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Editorial Note

The International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA) held in Johannesburg in 2019 marked the successful growth of an academic scholarship of the highest magnitude. Since opening our doors for scholarship debate in an African and global context from 2016, we have achieved successful milestone never been imagined for a three year old African scholarship project. From its three successful African Scholarship projects hosted respectively in Limpopo province (2016), Botswana (2017), Saldanha Bay (2018), the 2019 International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA) hosted its 4th Annual International Conference at the Southern Sun, OR Tambo International Airport from 03 July to 5th July 2019. Our scientific project objective as the IPADA conference continued to be rooted deeply in our desire to bring together academics from a multi-disciplinary context in the African region and beyond to engage on critical public administration and development issues. The nature of democracy through elections in Africa and across the continents are a major problem of public administration and development. Although elections are held and democratic victories are proclaimed, the administration of public offices remain hampered by resultant effect of those processes. In its 4th Annual Conference the Scientific Committee of the International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives deliberately crafted the theme "Democracy, Elections and Administration in Africa" to provoke debates that would ultimately bring about administrative, economic and political solutions to the African continent and beyond.

The majority of papers published in these Conference proceedings addressed public administration from various countries across Africa and beyond. Numerous case studies from South Africa, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Malawi and United States of America are offered in the Conference proceedings. Colleagues from all these countries presented all their work from their own countries problems of political administration, service delivery, Africa's role in the globe from general local government and public administration problems, African democracies, African development problems, military and security, economy and the regional African blocks, Public finances and management, public administration scholarship, elections and human Capital matters.

All papers that are published in this Conference Proceedings went through a quality scholarship verification of Triple Blind Peer Review process by specialists in the subject of Public Administration, Development and Public Governance. Papers which were accepted with suggested revisions were sent back to the authors for corrections before a final decision could be made by the Editorial Committee to publish them. The review process which determined the publishability of each paper contained herein was compiled in accordance with the editorial policy and guidelines approved by the Scientific Committee of the membership of the International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA).

The 4th International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA) successfully managed to draw together experts from the subjects' fields of Public Administration, Development Management, Human Resources and Local Government, Public Finances, Development Economists and Military studies among others to converge in Southern Sun Hotel, OR Tambo International Airport, Johannesburg, South Africa and engage scholarly in an attempt to find solutions that would improve African policy and administration systems.

This compilation provides only 81 papers out of 266 paper abstracts received and read at the 4th Annual International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA) held at Southern Sun Hotel, OR Tambo International Airport, Johannesburg, South Africa

from July, 03-05, 2019. Indeed, only 122 papers were reviewed in which 81 received favourable review reports and 31 were rejected for publication. While 81 papers from this conference were published in the 4th Annual International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA) Conference Proceedings 2019, 10 other quality papers from this conference were selected for publication in the Journal of Reviews and Global Economies, a peer reviewed journal accredited with SCOPUS for the December 2019 issue. This Conference proceeding is published online (ISBN no. 978-0-9921971-7-9) and print (ISBN no. 978-0-9921971-6-2) in order to be accessible to as many academics, researchers and practitioners as possible.

This publication consists of 81 scientific papers contributed by authors from varying South African Universities, international universities and public institutions. The Volume consists of more than 60% of papers published from varying institutions as per the requirements of the South African Department of Higher Education and Training Research Output Policy guidelines published in March 2015.

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Social Conflict and Infrastructure Projects in Mexico

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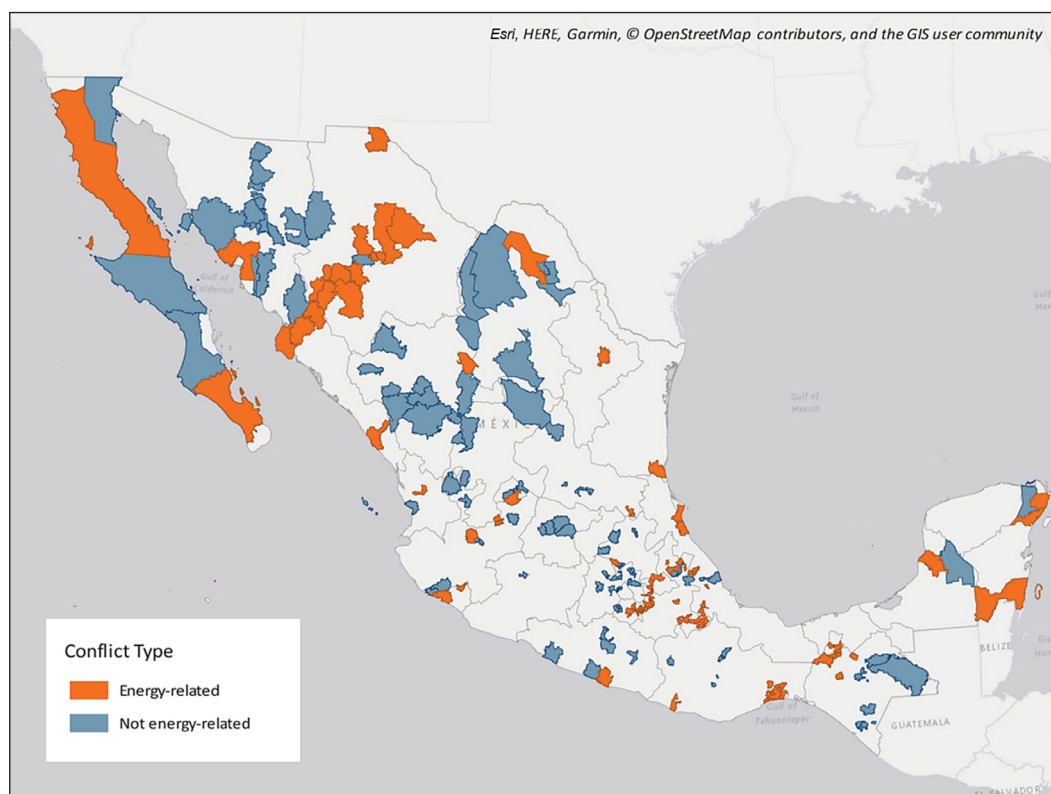
Abstract: This paper addresses some of the most critical concerns around social conflicts related to infrastructure projects, drivers and the ultimate nature of these conflicts. Alluding to the historic lack of proper regulatory frameworks, lack of rule of law and overall, the multidimensional aspect of social conflict, going above conventional project decision-making. Private companies are not independent or disconnected entities within the contexts in which they operate. On the contrary, these are social actors within the territories of the communities. This condition generates unquestionable responsibilities such as the protection of the environment, the observation of basic human rights, as well as the consideration of the equitable distribution of benefits of the productive activities carried out on territories they are temporally using. Mexico's Ministry of the Interior's Report of 2017 conducted by the Commission for Dialogue with the Indigenous Peoples of Mexico reported 335 conflicts derived from a series of infrastructure projects and private investment developments. The social, political, economic and in many times, environmental conundrum placed by every single one of these conflicts, suggests the need for a new approach on addressing social conflicts within the context of infrastructure development in countries with complex cultural dynamics. Overall, the aim of this research is to depict social conflict within emerging economies perspective, where private infrastructure projects are no longer to neglect the observance or capacity of human and indigenous rights, and the participation of key actors on all levels such as government, private sector and civil society.

Keywords: Cultural dynamics, Indigenous rights, Infrastructure projects, Social conflict

1. Introduction

On many levels, infrastructure projects shape the lives of local communities. During the life cycle of these projects, conflict and opposition frequently arise, thereby creating significant challenges, including delays, legal trials, and direct costs to investment. Mexico is no exception to this pattern. The extent of local opposition to infrastructure projects in recent years, as in the case of natural gas pipelines, hydroelectric projects, and wind parks planned in the Yucatán peninsula,¹ reveals how Mexican policy-makers and firms have miscalculated both the value of effectively engaging local actors like indigenous groups and grassroots social movements, as well as the cost of neglecting social impact assessments prior to undertaking major infrastructure projects.² Even when an infrastructure project can easily lead to economic gains, assessing the project's social impact has to become an inherent part of the development process in a country as diverse, unequal, and complex as Mexico.

In recent years, local resistance to energy-related projects in Mexico has notably surged. The energy reform in 2013-2014 opened the hydrocarbon and electricity value chains to private participation and unleashed a wave of investment projects, many of which have faced substantial local opposition. To be sure, the reform prompted a paradigm shift for energy projects because it considered both sustainability and human rights together with economic development. However, it failed to effectively implement a regulatory framework that incorporated social consultation processes in the formulation of energy projects. This became one of former President Peña Nieto's most challenging issues in the last years of his administration, as illustrated by the rising number of social conflicts affecting energy projects (Figure 1). This trend not only added to the dissatisfaction of companies concerning the government's role in creating adequate investment conditions, but it also empowered local and indigenous communities to seek a share of the profits. Inevitably, this raises questions about the corporate governance

Figure 1: Geography of Social Conflicts in Mexico from 2000 to December 13, 2017

Source: Map produced by Pamela Cruz with assistance from the Rice University GIS/Data Center, using data from Mexico's Ministry of the interior and GMI Consulting.³

of infrastructure projects, as well as the formal and informal arrangements among stakeholders with conflicting interests such as participating firms, government officials, and local actors.

Before the 2013-2014 energy reform in Mexico, the governance of energy infrastructure issues was shaped by the dominant position of *Petróleos Mexicanos* (PEMEX) and the Federal Electricity Commission (CFE), which held disproportionate bargaining power over local actors due to their state-owned status. As a result, social opposition to infrastructure projects was manageable to a certain degree. Today, as the energy reform has resulted in a larger number of infrastructure projects with greater involvement of private players, PEMEX and the CFE may not have the same weight in local governance matters – or they may not be involved at all.

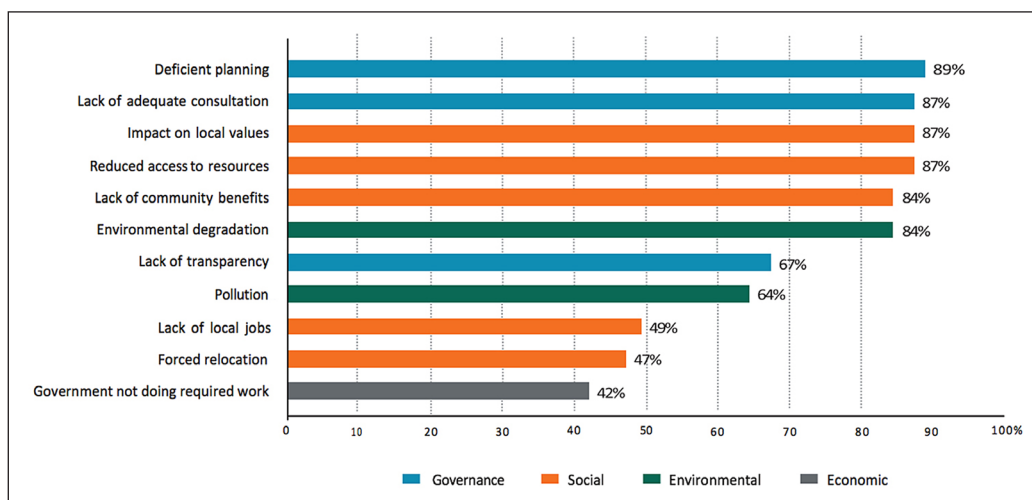
The new investment environment has tested the capabilities of private firms developing infrastructure projects, many of which face construction delays due to opposition from local communities.⁴ The scope of project analysis now requires the inclusion of topics that were not traditionally featured among the main concerns of these private firms. The lack of familiarity

to Mexico's cultural, environmental, and social contexts among the newer development firms investing in Mexico is currently becoming a challenge for local governance matters. Given this situation, the question remains: do the existing protocols for dealing with local protests need to be adjusted? This report reviews the concerns about social conflicts related to infrastructure and energy projects in Mexico. It explores the main drivers of these conflicts, documents the history and institutionalization of consultation practices, and addresses the current governance gaps after social consultation processes were instituted by the energy reform. The report also discusses how social conflict will shape Mexican investment politics in the new administration of Andrés Manuel López Obrador (AMLO) and provides public policy recommendations to address possible setbacks for future infrastructure projects in Mexico.

2. The Corporate Social Responsibility Agenda in Latin America

Recent reports show that the Latin American and the Caribbean region has the highest number of conflicts related to infrastructure development and construction.⁵ The complex processes for social and

Figure 2: Top Conflict Drivers in Energy Projects in Latin America



Source: Inter-American Development Bank, (2017).¹²

indigenous consultation that extractive industries have faced in the last few years demonstrate how different interest groups are constantly struggling over status, resources, security, and power.⁶ The fact that populations in rural or remote areas, as well as indigenous groups, tend to be negatively affected by large infrastructure projects adds to the perception that some may not see infrastructure development in a positive light.

In Latin America, social conflicts result from different circumstances in specific industry development sectors. Whether these circumstances are social, environmental, governance-related, or economic, as suggested by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), the escalation of infrastructure-related conflicts brings nothing but turmoil to local communities, impacts foreign and local investment, disrupts urban environments, and generates violence that oftentimes results in the loss of human lives. Social conflicts also lead to project cancellations and delays, and they perpetuate an increasingly detrimental situation for all actors involved. Figure 2 illustrates some of the most common causes of conflict related to energy projects across Latin America.

Within the international law realm, further welfares have been provided for indigenous peoples. There are declarations passed by the United Nations, which, while not binding on states, often receive such widespread support that their principles are deemed part of customary international law and/or of the general principles of law recognized by civilized nations. The Inter-American System for the Protection of Human Rights is the structure adopted

to promote and protect human rights in America in the face of the state's violation of such rights. To this end, the Mexican authorities must consider the principles established in the American Convention on Human Rights and the relevant regional treaties and by the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and adjacent structures. In order to protect and promote human rights, the Organization America States (OEA) has established various instruments, including:

- the Charter of the Organization of American States;
- nine conventions;
- the Inter-American Charter on Human Rights;
- the Rules of Procedure of the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights;
- the Statute of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights; and the Rules of Procedure of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights⁷.

As the reform of Article 1 of the Mexican Constitution gave legitimate status to the human rights provided for in the international treaties signed by Mexico, these human rights have the highest hierarchical legislative status in the country. The Mexican authorities are thus obliged to prevent, investigate, punish and remedy violations of such rights. In addition, they cannot apply any rule of domestic law that is contrary to the aforementioned norms of international law in view of the principles of consistent interpretation and *pro personae* (to the person's benefit)⁸.

Inter-American Court of Human Rights judgments and Inter-American Commission on Human Rights pronouncements are also binding on Mexico.

Within this framework, the Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous Peoples and the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man are two flagship declarations arguably a part of customary international law or general principles by reason of their recognition by international and state tribunals⁹. The right for consultation is a fundamental right for indigenous peoples, together with the right to express consent or reach agreements. The right for consultation became intrinsic rights alluding to rights of communities and groups related to their autonomy and self-determination, such as the right to participate in politics, the right to preserve their cultures, languages and institutions, the right to maintain their territories as well as the right for health, education and development¹⁰.

In order to give effect to this right, the General Law for Prior Consultation (officially based on the right to freedom prior and informed consultation of indigenous peoples; and the documents supporting its bases principles and methodology for implementation by the federal public administration); contains the highest international standards for indigenous consultation basis, established in the treaties and conventions that Mexico has ratified. The base document represents an effective instrument of participation, since it has the essential requirements that must be present in all indigenous consultation processes described as follows:

- The principle of good faith during the processes.
- The prior nature of the consultation.
- The free exercise of the consultation.
- Information should be enough and appropriate.
- Respect for the culture and identity of indigenous peoples.
- The recognition that, in the consultation processes, indigenous peoples must be able to set their own conditions and requirements, demand that the project fits their conception of development and consider the proposal of other alternatives.
- Respect their way of generating consensus.
- Respect their way of developing their arguments and the importance of symbols and images through which they reflect their positions.
- Respect the times and rhythms that mark their own processes of making decisions.
- Obtaining free, prior and informed consent, in accordance with its customs and traditions¹¹.

For Mexico specifically, large infrastructure and energy projects have neglected corporate social responsibility (CSR).¹² The human rights violations and community displacement that took place during the 1980s as part of the government's efforts to expand the electricity grid nationwide, for example, were among the largest blunders in the history of CSR practices in the country. The government prioritized economic development over any social or environmental justice issues, thereby restricting the individual and collective rights of the affected communities.¹³ These trends shifted in the early 1990s, when NAFTA's preliminary negotiations indicated that mandatory social and environmental practices would be adapted in the corporate sector as key conditions to operating under the agreement. The biggest shift, however, took place in 2010, when the concept of what we now know as *gestión social*, or corporate social regulations, began appearing in corporate reports and due diligence manuals.¹⁴

PEMEX was no stranger to this trend. In 2008, its exploration and production unit (PEP) included a much-needed community development program in its contracts, but its instrumentation proved more complicated than first anticipated. After reviewing the program, PEP decided to stop it in 2012, and it was replaced by the Community and Environment Support Program (PACMA) a year later.¹⁵ PACMA involved further provisions to engage local communities to achieve accountability under the so-called "framework agreements" with oil and gas operators, and also provisions to comply with other international frameworks already pointing toward CSR and sustainability goals (such as the Equator Principles, Global Compact and the Global Reporting Initiative). These framework agreements aimed to obtain, expand, and consolidate social licenses to operate for Pemex suppliers and contractors, and improve the quality of life for local communities.¹⁶

It is worth noting that many of these efforts, including PACMA, fell short of protecting the rights of local

and indigenous communities living in territories where large infrastructure projects were taking place. *Eólica del Sur* in the Tehuantepec Isthmus and the *Dzilam Bravo* wind and solar farms in the Yucatán peninsula are good examples of this, despite the ratification and presumed compliance with the International Labor Organization (ILO) Convention 169, which legally required the Mexican government to carry out free and informed consultations with indigenous communities and impose certain obligations on firms developing infrastructure projects. Both examples show the gaps caused by the design of a wind policy that was too sectorial and pragmatic, without instruments of territorial regulation, unattached to other environmental policies, and where developers had a strong impact on public affairs.¹⁸

Incidentally, although the 2013-2014 energy reform initiated multiple changes, better regulations and normative provisions were still needed following its inception. The huge gap between legal developments and stronger normative dispositions, and their influence on social consultation protocols, took a toll on Peña Nieto's administration. If these elements remain unchanged, they will become an enormous challenge for López Obrador's team in the years to come. Mexico's Supreme Court has begun to address this setback through the observation of what they have called the transversality principle,¹⁹ which stresses the importance of respecting indigenous people's collective and individual human rights when affected by the development of high-impact projects in the territories inhabited or used by these communities. While this is a good step forward, it still lacks an appropriate overarching indigenous consultation law or further legislation to apply sanctions within the energy reform and social impact assessment protocols.²⁰ This last issue has ultimately generated one of the biggest gaps in the implementation of standardized methods to conduct social impact evaluations, which became a complex challenge in Peña Nieto's administration.

3. Peña Nieto's Administration: Framing the Puzzle

The 2013-2014 energy reform created a series of new regulations within the hydrocarbons law and the electricity industry law, including chapters on the social impact of energy-related activities and projects.²¹ To address this impact, both laws defined three key instruments to be carried out by the

secretary of energy (SENER): social impact studies, social impact assessment evaluations (EVIS), and prior consultation processes for indigenous groups and communities. These laws and instruments added to the responsibilities concerning indigenous communities and human rights compliance already acquired in previous years via the several international treaties and conventions signed by the Mexican government.²²

Unfortunately, an intrinsic lack of guidelines and mechanisms to enact these three assessment tools precipitated their blurred interpretation and implementation. As noted earlier, the number of infrastructure-related conflicts increased toward the end of Peña Nieto's administration (Figure 1). As of 2017, the Commission for Dialogue with Indigenous Peoples of Mexico reported 335 conflicts originating in indigenous communities in response to infrastructure projects and private investment developments.²³ The social, political, economic, and environmental conundrum created by every single one of these conflicts suggests the need for a new approach to address the social and environmental issues associated with infrastructure development in a country with complex cultural dynamics. The problem is that there was never a clear plan for how to implement or monitor social impact evaluations, nor were any sanctions identified for noncompliant companies. It was not until June 1, 2018 – four years after the energy reform – that SENER published the *General Administrative Provisions on Social Impact Assessment in the Energy Sector*.²⁴ This document finally provided SENER with the responsibility to develop, manage, and oversee all governmental provisions and guidelines for social impact evaluations. In other words, SENER was granted the full authority to operate as judge and jury by defining all appropriate methods, areas of influence, identifications, characterizations, and evaluations of the social impacts resulting from energy projects. These tasks were to be ultimately carried out by an operational division known as the General Office for Social Impact Assessment and Land Occupation²⁵ and supervised by both SENER and the secretary of state.²⁶ These administrative provisions were the main instruments to define the appropriate protocols to be implemented within private and public infrastructure contracts (mainly within the energy and extractive sector) in socially and environmentally fragile environments.²⁷ The challenge was that these protocols often appeared confusing for many of the parties involved, including governments,

private entities, and local communities, as well as secondary actors involved in social consultation processes such as NGOs, local community groups, and other entities with vested interests. The lack of clarity or detail in the protocols together with legal loopholes²⁸ increased the likelihood for social conflicts to erupt around energy-related projects, including establishing electric grids and placing natural gas pipelines.²⁹

Peña Nieto's administration was characterized by two key features of the social impact evaluation realm. First was the introduction of much-needed decrees, laws, and dispositions in a corporate environment that was in the midst of a new energy reform and eager to respond to social impact assessments and sustainability compliance demands. Second, this administration lacked plans that dictated the extent to which such laws, decrees, and dispositions³⁰ were to be implemented, applied, regulated, and monitored. As a result, the social aspect of the energy sector became extremely relevant and strategic. Plenty of background work was done since the beginning of the 2013-2014 energy reform. The declaration of new legislation entailing consultation mechanisms in the electricity industry law and the hydrocarbons law, provided new guiding principles to change previous practices. Yet this work required further substantial rules and laws that would support these efforts.³¹

In any case, the hydrocarbons and electricity industry laws provided elements that function as administrative provisions and guidelines to define the formal process of determining the social impact of any manufacturing or extracting practices (including pipeline placement). These key steps are described as follows:

Step 1: *Development of a social impact study, consisting of a preliminary assessment conducted by SENER prior to any assignments (in the case of PEMEX) or oil and gas auctions or bids. This is followed by an EVIS, which is a requirement for developers and investors once either assignments or contracts have been awarded. The aim is to establish a social and environmental management plan to estimate "significant impacts" to local communities, as well as the equitable distribution of benefits.*

Step 2: *The prior consultation phase. This step occurs when an industrial development project*

directly impacts indigenous peoples and communities. Prior, informed, and unbiased consultation is still a pending issue even though it is required under the administrative and general provisions for social consultation processes.³² This process entails a comprehensive review of environmental, cultural, social, and economic impacts,³³ but the entities conducting these evaluations have not yet been defined properly for every process according to the type of project and/or specific circumstances.

Step 3: *Supervision and monitoring take place once a consultation process has been undertaken and are meant to be supervised by SENER, the Indigenous Rights Commission (CDI), and indigenous community leaders.*

The proposal for a General Law for Prior Consultation³⁴ took several years to be completed, and it has not yet been approved by congress. It was delayed during Peña Nieto's administration, despite the fact that several thorough social impact evaluations and indigenous consultations were formally conducted.³⁵ About 14 consultations within the energy sector took place during Peña Nieto's administration (nine were finished and eight had secured consent from indigenous communities).³⁶ Yet the absence of a solid legal framework detailing how consultations need to be conducted, together with the roles of the different stakeholders and obligations of other sectors beyond the oil and energy industries, are yet to be determined by a comprehensive arrangement. Furthermore, an inclusive framework has yet to be developed that can ensure that the negotiations between the different actors lead to fair agreements and avoid conflict. There also needs to be guidelines to determine the extent to which these new rules allow adequate governance of the social benefits of these projects.³⁷ These are some questions that the energy reform contemplated but did not define any clear implementation processes.

4. The New Administration and Looming Concerns About Unresolved Issues

AMLO's administration recently published a law that gave birth to the new National Institute for Indigenous Peoples (INPI), which highlights a series of principles that elevate indigenous agendas to a higher level in all government affairs.³⁸ This law provides indigenous communities with normative

autonomy, self-determination, respect for their territories, and above all, the right to free and informed consent to approve any project or executive order that could impact their territorial, cultural, or environmental heritage. The creation of the INPI may respond to the challenges posed by AMLO's proposed projects (a new refinery, a railway network throughout the Yucatán peninsula, and a freight railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec). The INPI is led by indigenous leader Adelfo Regino Montes, who is a strong advocate for indigenous rights and the preservation of indigenous languages and cultures.³⁹ The expectations for the INPI's new mission with high-level political representation are high. Regino Montes has also announced his zero tolerance approach for any public or private entities that violate indigenous rights and territories.⁴⁰ However, a few months into the new administration, it is still unclear how AMLO's government will address the growing number of social conflicts coinciding with infrastructure projects.

With the mantra "may all investment projects go through the social screening of proper consultation", anticipation looms around three of the 25 strategic projects outlined by AMLO: 1) The Mayan Train, aimed to link the tourist route between Cancún and Palenque; 2) the construction of a modern freight railroad connecting the Gulf of Mexico with the Pacific Ocean across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; and 3) the construction of a new refinery in Dos Bocas, Tabasco.⁴¹ These projects will require special consultations given that their sheer size and problematic nature are likely to affect indigenous populations and territories. It is too soon to judge if the actions of AMLO's government will be enough to improve relationships with indigenous peoples to avoid opposition and build consensus for infrastructure projects.

Creating a comprehensive framework of protocols and regulations, which should include approval of the General Law for Prior Consultation of Indigenous Peoples and their Communities, is a fundamental step forward in respecting indigenous rights and promoting Mexico's progressive agenda on social license to operate and CSR. The concept of a social license is based on the idea that institutions and companies need not only regulatory permission but also "social permission" to conduct their business. It relates to the actions of a company to build trust with the community it operates in and other stakeholders through ethic, labor practices, sustainability

compliance, etc.⁴² The main lessons learned from the consultation process in Mexico are related to the ability of private entities and the government to collaborate with communities (under a rights scheme), generating legitimacy and trust among all parties.

Deep "structural violence"⁴³ is still a main concern, therefore, the lack of opportunities to ensure a decent life and to satisfy the basic needs of the entire population can act as a catalyst for social conflict. Moreover, addressing the roots of social conflict in the realm of energy development serves to strengthen Mexico's energy security, which is the uninterrupted availability of energy sources at an affordable price.⁴⁴ Mexico's energy security relies on several natural gas pipelines that are currently dealing with operational and construction delays due to social opposition. These pipelines are critical to transporting natural gas imports that are increasingly critical for Mexico's energy market. Falling domestic production combined with growing demand means that natural gas imports (mostly from the U.S.) fulfill most of Mexico's needs. Thus, building a functional, competitive, and reliable energy industry cannot be fully attained without addressing the social conflicts over energy development by sharing the benefits of these developments and taking into account the interests of affected local and indigenous communities.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

It has become clear that the number of social conflicts caused by infrastructure initiatives illustrates the need to toughen the laws that govern such projects. Hence, for any social consultation process to become effective and fair, the current administration should approve pending laws. Failing to do so may be self-defeating to AMLO, principally in the areas of protecting energy security and the rights of indigenous communities, which could subsequently impact economic growth.

The EVIS mechanisms and protocols could benefit from further elaboration as to whether these processes apply only to energy-related projects (e.g. mining, oil/gas, renewables, electricity, etc.), to infrastructure and real estate developments, and/or to public services (e.g. transportation, water access, distribution, etc.). Clearly defining and institutionalizing these evaluations will delineate standardized, sector-specific guidelines that identify who leads

these evaluations and the responsibilities of each party.⁴⁵ As of today, the EVIS protocols are not clear. For example, while some consulting firms have demonstrated proficiency in conducting successful social assessments and consultations as sub-contracted entities of private firms, SENER has also established a set of protocols that are not yet standardized with those used by independent consulting groups. This is causing mistrust and unpredictability for all parties involved, especially the affected local and indigenous communities.

Accordingly, the proposal to standardize the evaluation methods by means of social license to operate certifications and trainings is an important action item in the new administration's agenda to develop best practices. Social licensing practices and protocols should further be overseen by a federal entity able to carry out social impact assessments throughout their development, and these practices and protocols should be available to interested parties (private companies, state agencies, community leaders, local governments, and so forth). Furthermore, the long-term impacts and benefits for communities should be identified from the inception of any infrastructure development plan, where ultimately the long-term perspective of the company must match the long-term perspective of the community. Moreover, the governance of infrastructure projects continues to be affected by loopholes and overlaps between dispositions and regulations as well as the lack of a normative framework for sanctions, cost shares, and the fair distribution of benefits and remediation of impacts. These gaps should be addressed. For example, PACMA established a set contribution for social investment relating to the overall value of the project,⁴⁶ which provided a baseline for investors to determine the cost of distributing a project's benefits. This approach could be taken as a model to establish standardized quotas for social development as part of every major infrastructure project.

The General Law for Prior Consultation proposition addresses many of these gaps. Yet this proposition still lacks some specificity because it refers solely to indigenous communities when oftentimes the affected entities could be farmers, *ejido*⁴⁷ owners, women's groups, rural communities, or other social entities. The legal wording should go beyond indigenous communities and include vulnerable communities of all sorts, who should be empowered to negotiate and establish substantive dialogue with the

government and other private companies under conditions of equality and a non-discriminatory scheme of rights.

This also relates to the lack of formally institutionalized social impact evaluations and previous consultation as mechanisms conducted by both private and public bidding entities. SENER and the newly established INPI should have the mandate, budget, personnel (including translators and mediators), and capacity to oversee social consultation activities through all stages of development. Professionalizing social licensing consulting practices and training would also be strategic to help address social conflict in a more effective way. The number, nature, and status of projects and consultation processes should be tracked, and this data should be made available to the public to ensure compliance and fairness to infrastructure projects and those stakeholders involved.

Finally, it is imperative to look beyond the visible reasons and analyse the underlying structural causes of social conflict. Infrastructure projects are often developed in societal and territorial peripheries that may be affected by "structural violence" related to poverty, inequality, and a lack of opportunities or effective forums for dialogue and participation. Within this environment, infrastructure projects can reignite existing social conflicts by exerting greater pressure on pre-existing tensions and the results cannot be positive under these circumstances.

Infrastructure development is fundamental for development, since it creates the basic conditions for a decent life (health, education, water and sanitation, transport, among others). However, if infrastructure is not aligned with the population's needs, its development can trigger social tension and conflict by inciting or exacerbating structural violence in the affected territories. Mistakes committed in the past are crucial lessons learned where Mexico's rule of law and respect of human rights have huge space to improve.

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The Role of Judiciaries in Presidential Electoral Disputes Resolution in Africa: The Cases of Zambia and Zimbabwe

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Abstract: The African continent, arguably more than any other continent, is riddled with electoral disputes. While disputes are an inherent feature of elections; in Africa electoral disputes culminate in violence and havoc. Instead of ameliorating this trend, judiciaries seem to exacerbate it. The electoral laws in the majority of African countries provide for dispute resolution mechanisms. At the apex of these mechanisms are the judiciaries. The judiciaries ordinarily play the role of adjudication of disputes in societies; and this role is widely accepted. With regards to electoral disputes the role of the judiciary is not without any controversy. The role of the judiciary in election related conflicts is complicated not only by the fact that they oftentimes decide in favour of the establishment but also, and much more importantly, by the principle of democracy. The cases of Zambia and Zimbabwe provide perfect microcosms of a pervasive problem in Africa. The principle of democracy reposes the ultimate power to decide rulers in the electorate. Allowing the judiciaries to second-guess the electorate is controversial. The main question is whether judiciaries in Africa should continue to be final arbiters on electoral disputes; particularly the disputes that concern the electoral results. Another question is whether judiciaries in Africa have been adjudicating on electoral disputes in a manner that enhances the higher objective of democratisation. The questions will be investigated by studying the leading decided cases from the two countries under study. Methodically, the paper will use the politico-legal approach as the subject straddles both the political and legal studies.

Keywords: Conflicts, Disputes resolution, Electoral disputes, Electoral laws, Judiciaries

1. Introduction

The last decade of the twentieth century saw the upsurge in democratic elections in Africa (Cheeseman, 2010). This was the era of reprieve for African peoples who were gradually emerging from the bondages of either colonialism or military dictatorships. Elections became the chief struts of these transitions. The electoral euphoria of this period was soon to be eclipsed by the incessant electoral conflicts (Sachikonye, 2004; Matlosa, 2001; Matlosa, 2004). Some of these conflicts brought unprecedented devastations on the continent (Abuya, 2010). While conflict is an inherent feature of electoral completion everywhere, in Africa the scale of devastation has been monumental (Ohlson and Stedman, 1994).

Incidentally, judiciaries became nerve-centres of the infrastructure for electoral dispute resolution in many, if not all, African countries. Their roles became so central to the electoral process so much that they really determined, even more than voters in some cases, who become the rulers. Agitated by this newly acquired role of the judiciaries in the electoral process, scholarship surged on the role of African judiciaries in electoral process (Kaaba,

2015; Azu, 2015, Nkansah, 2016). The research burgeoning on this subject points to interesting, and sometimes contradictory, patterns of the role of African judiciaries in elections. Nevertheless, the widely accepted view is that African judiciaries have not ameliorated the situations of electoral disputes in Africa. Instead, in the majority of cases after the intervention of courts in electoral disputes situations escalate; and invariably end up in violence. As Omotola (2010:67) pointedly contends that, 'The contradictions of electoral justice in Africa represent another factor responsible for electoral violence in Africa'. This has led to the emerging criticism of judiciary as the arbiter on electoral processes (Ellett, 2008).

The question hovering on the role of African judiciaries in elections is rendered uniquely important because it is an adjunct of the broader question about the independence of judiciaries on the continent. In other parts of the globe, particularly in the Western hemisphere, the role of the judiciary in dispute resolution, in general, and electoral disputes, in particular, is less controversial. The reason is that judicial independence is generally presumed. In Africa, the opposite is only true; there is widespread

scepticism about the independence of the judiciary (Vondoepp, 2005). This scepticism is rendered even more credible by the proven trend that in almost all the presidential electoral petitions the judiciary dismissed them (Azu, 2015). An interesting undercurrent to this trend is that the sitting presidents have a very strong hand in the appointments and removal of judiciaries. Thus, when the sitting president is challenged through the electoral process, the judiciaries become the shield for the *status quo* (Madhuku, 2006; Fombad, 2014). The Kenyan Supreme Court in *Odinga v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission* (2017) in the aftermath of the 2017 presidential election is an outlier in the broader scheme of things. Despite this consistent pattern, the newly adopted constitutions and electoral legislations continue to place the judiciaries at the epicentre of electoral dispute resolutions architecture of many, if not all, African countries.

The newly adopted Constitutions in Zambia and Zimbabwe are leading the pack in this new trajectory. The new constitutions have introduced the notion of 'constitutional courts' which are the courts specifically empowered with competence to deal with electoral disputes. Thus, the courts are stronger today in electoral processes than they were few decades ago despite their record being not so controversial. This pre-eminence of the courts in political process generally, and elections in particular, has received immense criticism. The criticism has been that the involvement of judiciaries in electoral processes amounts to what has been called judicialisation of politics; 'the ever-accelerating of reliance on courts and judicial means for addressing core moral predicaments, public policy questions, and political controversies' (Hirschl 2006:721). This notion questions the increasing role of the courts from their traditional passive domain to the modern active domain (Sarkin, 1997; Tate & Vallinder, 1995).

Mindful of the special role played by the courts in electoral processes, legal scholarship and judicial precedent have developed the special jurisprudence for adjudication of electoral disputes. The mainstay of this jurisprudence is the emphasis on substantive justice as opposed to formal (procedural) justice. This emerging jurisprudence has found its way into the electoral laws and, in countries such as Zambia and Zimbabwe, the constitutions. This emergent jurisprudence notwithstanding, courts in Africa are still holed up in proceduralism as an excuse for indiscriminate dismissal of electoral petitions

('Nyane, 2018; Musiga, 2016). The most common procedural ground for dismissal of electoral petitions is the evidential burden of proof (Omotola, 2010: 52) puts the matter much more succinctly in that,

'... resort to the election petition tribunals and courts...has raised more questions than answers. So many obstacles, including the huge cost of seeking electoral justice, the near impossible conditions of the 'burden of proof' imposed on the litigant, the undue protraction of litigation, and the seeming lack of independence of the judiciary, have served to limit the reach of electoral justice.'

This paper analyses the role judiciaries in Zambia and Zimbabwe as the microcosms of the broader continental pattern. The data for this analysis is gotten from the electoral laws and decided cases. In the end, paper contends that while the judiciaries still have a role to play in electoral justice. Nevertheless, measures should be taken to guard against the widely spread phenomenon in Africa where elections that are otherwise invalid are legitimised by judiciaries. The paper starts off by revisiting and problematizing the principles of the emerging jurisprudence on adjudication of electoral disputes in Africa. The second section analyses the application of these principles to the two countries under study herein – Zambia and Zimbabwe.

2. Problematizing the Principles and Concepts on Adjudication of Electoral Disputes in Africa

The participation of courts in electoral processes is a fair recent phenomenon, having only been reluctantly accepted in Britain in the 19th century (O'Leary 1962). Just as there is a raging controversy today about the role of judiciary in electoral process, it was initially thought that the sanctity of the judiciary would be dented if courts were to be permitted to descend into the arena of electoral politics. It was thought that electoral disputes are better resolved by parliament as petitions on elections returns (*R (Woolas) v The Parliamentary Election Court*, 2010). It was deemed that the House of commons was the better judge of the disputes about the return of its own members. However, as electoral fraud became widespread, the impartiality of parliament to resolve electoral disputes was increasingly called into question in Britain (Porbitt, 1906; Rix, 2008). Hence, in 1868 the British parliament enacted the

Parliamentary Elections Act. The Act introduced the shift from parliamentary-based dispute resolution to the judicial-based dispute resolution mechanism. The Act empowered the Court of Common Pleas to try electoral disputes. This newfound role of the judiciary in electoral disputes has been accepted in England and throughout Africa hitherto. In England the most recent statute on electoral dispute resolution is *The Representation of People Act* of 1983. The Act (Section 120(1)) posits that 'no parliamentary election and no return to parliament shall be questioned except by a petition complaining of an undue election or undue return'. Thus, the concept of a petition is now firmly established in electoral parlance as a means by which the validity of an election is questioned in a specially designated court of law. In Africa, only superior courts – High Courts, Supreme Courts of Appeal or Constitutional Courts – are empowered to preside over electoral petitions. For instance, the section 93(1) of the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) provides that 'any aggrieved candidate may challenge the validity of any election of a President or Vice-President by lodging a petition or application with the Constitutional Court within seven days after the date of the declaration of the results of the election.'

Although the role of the judiciaries in electoral disputes is firmly established in contemporary times, it is not without controversy. The fears of judicialisation of politics are still extant and genuine today as they were initially when it was deemed that the courts have no role in electoral disputes (Kibet & Fombad, 2017). The fears of bringing rigid and inflexible judicialism to bear on the will of the people have always loomed large in the discourse. The courts of law have the traditional obsession with proceduralism which often puts less emphasis on the substance of the dispute in question (Omotola, 2010). This obsession has been immensely criticised in contemporary academic and judicial approaches (Sypnowich, 1999). Hence, it has been deemed that proceduralism – which connotes over reliance on rules and processes of dispute resolution as opposed to the substance of the dispute – would totally be inappropriate for electoral disputes. A special jurisprudence for electoral disputes therefore emerged which is an antithesis to the traditional approach (Vickery, 2011). The new approach on electoral disputes emphasises the substance of the dispute as against the process. This approach as well has its origins from Britain. The United Kingdom Representation of People Act (1983) under section 23(3) provides that:

'no parliamentary election shall be declared invalid by reason of any act or omission by the returning officer or any other person in breach of his official duty in connection with the election or otherwise of the parliamentary elections rules'

The Act goes to identify mainly two grounds for invalidation of an election. The first one is that the election was not conducted 'substantially' in accordance with the law regulating elections; and secondly, such violation of the law had substantially affected the result of such election (Section 23(3)). Thus, it would seem that the mainstay of the jurisprudence on electoral disputes is the extent to which the violation of the electoral law substantially affected the result. This approach is called the substantial effect doctrine. The classical case, which has been the flagbearer of the doctrine as it is today applied in Africa, is the House of Lords decision in the case of *Morgan v Simpson* (1974). The court in this case formulated a triangular theory of the doctrine of substantial effect. The court said the three kingpins of the doctrine are, a) if an election was conducted so badly that it was not substantially in accordance with the law, the election is vitiated; b) if the election was so conducted that it was substantially in accordance with the law as to elections, it is not vitiated by breach of the rules or a mistake at the polls; c) even though the election was conducted substantially in accordance with the law as to elections, nevertheless if there was a breach of the rules or a mistake at the polls – and it did affect the result – then the election is vitiated.

Studies on presidential election petitions in Africa demonstrate that judiciaries in Africa are aware of the substantial effect doctrine but, quite often, they either misapply it or deliberately choose to abuse it (Musiga, 2016; Kaaba, 2015; Azu, 2015; Nkansah, 2016). In the majority cases, fundamentally flawed elections are legitimated by courts under the guise of substantial effect doctrine. Judiciaries, pretty much to the chagrin of everybody, use the substantial effect doctrine to validate elections even in cases that are palpably conducted in violation of the electoral laws. Examples are legion throughout Africa. In Lesotho, the High Court in the case of *Abel Moupono Mathaba and Others v Enoch Matlaselo Lehema and Others* (1993) declined to vitiate an election outcome in the aftermath of the controversial 1993 election despite the fact that it had already made a finding that the election was not conducted in accordance with the electoral law. The court created an artificial

analytical problem in an effort to justify its reluctance to vitiate a flawed election. It said,

'We are unable to state that the invalidity of the elections has been conclusively established. We point out, however, that some of the apparent irregularities and discrepancies are sufficiently serious concerns. We cannot however postulate that the result does not reflect the will of Lesotho electorate. We merely point out that the means for checking this has been compromised and created much room for doubt' (p28). (emphasis added)

This kind of prevarication is common throughout Africa; elections in Africa are invariably conducted not in accordance with the law. Instead of rooting out this practice, judiciaries in Africa busk under the proven misapplication of the substantial effect doctrine. In the case of *Akufo-Addo v Mahatma* (2013), a Ghanaian Supreme Court refused to vitiate the outcome of 2012 presidential election which was overtly marred by illegalities such as over-voting, unauthentic (unsigned) ballot papers, unknown (un-serialised) polling stations and voting without biometric verification. The court, through the minority judgment of Ansah JSC (p99), made a determination that, 'it is clear that the irregularities associated with the 2012 presidential election were substantial ... it is equally clear that the non-compliance in this case affected the results of the 2012 presidential'.

The pattern is almost the same throughout Africa. The Court of Appeal of Nigeria in the case of *General Muhammadu Buhari v Independent National Electoral Commission* (2008) refused to invalidate the 2007 presidential election on the basis of a brazen misapplication of substantial effect theory. The court said:

[[I]t is manifest that an election by virtue of [the applicable statute] shall not be invalidated by mere reason that it was not conducted substantially in accordance with the provisions of the [applicable statute]. It must be shown clearly by evidence that the non-compliance has affected the result of the election.

With the exception of the most recent judgement of the Kenyan Supreme Court in *Odinga v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission* (2017), where the court boldly vitiated a presidential election that was riddled with illegalities, superior courts in Africa tend to misconstrue the formulation of the theory in *Morgan v Simpson* (1974). The three requirements

for vitiation of an electoral outcome as articulated in *Simpson* case do not operate conjunctively; rather, they operate disjunctively. This means that satisfaction of any one requirement is sufficient to vitiate an election. Courts in Africa seem, almost invariably, to suppose that violation of electoral laws on its own may not vitiate the outcome. They reckon that such violation of the laws must affect the outcome the election in order for it to be the ground for vitiation of the entire result. This view is at variance with the *Morgan v Simpson* case; substantial violation of the laws alone can vitiate an election. The Court in *Simpson* said, 'if the election was conducted so badly that it was not substantially in accordance with the law as to elections, the election is vitiated, irrespective of whether the result was affected or not'.

This position seems to have been captured instructively by the minority judgement in the case of Ghanaian Supreme Court in the *Akufo-Addo* case. Justice Ansah (p99) pointedly noted that courts in Africa unduly 'establish a higher standard by their requirement that a petitioner must establish *both* substantial non-compliance with electoral regulations and impact of the non-compliance on the election results'. He decreed that '*Morgan v Simpson* allows a petitioner to succeed upon establishing any one of the requirements' (p99). This is the best statement of the theory of adjudication of electoral dispute which, unfortunately, is not the dominant theory in African electoral adjudication practice.

African judiciaries, in their desperate search to justify the consistent dismissal of electoral petitions against the incumbents, have found another justification. The newfound ground for dismissal of election petition is the unduly high standard of evidential proof (Hatchard, 2015; Harrington, 2015; Murison, 2013). In election disputes the presumption is that elections were properly conducted. This presumption is manifested in the hallowed doctrine of *omnia praesumuntur rite et solemniter esse acta* (the presumption of correctness or validity of an election). This presumption has even found its way into the electoral laws of most African countries, including constitutions. For instance, section 69(9) of the Ghana Constitution of 1992 provides that an instrument in terms of which the Chairman of the Electoral Commission 'states that the person named in the instrument was declared elected as the President of Ghana at the election of the President, shall be prima facie evidence that the person named was so elected.' Similarly, section 110(3)(f)(ii) of the Zimbabwean

Electoral Act (2016) provides that the declaration of election is 'final subject to reversal on petition to the Electoral Court that such declaration be set aside or to the proceedings relating to that election being declared void'. In the case of *Chamisa v Mnangagwa* (2018), the Constitutional Court of Zimbabwe confirmed that, 'the declaration of results in terms of section 110(3)(f)(ii) of the Act creates a presumption of validity of that declaration'. Indeed, the presumption is rebuttable by production of evidence to the contrary. Judicial opinion is divided in Africa on the standard required for the petitioner to rebut this age-old presumption. On the one hand there is a view that the standard needed to prove electoral impropriety is on the balance of probabilities; which is the civil standard. On another hand is the standard beyond reasonable standard; which is the criminal standard. Indeed, an intermediate standard is being developed by some judiciaries which put the standard of proof in election petitions between the criminal standard and the civil standard.

The careful study of the most recent decisions on presidential election petitions demonstrates that the superior courts in Africa are falling more in favour of the intermediate standard than the other standards. This trajectory is led by the Ugandan Supreme Court in *Besigye v Museveni* (2001). In this case the court rejected the legion of decided cases in Uganda and elsewhere on the continent which suggested that the standard of proof in election petition is 'beyond reasonable doubt'. The court preferred the intermediate standard but used the language used in the Ugandan electoral law which is 'proof to the satisfaction of the court'. The court is disposing off the issue of the standard of proof said:

In my view, I would not deviate from what Parliament stated in the Act, especially when there is no ambiguity in Section 58(6) of the Presidential Elections Act. What is required of the petitioner who is seeking annulment of the election of the President is to adduce evidence and satisfy the court that the allegations he/she is making have been proved to the satisfaction of the court.

This intermediate standard was also adopted by the Supreme Court of Kenya in *Odinga v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission and Others* (2013) following the presidential election in 2013. The court confirmed that the threshold of proof should, in principle, be above the balance of probability, although not as high as beyond reasonable

doubt. The approach was later to be endorsed, albeit leading to a different outcome, in the contemporary judgement of the Supreme Court of Kenya in *Odinga v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission* (2017). The court decreed that:

...where no allegations of a criminal or quasi-criminal nature are made in an election petition, an "intermediate standard of proof", one beyond the ordinary civil litigation standard of proof on a balance of probabilities, but below the criminal standard of beyond reasonable doubt, is applied.

It would seem that it is now fairly established that the burden of proof in electoral disputes lies with the applicant; and the courts are increasingly favouring the intermediate standard of proof (Hatchard, 2015). However, the chase does not seem to end with the choice of the standard of proof. It is also about how, in the broader scheme of things, the standard is applied in each individual case. As will be more fully demonstrated in the succeeding discussion of the cases of Zambia and Zimbabwe, it would seem that the outcome is fairly the same – judiciaries in Africa are still not ready to vitiate a presidential election. They still cite the 'high standard of proof' as the ground for dismissal of the petitions.

3. Application of the Principles in Zambia and Zimbabwe

3.1 The Case of Zambia

Although Zambia has a longer history with parliamentary electoral petitions, its history with presidential elections petitions is relatively short (EISA, 2017). Much of the content of Zambian jurisprudence on presidential election petitions is based on the jurisprudence emerging in other African countries such as Uganda and Kenya (Musila *et al.*, 2013). The doctrine of substantial effect is, like in the majority of African countries, still a centrepiece of electoral law in Zambia. For instance, section 93(4) of the Electoral Act (repealed) of 2006 provided that,

'No election shall be declared void by reason of any act or omission by an election officer in breach of that officer's official duty in connection with an election if it appears to the High Court that the election was so conducted as to be substantially in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and that such act or omission did not affect the result of that election.'

