A Scrutiny from the Citizens*’ *Perspective* in Raza Ahmad (eds.): *Selected Proceedings from the Annual Conference of the Network of Asia-Pacific Schools and Institutes of Public Administration and Governance (NAPSIPAG)*. Beijing, People’s Republic of China, 5–7 December 2005.

- Sharma, C.K. (2006): 'Decentralization Dilemma: Measuring the Degree and Evaluating the Outcomes', *Indian Journal of Political Science* 67(1): 49—64.
- Shleifer, Andrei, and Robert W. Vishn (1993): "Corruption." *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 108 (3): 599–617.
- Sisay Gebre-Egziabher (2002): *The Role of Civil Society Organizations in Democratization Process in Ethiopia*. Paper Presented at the Fifth International Conference of the International Society for the Third-Sector Research (ISTR) "July 7-10, 2002 at University Of Cape Town, South Africa.
- Smith, B. C. (2007): *Good Governance and Development*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Smoke, P. (2003): 'Decentralization in Africa: Goals, Dimensions, Myths and Challenges', *Public Administration and Development* 23(1): 7—17.
- Steiner, Susan(2008): *Constraints on the Implementation of Decentralisation and Implications for Poverty Reduction – The Case of Uganda* in Gordon C. and Christof H. (eds.), *Decentralization in Africa: A Pathway out of Poverty and Conflict?* Amsterdam University, 2010 .
- Subhash ,C. Kashyap (2000), *Parliamentary Procedure: Law, Privileges, Practice and Precedents*, New Delhi, Universal Law Publishing Co. PVT. Ltd Vol. I p. VI.
- Tegegne G. and Kassahun B. (2004): "The Role of Decentralized Governance in Building Local Institutions: Diffusing Ethnic Conflicts and Alleviating Poverty in Ethiopia" in Winnie V.M (ed,) , *Local Governance and Poverty Alleviation in Africa*, Regional Development Dialogue, 24(13).
- The Committee to Protect Journalists (2007): *Attacks on the Press in 2007*, Reporters without Borders retrieved a. <http://www.cpj.org/>.
- Thomas Hanitzsch (2007): "Deconstructing Journalism Culture: Towards a Universal Theory." *Communication Theory* 17 (4): 367–85.
- Tiebout, C. (1956): 'A Pure Theory of Local Expenditures', *Journal of Political Economy*, 64(5).
- Tronvoll K. (2009) *Ambiguous elections: the influence of non-electoral politics in Ethiopian democratization* *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 47, 3, pp. 449–474. Cambridge University Press.
- _____.(2010): *The Ethiopian 2010 Federal and Regional Elections: Re-establishing the One Party State* . *Journal of African Affairs*, 1–16, Oxford University Press.

- Tyler, Tom (1990): *Why People Obey the Law*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- UNDP (1997): *Governance for Sustainable Human Development*, New York: UNDP, pp 2-3.
- _____. (1998): *Fighting Corruption to Improve Governance*. Management Development and Governance Division Bureau for Development Policy, Washington.
- UNDP- Paragon, UNDP- APGEN and CAPWIP (2002), *Training Program on Making Governance Gender-responsive: A Basic Course*, Module 1 Handouts 23. Washington.
- United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (2000): *Promoting Good Governance in Liberia: Towards the Formulation of a National Framework*. Liberia, Monrovia
- USAID (US Agency for International Development) (2000): *Decentralization and Democratic Local Governance Programming Handbook*. Washington, DC: US Agency for International Development.
- Vaughan, T. and Kjetil Tronvoll (2003): *The Culture of Power in Contemporary Ethiopian Political Life*: Sida Studies No. 10.
- Wallace, O. (1972): *Fiscal Federalism*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- _____. (1977): *The Political Economy of Fiscal Federalism*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Weingast, Barry R. (1995): "The Role of Political Institutions: Market-Preserving Federalism and Economic Growth." *Journal of Law, Economics and Organization* 11:1-31.
- Weiss, Thomas (2000): *Governance, Good Governance, and Global Governance: Conceptual and Actual Challenges*. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 21, No.5, 795-814.
- West, W. and Cooper, J. (1989): "Legislative Influence v. Presidential Dominance: Competing Models of Bureaucratic Control", *Political Science Quarterly*, vol. 104, pp. 581-606.
- Wiesner, Eduardo (2003): *Fiscal Federalism in Latin America: From Entitlements to Markets*. Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Wil, H. (2003): *Political Parties and Governance* in M.A Mohamed Salih(eds.)(2003): *African Political Parties: Evolution, Institutionalization and Governance*. Pluto Press, London, Verginia.
- Wilson, Z. (2005): *Wishful thinking, Willful Blindness, Artful Amnesia*. The UN and the Promotion of Good Governance: Dalhousie University Press.