The same doctrine survived the repeal of 2006 electoral law. It subsists under the new 2016 electoral law. Section 97(4) thereof categorically provides that no election shall be vitiated by reason of an administrative error by an election official, 'if it appears to the High Court or a Tribunal that the election was so conducted as to be substantially in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and that such act or omission did not affect the result of that election.' Taking a cue from the Kenyan Constitution of 2010, the new (2016) Constitution of Zambia elevates the broader notion of substantive justice to the constitutional level. Section 118 of the Zambian Constitution of 2016 provides that 'justice shall be administered without undue regard to procedural technicalities'. In the case of *Henry Kapoko v The People* (2016) the constitutional Court confirmed that the doctrine of substantial justice envisaged in the Constitution of Zambia has its taproots in Uganda and Kenya. However, the court watered down its importance by saying that, 'Article 118(2)(e) is not intended to do away with existing principles, laws and procedures, even where the same constitute technicalities'.

The mischief which the substantive justice doctrine sought to arrest in these countries was that cases, particularly election petitions, were invariably dismissed by courts of law on the basis of technicalities as opposed to their own merits. This technicist approach had wreaked electoral instability in both Uganda and Kenya. As demonstrated in the forgoing discussion, the elevation of the doctrine of substantial effect, which is a corollary of substantive justice, has not really affected the way judiciaries handle electoral petitions in Africa. A slight change was observed in Kenya in 2017 with the case of *Odinga v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission* (2017) wherein the Supreme Court of Kenya gathered the rare courage to vitiate a presidential election.

In Zambia the elevation of the doctrine to the constitutional level does not seem to have affected the technicity way in which courts approach electoral petitions. This approach was invoked in the most recent decision of the constitutional Court of Zambia in the case of *Hichilema and Another v Lungu* (2016). In this case Constitutional Court was confronted with an election petition following a presidential election of 2016. The decision is 'textbook case' of a court of law giving undue regard to technicalities – contrary to section 118 of the constitution. The court narrowly and literally followed Articles 101 (5) and 103 (2) which provide 'that the Constitutional Court must

hear a Presidential election petition within 14 days of the filing of the petition'. In this case, the 14 days lapsed when the matter was still proceeding because of the many technicalities that prolonged the hearing. When the 14 days lapsed, the court pronounced that it must hear an election petition within 14 days. The court brazenly, and pretty much to the chagrin of many observers (Zongwe, 2017), decreed that:

Our position, therefore, is that the Petition stood dismissed for want of prosecution when the time limited for its hearing lapsed and, therefore, failed by reason of that technicality. This is because the Petitioners failed to prosecute (sic) their case within fourteen days of its being filed. That being the case, there is no petition to be heard before this Court as at today.

It is interesting that the court, in its overdrive to self-avowedly dismiss the petition on the basis of technicalities, never considered the doctrine of substantive justice as envisaged under section 118 of the Constitution of Zambia (2016). This approach gave credence to the strong allegations of bias in the case (Zongwe, 2017), which is a common feature with African judiciaries (Vondoepp & Rachel, 2011). The consistent pattern of the courts being timid to upset the electoral results where there are alleged malpractices in Zambia started with the first presidential election petition in the case of *Lewanika and Others v Chiluba* (1998). This is the petition that challenged the validity of the 1996 election – which was the second election since the country returned to multiparty politics and under the new Constitution of 1991 (Rakner & Svasand 2004). The petitioners challenged the re-election of Frederick Chiluba as President on the basis that he was not qualified to be a candidate of election as president since neither he nor his parents were citizens of Zambia by birth or by decent. They also alleged other electoral irregularities. The challenge on the eligibility of Chiluba was clearly frivolous because it was not the first time Chiluba stood for election in Zambia in 1996; he won the election with Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD) in 1991 (Rakner & Svasand, 2004). But on the allegation of electoral irregularities, the court used the intermediate standard of proof. The court said that in parliamentary election petitions are proved:

'a standard higher than on a mere balance of probability and therefore in this, where the petition had been brought under constitutional provisions and

would impact upon the governance of the nation and deployment of constitutional power, no less a standard of proof was required' (para 4).

It would seem that Zambia is no exception to the general pattern emerging in African adjudication of presidential electoral petitions; that courts will, as a matter of practice, will not ordinarily upset the election outcome. They will use all sorts of reasoning - either the abuse of substantial effect doctrine or they will unduly raise the standard of proof - to justify their natural inclination not to change the status quo. To a very great extent, this relates to the broader question of the independence of the judiciaries in Africa (Vondoepp, 2005, 2006).

3.2 The Case of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is an epitome of African judiciaries in election disputes par excellence. As Manyatera and Fombad (2014:89) contend that 'political turmoil that Zimbabwe has gone through in the last two decades has affected most of its institutions, especially the judiciary'.

The role of the judiciary in electoral conflicts in Zimbabwe has left one big perception that the judiciary's routine dismissal of presidential electoral petitions is nothing more than a smokescreen for the clear partiality of the institution. The perception is captured much more accurately by Tsvangirai (quoted by Daily News 2017) as thus, 'the judiciary is controlled and it is dominated by the executive. As long as ZEC is controlling the election, and ZEC is being controlled by the executive, it's a vicious circle'. This 'vicious circle' is not unique to Zimbabwe. Studies have demonstrated that in countries where there is no fundamental change in political power, institution of government (including the judiciary) become entrapped in widespread 'agreement'; disagreement on any aspect becomes a rarity (Prothro & Grigg, 1960).

The country has a long history of parliamentary election petitions through which the doctrine of substantial effect was consolidated. The doctrine has been codified under section 177 of the Electoral Act. It provides that an election may not be vitiated except under two conditions, namely: '(a) the election was not conducted in accordance with the principles laid down in [the] Act; and (b) such mistake or non-compliance did affect the result of the election'. It would seem that these two requirements

for invalidation of an election are couched conjunctively by the Act - that is, (a) alone is not sufficient to invalidate an election. This formulation is at variance with the classical formulation from the case *Morgan v Simpson* (1974) which is the basis for the doctrine of substantial effect as it applies today in Africa. The principle from Morgan is crystal clear that substantial violation of electoral laws alone is sufficient to vitiate an election; even when such violation does not affect the outcome of the election.

It would seem that Zimbabwe is a classic case of misconstruction and misapplication of the doctrine. This misconstruction is best demonstrated by the most recent judgement of the Constitutional Court of Zimbabwe in *Chamisa v Mnangagwa* (2018). This was an election petition following the harmonised parliamentary, local government and presidential elections held on the 30th July 2018. In particular, the challenge was on presidential election on the basis of alleged irregularities. As is the norm, the constitutional court dismissed the petition. For purposes of this paper, what is intriguing are the reasons provided by the Court. The Court reasoned, amongst others, that,

The general position of the law is that no election is declared to be invalid by reason of any act or omission by a returning officer or any other person in breach of his official duty in connection with the election or otherwise of the appropriate electoral rules if it appears to the Court that the election was conducted substantially in accordance with the law...

This is clearly the conjunctive approach which only serves one purpose; to make it almost impossible for anyone aggrieved with the management and outcome of the election to vent such a grievance in the courts of law. In the *Chamisa* case, the court complicated the application of principles even further by introducing what it called an 'exception' to the above 'rule'. It said that the exception is that:

the Court will declare an election void when it is satisfied from the evidence provided by an applicant that the legal trespasses are of such a magnitude that they have resulted in substantial non-compliance with the existing electoral laws.

This is not an exception; it is an integral part of the of the substantial effect rule. The first inquiry in the

application of the substantial effect rule is whether there has been substantial non-compliance with the law regulating elections. If the answer is in the affirmative, the enquiry ends there; the election is vitiated. It does not proceed to the second leg of whether the non-compliance affected the outcome. The apparent disinclination of the court to upset the outcome of elections in Zimbabwe is compounded further by the standard of proof. The courts seem to agree with the general position in Africa that the burden of proof rests with the applicant and that the standard of proof is intermediary. However, the courts disregard the brute reality that the best evidence for election petitions is the election material which, almost invariably, is in the hands of the respondents - the election management body in particular. When a court is entrapped within this 'burden of proof technicism', it may not properly dispense the electoral justice because certainly the applicant has no access to the election material. Why should a court of law insist on the burden of proof that it knows very well that it is near-impossible to discharge?

This frustration was demonstrated by the applicants in the case of *Tsvangirai v Mugabe* (2013). This was an election petition following the 2013 presidential election. The petitioner launched the petition alleging the irregularities in the elections. He also launched other urgent applications in seeking access to the voting materials in order to discharge his burden in the main petition. The court reserved the judgment on the urgent applications indefinitely, until the time allocated for presidential petitions became imminent. The petitioner had to withdraw the main petition because, as he said:

In the petition various allegations regarding the conduct of the election by the second respondent were made, which allegations touch on the credibility and authenticity of the voting material which is currently under the control of the second and third respondents (emphasis supplied).

Clearly it was impossible for the petitioner to proceed with the main application without access to the voting materials. The withdrawal of the main petition was inevitable in the circumstances. That notwithstanding, the court dismissed the application for withdrawal and mulcted him with costs. This approach was in keeping with the broader approach whose net effect is to discourage the venting of electoral disputes in the courts of law.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper set out to investigate the increasing role of judiciaries in Africa in elections; using the two Southern African countries - Zambia and Zimbabwe - as microcosms. The study was guided by two overarching questions. The first one was whether judiciaries have any role to play in the electoral process at all. Electoral processes are purely political processes. There are strong views that courts should not be dealing with political questions. The second question has been whether the participation of African judiciaries in the electoral process, which is on the upsurge anyway, adds any value to the process of consolidation of democracy in Africa. On the first question - which could safely be dubbed 'the political question' - it would seem that the African continent is not an exception to the globular pattern where courts are increasingly becoming influential in the political and policy spaces. The upsurge is a natural response to the political phenomenon wherein at independence most countries in Africa inherited strong executives and parliaments that were not balanced (Mphaisha, 2000; Ellet, 2008). Thus, the emergence of judicialism is a natural response to the imbalance. These two Southern African countries - Zambia and Zimbabwe - provide very good examples. These are the two countries that, immediately after independence, fell into the hands of strong executives that overshadowed both the legislatures and the judiciaries. The other two branches became more of appendages of executive dominance (Cranenburgh, 2008; Bratton & Masunungure, 2006).

On the second question (the democracy question), which took the good part of the foregoing discussion, it is apparent that African judiciaries have not yet reached the stage where they can make a meaningful contribution to electoral democracy in Africa. What is apparent is that they have not yet outgrown the trappings of the post-independence era where they were by and large the appendages of the dominant alliance of the executives and the legislatures (Baylies & Szeftel, 1997). The executives are still disproportionately strong in Africa (Posner and Young 2007; van Cranenburgh, 2008). As such they deploy their hegemony in almost every institution, including the elections management bodies and the judiciaries. The foregoing discussion shows that the pattern of judiciaries being used to legitimate, rather than vitiate, questionable elections in Africa is surging. The most recent case in point is the

Zimbabwean Constitutional Court judgement in the case of *Chamisa v Mnangagwa* (2018). The impatience of the court with the petitioner's case, particularly the evidential (technical) part of it, was indicative of utter disinclination of the court to investigate the merits (substance) of case. In that sense, the court is not adding any value to the electoral process. That is why in many African countries, instability follows the courts' verdicts because courts are failing spectacularly to discharge electoral justice. They have amassed the technical machinery of legalism by way of the concepts such as 'burden of proof', 'standard of proof', 'substantial effect' and 'presumption of validity' as smokescreen for their clear partiality and non-independence. As demonstrated in the forgoing discussion, African judiciaries have cast these otherwise important legal doctrines as insurmountable hurdles for people dissatisfied with electoral processes. In the end elections are increasing getting weaker as a mechanism for replacing rulers. The courts of law are being deployed as important agents in the grand plan to perpetuate incumbency.

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The Impact of Internship Programme on Skills Development in the South African Public Institutions: Are Internships Still Relevant?

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Abstract: Skills shortage remains one of the challenges of the 21st century in developing countries like South Africa. It is for this reason that a skills development programme such as internship programme has been adopted by South African public and private institutions to enhance skills development, knowledge and experience. Internship programme is one of the programmes targeting a specific group of people. As contemplated by Cabinet in December 2002, internship is a public service graduate work experience programme targeting unemployed graduates aged between 18-35 years. The paper intended to assess the impact of internship programme on skills development. Secondary to the aim, the article looks into the relationship between internship programme and skills development. Lastly, the challenges and opportunities for internship programme were also brought forward. The paper is purely theoretical and collected literature through articles, books, newspapers, internet and other readily available sources with a view of attempting to forge and comprehend how internship programme can be strengthened particularly in public institutions for achieving the main objectives of the programme. The study found that, in general internships have impact on skills development even though some interns are not necessarily satisfied with the monthly stipend as the money is too little while others claim not to be satisfied with the nature of duties they are expected to perform during work hours, as some of the tasks does not add any value on skills development. In addition to the findings, some interns highlighted that they are not sure who exactly their mentor is since there are many different mentors who coordinate and supervise them. The paper concludes that there is a need to clear the confusion on the issue of many different mentors supervising interns. Furthermore, revise the nature of duties interns do, interns should be given tasks that will develop them.

Keywords: Internship programme, Mentor, Skills development, Skills shortage, Public institutions

1. Introduction

The discourse on skills development has become a critical issue of modern societal, political and scholarship debate. This is so as most public institutions around South Africa are confronted with skills shortage among other challenges. Skills development refers to a process of equipping graduates from various institutions of higher learning with skills that will help them to be more competitive at work in the near future (International Labour Force, 2010). Nevertheless, every graduate needs the opportunity to turn the theoretical knowledge acquired from the classroom to the practical world. To make this a reality, most public institutions in South Africa have adopted internship programme as one of the skills development component. The introduction of internship programme as part of the skills development initiative has increased dramatically. This is so because even the private sector has adopted it. Hanson (1984) highlighted that internships are used

as tools, mechanisms or platforms were graduates can be able to identify long term career interests. Meanwhile, Basow and Bryne (1993) stated that graduates use internships as an opportunity to fulfill what they have learned at various institutions of higher learning.

Perhaps the most inspiring argument for investigating is the impact of internship programme on skills development is the fact that sometimes interns are not necessarily satisfied with the nature of duties they are expected to perform during work hours, particularly in public institutions. Amongst other things interns find discomfort about making tea for their colleagues and sometimes making copies. As a result, sometimes interns see the programme as something that does not add value to their professionalism and self-improvement. To that extent, little is known as to whether all interns have the same challenges more especially in public institutions. The paper then briefly outlines some of

the important issues revolving around this internship programme with a view of placing possible measures that public institutions could adopt to address these challenges. The article then proceeds on to analyze the relationship between internship programme and skills development in public institutions and its opportunities thereof.

2. Placing a Skill in Context

Individual skills such as communication, problem solving, writing, decision making, leadership and ability to work with others can be explained as an intern's achievement, acquisition or an attainment of an ability or potential that has been acquired through an internship programme or a formal training particularly in a work environment (Gryn, 2010). However, skills are an offspring of a combination of knowledge gained from a classroom and the little experience an intern has been exposed to, in a professional work setting. On that note, the author admits that a skill is an acquired ability or talent an intern needs in order to perform out a specific activity over a certain period of time. Bloom (1956) outlined a number of competencies that indicates what is meant by skill. These are competencies such as the individual's ability to perform a set of tasks, an ability to understand what others are doing and lastly the ability of an individual to link performance with an understanding of the performance of other individuals. As it was already mentioned earlier on in this article, an ability to associate with others in a formal work environment is one of the skills that an intern can acquire during the internship period (Adams, 2013).

3. Conceptualising Skills Development

Skills development is a process of empowering graduates with skills as a way of preparing them for work environment. Skills development can also be explained as the process of developing a graduate or intern so that they can be able to execute tasks assigned to them in the work environment, through training and mentorship programme (Hirschsohn, 2008:82). Practical skills development is the core activity of any given profession (public administration, education, health) and for survival, growth and sustainability of that particular profession. However, universities sometimes face the criticism that their graduates go to the workplaces unable to perform (Okello-Obura and Kigongo-Bukenya, 2011). It is on this basis that such graduates must

be granted an opportunity to go through internships as part of skills development programme in order to capacitate and prepare them for future work environment. Nevertheless, the discourse on skills development must be introspected on broadly. Skills development programme could add a positive impact not only on the intern but also on the institution, industries, economy and the neighboring countries in the long run. Therefore, lack of skills can have a negative impact on the economy in terms of production, service delivery and innovation (Abrahams, 2018).

Through strategic initiatives such as Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA), there is an official acknowledgement by government that skills shortage constitute or pose a huge threat to economic growth and development, and that the benefits of skills development are not only limited to the individual alone but also encompass public institutions, private organisations, households and all other sectors and emerging and established industries of the South African economy (Levine & Guy, 2007). Therefore, skills development remains a major weapon in the effort by the South African public institutions in order to create employability and encourage sustainable development. However, skills development programmes are intended to maximize the productive, capable and competitive potential individual through acquisition of different skills (Legoabe, 2010).

4. Internship Programme in South Africa: A Facilitator of Skills Development

Millions of young South Africans are excluded from participating in economic activity, and as a result suffer disproportionately from unemployment, discouragement and economic marginalization (Orgill, 2007). High youth unemployment means young people are not gaining the skills or experience needed to drive the economy forward. This lack of skills can have long-term adverse effects on the economy. In South Africa the current lack of skills and experience as well as perceptions regarding the restrictiveness of labour regulations make some prospective employers reluctant to hire the youth (Abrahams, 2018).

To understand the discourse on internship programme, one needs to reflect on the concept of internship. According to Rahman, Kahtun and

Mezbah-ul-Islam (2008), an internship is a pre-professional work experience which aims to provide graduates from various fields of study with the opportunity to gain work experience and exposure in the work arena. This programme allow South African graduates to work in a real world setting whereby every intern is assigned with a specific task to perform on daily basis (Chambers, 2015). Green (1997), contended that internship is a temporary work which an intern could do either to get paid or voluntarily. While National Association of Colleges and Employers (2011), stipulates that an internship is a form of experiential learning that link knowledge and theory learned in the classroom with practical application and skills development in a professional setting. Internships give students the opportunity to gain valuable applied experience and make connections in professional fields they are considering for career paths; and give employers the opportunity to guide and evaluate talent. Therefore, the programme further aims to create a link that already exists between theory and practice (Garcia, 2008).

Normally, these interns would be assigned with administrative activities to perform as part of their daily activities. Through the internship programme, graduates' interns are exposed to their relevant occupational areas in real work situation. During the programme, interns are expected to bridge the gap between theory and practice and acquire work attributes and be able to make professional decisions even when they are employed anywhere in the near future (Garcia, 2008). According to Oyedele (1995), during the work experiential programme interns are developed to assume work responsibilities, develop the knowledge and attitudes required in their career field for successful job performances. However, the internship programme also assists interns to be more informed about their interests during the internship trajectory. In the sense that interns are able to decide on whether to continue with that particular profession, more especially looking at career opportunities.

Likewise, an important aspect of internships is that they offer rich opportunities for career development by creating links with professionals (Knight, 2008). Literature by Levine and Guy (2007) recognised that internship programme has emerged as the most popular tool among public institutions nowadays. Equally, Gault, Leach and Duey (2010) acknowledged that internship as work based learning project is essentially an open door that public

institutions offer nowadays to those interns who are keen on picking up work experience and exposure. Gault *et al.* (2010) added that internships offer graduates and interns a golden opportunity to work in the areas of their interest. Through this trajectory, interns figure out how their course of study while they apply knowledge to practical issues and this practical learning makes them more appealing candidates for vacancies after internship period, which is normally 12 to 24 months depending with various public institutions.

5. The Nature of Internship Programme and Skills Development

According to Griesel & Parker (2009), graduate internship programmes are optional as one of the job training opportunities. Interns do not get a salary, but receive a stipend paid by the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA). Unlike student interns who are placed, graduate interns have to apply for the advertised internship opportunities and go through the normal recruitment and selection processes such as interviews (Gryn, 2010). The intention is to afford them opportunities to transform the theoretical knowledge gained from the institutions of higher learning, into practical experience acquired in the dynamic world of work (Harms & Crede, 2010). In both types of internships, interns sign a contract, and operate on a structured competency development programme (Harms & Credé, 2010). They are assigned mentors to supervise their work, assess their competency levels and work performance as well as provide periodic evidence of their progress (Department of Labour, 2005).

The purpose of internship is to address lack of practical work experience and exposure to the realities of the world of work as well as reduce youth unemployment, although on temporal basis (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012). Internships are practiced in a wide array of careers such as nursing, social services such as teaching, public administration and psychology, law, engineering as well as finance related careers. Internship or placement programs allows students the chance to combine theory and practice in a subject, apply theoretical concepts to a work environment, and induce new knowledge from practical activities (Garcia, 2008). During the internship, interns are given administrative activities such as preparing formal reports (Chambers, 2015).

Internship programme has become a popular theme in public institutions. Kruss (2004) in a South African study on employability and higher education concluded that although employers and recent graduates agree that the undergraduate experience is enormously beneficial in terms both of personal development and workplace effectiveness, they are generally of the view that a degree course does not prepare students for work. These studies show that there is a serious mismatch between intern's aspirations and the reality of the labour market and that interns are insufficiently prepared for the world of work. It is therefore understandable that employers are dissatisfied with the skills and attributes of interns after completing their internship period as such concerns are raised about their lack of soft skills such as problem solving. Kruss (2004) espoused a direct link between internship programme and the job market, expecting public institutions to directly prepare graduates with skills to make them employable. Public institutions were criticized because they do not offer adequate soft skills such as problem solving, communication, managerial skills, leadership skills that one needs to learn across any walk of life (Bradley, 2014). Skills and talent development are thus central to successful internship programmes. Hay (2002) found that skills and capacity building for talent proved to be the most significant factor that pertains to employee well-being and retention. However, the paper is of the opinion that the nature of activities in public institutions should be designed in a manner that interns can be able to acquire and attain the required skills. Therefore, the author fully discourages public institutions to refrain from assigning interns certain tasks that will not benefit them elsewhere in the near future.

6. Internship Programme and Skills Development Interface

The world has demonstrated different views on the relationship between internship programme and skills development. Nevertheless, the idea of obtaining a higher (tertiary) qualification has been viewed by many as a stepping stone for locating or improving job opportunities (Lowden, Hall, Elliot & Lewin, 2011:7). In a highly competitive world, tertiary education is sought by many who use it as an added advantage in the labour market. Employers, graduates and Higher Education Institution (HEI) representatives, value work-based learning (such as placements and internships programme) have been identified as particularly effective approaches to promote the

employability of graduates (Lowden, *et al.*, 2011:10). Opportunities such as, placements and internships do not only appear to offer an effective applied method to instilling appropriate awareness, skills and abilities in graduates, but it can also enhance partnerships and resultant collaboration between HEIs and employers (Lowden *et al.*, 2011: 10). It is therefore the authors view that throughout the journey interns can acquire professional skills such as self-management, problem solving skills, verbal communication skills, conflict management skills, develop desirable work habits and attitudes and develop skills to use modern information communication technology and office work equipment's. However, Thomos (2016) along with Velez and Giner (2015) claimed that internship programme develops teamwork skills in the sense that when interns perform in teams, they learn a number of things that could not be taught in a formal classroom session. They learn how to adjust, compromise and cooperate with others. During internship, they learn how to generate ideas, share thoughts and perform collectively, which becomes foundation of their future employment. These scholars' further stands with the fact that; interns are required to be goal oriented throughout the internship period. They have to develop time management skills, where tasks are scheduled in sessions of activity based learning. If they cannot manage their time, they would not be able to survive in the professional work setting. Internship tasks might include completing tasks such as compiling reports, preparing presentations, record keeping, observations and others. Therefore, all these tasks can be doable and achievable provided interns have set different day to day targets and plan accordingly. In essence, during internship period interns learn and develop possible ways of utilizing their time effectively (Bradley, 2014). On that note, these authors highlighted that time management is not only essential for personal development, but also to emerge in a professional environment. As far as the interface between internship programme and skills development is concerned, (Johari & Bradshaw, 2008; Khalil, 2015; Rothman & Sisman, 2016) are of the opinion that internship serve as a good foundation for constructing and developing of personality of interns since it makes them to be objective, boost their level of confidence and lastly motivates them.

7. The Impact of Internships on Skills Development

According to Heflin and Thau (1999), internships can be the best platform to develop graduates.

Simply because most of the graduates are still fresh from tertiary level with a thin idea of how the labour market operate. Internship give graduates an opportunity to see what is really happening in the field of work. Furthermore, the impact of internship has more value as compared to the knowledge graduates have gained in a lecture room. In some instance internships assist interns to make a bit of self-introspection on whether they are fit enough to be employed elsewhere at a later stage. On the other side, internship could still be used as a means for interns to identify their weaknesses in the work environment. While the impact of internship varies, the programme could assist one to boost his self-esteem and confidence while engaging with other employees during work hours. In essence, internships help interns to develop the skills to work and associate with many people in a diverse environment. Simply, because not every person has a professional way of working and associating with other people. According to Heinemann, Delfalco and Smelkinson (1992), graduates who participate in an internship placement are likely to gain skills related to three types of learning objectives. The first involves academic objectives that connect theory to practice. Academic objectives develop and strengthen cognitive skills such as problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, and analysis. The second involves career-learning objectives that include determining realistic career options through career testing, developing job acquisition skills, strengthening career-planning skills, and understanding the world of work. As it is already stated elsewhere in this paper, the third and final learning objective involves personal growth such as self-confidence, self-understanding, communication skills, personal and ethical values, interpersonal social skills, and a sense of professionalism.

8. Pitfalls and Opportunities of Internship Programme

Internship programme was introduced to provide interns with the necessary knowledge and work experience by linking theory with practice. However, there are so many challenges and opportunities that play around the programme. On that note, scholars such as Amoako (2011), pointed that the inexperience of interns as well as poor writing skills in English is a huge challenge for the programme. This is so because when interns are still new in the work place find it difficult to prepare weekly reports. As a result, mentors, managers and supervisors are burdened

with the responsibility to nurture and groom them. Bradley (2014), postulated that interns are tormented by the amount of stipend they receive and the fact that internship does guarantee them permanent employment. Therefore, some interns find it fit to resign before the internship can even come to an end. However, Chonco and Folscher (2006) posed a very interesting statement were other interns argued that: "*we are not sure who exactly our mentor is since there are many different mentors who coordinate and supervise us*". If this is the case, then the author is of the view that sometimes interns may take time to adapt to the ways in which every mentor operates. Additionally, too many instructions from different mentors can be confusing at times. While we are still on the challenges of internships, some other interns highlighted that they find dissatisfaction when their supervisors delegate unnecessary duties such as making team for them, while in principle interns should be learning the actual work. As a result, such duties could make interns to resign.

Although the author has demonstrated different challenges that are found around the internship programme, it is therefore necessary to also look deeper into the good side of the internship in the South African public institutions. However, Bradley (2014) is of the opinion that some of the interns have found permanent employment in the very same institutions (Provincial and National Departments) where they used to work as interns. On that note, the author sees it important to highlight the fact that working as an intern can sometimes open more opportunities. Therefore, graduates and interns are advised not to only look at the fact that they will only work for 12 months and leave the office. However, (Tygerburger, 2013), contended that some institutions are efficient as a result of the skills interns have acquired throughout the internship. Therefore, this is a win-win situation as both the (institution and interns) are able to benefit from the internship programme as a whole. According to Adams (2013), one of the programme coordinators highlighted that apart from getting the opportunity of being absorbed as a permanent staff member in the organisation, interns can also network with all other departments thereby opening doors of employment opportunities. Other opportunities that interns are exposed to are skills development and experience which some do not get while studying (Cleary, Flynn & Thomasson, 2006). According to O'Neill (2013), interns have the opportunity to learn writing and communication skills.

9. Regulatory Framework Underpinning Internship Programme

According to The Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 the main purpose of the act is to ensure that the skills in public institutions are developed and improved (Skills Development Act, 1998). The Act focuses on specific areas such as creating a framework for the growth of skills, and the development of employees at work, and also the unemployed graduates between 18-35 years. According to the Skills Development Act (1998), the purposes of the Act is to encourage public institutions as the employer to use the workplace as an active learning environment, an opportunity to acquire new skills, an opportunity of new entrants to the labour market to gain experience, and also to employ persons who find it difficult to be employed such as graduates (Skills Development Act, 1998). Nevertheless, the White Paper on National Youth Service (NYS) of 2001 stipulates that the youth service has been adopted by the South African government in 2005 as part of its initiatives to get the youth involved in the reconstruction and development plan of the nation. The objectives of the policy were to facilitate the provision of work experience for young persons with a view to their employment, to encourage participants to develop a sense of responsibility and service to the country and self-respect and respect for authority, to promote among participants, values of discipline, democracy, citizenship and corporation (National Youth Service Act, 1998). In order for the activities to be effectively perpetuated, a board has been set up to carry out functions. Such as develop and monitor orientation, training, approved placement and employment programmes for graduates; providing placement and employment opportunities for graduates and assist in the development of approved employment projects; monitor and evaluate the implementation of the plans and programmes of the National Youth Service and to make to the Minister such recommendations as it thinks fit in respect thereof (National Youth Service Act, 1998).

The National Skills Development Strategy III (NSDS) provides that since 1994, South Africa's new democratically-elected government has realised that the economy is in need of improvement. One of the opportunities identified is the skills development of graduates (Orgill, 2007:14). The NSDS was established in March 2001 with the intention of radically transforming education and training in the nation (Covey, 1999). Though the emphasis of the NSDS

is placed on the training of unskilled graduates to enter the workforce as well as create a livelihood for themselves, the policy also seeks to encourage theoretical learning, facilitate the journey of school leavers from school, college or university or even from periods of unemployment, to sustained employment and in-work progression (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).

According to Covey (1999), this policy addresses some of the challenges that impact on the ability of the South African economy to expand and provide increased employment opportunities. One of these challenges is the inadequate skills levels and poor work readiness of many young graduates leaving formal secondary and tertiary education and entering the labour market for the first time. This is compounded by inadequate linkages between institutional and workplace learning, thus reducing the employability and work readiness of the successful graduates from Further Education and Training (FET) and Higher Education Training (HET) institutions, not to mention the many who enter the world of work without a formal qualification (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).

10. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper undertook to assess and understand the impact of internship programme on skills development with specific reference to South African public institutions. In general, it is found that internship programme is having a positive impact by giving exposure and transferring the necessary skills to graduates and interns. Furthermore, internship programme can provide many opportunities such as networking with potential employers, skills development, preparing one for future employment and providing one with permanent employment. Despite the various advantages of internship programme, the article also brought forward some of the challenges that revolve around the internship programme. One of the challenges is that most interns are not necessarily satisfied with the monthly stipend, as some have to spend too much money on transport costs, groceries and accommodation. As a result, sometimes such pitfalls could make interns to find themselves in a situation where they have to quit the internship programme. Therefore, failure to address these challenges would negatively continue to compromise the main objective of internship programme. On that note, regulatory framework underpinning internship programme

was discussed and it was important to realise that the regulatory framework should always be the first focus on understanding the significance of internship programme on skills development. It can be concluded that much still needs to be done in order to consolidate internship programme with the aim of providing the necessary skills to graduates around the country. For example, interns should be assigned activities that will boost their capacity. Again, public institutions should review the programme on annual basis. On that note, it would be much easier to identify weaknesses of the programme and strengthen it. Furthermore, the concerned institutions should reconsider adjusting the stipend considering the cost of living and lastly public institutions should not run internship programme just for formality purpose. Internship programme must be objective in nature. Therefore, interns must be monitored and evaluated timeously to check as to whether the programme still has impact particularly on skills development. Furthermore, public institutions could benchmark effective ways from private institutions on how to run successful internships that have impact on skills development.

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The Manager-Subordinate Conflict Pertaining to Performance Appraisal Process in the Department of Home Affairs in Tshwane Area

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Abstract: The paper explored the reasons for manager-subordinate conflicts or disagreements in relation to performance appraisal in the Department of Home Affairs in Tshwane area. A broader comprehension of the reasons for manager-subordinate conflicts in relation to performance appraisal is necessary in order to identify viable solutions for improving workplace relations and morale. The leader-member exchange theory was used to explain manager-subordinate conflict. In order to attain the aim of this article, a qualitative research design was utilised, whereby semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. In this regard, a sample of twenty-five research participants was selected from five offices of the Department of Home Affairs in Tshwane area using a purposive sampling. Qualitative content analysis was used to analyse data obtained through interviews and observations. The major findings of the article indicate that performance bonuses and biased ratings are the sources of conflicts or disagreements between managers and subordinates in relation to performance appraisals. Therefore, it is recommended that the National Department of Home Affairs should ensure that managers, supervisors and operational staff members undergo training and development to ensure an effective performance appraisal process. In addition, managers and supervisors must be afforded training opportunities relating to conflict management skills to resolve manager-subordinate conflict in the workplace.

Keywords: Appraisal, Management, Performance appraisal, Performance

1. Introduction

Performance appraisal forms an important feature of performance management system which became popular in the 1950's and was alternatively referred to as merit rating (Armstrong, 2015; Radebe 2015). In contrast, Getnet, Jebena and Tsegaye (2014) argue that the "history of performance appraisal process can be traced back thousands of years." The process of performance appraisal came as a result of the introduction of the performance management and development system. Longenecker, Liverpool and Wilson (1988) argue that performance appraisal system is a critical component of the performance management system. Similarly, Sudin (2011) maintains that performance appraisal is an important human resource practice and tool for dealing with training and development. In addition, Thurston and McNall (2010) maintain that performance appraisal is a practical tool for employee motivation and development. However, performance appraisal process could be more tedious for managers and subordinates being evaluated given the requirement to document the performance of

each employee (Lin & Kellough, 2015). In addition, the notion of too much time being spent on performance appraisal could be attributed to longer periods required for the completion of forms and this created a negative assumption that the system is irrelevant (Armstrong, 2015).

Nkuna (2015) found that approximately 59% of immigration officers in the Department of Home Affairs do not consider performance ratings awarded to them during the performance appraisal process as a true reflection of their own performance. Further, Nkuna (2015) discovered that about 59% immigration officers held a view that they are deliberately awarded an average performance rating score of three (3) by their managers or supervisors. Unfortunately, the immigration officers do not seem to be aware of channels to follow in order to report disputes concerning performance appraisal ratings when conflicts erupt. In support of Nkuna's (2015) findings, Lin and Kelloguh (2019) state that performance appraisal processes are plagued by erroneous judgements of managers and supervisors; such judgements may result in flawed performance

assessments. Therefore, the aim of this study was to explore manager-subordinate conflicts or disagreements in relation to performance appraisal in the Department of Home Affairs (hereafter referred to as DHA) in Tshwane area. The overarching question for this study is, what are the reasons for manager-subordinate conflicts pertaining to performance appraisal in the DHA in Tshwane area?

The theoretical framework that is applied to understand performance appraisal process in relation to manager-subordinates conflict is explained. The methodology utilised for the purpose of this study is described, explained and justified succinctly, thus, clarifying data collection, sampling and analysis. The finding of this study could be useful to human resource practitioners in the public and private sector. At the same time, researchers interested in human capital studies could benefit from the finding of this study.

2. Theoretical Framework: Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne (1997) point out that the leader-member exchange theory came into being in 1970 to give meaning to the social exchange theory and to fully understand the leader-member relationship. The leader-member exchange theory indicates that supervisors are not consistent in the way in which they interact with their subordinates, which leads to their categorisation into "relatively high and low quality members" (Pichler, 2012). In fact, the leader-member exchange theory deals with the importance of the relationship between leaders and their subordinates that should contribute immensely towards creating a better working environment (Van Breukelen, Schyns & Blanc, 2006). The leader-member exchange theory focuses on the two-way relationship (dyadic relationship) between supervisors and subordinates (Rowe & Guerrero, 2013). The theory postulates that leaders develop an exchange with each of their subordinates, and that the quality of these leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships influences subordinates' responsibility, decision influence, access to resources and performance. Rowe and Guerrero (2013) point out that the relationship that a leader develops with each subordinate is commonly known as a vertical dyadic relationship and is subdivided into in-groups and out-group relationships. This suggests that group relationships are characterised by mutual trust, respect, liking and reciprocal

influence, which develop only when leaders and followers come together for a common goal.

The theory promotes positive employment experiences and institutional effectiveness. Leader-member exchange focuses on increasing institutional success by creating positive relations between the leader and subordinate. According to Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen (2005) leaders are expected to provide rewards to their followers who satisfy institutional expectations, whereas followers at the same time have the responsibility to decline assigned roles that are difficult to fulfil. Leaders and their subordinates should negotiate rewards or recognition which is equivalent to their performance (Howell & Merenda, 1999). The leader-member exchange theory is hugely related to support and creating an atmosphere where subordinates increase their levels of job performance (Liden *et al.*, 2006). According to Ross (2015) high quality leader-member exchange is concerned with increased subordinates' satisfaction level, autonomy and productivity, and decreased turnover intentions, increased benefits and quicker promotion rates, whereas low quality relationships are associated with negative work outcomes, including low job satisfaction and commitment, greater feelings of unfairness, lower performance and higher stress. As a result, the leader-member exchange theory assumes that leaders ought to treat followers in a collective way, thus as a group. It is clear that the leader member theory supports healthy working relationships between managers and their subordinates and demands that tensions should be minimised. In this sense, manager-subordinate conflicts relating to performance appraisals would be minimal in an environment where there is healthy working relations among employees and their supervisors.

3. Performance Appraisal

The extant research on performance appraisal reveals that conflicts related to performance appraisal could be attributed to a number of factors. Some of the factors that could lead to conflict are discussed below.

3.1 Unclear Performance Standards

The main problem associated with performance appraisal process is inconsistent performance standards which employees may find difficult to define or understand (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek,

Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004). According to Liff (2011) performance standards are the key component of the appraisal plan which needs to be aligned with institutional goals. In addition, performance standards are the key tasks or objectives of the department which are expected to be achieved by employees (Tyson & York 1996). Kirkpatrick (2006) states that standards of performance have to be clarified to make employees aware of what is expected of them. Mathis and Jackson (2003) state that realistic, measurable and clearly understood performance standards benefit both institutions and employees. In essence, performance standards have to be clearly defined and communicated to all employees but also be based on job-related requirements (Nankervis, Compton & McCarthy, 1992). Furthermore, Lussier (2003) maintains that a manager has to ensure that employees have to know what the standards are and clarify them in order to minimise disagreements over performance during formal performance appraisals. In other words, after the work has been performed, the supervisor appraises the performance followed by a collective effort of both the supervisor and the employee who then reviews work performance against established performance standards. Moreover, performance standards determine whether or not the objectives are achieved.

3.2 Lack of Objectivity

Performance appraisal lacks objectivity in terms of the rating scale method which makes factors such as attitudes, loyalty and personality difficult to measure (Bekele, Shigutu & Tesay, 2014). According to Pattanayak (2001), the fact that there is a lack of objectivity, makes appraisal difficult to measure as well. Moreover, absence of clear goals and objectives could be attributed to the inability of public managers to make institutional goals known to all employees (Manyaka & Sebola, 2012). Objectives ought to be made clear during the planning phase in order to ensure that employees understand what is expected of them (Republic of South Africa, 2007a). This could assist to prevent confusion regarding what needs to be measured and to what effect.

3.3 Rater's Bias

Rater's bias is the inaccurate distortion of a measurement (Werther & Davis, 1996). Rater's bias is reflected in instances where raters intentionally amend the rating scores of unfavoured employees

and give higher ratings to friends (Bekele *et al.*, 2014). Stone (2008) argues that rater bias results in unfair and inaccurate ratings. In addition, the distortion of a particular rating is sometimes influenced by hatred towards a particular group of people (Mathis & Jackson, 2003). Worth noting, effective performance appraisal should be free from any form of bias to reduce any unfairness (Ahmad & Bujang, 2013). In Pattanayak's (2001) view, raters could be biased and have a negative perception about a person to be rated because of that person's sex, colour, caste, religion, age, style of clothing and political view.

3.4 Inappropriate Performance Measurement Instrument

The management of performance starts with the development of the performance measuring instrument (Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk, Van der Westhuizen & Wessels, 2011). Besides enhancing employee performance, the performance measurement instrument is useful in the evaluation of training programmes (Radebe, 2015). Therefore, there are numerous problems with regard to performance appraisals which render the performance appraisal instrument inaccurate. These problems include a limited discussion on performance appraisal and all the other techniques that compose the entire performance appraisal process (Daley, 1992). Managers with positive attitudes should ensure that performance ratings are accurate and have to provide support to employees (Du Plessis, 2015). In this regard, the accuracy of the performance appraisal is determined by whether its practices accurately reflect an employee's job performance (Harrington & Lee, 2015). Performance appraisal is characterised by dissatisfaction on the part of both the employer and employees and as a result, most employees view it as inaccurate, unfair and political (Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). An inaccurate performance appraisal instrument is more likely to assess a performance dimension incorrectly (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014).

3.5 Central Tendency

Central tendency is committed when an average rating is given to all employees (Mathis & Jackson, 2003). According to Lin and Kellough (2015), managers could find it difficult to evaluate or appraise their subordinates' performance, particularly if they do not have sufficient information regarding the

performance of the subordinates. The reason why they opt for central tendency occurs when they are not familiar with the work of their subordinates or if they have limited supervisory ability (Nel *et al.*, 2004). In this regard, raters put their marks at the centre of the rating sheet which is sometimes accompanied by recommendations by the human resources department to request a written justification of extremely higher or lower ratings (Werther & Davis, 1996). Stone (2008) contends that a satisfactory performance rating could be perceived as negative, which could affect the employee's commitment and as a result it does not serve any purpose in terms of reward, training and development. In contrast, appraisers are required to provide reasons for both poor and outstanding performance rather than subjecting employees to a normative rating or assessment (Pattanayak, 2001:91). In other words, managers' inclination to rate all or most of the employees or interviewees as average, demoralises good performers. In this regard, the disadvantage of the central tendency is that even poor performers are found to be benefiting from this kind of an approach although they do not qualify for such average rating.

3.6 Halo Effect

The halo effect occurs in instances where a manager gives higher ratings and scores in one area where optimum performance is achieved by a particular employee (Mathis & Jackson, 2003:57). Mcguire (2014) maintains that employees who are supported usually have higher levels of employee commitment and have higher performance levels. In this sense, high scores that supervisors give to employees can be attributed to the nature of friendship between themselves and their subordinates that creates the reluctance to punish under-performers (Boachie-Mensah & Seidu, 2012). Furthermore, an average work performance of a particular employee can be replaced by a higher rating, should that employee show an outstanding performance in any sporting activity (Pattanayak, 2001). The replacement of a particular rating from low to high should be based on a factor, for example, neatness which is used in an institutional performance appraisal system (Mondy & Noe, 1996). The fact that employees are liked or disliked by their appraisers may have a detrimental effect on their assessment (Torrington *et al.*, 2009). Essentially, the manager tries to be consistent by generalising and gives one higher rating for a deserving employee known to every employee.

3.7 Horn Effect

The managers tend to generalise the negative performance of one employee by giving same negative rating to all employees (DeNisi & Griffin, 2016). Therefore, if managers generalise the positive performance of one employee, they could be tempted to apply the "pass-one-pass-all" approach when they reward employees and thus disregard the developmental purpose performance appraisal (Manyaka & Sebola, 2012).

3.8 The Recency Effect

The recency effect is the use of subjective performance measures based on the employee's most recent actions which plays a role during rating (Werther & Davis, 1996). A job well done could be replaced by any poor or average performance for the entire year (Kirkpatrick, 2006). This means that raters are influenced by the employee perception of performance to make a decision (Nel *et al.*, 2004). The manager exaggerates the employees' latest behaviours because they comply with institutional rules and policies only during appraisal periods. They could also come to work earlier and leave late for a specific purpose (Stone, 2008). Similarly, Pattanayak (2001) maintains that the manager forgets about the employee's disturbing behaviour that was so problematic throughout the year. In other words, managers are expected to be vigilant for this type of behaviour by ensuring that there is a real dramatic improvement in all the levels of performance, because after a good rating has been allocated, chances are that the employee's performance could deteriorate to zero improvement. Likewise, the recency effect does not promote freedom of expression because employees who openly give their views are often victimised.

3.9 Contrast Error

Contrast error is the tendency of the manager to rate an employee determined by how another employee has been rated, rather than against performance standards (Mathis & Jackson, 2003). According to Erasmus *et al.* (2011) an average performers receive poor ratings should they be found to be second best performers. The contrast error places managers in an awkward position, particularly when subordinates start to raise some contentious issues about performance appraisal criteria (Kirkpatrick, 2006). In this regard, performance should rather

be measured against performance standards as opposed to subjective and inconsistent rating.

4. Research Design, Methods and Procedures

The philosophical perspective of this study is interpretivism, which is the approach to qualitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Henning (2004) confirms that an interpretivist framework underlies a qualitative approach. In fact, interpretivist research is concerned primarily with the question of the trustworthiness of the qualitative data (Loseke, 2013). This research adopted a qualitative research design. In this regard, Paile (2012:44) asserts that qualitative research design seeks to understand both human and social interaction from the perspectives of insiders and participants' interaction. A case study design was chosen, which is essential to explore the manager-subordinate disagreement or conflict in relation to performance appraisal. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were utilised as data collection method. Further, the study used the purposive sampling approach. A sample of twenty-five (25) employees (operational staff members, managers and supervisors) was drawn from the Akasia Regional office, Pretoria Regional office (Byron Place), Mamelodi Medium office, Ga-Rankuwa (Odi) district office and Soshanguve North Medium office. This sample of twenty-five (25) employees was comprised of fifteen (15) were operational staff members or subordinates, five (5) were managers and five (5) supervisors. Inductive content analysis was applied to analyse data collected through interviews.

5. Results and Discussion

This section presents the opinions of research participants regarding the sources of conflicts or disagreements between managers and subordinates in relation to performance appraisal and their responses were aligned in terms of the following subthemes.

5.1 Inconsistent Measurement of Performance

The findings indicate that some participants are of the view that performance measurement is inconsistent. Such inconsistencies happen when employees perform tasks that are not linked to the key performance areas (KPA), which managers

and supervisors do not recognise when appraising employees' performance. Since the key performance areas reflect the key actions and activities that aim at ensuring an effective performance, these key performance areas should be included in the work plan of a particular employee (Erasmus *et al.*, 2011). This view was supported by the findings of Radebe (2015), which revealed that managers believed that the performance appraisal process was not effectively implemented, due to the absence of a mutual setting of performance criteria and objectives. Moreover, it is important that both managers and supervisors should apply a uniform standard during the performance appraisal process, with the right measurement tool. In relation to the issue of inconsistency of the performance appraisal process in the Department of Home Affairs, participants demonstrated that inconsistency can be perceived when there are no reported changes in terms of ratings. In this regard, some participants commented as follows:

"It can't be consistent if it changes now and then because if you check, a person can get what we call the performance bonus or the incentives ... like okay take it, today they give you maybe so much ... it is not stable if others may get it this year but next year they won't get it. These kind of ratings are not being consistent because they change now and then because of the work which we are doing in the Department. We are doing the same work at the same position why next year you won't get it, you are supposed to get it because you are doing the same job at the same time at the same level. There are supposed to be changes, it is not consistent and stable". (Operational staff member 1).

"According to my knowledge about this performance appraisal process, it is not consistent, based on the fact that when you assess employees, say for instance you assess 14 employees. At the end of the day the performance appraisal moderation committee will come back and say to you there is no money. That's where the challenges are, as supervisors will tell you the money must cater for all the offices, actually not only one office. That's our challenge and that is why I say it is not consistent" (Supervisor 1).

Public sector institutions are vested with the responsibility of arranging their basic requirements in line with each performance measurement instrument (Erasmus *et al.*, 2011). Similarly, the performance

measuring instrument should provide personal details such as the period in which the review is undertaken, surname, job title, comments by senior public sector manager, actual performance appraisal, scoring, and provision for training and development for it to be consistent.

5.2 Inaccurate Performance Measuring Instrument

The participants raised numerous concerns regarding the inaccuracy of the performance appraisal instrument. In fact, the participants indicated that they are not able to establish a link between their performance and monetary rewards due to the poor performance rating instrument. Some of the participants expressed their frustrations as follows:

"It is not accurate, because automatically it is the one standard performance agreement but you find that because you were doing more than what is on your contract and then denied a bonus. Immediately when you are denied a bonus they change your contract to fill all those duties that you were doing that are not on contract, so that with the final assessment you do, they will say 'But these are all your duties that you are supposed to do ...'" (Operational staff member 8).

The research participants are of the view that there are inaccuracies embedded in the performance appraisal instrument because even if employees go the extra mile, they still do not receive performance incentives. Moreover, the participants mentioned that they would be rated as average performers. Essentially, there should be an ideal performance appraisal instrument, which is described as the type of appraisal that is accurate and seeks to improve an employee's job performance and making administrative decisions (Kondrasuk, 2012).

5.3 Perception of Unfairness

The findings of this research indicate that employees of the Department of Home Affairs in Tshwane have less confidence in the performance appraisal process, due to perceptions of unfairness associated with this process. Consistent with the findings, Makhubela, Botha and Swanepoel (2016) state that the degree of employees' perception of fairness in relation to the performance appraisal process determines the extent to which they are likely to contribute towards institutional success. Some of

the participants expressed concerns about favouritism and unfairness, which is noticeable during performance appraisals:

"I don't think they trust us as supervisors to assess them fairly and objectively because they believe they are doing more than the way we assess them. When we assess them we follow the way the instrument has been designed and you find that is not reflecting what they are doing, so they believe that it is not fair because they are doing more but they are given less (in terms of scores)" (Supervisor 2).

"Supervisors are biased in the sense that favouritisms also affect a lot. When they favour you, no matter how you do, they will just say that you are okay. If you are not favoured that makes the whole judgemental process to be wrong, because of when they judge, they judge on their feelings. They don't look at your abilities and your strengths and what you can do. ... the favouritism within the office influences them. If somebody likes them favour you, whatever you do just goes. When they don't favour you, no matter how much you work, the attitude and favouritism makes everything to be not fair" (Operational staff member 10).

In line with the above responses, it is clear that employees are not content with the manner in which performance appraisals are conducted within the Department of Home Affairs. This could be one among a multitude of reasons why performance appraisals fail in some of the institutions. The more employees perceive their performance appraisal system as fair, the more they reported higher levels of trust and satisfaction with the appraisal system (Harrington & Lee, 2015). Because of favouritism during the performance appraisal process, employees who perform above average are not recognised and this leads to the development of negative perceptions about the entire process. A performance appraisal process should be unbiased, reflect fair judgement about how employees have performed and how they should be treated (Long & Kowang, 2013). Thus, an institution should depend upon the positive employee perceptions of performance appraisal fairness.

5.4 Presence of Situational Factors

The research findings reveal that various situational factors such as leadership style, stress and sexual orientation may negatively influence the performance

appraisal process ensuing in conflict between managers and subordinates. Some of the participants hold the view that women tend to be favoured during performance appraisals due to their gender.

"Yes, if I say leadership styles, there are people who are just leaders. Maybe they are charismatic leaders or they are leaders because other people like them. You end up giving performance bonuses to your friends. If you are the sexiest and like women you will not consider men but end up giving performance bonuses to ladies" Looking down (Operational staff member 1).

The research participants held a view that stress and leadership style greatly influence the performance appraisal process. In essence, poor leadership style may also result in bias and conflict. Equally important, poor leadership style may also result in poor ratings and prejudice. Further, a stressed manager may fail to afford a junior employee an opportunity to engage on issues affecting his/her performance. Participants echoed their feelings in this regard as follows:

"Stress can influence the accuracy of the performance appraisal. If I am stressed it is going to affect everything which is around me. How am I going to work under the influence of stress ...? Even if I came to work because I do not want to be absent from work, but then when I get here I am stressed, each and everything I do is because ...I am stressed and here in the workplace lots of people you can see they are stressed" Rubbing nose (Operational staff member 3).

"Leadership style can influence it because as a leader the person must motivate the subordinates so that they can do as expected. If a person is not motivated, you cannot expect him to perform very well so I can say sometimes leadership style can influence the accuracy of the performance appraisal. If it is not properly managed it can influence it badly" Leaning on the table (Manager 4).

Situational factors such as stress, sexual and racial bias or leadership style can immensely affect the accuracy of the performance appraisal (Erasmus *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, Kondrasuk (2012) asserts that leadership styles can cause performance appraisals to be subjected to some imbalances. In addition, leadership style influences the decision-making process because of the actions displayed by the autocratic leader who abuses

power and position to dominate everything, instead of encouraging his/her colleagues to take part in the process (Ahmad & Bujang, 2013:5). Getnet *et al.* (2014) state that work-related stress is a product of the perceptions of procedural unfairness. Once organisational stress increases, employee performance declines and so does job satisfaction (Mofoluwake & Oluremi, 2013). This suggests that should personal bias prevail; the performance appraisal system would be improperly conducted.

5.5 Unavailability of Funds

The findings of this study indicate that lack of fund for incentivising meritorious performance was problematic. Although money can be utilised to pay performance bonuses, employers should also consider non-financial rewards as a solution towards the unavailability of funds, such as anything that enhances a worker's sense of self-respect and esteem by others (Cascio, 1998). Ideally, the public sector institutions should plan thoroughly for their activities which also have to be budgeted for (Republic of South Africa, 2001). The absence of financial rewards in connection with performance constantly creates tension between managers and their subordinates. In fact, once some of the subordinates notice that the ratings will not yield any form of financial reward, conflict ensues. Managers and their subordinates in the Department of Home Affairs articulated mixed feelings regarding the issue of financial rewards:

"We can finish whatever we have and then we increase what is expected of employees ... knowing very well that in the long run we are not going to give performance appraisals and bonuses to all of them, the reason being that there are no funds available" (Manager 4).

"When coming to performance agreement I will say in my view everybody must qualify for this because we are working really hard, so unfortunately they will say there is no money" (Operational staff member 19).

5.6 Unclear Performance Standards and Targets

The research findings show that unclear performance standards and targets may contribute to conflict between the manager and subordinate during performance reviews. This could be attributed

to the fact that it becomes extremely difficult for subordinates to fully comprehend what is expected of them if performance targets are not clarified. At the same time, it could be difficult for the manager or supervisor to award a fair performance rating. As a result, conflict can easily emerge if these issues are not dealt with at the beginning of a financial year. Regarding the issue of unclear performance standards and targets, supervisors agree that some of the performance targets are unrealistic:

"Most of the time we don't even meet the requirements, because we don't meet the target because of some challenges that maybe we could solve before the target was set" (Supervisor 6).

"Performance appraisal does not have the actual targets that will make you reach the level where they say you have done your best as it shows each and every key result area (KRA). It shows something that we are doing on a daily basis, meaning that for you to reach the bonus level, you need to show them the whole box of what you are doing almost every day and that is difficult" (Supervisor 2).

The main reason why there are unclear performance standards and targets is that managers have a limited training on how to conduct a performance appraisal (Belcourt, Bohlander & Snell, 2011). Besides, Radebe, (2015) argues that performance standards should be clearly defined by indicating what measures are to be achieved. In addition, performance can be managed well when there are set standards that guide employees in terms of how they should perform (Makamu & Mello, 2014). In this regard, there is non-payment of performance bonuses to good performing employees, because most of the employees seem not to be aware of their performance targets.

5.7 Scarce Resources

The findings reveal that the absence of resources required to maximise performance may frustrate employees when managers rate them low. Research participants highlight the fact that they cannot be able to perform optimally in some instances due to lack of resources. Some of the views in this regard are captured by the following statements:

"We struggle a lot about the instrument to do the work, but I do whatever it takes to do my work. We don't have enough equipment to do the work" Shrugging (Operational staff member 16).

"Sometimes we cannot perform exactly what is expected of us, due to lack of resources of the department, for example we are using old machines like our computers ... we don't have modernised resources. We only have one printer in our office and you can imagine how big is this office, even our immigration (section) does not have systems to work on ... we lack the resources" (Supervisor 6).

The correct tools are supposed to be provided for the successful completion of tasks and for employees to meet their targets. In fact, these tools include management support, technological tools such as computers, training of employees, adequate human resources or man-power (Manyaka & Sebola, 2012). Moreover, Erasmus *et al.* (2011) contend that there should be an equivalent allocation of adequate resources to undertake the tasks. According to Luthuli (2009), if resources are scarce, conflict will rise between employees. As part of their responsibilities to manage poor performance, public sector institutions are also obligated to make tools available to employees so that they could meet their targets (Republic of South Africa, 2007b). Over and above this, the performance appraisal process should present managers with an opportunity to give guidance to subordinates, as to how the available resources could be utilised in line with the institutional strategic goals (Farndale & Kelliher, 2013).

5.8 Appraisal Timing and Lack of Evidence

The findings indicate that some of the participants indicated that timing of performance appraisal could also be a source of conflict between managers and subordinates, particularly if performance reviews are scheduled at a time when subordinates are not able to gather sufficient evidence to motivate their performance. One participant expressed the following view:

"Performance appraisal is done in a short space; it is done twice a year ... we don't have enough time to prepare for statistics. Supervisors will come today and say 'Please prepare your evidence and your statistics because your performance is to be appraised tomorrow' ... (Operational staff member 15).

The absence of enough performance evidence creates tension between managers and their subordinates. Managers and subordinates articulate

frustrations on this issue as follows:

"The way we are rated and the manner in which they need evidence ... if you perform they say they need evidence, ... and then when you perform they need evidence and you ask yourself 'what evidence?', because there is evidence already in my personnel file, but still they need one to provide evidence" (Operational staff member 2).

"At the end of the assessment employees have to get bonuses, the challenge is that some of them, even if they qualify, they lack evidence" (Supervisor 1).

Essentially, performance appraisal should be administered in terms of the work cycle that reflects adequate time for appraisals and outlining all the job responsibilities for a particular employee (Daley, 1992). Furthermore, Kondrasuk (2012) argues that rating employees according to the date they were appointed, allows managers to allow enough time to pass in order to have a productive appraisal. Performance appraisal enables managers to have proper time management in terms of how employees should be guided and to have their performance managed appropriately in the workplace (Van der Waldt, 2004). Essentially, performance appraisal requires that each line manager should appraise the performance of their staff on an annual, six-monthly or even quarterly basis (Torrington & Hall, 1995). Accordingly, public sector managers should consider evaluating employees at regular intervals to determine whether their performance is above what is being expected (Kondrasuk, 2012).

5.9 Unclear Performance Agreement

Largely, an unclear performance agreement deters employees from achieving institutional objectives and therefore renders the performance appraisal process ineffective. The participants expressed their frustrations regarding unclear performance agreements as follows:

"(If there is) no clear performance agreement, you see immigration services as if we had looked at the drafting of the key performance indicators (KPI's). They were based on what other regions were doing, which were incorporated and adopted and the situations are never the same, so not clearly defining the performance agreement and also expectations and how those will be executed also poses a challenge" (Supervisor 3).

"It is one standard performance agreement, but you find that because of the fact that you were doing more than what is on your contract and then denied for bonus, immediately ... they change the contract to fill all those duties that you were doing that are not in the contract, so that when the final assessment comes, they will say 'But these are all your duties that you are supposed to do ...'" (Operational staff member 8)

Accordingly, performance agreement should have to be entered into by an employer and an employee who also has to be reviewed annually. At the same time, performance agreement should be clear so that individual employees could be able to sign with ease (Erasmus *et al.*, 2011). Of particular importance is that performance agreement outlines the description of the job purpose, identification of key result areas, clear criteria and standards, agreement on a personal development plan, determination of performance-related rewards and dispute resolution mechanisms.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of this study suggest that manager-subordinate conflict during performance appraisal emerges as a result of inconsistent measurement of performance and inaccurate performance measuring instrument. Apart from these, conflict can be attributed to employee perceptions of unfairness in relation to the appraisal processes. Equally important, the findings have shown that situational factors such as stress, racial bias and leadership style could ensue in major tension between managers and their subordinates. In addition, unclear performance standards for staff members can create role confusion culminating in conflicts due to poor ratings linked to poor achievements. Based on these findings, it is essential for the Department of Home Affairs to ensure that managers are given suitable training opportunities to administer performance appraisal in a fair and consistent manner. At the same time, managers ought to be afforded training in terms of conflict prevention strategies and management thereof. Managers should be informed by the Leader-member Exchange Theory which advocates valuing, rewarding and recognising meritorious performance by employees within institutions. Moreover, the Department of Home Affairs needs to ensure that employees are provided specific, measurable and attainable performance targets or standards. This will assist in preventing role confusion, biased ratings as well as inconsistencies. It is

important to ensure that employees are informed of the various accessible and less cumbersome avenues available to them, particularly when they are not satisfied with their performance ratings.

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Assessing the Impact of Community Development Projects in Sustaining the Livelihoods of Project Beneficiaries: Evidence from Selected Projects in Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality in Limpopo Province

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Abstract: The aim of the study is to assess the impact of community development projects in sustaining the livelihoods of communities in Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. Community development projects play a significant role as a tool to improve socio-economic development of communities. These projects have been widely implemented in South Africa to promote and sustain the livelihoods of communities. Even though many projects are expected to generate income, assets, and capabilities for beneficiaries, their impact in sustaining livelihoods of communities is not clear when they are assessed. The study is based on mixed method approach with a sample of 20 participants, from five different types of projects, 4 participants from each project including project managers and beneficiaries. Interviews were used to collect primary and secondary data from the literature review and participants. The findings showed that although project beneficiaries assessed benefited in terms of income and employment, project interventions had a limited impact because they did not lead to any significant acquisition of assets by the beneficiaries. The study recommends that in order to promote and sustain the livelihood of the beneficiaries, customised training should be provided, community projects should be viewed as businesses, there should be continuous monitoring and evaluation from the investors or donors.

Keywords: Capability, Development, Livelihoods, Projects, Sustainability

1. Introduction

Community development projects play a significant role as a tool to enhance social and economic development of communities globally (Gilbert & Schipper, 2009:14). Rural households are engaged in many livelihood strategies to alleviate poverty. Pieterse (2010:55) stated that agricultural-based livelihood strategies are used by rural households include community gardens, (such as farming), keeping of large and small livestock, and poultry production. Community development had fostered an increase in international investments in agriculture, mainly in the form of financially strong private and public investors buying or leasing arable land on a long term basis in countries in Africa, East Europe, Central and Southeast Asia or Latin America. These land deals are seen as development opportunities by investors and governments of target countries, while NGOs and some media outlets refer to them as "land grabs" with a negative connotation (Nel & Binns, 2002:67). Governments and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) also mobilised people in the local communities in order to establish community development projects in every local community. The

motivation was that community members would be encouraged to create their own jobs for their own empowerment. The idea was that the community members will be able to improve their livelihoods and capabilities by generating incomes, through skills development, assets ownership, and efforts to save and invest into business (Ferdoushi, Chamhuri & Nor Aini, 2011:811). Development projects have been widely implemented in South Africa and the rest of the world in order to promote social and economic development. In South Africa, such projects date back to the pre-1994 era and have also been the hallmark of national development in the era of democracy (Tondaro & Smith, 2006:66). Since attaining democracy, the government has developed policies and strategies to advance community development. These include Reconstruction of Development Programmes, White Paper of 1998, and Local Economic Development Programmes (LED) (IDP, 2016/2017:09).

Community development is integrated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) under provisions on developmental local governance, section 152 and 153 and mandated local government to

assume a developmental role. Through the instrument of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), local government, in consultation with communities, identifies their development priorities and is expected to allocate resources and support implementation thereof (IDP 2016/2017:12). Local government is one of the spheres of government nearest to local communities is well placed to identify, drive and implement programmes aimed at addressing growth and development challenges facing South Africa. Pieterse (2000:37) stated that increasingly, municipalities have assumed an important role in ensuring that substantive and beneficial development takes place within their jurisdictions. One of the challenges facing the municipality is the alleviation of poverty and the creation of job opportunities in rural areas (IDP, 2016/2017:10). The paper presents: the definition of concepts, problem statement, aim and objectives, literature review, theoretical framework adopted, research methodology, results and discussions and lastly conclusion and recommendation of the study.

2. Problem Statement, Aim and Objectives of the Study

In response to the many development challenges facing the Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality, a number of community development projects have been initiated such as crop farming, poultry, tourism, livestock projects and etc. Some of these projects are successful and some are collapsing, municipal IDP indicates that livestock projects are more successful than others (IDP, 2016/2017:48). However, it is not clear if whether these projects had a positive impact on the livelihoods of the beneficiaries. Some projects are collapsing and projects beneficiaries become jobless, those who are still working complain about the status of their projects. The main aim of this paper is to assess the impact of community development projects in sustaining the livelihoods of project beneficiaries in Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality. The study was guided by the following key research objectives: (i) To assess the impact of these projects on the livelihoods of community members, (ii) To examine the monitoring and evaluation of the community development projects and (iii) To suggest strategies that can be implemented in order to address any issues that might emerge from the study. The key research questions were: (i) What is the impact of projects on the livelihoods of community members, (ii) How are projects implemented, monitored and evaluated,

and (iii) Which strategies that can be implemented in order to address the emerged issues?

3. Literature Review

3.1 Community Development Projects as a Tool for Development

Poverty in rural areas is strongly associated with lack of assets, or inability to put assets to productive use. Capital assets that can be used productively by rural people to sustain and secure their livelihoods are human, physical, financial, social and natural capital (Ferdoushi, Chamhuri & Nor Aini, 2011:811). Hamilton-Peach and Townsley (2004:44) describe the sustainable livelihood approach as a way of improving understanding of the livelihoods of poor people. Different livelihood strategies are employed in order to reach livelihood security. Livelihood security is the adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic household needs (including adequate access to food, potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing and time for community participation and social integration).

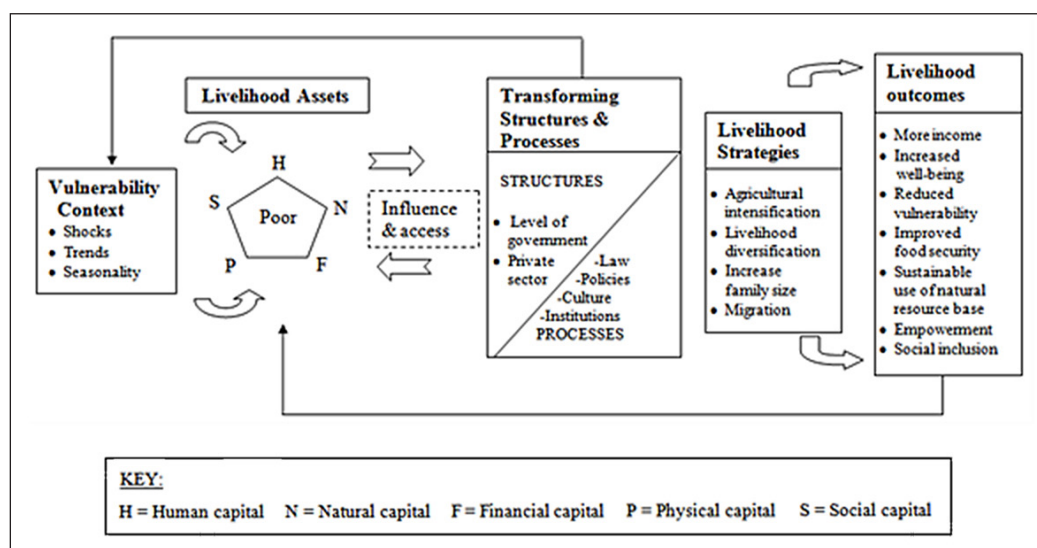
Agricultural community projects play a significant role in sustaining the livelihoods of community members nationwide. Studies conducted on crop farming shows that projects play a major role in agriculture and the enhancement of livelihood of communities. Crops may be grown for own consumption and for marketing by communities. Different types of crops are grown in different seasons of the year. A study conducted by Dinka (2010:67) in KZN shows that crops grown in that area by project beneficiaries include sweet potatoes, maize and sugar-cane. The marketing of these crops is done to generate income and to improve the living standards of the households. Sugar cane has a well-established market since there are sugar millings, where sugar cane is processed to sugar in most rural areas.

3.2 Theoretical Framework: Linking Projects to Sustainable Livelihoods

3.2.1 Sustainable Livelihoods (SLA) Approach

The approach takes into account the livelihood assets of people (human, natural, economic or financial, social and physical capital). The livelihoods of the people are influenced by the context (shocks, trends and seasonality) and by policies, institutions and processes. If policies, institutions and processes assist people to survive and prosper in

Figure 1: Sustainable Livelihood Framework Diagram



Source: Ferdoushi *et al* (2011)

the vulnerability context (of shocks, trends and seasonality) and improve livelihood outcomes without negatively affecting the environment, sustainable livelihoods are enhanced (Ferdoushi *et al.*, 2011:811). The framework helped the researchers to be able to assess the impact in terms of project beneficiaries being able to afford a better living standard for example, being able to save, invest, buy materialist, asset accumulation and sending their children to varsity. See Figure 1.

4. Research Methodology

The research method adopted in this study is mixed method approach, which uses a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The study relied more on qualitative method but also made some limited use of quantitative method in the form of frequency distributions and graphs. The qualitative method enables the researchers to gather authentic data from participants who live in the specific reality that is being explored and analysed. The researcher is therefore able to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of study (Rawal, 2001:33). It was for this reason that the researchers carefully choose to interview the beneficiaries of selected projects.

4.1 Sample, Sampling Methods and Sample Size

In this study the sample was based on the target population of various community development projects in Lepelle-Nkumpi municipality (Zone A, Mathabatha, Makurung village, Mamaolo and Sepanapudi Area).

The researchers have adopted purposive sampling which falls under non-probability sampling method. The study was based on mixed method approach where a small sample of 20 beneficiaries (5 managers and 15 employees) within five different types of projects (crop farming (4 participants), chicken farming (4 participants), ECD (4 participants), tourism (4 participants) and manufacturing (4 participants)). Five community projects were selected out of 70 community projects and only 20 participants were interviewed.

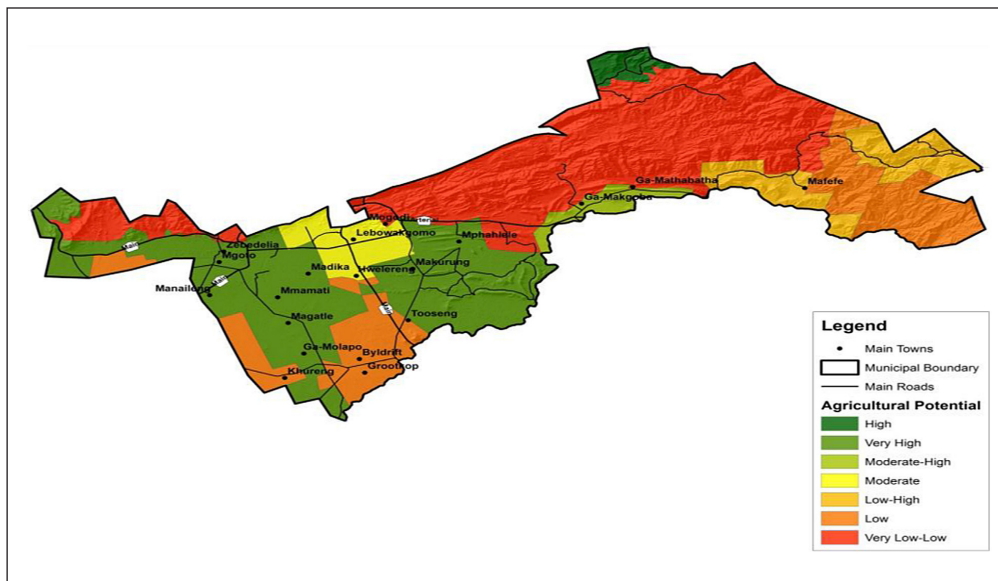
4.2 Data Sources

Data were obtained from both primary and secondary source, for the purpose of this study, primary data were collected from projects beneficiaries of Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality. Therefore, secondary data were collected through the review of project documents from Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality. Journals, articles, books, internet, municipality documents, IDP reports, municipality annual reports and other literature also contributed to enriching the findings of this study.

5. Data Collection Procedure

The procedure for data collection started with sending of a letter to the municipality requesting permission to conduct the study. This was followed by a consultation with relevant stakeholders in the LED unit, project managers, beneficiaries and community development officers. The purpose of the consultation was to seek permission to interview them. The

Figure 2: Area of Study



Source: www.maps.lepelle-nkumpi.gov.za (16/04/2017)

topic under investigation was discussed during the meetings with the participants before they gave their consent to participate in the study.

5.1 Data Collection Methods

Semi-structured interviews were used as a data collection method and the interview schedule guide was used during interviews on twenty participants involved in five identified projects within the municipality. Face to face interview was fostered with projects managers who were involved in community development as they were knowledgeable about the issues involving community projects and livelihoods and focus groups were administered with project beneficiaries because they tend to encourage participation.

5.2 Data Analysis

The data collected in this study was in a form of qualitative data. Thematic analysis was used to process the data. This is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organises and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, it also often goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87).

5.3 Area of Study

Figure 2 portrays the area of study which was at Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality which is located 61km southern part of the Capricorn district and

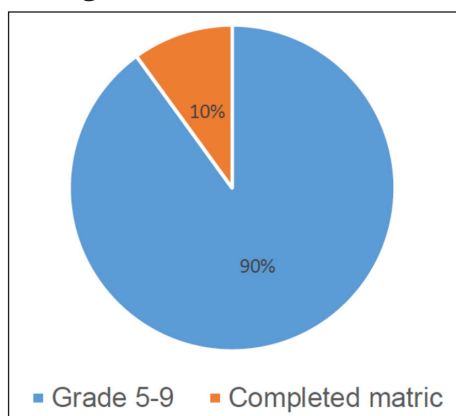
Polokwane city. According to the Stats SA Census 2011 results, the municipality has an estimated population of 230 350 people with a total of 59 682 households and an average household size of 3.9. There are 30 wards in the municipality with an average size of 8000 people (IDP, 2016/2017:59).

5.4 Population

The population of the study was 70 community projects which are spread in five clusters within the municipality named: Lebowakgomo, Zibedella, Mafefe, Mathabatha and Mphahlele clusters (IDP, 2016/2017:58). The sample for the study were five different projects so that each type of project can be explored based on its uniqueness.

6. Results and Discussions

The main objective of this paper was to analyse and present data collected in the experience of the respondents in terms of the impact of community projects in sustaining the livelihoods of the community at Lepelle-Nkumpi Local community. Data were gathered through observations and interviews with respondents participating in various five community projects (Mamaolo Crop Production, Mbaol Poultry, Mathabatha Arts and Cultural Projects), Phaahla Nkushu ECD project and Itsoseng Bakery project with a sample of nine project beneficiaries and two municipal officials. The data collected were subjected to qualitative analysis through thematic coding. Based on the analytical framework of SLA; the interview

Figure 3: Educational Level

Source: Authors

guide examined a wide range of issues. The results are presented in the following way: responses from project beneficiaries.

6.1 Personal Characteristics of the Respondents

6.1.1 Gender and Age of Participants

The description of the personal profiles of the respondents is as follows: the participants were mostly middle-aged men and women between the ages of 45-50. The result suggests that married women and men benefited more from the project as compared to single men, in terms of gender most of participants were females.

6.1.2 Educational Attainment

The findings showed similarities across different types of projects investigated in terms of educational qualifications of the beneficiaries. These similarities are that most of the participants attained western education and dropped out in grade Five-Nine, as indicated in Figure 3, few of the participants reported to have completed matric. The findings imply that most of the participants are illiterate or uneducated, and lack of participation in projects by the learned fraction in communities.

7. Description of Projects

7.1 Mamaolo Crop Production

The project is located in between Zone A and Mamaolo village and was initiated in 2008. It was established by two women. Their aim was to alleviate poverty and to create employment. The project had twelve employees, including the project manager and assistance manager. The products found

within the project are crops or vegetables such as spinach, tomatoes, cabbage and beetroot. The project gets their inputs from the Department of Agriculture. Sometime they buy their inputs from NTK (industrial) in Polokwane.

7.2 Mbao Poultry Project

Mbao Poultry Project is situated at Sepanapudi village near Lebowakgomo shopping mall. The project was initiated in 2010 by a community member who is now a project manager. The aim of the project was to alleviate poverty and to create employment. The main activity of the project is production of chickens. The project buys small chicks at a factory in Polokwane called Limpopo Voere. The project also buys chicken feeds for these chickens, and when they are fully grown, the chickens are sold to the community.

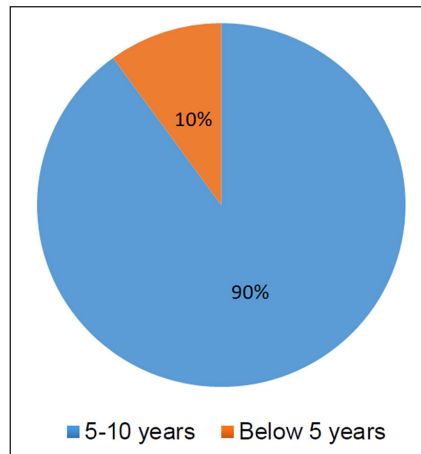
7.3 Mathabatha Arts and Cultural Project

Mathabatha Arts and Cultural Project is located at Lebowakgomo area. The main activities of this project is to preserve culture and to attract tourists. The project produces and promotes traditional symbols and cultural dances, and sews cultural necklaces, bracelets, clothes, visual arts and crafts. The project generates funds by selling cultural products and charging entrance fees from tourists and local community.

7.4 Phaahla Nkushu Project

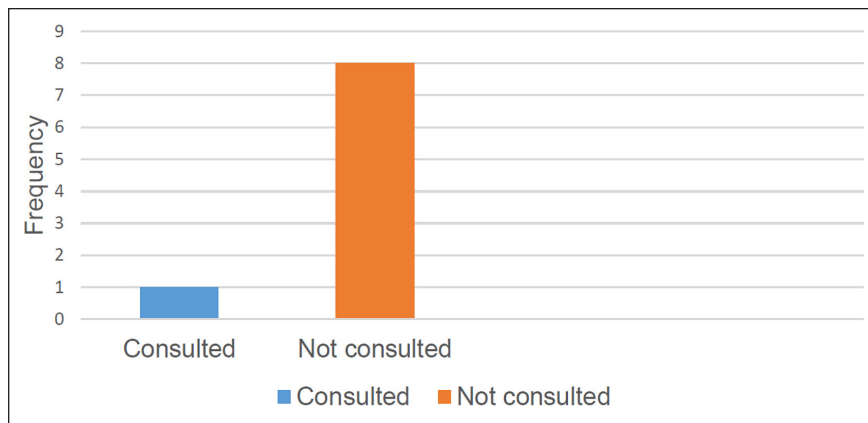
Phaahla Nkushu ECD Project is situated at Makurung village. The project was initiated by four women from the community. The aim for initiating the project was to alleviate poverty, to create employment and to protect children from abuse. The main activities of

Figure 4: Years Participating in the Project



Source: Authors

Figure 5: Participants Consulted in Initiation and Implementation of Projects



Source: Authors

this project is to nurture, care and protect children in the community by offering them pre-education, care and protection.

7.5 Itsoseng Bakery Project

Itsoseng Bakery Project was located at Makurung village and it was initiated by five women within the community. The project had 14 employees, and their duties were to produce and sell bread, pancakes products in the community. The project sustained itself through consuming inputs from Polokwane factories such as A1 supermarket, Macro Company and the project has collapsed.

8. Results and Discussions

The study looked at the number of years participating in project and the impact of community development projects on the livelihoods of beneficiaries. The following are the key results from the study:

8.1 Number of Years Participating in Project

The findings showed similarities between the projects as portrayed in Figure 4. Most of the participants showed to have had more than 5-10 years working experiences in the projects. Few participants showed variations of below 5 years. This implies that the community development projects have long been operating in the local municipality of Lepelle-Nkumpi. But their impact in sustaining the livelihood of communities remains questionable.

8.2 The Impact of Community Development Projects on the Livelihoods of Beneficiaries

In this context the following were probed, initiation of projects and implementation, Projects monitoring and financial support, Products and marketing, Income and Asset acquired and training or workshops attended for skills development.

8.2.1 Initiation of Projects and Implementation

Based on the findings from the above mentioned projects, the results show similarities between the projects in terms of initiation, implementation and consultation. Most of the participants indicated that they found the projects operating when they applied for employment. Few participants in management positions reported to have been involved in the design and implementation of the projects. The results showed that most of the participants were not involved in decision-making and implementation of the projects and, as a result, the sustainability of livelihoods of the participants was not enhanced as they did not feel a sense of ownership of the projects. Coles and Genus (2016:87) argue that local participation in community development projects play a significant role and community members need to be consulted and involved in decision making in order to ensure the success of the projects, failure will lead to ineffective of community projects. See Figure 5.

8.2.2 Projects Monitoring and Financial Support

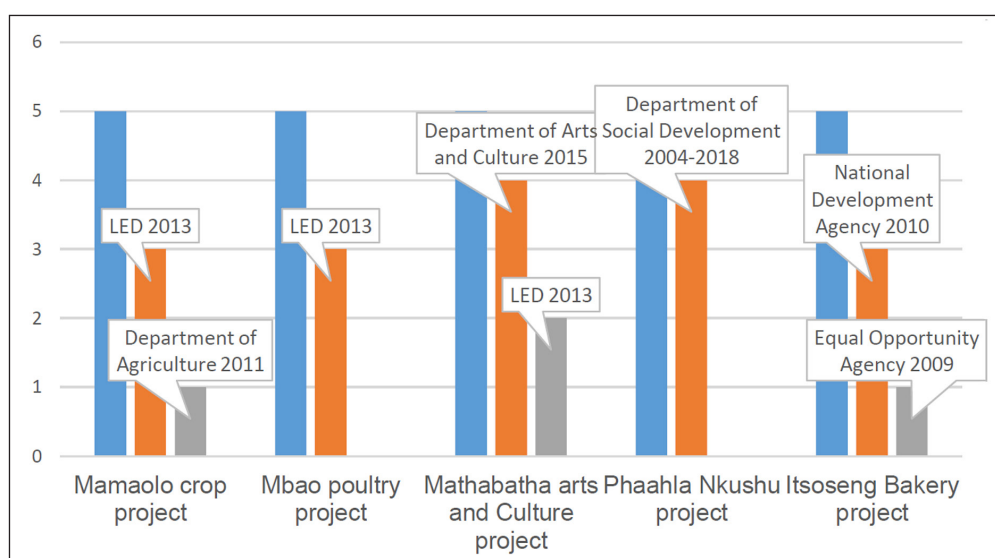
As shown in Figure 6, based on the evidence from the above mentioned projects, there were similarities in terms of funds received from various government departments and donors. The projects showed that they were financially funded after applying to various departments. Some similarities shown were that the projects were not monitored by government officials and donors. The results showed that the projects were initiated by community members not by government. The findings are validated by

scholars such as Moon and Indemudia (2012:44) who argue that in order to promote the sustainable livelihoods of communities, governments and private sectors need to engage in activities intended to build the community's human capital (e.g. training for skills development, expanding the leadership base and developing an entrepreneurial spirit).

8.2.3 Products and Marketing

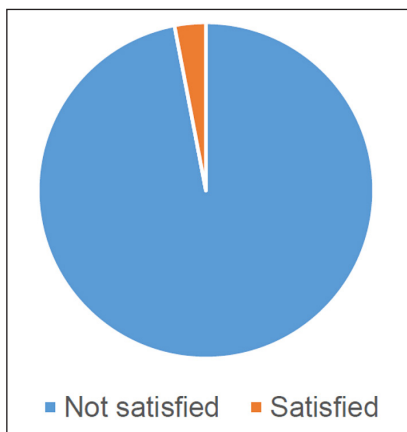
Evidence revealed that lack of appropriate up-markets for the products also reduced the possibility of most of the projects to break-even and subsequently thrive in the competitive business industry. The environments in which the majority of these projects are operating are at rural and township settings where the buying power is not sufficient to increase their financial viability. The markets targeted by the projects are pay-points and communities; the projects do not have specific suppliers. This has serious financial implications on the profitability of entities operating in such environments. However, the findings revealed that most community projects did not have a positive impact in sustaining the livelihoods of the beneficiaries and, as a result, some participants are unmotivated and discouraged. The results indicated that most of the projects adopted charity characteristics of expecting continued financial support set in most of the projects without proper marketing, management, quality assurance and market research being conducted. Most projects therefore found it difficult to maximise profits due to the market's lack of positive response to their products.

Figure 6: Financial Support



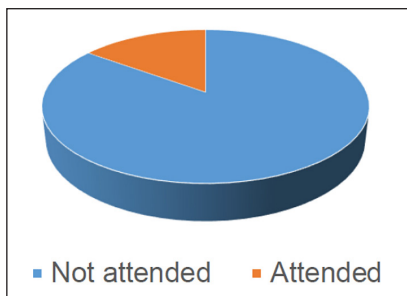
Source: Authors

Figure 7: Income and Asset Received



Source: Authors

Figure 8: Workshops Attended



Source: Authors

8.2.4 Income and Asset Acquired

Evidence revealed that most of the participants from five projects earned less than R2000.00. The income was not adequate to meet their household needs or well-being. It was indicated that the income that the participants received was not enough to buy household groceries, and they showed dissatisfaction of the income that they received as portrayed in the pie chart. Therefore, the findings indicate that the projects investigated do not have a positive impact in sustaining the livelihoods of the project beneficiaries in terms of income, capabilities, empowerment, sustainability and assets. This led to the collapse of one project as it was unable to have a positive impact on the livelihood of project beneficiaries. See Figure 7.

8.2.5 Training or Workshops Attended for Skills Development

The SLA indicates that livelihood assets for human capital are enhanced when project beneficiaries are able to receive adequate health, nutrition, education, knowledge and skills, capacity to work and capacity to adapt (Ferdoushi *et al.*, 2011:811). As indicated in Figure 8, the findings indicate that most of the participants did not receive formal training and

workshops for skills development since they have been employed. The findings further revealed that most of the project beneficiaries have been working within their projects without skills, knowledge and competency of managing projects. This had a negative impact in sustaining their livelihood where few participants from Phaahla Nkushu ECD Project indicated that they received training and capacity building. Lack of capacity building and skills development led to incompetency of operating projects, which had a negative impact in sustaining the livelihoods of beneficiaries. This may be one of the reasons which led to the collapse of Itsoseng Bakery Project. The findings are contradicting with the following theories: the capability approach and the sustainable livelihood approach Sen (2005:44) and Ferdoushi *et al.* (2011:17).

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

It was evident that the projects were initiated in response to poverty, unemployment and other social challenges which exist in the municipality. The findings revealed that the projects were initiated for the purpose of promoting culture, the creation of employment and the alleviation of poverty. Although

the study was based on a small sample of projects in Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality, some useful findings were unearthed. Based on the analytical framework of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach, it was found that even though these projects did generate some jobs and incomes to the beneficiaries, they were not impacting significantly on their livelihoods.

A number of observations led the researchers to this conclusion. Firstly, most of the participants were not included in the design of the projects and decision-making. Secondly, the impact of the projects was not as expected because the income generated was not adequate for the needs of the beneficiaries. Thirdly, the beneficiaries did not acquire any assets from the income received, and did not feel empowered by virtue of having participated in the projects; as a result, there was no ownership. Lastly, the projects were not financially sustainable, implying that their future existence was questionable. The researchers therefore concluded that these projects are not a viable basis for the sustainability of livelihoods of the beneficiaries. Therefore, it is recommended that the municipality can also draw lessons from this study. In particular, they could consider the following specific recommendations which emanate from the study:

9.1 Customised Training of Community Project Members

Community projects that are funded by government departments should be taken through a series of customised training programmes that suit the respondents' educational levels and the type of business ventured into with a view of improving on the current levels of performance.

9.2 Community Projects as Businesses

Community projects should be seen or viewed as business ventures than just mere poverty alleviation projects. They should therefore be run as businesses rather than as projects entitled to funded by sponsors. Currently, members expect to be recipients of financial support from sponsors rather than refine the quality of their products in order to appeal to, and attract, more clients.

9.3 Monitoring and Evaluation of Sponsored Community Projects

Municipalities need to assist in the monitoring of state funded projects and integrate their update

reports during their public participation programmes for the projects to be held accountable on the utilisation of public funds and resources.

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Power Contestations in Student Representative Council Elections: Technicalities Used to Divert People's Wishes

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Abstract: Elections are one of the tools of democracy in relation to the establishment of the government of the people, by the people, for the people. Universities informed by the Higher Education act 101 of 1997, and various statutes of universities, conduct Student Representative Council (SRC) elections annually or biannually for distance education such as University of South Africa (UNISA). It is by nature of the elections that the wishes of the electorates are the cutting stone to determine who leads. The SRC elections in South Africa Higher Education institutions remains a "*hot potato*" to swallow, and it is always a question how and why the situation makes democracy to decline. The paper accesses the strength and the application of the electoral procedures whether being able to respond to the challenges to uphold elections that are above board. The behaviour of student organisations are always hostile particularly if results or decisions are not favouring their student political movement. These intolerant behaviour compromises an environment of free and fair elections from the observation of how hostile is the situation in various universities during the SRC election period. The paper is presenting an opportunity to relook into the electoral systems; rule of law and compliance; political intolerance; voter apathy and democratic decline; Conflict and anarchy; objection procedure and fairness; voting systems; endorsement of results and acceptability. These concepts review literature through the empirical evidence of the annual or biannual SRC elections. The paper is diagnostic towards solution to the escalating challenges of SRC elections in universities as randomly observed. The paper intends to use the conclusion and provide basic steps to be taken in improving the challenges that surround student governance at the period of annual and biannual SRC elections.

Keywords: Elections, Democracy, Electoral system, Fairness, Integrity, Political parties, Tolerance

1. Introduction

In recognition of the modern higher education in the democratic South Africa, Higher Education Act 101, of 1997 as amended acknowledge the existence of a body of governance that is elected annually to represent the views of the students within the institutional governance setting. It is in principle to first outline the existence of the Student Representative Council (SRC) as a manifestation of a democratic process, which give appetite to reflect on what constitute democracy from the literature point of view and at a practical level. Schmitter and Karl (1991) broadly define democracy for instance as a generic concept that distinguish it as a unique system for organising relations between rulers and the ruled. The formation of the SRC is meant to be a representation of the voice of the students, which is reflected through balloting system. Elections are often a political manifestation of a democratic process, which Schmitter and Karl (1991) argue that modern political democracy is a system of governance in which rulers are held accountable for their actions in the public realm by citizens, acting

indirectly through the competition and cooperation of elected representatives. The SRC elections is expected on annual basis, which the essence is to explain how tediousness the process is, and how student organisations often attempt to faulting of rules and eventually collapse the elections if they are not favourable. The fundamental question is what happened to elections being the expression of the majority of the students. It is very strange that while the student leadership and activists celebrated the dawn of democracy in 1994, and embrace a new order of higher education that respect the role of students in institutional governance, adherence to rule of law that constitutes principle of democracy still lacking behind. It looks like students use expediency with no respect for democracy. Van Reybrouck (2016) suggests that the degree of enthusiasm is nothing short of spectacular, especially in the light of the fact that less than seven years ago, democracy was in a very bad way as a result of fascism, communism and colonialism. These elements have never done well for inclusive institutional governance. For instance, fascism has always been in the centre of student organisational deployment, which

threatens internal democracy within student organisations, which ultimately affect the running of SRC elections. The persistence of fascism and political intolerance has seen using technical flaws, which does not make any material change on the results as the means to nullify the majority voices of the students. Beviá, Corchón and Romero-Medina (2017) proclaim that the study the evolution of political power and show that in some cases, rational agents who value the future may yield political power to another class. The basic principle reaffirms that it shows that student leaders value their assumption of power that that of the views expressed by the student population. It is therefore that the fear of losing power overtakes the very existence of democratic process that must produce the SRC. The paper as a qualitative and is based on the author's experience and observations of SRC elections in Higher Education sector.

2. Overview of the Electoral Systems

SRC elections are conducted using electoral models that are adopted through varies institutional SRC Constitutions as approved by the governing Councils of various universities. Bonneau and Cann (2015) argue that for decades, scholars have been interested in the effect of party identification on vote choice. Indeed, candidate party affiliation is seen as the most meaningful cue to voters in terms of which candidate they should support. The SRC elections in universities recognises the party systems in embracing student organisations. In the overview, there are two common systems that SRC elections adopted by various institutions, and later deal with the how student organisations have tried to manipulate them to suite their own circumstances. The first model identified in this area of elections of the SRC is "First-Past-the-Post" model, which Smyth (2017) argues that rankings can be represented as candidates and voters can cast ballots for the candidate that represents their ranking. However, it is notable that the pervasive stand-offs by student leaders is always to reject independent candidate to get into this space, which is against the model of posturing individuals who have no relationship with any student organisation. This reaffirms the gatekeeping of democracy to be control by only student organisations, not by quality of leadership. This empirical evidence has proven that elections can often collapse if the interpretation to close none-partisan is not working. In the administration of SRC elections, the "First-Past-the-Post" model has assisted to clean conflicts

that comes with the organisational squabbles at the nomination phase on the basis that when ballot is drawn, it would have defined who the candidate is and they contest without any party interference after the elections.

The application of the Promotional Representation (PR) system or model of elections being adopted in some universities, which Cox, Fiva and Smith (2019) state that a prominent line of theories holds that proportional representation (PR) was introduced in many European democracies by a fragmented bloc of conservative parties seeking to preserve their legislative seat shares after franchise extension and industrialisation increased the vote base of socialist parties. The more push from student organisation to advance the PR system on the basis that it empowers them to monopolise power in the SRC, which has been observed as a factor motivating the persistence to be in power regardless. The PR system constitutes a reactive strategy and mechanism of managing SRC elections because, elections are first completed before the deployment is made, which postponed the squabbles. Cox, Fiva and Smith (2019) further argue that several scholars have previously challenged the dominant seat-maximisation theory of PR adoption. However, it advances the power sharing in line with the votes expressed by students, unlike "First-Past-the-Post" that is observed creating SRC's as one party state, which is a danger for democracy.

3. Compliance with Electoral Policy and Fairness

Each university has its electoral policy that governs SRC elections, which is subjected to the Electoral Act 73 of 1998, inclusive of its regulations. The electoral act pushes for transparency and credibility as basic principles of conducting elections. Norris (2017) argues that transparency is usually regarded as one of the core principles which should be followed, where officials lay out their goals, responsibilities and constraints, providing information about citizens' rights and voting procedures, engaging with stakeholders on a regular basis, and giving reasons for decisions and rulings. In some cases, the contestation of a decision is found even being appealed to the offices of the university management that has nothing to do with the process of SRC elections and no provision of the electoral policies support such actions. Elections emphasizes on accountability, which Dai (2006) argues that, although democratic

institutions intensify the degree of electoral accountability, which leads to a higher level of compliance, which depends on the political attributes of competing interests. The compliance requires accountability with rules that are fair to level the ground, however, it is always observed that the seating SRC always proposes Electoral Policy to university governing Council to close power for others on a long term basis, for instances, only allowing organisation that have national platforms to close those that might emerge as a way of gatekeeping. Dai (2006) underscores that the more regularly competitive elections are held or the more election results bind the policy maker's fate of staying in power, the more the compliance policy is biased toward the group with more political leverage and informational advantage.

The electoral policy should be based on basic principles of democracy and must embrace growth in the choice that citizens have to make. It is always that the game is to deliberately misquote the electoral policy to overhaul the process, which is the technicalities that are the crux. In understanding that elections constitute game of multiple players Dai (2006) posits through this fundamental question is that how and under what conditions do democratic institutions induce a higher level of compliance? Which he developed a game-theoretic model to address this question? However, the control mechanism of the elections in this case is the electoral policy, which the question is how fair it is and how is it understood by the student organisations to ensure that there is compliance and fairness.

4. Political Intolerance and Elections

It is often necessary to proclaim that elections require peace and stability in order for the voters to have a conducive atmosphere when exercising their democratic rights. While elections are about campaigns and sloganeering, it is often that student organisations create no go areas for other, which create an atmosphere of hostility and intolerance. This phenomenon is not new to student governance, as it happens in the National and Provincial government elections as observed in KZN in the past, which manifest conflicts and tensions. Conflicts often arise in the period build-up to elections, during elections and post elections, and therefore, conflict is often associated with none tolerance of co-existence by various student organisations. Elections are the centrepiece of efforts to rehabilitate countries devastated by civil conflict, and they are held increasingly often and

early, Flores and Nooruddin (2012) further argue that the inability of post conflict politicians to commit credibly to respect peace and democracy implies that elections will inflame tensions unless countries have previous democratic experience or elections are delayed to allow for institution building. The point of departure is to answer the question of why these conflicts exists in the running of SRC elections that is supposed to be a space to learn how democracy prevails in the society in general at a lower scale in universities.

Political intolerance is understood as negative campaigning. Mitchell (2016:5) suggest that there is little agreement amongst academics on whether positive or negative campaigning is most effective. Some researchers suggest that negative campaigning can demobilise and demoralise. While SRC elections campaign is marked by propaganda, negative insinuation for other candidates or opposition parties. This is against the very essence of electioneering, which Maier and Jansen (2017) state that election campaigns are designed as a transfer of information from those who want to get elected (i.e. parties, candidates) to those who have the power to decide who will be in office after an election (i.e. voters). It is hard to understand how engaging on disparaging campaign can assist to advance one's political ambitions to power, but negating an opportunity to sell the organisational manifesto. It is arguable that these are some of the acts that make SRC elections campaign to take a toll, and create an atmosphere of hostility.