- Wohlmuth , K.(1998): *Good governance and Economic Development: New Foundations for Growth in Africa*. Bremen University.
- World Bank (1992): *Governance and Development*. Washington.
- _____. (1994):*Governance, The World Bank's Experience*, Washington, DC
- _____. (2000): *Can Africa Claim the 21st Century?* Washington D.C. World Bank.
- _____. (2002): *Building Institutions for Markets*. Washington: Oxford University Press.
- _____. (2003): *The Role of Non- State Actors in Improving Governance in Nigeria*, CD ROM, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Wunsch, J. and Dele Olowu (1990): *The Failure of the Centralized State: Institutions and Self-Governance in Africa*. Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Yadav.G. J. (2005): *Corruption in Developing Countries: Causes and Solutions*, Global Blues and Sustainable Development.
- Yigremew A. and Fenta M.(1998):*Exploring Linkages between Decentralization and Poverty Reduction: The Case of Ethiopia*. A consultancy Work done for the European Center for Development Policy Management, Funded by the European Commission.

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR HOUSEHOLDS

Extent of Good Governance

1. What do you understand by Good Governance?

2. To what extent good governance prevails in Addis Ababa City Administration?

- A. Complete good governance
- B. Good governance but with minor problems
- C. Good governance but with major problems
- D. No good governance

3. How much have you satisfied with the prevailing good governance in Addis Ababa City Administration?

- A. very satisfied
- B. fairly satisfied
- C. Less satisfied
- C. unsatisfied

4. How do you evaluate the trend of Good Governance in Addis Ababa?

	Positive	Negative	Neutral
Before 2005 election			
Trusteeship Administration			
The present administration			

5. In your opinion, which of the following problem is the most serious that needs immediate solution?

- A. Lack of good governance
- B. Poverty
- C. Narrowing the income gap
- D. Other(If any) _____

6. For the above problem that you draw, who do you think is primary responsible?

- A. Government
- B. Opposition political parties
- C. The public
- D. History
- E. None

On Legislative (Council Members)

1. Have you listened/ watched the council debates of Addis Ababa City Administration?

- A. Yes
- B. No

2. If you say "yes" to question number "1", how do you see the relevance of the members' debate?

- A. Are mostly informative and responsive to the needs of citizens
- B. Are usually informative and responsive to the needs of citizens
- C. Are never informative and responsive to the needs of citizens

3. Do you think that the council is effective to hold the executive?

- A. Always effective
- B. Mostly effective
- C. Less effective
- D. Not effective

4. How do you see the independence and strength of the council /legislature?
 - A. Weak and subordinate
 - B. Weak but emerging in its independence
 - C. Moderate and independent
 - D. Strong and independent

On Civil Society Organizations

1. What is your opinion on the influence of CSOs on government policies and programmes?
 - A. strong influence
 - B. Faire influence
 - C. Limited influence
 - D. No influence

What is your opinion on CSOs independence in Addis Ababa?

- A. Allowed to function independently of the government
 - B. Allowed to function independent but subject to harassment if there is disagreement with the government
 - C. Allowed to function under fairly control environment by the government
 - D. Allowed to function in very strict control environment by the government
2. How do you evaluate the performance of CSOs in Addis Ababa?
 - A. Very good
 - B. God
 - C. Fair
 - D. Poor
 - E. Very poor

On Civil Service/ Executive

1. Generally speaking how do you judge the executive/ civil servants of inclination to democracy in Addis Ababa?
 - A. Completely committed to democracy
 - B. Low commitment to democracy
 - C. No commitment to democracy
 - D. Degraded it to the worse
2. What is your opinion on the composition of civil servants/ executive in Addis Ababa (in terms of religion, ethnicity, sex etc).
 - A. Largely reflects the cross section of society
 - B. To some extent reflects the cross section of society
 - C. Never reflects the cross section of society
3. Which of the following criterion for recruitments, appointment, promotion and educational opportunity is given more weight in the civil services/ executive?
 - A. Party membership
 - B. Expertise on the area
 - C. Having relatives /wealth
 - D. Other (if any)
4. How do you evaluate the improvement of the civil service/executive over time?
 - A. Highly improved
 - B. Moderately improved
 - C. Not improved at all.