Maier and Jansen (2017) underscore that the use of negativity in election campaigns is the subject of great controversy. Democracy is about competition and choices – as well as the duty of the opposition to be critical of the actions of government, some scholars argue. The SRC elections campaigns have been a subject of violence given the negative strategy of campaigning as if is fashionable to do, and this elements of campaign contribute to collapse of elections. The competition is observed being that of stand-offs marked by violence to create discomfort of opposing parties. The concept of logic retaliation becomes pervasive during SRC elections, which Dolezal, Ennser-Jedenastik and Müller (2016) argue that the extant literature has demonstrated that the logic of retaliation is a core feature of negative campaigning. Attacks by one side induce counterattacks by the other. Yet most research on the interactive nature of negative campaigning is limited to

two-party competition and provides little theoretical justification for why political actors should respond to attacks with counterattacks. The phenomenon of SRC elections is confronted by negative completion of electioneering that threatens democracy, due to its nature of violence, which is expected that at the young age, effort of building a peaceful society should be moulded, but efforts has always remained constrained given the pervasiveness of the situation.

In examining electoral violence from evidence based point of view, Seeberg, Wahman and Skaaning (2018) state that two and half decades after the broad reintroduction of African multi-partyism, research on African elections has matured significantly. Scholars of contemporary democratisation have devoted much energy to uncovering the dynamics of interparty competition, noting how the weakness of political opposition has affected the prospects for real competition and democratic consolidation. These scotches of violence and intolerance during SRC elections are not only due to the competition amongst different student political organisations, but also emerge from internal contestation that affects the nomination process and constituting of the SRC structure where PR system is used. Seeberg *et al.* (2018) in the review of literature underscore that when inter-party competition is low, nationally or locally, electoral politics becomes a matter of intra-party, rather than inter-party, struggle.

The intra-party politics add to the intolerance and creation of an atmosphere that is not democratic, which Ceron (2016) suggests that given that political parties are composed of a variety of subgroups retaining different policy preferences and contrasting political ambitions, the role of intra-party politics in the bargaining process should be taken into account. The line of enquiry in this case is whether the intra-party conflicts in student politics as it relates to SRC elections has anything to do with policy or ideological context, which the experience of the author observes all these as preference to power to serve the factional politics, clientelism and patronage, which caused institutions of higher learning pain consistently. Any losing faction always plan to collapse the process, and is even more pervasive if is one student political party against the other.

5. Voter Apathy and Electoral Decline

Elections, by their nature of existence, require the masses to declare their choice of leadership. The

fundamental question is whether the students are voting in numbers and what motivates them to vote. Youth participation in elections is not a new matter of discussion. Hofmeyr (2004 in Oyedemi and Mahlatji, 2016) states that youth appears to increasingly dissociate themselves from formal politics due to a sense of alienation or even marginalisation from the political environment characterised by elite bargaining and a failure to address issues that directly affect them. It is arguable that youth votes constitute a future investment in maturing democracy on the basis that if young people are unable to participate into this important democratic process, it absolutely threatens democracy from its growth. It is therefore that identifying what drives young people to vote, or abstain from doing so, is critical to strengthening democracy (Tracey, 2016). It is important to acknowledge that paradigm shift creates new norms and standards of living. Elections constitute a political process that older generations before 1994 in the age of hope, the society in South Africa valued the importance of voting. However, politics are no longer a concern of the current generation, which Cammaerts, Bruter, Banaji, Harrison and Anstead (2014) argue that a common interpretation of the low levels of electoral turnout among young voters is that they are apathetic and part of a generation that does not care about political issues – indeed, a selfish and materialistic generation.

One of the key question that youth always ask is what constitute the benefits of voting, which this question has defeated any conceptual understanding of the people's government on the basis that the material conditions are still the same. Cammaerts *et al.* (2014) note that when talking about participation, it becomes apparent fairly quickly that many people have different conceptions as to what participation actually means and entails. It is often that if government has failed to deliver, the citizens go awl during elections, and the fundamental question is whether does it mean that SRC's in universities have failed in their electoral mandates? The affirmation of this question is whether as well SRC's lost meaning? SRC elections in the universities constitute a field for students to always be reminded how voting blend the emerging democracy in a society outside the university boarder due to its frequency of polls (annual basis). However, this has proven to not assist as many university SRC elections are struggling to reach a threshold of 25% voter's turnout, which threatens an ongoing validity of SRC elections. The voter apathy threatens political life

of a democratic state. Farthing (2010) underscores that young people's relationship with contemporary politics is complex and often problematised. They are often chastised as the apolitical harbingers of an incipient 'crisis of democracy' while simultaneously heralded as the authors of sophisticated new forms of politics, most notably within electronic realms. This new generation of democratic order reaffirms that there is no democracy that exist for more than two decades without persistence and hardship to grow with no compromised. This is against the understanding that youth constitute an important segment of growing society. It is commonly accepted today that many young people in a globalised world cease to see the relevance of state-based politics or state-oriented activism and are no longer finding meaning in or opportunities for traditional modes of affiliation and participation (Harris, Wyn and Younes, 2010). Having noted the persistence of literature which observes that youth are pulling back from electoral platform, which Rampedi (2017) posits that perceptions around youth and electoral politics centre around the idea that young people are apathetic towards politics, that they dismiss politics in the early stages of their lives and only engage with them later on. Rampedi (2017) in the review of literature asserts that young people's attitudes towards elections are analysed using four themes: governance, liberation legacy, democratic duty, and change. It is in the view that students in universities are a society that suffocates growth of democracy due to observed nature of silent participation in both active student struggles and voting, which reaffirms that politics in the modern new order of sophisticated democracy is for downtrodden and not for privileged students who are occupied by other *new normal* struggles.

6. Elections Conflict and Anarchy

It is paramount to conceptualise what these concepts means and how they are related. In the pursued of the literature review, Brisman, and South (2018) argues that in conceptualising conflict as violence or the threat of violence stemming from incompatibilities in stakeholder's interests, priorities, values or understandings. In further explaining conflict, Havercroft and Prichard (2017) posit that the problem of anarchy cannot be divorced from how we understand the problem of epistemology, ontology, politics and conceptions of the good. In the interest of applying the two concepts that reaffirm conceptual contestation and connectivity.

It is a fact that for democracy to flourish, peace and stability constitute an atmosphere that is conducive and encouraging for self-choice. However, elections as the cornerstone of democracy should be conducted in an environment that is not antagonistic. In review of literature, Fernandes (2015) affirms that where politics, and above all strategy (in terms of hostility), flourishes, war, war left to its own devices, international anarchy, cannot flourish. The effort to rise, if real, compromises anarchy because war, left to its own devices, tends towards solipsism, to move towards emptiness. This question whether SRC elections cannot be conducted without hostility, conflict and anarchy, which violate the same principle of peace and stability. Prichard (2017) suggests that the possibility of theorising anarchy in world politics is largely dependent on prior assumptions about the formal or empirical characteristics of states and their ontological status in any social theory, while Inglis (2018) posits that social theory is a crucial resource for the social sciences, which provides rich insights into how human beings think and act and how contemporary social life is constructed.

7. Objection Procedures and Fairness

The principle in this area requires that if one stage is passed with objections resolved or no objections, that stage is deemed completed. In the light of interrogating what in practical sense objections are all about, according to De Visser and Steytler (2016), objections must be made in writing and handed to the Presiding Officer. He or she must investigate the circumstances and may ask questions to anyone that may be able to assist. The Presiding Officer must then decide on the objection, write up the decision and inform the objector and other parties involved of the outcome. One of the processes that polarise SRC elections is slate politics that always get fronted to embroil the elections credibility. Glaser (2018) argues that the SRC is formally pluralistic. Elections proceed by way of competition between slates of candidates. There is no simple demarcation of party political space and election space, which the sole strategy is always been observed as that of the failure to convince the organisation is a simple declaration of electoral polarisation, and ultimate collapse. These incidences are at play to form an irritable atmosphere for every individual involved in election to completely forge electoral violence, which Bardall (2015) posits that common victims of all forms of election violence include voters, elected officials, candidates, political aspirants (i.e. those

seeking nomination), political party members and leaders, electoral workers, journalists, individuals engaged in civic and voter education and electoral security providers. They are all targeted by violence to control or oppress their electoral participation, according to their relative roles in the process. The author notes that victimisation is always at a tipping point on the basis that objections are always not raised as an objective process of fairness, but as a means to collapse the electoral process.

It is observed that the foundational ground of SRC elections is in crisis because of a lack of integrity because student leaders resist respect for the Electoral Procedures. Schulz-Herzenberg, Aling'o and Gatimu (2015) suggest that electoral integrity depends on the character of governance leading up to an election, the quality of the process on the day, as well as mediated efforts to manage conflicts over contested processes and outcomes. The author observes this as deepening fascism in the midst of the collapsing democracy in the context of SRC elections, which ultimately create SRC and student politics as the game of rulers by force not by mandate. It is conclusive that SRC election objection are only used as a strategy to undermine the existence of the rules and independence of the process. The space of SRC election poses danger to the emerging democracy on the basis that student leaders polarise the process with no consequences, which the study of ability to upheld rule of law is at the crossroads.

8. Debates on the Voting System

The recent debate in voting methodologies remains the emergence of modern technology against the conventional ways of voting. In examining the voting methodologies, secret ballot is one of the commonly use method, which Aidt and Jensen (2017) argue that the secret ballot is one of the cornerstones of democracy. Bernhard, Benaloh, Halderman, Rivest, Ryan, Stark, Teague, Vora, and Wallach (2017) suggest that perhaps the most distinctive element of elections is the secret ballot, a critical safeguard that defends against vote selling and voter coercion. In practical terms, voters should not be able to prove how they voted to anyone, even if they wish to do so. This restricts the types of evidence that can be produced by the voting system. The SRC election is gradually moving from conventional secret ballot where physical ballot paper is produced, with slow pace of acceptance of secret ballot where voting is

done electronically. This scepticism is informed by lack of trust for voter manipulation, and this has not transcended the mind-set to investigate the electronic safeguarded mechanism of voting. Bernhard *et al.* (2017) posit that the need for evidence because officials and equipment may not be trustworthy, elections should be evidence-based.

Any observer should be able to verify the reported results based on trustworthy evidence from the voting system. Many in-person voting systems fail to provide sufficient evidence; and as we shall see Internet systems scarcely provide any at all. The author observes that the mainstream political parties that student organisations align with are have demonstrated no appetite to accept the technological innovating systems in their party elections of leadership, for instance, the ANC rejected the electronic voting in 2007, Polokwane elective conference, and since then, the debate on electronic voting has not been considered. The adoption of electronic voting has been done in various countries related to cost and time reduction operationally. On the other hand, recent publication has been informed several issues occurred such as technicality, reliability, security and privacy due to the compromised system were used (Lubis, Kartiwi, and Zuhuda, 2018). The rationale of electronic voting is informed by the tediousness of the conventional and manual secret ballot that has been confronted by discrepancies administratively that always create a scapegoat for losing party to halt the process. It is perhaps that the student leaders are comfortable with the current state of electoral chaos that always plunged by litigation as part of normal aftermath of every SRC elections in universities.

9. Endorsement of Results and Acceptability

The key aspect is whether general observations have projected SRC elections in universities to be endorsed and accepted without any attempt to stifle the outcomes. Przeworski, Rivero, and Xi (2015) suggest that in less polarised societies, some policy divergence is necessary to induce parties to compete and outcomes of elections are acceptable whoever wins, because their distance from ideal policies is small for both parties, which the author observes post-election aftermath been the frontiers of unacceptability of the less material change of the outcomes, which demonstrate the rigger to obscure the people's voices through

technical means. For instance, student organisations would write letters to the top management of the university complain about immaterial issues dated day one of elections process, which objection period for that has elapsed. The only tricky question is whether any electoral reforms allow objections and elections complains to be packed and be raised in the last day when a student organisations have lost the elections and hold student governance at ransom as if it is fashionable to do so. All these behaviours have no consideration of the SRC Constitutions respectively, and the worst part is that these are observed as recurring situations in universities SRC elections.

The key aspect of the electoral reforms in universities is a general move towards introduction of percentage poll in a form of threshold to validate and endorse the outcomes of the SRC elections. This element is not new in universities, but has been practised long in the business of elections validity. For instance, in the case note of thresholds for European elections, which Michel (2016) states that the 3% threshold was declared void for the same reasons the 5% threshold had been, the dictum and the reasons for it being adopted by five to three. One judge in the minority presented a dissenting opinion. He called into question the strict review standard applied, which put Germany onto a path of isolation compared to other member states. While in another case, Smekal and Vyhnánek (2016) underscores that exactly half of the 28 EU member states apply a legal threshold in the European Parliament election. Most of them have set the threshold at 5%, three states at 4%, Greece at 3% and Cyprus at 1.8%. It follows that the 5% legal threshold looks like an ordinary instrument to prevent overcrowding of political parties in representative bodies. Having noted all these practices of election turnout, which is introduced for two fundamental reasons, first, to ensure that there is sufficient number of students who cast their votes to ensure that the outcomes produces, the government of the students, and secondly, to put more pressure on youth to the poll strategy, which invest in blending the future maturing democracy in South Africa.

10. Conclusion and Recommendations

SRC elections have been presented as an absolute chaos with more volatility without consideration of an existing Electoral Procedures as stated in various SRC Constitutions in the universities. These

elements of chaos are acts of student leaders who find themselves with no appetite to accept the defeat from both their respective organisation to the outcomes of elections. There are characteristics that have overtime in the author's experience have proven the chaotic element of the SRC elections generally to prove the that "*Leaders circumvent the will of the people through technical mean*", which are among others, factional politics in nominations and deployment to office; overall complain as a reactionary mode of the outcomes; creating hostile campaign; no consideration of objection ruling and persistently ignore rulings; and sticking to voting systems that has no guarantee of security. All these observed practices undermine democracy at its emerging stage and threatens the rule of law as if is normal to have elections in a hostile situation, ignore rulings and most fundamentally, abusing the system by challenging the election process from the beginning as a reactionary mode of an attempt to collapse the process. It is in this context that all these are done to divert the majority choice and have a regime that is not voted if is not favourable. The situation requires a radical mind shift to rescue electoral reforms in higher education space, which Pink (2017) argues that electoral reform is an often-studied topic and published works as well as other sources tell us that there is no universally valid and suitable procedure to achieve it. The starting point is to invest on rigorous electoral procedures that empower the process managers to succeed in the process. The electoral tribunals should be empowered to ensure that any individual or organisations that have no consideration to respect the process, there are consequences, and this aspect is mainly because student leaders disrupt SRC elections with no consequences, and this act is punishable by law as a threat to democracy. Finally note that advocacy is the most fundamental aspect to manage demanding process, and therefore, elections workshop should be intensified to ensure that all participating parties understand the application of the electoral procedures.

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Actualizing the Rights of People Living with Disabilities (PWDS) in Development Policies, Planning and Programming in Africa: A Review of Selected Country Experiences

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Abstract: Exclusion and marginalisation of people living with disabilities is an on-going challenge in Africa in spite of the existence of international conventions such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN CRPD) which obliges member states to promote the equal rights to development of that segment of the population. Africa's Agenda 2063 and UN Agenda 2030 on Sustainable Development Goals also support the principle. The paper therefore aims to assess the performance of African countries in integrating the developmental priorities of people with disabilities into their development policies, planning and programming. Its main objectives are to identify the current state of practice, identify best practices and draw lessons. The methodological approach is a qualitative desk study. The Social Model of disability is adopted as the theoretical framework of analysis. It is selected because it shifts from dominant traditional welfarist approaches in favour of transformation, empowerment and participative action of people with disabilities. Key findings point to mixed success among the five country cases in terms of domestication on international and continental instruments on the rights of people with disabilities. However, generally they are performing poorly in terms of full implementation of those policies and laws. The paper recommends that the countries should strengthen both implementation machineries as well as capacities at all levels.

Keywords: Disability, Empowerment, Participation transformative development, Welfarism

1. Introduction

Contemporary global and continental discourses on development revolve around the pertinent issues of inclusivity, equity and human rights. Part of the debate concerns the exclusion, marginalisation, stigmatisation and discrimination of persons living with disabilities. The failure of many African states to fully integrate disability into their national development planning, programming, budgeting and implementation mechanisms is a development challenge that still needs to be fully addressed. This paper focuses on the experiences of five African countries and aims to examine how they are integrating disability issues into their national planning and implementation activities. Its main purpose is to draw lessons on how equal rights, inclusive and sustainable development, can be actualized for people living with disabilities. This is important because democracy is about respecting the human rights of all categories of people and ensuring that they actually realize and exercise those rights. The five cases are Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, South Sudan and Tunisia.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA, 2018: 40) provides comprehensive evidence of the challenges which persons

with disabilities encounter. These include exclusion or limited participation in the political arena, in labour and employment markets, in accessing services such as education and health services, and discrimination in work places. They also face barriers due to inaccessible transportation and infrastructure such as buildings. According to the report, men living with a disability are at an advantage than females (UN DESA, 2018:134). It also shows that persons with disabilities who reside in Africa experience higher rates of deprivation and disadvantages in the areas cited above as compared to those in developed countries. Africa lacks comprehensive statistics on disability and this limits effectiveness of strategies to redress the many challenges which this segment of the population experiences (Kachaje, Dube, McLachlan & Mji, 2014:1). They further emphasize that in Africa, persons living with disabilities do not experience any significant changes in their livelihoods, right to life as well as any development despite a host of policies.

2. Methodological Approach

The selection of case studies was purposively chosen to have a mix of countries that are classified by the United Nations (UN) as High Human Development (HHD) and those in the Low Human Development

(LHD) group. For the HHD countries, Tunisia and South Africa were selected whereas for the LHD group, South Sudan, Sierra Leone and Rwanda were included. The purpose of selecting countries at different levels of development was to do a comparison based on a framework described in Table 1 which presents the yardstick that was used to assess their performance on integration of disability issues in their policies, plans and programmes.

3. Literature Review

The World Health Organization (WHO) and World Bank in the 2011 World Report on disability, define disability:

"An umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions, referring to the negative aspects of the interaction between an individual (with a health condition) and that individual's contextual factors (environmental and personal factors)" (WHO, 2011:4).

In Africa disability is mainly caused by many factors including birth defects, environmental hazards, industrial accidents, war, violence, poverty as well as HIV/AIDS (Nyangweso 2018:2). Garland-Thomson (2002:4) analyses disability from a feminist perspective because in her view, it is not disability that is the fundamental problem. While it is fact that a person can have a physical or mental disability, it does not necessarily follow that he/she should be viewed as a lesser human being compared to those without disabilities. Social construction of disability, like in the case of gender biases and prejudices against women, is often shaped by social norms, religious beliefs and culture. Garland-Thomson (2002:5) describes such constructions as, "a pervasive cultural system that stigmatizes certain kinds of bodily variations.... disability becomes a culturally fabricated narrative of the body...which legitimizes an unequal distribution of resources, status and power within a biased social and architectural environment".

The above explanation is corroborated by Anastasiou (2013:445) who emphasizes how economic, environmental and cultural barriers exclude and marginalize people with disabilities. These critical perspectives of disability have led to a change of paradigm. The social model of disability has replaced the traditional medical model of disability which explains that challenges encountered by persons living with disabilities are products of negative constructions

about them and that therefore, the solution to these challenges is to transform society's thinking, prejudices and biases against people with disabilities. A more holistic strategy to deal with the problems is to integrate disability inclusion in the entire chain of development policies, development planning and programming. It also requires full consultation and participation of persons living with disabilities so as to be consistent to the principle of the disability movement which is, "nothing for us without us".

Palmer (2012:215), noted that integration can be achieved through domesticating, through policies and legislations, of conventions such as the UN CRPD, a convention which is viewed as change agent worldwide from depicting people living with disabilities as constructs and objects of pity towards viewing and supporting them as people with liberties like any other persons. Fernandez, Rutka & Aldersey (2017:2) highlighted that, "of the 55 governments of the African continent, 44 are signatories of the CPRD. Domestication of CEDAW, African Charter on Human and People's Rights and the Protocol on the Rights of Women, Continental Plan of Action for the African Decade of Persons with disabilities 2010-2019." Agenda 2063 and Agenda 2030, are other strategies.

4. Conceptual Framework: Integrating Disability Inclusion into Development Policies, Planning and Programming

Based on a review of the literature, a conceptual framework was developed to analyse how the five countries have integrated disability in their development policies, planning and programming. The framework is presented in Table 1 on the next page.

5. Review of Case Studies

The experiences of each of the five countries considered in the study are presented in this section. The analysis is based on the conceptual framework that is described in Table 1.

5.1 South Africa

Out of South Africa's population of 57 million, at least 7.5 per cent is regarded as living with a disability ((Statistics (Stats SA) 2016)). Department of Social Development (DSD) (2015:16) noted that, "the advent of democracy in 1994 ushered a new developmental approach to the provision of social services to all

Table 1: Conceptual Framework for the Selected Country Case Studies

1. What is the prevalence of disability in the country?
2. Has the country ratified the UN CRPDs, CEDAW and other international instruments that speak to disability?
3. How has the country domesticated these international conventions?
4. Is disability integrated into the constitution, policies and legislation?
5. Is disability integrated into national development planning?
6. Does the country have a national strategy, action plans and programmes for people living with disabilities?
7. What are the institutional mechanisms for implementation of policies, strategies and action plans? How effective are they?
8. Does the country have a disability-sensitive and responsive budgeting framework? How adequate are budget allocations vis-à-vis the needs of people with disabilities?
9. How effective is the country in raising public awareness about the rights of people living with disabilities?
10. Do persons living with disability have a voice? Are they consulted over policy and programmatic issues that relate to the? Is there a movement of this group of people? How well supported are they by both public and private sector?
11. What are the successes and/or failures that the country has experienced in its efforts to integrate disability into development planning and programming?
12. What lessons does the country provide to other African countries?

Source: Authors (2019)

vulnerable groups in society, including persons living with disabilities". The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) protects the rights and dignity of persons with disabilities and promotes and supports their full integration in society ((South Africa Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) 2017:7)). The country is also party to the UN CRPD as well as the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (OP – CRPD), signed on 30 March 2007 (Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) 2015).

Fernandez *et al.* (2017:6) opined that South Africa has tried to domesticate the UN CRPD through the National Development Programme (NDP) 2030. Zarenda (2013:31) postulated that, "by prioritizing eradication of poverty, the NDP provides a framework to ensure that persons with disabilities benefit from economic growth on an equitable basis with other population groups". The White Paper on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities of South Africa (WPRPD) of 2015 is another example of how the country is domesticating CRPD. It advocates that all policies and legislation across the public and private sector should positively effect on the lives of people living with disabilities (WPRPD 2015). However, the implementation of the WPRPD has been slow with no clear cut expectations from both the role players such as government departments and the private sector. Brynard (2010:13)

concludes that implementation of disability legislation and policy is slow in both government and private sector.

Schneider (2017:68) points out that, "the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act, Act 5 of 2000 as revised in 2011 recognizes economic rights of persons with disabilities to engage in entrepreneurial activities that promote self-reliance and independent living. Measures include a target of 5 per cent access of all preferential procurement being set aside for entrepreneurs with disabilities". The actual performance in relation to this act is however, not clear as no studies were available to verify this. The challenge in South Africa is that the funding model to address disability is still welfarist. Most programmes are funded by the Department of Social Development through a welfarist social security system or subsidy system. The SASSA Act of 2004 established an agency to distribute social grants which include the disability grant. Whilst it alleviates poverty among people with disabilities, it is not a sustainable solution as it creates and perpetuates dependency.

South Africa has also decentralised developmental programmes for persons living with disabilities. Government departments, district and local municipalities have disability desks which deal with disability related issues. There are limited developmental

initiatives of persons with disabilities like protective workshops and these are funded by the Department of Social Development through a subsidy system. Thus, the budget allocations do not foster any developmental progress but rather promote welfarism. Brynard (2010:14) highlights that effective success of disability programmes rests on effective funding which the government and private sector is not doing. In spite of having a world class policy of good practice, South Africa's plan of action to implement the policies is inadequate (Marsay, 2014:99).

5.2 Tunisia

Of the five countries, Tunisia has the highest per capita GDP. It also has an educated population, judging from the high literacy rates in (UN HDR, 2018). Data on people with disabilities is scanty and unreliable (Zobairi, Atkinson & Ouertani, 2018:9). For example, statistics by a Tunisian Statistics body reflect lower numbers of people with disabilities as compared to the number of people with disability cards. The 2014 Census indicates that people with disabilities in Tunisia constitute 2.3 per cent of the population (UNICEF, 2019). Usually, disabilities are not seen negatively. On contrary, the community lacks information, education and the know-how of disabilities. Rather, society is characterized by a serious lack of knowledge and understanding of disabilities, and that includes officials in government. Consequently, disability issues have been marginalized in planning.

Tunisia has however made some progress in terms of policies and legislation. In 2008, it ratified the CRPD through Law No. 4 (Adeola, 2015). Article 29 of the treaty makes provisions on political liberties for persons living with disabilities. Article 6 addresses liberties of women with disabilities. Tunisia is a signatory to the UN Convention on the Rights of children and the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). These Conventions, among other provisions, do not allow inequality on the notion of disability.

Law 48 of Tunisia's constitution has provisions for the state in safeguarding people living with disabilities against any discrimination. To implement the provision, Tunisian Law 83 of 2005 on the advancement and protection of persons with disabilities was promulgated. The law guarantees equal chances for persons living disabilities and protects them from all kinds of discrimination (Zobairi *et al.*, 2018:20).

Other orders that were introduced to fully realize the constitutional provisions for people with disabilities include: (i) - Order 3029 (2005) which created a Higher Council for Persons with Disabilities. (ii) - Order No 3086 (2005) and amended by Order No 1859 in 2006 which defines disability and explains the process to obtain a disability card. The card is processed by the Ministry of Social Affairs. (iii) - Order No 3087 (2005) which is on the employment of people with disabilities (Zobairi *et al.*, 2018:20). In terms of employment, a one per cent quota for people with disabilities is provided for in case of an employer having 50 or less workers and two per cent in the case where there are more than 100 employees. The legislation advocates that every structure and construction work is accessible to all persons living with different types of both physical and intellectual disabilities (Article 3 of decree number 2006-1467, 30 May 2006).

In practice, these legislative provisions are not yet fully implemented. Though education is free, integration is not achieved. The country a parallel structure in schooling: one under the Ministry of Education, is responsible for mainstream schooling, and one run by the Ministry of Social Affairs, for children with mild intellectual disabilities who participate in the special education system. The Ministry does not directly provide special education, but rather funds NGOs and associations which act as service providers. The specialised education provided by centres such as those mentioned above is unfortunately flawed in that its reach remains rather limited, confined mainly to big cities. Rural areas have much fewer centres despite a high demand for schooling. Staffing and funding constraints are a problem as well. Even in the few schools that are inclusive, they do not have responsive stimulation programs for learners with disabilities. Koné and Korzekwa (2014:36) noted that, "teachers are simply not trained to support students who use braille, or to help students with a motor handicap in their writing". There is no provision for any form of assistive devices. With countries making inroads into fourth industrial revolution, technologies to make their lives easier is a requirement.

Until 2018, people with disabilities were not elected into municipal councils. This changed when the government introduced the new disability quota resulting in 144 people with disabilities being elected. The quota has contributed towards more inclusive municipal councils. In employment, employers are

mandated to have a one per cent quota for people with disabilities though in practice, this is not being achieved (Zobairi *et al.*, 2018:22). However, until 2012, government did not employ people with disabilities. In 2013, the state employed more than 300 people with disabilities. Nationally, compliance with the quota is still low and is poorly monitored. Furthermore, the government has failed to have the necessary apparatus to tackle compliance issues. Zobairi *et al.* (2018:24) opined that "in essence, persons with disabilities often get paid considerably less than their colleagues for carrying out the same work, yet there are no inspections or attempts to level the wages, while these companies do benefit from the incentives offered in return for hiring them". But despite some successes on the policy and legislative front, people with disabilities in Tunisia are overlooked in development programming. Consequently, they are left out and discriminated to relish the country's liberties like other people.

5.3 Rwanda

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (2016:1) state that, "overall, 446,453 persons with disabilities aged 5 and above are living in Rwanda according to the 2012 Census, out of which 221,150 are male and 225,303 are female". Njelesani, Siegal and Ullrich (2018:8) opined that the Rwandan 1994 genocide contributed greatly to the prevalence of disability. Karangwa, Miles and Lewis (2010:267) noted that "the genocide also contributed to an increase in impairments not only as a direct result of the violence, but also because of the breakdown of health, vaccination, and rehabilitation services, as well as ongoing mental health conditions". It can thus be concluded that the genocide contributed directly and indirectly to disabilities in Rwanda. Rwanda has been at the fore front in Africa in developmental policies aimed at uplifting the standards of living of persons living with disabilities. The country is also a signatory of the UN CRPD since 2008. It has also tried to domesticate the convention (Njelesani *et al.*, 2018:5). For example, the Constitution of 2003 as revised in 2015, specify fairness for the citizens of Rwanda and condone unjust intolerance with regards to disability. In particular, article 51(2) of the Constitution provides that the State has the duty within its means to undertake special actions aimed at the welfare of persons with disabilities (Njelesani *et al.*, 2018:2).

In support of article 28 of the CRPD, The Vision 2020 strategy, better known as Umurenge Programme

(VUP), was drafted with the aim of eradicating poverty through supporting income generation activities and public works especially to persons living with disabilities. The Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy 11 (EDPRS 2) is a strategy to implement Vision 2020. It states that Rwanda does not want to leave out any of its citizens including persons living with disabilities from contributing economically to the nation (Republic of Rwanda, 2015:13). The disability movement in Rwanda consists mainly of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as the National Council of Persons with Disabilities which opened its doors in 2011 (Karangwa *et al.*, 2010:269). Eide & Ingstad (2013:46) specify that, "the NGOs are involved with all decision making relating to plans and programmes, as recommended by the UN General Assembly convention". NGOs are clearly the mouthpiece of persons living with disabilities in Rwanda. The case of Rwanda shows that despite serious and clear policies protecting persons living with disabilities, there is still a huge gap in the realization of rights and inclusion of these vulnerable persons (Karangwa, 2010:269).

5.4 Sierra Leone

As a result of civil war over the period 1991-2002, the occurrence in Sierra Leone of disability has been greater as compared to other parts of Africa. Statistics Sierra Leone (2017:2) explains that a decade of political conflict and war led to the death of more than 40 000 people, displacing around 2 million and many more scores of thousands amputated and injured. As of 2017, the agency estimates that there were 93,129 persons with disabilities, representing roughly 1.3% of the population. Of this, 54 per cent are male and 46 per cent female. It also states that persons with disabilities are subjected to many challenges (Statistics Sierra Leone, 2017:4-16) inclusive of:

- Stigmatization and discrimination because of negative attitudes. Some of this is reflected in the use of derogatory language. For example, the report states that in 'Krio', one of the major languages, words like 'cripple' or "*die fuit*" - meaning "*dead feet, dead hands*" are used to describe them. Generally, there is still widespread negative perception of persons with disabilities.
- Exclusion from education: 63 per cent had never attended school, meaning only 37 per cent did so. The education system also disadvantages

them due to physical access barriers to buildings and infrastructure, coupled with negative attitudes from other learners.

- Exclusion from employment: Only 1.8 per cent were working formally, with more males unemployed (67.4 per cent) and 32.6 per cent female.
- Women with disabilities face multiple discrimination on the basis of their gender, disability and ethnicity.
- Lack of awareness and capacity on the part of government officials in terms of developing programmes that encourage the developmental aspirations for persons with disabilities and also limited budgetary resources that are allocated to such programmes. Most of the assistance to persons with disabilities is through international agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs).

The World Bank (2009:25) also observes that people living with disabilities in the country are continuously subjected to most of the above abuses. They also lack access to services such as education and health. Furthermore, they mostly live on social welfare due to discrimination from labour markets. Government responses include the 2011 ratification of CRPD and introduction of a Disability Act that seeks to promote inclusive education of PWDs. However, critics have pointed out that the Act does not explicitly prohibit discrimination (Sierra Leone Statistics, 2017:12; Adeola, 2015:231). The Act has a number of key provisions that could improve the lives of people with disabilities, for example, the provision for free medical services in public health institutions, free education in tertiary institutions, protection from expulsion from an educational institution on grounds of disability (Adeola, 2015:143). The 1991 Constitution also makes provisions to deal with disability. Although the government has succeeded in setting up institutional machineries to address disability issues, they are not system-wide and therefore limited. Three ministries are responsible for implementing policies and laws on disability, namely, the Ministries of Social Welfare, Gender and Child Affairs and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, have been mandated to implement disability policies and laws. In addition, the government has set up a Directorate of Social Welfare for Disability. There are also Disability Focal Points that have been established in other government

ministries. The government also set up a Human Rights Commission which has in turn established a Different Ability and Non-Discrimination Office (DANDO) to champion as well as fostering human liberties of people living with impairments (Sierra Leone Statistics, 2017:34).

Though these are useful machineries, not much information was available on their impact. Mainstreaming disability across all ministries and sectors would be a more effective strategy. With regards to strategies, in 2013, the country introduced the 'Agenda for Prosperity', which is Sierra Leone's Third Generation Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2013-2018) (Adeola, 2015:75). It emphasizes equity and equality of people with disability with others. Key provisions include free health care, strengthening of services and provision of rehabilitation equipment to persons with disabilities (Adeola, 2015:76). The strategy also included an all-inclusive combination of contemporary market-aligned entrepreneurship programmes with a focus on training and capacity building of youths, including people with disabilities (Adeola, 2015:77). Although a National Plan for Higher Education was developed with the intention of supporting inclusive education, its implementation has been slow (Sierra Leone Statistics, 2017: 23).

In a scathing attack on the failure of the government to actualise these policies and legislation provisions, Joel Tejan Deen-Tarawally Esq, Barrister and Solicitor of the High Court of Sierra Leone (2019) does not mince his words when he says:

As impressive as these achievements may be, they are merely little drops in a mighty ocean. For far too long in Sierra Leone disability right issues have been swept under the carpet and relegated to the back stage by political lip-service. Protecting and promoting the rights of PWDs is not just about enacting legislation or creating a commission; rather it is about creating a free and just society that is inclusive of all persons with disabilities as equal citizens.

He cites as challenges, the understaffing of the National Commission for Persons with Disabilities, which has resulted in failure to implement significant foundations in the Persons with Disabilities Act No 3 of 2011. One of the Act's provisions to set up a National Development Fund for persons with disabilities was still not established at the time of his writing. Services for free medical care were also

not fully functional due to shortages of drugs. He also laments that while the Disability Legislation in Section 14(1) is providing complimentary e-schooling at tertiary level and further states in Section 14(2) that the Government 'shall' ensure the structural adaptation of educational institutions to make them easily accessible to persons with disabilities.

In as much as the free education at tertiary level is being provided,and is free at tertiary level for people with disabilities; it is practically not accessible because of structural and environmental factors. In the entire country, it is only the University of Makeni that has a 'Special Needs Department' that caters for them. The environment and buildings at Fourah Bay College, Institute of Public Administration, College of Medicine and Allied Health Science, Njala University, the Milton Margai College of Education, Science and Technology, and other tertiary institutions are nothing but death traps for persons with disabilities. There is no braille, no ramps and lifts, and no sign language facilities.

These barriers exist even though Section 24(1) of the Persons with Disabilities Act has a provision of PwDs should have environments which are accessible. In the Barrister's opinion, government's lack of resources must not be accepted as an excuse to neglect a part of the country's citizenry.

5.6 South Sudan

There are no recent reliable statistics on the prevalence of disability in South Sudan. That notwithstanding, Rohwerder (2018:7) reports that people with disabilities face significant marginalization in terms of social and political exclusion. Gilbert (2016:14) explains that, "people with disabilities are disadvantaged largely due to stigma and discrimination, inaccessibility of education, health and sport facilities, places of work, election/polling centres, courts, information and other infrastructure". Communication, electronic and print media are also inaccessible and that majority of persons living with disabilities are unemployed (Rohwerder, 2018:12). Although there are a number of organisations for people with disabilities, they face challenges due to inadequate government backing as well as low income to keep programmes running (Rohwerder, 2018:14). The situation is compounded by their under-representation at the political level, which basically means that they have no voice or decision making powers.

In spite of these challenges, little progress has been made in introducing policies and laws to address disability. South Sudan has not ratified the UN CRDP. Constitutionally there are no provisions for the liberties of people with disabilities. The Ministry of Gender, Child, Social Welfare, Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MGCSWHADM) is the institutional machinery that has been established to promote and protect the rights of persons with disabilities. The government has also introduced a National Disability and Inclusion Policy and an Inclusive Education Policy. However, lack of political will and funding problems have constrained implementation. Rohwerder (2018:7) observes that, "basically authorities have limited capacity to respond to the medical, educational and mobility needs of people with disabilities, and that there has been little pressure on them to respond to those needs". Due to these policy implementation failures, people with disabilities are generally invisible in development programming in South Sudan.

6. Emerging Issues

The analysis of the five case studies indicates that although they have each attempted to integrate disability inclusion into their development policies, planning and programming disability is actually a challenge in all the countries. The relatively more developed countries like South Africa and Tunisia, however, have particularly made more progress in the domestication of CRPD and in introducing more comprehensive legislation and policies to advance the equal opportunities for people with disability as well as promoting their full inclusion in the political, economic and social sphere. This suggests that it is in fact possible to integrate disability inclusion in development planning and programming. However, a weakness that pervades all five countries consists of poor implementation capacity, which is why persons living with disabilities in all these countries continue to face challenges of exclusion in various forms. Evidence also shows that in the relatively less developed countries such as Rwanda, Sierra Leone and South Sudan, the integration effort is much slower. This is explained by lack of capacity on the part of government, lack of political will or commitment and limited financial resources (Brynard, 2010:14). Consequently, international agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have assumed a disproportionately larger role in filling that gap. We argue that it is fundamentally unacceptable that part

of a country's citizenry (a vulnerable one for that matter), should be 'marginalized' and 'excluded' because of state failure. Such an anomaly must be corrected.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

People with disabilities still encounter challenges of exclusion, stigma and marginalisation in the countries studied. While South Africa and Tunisia have made more progress in terms of domestication of international conventions and instruments on the rights of people with disabilities as compared to Sierra Leone, Rwanda and South Sudan, all the countries have not fully integrated disability inclusion into their development processes. Key lessons are that full integration of disability in development policy, planning and programming critically requires political commitment, well-funded institutional machineries and effective implementation among state and non-state actors. In all the countries, there is need for massive investments in public education and awareness to foster recognition as well as accept persons living with disabilities as citizens with equal liberties with others in every sphere and that those rights have to be actualised.

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Analysis of Early Experiments with Land Redistribution in South Africa: Case of Vhembe District Municipality of Limpopo Province

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Abstract: The aim of the paper is to examine the perceptions of communities in the Vhembe District on their experiences on redistribution models. The District experienced the transition from households-based and poverty-oriented Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) model to the commercial-oriented Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) to the current Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS). All three models were based on the 'willing seller- willing buyer' principle, which is widely seen as one of the major reasons for the slow pace of land reform. Its objectives are to assess the effect of the 'willing seller, willing buyer' principle on the pace of land redistribution in the area; to analyse the rationale for the shifts in policy over type of redistribution model and their implications on ownership and control of and to examine the implementation and subsequent effects of the redistribution approaches on the livelihoods of the farming communities. The research design was qualitative and specifically case studies of each model. Key findings included limited impact of land redistribution on livelihoods of the farmers, inadequate technical, financial and other material support and dissatisfaction of farmers under the PLAS model on lack of title deeds as government opted for a leasing the land instead. The paper recommends more comprehensive research on the pertinent issues of individual property rights/title to land as opposed to state ownership/leasing approach that characterizes the PLAS model.

Keywords: Commercialisation, Land redistribution, Leasing, Private property rights, Sustainability

1. Introduction

Landlessness, inequality in land ownership and redistribution as well as underutilisation of land, are still a serious challenge in many African countries (Deininger, Feder, Gordillo de Anda & Munro-Faure, 2003:14; Byamugisha 2014:2). These challenges originate from injustices caused by apartheid and colonisation (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014:677). South Africa, like many other countries, inherited a skewed land ownership between blacks and whites with approximately 87 per cent owned by whites and only 13 per cent owned by blacks (Aliber & Cousins, 2013:140; Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014:225). These injustices have long been a source of conflict (Department of Land Affairs, 1997:4) due to the nature of the history of dispossession, forced removals and a racially-skewed distribution of land resources which has left majority of the citizens with a complex and difficult legacy (DLA 1997:4; Gumede, 2014:51). Discriminatory laws and practices resulted in extreme inequalities in relation to land ownership and land use (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014:707) and blacks were only considered for residential purposes (Mafukata, 2012:28). The Natives Land Act No 27 of 1913 laid the foundation for

apartheid territorial segregation and, for the first time, formalised limitations on black land ownership and confined them to rural areas for those who were dispossessed from the targeted land. The Act introduced ethnic differentiation based on the mistaken belief that differentiation between dissimilar races was fundamentally necessary to control these groups. Segregation only led to economic hardship for blacks. The effect of this racially-based segregation legislation was to force black people to be "permanent tenants" with very limited rights. Land dispossession created the migrant labour system which created the most havoc in African rural communities by seriously undermining the virtues of Ubuntu (Green Paper on Land Reform, 2011:2).

Land reform has been used by governments in both developed and developing countries as the main policy tool to redress excessive historical inequalities in land ownership (Bangwayo-Skeete, Bezabih & Zikhali, 2010:319). In South Africa, the first democratically elected government inherited a country characterised by extreme levels of poverty, a worsening unemployment problem and unacceptable inequalities in the levels of land and income (Klopper & Pienaar, 2014:688).

Immediately after transition to democracy, the government adopted the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, which served as a pillar for land reform. In 1997 the White Paper on land reform was developed. The main aim of land reform was to redress the injustices of apartheid; foster national reconciliation and stability; to underpin economic growth; and to improve household welfare and alleviate poverty and that was to be achieved through three pillars which is restitution, redistribution and land tenure. In the case of the Vhembe District where the study was located, land dispossession took place around 1910 when the Whites invaded the Venda land and spread across the entire region. The apartheid government then began to settle more Whites in the vicinity of Venda in the Zoutpansberg area. This development resulted in more Vhavenda losing their traditional land to the white settlers. Inevitably, resentments against the settler occupiers continued to build up (Nemudzivhadi, 1998:85). As expected, when the democratic government embarked on land reform post 1994, and particularly in the context of land restitution, many communities responded readily to the invitation to lodge claims to lands they had lost. In the Vhembe district, many of the land reform projects were dominated by restitution projects as most of the land is under claim. This paper is based on a study that focused on two local municipalities of the Vhembe district which is Makhado and Musina.

2. Problem Statement, Aim and Objectives of the Study

Vhembe District Municipality is a Category C Municipality, established in the year 2000 in terms of Local Government Municipal Structures Act (IDP, 2017-2022:1). The district is located in the Northern part of Limpopo Province and shares borders with Zimbabwe and Botswana in the North West and Mozambique in the south east through the Kruger National Park. The District covers 21 407 square km of land with total population of 1 393 949. The vision of Vhembe district programs is designed to reduce poverty and unemployment.

As explained in the introduction, land reform in South Africa was a measure for redress of inherited inequalities in ownership of land. Early experiments consisted of the SLAG, LRAD models. More recently the PLAS model is being implemented. In the Vhembe District, these are the models that

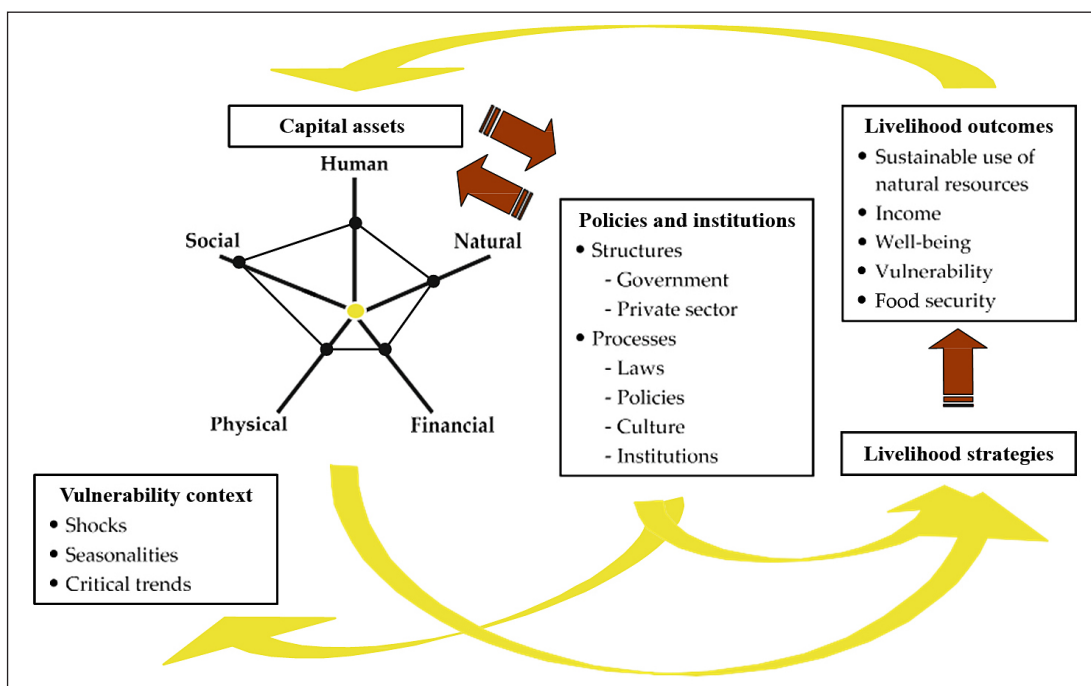
were implemented. There is however, very little documentation on the performance of these land reform experiments in terms of impact on the quality of life of beneficiaries, hence the decision to embark on research on the issue. The paper aims to examine the perceptions of communities in the Vhembe District on their experiences with these redistribution models. There are four main objectives. Firstly, to assess the effect of the 'willing seller, willing buyer' principle on the pace of land redistribution in the area. Secondly, to analyse the rationale for the shifts in policy over type of redistribution model, thirdly, to analyse the implications of these models on ownership and control of land. Finally, the paper examines the implementation and subsequent effects of the redistribution approaches on the livelihoods of the farming communities.

A few key research questions guided the study. These were: what are the effects of the "willing seller, willing buyer" principle on the pace of land reform? What was the rationale for the shift in the land reform models and how did communities perceive them? How did redistribution impact on livelihoods of the farming communities? How do communities perceive land ownership and control in the context of these shifting paradigms? While cognisant of the scientific principle that information from small case studies cannot be generalized to the nation, what questions do these case studies raise in relation to the current issue of expropriation of land without compensation?

3. Materials and Methods

A qualitative research design was chosen for the study. The goal of qualitative research is to develop an understanding of a social or human problem from multiple perspectives (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013:220; Creswell, 2009:175; Babbie & Mouton, 2011:53). The choice of such a design for the study was therefore informed by the purpose of the research which was a quest for a comprehensive understanding of the perceptions of land claim beneficiaries on their experiences with different land reform models that had been implemented in their area. Focus on how land reform had affected their quality of life. The case study method was selected for reasons of feasibility since the population of land owners under land restitution is quite large. The target population were the recipients of land under the SLAG, LRAD and PLAS land reform programmes in Makhado and Musina Municipalities in

Figure 1: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework



Source: Serrat (2017:22)

the Vhembe District. The sample was purposively selected from the population of the redistribution projects in the two municipalities. It consisted of 12 projects from the 3 selected programmes, namely, SLAG, LRAD and PLAS. The specific names of the communities that were interviewed are not disclosed in order to protect the anonymity of the participants. Data was collected through interviews with the respondents who were representing the households.

4. Theoretical Framework

The study adopts the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) for analysis. A livelihood comprises people, their capabilities and their means of living, including food, income and assets. Tangible assets are resources and stores, and intangible assets are claims and access. A livelihood is environmentally sustainable when it maintains or enhances the local and global assets on which livelihoods depend, and has net beneficial effects on other livelihoods. A livelihood is socially sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, and provide for future generations (Chambers & Conway, 1991:5; Kollmair & St. Gamper, 2002:4; Glopp, 2008:3; Morse, McNamara & Acholo, 2009:4). Drawing on the works of Chambers and Conway (1992), Lemke, Yousefi, Eisermanne and Bellows (2012:29) explain that a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets

(including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintains or enhances its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base. Figure 1 illustrates the SLF which basically shows that policies and institutions (together with capital such as human, natural, social, physical and financial capital), can be used to intervene to solve situations of vulnerability (economic, social, political or environmental). Managed appropriately, the interventions can lead to sustainable livelihoods as outcomes (in the form of well-being, incomes and food security). Sustainable livelihoods are instrumental in the creation of physical assets.

Conway & Chambers (1991:6) are among the originators of the SLF. They speak of the 'livelihoods pentagon' which depicts the dimensions of livelihoods and the interdependent relationship between five dimensions of livelihood assets, or 'capitals': human capital (education and skills), social capital (relationships and networks), natural capital (land and water), financial capital (money and loans) and physical capital (infrastructure and assets). This approach is corroborated by (Hall, 2007:3) who argues, based on South African literature on land reform, that outcomes, or indicators, of sustainable livelihoods should include the following outcome indicators such as; more income (from marketed

produce, wage employment), increased regularity of income, and more egalitarian distribution of income; increased well-being, improved access to clean drinking water and to sanitation, improved housing, ownership of household items, and access to fuel for cooking; reduced vulnerability; improved access to social infrastructure like schools and clinics and increased mobility; improved food security (from self-provisioning and increased disposable cash income) resulting in improved nutritional status and finally, more sustainable use of natural resources base. Thus, in measuring the impact of land reform types on the development of beneficiaries and their communities, the study examined the extent to which SLAG, LRAD and PLAS affected these different forms of capital, all of which directly or indirectly impact on the quality of life.