On Medias

1. What is your opinion on the independence of medias?
 - A. Completely free
 - B. Mostly free

- C. Mass media rights are frequently violated by the government
 - D. The media operate where freedom of expression is under the state
2. What is your most source of information?
 - A. Government radio
 - B. Private radio
 - C. Government television
 - D. Private news paper
 - E. Government news paper
 - F. Internet, international TV channels etc
 - G. Friends/ relatives
 3. What is you priority interest with regard to public information in the media?
 - A. Entertainment
 - B. Various government activities
 - C. Opposition political parties
 - D. International news and events
 - E. Other (if any) _____
 4. What is the role of independent medias on good governance?
 - A. Highly constructive
 - B. Moderately constructive
 - C. Less constructive
 - D. Not constructive
 - E. Deconstructive role

On Political Parties

1. What is your opinion on the competitiveness of the political system?
 - A. The political system is highly competitive
 - B. The political system is moderately competitive
 - C. The political system is less competitive
 - D. The political system is not competitive at all
2. What is your opinion on the influence of opposition political parties in parliament/Council on the City Administration policies programmes and legislation?
 - A. Strong influence
 - B. Moderate influence
 - C. Poor influence
 - D. No influence
3. Do you agree with the idea that without opposition political parties, good governance can be maintained in Addis Ababa?
 - A. Agree
 - B. Disagree
 - C. Neutral

On Kebele(Woreda)

1. what is your opinion on the capacity of local government administrations (kebeles) to manage their responsibilities
 - A. Have strong capacity
 - B. Have moderate capacity
 - C. Have poor capacity
 - D. Have not capacity
2. How do you judge on the frequency whether complaints about poor services given by the local government (Kebeles) are dealt with satisfactorily?
 - A. Always
 - B. Usually
 - C. Some times
 - D. Never

On Corruption

1. Generally speaking how do you see the intensity of corruption in Addis Ababa City Administration?

- A. Extreme corruption
- B. Moderate corruption
- C. Some corruption
- D. No corruption at all

2. How many of the following institution do you think are involved in corrupt activity?

	The executive/ civil servants	Members of the council	Political parties	Kebele	Media	CSOs
Always						
Often						
Occasionally						
Not participate						
Do not know						

3. Do you pay money, give a gift or do those favors in order to conduct your affairs?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. Neutral

4. Who is able to protect the people of Addis from paying informal fees to authorities?

- A. Local authorities
- B. Media
- C. Anti corruption institution
- D. Legislatures (council members)
- E. Community
- F. Other (if any) _____

5. How do you judge the attempt of the City Administration to address corruption problem?

- A. Strong commitment
- B. Moderate commitment
- C. Less commitment
- D. No commitment

On legitimacy

1. The City Administration has the right to make decision that all people have to be abiding by whether or not they agree with them.

- A. Agree
- B. Disagree
- C. Neutral

2. Do you think that the City Administration treats all citizens fairly regardless to which region, community or religion they belong to?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. Neutral

3. The City Administration is elected to power by accepted procedure in democratic way.

- A. Agree
- B. Disagree
- C. Neutral

4. How much of the time do you trust the following institution that they do what is right?

	Kebele	Executive and civil service	Members the council	Political parties	Media	Civil societies
Just always						
Most of the time						
Some times						
Never						

5. Generally speaking, do you think that the City Administration is legitimate enough to be supported?

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. Neutral

On Participation

1. In which of the following association/ political organization are you a member/ wish to be a member?
 - A. Religious association
 - B. Political parties
 - C. Sports association
 - D. Professional association
 - E. Other (if any) _____
2. Do you have the chance to participate in public issues (e.g. on development activity, political issues etc).
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
3. If you say 'no' to question number "2" above, what is your reason?
 - A. No formal invitation
 - B. Lack of time
 - C. Lack of information
 - D. Lack of interest
 - E. Other (if any) _____
4. If you say 'yes' (participate), how frequently are you engaged n this public issue?
 - A. Always
 - B. Often
 - C. Some times
 - D. Once
5. What is the most activity that you do when you participate?
 - A. Just listening
 - B. Making comments
 - C. Asking questions
 - D. Other (if any) _____
6. Do officials consult you when they formulate polices, rules and regulation that affect your life?
 - A. Yes
 - B.No
7. What is your confidence in your communities' capacity to influence decisions?
 - A. Fully confident
 - B. Moderately confident
 - C. Less confident
 - D. Not confident at all

8. How do you judge the nature of participation in the following institution?

	Kebele	Political parties	Medias	CSOs
Highly participatory				
Moderately participatory				
Less participatory				
Not participatory				

On Transparency

- How much are you committed to ask information on government activities, policies, plans and budget of your kebele, political parties etc.
 - Much committed
 - Committed enough
 - Less committed
 - Not committed
- What is your experience and feeling on the accessibility of Kebele officials, party leaders and other officials?
 - Easily accessible
 - Accessible but with some difficulty
 - Accessible but with complex procedures
 - Too distant to reach
- How much information do you have on the activities, organization, leaders, finance etc of the following institutions?