5. Literature Review

The legal basis for redistribution was given by the Provision of Certain Land for Settlement Act, amended in 1998 and now entitled the Provision of Land and Assistance Act 126 of 1993. The original Act allowed for the granting of an advance or subsidy 'to any person'. The 1998 amendment specified the categories of persons that could be assisted. The main purpose of land redistribution was to redistribute land to the poor and landless for residential and productive uses in order to improve their income and quality of life (DLA 1997:6). Land redistribution policy under SLAG, was specifically directed at the poor which were the landless or land hungry. Jacobs (2004:5) confirms this when he states that SLAG grants were targeted at low-income households. The programme used the market-based approach which is the 'willing-seller willing-buyer' principle. Households were able to access a once-off grant or payment of R16, 000.00 called the Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) (RSA, 1997:7). Large groups were formed to pull in grants so that they can afford farms that were on the market with the assistance of the state. These groups were then given title deeds.

In 1999, a change in policy direction was initiated (Jacobs *et al.*, 2003:1) and was consolidated in 2001 when SLAG was replaced by a new program called the Land Redistribution of Agricultural Development (LRAD). The introduction of LRAD remained similar to the SLAG as the government continued to implement the willing-seller willing-buyer principle. However, the redistribution of land no longer included the redistribution of land for residential

purposes. The main purpose of the LRAD programme was to focus mainly on agricultural development as compared to SLAG. This shifted from the main objective of redistribution as the residential component was no longer considered by government. Grants were paid to individuals and not to households as was the case with SLAG and in some cases with a component of the Land Bank loan. It was argued that this would reduce the number of beneficiaries in projects, a measure that would also reduce conflicts that were hindering production in some projects (Jacobs, Lahiff & Hall, 2004:28). In LRAD, like in SLAG, the beneficiaries were given the title deed.

Currently, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is implementing Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS). The PLAS was officially launched in 2006 (DLA, 2006:4) after LRAD was phased out. The principle of 'willing seller, willing buyer' was still the basis for PLAS (Lahiff, 2007:1591). The objectives of the programme were to contribute to growth, employment creation and equity (DLA, 2006:4). PLAS however, departed from the previous two programmes as the title now remains with the state and the beneficiaries are now leasing the land from the state. According to Aliber & Cousins (2013:141), it was evident that the land redistribution programme was overwhelmed with problems of project collapse and idle land and government concluded that the problem was an inadequate adherence to the principle of viability, rather than that land reform was wrong in principle. Land reform can be successful depending on how it is managed. For example, in Vietnam, when the government decided to give farmers titles to land and they saw it as an incentive which encouraged them to increase their production, they increased their production. (Lairprakobsup & Chorkaew, 2018:16). In the study conducted by Manjengwa *et al.* (2014:987) in Zimbabwe's land reform in terms of poverty, jobs and empowerment is taking people out of poverty as part of smallholder commercial farming. This was also the case for Brazil, South Korea and Taiwan; small holder farming led to increased agricultural production which later translated to improve GDP. However, many other studies argue that land reform is a failure in Zimbabwe as agricultural production and exports have declined further from the pre-reform era.

In South Africa, land reform to date is said to have created more problems than it has resolved,

generated more disputes over land ownership, and resulted in a more skewed distribution of land (Kariuki, 2008:147). Consequently, the impact on the quality of life has been less than was expected. As in Namibia and Zimbabwe, the willing-seller/ willing-buyer approach in South Africa has frequently been blamed for the fact that the governments' redistributive programme has fallen well short of expectation (Werner & Kruger, 2007:13; Moyo, 2009:341; Falk *et al.*, 2017:315). In South Africa specifically, there is near-consensus that redistributive land reform has been unsuccessful, with a startling lack of agreement as to its problems and what remedies should be administered (Aliber & Cousins, 2013:140). Available studies attribute failure to a number of factors such as lack of consultations of beneficiaries in the implementation of land reform, inadequate technical and other support services, poor planning, lack of financial resources. Lahiff & Manenzhe (2007:26) argue that the interventions from the state when involved should consider what the beneficiaries' plans are so that they can increase productivity. This should be based on the aspirations of beneficiaries, and needs to be based on evidence from within and outside South Africa. The provision of support services that include the provision of financial resources for investments, inputs, markets, support infrastructure and advice is also critical (Lahiff & Manenzhe, 2007:25; Moagi & Oladele, 2012:100). There should be a single business plan covering all these items, whether for individual beneficiaries or for groups. Resources should be disbursed from a single fund, in tranches for investments, inputs and advice, and preferably against statements of expenditure instead of receipts (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014:265). However financial support alone cannot guarantee success for emerging farmers (Sebola & Tsheola, 2014:117). Rather, careful planning and consistent and adequate technical and other support are necessary.

6. Results and Interpretation

6.1 Willing Seller, Willing Buyer Principle

On the effect of the 'willing seller, willing buyer' principle on the pace of land redistribution in the area, the results showed that all the land under the different redistribution models (SLAG, LRAD and PLAS) in the case study areas, was obtained through government buying land on that principle.

Responses from participants confirmed that the pace of land reform in all the models has been slow because most of the farms in the district are under claim. So the number of land redistribution projects was very limited.

6.2 Rationale of Policy Shifts

The rationale of the shift in policy from SLAG to LRAD was government's intention to promote more productive use of land, hence the focus of LRD on land redistribution for agricultural purposes only whereas SLAG had included land for residential purposes. PLAS was designed to promote individual-owned land redistribution for commercial production. It was an attempt to improve productive and commercial use of land. Basically, the government reviewed its policy outcomes at each stage of implementation so that when, for example, conflicts were observed in the SLAG model, policy was revised to the LRAD model. The field study found that SLAG beneficiaries were more worried about the number of households in the project. As explained earlier, the model allowed for households to pool their grants together for purchase of land and so, the numbers involved became unmanageable. There were also some conflicts between the project and the local traditional leadership as the surrounding community invaded their land. One of the beneficiaries indicated that:

Due to the seriousness of the invasions that are happening in our land, we have tried the court and we have paid lawyers but we came back with nothing. They are still busy invading our land. When we approached the local chief not to demarcate stands in our land he told us that Shangaans (Mutonga) don't have land.

6.3 Implementation and Subsequent Effects of Redistribution Approaches

The study intended to find out about implementation and subsequent effects of the redistribution approaches on the livelihoods of the farming communities. As explained in the theoretical framework, the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) was adopted for analysis of findings. From the interviews that were conducted, the emerging position was that most of the projects failed to increase the incomes of the new farmers. However, there were instances where households pointed to some positive impacts on their quality of life. For example, one

household that is staying on the farm indicated that the land redistribution programme made a positive impact on them.

The poultry structure that was built on the farm changed my life for the better as I am managing to get the little income from the sale of the broilers. I cannot stay at home and wait for the market. The market will find me here.

However, most of the beneficiaries were bitter as they hardly had an income that they have made in their farming enterprises. Even though some of the households have built houses, furniture, sending their children to school the income that was made from farming activities was not sustainable like in village A when they had the contract with the market. The creation of employment in most of these farms was very minimal and one female aged 48 indicated that:

We have been supported we agree, what do we have to show for it. Do you think if I die today, my kids will be interested in this farm?

Some of the beneficiaries in this study were trained in the agricultural college around the area in marketing, leadership and other short courses offered by government. This enhanced some of their skills in production in their farms. It was evident that most of the beneficiaries in the study area were dissatisfied with the nature and amount of support from the government. Post settlement support was blamed as the course of the failure of these projects as most of them failed to create jobs for beneficiaries, generate income for household consumption. Government has to provide extensive support in terms of credit, services, electricity, irrigation and marketing of agricultural infrastructure to the new land redistribution beneficiaries.

One male respondent aged 46 indicated that he had attended so many trainings in Madzivhandila, he had even lost track of the number, and all this training was related to broiler farming.

Some participants pointed to the delays in the support after the transfer of land were a problem to the households that benefitted from this program.

When we started the previous farm owner put the farm on the market and Nkuzi (NGO) assisted us with getting the information so that we could

access the land. We had to group ourselves so that we could have land. We moved onto the farm before it was even finalised.

In PLAS farms, the beneficiaries could not really empower themselves through the land received and improve their wellbeing. In all the models, poverty is still at unacceptable levels even though the beneficiaries have land. In terms of physical capital, which is also one of the SLF impact indicators, this was lacking across the SLAG, LRAD and PLAS programmes as most of the farmers explained that the infrastructure on the farms was old and dilapidated. In areas where the beneficiaries were assisted financially by government, they were not happy with the funding as most of what they needed was not addressed except for few projects which benefitted through infrastructure development. At least, the SLAG and LRAD had the title deed and could access loans. The policy against allowing PLAS beneficiaries to own or hold the title deeds was or is a serious obstacle to the beneficiaries' capacity to access credit and improve their farms. So, physical capital is a challenge. They only have land user rights under leasehold arrangement.

With respect to social capital, it did appear that there was limited impact on this as farmers were struggling to work on their own land and improve production. The study did not get any evidence of organisation of the new land owners or regular meetings in which they would discuss the challenges that they were facing. That would indicate limited social capital. The top down approach used by officials is not helping as they are not meaningfully consulted with regards to services that are rendered. The needs of the beneficiaries must be properly addressed to empower them and proper planning will enhance and increase productivity. In the study it was clear that the effective utilisation of land can yield incomes to sustain the beneficiaries' livelihoods.

6.4 Implications of Models on Ownership and Control of Land

The implications and analysis of these models on ownership and control of land found that in the SLAG and LRAD programs, the ownership and control of the land was enhanced as the beneficiaries had ownership in the form of the title deed which gives them security if they need access to credit from commercial banks. The positive impact of

these programmes in terms of ownership to land is reflected by one of the participants who said:

I am now a very respectable man around my community because I have a farm now. I am not only a farmer, but I am a new farm owner with a title deed and that is great, nobody believed that a black man could have a title deed for a farm. When it all started it was like a dream.

However, in the PLAS farms, the beneficiaries were not happy with the government retaining the title deeds. That is because they have no security to access credit in the banks and they only rely on the state to provide much needed support which is not available on time and in most cases not enough.

I am not happy at all, I am staying on a state farm without a lease agreement and I should be staying with the title deed.

Ownership of land can in itself empower the beneficiaries as an asset to improve their livelihoods. However, it was evident from the study that owning land does not necessarily bring about development if the land is not productively used. This was echoed by one participant:

When I moved onto the farm I was so happy because I had been farming and I wanted to expand my farming but the government was holding my hands because of the title deed.

Currently there is not much information published on PLAS farms and the challenges that they are facing with regard to lack of title deeds. But clearly, most of the beneficiaries are not willing to invest on a state farm in which they only have a user right (without the title deed). These findings confirm the general consensus on limited success of South Africa's land reforms to date (for example, Aliber & Cousins, 2013:140; Kariuki, 2008:147). While cognisant of the scientific principle that information from small case studies cannot be generalised to the nation, these case studies raise questions in relation to the current issue of expropriation of land without compensation which the ruling party has now introduced. In the event that the policy is implemented, it will be critical for policy makers to recognise that ownership and access to title deeds is very important to any prospective recipient of land under any future redistribution initiative. Failure to give title may stall investments in improving the

land and thus ensuring sustainable use of the land and also maximizing benefits to the land owners.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study was about assessing the impact of South Africa's early land reform experiments. These were the SLAG, LRAD and the current PLAS approaches. Research findings showed that while the "willing-seller willing-buyer" principle enabled the government to purchase land for redistribution in all three models, the pace was slow because of claims on some of the land that government could have purchased for the programmes. Results also showed that there were mixed outcomes in terms of the impact indicators derived from the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework which was the adopted theoretical lens for the study. While participants were positive about the opportunity to own land (under the SLAG and LRAD models), they were very critical about the new PLAS model because of the shift in government policy from allowing recipients to have title deeds to the land to arrangements where they could only have user rights under leasehold arrangements. PLAS farmers felt that they cannot access loans since they cannot use the land as collateral. Furthermore, in all models, participants felt that benefits in terms of incomes and new jobs were minimal because of lack of support from the government in terms of technical, financial and infrastructural support. The paper therefore recommends that more comprehensive research be carried out on the pertinent issue of individual property rights/title to land as opposed to state ownership/leasing approach that characterizes the PLAS model. It also recommends research to determine more effective institutional machineries, strategic approaches and processes for effective delivery of technical, material and financial support to farmers who acquire land under any future land reform scenarios.

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Embezzlement of the National Petroleum Fund in Botswana

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Abstract: The government of Botswana had created the National Petroleum Fund (NPF) in order to cushion Botswana from oil inflationary increases and by October 2016 it was reported be around at 600 million Pula while by November 6, 2017, almost a year later, it was reported to be running dry. The blunder that government made was that they left the funds in the Ministry of Mineral Resources, Green Technology and Energy Security (MMGE) regardless of the fact that the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning (MFDP) had requested that the funds be transferred to his ministry and be managed from there. Botswana has over the years been given accolades of being the least corrupt country on Africa. The case of the "disappearance of the NPF" funds indicates that the standard of ethics has degenerated in the country. This paper uses secondary data to disentangle the myth that Botswana may still be the shining example of good governance in Africa using the case study of NPF funds embezzlement by some of those entrusted to safeguard the fund.

Keywords: Corruption, Embezzlement, Public funds, Botswana

1. Introduction

Corruption has no boundaries as it is found both in developed and developing countries (Lawal, 2007). Corruption has been receiving more attention from scholars, technocrats and the public at large due to its negative outcomes which are well documented cases of corruption in the developed countries. Furthermore, Lawal (2007), asserts that in Africa there are clear signs and symptoms of corruption as there have been no significant or improvement pertaining the issue of development in many African States. This is evidenced in the inability of most governments to reduce poverty, provide basic amenities and good education (Nwankwo, 2014). The reduction of poverty, increased levels of education and low corruption rates in a country is a fundamental step in the realization of development (Shah, 2009).

Corruption in the United Kingdom (UK) is defined by the Fraud Act (United Kingdom, 2006), as crime which can be committed in three ways, firstly by abuse of position, false representation and lastly failure to disclose information. According to the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI), fraud is perceived as cheating, stealing and lying (Silverstone, Sheetz, Pednault & Rudewicz, 2012). Fraud is an act of unlawfully and intentionally making false presentation to the actual or the prejudicing of other individuals (Western Cape Provincial Treasury, 2012). Therefore, fraud encompasses criminal

offences such as the use of public or taxpayers' money for private gains. The next section discusses theories of corruption under which embezzlement is subsumed.

2. Methods and Materials

The article relies mainly on secondary data particularly newspapers and financial reports. In that regard, secondary data is normally defined in opposition to primary data (Kozioł & Arthur, 2011). Therefore, secondary data refers to data that is already available, having been collected for some other purposes (Boslaugh, 2007). Yet, this data may be beneficial to one's research purpose. There are several advantages of using secondary data particularly the aforementioned sources as there are also disadvantages. The obvious advantage of secondary sources is that they are cheaper and conveniently easier to access. According to Boslaugh (2007), secondary data can be commended for it is economical in nature. In other words, it does not require one to devote an extensive amount of resources for this purpose. However, it can be considered costly if the secondary sources being utilised need to be purchased, for example; newspapers need to be bought. Regardless of this factor the cost is significantly lower than starting from scratch. Secondary data provides a way to access the work of the best scholars all over the world and in the case of this research, the best journalists and economic experts in the country. Boslaugh (2007), confirms

this thought as he acknowledges that with secondary data there is breadth of information available. Furthermore, secondary data is informed by expertise and professionalism (Herron, 1989).

Secondary data is inherent in nature; this means that one works with data that has been availed to them (Boslaugh, 2007). Thus, it is mainly dependant on a third party. Data collected by the third party can be considered significantly less reliable and less accurate as the process; planning and the execution can be questionable. This is held up by Johnston (2017), who clarifies that secondary data analysis often lacks literature that defines the specific process used for data collection. Secondary data collected can distort the results of the research. The utilisation of secondary data requires special care to amend or modify for use. Therefore, it is important to determine the purpose of the original project that produced the data because it can influence a number of factors (Johnston, 2017).

3. Theories

3.1 Theory of Differential Association

The Theory of Differential Association was founded by Edwin Sutherland during the 1930s. According to Wells (2005), Sutherland was one of the first researchers of white-collar crime. His research mainly focused on fraud committed by individuals holding high level positions, he stated that usually the public or shareholders will bear the negative consequences of this crime. Sutherland (1949) asserts that the Theory of Differential Association elucidates that crime is learned just like any other phenomenon. Sutherlands further contends that any crime that is committed, a communication process would have taken place; hence the help of other individuals is a necessity for the crime to be successful. Furthermore, Sutherland (1949) opines that crime is committed where there is a conducive environment to violate the laws, rules and regulations compared to where the environment is constrictive or prohibitive. More so it has been discovered that any organization which consists of untrustworthy employees will pass that behaviour to trustworthy employees and inevitably the trustworthy employees will help or aid the untrustworthy employees (Sutherland, 1949; Wells, 2005). However, like any other theory, the Differential Association Theory has its own critics. Akers (1996) is of the view that the Differential Association Theory is inconclusive

because not all individuals associated with criminals will end up being criminals themselves.

3.2 The Fraud Diamond Theory

Wolfe and Hermanson (2004) founded the Diamond Theory which states that for fraud to occur, other than having the opportunity, rationale and motivation, the perpetrator should possess the capabilities of committing the crime. The capability encompasses the ability to actually carry out the crime without being noticed and have the technological knowledge of how to carry out the crime (Wolfe & Hermanson, 2004).

3.3 The Fraud Scale

The Fraud Scale was developed by Albrecht, Howe and Romney in 1983. Albrecht, Howe and Romney (1983) assert that the major causes of fraud are the level of the individual personal integrity, the availability of a chance to cover up the fraud and lastly the environmental pressure. The problems faced by the individuals are likely to pressure them to commit the fraud regardless of the nature and type of the environment. More so the individuals are likely to commit fraud because of the opportunities they create themselves or the individuals will utilise opportunities because of the missing or loose internal organizational controls. Lastly personal integrity entails the ethical behaviour which an individual adopts. Albrecht *et al.* (1983) advances that when one's individual integrity is low, availability of chances of committing fraud and environmental pressures are high. There are higher chances of fraud being committed compared to when there is no situational pressure, no chances of committing fraud and lastly when one's individual integrity is high (Albrecht *et al.*, 1983).

4. Embezzlement at the International Level

As propounded by Feng (1997) embezzlement and bribery has become a common crime in the modern day world. Feng further postulated that embezzlement and bribery compromises the integrity of both the state personnel and institutions. Liu (1983) asserts that since the economic reform of 1978, corruption has even become a common phenomenon to the extent that it is even found at every level of China's political system. In actual fact China has reintroduced stiffer penalties to those who have

been found to be corrupt which are expected to act as a deterrent (Guifeng, 2009). According to the Transparency International (2018), Nigeria is ranked number 32 on the list of 52 countries which were assessed. The second most transparent and least corrupt country in the continent is Botswana ranked at 34 out of 180 countries. However, this does not mean that there are no corrupt activities which have been carried out of late; this is evidenced by the high profile case of National Petroleum Fund where elites embezzled government money. New Zealand tops the world Transparency Index, the second country is Denmark and lastly Switzerland, Norway and Finland are co-joined on third place by following good governance. Important lessons can be derived from these aforementioned countries because they have managed to curb corruption. Martini and Chêne (2011) assert that there is little research carried out on the countries believed to have succeeded in combating corruption. However, Martini and Chêne (2011), postulates that the aforementioned countries do have similar enabling conditions and common high levels of media freedom and prioritisation of human rights such as freedom of information. Access of information will allow the citizens to hold public officials accountable for their actions thereby ensuring that there is transparency in how public institutions are governed thereby reducing the prevalence of corruption.

4.1 Zimbabwe

According to Moyo (2014), corruption is an act or behaviour which tends to deviate from the prescribed role or duty of public officials because of the possibility of personal private gains. Zimbabwe is not immune to rampant cases of corruption. This has led scholars such as Robinson (2004), to assert that one of the major developmental challenges being faced by Zimbabwe is corruption. According to Tizor (2009), the definition of corruption as espoused by (Moyo, 2014) describes public office bearers in Zimbabwe as they regard public offices as a conducive environment to amass untraceable wealth. Makumbe (1994 & 2011), observed that the challenge of corruption in Zimbabwe is highly linked with the nature and type of leadership (unethical). He further opines that the unethical type of leadership found in Zimbabwe has fuelled the blossoming of corruption. Zimbabwean public officials are deemed to be acting in an unethical manner because of their contributions in the squandering of national resources which are meant to benefit the

nation at large. High profile cases of embezzlement are that of War Victims Compensation Fund (WVCF) scandal of 1994 and Willowgate in 1998 (Nyarota, 2006; Shana, 2006).

4.2 China

It is believed that the levels of corruption in China have damaged its cordial relations with its Western counterparts. This has led to the undermining of the government of China's political and economic procedures and systems (Zhu & Zhang, 2016). According to Zhu and Zhang (2016), in the Chinese context corruption encompasses malpractices at the workplace, attainment or amassing of wealth illegally, misuse of government properties and public funds, graft, bribery and lastly embezzlement. Corruption in China holds back economic development, precipitates poverty and instability, which leads to an imbalanced distribution of income across communities (Wu & Zhu, 2011). Furthermore, Ko and Weng (2012) asserts that corruption in China has evolved from non-transactional corruption which is dominated by misappropriation and embezzlement of funds to transactional type of corruption which encompasses bribery. Additionally, Wedeman (2004) opines that corruption drastically rose from the 1980s to the 1990s, whereby high profile cases of corruption/embezzlement were significantly on the rise. High level public officials were implicated in these corruption cases involving large amount of money (Wedeman, 2004). In China high profile cases of corruption, have been repeatedly associated with top public officials (Tang, 2018). The case of a politburo member of the CCP party allegedly to be involved in corrupt activities brought much attention on the top public officials (The Guardian, 2012). Moreover, there were other allegations on the former politburo standing committee member of the CCP and he was deemed to be the top leader of the CCP since 1949 to be involved in corrupt activities (New York Times, 2014).

5. Different Methods/Types of Embezzling Public Funds

Embezzlement refers to the misuse of public funds. Embezzlement is an intentional misspending of money (Fan, Lin & Treisman, 2009). This refers to the appropriation of money and other assets meant for a specific purpose for either personal use or for what it is not meant for the specific organisation (Bartz, Strock & Harris, 2000). Such an act is

an unauthorized disbursement of money or other assets for personal gain. Misappropriation of funds or embezzlement is the highest type of fraud in organisations. People deliberately convert public funds to personal use without a blink of fear or conscience disturbance (Ibanichuka & Onuoha, 2012). The types of embezzlement include; paying fictitious purchase and contract payment for no returning inwards, outright taking away of corporate government resource or assets for personal use (larceny). Examples of such include cheque books not being accounted for in the general ledgers, revenue reconciling their own journal entries, illegal collection of cash from coffers just to mention but a few (Bartz, Strock & Harris, 2000).

A common method of embezzlement is a case in which funds entrusted to one person or entity into is used for personal gain. Embezzlement may also be regarded hand in hand with outright taking away corporate government resources for personal use (Ibanichuka & Onuoha, 2012). This is noted to have been common in the public sector. In Zimbabwe, auditors exposed embezzlement. The Auditor General (AG) of Zimbabwe exposed massive misappropriation of funds at the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ) where huge sums of money exceeding the legally permissible threshold were spent on shady donations. According to the (Government of Zimbabwe, 2017), the MMCZ spent a total of US\$2 989 913 on social corporate responsibility against the approved US\$250 000. This is supported by a legislative instrument called the Minerals and Marketing Corporation Act Section 21 provides that the corporation shall provide financial assistance to any institution or person whose activities or part of whose activities or part of whose activities are such as to be, in the opinion of the board, of benefit to the corporation or to the mining industry or any part of that industry (Government of Zimbabwe, 2017). This comes as the government has always expressed concern over accounting for low revenues from the sale of minerals. Concern has also been raised at how the revenue is being used amid reports that the bulk of the funds are diverted to personal use. It is unclear what the extra US\$2 750 000 was used for. This is a clear indication of public funds being embezzled in the public sector as noted by auditors.

A familiar method noted in the issue of misappropriation of funds is the issue of paying for fictitious purchase and contract payment for no return

inwards. This is often seen in corrupt public sectors; auditors on various occasions found it. In some cases, the public enterprises department flouted regulations governing the use of funds running into millions of dollars. One such organisation is the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe, which paid over US\$25 228 in fees to a non-existent board as reported by the Auditor General (Government of Zimbabwe 2017). The Auditor General of Zimbabwe commented on the aforementioned issues as she clarified that such activities as she said there is a risk-board may be paid for services not rendered. In the absence of the declaration of interests, objectivity may be compromised when decisions are made on issues that management and Board members have an interest in are made (Government of Zimbabwe, 2017).

Another method reported by the auditors in the public sector is larceny which goes hand in hand with another method that is the illegal taking of corporate or government resources or assets or property for personal use (Hemmens, 2015). This is a character driven by greed and personal interests and desire to gain economic benefit through the position they occupy. Cases such as that mentioned have been foreign in Botswana; this can be noted as Botswana is number 1 in sub-Saharan according to Corruption Perceptions Index and it ranks at 34/175 world over as of 2018. This may be considered impressive especially in Africa. However, Botswana in recent years particularly in 2017 has not been totally immune to the ills of embezzlement. This refers to the scandal reported in the Mmegi Newsletter on the 8th of December 2017 reporting a business men Director of Kgori Capital and others of having stolen at least P320 million from the National Petroleum Fund and laundered it through the businesses which the counterparts had set up.

6. Botswana's Experience of Embezzlement – the NPF Case Study

6.1 Those Implicated in the Fraud

Botswana's good image of being the least corrupt country in Africa was debunked by the case of the National Petroleum Fund and other scandals that have rocked the country in the last ten years between 2008 and 2018. The NPF case was brought to the country's attention by the local newspapers on allegations of money laundering by several individuals including high ranking officials, a Minister,

High Court Judge, President, Vice President, companies and directors, and a business mogul (Mokwena, 2018). The authors are cautious of the fact that the case is before the courts and therefore the names have been deliberately left out.

6.2 Amount Purported to be Embezzled Including Properties and Other Items

It is alleged that P250 million Pula was embezzled by those who were supposed to safeguard it for the nation. The purpose of the fund, according to Mr Merapelo Tautona (Principal Energy Officer), is to cushion the retail prices as government doesn't give out money to cushion prices (BOPA, 2016). Instead of achieving this goal, the money is reportedly to have been embezzled and fraudulently used for personal gain by one of those implicated to buy several properties in and outside the country, numerous expensive cars including Mesarati Ghibli (over P1, 000, 000.00), Rolls Royce Phantom worth about P3 million, Mercedes Benzes and others (16 in total), Rolex GMT Master 1 watch worth P80 000 (ZAR134 385.00), demolished and build a house for P5 330 439.00 "from the 1st November 2017 to 17th May 2018" (Mathala, 2019). Government has taken steps to repossess most if not all the properties alluded to above. Most of the properties alluded to have been impounded by government. The other co-accused also brought lavish properties in and outside Botswana. The accused have been charged with 65 counts of money laundering except for one former employee of the Ministry of Mineral Resources, Green Technology and Energy Security (MMGE) who has been charged with abuse of office, money laundering, theft, and giving false information to a public officer (Mathala, 2019). As the case continues, the embezzled amount keeps going up.

7. Measures of Curbing Embezzlement in Botswana

7.1 Auditing

Auditing is a mechanism that can be used to ensure accountability of public funds in Botswana on both levels of government that is macro and micro to curb embezzlement. The office of the Auditor-General (AG) generally adheres to the standards that have been set by the International Organisation of Supreme Audit Institutions (INTOSAI). INTOSAI advocates for the legal requirements with respect to the appointment and termination of the Auditor-General, the

financing of the budget, the hiring of staff, the auditor's jurisdiction and the timing and extent of dissemination of audit reports. In reality it is almost impossible to audit all government entities every year. However, 80% of central government expenditure goes under audit yearly. The audit looks into revenue received, expenditure on top of the assets and liabilities. According to limi (2006) a variety of audits are performed, including systems audits, financial and compliance, procurement and some performance audits as well as payroll and recently Information Technology audits have been introduced in Botswana

7.2 Separation of Powers

Botswana is the country first in Africa and 38th position out 179 worldwide for the 2007 Corruption Perception Index (CPI) in terms of curbing corruption and maintaining little or no corruption (Transparency International Corruption Perception, 2009). Furthermore, Botswana has adopted the principle of separation of power between legislative, executive and judicial branches of government. This measure has ensured accountability by promoting a high level of predictability and transparency, with limited incidence of corruption as no sector can be bought as there is separation of power. Such measures have encouraged micro and macro officials to handle public funds honestly and transparently, thus curbing embezzlement. While the above statement may be true, the case study of the National Petroleum Fund is one of those that indicate that there is corruption in Botswana. In actual fact, there are more cases of corruption that have been investigated, perpetrators tried and found guilty.

7.3 Anti-Corruption Initiatives

Several anti-corruption initiatives have been put in place to ensure there little or no embezzlement throughout the country's financial systems. In this regard, a lot attention is then drawn to formidable laws that include the Corruption and Economic Crime Act (CECA) which established the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC); the first task of the DCEC is to carry out investigations on any allegations of economic crime and corruption, moreover the agency has got the prerogative to further investigate transactions which are frivolous and lastly the DCEC is mandated to share investigative findings with the Directorate of Public Prosecutions (DPP). The other overlapping functions

of DCEC is the prevention of public sector corruption through regular audits and carrying out public educational activities on the negative impact of corruption (Sebudubudu, 2014). Also to ensure that the public servants of Botswana adhere to good ethical standards or practices. The government enacted the Corruption and Economic Crime Act of 1994 (CECA), meanwhile the Office of Ombudsman was commissioned in 1995. However, according to the Revenue Watch (2013), there are no transparent laws in Botswana; this has led to unclear operational practices of political institutions which are already on the obscurity of public scrutiny. Additionally, Stiftung (2014) contends that Botswana has no framework/law that obligates the public servants to declare their assets. Stiftung (2014) asserts that, this has led the public to contend that there is no genuine will on the part of politicians to curb the misuse of power and corruption. Similar sentiments were espoused by Motshegwa, Bodilenyane and Mooketsane (2016). Botswana in its Financial Intelligence Act: CAP 08:07 Sub-Section 35 [1(A&B)] requires Directors to declare their assets and it doesn't clarify if all public servants and politicians should do the same.

The Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act (Republic of Botswana, 2002) adopts a decentralised approach with public entities made responsible for managing procurement with the role of oversight, regulation, monitoring and evaluation, inspection of the procurement record and capacity development being the responsibility of the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board in order to minimise embezzlement. Procurement responsibilities are under the jurisdiction of the Accounting Officer as stipulated in current procurement legal and regulatory framework the responsibility for procurement is given to the Accounting Officer. The procurement act principles are still active to this day.

The Botswana Constitution is also a tool for controlling public funds which provides the foundation for public financial management as proposed in Chapter VIII while details are regulated by the Finance and Audit Act (Republic of Botswana Constitution). The constitutions allocate lucid roles and responsibilities to all levels of government (central and sub-national) this can be considered as micro and macro levels of government, which are held up by the requirements of the Finance and Audit Act. The important jurisdictions concerning public finance management comprises of the management of the Consolidated Fund where government revenues

ought to be deposited and "direct charges to the Consolidated Fund including for the remuneration of the Auditor General; the direct charge to the Consolidated Fund for public debt service; the role, jurisdiction and independence of the Auditor General (Republic of Botswana Constitution, 2006:45). A clear definition, who does what, when and how, allows for elaborate and easy steps to be taken if there are ever any inconsistencies.

8. Conclusion

Embezzlement of funds by public officials is detrimental to developmental initiatives. Funds which are supposed to be channelled towards the betterment of lives of the citizens are gobbled by few individuals. If this is not addressed properly, the challenge of embezzlement will continue widening the gap between the poor and rich which will subsequently crash the spirit of equity which is advocated by good governance practices. Highly ranked countries on the International Transparency Index such as Denmark and New Zealand have made positive strides in combating the cancerous crime of embezzlement. The aforementioned countries have prioritised the issue of human rights which include freedom of information. Freedom of information is whereby government activities are made transparent to the public which will inherently increase accountability since public officials will be accountable for their actions. More so countries such as China have enacted tough and stiff punishments for perpetrators of embezzlement such as payment of huge sums of money and death penalty. The stiff punishments will act as deterrents to those who would commit corruption in the form of embezzlement. If Botswana is committed to really stamping out corruption, they should benchmark with the aforementioned countries.

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The Effects of Crime in the South African Post Office: A Case of the North East Region

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Abstract: This paper argues that crime in the Postal Services is gradually becoming a challenge all over the world. Reliable statistics indicate that there is an increase on a yearly basis in criminal activities within postal services globally. The South African Post Office as part of a global institution, it is not immune to types of crimes associated to this industry. For the South African Post Office (SAPO) to play a leading role in reducing crime upward trajectory line, it has to seriously impose on security measures to reduce it. This paper is therefore based on the study that was conducted in the South African Post Office, North East Region. The primary objective of this study is to recommend crime prevention strategies which can assist in reducing crime and conscientising the South African Post Office employees on the effects of crime and the consequence thereof. The research method employed in the study was both qualitative and quantitative. Different textbooks, journal articles, the internet, Acts and other documents were consulted for secondary data sources. From the study, it is concluded that crime has a detrimental effect on Post Office reputation, low profit margins, reduced public confidence and reduced commitment by SAPO staff members. This paper recommends that SAPO should serious employ crime prevention strategies especially in areas where critical transactions are performed.

Keywords: Crime, Crime statistics, Crime prevention, Fraud

1. Introduction

One of the most important issues that faces South Africa today is the proliferates of crime. It is the legal, social, and cultural factors that have influenced the Parliament to determine the statutory framework, which, by and laws govern actions that are then classified as legal or illegal. Many authors such as Burchell & Milton (1991) Stevens & Cloete (1996), and Snyman (2002) assert that there are several sources of organisational and corporate crimes that affect the good governance of an organisation. Organisations and corporates are linked to crimes, as the authors have perceived and may have impact on taxation, environmental laws, job security and anti-monopoly laws; thereby contributing to economic problem in most institutions. Several studies undertaken have identified various causal factors of crime in organisations. However, the findings from these studies do not reveal the relationships between organisational culture and the causes of the crimes by the employees of the organisation and South African Post Office in particular. These studies reveal that effective strategic prevention of organisational crime in an organisation can help in maximising profit in respect to reduction of fraud, theft, mail secretion and mail violation. Nevertheless, none of these studies has attempted to propose the implementation of crime strategies in minimising

organisational crime from postal perspective and thereby improving customer confidence. This paper will look at crime in the South African Post Office, with specific reference to the North East Region. The study undertook to research the effects of crime in the South African Post Office, with particular reference to the North East Region. Crime in selected post offices in the North East region was investigated in order to understand the severity of the problem.

2. Legislative and Regulatory Framework

2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The South African Constitution is the supreme law in South Africa. Section 179(2) of the Constitution states that the prosecuting authority has the power to institute criminal proceedings on behalf of the state. Any acts or omissions by people, including organizations and corporations, which are contrary to the law are punishable and this duty is executed by the courts. In view of the above, an employee of the South African Post office (SAPO) that engages in crime must be reported. The Public Finance Management Act (1 of 1999) applicable to work places in general, also serves to protect public money, particularly in the postal services.

2.2 The South African Postal Services Act (128 of 1998)

Chapter 8 of the Postal Services Act defines the different offences applicable to this legislation. Section 69 states "Any person who otherwise than in pursuance of his or her duty opens or tampers with or wilfully destroys, makes away with or secretes any mail or postal article or allows any mail or postal article to be opened or tampered with, destroyed, made away with or secreted is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a fine or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding seven years or both a fine and such imprisonment". Statistics by SAPO RUBI (2012a) indicates that out of 70 cases of mail crime lodged with SAPO Security and Investigation division; only 16 of those cases were reported to the SAPS.

2.3 Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act (12 of 2004)

Section 3 of the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act states that any person who gives or accepts or agrees or offers to accept/receive any gratification from another person in order to influence such other person in a manner that amounts to:

- The illegal or unauthorized performance of such other person's powers or functions;
- An abuse of authority, a breach of trust, or the violation of a legal duty or a set of rules;
- Any other unauthorised or improper inducement to do or not to do anything is guilty of an offence.

Section 4 of the Act further stipulates that any public officer who directly or indirectly, accepts or agrees or offers to accept any gratification from any other person, whether for the benefit of himself or herself or for the benefit of another person in order to act, personally or by influencing another person so to act in a manner that amounts to abuse of authority, breach of trust is guilty of corruption. This Act was designed to curb or prevent corrupt activities in the public sector. To this end, it criminalises corrupt conduct. Companies should implement a comprehensive system of controls to ensure that such risks are mitigated and the companies' objectives are attained.

3. Theoretical Framework

This paper is premised on two theoretical areas: Differential Association Theory and Routine Activities Theory. The Differential Association Theory postulated by Sutherland and Cressey in Williams and McShane (1999:76) maintains that behaviour is learnt. Schuessler in Williams and McShane (1999:81) supports Sutherland and emphasises that individuals will learn towards or away from crime according to the cultural standards of their associates, especially those with whom they spend frequent and long periods. In addition, Bandura (1977:22) states that behaviour is learnt from the environment through the process of observational learning. Models (individuals) copy and imitate the behaviour they have observed. If the consequence of the behaviour is rewarding, the individual is likely to continue performing the behaviour. This theory closely matches the assertion that most of the criminal activities are as a result of the socialisation patterns of employees. This Differential Association Theory is relatively applicable in the South African Post Office environment where fellow employees learn from their colleagues some of the deviant behaviours associated with crime. In this respect, it has been suggested that Postal Services should come up with aggressive awareness programmes to inform the employees of the effects and consequences of crime.

The Routine Activities Theory by Cohen and Felson (1979) identifies three focus elements: a motivated offender, a suitable target and the absence of a capable guardian. The first element (Motivated offender) involves what influence an individual to commit an offence whereas the second element (suitable target) focuses on something worth stealing or taking something that has the appearance of worth. The third element (absence of a capable guardian) deals with the question of who is present to prevent the occurrence of the crime. The Routine Activity Theory states that crime occurs as a result of increased temptations and reduced controls (Helfgott, 2008:74). Williams and McShane (1999:236) maintain that if all three components are present, the probability of crime will increase but if one of the components is missing, crime is less likely to happen. If the Post office (suitable target) is left unattended at night, no security guard deployed to the target (absence of suitable guardian) burglary is most likely to occur. It is against this background that Routine activity theory and

differential association put an emphasis on crime prevention as a preventative measure which companies such as the South African Post Office should follow to curb crime.

4. Crime Prevention

Crime Prevention entails any action designed to reduce the actual level of crime and/or the perceived fear of crime (Lab: 1997:19). City of Jefferson (2009: www.jeffcitymo.org) defines crime prevention as a pattern of attitudes and behaviours directed at reducing the threat of crime and enhancing the sense of safety and security, to positively influence the quality of life in our society and to develop an environment where crime cannot flourish. The City of Jefferson outlines the advantages of preventing organisational defiance by anticipating crime and taking the necessary preventative measures. Mafunisa (2014:1235-1237) identified the following fraud prevention strategies to control and prevent crime:

- **Fraud and risk preparedness:** All role-players in the fight against fraud and corruption should be involved in drafting the fraud prevention plan.
- **Fraud prevention structures and mechanisms:** To combat fraud and corruption effectively departments must have a dedicated fraud prevention and risk management structures.
- **Fraud profile and awareness:** Integration of ethical awareness and a sense of moral responsibility into institutional culture through such internal controls as development, and the formal distribution, of service codes, ethics workshops, and dissent channels would reinforce ethics training.
- **Procedures for reporting fraud and corruption:** Departments should have procedures in place to enable employees to report fraud and corruption.
- **Success factors for fraud prevention:** Departments should be requested to identify success factors for the effectiveness of their fraud prevention plan. Communicating the plan to all employees and role-players and continuous review of the plan to align it with the departmental risk assessment results constitute success factors for other departments.

To fight crime rigorously, companies should analyse data which will inform management of the prevalence of crime in a certain crime category and management to mitigate such crimes accordingly. By implications it means that all crime incidents should be recorded and statistics be analysed to arrive at a certain conclusion with regard to crime patterns.

5. Crime Statistics

Crime statistics refer to all information and data regarding the crime phenomenon and, these are arranged and tabulated in a scientific way in order to give a clear picture of the crime problem (Stevens & Cloete, 1996:7). By implication, it means that crime statistics can help management and law enforcement agencies within the institution to focus on specific areas of crime. The South African Post Office uses Risk Universe Business Intelligence (RUBI) as a system to record crime incidents which will show where suspicious activities may be occurring and then link data to individuals, transactions or offices to reveal potential criminal patterns (Khotsa, 2014:9). Offences such as fraud, theft and mail violation are common crimes associated with the postal industry and for the purpose of this article fraud will be the focus area.

6. The Juridical Elements of Fraud

Before a specific act can be defined as crime, certain elements have to be present, namely, act, the act must be unlawful, and there must be an element of guilt, as well as a threat of punishment (Stevens & Cloete, 1996:7). Fraud is also perceived as crime and is punishable by law. The South African Post Office is a retail institution amongst the transactions performed by the South African Post Office, is receipt money and payment on cash to its customers. Associated with the nature of Post Office business, fraud becomes one of the most common offences committed by employees. From the juridical point of view, it is important to highlight elements of fraud so that management can be able to identify such elements and deal with fraud effectively. Snyman (2002:521-527) explains the elements of fraud as:

Misrepresentation: The very first requirement for fraud is that there must be a misrepresentation or, as it is sometimes expressed, "a perversion or distortion of the truth".

Table 1: Post Office Crime Statistics 2011/2012 Financial Year

Crime category	Number of incidents	Direct financial loss
Robberies	95	8,527,338
Housebreakings	152	1,292,139
Hijacking	2	-
Cash in transit	3	11,000
Postbank fraud	347	36,660,612
Financial misconduct	402	6,589,683
Postal crime	1 411	865,160
Theft	176	1,939,374
Misconduct	168	1,382,432
Other	35	3,863
TOTAL	2,791	57,271,601

Source: South African Post Office cost of crime (2011/2012)

Table 2: Cost of Selected Crimes Against Business

Type of Crime	No of Incidents	Cost	Average Per Incident
Burglary	700,239	\$1.4 billion	\$1,991
Shoplifting	785,228	\$1.6 billion	\$205
Embezzlement	15,151	\$20-90 billion	

Source: Bressler (2009:6)

Prejudice: The crime is committed if it brings about some form of harm to another. It should be noted that prejudice may either be actual or potential.

Unlawfulness: The intention to defraud entails knowledge by the perpetrator that he/she is falsifying a document.

Intention: One must first be aware of the fact that representation is false.

Potential prejudice: Potential prejudice means that the misrepresentation looked at objectively, involved some risk of prejudice, or what is likely to prejudice.

7. Effects of Crime

Crime has an adverse effect on the organisation, employers and employees and if crime is left unattended, the whole postal system will collapse. It is therefore the responsibility of all stakeholders within the postal industry to ensure effective crime prevention strategies to eliminate this scourge.

7.1 Crime and Cost

Crime and cost cannot be separated and therefore, an increase in crime will lead to an increase in cost.

Stolen properties need to be replaced and this necessitates insurance companies to increase monthly premium payment on insured goods and products covered by insurance companies. In the 2011/12 financial year, the following statistics were reported by the Post Office Security and Investigation division.

Table 1 clearly indicates that postal crime, Postbank fraud, and theft remain a concern in the Post Office. Similarly, the 2007 Report on Crime in the United States indicates that stolen office equipment alone totalled a staggering amount of \$656,982,032. Furthermore, burglaries, have on average, cost businesses \$1,989.

Tables 1 and 2 reflect fraud and embezzlement as the most prevalent crime in the retail business with fraud and other financial misconduct cases in the South African Post Office costing approximately R43, 250,295 and embezzlement in the United States costing \$20-90 billion. Hence, an effective crime prevention strategy should have to be given priority to counteract offences like fraud, theft, burglary, embezzlement, and related financial crimes.

7.2 Imprisonment

According to Coleman and Moynihan (1996:1060, certain offences are more likely to come to the attention

of the criminal justice system. The Department of Justice is committed to deal with offences, especially crime committed within the Post Office environment. Mooki (2012:6) reported the case of Maxam who was sentenced to an effective 23 years by the Gauteng high court for masterminding fraud and other offences totalling R2 million at South African Post Office branches around Gauteng in 2008. His co-accused Selepe was sentenced to an effective 20-year sentence. The actions of Maxam cost taxpayers millions of rands with Postbank suffering 1 942 fraudulent transactions amounting to R55 million over the past 5 years. Imprisonment exceeding 15 years is imposed only for very serious offences. Such sentences are likely to serve as a punishment and deterrent to those intent on committing Post Office crimes. With deterrence, the belief is that the imposition of punishment sends out a message that crime will be punished, and that as a result of this message, members of society will fear that if they transgress the law, they will be punished, and that this fear will result in their refraining from engaging in criminal conduct (Snyman, 2002:19). By implication it means that deterrence will have an effect on the behaviour of employees. If employees steal from the company, they will either be punished by being dismissed, imprisoned or both. Stevens and Cloete (1996:7) correctly argue that punishment can take the form of imprisonment, a fine, or both.

7.3 Victims

According to Coleman and Moynihan (1996:108), victimisation surveys can be used to make inferences as to the likely class of certain type of offender from knowledge of who is at greatest risk of victimisation. There are instances when employees of a company may become victims of crime committed by their fellow employees, because they unwittingly get involved in such crimes while exercising their duties to their employers. If a teller at the Post Office receives remittance from his/her supervisor and does not verify cash but sign acknowledgement of such cash, is guilty of procedural deficiency if a shortage of cash is found at a later stage. Although cash is not taken/stolen by the recipient, such a teller becomes a victim of circumstances.

7.4 Crime Causes Conflict Between Management and Staff

Assad (2011) correctly argues that management conflict occurs when a problem develops between

workers and the management structure. This invariably has a negative impact on the quality of work produced by a contentious work environment. When leaders involve employees in the decision-making processes, many illegal deals in the organization are prevented to a great extent. Shivambo (2013:2) reported that Post Office employees requested an investigation into maladministration in the South African Post Office which took place in April 2011 where management decided to move its head office from Central Pretoria to Ecopoint in Centurion in which R425 million was wasted on a property lease. By implications it means that crime can cause a conflict between workers and management which could lead to employees not performing up to acceptable standard and; managers not trusting employees.

8. Discussion and Analysis of Results

8.1 Crime Prevention

The majority of the respondents (36.40 percent) stated negatively that there are platforms to discuss crime prevention in the Post Office. 33.20 percent strongly disagree that there are adequate forums to discuss crime prevention in the Post Office. The minority responses (5.90 percent) strongly agree. The reason might be that the available platforms are not sufficiently communicated to the employees.

8.2 Crime Reduction

The majority of the respondents (42.90 percent) disagree that there are adequate measures to reduce crime in the Post Office while 25 percent strongly disagree. There is a strong link between security measures and crime reduction. If security measures are enhanced, crime will drastically be reduced. From the collected data one can conclude that the Post Office does not do enough to reduce crime. Systems such as CCTV cameras, alarm systems should be installed in branches to reduce and prevent crime especially in high risk branches.

8.3 Reliability

The majority of the respondents (38.60 percent) disagree that the Post Office is a reliable banking institution while 18.20 percent strongly disagree with the perception. This indicates that customers are not happy about the Post Office and the perception is as a result of customers being defrauded of their savings and their mail received violated.

This could lead to customers looking for alternative banks to save their monies and other courier companies to send their parcels.

8.4 Discipline

The majority of the respondents (44.40 percent) disagree that discipline is not enough to discourage crime while 37 percent agree that discipline is enough to discourage crime in the Post Office. This leads to the conclusion that discipline is not consistently applied. Skolnick in Barkan (2001:493) affirms that punishment has a general deterrent effect on crime. The disciplinary quote of the Post Office stipulates categories of crime of which, when committed, an employee could be dismissed from work irrespective of whether the act is a first offence or not (SAPO, 2012).

9. Recommendations

It is against the background that the following recommendations were made:

9.1 Installation of Alarm Systems in Branches

The Security and Investigation division of the South African Post Office should ensure that alarm systems are installed in Post Offices which are deemed high risk. Alarms system becomes guardian in the absence of guards to prevent the occurrence of crime.