	Kebele	Political Parties	Civil Society Organization	Media	Council
Much					
Few					
No					

On accountability

- How do you approve accountability of the following institution?

Institution	Accountability			
	Highly accountable	Moderately accountable	Less accountable	Not accountable
Local government				
Executive and civil service				
Council members				
Political particle				
Medias				
Civil society				

- How do you feel if you criticize or confront the performance of authorities?
 - Highly secured
 - Moderately secure
 - Less secured
 - Insecure at all
- How do individuals who question, criticize or provide alternative view points on government policies, rules or activities are treated?
 - As political opponents
 - As provides of constructive comments
 - Does not receive special attention

4. If the authorities make wrong in the activities, then what do you think that the public officials will do?
- A. They make it public willingly
 - B. They make it public when there is rumor
 - C. They do not make it public unless they are asked by top officials or court
 - D. Other (if any)-----

On efficiency, effectiveness and affordability

1. Do you think that services (water, education, health, housing etc) provided by the government are pro-poor?
 - A. Fully address the needs of the poor
 - B. Moderately address the needs of the poor
 - C. Do not address the needs of the poor
2. How do you judge the quality, affordability and degree of services provided by government or other stakeholders?

No	Services	Quality and degree of services (%)				
		Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
1	Health service					
2	Promote democracy					
3	Education					
4	Reducing crime					
5	Fighting corruption					
6	Creating jobs					

3. How do you evaluate the affordability of the following services that are provided by the government or other stakeholder?

No	Services	Affordability of services					
		Free	Not costly	Fairly costly	Costly	Very costly	Do not know
1	Health						
2	Education						
3	Housing						
4	Transport						
5	Water						
6	Electricity						

4. How do you think that the following institutions are performing their respective jobs?

Performance	Institutions					
	Local government	Executive and civil service	Council members	Political parties	Media	Civil society organization
Very well						
Well						
No change						
Worse						

APPENDIX II

List of Key Informants

1. Ato Abreham Chosha-Deputy head of the Capacity Building Bureau of AACA
2. Taddese Belay- Manager of Woreda Three of Gulele Sub-city
3. Honourable Ato Salamon Bahiru- Member and Core Process Owner of the making of law, monitoring, Evaluation and Control of Addis Ababa Council.
4. Ato Zegeye Yemane Birhan- Addis Ababa Civil Service Agency Commissioner
5. Ato Alemu Koira-Head Secretariat of the Ethiopian Federal Democratic Forum(*Medrek*)
6. W/ro Zenaye Tadesse- Director of Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association.
7. Dagnachew Geyon- Editor-in-chief of Addis Lisan Newspaper
8. Fitsum Mamo- Editor- in chief of Awramba Newspaper
9. Sewnet Ayele- Radio Case Team Leader, FM Radio 96.3
10. Ayanew Wase-Director of Ethiopian Human Right Council
11. Seifa Deribe- Deputy Editor-in-chief of Addis Zemen News paper
12. W/ro Meron Chemed- Manager of Woreda Ten of Bole Sub-city
13. Dr. Merga Bayissa- CUDP Vice President and External Relation Officer
14. Kumlachew Dagne- Inter-Africa Group
15. Tsegaye Regassa- Instructor, AAU, Institute of Federalism
16. Honourable Dr. Lemlem Mekonnen-, Member of CUDP and the City Council

APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR KEY-INFORMANTS

A. Question for Executive/Civil service

1. How do you conceptualize good governance? Do you think that good governance is necessary for the city administration? If yes, why?
2. How do you evaluate the current status of good governance in the city administration, particularly in comparing the present administration with its predecessors? What opportunities are available and what challenges have you faced? What are the measures taken to address the problem?
3. Do you think that the head of the executive branch democratically elected? Is the executive effective and how and to whom is it accountable? How do you judge the relation between the executive and the civil service?
4. Are the checks and balance within the executive and between the executive and other branches are legally ensured? Is it effectively organized?
5. What are the impacts of the check s and balances on the activities of other actors such as civil society, media, local administration and the public in large? Does it enhances or retards their activity? How much the executive is transparent? Does the executive encourage political neutrality of the civil service? What about the executive? Is it free from corruption?
6. Do you think that the civil service has the institutional capacity like human, physical and finance to effectively implement government policies? What do you the poor performance or unprofessional conduct of civil servants to?
7. What are your thoughts on the transparency and accountability in the public sector? What about the prevailing corruption?
8. What are the basis that civil servants received promotion, training, educational opportunity and remuneration? What measures are taken to make the civil service more representatives in terms of gender, ethnicity, religion etc?
9. Do you think the people trust the government more today than three or more years? Why and why not?