9.2 Conversion of Post Office Outlets to Acceptable Security Standards

During the survey, it was established majority of the Post Office branches in the North East Region does not meet security standards. Some branches are without counter screens and some alarm system yet such branches processes a lot of cash. In terms of security profiling, such branches are regarded as high risk and it is recommended that the security features be upgraded.

9.3 Education Campaigns

Few people become aware of crimes or how serious these crimes are (Coleman and Moynihan (1996:111). It is important that employees should be warned upfront and be informed of the consequence of crime. There is a saying in the South African Post Office that "you open the mail you go to jail" and such narrative should be emphasised

during awareness sessions. Mafunisa (2014:1236) emphasises that departments in the public service should carry out certain activities to promote awareness on the issue of crime prevention.

9.4 Preventing Organisational Deviance

Internal controls are important cornerstone of crime prevention. If systems and processes are in place, it limits opportunities for crime to occur. Giblin (2014:138) correctly argues that tight systems minimise organisational deviance and avoid operational failures. Similarly, Barkan (2001:436) emphasises that crime control model insists on the prevention and elimination of mistakes to the extent possible. Employees who are found guilty of deviating from internal control mechanisms, consequence management should follow immediately. By so doing, punishment will serve as a deterrent to those who will be performing their functions outside the prescribed rules and regulations. Skolnick in Barkan (2001:493) affirms that punishment has a general deterrent effect on crime. Lab (1997:113) maintains that the deterrent effect relies on the existence of three factors which are celerity, severity and certainty.

9.5 Recruitment and Selections

When new employees join the South African Post Office, such employees should be vetted to ensure that right employees enter the organisation. The process allows Human Resources Division (HRD) to satisfy themselves that new recruits are not attached to criminal activities before entering the organisation. Many staff members are hired with perspective in mind and vetting becomes paramount (Giblin, 2014:59). South African Post Office is a financial institution and dealing with customer's money and therefore, management should ensure that right employees are placed on right positions.

10. Concluding Remarks

Findings in this paper show that crime has an adverse effect on the organisation and literature concurs with the conclusion. The study has argued that crime causes conflict and creates distrust amongst employees and employers. If employees and employers give attention to crime prevention strategies, the Post Office will be able to reduce the level of crime and thereby improve profit margins. This study emphasized that crime prevention is an

activity which should be reviewed continuously to counteract new patterns of crime and statistics is helpful to that determination. The recommendations made will serve as a starting point in reducing crime levels and revive work commitment of the employees of the South African Post Office.

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Employee Performance Reward and Recognition Inequity in the Western Cape Provincial Department of Transport and Public Works

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Abstract: Performance reward amongst employees in the Western Cape Department of Transport and Public Works (WCPDTPW) has been viewed with mixed reactions as a result of fundamental discrepancies associated with the process. The aim of this paper is to explore employee perspectives in relation to performance reward and recognition discrepancies between the lower skilled and highly employees in the Western Cape Provincial Department of Transport and Public Works. Equity theory is applied to explain how perceived inequity in terms of outcomes or rewards could affect employees' motivation to perform in the future. Qualitative research methodology was utilised whereby semi-structured interviews were employed to collect data. A sample of sixteen research participants was selected from the WCPDTPW using a purposive sampling strategy. Data were collected through face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Collected data were analysed using qualitative content analysis. The findings of the paper revealed that participants had negative perceptions concerning performance appraisal and rewards. Moreover, the management of the performance appraisal process is regarded as ineffective and unfair. This process has revealed fundamental performance reward discrepancies between lower-skilled employees and highly skilled employees. Therefore, this paper recommend that the WCPDTPW should also consider non-financial rewards for good performance as a token of appreciation and a means of keeping employees motivated. Moreover, supervisors and managers who are bequeathed with the responsibility of evaluating employee performance should be trained on the ethical considerations of performance appraisal to eliminate bias. Finally, this paper contributes to the body of knowledge and literature with regard to understanding complex issues associated with performance management systems, in particular, the employee performance reward and recognition.

Keywords: Management, Performance appraisal, Performance management, Performance management system, Reward

1. Introduction

This paper explores employee perspectives in relation to performance reward and recognition discrepancies between the lower-skilled and highly skilled employees in the Western Cape Provincial Department of Transport and Public Works (WCPDTPW). The awarding of performance reward forms an integral part of the performance management process. If the performance management system is not implemented fairly, it is bound to compromise the work performance of employees (Makhubela, Botha & Swanepoel, 2016). This could be attributed to the fact that the awarding of performance rewards tends to be the focal point of performance management, which should not be the case. In Sharma, Sharma and Agarwal's (2016) view, performance reward is one of many facets of the performance management process and should

not be the primary focus. Accordingly, performance management consists of parts that interact and work together seamlessly to accomplish predetermined objectives (Bacal, 1999). Therefore, the performance management system cannot succeed if only certain parts or aspects are over-emphasised and attended to whilst the other facets are neglected.

Performance reward amongst employees in the WCPDTPW has been viewed with mixed reactions as a result of fundamental discrepancies associated with the process. Moreover, there is a high discrepancy in terms of performance reward between lower-skilled employees and highly skilled employees in the WCPDTPW. In the 2013/2014 financial year, 51 (17.6%) out of 290 lower-skilled employees were given performance reward, while 158 (51.5%) out of 307 highly skilled employees

received performance reward (Department of Transport and Public Works (DTPW), 2014). The number of beneficiaries of performance reward seems to vary in accordance with the salary bands or grades. Moreover, during the 2014/2015 financial year, approximately 65 (13.8%) out of 471 lower-skilled employees were given performance reward whereas 131 (47.3%) out of 277 highly skilled employees received reward (DTPW, 2015). In addition, during the 2015/2016 financial year, 149 (31.6%) out of 472 lower-skilled employees received performance reward, while 148 (47.9%) out of 309 highly skilled employees were rewarded for their performance (DTPW, 2016). Based on discrepancies that occur during the performance appraisal process, Bekele, Shigutu and Tensey (2014) argue that there is an absence of objectivity in performance appraisal process. Therefore, this paper addresses the question, what are the reasons for performance reward and recognition discrepancies between the lower skilled and highly skilled employees in the WCPDTPW? Answers to this question could contribute to the understanding of different factors that contribute to performance reward inequity in the aforementioned department. Equally important, the concomitant recommendations thereof could assist human resource practitioners, managers and researchers specialising in performance reviews to address factors that affect the implementation of performance reward.

2. Performance Reward and Recognition

Employees' perception about the performance appraisal results could be beneficial depending on a number of factors, thus employee's attitude, personality, motives, interests, past experiences and expectations from the institution (Sanjeev & Singh, 2014). In this regard, Kumaran and Sangeetha (2013) argue that employees' perceptions of the fairness and effectiveness of the performance system are frequently shaped by how they perceive their manager's attitudes; their understanding and application of the system as well as the culture of the institution. Hence, it is imperative for managers to conduct the performance appraisal process appropriately and to be knowledgeable about how to provide information regarding performance improvement. At the same time, managers ought to know how to present constructive criticism in relation to performance if it is useful and relevant to employees. In a study by Matlala (2011), it was

found that employees generally have a negative perception of the fairness of the performance management system. This could be attributed to the fact that employees tend to view their managers as incompetent to assess their performance or provide guidance for performance improvement (Makhubela, Botha & Swanepoel, 2016). Employee perceptions of performance management process is however an important factor that needs to be considered when employees are rewarded for their performance (Khan & Ukpere, 2014). In this regard, if employees have a perception that there are no uncertainties about job performance coupled with a view that they are receiving the necessary support from management, they are likely to be efficient, productive and embrace the performance appraisal process (Sachane, Bezuidenhout & Botha, 2018).

The outcome of performance appraisal could be determined by numerous factors, which may tend to be positive or negative. In this case, Abbas (2014) argues that one critical factor that affects the performance appraisal outcome is the appraisal source and suggests that employee performance could be evaluated through multiple sources, such as supervisors, managers, self, peers and even clients. Clearly, the perception of fairness and accuracy of employees towards performance appraisal could also affect rewards and recognition for such performance. Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012) state that employees are bound to compare their rewards to what has been received by other employees within and outside the institution. This could be attributed to the fact that employees would aspire to establish whether or not there is equity in performance rewards. On one hand, Seyama and Smith (2015) point out that when employees notice incompatibility between their performance and outcome (rewards and recognition), their efforts and commitment could deplete rapidly. On the other hand, when employees are equitably rewarded and recognised, they are likely to increase their efforts and remain loyal to their institutions. According to Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012), inequity in terms of performance rewards and recognition could result in increased levels of job dissatisfaction. Consequently, job dissatisfaction may lead to high employee turnover in the institution due to burnout. Indeed, the perceived levels of performance reward equity and fairness could immensely influence employee tenure, commitment and engagement (Scott, 2011).

Makhubela *et al.* (2016) assert that the effectiveness of performance management processes and fairness are influenced by numerous factors such as appraiser's knowledge, setting measurable goals, employee participation, fair performance appraisal process, and management commitment. Further, Makhubela *et al.* (2016) highlight the managers lack the requisite knowledge for conducting a successful performance appraisal process, which could negatively affect performance reward and recognition. At the same time, the absences of clear and measurable performance standards seem to be problematic in terms of allocating performance benefits. Additionally, Seyama and Smith (2015) argue that complaint regarding performance reward inequity emerge due to inconsistent application of performance reward criteria, absence of transparent rating methods. Subsequently, when employees feel that unfair performance standards are applied to measure and reward their performance, they may tend to react negatively (Banks, Patel & Moola, 2012).

3. Theoretical Framework on Performance Reward and Recognition

The theory that is utilised to understand how perceived inequality in relation to performance rewards and recognition could affect employee motivation to perform better in the future is equity theory. This theory was developed by John Stacey Adams (1965), and it states that employees constantly weigh their perceived inputs to a job or task against the rewards received for the work undertaken (Banks *et al.*, 2012). In fact, equity theory indicates that employees are likely to perform optimally once they perceive some degree of fairness in terms of performance rewards (DeNisi & Griffin, 2016). As applied to this study, this theory holds that the independent variable, performance reward should be expected to be influenced by dependent variables such as fairness, consistency and transparency because employees may attempt to reduce performance efforts when they believe that they are being unfairly rewarded for good performance, thus in comparison to other employees in the institution (DeNisi & Griffin, 2016). Almusam (2016) argues that equity theory requires that employees should be treated fairly with due consideration of their immense contribution to their work.

Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012) point out that employee could be easily frustrated when they put efforts into their work without commensurate

reward and recognition for such endeavours. Banks *et al.* (2012) acknowledge that when employees perceive a referent person to be rewarded more for similar efforts a sense of disgruntlement could emerge. According to Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012), employees who are disgruntled due to inequitable performance reward and recognition could engage in actual or psychological restoration of equity. Essentially, actual restoration of equity suggests that dissatisfied employees reduce their performance efforts; demand additional rewards; alternatively, damage equipment of the employer. Psychological restoration of equity denotes that distressed employees attempt to convince themselves that inequitable performance rewards and recognition is fair, thus distorting facts.

4. Methodology and Data Collection Procedures

For the purpose of this study, a qualitative research methodology was applied. Specifically, a qualitative case study design was used. This methodology was chosen primarily because it could be useful in exploring the experiences and perceptions of research participants. In this regard, Schurink (1998) explains that a qualitative research approach brings about participant accounts of meaning, experiences or perceptions. In addition, Welman and Kruger (1999) support the use of the qualitative research approach for the description of groups, (small) communities and institutions. Boeiji (2010) on the other hand, states that the purpose of qualitative research is to describe and understand social phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring. Verhoeven (2011) adds that in qualitative research, elements are studied on their own turf, in their normal surroundings.

The population from which the sample was drawn comprised permanently appointed employees classified as lower-skilled (i.e. food service aids, trade workers, machine operators, switchboard operators, admin clerks) to highly skilled (i.e. assistant directors, deputy directors, professional technicians) on salary level 1 to 12 in the WCPDTPW. The researcher used the purposive sampling method for the current study. The purposive sampling method is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding the characteristics of a sample (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Therefore, the purposive sampling was used to purposefully select research participants who were deemed suitable and would contribute

Table 1: Target Population and Sample Size

Classification	Salary band	Total population	Sample population
Lower skilled	1–2	472	4
Skilled	3–5	449	4
Highly skilled production	6–8	971	4
Highly skilled supervision	9–12	309	4
Total		2 201	16

Source: Authors

in terms of yielding the required information for the study. Essentially, the aim of this sampling method is to obtain the information from the source (Verhoeven, 2011). Purposive sampling comes with some benefits and risks. A benefit, for example, is that it has some value, especially when it is used by an expert who knows the population under study (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Nevertheless, the risk associated with purposive sampling method is that it relies more heavily on the subjective considerations of the researcher than on the objective criteria, and it is also critiqued for its samples being non-representative (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). The target population consisted of approximately 2 201 employees from whom a sample of 16 employees was selected to participate in the study. The sample was classified into four categories ranging from lower-skilled to highly skilled, within various salary bands and from which four participants per category were selected (see Table 1). A qualitative content data analysis was applied in order to make sense of data collected through interviews.

5. Results and Discussion

This section presents the perspectives of the research participants regarding performance reward and recognition discrepancies between lower-skilled and highly skilled employees. In this case, employee perspectives were aligned with the following sub-themes:

5.1 Lack of Recognition for Good Performance by Junior Employees

Some participants expressed concerns that their good performance was not rewarded and recognised appropriately. This happened despite the fact that the staff performance management policy of the Western Cape Provincial Government clearly stipulates that meritorious performance of employees should be recognised and rewarded (Republic of

South Africa, 1997; Republic of South Africa, 2001). Furthermore, rewarding and recognising good performance is key to preserving and building the identity of employees, giving their work meaning; promoting their development and contributing to their health and well-being (Brun & Dugas, 2008; Gudla & Veni, 2012; Ismail & Ahmed, 2015; Khan & Ukpere, 2014; Njanja, Maina, Kibet & Njagi, 2013). To corroborate that performance was not rewarded, some participants contended that:

The lower levels do not have any proof of what they do thus their work is not seen. Even though you are complimented by a client for a job well done, it is not taken into account and you are not rated higher by your supervisor. The higher levels have outcomes that are seen and documented thus they have proof (Participant 14).

In a way it is justifiable and good enough reasons. Those that worked hard deserve a reward but it is unfair if those who does not deserve it gets a reward. The lower-level employees will be motivated if they get rewarded. Many times the lower-level employees must do the work of the higher-level employees yet the higher-level employee will be rewarded (Participant 15).

The higher-level employees feed on the hard work put on by lower-level employees, yet they do not apply the simple principles of management which is to appreciate your staff and always keep them motivated. If the lower-level employees' key performance areas were to draft 10 letters a day and he/she drafts 15 letters for the senior, the senior will be seen as the person who delivers on time and yet fails to give thanks /recognise the lower-level employees' efforts (Participant 12).

The findings of this study indicate that some participants were of the opinion that employees needed to be supported to improve performance. Additionally,

they expressed a need to transparent and fair process. These findings were supported by Gudla and Veni's (2012) view that managers should be fair in assessing, recognising and rewarding employees for meritorious performance in order to improve employees' self-esteem. Moreover, if managers or supervisors give little or no recognition, the employee is likely to have a negative view of the appraisal process or be dissatisfied by his or her work (Bekele *et al.*, 2014). In this sense, the basic purpose of employee recognition is to motivate employees to work harder in the course of achieving the objective of an institution.

5.2 Unfair Performance Rating Process

Some participants are concerned about the unfairness of the performance rating process which present challenges with regard to performance rewards and recognition for lower skilled employees. In this regard, the following concerns were expressed:

Not all the time. The person that does my review doesn't know what I do on a daily basis. How can someone score you who does not know what you do and is not with you on a daily basis? They score you on the things that they remember. For example, on the day I did not wear my protective clothing they should have reprimanded me but instead it is used to lower my performance rating (Participant 14).

The lower-level employees do all the hard work and deliver as per the key performance areas required and sometimes surpass them and their efforts are seen and noticed by the end user but the supervisor takes all the credit and is actually scared to reward the lower-level employees (Participant 12).

As said before, it is unfairly awarded. The lower levels are not seen and can only move up if they get more opportunities. That's the reason why I am currently busy with doing my matric (Participant 15).

The performance appraisal process to needs to be handled fairly as since it has a direct influence on the work performance, salary progression and performance rewards and recognition of the employee (Femi, 2013). In Khan and Ukpere's (2014) view, the performance appraisal process that is deemed the central component of the performance management process, which is highly significant and sensitive in nature hence, objectivity and fairness

must prevail. Some of the participants believed that training supervisors and managers on performance appraisal processes could address unfair performance rating processes. In fact, appraisers should be trained to carry out the performance appraisal process for reliable data and objective appraisal processes (Agyare, Yuhui, Mensah, Aidoo & Ansah, 2016). Some participants stated the following:

The supervisors or managers must be given training on how to handle the performance reward system and what to look at. They must be aware of their subordinates' work, what they do and know who are the ones that perform. For example, who plays computer games or watch movies during working hours (Participant 15).

Teach everyone in a supervisory role and who signs off on PERMIS [performance management information system] what fair assessment entails. And to credit ideas to the right persons (Participant 2).

According to Makhubela *et al.* (2016), employees tend to hold a view that their managers are not skilled enough to discuss and rate their performance or coach them on how to improve their performance. Furthermore, it is imperative that supervisors and subordinate employees receive adequate training on the performance appraisal instrument, rating scales. Specifically, managers should know how employee performance should be measured in order to ensure that each party's rights and responsibility safeguarded during the performance appraisal interviews (Fletcher, 2004).

Some participants highlighted the importance of transparency during the performance appraisal process. Performance appraisal should be concerned with procedural fairness, respect for the individual, mutual respect and transparency of the decision-making process (Armstrong, 2006). One participant expressed a concern as follows:

There's a need to promote transparency. Managers should be sent to workshops to understand the purpose of the performance rewards. Employees must be encouraged to diarise all the extra work they are doing over and above of their normal duties to be able to present evidence when required (Participant 8).

Based on the concerns flagged above, it is important that both higher- and lower-skilled employees

have a common understanding of the performance appraisal processes and performance standards. Unclear performance standards and process could lead to inconsistencies in the management of performance appraisal processes. Despite the good intentions of performance management, participants expressed negative views about the performance rating process. Therefore, it is evident that the performance review process becomes clouded by feelings of dissatisfaction and they are characterised by injustice in the WCPDTPW.

5.3 Work Experience

The research findings indicate that work experience is viewed as a contributing factor in terms of why lower-skilled employees are not awarded performance rewards in the same manner as the highly-skilled employees. In support of this finding, Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) argue that it is commonly believed that work experience might play an important role in the performance of individuals. This assertion was supported by one of the participants in this study, who reasoned thus:

Maybe because of the years of experience of the higher levels. It is unfair that the lower levels are not seen and looked down on. They are seen as not good enough even though we are just as important. The lower levels should also be given extra tasks and be rewarded (Participant 15).

From this finding, it is evident that the WCPDTPW makes efforts to please highly skilled employees for their contribution whilst neglecting the lower skilled employees. The view that the rewards are biased towards higher-level employees seems to resonate amongst most participants in the lower-skilled category. The participants lamented the fact that the reward system favours managers whilst the junior employees do most of the work. The following statements were captured:

I think the reasons why few lower-skilled employees receiving less performance rewards than their respective highly skilled employees have to do with the attitude and mentality of the bosses. There's more respect attributed to highly skilled workers that compels senior management to try their utmost best to keep the highly skilled employees happy and feel appreciated. Secondly, it could be that highly skilled employees are not so easy to find in comparison with lower-skilled employees (Participant 8).

Apart from the importance of work experience, some participants raised the issue of extra responsibilities on the part of senior employees. Some of the employees are of the view that senior managers have more responsibilities and therefore ought to be rewarded for their efforts. It seems some employees associate extra work responsibilities or tasks with high performance rewards.

The higher levels are the ones that perform because they have more tasks. I don't really know as said before (Participant 10).

The higher the level the higher is the responsibility (Participant 4).

Most lower-skilled employees indicated that they experienced injustices because of their positions in the department. The perception of both highly and lower-skilled employees is that highly skilled employees are mostly rewarded or recognised because of their level of responsibility, number of tasks and scarce skills. However, the practice of awarding performance rewards based on position is not in line with the SPMS that clearly stipulates that performance should be managed in a non-discriminatory manner in order to enhance service delivery in the provincial departments of the Western Cape (Western Cape Government, 2001:1). In other words, such controversial awarding of performance rewards is considered an act of discrimination that could inadvertently impede service delivery due to poor employee morale.

5.4 Biasness

The findings suggest that performance appraisals might be influenced by the supervisor's attitudes toward the employees and the perceived quality of their relationship. In that regard, this could stem from the way a supervisor feels about each subordinate employee and whether the supervisor likes or dislikes the subordinate employee (Javidmehr & Ebrahimpour, 2015). Essentially, the fact that a rater likes or dislikes a ratee could influence the appraisal ratings and determine the evaluation of the ratee's performance (Bekele *et al.*, 2014). Concerning this issue of biasness, some participants expressed their frustrations in this way:

Deserving workers that do not get performance rewards simple because they are not in good books with their managers or favourites of the officials

vested with rights to reward high-performing employees, turn to be discouraged and dejected. This has potential to hamper their energy levels. In a long run, performance rewards discrepancy may influence the general performance of the organisation due to substantial amount of dejected people. This may also lead to high staff turnover (Participant 8).

If you do not have a good relationship with your supervisor, you can forget about the incentive. The supervisors do not have the backbone to back the hard work put on by the lower-level employees (Participant 12).

On the basis of the above concerns, it is important that supervisors evaluate employee performance with as little bias and discrepancies as possible. The fewer the errors and the less the bias in performance appraisal, the better the employee performance, satisfaction and efficiency of the performance reward system. The most common experience was the fact that the performance reward system was greatly affected by personal subjectivity to the extent that some supervisors used it to divide and rule where they rewarded their allies and punished their enemies (Matlala, 2011).

5.5 Manipulation of the System

The findings reveal that supervisors or raters manipulate ratings to obtain the desired results. In that sense, the system was seen to be open to manipulation and abuse due to subjectivity by supervisors and managers. Essentially, rater bias was experienced by some employees and the common theme in their concerns was the fact that supervisors impose their scores on subordinates. One participant expressed this concern as follows:

The lower-skilled employees get scored lower and is not the score we are supposed to get. The higher levels know how much money is available and make sure they get better ratings and take all the performance rewards (Participant 11).

Some participants think that junior employees should receive first preference in relation to performance rewards and recognition. The findings revealed that the performance rating system does not favour lower-level employees in terms of reward or recognition and is solely used to facilitate the payment of bonuses.

Performance bonuses should be allocated on a scale whereby the higher levels get a lower percentage and the lower levels get a higher percentage. The performance bonus of the higher level takes a bigger chunk of the budget. The department should reward the lower-level employees first. The department should adjust the performance reward system so that the whole team can be rewarded and not only an individual (Participant 11).

5.6 Less Challenging Tasks

The main reason for performance appraisal is to equip employees with skills, thus enhancing performance and productivity. Work performance can be improved by identifying the developmental needs of an employee and assisting such employee to become competent, ultimately enabling the individual to accomplish his or her task efficiently (Booyens, 2014). Subsequently, employees become more skilled, which contributes to increasing performance and productivity. One participant raised the following concern:

Management doesn't give the lower levels the challenge to do more. Lower levels are not given extra tasks and not given the skills to be able to perform higher-skilled jobs, duties. Therefore, they cannot receive a reward (Participant 9).

There was a common view that the system is also not used to improve processes or to empower employees and therefore does not benefit lower-level employees in terms of growth and development. In fact, performance appraisal is more than just evaluating the performance of employees; it also addresses the development of employees in order to maximise their potential and to complement shortcomings in their abilities to execute tasks (Gudla & Veni, 2012). One of junior employees had this to say:

Even though the lower-skilled employees are not seen for performance rewards, they should be given more opportunities to study further, attend courses and helped to improve performance (Participant 13).

5.7 Poor Understanding of Performance Review Process

There is a lack of understanding of performance review processes among junior staff members to such an extent that they do not question controversial rating decisions by their immediate supervisors.

Some inconsistencies were attributed to the lack of knowledge on how the system is applied by both supervisors and subordinates. This is an important factor, which influences the perceived fairness of the appraisal system (Saeed & Shahbaz, 2011). Participants revealed that some of the staff members did not understand the rating system.

Most of the times, many lower-skilled employees lack in understanding performance review process, which is shown by not keeping proper record of the extra good work done in order to report on it when performance reviews are done. Employees at times thought that the extra tasks performed is just what is expected of them, i.e. many lower-skilled employees acted from time to time in higher positions without any remuneration, but think that they are just doing what is expected and never mention it during review (Participant 3).

The lower levels do not know how to do reviews and complete the forms. They are not trained on how the system works. They accept their supervisor comments and ratings. The lower-level employees do not know how to motivate their performance or extra duties (critical incidents). The reason why the higher-level employees get every year is because they copy and paste their incidents. The system requires typing skills and computer literacy, which the lower level mostly does not have and they are not properly orientated. The evidence of performance is not kept (Participant 5).

Another reason could be because the lower-skilled employees are not aware of how to measure their performance/work against the performance criteria. In light of the latter, they will not know how to write and argue their performance reviews to their superiors which means they just leave and it becomes another compliance matter. Lower-skilled employees should be made aware of the fact that performance rewards are not only about how much extra work you have done, but also how good you've done your existing work (Participant 7).

Lower-level employees must be educated on how the performance management system works and receive training that they know how to get a performance reward (Participant 10).

Accordingly, the processes and procedures linked to performance appraisal should be fairly established in order to ensure that employees are comfortable

when intending to express themselves (Sumelius, Bjorkman, Ehrnrooth, Makela & Smale, 2014). When employees do not perceive fairness and trust in the performance appraisal process, they question the accuracy of the system and may feel that they are given inaccurate information regarding the performance criteria (Kondrasuk, 2012). Furthermore, Arogundade, Temitope and Arogundade (2015) point out that the perception of unfairness and inequality in the rating could lead to the collapse of the whole system.

5.8 Financial Constraints

The absence of financial performance rewards due to budget constraints creates tension between supervisors and subordinates. The research participants articulated mixed views regarding financial rewards:

Due to budgetary constraints, everyone cannot get a performance bonus. Department should look at alternative type of rewards or incentives. For example, give an employee a half day off work as reward for outstanding performance or introduce employee of the month system or thank you in staff meetings. It feels good to be recognised. Supervisors and managers should show more appreciation on an ongoing basis (Participant 5).

Cut the monetary rewards. It will save government a lot of money because it will never be a fair process. There will always be an employee left out that deserves a reward. Acknowledge everyone for the part they play in the organisation (Participant 7).

Some participants are against the monetary reward and recognition that is granted by the department to those who have performed significantly above expectations. The participants highlighted that the monetary rewards tend to cause friction among the team members. Staff members who did not obtain a financial reward often feel devalued by ostracising those who have received a reward. Therefore, some participants felt that attachment of the monetary reward creates an environment where people constantly anticipate high scores during performance appraisal.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the primary findings of this research, it is clear that nebulous performance rating processes are responsible for inequity in relation to

performance rewards or recognition between the lower skilled and highly skilled employees in the WCPDTPW. This has created a situation where lower skilled employees feel that their meritorious performance is not valued by the department. Noteworthy, the issue of work experience and added job responsibility appears to be viewed as one of the key factors that contribute to performance reward inequity between the lower skilled and highly skilled employees. Whilst the issue of work experience is crucial, the findings reveal that performance management review processes are riddled with unfairness and biasness. It seems that managers impose inappropriate rating scores on junior employees, in particular, lower skilled employees, thus manipulating the performance review processes. Lower skilled employees lack knowledge about performance review processes such that they are unable to question controversial decisions taken by their managers. Although the WCPDTPW may wish to reward each employee for good performance, financial constraints make it difficult and it is the main highly skilled employees tend to receive financial rewards. Although money can be used to pay performance bonuses, employers should also consider non-financial rewards as a solution towards the unavailability of funds, and that could perhaps enhance an employee's self-respect and esteem. However, since lower skilled employees are likely to compare themselves with the "referent other," thus, highly skilled employees, they are bound to feel disgruntled when most of the highly skilled employees receive rewards while only few lower skilled employees receive rewards. As a matter of fact, this is consonant with the equity theory which states that individuals will continuously compare their inputs and outcome to that of their peers in order to establish a degree of fairness and consistency in terms of rewards. Following this, it is recommended that the department should consider offering intensive training to junior employees, managers or supervisors and make efforts to ensure performance review process does not disadvantage junior employees in relation to rewards. Nevertheless, a related study needs to be undertaken that would investigate the issue of performance reward and recognition inequity between males and females in the WCPDTPW. Since the findings of this study cannot be generalised to other settings due to small sample, it is recommended that a larger quantitative study should be undertaken to investigate performance rewards and recognition inequities.

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An Evaluation of Challenges Relating to Recruitment and Selection Processes in the Robben Island Museum

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Abstract: The study evaluated challenges concerning recruitment and selection processes in the Robben Island Museum. The implementation of the recruitment and selection practices is crucial in order for the organisation to fill the right positions with the right people who are experienced, competent, skilled and knowledgeable. In other words, organisations should strive for excellence in ensuring that there is compliance with legal pre-scripts whenever the recruitment and selection of employees commence. A qualitative research methodology was applied in order to achieve the primary aim of this paper in which case semi-structured interviews were used. Further, another data collection technique that was utilised to collect relevant information is official document study. A total sample of fourteen (14) purposefully selected participants, namely seven operational staff members and seven managers were chosen for interviews. Collected data was analysed through qualitative content analysis. The major findings indicate that the Robben Island Museum experience several recruitment and selection challenges, which include nepotism, cronyism and favouritism. The findings reveal that although qualifications are seen to be necessary during recruitment and selection processes but do not seem to be seriously considered as part of the selection criteria. This study identified some inconsistencies and failure to adhere to the recruitment and selection policy during recruitment and selection processes. Therefore, the Robben Island Museum should consider prioritising a review of current recruitment and selection policy in order to address ongoing challenges thereof.

Keywords: Employment candidates, Interview, Recruitment, Selection, Screening

1. Introduction

Recruitment and selection involves a deliberate effort to fill vacancies with appropriately qualified individuals in a timely fashion in order to meet the organisation's strategic objective (Vance & Paik, 2015). Further, Vance and Paik (2015) assert that recruitment not only involves bringing new people into the organisation but from a broader perspective, recruitment also encompasses the many activities related to moving employees into, through and out of an organisation in the pursuit of satisfying work demand and meeting organisational objectives. This statement is constant with Louw's (2007) definition of recruitment as the process of generating a pool of capable candidates applying to an organisation for employment. In today's hypercompetitive business environment, employees are a source of competitive advantage. It is unquestionably critical for organisations to appoint the right people, with the right skills, the right knowledge and the right attributes, at the right time and for the right jobs (Chungyalpa & Karishma, 2016).

Adu-Darkoh (2014) asserts that the outcomes of an effective recruitment process is the reduction of labour turnover, good employee morale and improved organisation performance. It is therefore equally important for every organisation to recruit qualified and competent candidates in order to maintain its sustainability. Applicants with experience and qualifications most closely related to job specifications may eventually be selected. Karthiga, Karthi and Balaishwarya (2015) state that capable candidates who meet the requirements of the positions for which they are applying, are first shortlisted. Organisations become concerned when the cost of a mistake in recruitment is high. The aim is to obtain, at a minimum cost, the number of suitable and qualified candidates to satisfy the needs of the organisation. An organisation attracts candidates by means of identifying, evaluating and using the most appropriate sources of applicants (Louw, 2007). Despite the importance of recruiting and selecting competent and qualified candidates for positions, the Robben Island Museum has to contend with allegations to unfair recruitment and selection processes, which

include nepotism (National Education, Health and Allied Workers' Union (NEHAWU), 2018). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to evaluate challenges pertaining to recruitment and selection processes in the Robben Island Museum.

2. Recruitment and Selection Processes

The recruitment process is the first step in the employment process, and lays the foundation for the selection process (Mashaba, 2013). It is therefore sensible to provide detailed information to the human resource team in order to commence with the recruitment process. The human resource team usually should be in a position to create a shortlist of candidates to be interviewed immediately after checking their curriculum vitae (CV). Equally important, the interview panel should consist of human resource team members whose role is to identify suitable job candidates who are fit for the job. It is crucial to ensure that job applicants satisfy the organisational expectations and be able to reflect the culture of the business. Nevertheless, most recruitment and selection processes have elements of biased judgement. Therefore, treating job applicants in a professional and positive manner is likely to leave them, with a positive impression about the organisation, particularly concerning the manner in which selection processes are handled (Saviour, Kofi, Yao & Kafui, 2016).

Recruitment and selection process has become one of the key processes determinants of the success of an organisation. Over a period of time organisations have moved from product focus to market focus, from selling focus to customer focus and to employee focus. It has become common that organisations place more premium on human resources as their biggest organisational assets. Indeed, the capabilities of an organisation fall upon the shoulders of its human capital. In fact, an organisation is only as good as the capabilities of its employees (Chungyalpa & Karishma 2016). Benedict (2012) emphasises that success can no longer be measured only by the amount of money an organisation has generated. Further, Pearsall (2016) adds that through attracting and appointing the correct talent with the required skills in the current and future vacancies, organisations are able to operationalise organisational strategies.

Richardson (n.d) asserts that successful recruitment begins with appropriate employment planning

and forecasting. During the recruitment process, an organisation formulates plans to fill or eliminate future job openings based on an analysis of future needs, talent available within and outside of the organisation, and the current and anticipated resources that can be expended to attract and retain such talent. Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk, Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2005) outline thirteen recruitment steps processes as follows:

- an exact need for filling the post should be considered;
- budget approval is imperative to ensure that there is funding to fill the vacant post;
- equally important is the approval from senior management to ensure that recruitment is aligned with the overall institutional strategy;
- compilation of the job description and specification is crucial;
- KPAs of the job should be determined;
- in order to get an indication of whether recruitment should be conducted internally or externally, the recruitment policy and procedure should be conducted;
- a proper source should be selected depending on the position to be filled;
- the best method of recruitment should be chosen without the exclusion of other;
- decision of the preferred recruitment method should be implemented, and time that should be allowed for responses should be stated;
- screen responses should be determined according to the criteria set for the job;
- an initial shortlist of candidates should be drawn up;
- applicants (both unsuccessful and those interviewed) should be advised of outcomes; and
- inviting qualifying applicants for interviews.

According to Erasmus *et al.* (2005), a recruitment policy should stipulate broad guidelines for the way

in which public sector institutions ought to deal with recruitment and selection processes. In other words, the recruitment policy should indicate the position of the institution concerning the general objectives of recruitment and the principle of equal job opportunities in recruitment and selection. Moreover, Stredwick (2014) adds that recruitment policy should clearly indicate that the appointment of successful applicants is to be undertaken without discrimination. This implies thoroughness in processing of job applications, consideration of internal applicants if they satisfy the requirements of the job, and meticulously shortlist job candidates.

Van der Westhuizen, Wessels, Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2011) postulate that a recruitment and selection policy should at least be able to comply with legal prescriptions on issues relating to fairness and discrimination. For instance, legislation - such as the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, seek to protect the interests of employees during the recruitment and selection processes. Besides, recruitment and selection must be conducted within the budgetary constraints without negating the urgency of filling vacancies (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2011). Bute (2011) reveals that in organisations where nepotism and favouritism is prevalent, the human resources departments find it extremely difficult to perform their functions with integrity. Moreover, nepotism and cronyism could create negatively affect the work environment resulting in poor morale, poor organisation commitment, and poor job satisfaction and performance (Fu, 2015). In this regard, Louw (2007) posits that government departments and agencies ought to implement anti-nepotism policies in order to prevent the employment of close relatives, especially the placement of such candidates in the same department or work groups.

According to Richardson (n.d:4-5), documenting the organisation's policy on recruitment, exercise in recruitment and selection processes. This could contribute to or satisfies the requirement of procedural transparency and leave a trail that could be followed easily for audit purposes when necessary. According to Saviour *et al.* (2016), a policy that emphasise internal recruitment and selection appears to be superior or unique in comparison to a policy that adopts external recruitment methods because it permits an organisation to pursue individual development or advancement in a sustainable manner. By so doing, deserving employees may be able to advance in their

jobs, which suggests that they are likely to be given first consideration when vacancies arise.

It is probably the objective of most organisations to recruit and select qualified and competent job candidates who would stay with the organisation much longer, but this seems not to be the case. Some new appointees tend to leave shortly after their appointment due to a number of reasons, for example, inability to adapt to the organisational culture. In this regard, Nabi, Wei, Husheng, Shabbir, Altaf and Zhao (2014) assert that organisational politics affect the employee's reaction, and it is found that in the public sector organisations, employees prefer silence by showing negligent behaviour when overwhelmed by politics around them, in particular when quitting the job is not an option. In fact, politicians make public employment hard by both 'bashing the bureaucracy and starving it of resources needed for high-quality recruitment (such as pay and adequately signing bonuses for hard-to-fill classifications) (Berman, Bowman, West, & Van Wart, 2018). Moreover, it seems employment in the South African public service institutions is based on patronage. At the same time, patronage positions are therefore among the most influential in government. Most of senior positions are supposed to be allocated based strictly on technical merit and competence, but unfortunately, the influence of political office bearers or personal factors negatively affect recruitment and selection processes. Although there are policies in place, personal factors cannot be discounted (Berman *et al.*, 2018).

According to Yaseen (2015), an organisation has to see different issues while recruiting an applicant and make a rational decision that there should be free from any biasness or corruption in the process because it could damage the reputation of the organisation. Yaseen (2015) maintains that procedurally, equal employment opportunities should be applied to all without any form of discrimination on the basis of race, age, deficiency, military jobs, complexion, religion, sex, pregnancy and national language. In other words, complaints relating to unfair discrimination during recruitment and selection could be avoided if an organisation complies with legislative provisions. According to Fu (2015) ethics play a significant role in organisations and should be sustained to enhance attainment of workplace justice and professionalism. Nabi *et al.* (2014:15) suggests that researchers should focus on the political and ethical aspects of the recruitment and selection practices rather than

look into the economic and technical aspects. Another issue facing organisations is the unavailability of objective system for assessing which applicant is 'best qualified' for the job. Although merit systems within public sector institutions and agencies are designed to achieve an objective process, it would be difficult to create a system free from human influence.

3. Methodology and Procedures

This study relied primarily on a qualitative research methodology, because it would assist in obtaining the views of employees concerning the challenges associated with recruitment and selection processes. To be more specific, a qualitative case study research was undertaken. This study used semi-structured interviews for the purpose of collecting data. The purpose of semi-structured interviews is to give all interviewees the same interview questions (Reynolds, 2011). Moreover, this study made use of non-probability, purposive sampling to select the Robben Island Museum officials in the executive, lower, middle and senior-level positions. According to Maxwell (2013), with purposive sampling, particular settings, persons, or activities are selected deliberately to provide information that is relevant to the researcher's questions and goals, and that cannot be obtained from other choices. The sample was fourteen (14) participants, purposefully selected. The participants were assured of anonymity. Since this research was conducted within a single organisation, only a few relevant people involved in the recruitment process, thus, both recruiters and employees were interviewed. For instance, the senior human resource managers, recruitment officers and the employee relations specialists were selected based on their direct involvement in the recruitment and selection policy design and implementation. Data collected through semi-structured interviews was analysed through qualitative content analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

The analysis of empirical data revealed a number of challenges pertaining to the recruitment and selection processes in the Robben Island Museum which are identified and discussed hereunder.

4.1 Cronyism, Nepotism and Favouritism for Positions

The findings of this study indicate that some participants raised complaints about cronyism and

nepotism in the Robben Island Museum. This issue seems to be problematic despite the fact the recruitment and selection policy of the Robben Island Museum specifically state that requirements for positions should not be relaxed in an endeavour to accommodate unqualified family members and close associates (Robben Island Museum, 2010). Moreover, the participants expressed concerns regarding the preferential treatment of external job applicants over internal job applicants. Some of the participants articulated their views as follows:

"Robben Island Museum prefers employees from outside compared to internal employees even if they are qualified for advertised positions. In most cases the people recruited are said to have a relationship with someone influential. Therefore, selection of candidates based on merit is minimal" (Operational staff member 2).

"In all our interviews, a panel is chosen wisely and we have a declaration form that is completed by all panel members stating that they are in anyhow not related nor have a relationship with any candidate coming for an interview. During the interview all panel members singularly rate candidates from a score of 1-5 and after the candidate has left the panel share their scores and a consensus score is reached" (Manager 7).

"For the sake of "fairness" advertising of posts is circulated internally just to say internal processes have been followed and exhausted and there are no proper candidates. This happens 99,9% of the time when RIM is looking for suitable candidates. If random survey had to be conducted on RIM recruitment, results will show that almost 85% of the employees hired in the past 15 years are external. The method used by RIM HR and its recruitment unit which is not fully capacitated to perform in accordance to the best practice on recruitment has compromised the organisation. Secondly, it has marginalised some employees who are skilled and qualified to add value in the organisation, individuals who are passionate about success of RIM. Understanding recruitment and selection process from the academic point of view I can safely say RIM's recruitment is driven by corruption misuse of power from those who make decisions on recruiting and selecting of candidates" (Operational staff member 3).

These findings are in consonant with Bute's (2011) assertion that when organisations fail to consider

the education, experience, knowledge and skills of employment candidates as criteria, the success of the organisation could be easily compromised. According to Fu (2015), once cronyism and nepotism have infiltrated an organisation, recruitment and selection processes are no longer based on merits and qualifications. Further, nepotism can create a feeling of resentment which could be coupled with frustrations and hostility in the workplace (Larkin, 2016). However, concerning the problems associated with nepotism, cronyism and favouritism, some participants expressed views that the Robben Island Museum does take precautionary measures in order to prevent unprocedural appointments.

"In all our interviews, a panel is chosen wisely and we have a declaration form that is completed by all panel members stating that they are in anyhow not related nor have a relationship with any candidate coming for an interview. During the interview all panel members singly rate candidates from a score of 1-5 and after the candidate has left the panel share their scores and a consensus score is reached" (Manager 7).

"An indemnity form is completed by the panel members ensuring that there's no conflict of interest, the candidates are not friends or related, to ensure that recruitment process is fair and live up to the RIM's values of integrity" (Operational staff member 4).

4.2 Absence of Transparency and Fairness During Selection Process

The findings indicate that trade union representatives are not fully recognised and invited to interviews as part of the selection process at the Robben Island Museum. In other words, union representatives are not invited during interviews in order to ensure that the process is fair and transparent. Some participants articulated concerns about lack of representation from trade union during interviews as follows:

"Sadly the union is not involved in any of these processes and that is not fair, more specially for the positions that are in the bargaining" (Operational staff member 3).

"Checks and balances are not in place when it comes to the selection process. The process is left to individual managers who can influence the

process. The union is not even part of the interviews to ensure that there is fairness. The interview panel does not represent all stakeholders as indicated. The union as a stakeholder, must be involved ... in the process to see that it is fair and transparent" (Operational staff member 2).

Transparency is necessary to increase levels of fairness and minimisation of bias during recruitment and selection processes. However, Van den Brink, Benschop and Jansen (2010:1461) hold a view that "bias is more likely to occur if assessments are based on obscure criteria and where the evaluation process is kept confidential." In this regard, perhaps it would be prudent to ensure that unions be afforded reasonable access to applications received to verify the correctness of the master list information. As a matter of fact, the Recruitment and Selection Policy of the Robben Island Museum clearly state that "trade union representatives can only attend interviews when candidates for posts fall within their bargaining units" (Robben Island Museum, 2010:458). In other words, if the job candidates fall outside the bargaining unit of a trade union, the representatives of trade unions are not invited to interviews.

Although some of the participants lamented the exclusion of trade union representatives during interviews, there were also few participants who held a view that the trade union representatives played an active role during selection. Perhaps these contradictions could be attributed to the personal experiences and perceptions of individual employees concerning recruitment and selection processes, which could be partial or impartial. Notably, the participants had this to about the role of union representatives:

"To ensure fairness, all interviews are done without fear, favour or prejudice. The union as a social partner observe the fairness and consistency of questions by the panel. All panelist including observers are required to disclose their interests or relationship before the process commence. Interviews are recorded manually and digitally and records may be referred or revisited whenever there is a complain, grievance or dispute" (Manager 1).

"Human Resources Department must frequently engage with the unions on these issues. Staff members must participate/be involved in reviewing recruitment policies" (Manager 2).

With regard to the issue of transparency, concerns were not only limited to the matters discussed above, but the aspect of disclosing the salary range for advertised positions was raised.

"I believe for any job you advertise, the organisation should provide the salary range so as to attract candidates who are willing to be in that bracket. It also assists with transparency and reduces animosity" (Operational staff member 6).

4.3 Invalid and Unreliable Personnel Selection Techniques

The Recruitment and Selection Policy of the Robben Island Museum shows that psychometric tests, competency tests and health tests could be used in the selection of job candidates to the extent that the law permits (Robben Island Museum, 2010). With regard to the selection tests, the research participants revealed that personnel selection techniques used by the Robben Island Museum are invalid and unreliable. Nevertheless, personnel selection techniques have to stand the test of time in terms of their validity. In fact, validity denotes that the test should measure what it purports to measure and should provide consistent results (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, validity is separated into two distinct categories, namely: content and construct validity. Content validity refers to the extent to which the content of a selection procedure is representative of important aspects of job performance. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a selection criterion measures the degree to which job candidates have identifiable characteristics determined to be important for successful job performance (Byars & Rue, 2011). Findings of this study indicate that some of the participants questioned the validity and reliability of personnel selection techniques. Below are the views that were expressed by some of participants.

"Validity of the selection technique is questionable, but [the] technique can be reliable when the process is transparent" (Operational staff member 2).

"RIM's selection is not valid and not even close to being reliable" (Operational staff member 3).

"It is difficult to say that they are valid to an extent that a lot of it depends on how well the chosen candidate performs. Validity and reliability could be questioned if critical processes such as psychometric tests are not conducted" (Manager 5).

"Questions are repetitive and less technical" (Manager 4).

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 requires that the selection instruments should be scientifically shown to be reliable, objective and valid (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2011). Equally important, valid employment tests are a great tool to predict who will be successful on the job (Bogatova, 2017). Concerning the employment assessment practices at the Robben Island Museum during selection processes, some participants indicated the significance of assessing behavioural and technical competencies of job applicants.

"The limitations thus far have been the lack of practical testing of candidates. There is an urgent need to integrate the behavioural and technical element of assessment with practical tests to determine the best suitable candidate" (Manager 1).

"Other tests like numerical skills and the ability to solve problems can be done apart from verbal interviews" (Manager 6).

4.4 Less Recognition of Tertiary Qualifications

Reicheinberg (2016) argues that finding qualified employees is the most challenging aspect of recruitment and selection process, particularly, in the public sector institutions. While the assertion by Reicheinberg (2016) can be sustained as legitimate and valid, it emerged from the findings of this study that although tertiary qualifications are specified by the Robben Island Museum when positions are advertised but it appears that they are less considered during selection processes. In this regard, some participant expresses their thoughts as follows:

"Tertiary qualifications count for nothing in this organization; these are cited for compliance purposes. Firstly, some individuals are employed without proper qualifications for the positions they are currently occupying, this then compromise the quality of the output on productivity. Individuals who cannot think critically, who cannot think strategically and who even lack execution at operational level. Secondly, other individuals have the required qualifications but they cannot perform their duties as they lack experience" (Operational staff member 3).

"Most managers would prefer not to employ someone who is more qualified than them, this is unethical though" (Manager 2).

"Qualifications are a prerequisite depending on the position being advertised, if it is deemed that minimum requirement is needed for a specific position, minimum qualification for the particular position will be stated in the advert" (Manager 6).

"The lowest qualification that any candidate applying for a vacancy at RIM must have acquired is a National Diploma" (Manager 7).

4.5 Unclear Process of Authenticating Qualifications

Brody (2010) highlights the importance of qualification checks with relevant institutions because it is not uncommon for job applicants to falsify their academic credentials or qualifications. Further, Brody (2010) states that when conducting background checks, it is essential to ensure accuracy since high profile individuals are often found to have misrepresented their achievements. Despite the importance of qualifications checks, some of the research participants have expressed mixed reactions in respect of qualifications checks at the Robben Island Museum. In fact, it is unclear what processes and procedures are followed to verify qualifications of job candidates.

"Candidates are required to submit proof of their qualifications. I am not aware whether these are sent for verification" (Manager 4).

"We make use of an external verification authority to verify information about the candidate" (Manager 5).

4.6 Preferential Treatment of External Job Applicants

Contrary to the findings of this study, Devaro (2016) posit that it is common for organisations to make use of external and internal recruitment processes although they are inclined to giving preference to internal recruitment methods. Unfortunately, this does not appear to be the case at the Robben Island Museum because research participants complain about the fact that external candidates are given preference when positions are advertised. Moreover, this suggests that there is a contradiction between what the recruitment and selection policy say and what is

happening in practice. In this regard, the Recruitment and Selection Policy of the Robben Island Museum indicates that all vacancies are first advertised internally for a period of seven days and the external recruitment methods are applied when no suitable candidates could be found internally (Robben Island Museum, 2010). In line with the findings of this study, DeNisi and Griffin (2016) assert that applying external recruitment methods could have some negative ramifications for an organisation because current employee may tend to feel that they are being deliberately overlooked for higher vacant positions while external candidates are being preferred despite being less qualified and experienced. Indeed, lack of advancement opportunities within an organisation can create frustration for current employees. Some participants made the following remarks:

"Most of the times candidates complain of the selection techniques. Workers have the necessary experience and qualifications and in most cases they have acted in those positions. Robben Island Museum appoints candidates from outside who have less experience and must be taught by the very employees who are ignored" (Operational staff member 2).

"There is lack of internal promotion system. At times, the organisation seem to focus on filling vacancies with just bodies, not people with the necessary core-competencies of that post" (Operational staff member 5).

"Some employees became staff members without any interview process having been conducted" (Operational staff member 4).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings of this study indicate that the Robben Island Museum is experiencing numerous challenges in relation to its recruitment and selection processes. Firstly, the findings reveal that cronyism, nepotism and favouritism for positions is rife, which suggest that friends and relatives of senior personnel responsible for recruitment and selection are given undue preference for advertised vacancies. Secondly, the absence of transparency and fairness during selection process is another matter of concern because employees are of view that union representatives should be invited to interviews in order to observe the processes, thereby improving transparency and fairness. Thirdly, the findings suggest that the personnel

selection tools used by the Robben Island Museum are invalid and unreliable personnel. In other words, the personnel selection techniques are incorrectly applied to test competencies not related to the advertised vacancies. Fourthly, there is less recognition of tertiary qualifications in respect of advertised positions although the reasons for such an observation are unclear. Fifthly, the findings show some degree of uncertainty regarding the processes and procedure followed at the Robben Island Museum to verify the qualifications of job candidates. This could place an organisation in a precarious situation whereby reprobate individuals can take advantage and submit fraudulent qualifications where vacancies are advertised. Lastly, the external job applicants are given preference over internal job applicants despite the fact that the recruitment and selection policy provides for exhausting internal recruitment processes.

Based on the finding outlined above, it is important for the Robben Island Museum to consider reviewing its recruitment and selection policy in order to rectify the shortcomings associated with the current policy. By so doing, the organisation would be able to work on the issue of transparency in relation to recruitment processes thereby addressing the scourge of nepotism, cronyism and favouritism. At the same time, review the policy could offer the organisation an opportunity to improve its selection tools by making sure that they are valid, reliable and legally compliant. The Robben Island Museum need to ensure that clear processed and procedure are established to verify qualifications of successful job applicants. Equally, important, the Robben Island Museum should strive to ensure that internal candidates who are competent, skilled, knowledgeable and qualified are considered for advertised positions. The findings of this study could be useful to researchers, recruitment officers and managers in the Robben Island Museum and beyond. However, it is worth noting the finding of this study are based on a small sample, which suggest that these findings cannot be generalised beyond the Robben Island Museum but could be transferrable to similar contexts.

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Prioritising Decolonisation to Encourage Full-Scale Trade Among African Countries

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Abstract: This paper explores ways and means of enhancing full-scale trade among the African countries. The paper is both conceptual and empirical in nature. Interviewing techniques and document analysis were used to collect data from three African countries regarded to be the economic superpowers of Africa, namely, Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria. Research findings revealed that firstly, the vestiges of colonialism are preventing African countries from involving themselves in full-scale trade with one another. Secondly, failure to conquer the learnt colonial thoughts and practices by the many African countries prevents full-scale trade from occurring. Thirdly, taking decisions devoid of foresight and sustainability obstruct full-scale trade among the African countries. Fourthly, ignoring the decolonisation philosophy as a 21st century gateway for African countries to free themselves from subjugation of previous years delays full-scale trade from occurring. Lastly, under-development, in the form of unavailable infrastructure, serves as a hindrance towards full-scale trade among the African countries. The researcher recommends that all African countries should regard this century as an African century where trade among them (African countries) has to soar despite the continental and global challenges they face.

Keywords: Conquer, Decolonisation philosophy, Foresight, Subjugation, Vestiges

1. Introduction

The master-slave relations take ages to sever if ever such ties indeed do unbundle (Fomunyan, 2017). This is figurative referring to how most African countries continue to be connected to their former colonisers instead of themselves as countries on the continent of Africa. The more African countries are being recognised by their foreign allies, the happier they feel other than when being acknowledged by their fellow African countries. This denotes self-hate by African countries (Freire, 1990:170). Such a practice perpetuates subjugation against African countries by their foreign counterparts. Such occurs in a subtle manner which makes it difficult for everyone to notice. This can be explained in terms of the vestiges of colonialism, which many of African countries still suffer from and endure as part of their historic baggage. Nkuna (2015:120) reminds that colonialism instilled in African countries a sense of self-hate and inferiority complex. That is why they despise everything that is of African origin, while anything that is European in origin, is hailed to be of quality and highest class and standard. Colonialism was more of a psychological warfare against Africans than only an exploitation of mineral resources.

As a result of colonialism, full-scale trade among African countries becomes difficult to sustain. As

much as African countries attempt to trade with one another, their souls and spirits are not in the African trade but with their erstwhile masters (Yukl, 2006). As such, there is no proportionality in the way African countries demonise their commodities in a desperate endeavour to impress their former colonisers overseas. Neglecting markets offered by fellow African countries could better be comprehended in the context of African people and their countries not being mentally liberated from the yoke of colonialism, which they had been subjected to down the years. (Modiba, 2017). African people are yet to realise that they are victims and that they need help. The fact that countries that are regarded as the economic superpowers of Africa, such as Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria trade less with themselves and more with their erstwhile colonisers, has to be a cause for concern for Africa as a continent. This is embarrassing and frustrating and evinces those countries to be enduring the vestiges of colonialism although it is a while since colonialism has been de-legitimised (Hlongwane, 2016). Embracing the decolonisation philosophy is likely to re-focus African countries to reconsider involving themselves more in full-scale trade among themselves. The practice by African countries of despising one another with regards to continental trade, in favour of taking their goods to foreign markets, has devastating effects. One of which is the failure by African countries to push back

the frontiers of poverty, unemployment, inequality and diseases affecting their citizenry.

2. Theoretical Considerations

Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005:12) assert that a theory represents a mental view of a phenomenon or a system and that it normally forms the basis for a chain of reasoning. Advancing a particular argument on a phenomenon, such as how prioritising decolonisation stands to enhance full-scale trade among African countries, with a theory in place, one's argument is likely to hold substance. The Critical Theory underpins this paper. Its choice rests on its relevance in illuminating issues of the vestiges of colonialism and how they obstruct full-scale trade among African countries. Apart from enabling the framing of this paper, the Critical Theory helped in making meaning from the whole notion of full-scale trade among the African countries as triggered by the prioritisation of decolonisation among the African countries as against their counterparts in Europe.

Higgs & Smith (2010:67) advise that knowledge and how people understand truth, including scientific truth, moral truth and historical truth need not be separated from everyday life. This implies that comprehending the trend of how trade occurs within countries of the world, the context of the manifestation of that trade is as essential as the state of affairs itself. The Critical Theory assisted in arriving at the cause of trade imbalance among countries of the world (Van Niekerk & Van Niekerk, 2009:12). The other relevance of Critical Theory relates to its emphasis of business ethics. In the context of this paper, that would imply the study of good and bad trade behaviour by countries of the world, particularly African countries among themselves in relation to how they interrelate in the process of trading. The Critical Theory was found to be having a potential of uncovering whether the process of carrying out trade among countries is characterised by lack of moral compass of what is right and what is wrong or not. The Critical Theory exposed the vestiges of colonialism that obstruct adequate trade among African countries. In addition, it stands out when advising against separating "real life testing" from scientific theory. The meaning thereof is that scientists are bound by social reality and norms as much as the rest of people are. Historical reasons and living conditions which Africa countries experience, somewhat compel them to involve themselves in trade the way they do. Such a state of affairs deserves to

be challenged. Decolonisation remains relevant to African countries to enable them to trade differently.

The Critical Theory competently illuminated the problem which this paper is addressing, which is about explaining the opportunity missed by African countries by putting little emphasis on trade among themselves and more emphasis on trading with their erstwhile colonisers. The theory advocates for the critical reflection on society in order to discover the hidden assumptions that maintain the existing power relationships that keep the societal members perpetually enslaved though in a different form and guise. The Critical Theory is undergirding this paper because its basic contention is that all ideas come from human beings and all human beings are influenced by the world and the context they live in (Higgs & Smith, 2010:67). Continuous trade of African countries more with their former colonisers and less among themselves could be traced back to African countries not creating time and space to break the shackles that keep them perpetually enslaved to their former colonisers instead of decolonising to assert their own trade autonomy. African countries are displaying the learnt socio-economic and trade oppression, which has to be reversed. Countries of the world stand to be emancipated from trade imbalance, immediately they decolonize and become conscious of how trade oppression operates. This suggests that how countries normally think and act in relation to trade, is the product of many years of subjugation that compromises trade autonomy and thereby entrench trade dependence instead of trade interdependence (Freire, 1990:172).

3. Research Questions

In this paper, the research questions addressed are anchored on the Critical Theory since it underscores the paper (Higgs & Smith, 2010:88). The research questions are as follows: What is the role and significance of a clearly formulated foreign trade policy in promoting continental trade more than off-shore trade with erstwhile colonisers? What are the ideas, concerns and hindrances by African countries regarding the shifting of the trade focus from Europe back to Africa?

The above questions could be broken down into the following sub-questions:

- How is more trade with the former colonisers delaying the development of Africa?

- How best to break free from the master-slave unequal trade relations?
- How can decolonisation enhance trade relations among the African countries?
- What do African leaders require to trade in the interest of their own citizenry?

4. Research Methods and Materials

This is a qualitative paper. The paper follows a qualitative research approach as against the quantitative line of thinking as a result of the problem pursued, namely, attempting to explain the opportunity missed by African countries by putting little emphasis on trading among themselves and more emphasis on trading with their erstwhile colonisers (Creswell, 2010:156; Mouton, 1996:80). The choice of the qualitative research methodology was also triggered by underpinning the paper with the Critical Theory. This creates a synergy between the Critical Theory and the qualitative approach as the overarching research methodology (Babbie, 1992:129). The combination of the two helped immensely in terms of illuminating issues of the vestiges of colonialism that continue to obstruct full-scale trade among African countries. Partnering qualitative research approach and Critical Theory enabled the researcher to make an in-depth understanding of how despite many years since colonialism formally ceased to exist, its effects remain firmly in place. Such effects are still so severe such that African countries find it difficult to cooperate and successfully involve themselves in full-scale trade with one another. As part of research methodology, interviewing techniques and document analysis were utilised to collect data relevant for this paper. The said data collection tools emerged very helpful in terms of accessing data pertaining to the vestiges of colonialism as they prevent full-scale trade among the African countries, especially the economic superpowers like Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria (Leedy, 1993:66).

5. Results and Discussion

Findings arrived at in this paper are in relation to the research topic whose focus is how vestiges of colonialism continue to hinder full-scale trade among the African countries. The Critical Theory has been sufficiently instrumental in assisting in the analysis of data to ultimately emerge with these

findings. Findings and discussion for this paper are the following: the vestiges of colonialism as a barrier obstructing and averting African countries from ever trusting one another to the level of doing full-scale trade with one another, how ignorance of the decolonisation philosophy, maintains the master-slave trade relations and how lack of full-scale trade, consolidates and reinforces the barrier of under-development among African countries.

5.1 The Vestiges of Colonialism as a Barrier

The master-slave relations or bond take ages to sever if ever such ties unbundle. This is a stark reminder of how currently, African countries find themselves always attracted to their former colonisers with whom they fought bitterly over their independence. Upon gaining independence, African countries faced a reality of economic dependence. It dawned on them that it is difficult to fight for freedom and win it but even more difficult to rule over the country (Madue, 2013; Msila, 2017). One of the main reasons why the majority if not all African countries do not want to break away from their erstwhile colonisers is the realisation that their colonisers still have something to offer them, economically. Whether this is a reality or myth, is a question and debate for the other time. As of now the point at issue is that African countries trade more with their former enemies than with themselves. This is being done even by the economic superpowers of Africa, such as Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria, who were expected to be exemplary to fellow African states. Obviously this is a challenge to be surmounted. Whether African countries themselves will ultimately be able to sever the historically established ties with their erstwhile colonisers, it is a matter of wait and see (Tsheola, 2002).

Zwane (2015:10) validly contends that structurally, nothing has changed in Africa since the collapse of colonialism. That African countries have amongst others, inherited colonial policies, colonial infrastructure and colonial administration, is no critical factual inaccuracy. It could be contended that the challenge of being a copycat by African countries and its people, keeps Africa as a continent always bereft of originality which is a sign of lack of critical reflective thought on issues of sustainable development and calculated progress emanating from trade among the African countries. Formally, colonialism may have been outlawed but practically, it continues to wreak havoc on the lives of many of Africa's citizenry (Ngugi, 2017). The reality that in

the main Africans are not assertive enough about their own trade and economic issues, attests to the actuality that the vestiges of colonialism are alive and kicking in ourselves to the level where anything whose genesis is in Africa and not Europe, holds little or no appeal at all to us as Africans. Hence African countries and their leaders marvel and celebrate their trade and economic ties with their former rulers as against doing the same with their fellow Africans. This contradiction of African countries having attained self-rule and yet still being hangers-on to their former colonial masters ought not be countenanced. Actually, 21st century was supposed to be an African century, in trade and other economic aspects. Although as of now that is not the case, time still allows that something be done in this regard. Despite the point that the world is 19 years into the 21st century, if ever concerted efforts could be mustered by African themselves and gravitate towards one continent, one destiny and one future in the area of full-scale trade among the African countries, things could turn rosy for the continent. Africa requires a devoted trade and economic resolve and determination that are free from hypocrisy (Msila, 2017). Such a resolve would help to address the vestiges of colonialism that are still impeding African countries from engaging in full-scale trade with one another.

5.2 Ignorance of Decolonisation Philosophy

The trend throughout the world with regard to countries that were at one stage colonised, is to resolve to decolonise in order to restore their eroded dignity and re-humanise in the form of promoting sustainable trade among its fellow countries (Ngugi, 2005). That the majority of African countries are characterised by either political crisis, anarchy, upheavals or economic instability, could be traced back to ignoring the philosophy of decolonisation, that guides their operations including trade and industry. This is not helping the project of attempting to bring Africa together as one continent in the area of full-scale trade. Of all the countries of Africa, those that experience and enjoy economic and political stability are fewer than those experiencing political turmoil. For instance, as of now, it is Botswana and South Africa which could be placed in the category of stable countries. The other 52 countries, inclusive of South Sudan which has just gained independence, are not politically and economically stable. Instability defining African countries is part of the vestiges of colonialism and one of the solutions is

decolonisation. A classic example is Mozambique which even today is not at peace with itself but it is at peace with its former coloniser, namely, Portugal. What is astonishing, is that trade between Mozambique and Angola as both former colonies of Portugal are not as high as between those countries themselves but it is up with their erstwhile coloniser, namely Portugal (Msila, 2017). If that is not an indication of the vestige of colonialism, what is it? Another excellent example is that of Lesotho which is not enjoying absolute peace with itself and some neighbouring African countries, but it enjoys sufficient peace with Britain as its former colonial master. Lesotho, as a country, is known to be characterised by political and economic instability which normally forces some of its neighbours like South Africa to now and again, intervene. Once again, if failure to enjoy absolute peace and sufficient trade by Lesotho with fellow African countries, is not a confirmation of being mired in the vestiges of colonialism, then it means colonialism has no meaning. The source of minimal trade among African countries is ignorance of decoloniality. The review of literature exposes the enemies of Africa and Africans as themselves. This is to imply that where there is an instability in an African country, yes third force may be part but the chief culprits of that crisis will be African themselves for various reasons ranging from greed to just being conditioned to disorder, quarrelling and mutinous activities (Gobillot, 2008; Fomunyam, 2017).

The contribution of colonialism is not shielded in this regard. As a result of ignoring to decolonise, nearly all the African countries, experience various forms of anarchy, ranging from trade to political turmoil. Currently, countries such as Libya, Egypt, Central African Republic and other African states witness dissatisfactions over the lack of decolonisation and democracy. The reality is that full-scale trade among the African countries occurs successfully in an environment of decolonisation which promotes consciousness about the need for trade-cooperation first among African countries before forging other trade links with their erstwhile colonisers (Cunha, Filho & Goncalves, 2010). Africans themselves have to face that challenge head-on, oppose and defeat it. Failure to do so will continue to mire Africa in poverty, unemployment, inequality, diseases and other maladies, when Africa is one of the world's well-endowed continents with natural resources to benefit all her citizenry. Full-scale trade among African countries could be enabled by decoloniality. The argument of ignoring

decolonisation, as one of the causative factors and barriers to why trade among African countries is ever minimal instead of being to the maximum level, needs fresh attention. The remedy to it is for African countries to decolonise their environments through creating the necessary trade climate and atmosphere which will enable continental investors never to look back upon deciding to do business trade among themselves as countries of the same continent (Hlongwane, 2016).

5.3 The Barrier of Under-Development

As long as the occurrence of full-scale trade is dependent on the availability of an infrastructure, then it means African states will always be in a disadvantaged position. The question to pose is: why is Africa's infrastructural development lagging behind in comparison with other countries of the world. There are varied answers to such a question. The first response would be that having an underdeveloped infrastructure is not the phenomenon experienced in Africa alone. This is to signify that other countries of the world do have such a predicament. Countries of the world are classified into three categories as regards their level of development. There are countries that fall within the category of developed countries. Others fall under the developing countries. The last category is that of underdeveloped countries. The question is: what is responsible for such distinctions within countries of the world? Once again, various responses could be secured for such a question. However, it suffices to reveal that normally countries that were at one stage colonised, are nearly underdeveloped in as far as infrastructure goes. This could be explained in terms of the former rulers of those countries having impoverished them due to only being concerned about the extraction of those countries' natural resource, to the total ignorance of the advancement of those countries' infrastructure (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010). Had the infrastructure in the colonised countries been developed, then upon getting independence, those countries were going to be able to make quick progress with their trade activities. A critical interrogation of why many if not all African countries are having a backlog of infrastructure, leads to the response that it was a deliberate strategy to keep African countries always politically independent and economically dependent on their former rulers. This is a diabolical deed in the sense that it ultimately reduces the poor of the poor in that impoverished country to perpetual and entrenched poverty of the last degree. Unfortunately for those in

power, they are able to grab whatever has been left by the former colonisers and help themselves with it, when the masses on the ground are starving and wallowing in poverty attributable to infrastructural underdevelopment and owing to lack of good governance (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Sebola, 2012). The other reason behind infrastructural backlog in African countries could only be explained in terms of the African leaders having not pursued continental trade with vigour. In addition, taking financial resource earmarked for infrastructural development and either make it disappear or connive with the contractors to do a shoddy job regarding the improvement of the infrastructure, became rife. So, the contradiction pertaining to infrastructural underdevelopment by African countries is multifaceted. In some countries as it has been argued such a state of affairs is to be blamed on the colonial rulers of those African countries while on other African countries, the delay in the improvement of infrastructure for economic purposes has just been internally generated. To sum up this hurdle of the underdevelopment of infrastructure which is touted to be obstructing full-scale trade among the African countries, including the economic superpowers of Africa such as Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria, deserves urgent attention (Omano, 2005; Qwabe, 2013).

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Scapegoating of the existence of trade hurdles and parading of all the obstacles being externally generated will not always be convincing, especially to those who are naturally critical, reflective and independent-minded about minimal trade by African countries among themselves. African countries need to decolonise to learn to build their economies from inside-out. In this era of the shrinking of the world economies, continental economic integration has to be an option. This is the case because unemployment, inequality, diseases, poverty, starvation and other maladies, keep on increasing in Africa yet full-scale trade with the former colonisers is proceeding unabated but with little or no material benefit for Africa and her people. The three countries that are anticipated to lead the way as regards forging strong economic ties among the African countries themselves, are the economic superpowers of Africa, namely, Nigeria, South Africa and Algeria. The researcher is convinced that African economies could turn a tide if African countries could with enthusiasm, determination, focus and vigour explore doing more full-scale trade with

themselves and maybe to the only small scale with foreign markets. On the basis of the findings discussed, the following recommendations are made:

- There is a need for African countries to sever or lessen economic ties with their former colonisers. Down the years such trade relations have been characterised by imbalances. Worse, such economic ties benefitted Africa less and their former colonisers, undeservedly more.
- There is a need by African countries to unbundle the vestiges of colonialism as a way of creating an enabling economic environment which will make sustainable economic activities among the African countries to thrive.
- There is also a need for Africans to be emboldened to embrace the decolonisation philosophy, to enable them to learn to be proud of themselves, their fellow citizens and their countries.
- Lastly, there is a need to place adequate attention to the advancement of underdeveloped infrastructure since today's full-scale trade thrives on its availability.

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An Analysis of Audit Outcomes and Service Delivery at the Local Government Sphere in South Africa

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Abstract: Section 4(1) of the Public Audit Act 25 of 2004 stipulates that the Auditor-General (AG) is responsible for auditing and reporting on the accounts, financial statements as well as the financial management of national and provincial government departments, Parliament and all municipalities, among others. In this regard, at the end of every financial year, the AG issues a report on the audit outcomes of the various public institutions that are listed in section 4(1) of the Public Audit Act. At the same time, an impression is given that if a public institution gets a 'clean' audit, or an unqualified audit opinion, that institution is achieving its objectives. Public institutions exist for the sole reason of providing goods and services, which mainly cannot be provided by the private sector. Therefore, this should be the test of whether a public institution is achieving its objectives or not. This paper used secondary sources of information to analyse whether an unqualified audit opinion by the AG equates to satisfactory service delivery by looking at the provincial audit outcomes of several municipalities in South Africa over a period of time vis-à-vis these municipalities' performance when it comes to service delivery. The 2016/17 financial year of the Western Cape government came first in comparison to other provinces in obtaining 'clean' audits in 70% of its municipalities. However, the province still experiences service delivery protests on a frequent basis, largely related to a perceived lack of service delivery when in the provision of housing. The findings show the provinces with municipalities that have received less unqualified audit opinions, such as the Eastern Cape and Gauteng, have at the same time spent more money in an irregular manner, and have also experienced the most service delivery protests. The paper contributes a framework that provides the key conditions that have to be in place for effective service delivery to take place.

Keywords: Audit outcomes, Auditor-General, Municipalities, Service delivery

1. Introduction

The Auditor-General South Africa (AGSA) is established in terms of section 188 of chapter nine of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, as one of the six institutions that have been created to strengthen constitutional democracy of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996:65). The Office of the Auditor-General (AG) is therefore tasked with auditing the financial statements as well as report on the financial management thereof of national and provincial government departments and municipalities, among others. The Public Audit Act 25 of 2004 mandates the AGSA to perform its constitutional work. Section 4(1) of the Public Audit Act lists the constitutional functions of the AGSA, which include auditing and reporting on the accounts, producing financial statements and the financial management of public institutions, including municipalities (RSA, 2004:6).

The work done by the AG's Office is therefore critical to South Africa's system of public financial management. This is so because the AG also plays the role

of making recommendations for the institution of internal controls, in the various public institutions, when weaknesses have been identified following audits conducted (Mazibuko & Fourie, 2013:138). In this regard, it must be emphasised that most of the work done by the AG takes place *ex post facto* or after expenditure has occurred. As such, it is necessary to consider the work of other assurance providers in the system of public financial management such as internal auditors. However, for purposes of this article, the focus is on the work of the AGSA.

The Office of the AG therefore audits and reports on the financial management of public institutions as highlighted above at the end of each financial year. Rightly, the AG's findings are reported prominently in the media, and the media and the public lambast those institutions that get qualified audit outcomes. An impression is therefore created that a so-called clean audit outcome or unqualified audit opinion equates to efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of public services. Against this background, this study aims to answer the following questions: Firstly, *What are some of the conditions for efficiency*

and effectiveness in the delivery of services? Secondly, does an unqualified audit opinion with no findings mean a public institution is achieving its objective of provision of services?

The paper attempts to provide answers to the above questions by considering the audit outcomes of various municipalities by province vis-à-vis their performance when it comes to service delivery. It must also be pointed out that it is the author's view that audit outcomes are but one of many measures for assessing efficiency and effectiveness, more so because of the nature of the work done by the Office of the AG, which happens after the fact. However, there are other measures that the paper seeks to explore which are in most instances the root causes of service delivery failures such as leadership. By looking at these other measures, the paper aims to come up with a comprehensive framework to assess the performance of municipalities over and above audit outcomes.

2. Theoretical Perspectives

The ensuing sections provide an exposition of theoretical perspectives relevant to answering the paper's research questions.

2.1 Audit Outcomes

Holt and Moizer (1990:111) describe various audit reports as follows: *Unqualified audit report*: This report is issued when auditors are of the view that an institution's financial statements provide a true and fair view of the institution. *Disclaimer of opinion report*: A disclaimer of opinion report is issued when after attempting to audit an institution's financial statements, an auditor is unable to form an opinion on whether these present a true and fair view of the institution's state of affairs. *Adverse opinion*: An adverse opinion report is issued when an auditor is of the view that financial statements do not provide a correct and fair view of the state of affairs of an institution. In addition, Sambo (2017:12) describes a *qualified audit opinion* report as that which is issued when an auditor has found that some of the information presented in an institution's financial statements do not comply with Generally Accepted Accounting Practice (GAAP). However, the rest of the information contained in the financial statements could be fairly represented. The various types of audit reports will be explored further below when findings are presented.

2.2 A Synopsis of the Local Sphere of Government in South Africa

Thornhill (2012:133) cites that South Africa's democratic election in 1994 ushered with it a new system of government that consists of three spheres of government - national, provincial and local - which are interdependent and interrelated. In this regard, section 151 of the Constitution of 1996 gives effect to the establishment of the local sphere of government, which consists of municipalities throughout the country. There are currently 278 municipalities in South Africa (eight Metropolitan, 44 district and 226 local) (South African Government, 2019). However, this number fluctuates when municipalities are amalgamated for various reasons. The description of the various types of municipalities is as follows (RSA, 1996:75; Municipalities of South Africa, 2019):

- **Category A or metropolitan municipalities:** These are those municipalities that have exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in their areas.
- **Category B or local municipalities:** These municipalities share executive and legislative authority in their areas with category C municipalities.
- **Category C or district municipalities:** These municipalities have municipal executive and legislative authority in various areas that include more than one municipality.

The objectives of the local sphere of government are therefore inter alia, to ensure that services are provided to communities in a sustainable way, as well as the promotion of social and economic development (RSA, 1996:74). The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998 is the statute that provides for the establishment of the various categories of municipalities as described above. The Act further provides the criteria for determining the categories of municipalities, as well as the division of functions and powers between the various types of municipalities (RSA, 1998:2). Section 11 of the Municipal Structures Act stipulates that the determination of categories in which municipalities fall in the various provinces is determined by the respective provincial legislations (RSA, 1998:20).

2.2.1 Functions and Powers of Local and District Municipalities

A local municipality's functions and powers are described in sections 156 and 229 of the Constitution

of 1996. These are inter alia the administration of by-laws as well as ensuring that property owners pay rates and surcharges for services rendered. The following are functions and powers of district municipalities as described in section 84 of the Municipal Structures Act (RSA, 1998:56-58):

A district municipality has the following functions and powers:

- a. Integrated development planning for the district municipality as a whole including a framework for integrated development plans for the local municipalities within the area of the district municipality, taking into account the integrated development plans of those local municipalities.
- b. Bulk supply of water that affects a significant proportion of municipalities in the district.
- c. Bulk supply of electricity that affects a significant proportion of municipalities in the district.
- d. Bulk sewage purification works and main sewage disposal that affect a significant proportion of municipalities in the district.
- e. Solid waste disposal sites serving the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- f. Municipal roads which form an integral part of a road transport system for the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- g. Regulation of passenger transport services.
- h. Municipal airports serving the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- i. Municipal health services serving the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- j. Firefighting services serving the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- k. The establishment, conduct and control of fresh produce markets and abattoirs serving the area of the district municipality as a whole.
- l. The establishment, conduct and control of cemeteries and crematoria serving the district as a whole.

- m. Promotion of local tourism for the area of the district municipality.
- n. Municipal public works relating to any of the above functions or any other functions assigned to the district municipality.
- o. The receipt allocation and if applicable the distribution of grants made to the district municipality.
- p. The imposition and collection of taxes, levies and duties as related to the above functions or as may be assigned to the district municipality in terms of national legislation.

From the above, it can be seen that the powers and functions of local and district municipalities are far reaching. More importantly, the local sphere of government plays a critical role in the delivery of services that are critical for the livelihood of communities.

2.3 Service Delivery

Ndebele and Lavhelani (2017:341) define service delivery as the provision of tangible goods and intangible services by government for the satisfaction of citizens (cf. Sindane & Nambalirwa, 2012:697; Akinboade, Kinack & Mokwena, 2012:189). Ndebele and Lavhelani (2017) further maintain that at the local government sphere, service delivery encompasses the provision of basic resources that citizens are dependent on such as land, infrastructure, electricity and water. Crous (2004:575) asserts that the programmes of the government should result in an enhanced quality of life for all citizens, which according to the author implies that the outcomes of public administration should be aimed at service delivery, as well as enhancing the general welfare of the population.

Powell (2012:22) highlights that one of the democratic government of South Africa's goals was to have all households have access to basic services by 2014. The author further reports that by 2012, significant progress had been made, whereby 93% of the population had access to a pipe of water, which is 200 metres from their homes. Similarly, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) in a community survey conducted in 2016, reports that the backlog in terms of access to piped water amounted to 8.8% of the population (Stats SA, 2016:17). Other targets were set for access to electricity, basic sanitation and weekly refuse removal. Powell (2012) further highlights that

there are many obstacles that the government is facing towards the goal of all households having access to these basic services. In this regard, more rural provinces that absorbed former homelands were found to be below the average when it comes to the provision of most services (Powell, 2012:22 cf. Ndebele & Lavhelani, 2017:341; Van der Westhuizen & Dollery, 2009:163).

2.3.1 Service Delivery Protests

Ndebele and Lavhelani (2017:341) highlight that there is a service delivery protest taking place somewhere in South Africa almost on a daily basis. These protests have led to a decline in public trust in various municipalities. Furthermore, the public is increasingly feeling frustrated when incidents of poor governance and corruption, which in turn lead to poor service delivery are reported (cf. Sindane & Nambalirwa, 2012:696; Nleya, 2011:3; Akinboade *et al.*, 2012:182). In explaining what leads to service delivery protests, Sindane and Nambalirwa (2012:697) contend that when public institutions make assumptions about the needs of citizens, this may lead to service delivery protests. Communities need to be part of the decision-making process to secure their buy-in (Nleya, 2011:5). In this regard, Tsheola (2012:164) argues that public participation plays the role of creating a sense of ownership, wherein citizens get an opportunity to express their views therefore preventing them from resorting to service delivery protests as a recourse.

Tsheola (2012) further maintains that the fact that the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process is designed to ensure that there is public participation in service delivery planning. Therefore, continued occurrence of service delivery protests points to gaps in that process. Another cause of service delivery protests according to Sindane and Nambalirwa is a lack of responsiveness to community grievances by councillors and municipal officials (cf. Bond & Mottier, 2013:290). In addition, Bond and Mottier (2013:290) point to that protests are not always about service delivery, although they are more often termed service delivery protests. The authors are of the view that more often than not, protests have to do with citizens' attempt at exerting their rights to participate and have their voices heard, as opposed to being passive recipients who simply demand service delivery (cf. Nleya, 2011:4). On the contrary, Alexander (2010:29) points to that the issues that lead to service delivery protests at local government level such as housing, land and jobs are in actual

fact not within the remit of the local sphere of government. This could point to a lack of information wherein community members may not know that the different spheres of government have different responsibilities.

2.3.2 Prerequisites for Effective Service Delivery

For purposes of this paper, the following are the important prerequisites for effective service delivery that have been considered.

2.3.2.1 Municipality's Source of Income and Financial Management

Ndebele and Lavhelani (2017:352) argue that a municipality's source of income is an important enabling factor in ensuring effective service delivery. Mazibuko and Fourie (2013:132) refer to municipal finance as those decisions made by municipalities regarding revenue and expenditure. The decisions also consider sources of revenue such as taxes and intergovernmental transfers. Therefore, a municipality's inability to collect revenue means that the same municipality has to rely on grants from national government to cover shortfalls. To mitigate this risk, municipalities have to come up with strategies to ensure that members of communities pay their property rates and taxes, therefore increasing municipal revenue that can be used for the provision of services (cf. Thornhill, 2012:135).

Sambo (2017:36) refers to public finance as the cornerstone of any government. This is because it is through public finances that a government is able to provide services to its citizens. The author further cites that the goal of financial management is to enhance the management, allocation and control of financial resources. In addition, Guthrie, Olson and Humphrey (1999:211) aver that financial management is no longer a concern only for the Treasury or professionally qualified public accountants. Other stakeholders such as service providers, public officials and the general public are increasingly finding it necessary to know how to among others respond to and interpret financial information. This is in line with the notion of accountability that will be described below.

In discussing public financial management, it is also necessary to mention the three forms of financial misconduct that usually lead to public institutions receiving audit outcomes that are not satisfactory. These are unauthorised expenditure, fruitless and wasteful expenditure and irregular expenditure.

Unauthorised expenditure is expenditure that was incurred without having been budgeted for. Fruitless and wasteful expenditure is expenditure that was incurred in a manner which could have been avoided had reasonable care been taken. Irregular expenditure is expenditure that was incurred in violation of the requirements of legislation, such as the PFMA (RSA, 1999:7). For purposes of this paper, the focus will be on irregular expenditure, owing to the sizeable amounts of this kind of expenditure, which is incurred in the public sector annually.

2.3.2.2 Governance and Local Governance

Denhardt and Catlaw (2015:209) define governance as the traditions, institutions and processes that have to do with how power is exercised in society. Bovaird and Löffler (2002:16) submit that governance suggests a change in the meaning of government, wherein there are new processes that focus on self-organising and inter-organisational networks that are interdependent and exchange resources. Accordingly, the authors refer to local governance as a set of formal and informal rules, structures and processes that determine the way in which individuals and organisations exercise power over decisions that affect the welfare of local communities. Similarly, Curtis (1999:266) indicates that governance considers the micro-political processes within organisations, municipalities and rural communities, as well as between the local sphere and other spheres of government. This process calls for the creation of several networked relationships, committees and forums to bring various parties together. More importantly, Curtis (*ibid*) emphasises that the governance role of the local sphere of government has to be in place before the provision of basic services can even be considered (cf. Bond & Mottier, 2013:288).

In the same vein, Nleya (2011:11) cites that local governance in the form of effective grievance resolution channels and representation are as important as lack of service delivery itself to communities. The concept of good governance forms part of the overarching discussion of governance. Attributes of good governance are the existence of the rule of law, a written constitution, transparency and accountability, among others. Good governance has the potential to lead to the achievement of the goal of creating a good life for all, which may lead to a satisfactory quality life for citizens (Sindane & Nambalirwa, 2012:696; cf. Koma, 2017:25). Akinboade *et al.* (2012:184) buttress

that in measuring the impact of governance reforms on government performance, satisfaction surveys are a practical way of doing so, more so in sectors where service quality is not easy to measure. The authors further describe customer satisfaction as "the overall level of attainment of a customer's satisfaction". Of interest to note is the use of the word 'customer' in an article about public service delivery. Reference to customer as opposed to citizen is used in the context of New Public Management (NPM), whereas the alternative to NPM, 'New Public Service' (NPS) advocates for the use of the term citizen because public service is regarded as an extension of citizenship. As a result, government has to be responsive to the needs and interests of citizens, and ought to work with citizens in building a civil society (Dehardt & Catlaw, 2015:204). Koma (2017:34) considers various solutions to improve the governance of municipalities such as the Municipal Audit Support Programme (MASP), which seeks to improve leadership, institutional capacity, governance and financial management practices in municipalities.

2.3.2.3 Accountability

Closely linked to the concept of governance is accountability. Mulgan (2000:555) refers to accountability as the process of accounting for one's actions to a form of authority. Sambo (2017:41) concurs with Mulgan in her description of accountability as a process of ensuring that elected or appointed individuals are held accountable to the public for their actions, activities and decisions. From a financial management perspective, accountability is concerned with the ability to account for the allocation, use and control of public financial resources. The accountability described above has a number of characteristics such as that it is external in nature because account gets given to external persons. Secondly, it involves social interaction and exchange, whereby the recipients of the account require answers to be provided on the one hand, and on the other hand, those that are held to account may have to accept sanctions because of not achieving certain targets, among others (Mulgan, 2000:556). AGSA (2017:12) underscores that accountability is an important means through which leaders of municipalities get answerable to local communities as well as take responsibility for their actions, decisions and policies. As such, municipalities ought to be able to show the correctness of their actions. In addition, municipalities ought to encourage and enforce compliance with the rule of law.

2.3.2.4 Human Resources

Grindle and Hilderbrand (1995:459) argue that the effective use of human resources once recruited is the most crucial factor in determining the productivity levels of public officials (cf. AGSA, 2017:83). In this regard, Alexander (2010:37) cites that there is a shortage of skilled officials within the local sphere of government, who are able to administer and maintain municipal services, and that this is more pronounced outside metropolitan municipalities. Andrews and Boyne (2010:444) further note that "a capable organisation manages its physical, human, informational, and financial resources". The authors further submit that evidence from several studies has shown that effective leadership is associated with high performance, of which leadership was also found to be instrumental in improving performance in local government. In addition, it is noted that poor performance in the public sector is likely to occur because of leadership failing to ensure that there are performance improvements rather than from weak organisational structures and processes (Andrews & Boyne, 2010:444). It must also be pointed out that ethical leadership in particular is important in public institutions. Trevino, Hartman and Brown (2000:128) refer to an ethical leader as one who finds ways to focus their institution's attention on ethics and values as well as instil ethical behaviour and values in their employees.

3. Methods and Materials

The study assumed the qualitative methodology and document analysis was adopted as the data collection technique. Document analysis is a data collection technique commonly used when the qualitative data approach is adopted. In this regard, Sambo (2017:139) in a previous study that she conducted wherein document analysis was one of the data collection techniques she adopted describes document analysis as a process of reviewing documents in a methodical manner, be it in printed or electronic format. When document analysis is adopted as a data collection technique, the researcher ought to interpret the data with the aim to derive meaning and understanding from the said data, as well as develop some knowledge. The choice of the methodology and the data collection technique was informed by the research questions that the study seeks to answer: Firstly, *What are the conditions for efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services?* Secondly, *does an unqualified audit opinion mean a public institution is achieving its objective of provision*

of services? The researcher avers that a careful analysis of secondary sources of information such as literature on service delivery and various reports by the Auditor-General will suffice in providing the answers to the above questions.

4. Results and Discussion

The study's findings are presented below:

4.1 Overview of Audit Findings by Province

The following section presents findings on the audit outcomes, firstly of municipalities per province. The audit outcomes will be juxtaposed to service delivery protests that have taken place in the various provinces in order to ascertain whether positive/negative audit outcomes are an indication of service delivery. The researcher's assumption is that service delivery protests are an indication of communities' unhappiness due to lack of service delivery. However, it must also be pointed out that some protests may relate to matters that are not a competence of municipalities. As per the mandate of the AGSA, as described above, the office of the AG issues reports on the financial state of affairs of various public institutions such as national and provincial departments, municipalities, public entities and state-owned enterprises (AGSA, 2018:30). For the 2016/17 financial year, the audit outcomes of audits conducted by the AGSA on South African municipalities are as follows (AGSA, 2017:26):

- 7%-unqualified with no findings;
- 68%-unqualified with findings;
- 17%-qualified with findings;
- 1%-adverse with findings;
- 5%-disclaimed with findings; and
- 2%-outstanding audits.

AGSA (2017:52) reports the following with regards to unqualified audit outcomes and irregular expenditure of municipalities per province.

Table 1 on the next page shows a general trend of regressing audit outcomes as well as increasing irregular expenditure. A deduction can thus be made from the information presented in Table 1 towards

Table 1: Percentage of Unqualified Audit Outcomes, Amounts of Irregular Expenditure and Service Delivery Protests Per Province

Province	Percentage of unqualified audit outcomes		Irregular expenditure incurred		Service delivery protests as at 30 April 2018 (as shown in figure 1)
	2015/16	2016/17	2015/16	2016/17	
Eastern Cape	20%	5%	R5.4 billion	R13.6 billion	17%
Free State	4%	0%	R813 million	R675 million	13%
Gauteng	10%	9%	R1.3 billion	R3.7 billion	15%
KwaZulu-Natal	20%	11%	R2 billion	R2.4 billion	13%
Limpopo	0%	0%	R1.3 billion	R1.3 billion	7%
Mpumalanga	16%	10%	R1.4 billion	R1.9 billion	3%
Northern Cape	7%	3%	R457 million	R261 million	10%
North West	0%	0%	R3.186 billion	R4.294 billion	14%
Western Cape	80%	70%	R174 million	R173 million	8%

Source: AGSA, 2017:52-78; Municipal IQ (2018:2)

answering the research question: *Does an unqualified audit opinion mean a public institution is achieving its objective of provision of services?* When the audit outcomes are juxtaposed with service delivery protests in the various provinces, several factors are revealed. The municipalities in the various provinces which have received less unqualified audit opinions, such as the Eastern Cape and Gauteng, have at the same time spent more money in an irregular manner, and at the same time have experienced the most service delivery protests. However, it must also be pointed out that although a province such as the Western Cape has historically achieved more 'clean' audits when compared to other provinces it has at the same time experienced a sizeable percentage of service delivery protests. Another anomaly can be observed when analysing data for the two rural Provinces-Limpopo and Mpumalanga. These provinces have achieved less clean audits however; their service delivery protests are also low. This could be an indication of a need for civic education in those rural provinces wherein communities may not be aware that they have recourse in the form of protests when they are not satisfied with services provided.

Table 2 on the next page lists the top ten municipalities in terms of their contribution to irregular expenditure in ascending order. Table 2 reiterates what has been pointed out above, that is, municipalities in the Eastern Cape and Gauteng provinces are the biggest contributors to irregular expenditure in the country. As described above, irregular expenditure occurs when various legislations that have to

be complied with when spending public funds are not complied with. This could possibly mean that the 3 E's of service delivery - efficiency, effectiveness and economy - were not achieved when such expenditure was incurred, which also has a negative impact on the services that municipalities are then able to deliver.

4.2 Accountability Failures in Local Government

Accountability was described above as a process of ensuring that elected or appointed individuals are held accountable to the public for their actions, activities and decisions. In this regard, AGSA (2017:2) reports that during the 2016/17 financial year, audit outcomes for the local sphere of government indicate a continued failure in accountability which goes against what is expected of public officials and political office bearers. The three main indicators of accountability failure according to the AG were firstly, regressed audit outcomes and increased irregular expenditure. Unqualified audit opinions on financial statements decreased from 68% in 2015/16 to 61% during the 2016/17 financial year. Secondly, there was a minute improvement in the accountability cycle, which was evident in a lack of implementation of recommendations that were made to improve audit outcomes and accountability in previous audits. Thirdly, auditors are increasingly finding it difficult to conduct their audits, whereby, among others, some public institutions placed pressure on auditors to misrepresent audit outcomes as well as not disclose irregular expenditure. Other reasons for accountability failures that were identified

Table 2: Top Ten Contributing Municipalities to Irregular Expenditure

Municipality	Disclosed (R Billion)	Incurred in 2016-17 (R Billion)	Main Non-Compliance	Key Projects Affected	Grants Affected* (R Billion)
Nelson Mandela Bay Metro (EC)	R8,184	R0,045 (0,5%)	99% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Water infrastructure, road infrastructure, and housing	R1,318 (USDG)
OR Tambo District (EC)	R3,082	R0,680 (22%), of which R0,097 (14%) represents non-compliance in 2016-17	99% related to procurement without following competitive bidding or quotation processes	Water infrastructure	R0,713 (MIG/RBIG)
City of Tshwane Metro (GP)	R1,825	R1,211 (66%), of which R0,231 (19%) represents non-compliance in 2016-17	83% related to procurement without following competitive bidding or quotation processes	Smart prepaid contract (R0,699 billion), Wi-Fi contract (R0,079 billion), and fleet management contract (R0,130 billion)	N / A
Rustenburg (NW)	R0,984	R0,540 (55%) The portion that represents non-compliance in 2016-17 could not be determined due to poor document management at municipality	100% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Rustenburg rapid transport (various sub-contracts)	R0,145 (PTNG)
Ngaka Modiri Molema District (NW)	R0,828	R0,164 (20%) The portion that represents non-compliance in 2016-17 could not be determined due to poor document management at municipality	80% related to procurement without following competitive bidding or quotation processes	Water infrastructure and sanitation	R0,015 (MIG)
City of Johannesburg Metro (GP)	R0,706	R0,706 (100%), of which R0,393 (56%) represents non-compliance in 2016-17	100% related to non-compliance with legislation on contracts	ICT – SAP upgrade	N / A
City of Ekurhuleni Metro (GP)	R0,591	R0,367 (62%)	59% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Refuse removal, housing infrastructure (e.g. housing, dwelling and lifts projects), chemical toilets (i.e. sanitation), and road infrastructure	R0,420 (PTNG)
Buffalo City Metro (EC)	R0,584	R0,287 (49%), none of which represents non-compliance in 2016-17	77% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Multi-year contract for road infrastructure	R0,532 (USDG)
Madibeng (NW)	R0,562	R0,562 (100%), of which R0,504 (90%) represents non-compliance in 2016-17	80% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Water infrastructure and sanitation	R0,051 (MIG)
Moretele (NW)	R0,557	R0,139 (25%) The portion that represents non-compliance in 2016-17 could not be determined due to poor document management at municipality	100% related to non-compliance with procurement process requirements	Water infrastructure and sanitation	R0,019 (MIG)
Total for top 10	R17,903	This constitutes 63% of the total irregular expenditure disclosed in 2016-17 R11,265 billion (63%) of top 10 value resulted from non-compliance with procurement process requirements, while R5,617 billion (31%) related to procurement without following competitive bidding or quotation processes			
*MIG: municipal infrastructure grant, PTNG: public transport network grant, RBIG: regional bulk infrastructure grant USDG: urban settlement development grant					

Source: AGSA (2017:36–37)

by the office of the AG are as follows (AGSA, 2017:3):

- Systematic and disciplined improvements were slowed down by vacancies and instability in key positions.
- There was insufficient implementation and maintenance of financial and performance management systems by the various administrations because of inadequate skills, which in turn led to a lack of oversight by councils.

- A lack of consequences for transgressions was caused by political infighting at council level and interference in the administration, which weakened oversight and made local government less attractive for professionals to join.
- Leadership did not play their role of ensuring that there was a culture of consequence management. In addition, leadership did not address weaknesses that the Office of the AG reported and warned them of.
- Ineffective performance systems and processes.
- Some municipalities had ineffective internal controls, such as good record keeping and compliance with important legislation, which breeds an environment for fraud to be easily committed.
- Municipalities used the services of consultants and auditors, in their effort to obtain unqualified financial statements. These services come at a great cost and negatively impacts on credible performance reporting and compliance with important legislation.
- Provincial and national role players did not adequately support municipalities.

Furthermore, municipalities were found to be increasingly unable to collect money owed to them by members of communities. In this regard, 31% of municipalities had reported a deficit, which in total amounted to R5.6 billion. Therefore, those municipalities that are owed large amounts are in turn unable to pay their own creditors (AGSA, 2017:3). This can be seen in the large amounts owed by municipalities

to other government institutions such as Eskom for the provision of electricity and the various water boards.

Figure 1 below provides a schematic presentation of service delivery protests that had occurred in the various provinces as at 30 April 2018, as already highlighted above.

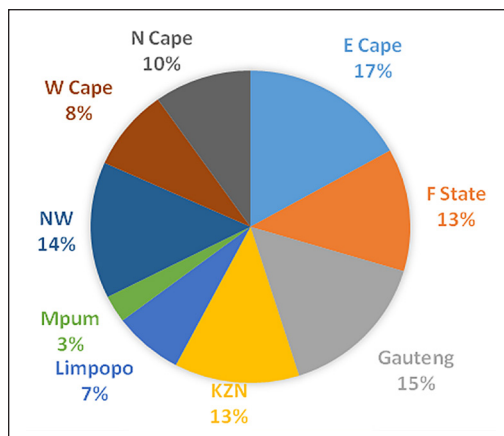
In addressing the research question: *What are the conditions for efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services?* Table 3 on the following page presents the key conditions as well as their interpretation.

5. Conclusion

The paper sought to analyse audit outcomes in relation to service delivery by carefully analysing the audit outcomes as reported by the AG and service delivery protests. The Office of the AG as one of the six institutions created to strengthen constitutional democracy of the Republic of South Africa plays an important role of auditing the financial statements as well as report on the financial management thereof, of among others national and provincial government departments and municipalities. The Public Audit Act gives effect to the constitutional functions of the AGSA as described above.