B. Questions for Local Government

1. How do you explain good governance? In your opinion, what do you say about the status of good governance in AACA in general and your kebele in particular?
2. What opportunities are available for consolidating good governance? And what challenges have you faced? What are the measures taken to address the problem?
3. How do you see the allocation of power, authority and responsibility for political, fiscal and administrative systems for your kebele? Does this trend of decentralization important for promoting good governance? If yes, how? Does your kebele has sufficient authority to meet its responsibility? For whom are you accountable to?
4. How do you view your relationship with the city administration, civil society organizations, media, political parties etc.? what legal and other mechanisms are in place to ensure and strengthen your independence?
5. How do you approve your kebele performance in providing effective, efficient and affordable services to the public? Do you have any priority in providing services? Are their procedures fair and transparent? What are the Roles of the public in the processes?
6. Does your kebele effectively organized? Does it have the resource and training to perform its job? How do you see the status of corruption in your kebele?

D. Questions for Political Parties

1. For you, what do you understand by good governance?
2. How do political parties promote and consolidate good governance, how do you see the political environment for political parties in the context of good governance in Ethiopia?
3. Do you notice any positive/negative changes in the community since the city administration returned to multi party politics? How do you evaluate the efforts of the city administration towards good governance? And how good governance can be realized and sustained?
4. What challenges have you faced while you strive for promoting good governance? And what are the challenges? What measures have you take to address the problem?

5. What do you think of about the efficiency, accountability and transparency of democratic institutions such as legislature, executive, political parties, local governments and media?
6. What do you say about the interplay between the executive and legislative, the community and the City administration, the executive and the bureaucracy, the kebele and the City administration, the media etc.?
7. How do you explain the internal structure, transparency and refrain from corruption, the effort to participate the community? For whom are political parties accountable to?
8. How do you measure and asses your own effectiveness? What instruments do you use for monitoring and evaluating your purpose in the context of good governance?

E. Questions for Civil Society Organizations

1. How do you conceptualize good governance? What are the good things? And the bad things, if any?
2. How do you view your role in promoting good (sound) governance? What activities have you performed and what challenges have you faced? What measures have you taken to address the problem?
3. What is the formal legal framework for the operation of civil society? What legal and other mechanisms are in place to ensure and strengthen the institution independence?
4. How do you see the challenges and opportunities of the new Charitable and NGOs legislation formulated by the government in the activities of Civil Societies in promoting good governance? What is the political situation the country and its impact on civil society organizations? To what extent are basic freedoms ensured by law and in practice? And the existing legal environment is enabling or disabling civil society?
5. How do you view CSOs relationship with the executive, legislative and political parties, local government, the public, Medias and other civil society organizations etc.?

6. How deep/meaningful is citizen participation? How frequently people are engaged in civil society activities
7. To what extent CSOs organization is democratic, accountable, transparent, participatory and free of corruption in Ethiopia in general and Addis Ababa in particular?

F. Questions for Medias

1. How do you conceptualize good governance? What are the good things?
2. How do you justify the role of the media in building and promoting good governance?
3. What are the opportunities, in the context of the country, that are available for Medias in general? What about the challenges?
4. What do you think regarding the freedom of expression, the right to information, editorial independence and journalists' right to protect their sources in Ethiopia? i.e the law governing media freedom?
5. What is your relationship with legislature, executive, civil service, civil society organizations, political parties (both opposition and ruling party) and other medias?
6. In general, how do you see the process of governance in AACAA? What measures, in your opinion, shall be taken to further consolidate the processes?
7. For whom do you think are you accountable to? Is it possible to say that your operation is transparent, efficient, effective and free of corruption?

G. Legislatures

1. How do you understand good governance?
2. What are the roles of legislatures in promoting good governance? What are the challenges that you faced? What measures have been taken to address the problem?
3. What formal rules are embedded in the Charter of the City which separates powers, ensure guaranty for the legislative in its activities, constrain the political executive?
4. How do you see the internal structure and processes of the legislature, the extent to which they are democratic?

5. For whom are you accountable to? And do you think that your operation is transparent and free of corruption?
6. What do you say about the extent of good governance in AACCA? What are the challenges and opportunities? How do you justify the measures taken by the City Administration?
7. Do you think that sufficient resources are available for members of the Council?
8. In what areas have you relationship with other institutions such as the media, civil society organizations, the public, lower officials and civil servants?