Therefore, work done by the AG's Office is critical to South Africa's system of public financial management. The researcher's curiosity in starting this research was prompted by the prominence given to the findings of the AG for each financial period. However, the researcher has observed that only the financial findings of the AG receive the said prominence and not so much the causes of the

Figure 1: Service Delivery Protests by Province as at 30 April 2018



Source: Municipal IQ (2018:2)

Table 3: Necessary Conditions for Effective Service Delivery at the Local Sphere of Government

Number	Condition	Interpretation of Condition
1	Ethical Leadership	Firstly, leadership that is associated with high performance. Secondly, leadership that promotes an institution's values and ethical behaviour.
2	Good governance	The achievement of the goal of creating a good life for all, which may lead to a satisfactory quality life for citizens.
3	Human resources	The effective use of human resources once recruited.
4	Financial resources	A municipality's source of income in ensuring effective service delivery.
5	Financial management	A municipality's ability to collect revenue due to it from members of communities.

Source: Author

poor audit outcomes on the finances. Accordingly, the researcher is of the view that an impression is created that a so-called clean audit outcome or unqualified audit opinion equates to efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of public services. Therefore, this study aimed to answer the following questions: *What are some of the conditions for efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services?* Secondly, *does an unqualified audit opinion with no findings mean a public institution is achieving its objective of provision of services?*

In answering the above questions, the paper was organised as follows: theoretical perspectives were considered wherein the different audit reports were described in order for readers to understand what these concepts that were referred to throughout the paper mean. A synopsis of the local government sphere was considered, and the various categories of municipalities and their functions and powers were explained. Here it was shown that the local sphere of government plays an important role because it is here where basic services that are critical for human survival such as water and electricity are provided.

Service delivery, the reason for existence for municipalities was described. In this discussion, service delivery protests were an important variable to consider because it is through these protests that members of communities convey their dissatisfaction with service delivery or lack thereof. The prerequisites for effective service delivery were also considered, and among others, the importance of good governance and accountability were emphasised.

Lastly, the study's findings were presented wherein in answering the first research question: *What are some of the conditions for efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services?* Table 3 above provides the necessary conditions for effective service delivery at the local sphere of government. Some of these conditions are effective leadership as well as financial management. In answering the second research question: *Does an unqualified audit opinion with no findings mean a public institution is achieving its objective of provision of services?* Table 1 essentially shows a general trend of regressing audit outcomes as well as increasing irregular expenditure. When the audit outcomes are contrasted with service delivery protests in the various provinces, the following is noted: the provinces that have municipalities which have received less unqualified audit opinions, such as the Eastern Cape and Gauteng, have at the same time spent more money in an irregular manner, and have also experienced the most service delivery protests.

It is the researcher's view that the part of the AG's findings that gets reported on prominently is the financial aspect, that is, the various audit opinions. The audits of the AG's Office also look into performance indicators. These include the adequacy of human resources in municipalities, which entails ascertaining whether the leadership of the municipalities is effective as well as the adequacy of internal controls. The consolidated report of the AG therefore includes both the financial aspects and non-financial aspects which have the potential of impacting on the financial aspects. In this regard, the work of the AG is all-encompassing. As such, it is recommended that the non-financial aspects that the AG considers should also be reported on

prominently in order for the public to have a broader understanding of the reasons why most municipalities receive qualified and disclaimer of opinion audit outcomes.

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Women in Agricultural Co-Operatives for Poverty Alleviation in Mpumalanga Province: Challenges, Strategies and Opportunities

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Abstract: The study analysed the success of cooperatives in alleviating poverty amongst female headed household who are part of cooperatives within Mpumalanga Province. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform introduced the one household one hectare and one household two dairy cows programme in 2016 in line with the Agri-Parks initiative meant to achieve rural economic transformation. All the three districts within Mpumalanga Province (Gert Sibande, Nkangala and Ehlanzeni) were targeted beneficiaries. Cooperatives have potential to increase rural women purchasing power to meet market demands and bargaining power. They are drivers of women's economic development in the rural sphere, however there are challenges such as low literacy levels which limit them to understand market information, lack of agricultural inputs, access to markets and gender dynamics. This is a desk top analysis of agricultural cooperatives within the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform's ability to alleviate or eradicate poverty amongst women. Information was gathered from the department's reports on cooperatives and also on the extensive literature on the ability of agricultural cooperatives to alleviate poverty. The study discovered that the majority of women benefited from accessing land through cooperatives, are able to secure food security at household and community levels.

Keywords: Agriculture, Cooperatives, Land, Poverty, Women

1. Introduction

Post 1994, the African National Congress being the ruling party had the political mandate of creating a land reform programme to address land disparities in South Africa. Three motivations led to the development of the land reform programme which was to foster reconciliation and stability, promote economic growth as well as the reduction of poverty especially at household level. The country's land reform programme was thus market-based as it was based on upholding and protecting private property ownership and at the same time expropriating land when necessary through the payment of market-related prices (Walker, 1998; Sebola & Tsheola, 2014). The allocation of land happens within the space and limit of public administration practice in a country.

South Africa just like many other countries ratified laws that deals with the prevention of discrimination against women such as the Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Gender and Development Protocol adopted in 2008. The Comprehensive Rural Development

Programme (CRDP) as a strategy for rural development was approved by the Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform in 2009. The CRDP strategy aims at driving agrarian reform with the aim of establishing rural business initiatives, agro-industries and cooperatives in villages and rural towns. It is in line with the CRDP strategy that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform introduced the one hectare one household and one household two dairy cows programme in 2016 in line with the Agri-Parks initiative by the department meant to achieve rural economic transformation (DRDLR, 2015). All the three districts within Mpumalanga Province, namely: Gert Sibande, Nkangala and Ehlanzeni districts were targeted where households had access to one hectare of land for cultivation or one hectare of land and two dairy cows. The idea of the cows is that they should provide milk for a family. In most instances cooperatives were already in existence even though some were not functional due to lack of inputs. In areas where there were no cooperatives, families and communities were then encouraged to form such. The formation of cooperatives is a poverty reduction strategy meant for improving household food security (Republic of South Africa, 2016).

2. Theoretical Framework

This paper is anchored on the cultural feminism theory which is an ideology that attempts to revalue undervalued female attributes. It is a theory that commends the differences of women and men. The theory emerged in the mid 1970's where it exposed women's oppression in gendered constructions that devalue feminine attributes. Cultural feminism seeks to understand women's social locations in society by concentrating on gender differences between women and men. This theory of feminism commends the positive aspects of what of the female character or feminine personality. Cultural feminism is a variety of feminism which emphasizes essential differences between men and women, based on biological differences in reproductive capacity. The liberation of women can only come through individual change where women recognise and create of women-centered culture, and the redefinition of femininity and masculinity (Bingham *et al.*, 2009; Alcoff, 1988). This paper intends analyzing women's access to land and how that assists them in alleviating poverty at household and community level.

3. Cooperative Defined

A co-operative is defined as "*an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise*" (ILO, 2002; Njoku *et al.*, 2003). Co-operatives enforce social inclusion, political and economic empowerment of members, especially women. They have a potential to assist rural women to have purchasing power and thus meet market demands, this give them bargaining power. Women are able to share labour and accomplish more in a short space of time. Co-operatives are drivers of women's economic development in the rural sphere (Republic of South Africa, 2012-2022). Co-operatives play a role in ensuring food security in the rural sphere. Food security is defined as "*When all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life*" (World Food Summit, 1996).

4. Women and Cooperatives

Agricultural cooperatives have the ability to promote the participation of women in economic

production since women seem to work well when they are together because they are able to organize themselves in an effort to assist one another. This assists government, communities and women themselves in securing food security in the rural sphere. Through co-operatives, women are able to provide a network of mutual support to overcome cultural restrictions. This is evident in the South African culture where women form groups called "ilima" or "letsema" to assist each other in planting, harvesting and storing of food. Women are able to increase their productivity and income by collectively negotiating better prices for inputs like fertilizer, seeds, transport and storage through cooperatives. It is through cooperatives that women are able to access markets (Republic of South Africa, 2010; Woldu *et al.*, 2015). Cooperatives create safe spaces for women to build their own social solidarity and problem solving capacity as they feel accepted and understood by their own unlike if they were in mixed cooperatives with men who do not necessarily have to deal with reproductive work.

Women who own land can access capital and other resources such as extension services to assist them with their farming activities (Kameri-Mbote, 2005). Land can help elevate the status of women in communities and help shape them as agricultural producers. It has been confirmed by several studies that there is a relationship between access to land and lowered incidences of violence against women. When women have access to land, there is reported improvement of families' nutrition, education of children from families that own land, decrease in fertility rates and bargaining powers by women within a home environment (UNECA, 2007; Gomez & Tran, 2012).

5. Challenges Faced by Women Within Cooperatives

Even though women play a significant role in the production of food around the world, it is said that few women have access to land (Lorber, 2010; UN, 2012). Agricultural cooperatives play a role in poverty reduction and rural development. Despite the ability of cooperatives to enhance the position of women with regard to poverty alleviation, most cooperatives still face challenges. Below are some of the challenges faced by women in cooperatives and how the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform assist women to deal with their challenges.

5.1 Low Literacy Levels

Membership in cooperatives is predominantly constituted by the elderly and women with low literacy levels. Low literacy levels have an impact on capacity building and this is one of the serious constraints limiting the success of women cooperatives. This is because the inability of cooperative members to read and write has the ability to weaken management, governance and business skills in cooperatives. The low literacy levels are hindrance since it makes it impossible for women to understand market information such as consumer preferences, marketing strategies, standards and market requirements. The knowledge of processes and legislation regarding market information acts as a barrier for most women. Technology such as computers which women use to access market information, are not easily available for rural women (Okwu & Umoru, 2009; Mehra & Rojas, 2008; Roney *et al.*, 2011; World Bank, FAO, IFAD, 2009; AfDB, 2015; Mawazo & Kisangiri, 2015). Low literacy levels amongst women has the ability to make women fail to negotiate contracts and thus rely on middlemen or agents (Mehra & Rojas, 2008; Hill & Vigneri, 2009; Okwu & Umoru, 2009; Mawazo & Kisangiri, 2015). Using middlemen is very costly for women as it affects profit and has a tendency of making women vulnerable to exploitation (Doss *et al.*, 2012). The majority of the women within cooperatives established and supported by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform have low literacy levels which supports what literature asserts about rural women's low literacy levels.

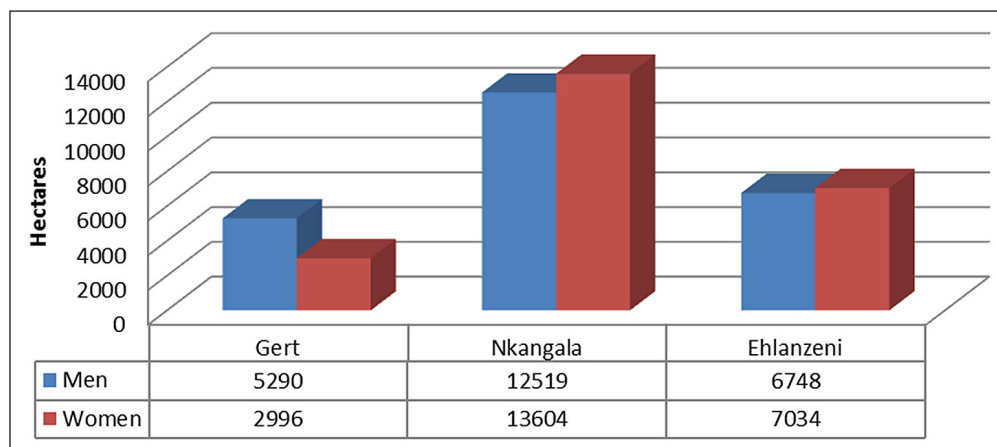
5.2 Access to Agricultural Inputs

Within the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform all the cooperatives have benefitted from recapitalisation programme in the amount of close to R800m for the purchasing of farm implements such as tractors, ploughs, seeds, fertilizers and other production inputs (DRDLR, 2017). The recapitalization programme assists with purchasing the capital assets and mechanization required for the farm to produce at its maximum potential capacity. This makes it easier for women within cooperatives to utilize the hectares of land bestowed to them. In cooperatives that are in close proximity, implements bought through the recapitalisation programme are shared. Women also need information on new technologies and systems to increase their produce (Prakash, 2003; Steinzor, 2003; Malhotra & Schuler, 2005; Collett & Gale, 2009; World Bank,

2012). Technology is useful in assisting women to access markets and also network within value chains. Women struggle to move from being subsistence farmers to commercial farming because they still depend on old farming techniques and outdated technology which do not help them increase their yields at the same level and speed as their male counterparts. According to Ishemo & Bushell (2017), access to capital has the ability to enable women within cooperatives to buy implements and move from subsistence farming to commercial farming. The lack of access to agricultural inputs makes it impossible for women to meet the requirements of producing good quality products fit for markets (Okwu & Umoru, 2009; World Bank *et al.*, 2009; OECD, 2007; Grassi *et al.*, 2015).

5.3 Access to Markets for Goods and Food Distribution

Majority of the women led cooperatives have no access markets. Access to agricultural markets by rural women has the ability to reduce poverty, malnutrition and ensure food security in rural communities. Cooperative members only sell their vegetables at local markets. The drawback about local markets however is that they do not encourage competitive profit but instead emerging farmers loose profit because they are forced to sell at low prices due to stiff competition and the highly perishable nature of their goods. Most of the time their goods spoil, leading to wastage and thus loss of profit due to lack of storage facilities in rural areas. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform has identified a strategy called agri-parks model which is aimed at revitalizing rural economies in order to assist farmers to access markets. Agri-parks are agri-hubs which will stimulate economic growth both at provincial and national levels which will boost employment, food security and reducing poverty. They will also serve as both supply and market centers in the local environment. Agri-parks have been identified as the vehicle that will kick-start rural economic transformation and encourage growth of the smallholder farming sector, an area that has seen slow growth due to a lack of resources, including markets for the sale of produce, livestock, skills and infrastructure. It is envisaged that the creation of agri-parks will breathe new life into South Africa's rural areas, revitalise small towns, increase employment and contribute to food security (DRDLR, 2015). Markets are defined as places where producers buy agricultural inputs, sell products and use income for stuff

Figure 1: Land Allocation According to Gender

Source: Authors

like non-agricultural products to buy food requirements for consumption (Baden, 1998; IFAD, 2003). Access to agricultural markets by rural women has the ability to reduce poverty, malnutrition and ensure food security in rural communities. Markets are said to be male dominated because according to Baden (1998:20) and UNIDO (2013), men frame the rules regarding access to markets to suit their needs which unintentionally excludes women.

5.4 Gender Equality within Mixed Cooperatives

Socialisation determines household division of labour. There are responsibilities for men and women which are determined by one being female and male. This kind of socialisation reinforces the position of women as inferior. There is a need for women to have enhanced influence over household decision-making, especially over household division of labour and the use of household income. According to perused literature on the gender division of labour at household level, reproductive roles performed by women disadvantages them because these roles are not seen as important and hence relegated to women whilst productive roles are relegated to men. Customary practices relegate reproductive roles like taking care of the family, fetching of firewood, water, taking care of the sick, attending community engagements like funerals, to women. These roles are important but do not have financial value placed on them unlike productive roles like making decisions about what crops to plant, access to the markets, profit made from sale of crops, which are assigned to men. It thus becomes important that the gender division of labour in the household does not disadvantage women and make it difficult for them to participate in the broader economy (Brown, 1994;

Reeves & Baden, 2000; Prakash, 2003; ECA, 2004; Blackden *et al.*, 2006; UN, 2009; World Bank, 2012). Access to resources like land, credit and education by women has an influence on how household labour is divided. It improves women's bargaining powers both within the house and outside. Better educated women are said to have more bargaining and decision-making powers than women with low literacy levels (Brown, 1994; Argawal, 1997; Marks *et al.*, 2009; Rao, 2012; Domingo, 2013; Murugani *et al.*, 2014). Issues of gender equality within mixed cooperatives cannot be ignored as it remains a challenge. Gender issues may act as obstacles for women's active participation within cooperatives. These are often rooted in socio-cultural norms at the community and household levels and thus spill over into the functioning of cooperatives. Since men are regarded as heads of households and are recognized as such by law and custom, chances of them dominating cooperatives whilst relegating women to be on the periphery is very high. Male dominance has the ability to weaken women's self-confidence, resulting in women seldom reaching prominent positions in mixed cooperatives.

6. Results and Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that the majority of women have accessed land through the one household one hectare (1hh1ha) programme. In total, all the three districts were allocated 48 191 hectares of land through the one hectare one household strategy, which was accessed by 47 761 households. Below is a column chart indicating land allocation district (DRDLR, 2017).

Figure 1 above denotes that women do have access to land within the Department of Rural Development

and Land Reform. A majority of women who had access to land through the one household one hectare (1hh1ha) programme are said to be heads of households (DRDLR, 2017) and this means that they are able to cater for the nutritional needs of their children in the absence of the traditional heads of households who are traditionally regarded as men. Since according to perused literature poverty has a female face (Bridge, 2001; Moghadam, 2005; Harrington & Chopra, 2010), for women, having access to land through the 1hh1ha strategy mean they are able to alleviate poverty and hunger within their families. South Africa is a signatory to international instruments with regard to gender equality, having women headed households access land is in line with the Convention of the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) which was ratified by the country in 1979. Article 14 of CEDAW is more relevant to rural women and their access to land. It also addresses issues that have a bearing on the inability of women to access land or property such as education and training, economic advantages with regard to agrarian reform as well as modern marketing facilities and technology. Article 14 obliges states to:

"Take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure on the basis of equality of men and women that they participate in and benefit from rural development" (CEDAW, 1979).

The highest number of women who accessed land through the 1hh1ha programme are within the Nkangala district where they accessed 13604 hectares, followed by Ehlanzeni with 7034 and the least being Gert Sibande with 2996. In total women accessed 23634 hectares when compared to men who accessed 24557, which then means that there was an almost equal access to land between men and women (DRDLR, 2017/18).

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

Cooperatives are drivers of women's economic development in the rural sphere because they are a vehicle for social inclusion, political and economic empowerment of women. The intention of the study was to analyse the success of cooperatives in alleviating poverty amongst female headed household who are part of cooperatives within Mpumalanga Province. According to the findings of the study, a majority of women have had access to land through

the one household one hectare (1hh1ha) programme especially in Nkangala and Ehlanzeni districts. Due to the increasing number of female headed households, a majority of women were allocated 48 191 hectares of land which was accessed by 47 761 households which are female headed. The study indicates that a majority of women benefited from accessing land through cooperatives, are able to secure food security at household and community levels. The United Nation's Committee on World Food Security refers to food security as a condition where "all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient and safe nutritious food that means their food preference and dietary needs for an active and healthy life". By having access to one hectare of land then means that women are able to plant crops of their own choices to meet the nutritional needs of their families. Based on the literature surveyed in this paper on agricultural cooperatives as a poverty alleviation strategy for women within Mpumalanga Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, the following recommendations are put forward:

- **Encourage women to participate in cooperatives:** Cooperatives seems to be one of the successful strategies that allow a large number of women to access land and thus create food security for women headed households. Besides empowering women with enhanced skills and improved access to productive resources such as land and capital, it seems like women feel safe in women-only groups where there is a tacit shared understanding of women's difficulties, grievances and strengths.
- **Link women to markets:** The advantage of women cooperatives is that women will be able to buy agricultural inputs and sell their commodities as a collective which also gives them bargaining powers. This also assists them in meeting market demands in terms of quantities needed by markets. It is recommended that the branch Rural Enterprise and Industrial Development within the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform work hard in linking cooperatives to markets.
- **Strengthening gender roles and relations:** Mainstreaming gender within cooperatives has the ability to ensure that both women and men command equal respect for each other's opinion and space. Getting the mainstreaming right may also impact positively on their

relationships both at work and at the household level. Mainstreaming gender within cooperatives also strengthen gender equality and women's active participation in mixed cooperatives.

- **Align women's literacy levels to extension services:** Most of the women who have accessed land within the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform through the one hectare one house household strategy have low literacy levels. The majority of them have never been to school and are pensioners. It is thus recommended that trainings be tailor-made for women in order to make trainings or programmes suit the educational levels.

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The Perception of Senior Municipal Officials in South Africa Regarding the Internal Audit Functions

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Abstract: The service protests in municipalities in South Africa have received increased publicity in recent years. Internal audit functions (IAF) have been suggested as one of the ways in which service delivery and municipalities' mandate can be reviewed to improve standards and procedures for financial accountability. Internal audit functions assist local government managers, which includes municipal managers and chief financial officers amongst others, in overseeing and monitoring the financial affairs and accountability processes. The internal audit functions are expected to assist the elected officials, municipal managers, and independent auditors in performing their functions within the municipalities. This study utilised a qualitative research design, using AGSA's reports as a research method, in order to achieve the research objective. This study relied on Auditor General's audit opinions for the period of five years in which the perception of the municipal officials was determined with regard to internal audit functions. This was conducted to examine the perception the municipal officials have on the role and work on internal audit functions in their municipalities. Interviews with the municipal officials were conducted to supplement AGSA's data to provide richer detail regarding the perception the municipal officials have on internal audit functions. The study reveals among others that, majority of the municipal officials in South Africa consider the internal audit functions as useless, not meeting the municipalities' expectations and not adding the expected value, therefore, not taken service serious.

Keywords: Internal audit functions, Local government, Municipalities, Perceptions

1. Introduction

This study looked into the perceptions of senior municipal officials in South Africa with regard to the internal audit functions. The discussion focused on what is the expected role to be performed by internal audit functions within the municipalities and the expected role of the senior municipal officials. The report III by the Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA) Global Internal Audit Survey on measuring the value of internal auditing (2011:2), suggests that the basic concept of the internal audit function (IAF) is that its value is determined by its usefulness to its organisation. The usefulness of internal audit services is further reflected through its perceived contribution to its stakeholders.

Internal auditors are responsible for assisting municipal managers to meet their objectives and execute their duties by providing an independent review of the adequacy and effectiveness of the controls that have been implemented by management (Strickland, 2011:18). Secondly, internal auditors in risk management assist to identify, evaluate and assess significant organisational risks to objectives, and to provide

independent assurance as to the adequacy and effectiveness of related internal controls and the risk management processes (IIA, 2012). Lastly, internal auditors assist management to maintain effective controls by making recommendations on how to improve or enhance their system of internal control (IIA, 2014).

Section 165 of the Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) strengthens the above discussion by requiring that each municipality and each municipal entity must have an internal audit function. This internal audit function is expected to be properly staffed and should perform among others the functions (MFMA): prepare a risk-based audit plan and an internal audit program for each financial year and advise the accounting officers and report to the audit committees on the implementation of the internal audit plan and matters relating to: internal audit, internal controls, accounting procedures and practices, risk and risk management, performance management, loss control, compliance with this Act, the annual Division of Revenue Act, and any other applicable legislation and perform any such other duties as may be assigned to it by the accounting officer (MFMA).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Internal Audit Functions in the Municipality

According to the definition of internal auditing explained earlier, the internal audit function should play an important role in evaluating and improving the effectiveness of risk management processes (IIA, 2012). In recent times, internal audit functions have proved to play an important part as a value-adding service in organisational structures (Al-Twaijry, Brierley & Gwillian, 2008; Arena & Azzone, 2009; Coram, Ferguson & Moroney, 2008; Goodwin, 2004; Yee, Sujun & James, 2007). Al-Twaijry *et al.* (2008) explain that there are two benefits in having an effective internal audit function within organisations. Firstly, it improves operations and assists in the management of risk. Secondly, it helps the organisation in the prevention and detection of errors or fraud, and in safeguarding the assets of the organisation.

The IIA (2012:10) further describes internal audit function as an important internal assurance instrument available in public financial controls, and as a device that can be used for monitoring and evaluating managerial activities before an audit is conducted by external auditors. Internal auditors are viewed as professionals who can boost openness and justice, decrease dishonesty, and ensure value for money in public spending (IIA, 2014). An internal audit function is perceived to be an important element of any public-disbursement-related management system, and should ensure that public spending is within controlled budgetary provisions (MFMA). Ackermann (2015:272) supports this by stating that internal audit function can only be regarded as adding value, ethical and competent in its core technical areas if it provides a product (report) which is informative, persuasive and calling for action.

According to Cohen and Sayag (2010:1) internal auditing has become an indispensable control mechanism in both public and private organisations, yet very few academic studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of internal audits within organisations. The effectiveness of internal auditing is worthy of attention because internal auditors are important, even crucial, in an economy that relies upon independently produced information (Van Peursem, 2005). Indeed, the internal audit function

has become an indispensable management tool for achieving effective control in both public and private organisations (Eden & Moriah, 1996). Control mechanisms are those processes set up to monitor and direct, promote, or restrain the various activities of an enterprise in achieving its objectives (Sawyer, Dittenhofer & Scheiner, 2003; Coram, Ferguson & Moroney, 2008). In recent years, the IAF has become a key corporate governance mechanism alongside audit committees, external audits, and management (Cohen, Krishnamoorthy & Wright, 2004; Gramling, Maletta, Schneider & Church, 2004; Schneider, 2009). As reflected in the Institute of Internal Auditors' (IIA, 2009), internal auditing is an assurance and consulting activity concerned with evaluating and improving the effectiveness of risk management, control, and governance processes. However, internal audit functions are facing the following challenges among others in their existence: lack of business knowledge, lack of business support, lack of audit action monitoring processes and the reluctance of the external auditors to rely on their work (Motubatse, Barac & Odendaal, 2014).

2.2 Role of the Municipal Officials

There are several building blocks that must be put in place for internal controls to be effective in municipalities. These include ensuring that councillors, mayors, municipal managers, internal auditors and audit committees play their role of being an overall oversight structure to which all others account (AGSA, 2014). The following section provides an overview of the role of municipal officials in overseeing the effectiveness of internal controls. This is done in order to check how the responsibilities of designing, implementing and monitoring internal controls are distributed amongst those charged with governance and those with oversight responsibility (AGSA, 2016:187).

2.3 Municipal Mayors and Councillors

In order to enable municipal councillors to meet their responsibilities, the municipal's council and councillors set standards, and municipal management implements systems of internal control (SALGA, 2015). These set standards, policies and structures provide guidance, division of responsibilities and accountability (SALGA, 2015). They form part of controls which are designed to provide cost-effective assurance that assets are safeguarded, and that liabilities are efficiently managed (MFMA).

Table 1: Study Participants

Rank occupied by the participant	Number of participants interviewed
Municipal managers	8
Chief Financial Officers	11
Financial officials	4

Source: Author's own summary

2.4 Chief Financial Officer (CFO)

Monitoring and oversight responsibilities in terms of Section 65 of the Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) and the Municipal Structural Act (MSA), which include reviewing the integrated development plan (IDP) and budget management. The CEO ensures that issues raised in audit reports are addressed, and that the municipalities manage the municipal manager's performance and that they are actively involved in key governance matters (AGSA, 2016:187) by performing the following:

- **Municipal officials must develop, implement and monitor a system of internal control that is adequate to:** secure municipal assets, secondly to ensure the reliability and accuracy of financial information (AGSA, 2011). In addition, to promote efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery activities and lastly, encourage compliance to management policies and procedures (AGSA, 2016).
- **Municipal officials should work in conjunction with management:** According to Sepuru (2017:20), the responsibility of municipal managers is to ensure that a risk assessment is regularly conducted in order to identify emerging risks at the municipality. To achieve this, a risk management strategy must then be developed and implemented by management to direct internal audit efforts and priorities (Sepuru, 2017). Moreover, management must propose areas of investigation for the internal auditor, and ensure that the internal audit function has access and they are not restricted to report to the municipal manager and the audit committee (AGSA, 2016). Furthermore, municipal managers are responsible for maintaining internal controls, including proper accounting records and other appropriate management information for running the municipality (MFMA). Internal audit reports must be reviewed within two weeks from the date of issue, recommendations are then implemented, and then undertake the prevention and detection of fraud and irregularities (Sepuru, 2017:20).

The constant monitoring of the internal control system will assist in determining whether prescribed policies are implemented and complied with, and that any changes made for whatever reason has not rendered the internal controls inadequate or obsolete. If breakdowns occurred in the internal control system, a prompt application of effective corrective measures is critical. Lastly, the responsibility of periodically updating the internal controls must be undertaken (Sepuru, 2017:20).

3. Methods and Materials

This study was conducted through the use of the secondary data obtained the analysis of the audit reports presented by the Auditor-General South Africa (AGSA) as from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018. A content analysis method was used to analyse the data gathered from the AGSA reports, and this data was important in solving the study's problem statement. In addition to the content analysis performed, the municipal mayors and councillors, municipal managers and the Chief Financial Officers were interviewed during the study. The municipal managers and chief financial officers are regarded as the senior municipal officials who have authority to manage the municipalities and are expected to rely on the work on the internal audit functions to assist in oversight, detection and deterrence roles. All participants were interviewed at their places of work for the sake of convenience. Table 1 above indicates the category and number of participants involved in the study.

3.1 Data Collection

The AGSA's reports for the period of five years, from 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 were collected with the assistance of Atlas.ti software. These data were collected from all the three categories of municipalities existing in South Africa, namely, metropolitan municipalities, district municipalities and local municipalities. The qualitative data was further collected by means of interviews designed to require the participants to strengthen

the data collected by answering the research question (Kumar, 2011) and validating what the data presented. And 23 participants from different municipalities were interviewed during the study. The main question posed to all participants was "what is your view regarding the work performed by your internal audit functions within your municipality? This question was posed to validate what the data gathered through the AGSA reports as mentioned above. This was done in order to gain a better understanding of the perceptions of the municipal officials with regard to the functioning of the internal audit functions within the municipalities.

3.2 Ethical Clearance

Hence this was a quantitative study in which the participants were involved, therefore, seeking the participants' perception and experiences always poses an ethical challenge that need to be managed. Qualitative study requires ethical consideration (Creswell, 2013). The ethical considerations for qualitative research were taken into consideration in conducting this study. The essential ethical requirements regarding the informed consent of the participants and assurances of confidentiality were followed during the interviews and conducting the study. The ethical clearance was obtained through the University of Johannesburg's ethical committee process. The researcher also obtained signed consent letters from the participants as an assurance that their participation was voluntary and that the participants understood all the rights they had during the conduct of the study.

3.3 Data Analysis

The interviews were analysed by means of coding the collected AGSA's data to allow the identification of themes and subthemes. Coding in qualitative research consists of the assignment of short phrases to capture a meaning of a large portion of textual data (Yin, 2011). Babbie (2013:550) and Saldaña (2009:8) both define coding as a process of arranging raw data into a standardised form. The process started with a review of AGSA reports for five years' period 2012/2013 to 2017/2018 financial years and transcripts of the interviews. While considering the whole context, the data was coded. The coded data facilitated the comparison of the different views held by the participants, which were then built into the themes.

4. Results and Discussion

The following reveals the information gathered through content analysis using the Atlas.ti software with regard to the value added by internal audit functions in the municipalities as indicated by AGSA:

- The internal audit functions and the audit committees did not add to the credibility of financial statements reports, while monitoring and oversight by the political leadership did not have the desired results (AGSA, 2017).
- These role players also did not insist on strong controls to ensure compliance with key legislation and to prevent, detect and correct material misstatements (AGSA, 2017).
- Internal audit functions at 67% of auditees provided limited /no assurance (AGSA, 2016).
- Of concern is that although internal audit units and audit committees were in place at most auditees, not all these structures had a positive impact on the control environment. This originated from the lack of understanding and appreciation by management of the importance of implementing recommendations and action plans of internal audit units and audit committees (AGSA, 2017).
- Risk assessments performed by internal audit functions did not get the buy in from senior management to fill gaps in internal controls (AGSA, 2018).
- The capacity and focus of internal audit functions require immediate intervention, as these units are struggling to properly analyse risk and direct their scope of work to these areas, which directly affects the value added by the audit committees (AGSA, 2018).
- Even though all municipalities had internal audit functions and audit committees, these role players are not yet providing the required level of assurance to have a positive effect on the audit outcomes (AGSA, 2017).
- The internal audit functions did not function as required by section 165(2) of the Municipal Finance Management Act, in that it did not advise the accounting officer on matters relating to accounting

Table 2: Participants' Views

Participant	Description of the views
1	".....I consider internal audit function useful if it can be resourced".
2	"...internal audit as a whole plays an important role and needs to be supported, however, the role they plan is not clear enough".
3	"I think the municipality can easily run without this unit, it has no impact from where I am standing"
4	"Internal auditors need to be well trained to ensure that they deal with all the challenges in the municipality, if this can happen the internal audit departments can function".
5	"the challenge of the functioning of the internal audit units lies with the political interference and people who do not understand its functioning"
6	"I will say, the internal audit function in my municipality manage to reveal 50% of the corrupt cases, which is good".
7	"There is no role played here, except excessive budgets....."
8	"honestly, I see no value in this unit within my municipality"
9	"The internal audit unit needs to report where it should to be effective"
10	"They don't assist us in addressing the challenges we are facing as municipal officials".
11	"this unit managed to reveal the fraudulent activities which were taking place over the years".
12	"this unit is useless as it contributes nothing to the municipality"
13	"No comment"
14	"The internal audit unit appears to be assisting to a certain extend but needs to be aligned with the work of external auditors"
15	"This department contributes very less in the functioning of the municipality"
16	"It needs to focus on all operational areas to be relevant than looking only at financial compliance".
17	"this unit adds limited value to the functioning of the municipality in the area of financial compliance".
18	"It was supposed to assist us in performing well as the municipality and obtain good financial reports, which it does not do...."
19	"It needs to stand alone as the department and not report internally"
20	"It can assist if it can be well resourced and capacitated with the right people"
21	"It is partially contributing towards the better operations but not always".
22	"It has a role to play especially if it can be given a chance"
23	"Let the internal auditors be trained to understand the environment and its controls to be effective".

Source: Researcher's own summary based on interviews

- procedures and practices and risk management, (AGSA, 2017).
- The internal audit functions did not report to the audit committee on matters relating to the compliance with the Municipal Finance Management Act, the Division of Revenue Act and other applicable legislation, as required by section 165(2) (b) of the Municipal Finance Management Act (AGSA, 2018).
- The internal audit functions did not audit the results of performance measurements, as required by section 45(1)(a) of the Municipal Systems Act and Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulation 14(1)(a). (AGSA, 2016).
- The internal audit functions did not assess the extent to which the performance measurements were reliable in measuring the performance of the municipality on key and general performance

indicators, as required by Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulation 14(1)(b) (ii) and (iii) (AGSA, 2018).

- The internal audit functions did not audit the performance measurements on a continuous basis and submitted quarterly reports on their audits to the municipal manager and the performance audit committee, as required by Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulation 14(1)(c) (AGSA, 2017).

To validate and test the data gathered, the semi-structured interviews were conducted and analysed using the descriptive research approach. The participants were categorised into municipal managers, chief financial officers and other officials in answering the question: what is your perception regarding your internal audit function in your municipality? Table 2 on the previous page reflects the views of the participants.

5. Interpretation of Results

According to the data gathered through the content analysis. The internal audit functions were found not adding enough credibility on financial statements reports at municipalities. This means the internal audit functions did not review and make corrective comments on the financial statements prepared by the management of municipalities. This function if manage to perform their expected roles could have assisted the municipalities in South Africa to correct their financial statements before submitting such statements for external audit. Therefore, the IAFs need to be capacitated and resourced to ensure that they deliver all the expected services in order for them to be seen relevant and adding value by those they serve.

As indicated on Table 2, the study revealed that that majority of the municipal officials in South Africa consider the internal audit functions as useless, not meeting the municipalities' expectations and not adding the expected value, therefore, not taken service serious. The study further reveals that as the result of the above mentioned finding the municipalities in South Africa face challenges ranging from negative audit opinions, public protests and service delivery challenges.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This means that the internal audit functions in municipalities are perceived by those in authority as

departments/units as not playing their expected role as prescribed by the Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA) due to various reasons outlined in the paper. According to IIA the internal audit functions are expected to play an important role in their organisations, in assisting those in authority in achieving the goals set for their organisations. It was however, revealed that the AGSA reports revealed that the internal audit functions are not capacitated as a result not playing their expected role. This is further strengthened by the sentiments made by the participants who are in authority in municipalities who consider these functions to be adding less value. Further studies, can be conducted in the areas that the participants consider important, which in their views can ensure that the internal audit functions add value if well conducted. A further comparison of internal audit functions' value can be compared from three different categories of municipalities' existing in the South Africa.

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Faecal Sludge Management and Improvement of Water Usage Within the Municipality of Polokwane

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Abstract: In 1994, a democratic South Africa enabled racial groups to acquire one man one vote status. Democracy makes it mandatory for post-colonial countries to conduct elections on a regular basis as prescribed by their constitutions. It is during election periods that different political organisations' manifestos and campaigns make promises to the electorate to provide better health care to all, improve the social wellbeing and the lives of citizens through effective health policies. In the sanitation sector in most countries, improving the lives of citizens is just a promise as rivers, wells, lakes and sources of fresh water are contaminated with domestic faecal sludge and effluent from industries, filling stations and hospitals. Despite well-developed policies about effluent release into the environment. Two of Polokwane Municipality's main sewerage plants in Seshego and Polokwane already receive more daily effluent than their designed and planned capacity and the total capacity of the Polokwane plant was not expanded post-1994, although the population of Polokwane has since more than doubled. An alternative plan for re-use of grey and sewage water is not in place. The paper provides insights into projected population growth and expected sewage capacity and recommendations for alternatives to sewerage plants including re-use of grey water and dry sanitation in peri-urban areas.

Keywords: Sanitation, Faecal sludge, Effluent, Sewage plants and water borne

1. Introduction

An acceptable sanitation is a dream of many people globally. However, most countries in the world in general, and Africa in particular, are experiencing difficulties when attempting to achieve Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 6) which states that there is a need to ensure availability and sustainable management of sanitation and water for all by 2030. Attempts to achieve this goal should be guided by the Millennium Development Goal (MDG 7) which states that there is a need to ensure environmental sustainability. In ensuring that sanitation policies are working in the world, there is a need to focus on SDG 10 and SDG 11 which state that nature-based sanitation solutions harness the power of ecosystems to help treat human waste before it returns to the environment (Writer, 2018). The contention of this paper is centred around two faecal sludge management systems in Polokwane, South Africa, which are sewer plants and pit latrines. Both have adverse effects on the quality of water provision if not well managed through pollution of rivers and/or

underground water (Strande, Ronteltap & Brdjavonic, 2014). Continually increasing utilisation of these two faecal sludge management methods has significant long-term effects on the quality and volume of water provision for human consumption, most particularly since municipal infrastructure of the conventional sewerage network has not been expanded since 1994 (Polokwane Municipality, 2007).

The capacity of the three Polokwane Municipality waste water treatment plants (Polokwane, Seshego & Mankweng) has not kept pace with the need for sanitation of the growing urban population especially with the illegal extension of houses for backrooms and lack of maintenance plans for sewer infrastructure, low budget allocation for operation and inadequate plant maintenance. The Polokwane plant is capacitated to 28ml/day but currently, the load is 34ml/day. It is only now that the Polokwane Municipality is planning to expand the plant with an additional 6ml/day with the help of Anglo American (Polokwane Municipality, 2018). If a waste water treatment plant experiences an intake which is

higher than its capacity, water streaming out of the plant pollutes the downstream rivers which are used by local communities for consumption, bathing and other household chores. The current wastewater management system has a negative impact on humans and the environment (Human Rights Commission, 2014). There is a perception that the bucket faecal sludge management system has relevance only in relation to informal settlements in South Africa. Poor faecal sludge management and its consequences, however, are worldwide problems that affect rich and poor alike. South African municipalities should participate in programmes that are designed to look at alternative faecal sludge management since the country is water scarce. For example, the Ventilated Improved Toilets (VIP) installed in Newline Mpumalanga fulfilled their function for almost 11 years after installation and the feasibility of using pour flush or low flush systems needs to be tested (Still, Walker and Hazelton, 2009).

This paper reports on research intended to achieve the following objectives:

- To determine the processes that the Polokwane Municipality apply to faecal sludge management;
- To ascertain how water conservation can be applied in faecal sludge management in the Polokwane Municipality;
- To evaluate the cost management system which the Polokwane Municipality applies to faecal sludge management;
- To investigate the faecal sludge management approaches/plans applied by the Polokwane Municipality;
- To examine how the faecal sludge production and management system can be improved in the Municipality of Polokwane.

The findings of this study will be useful to both the '*focus*' (practitioners of public administration) and '*locus*' (those who study public administration as a subject). Knowledge gathered from the literature and the research findings could change the mindset of some faecal sludge management practitioners, including planners, engineers, policy makers (politicians) and environmentalists through encouraging them to consider different approaches to sanitation

besides waste water as a sanitation method. In some instances, the study could encourage inter-governmental planning as it cuts across the different sectors of Governance planning in practical terms and municipal service delivery implementation.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Human Settlement, Faecal Sludge Management and Water Supply

A human settlement is described as a place where people live, play, sleep and worship. An area to be developed as a human settlement should be zoned according to the type of houses to be constructed as that has a bearing on the type and sizes of pipes needed for transporting water and faecal sludge to sewage networks. According to HAD Limpopo (2013) dwellings that contain more than two individuals per room are considered to be overcrowded. Therefore, most people living in shacks that are not in backyards in Limpopo, South Africa, are regarded as living in overcrowded conditions. Interventions are needed to address scattered settlements to make it easier to provide services and ensure that people's quality of life improves as lack of such amenities causes areas to depopulate (Blukes, 2010). Another challenge experienced by municipalities is caused by people who develop illegal structures and additional backrooms, thus contributing to high urban population densities and consequential constraints on the management of urban faecal sludge and water provisioning infrastructure. An additional challenge is a lack of understanding and interpretation of sanitation policies (Mjoli & Bhagwan, 2012). The Polokwane Municipality, like most areas on the African continent, did not manage to achieve the Millennium Development Goals of 2010 because, in some cases, municipal boundaries were changed and new borders had to accommodate areas with no water supply network. Thus, in Polokwane, land increased from 122 816 square kilometres in 1996 to 125 254 in 2011 (Stats SA, 2011).

2.2 Legislative Framework

The South African Constitution is seen as the cornerstone and the foundation of an equitable and just society. It is aimed at ensuring that everyone is guaranteed the right to a protected environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being and it gives guarantees to citizens that they will have water and proper sanitation (Department of Public Works,

2012). According to LHR Publication Series (1/2009), South Africa is regarded as a country with scarce water resources and it is characterised by historical inequalities in the use of water. Furthermore, the executive power to deliver water and sanitation in terms of the constitution is the responsibility of the local government as prescribed by the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998; the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 and the Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999.

2.3 National Bucket Sanitation Replacement

In his 2006 State of the Nation Address, former President Thabo Mbeki indicated that South Africa had to eradicate all bucket toilets in the formal areas. This process became successful because there was political will from the presidency, cabinet, ministers, members of the executive council and the provinces. The programme was termed 'business unusual' and it was adopted by local governments to facilitate accelerated implementation (Mjoli, 2012). The programme was taken forward by the new administration led by former President Jacob Zuma who, in his 2014 State of the Nation address, stated that the South African Government had begun an intensive programme to eliminate the bucket system as part of restoring the dignity of the South African people. It was highlighted that the first phase would be eradicating buckets in informal settlements in all provinces (Human Rights Commission, 2014).

When eradicating the bucket system, water problem constraints and a lack of qualified human resources were overlooked in the determination to put the favoured waterborne toilets in all areas as per the political decision that was taken. Engineers who were on site trained junior technicians to operate the wastewater treatment works. In some municipalities, there were no municipal staff who could be trained to operate the wastewater treatment plants and this resulted in water sources being contaminated (Mjoli, 2012).

2.4 National Water Act, (Act 36 of 1998)

The National Government, through the minister, must ensure that there is proper use, conservation, management and protection of water. Infrastructure should be developed and controlled in a sustainable and equitable manner to ensure that the people's benefits are in accordance with the constitutional

mandate and so that future generations can be catered for (LHR Public Series, 2009).

2.5 Water Service Act (Act 108 of 1997)

According to Section 2 (a–e), when read with Section 6, it is the responsibility of the water authorities (such as the municipalities) and a function delegated by the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, to ensure that there is access to both basic water supply and the right to basic sanitation services through water service providers. The delegated task includes providing citizens with free basic services such as water and sanitation, in both formal and informal settlements. Any use of services other than these basic services has to be paid for by the user, irrespective of where the person lives (Carbonneau, Elbarg & Krasinkas, 2009).

2.6 The Local Government Municipal Structures Act (Act 117 of 1998)

According to this Act, a municipality is required to review a community's needs and prioritise them, as well as involve the community in the process of achieving the set objectives. This process applies to all the municipal categories as established by the Act. These categories include metropolitan, local and district municipalities (LHR Public Series, 2009). Amongst other requirements, a municipality should provide appropriate health and hygiene education and safe toilets that are reliable, environmentally sound, easy to keep clean, provide privacy as well as protection against the weather and are well ventilated (Carbonneau *et al.*, 2009).

2.7 The National Environment Management Act (NEMA), (Act 107 of 1998)

This Act regulates water pollution limitations, the right to an environment that is not harmful to health or well-being and creates a specialised enforcement unit for environmental management. The inspectors are charged specifically with the enforcement of environmental management legislation and cooperative environmental governance by establishing principles for decision making on matters affecting the environment. They also enforce environmental management laws that foster intergovernmental co-ordination of policies, legislation and actions relating to the environment and eliminate negative impacts on the environment (NEMA, Act 107 of 1998).

2.8 Laws Regulating Wastewater Treatment, and Industrial and Hospital Effluent

The treatment of wastewater is regulated by Section 60 of the Environmental Protection Agency Act of 1992, which intends that wastewater treatment plants are operated to the highest possible standards. The municipalities responsible for waste water treatment plants must also improve maintenance practices including assets, educate operators and equip them with essential skills, provide knowledge of treatment standards as well as create awareness of the ways in which equipment should be used. According to the regulations, a limited number of samples are allowed to fail where biochemical oxygen demand, chemical oxygen demand and suspended solids are limited to 50mg/l O₂, 250mg/l O₂ and 87mg/l. The discharge to sensitive waters should be limited to total phosphorus (2mg/l P) and total nitrogen (15mg/l N) where the agglomeration population equivalent is between 10,000 and 100,000. The larger agglomerations have to comply with standards of 1mg/l P and 10mg/l N (Environmental Protection Agency, 1997). To ensure that wastewater entering a treatment plant does not hinder the performance of the plant, discharges of industrial waste to sewers are licensed under Section 16 of the Local Government Waste Pollution Acts of 1990 and 1997 or Section 85 of the Environmental Protection Agency Act of 1992 (Environmental Protection Agency, 1997). Regulations state that before hospital effluent is released into the municipal waste water treatment system, it should be separately treated using specified and specialised methods because hospital effluent contains new antimicrobials which encourage and preserve bacterial resistance within the environment in which the effluent is discharged. Such bacteria vary in their antimicrobial resistance (Morris, Harris, Morris, Cummin & Cormican, 2008).

In the vicinity of Tzaneen, it was found that hospital effluent consisting of human faeces, blood, toxic waste and other dangerous medical waste was flowing directly into the waters of the Letaba River. Other foreign objects found in the river were surgical gloves and bandages. This problem was caused by a failing hospital pump and contributed towards killing of the river as well as endangering the local community because trucks supplying the villages with water collected it just 200m below the point source of the hospital effluent discharge. The danger, therefore, was not only to humans but to the entire ecosystem (Boshego, 2018).

2.9 Faecal Sludge Management Planning and the Macro-Environment

The micro-environment associated with household faecal sludge transported from homes using potable water ends up having an impact on the macro-environment. This is mostly seen when municipalities do not treat their effluent properly and it impacts negatively on the natural environment and causes water supplies to deteriorate, resulting in unhealthy conditions (Genc, 2009). Such conditions are described by the World Health Organisation and UNICEF (2014) as diseases that are associated with poor water, poor sanitation and poor hygiene. Such diseases can cause deaths, for example, diarrhoea contributed to almost 1.5 million deaths in the 1990s. Despite attempts by the world to formulate post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals, almost 2.5 billion people still lack access to improved sanitation and one billion people still practice open defecation, mostly in rural areas. Approximately 748 million people lack access to drinking water and it is estimated that almost 1.8 billion people use water which is contaminated by faeces.

2.10 African Governments and Design of Institutional Roles

A major factor not taken into consideration in provision of sanitation is thorough planning which encompasses budgeting and a coordinated approach between departments such as water, sanitation, solid waste, human settlement, human resources, roads, storm water drainage and environmental health (Peal, Evans, Blackkett, Hawkins & Heymans, 2014). An outcome of this is that municipalities end up implementing budget on non-suitable sanitation methods because officials are afraid of being accountable for non-budget spending (Pan, Armitage & Van Ryneveld, 2015). Most of the time members of the community are involved in projects designs only when they need services to reach them and their involvement is not always constructive, for example, when communities embark on strike action, both legal and illegal, for non-delivery of basic services. One challenge that has been faced by municipalities in sanitation system design over the past two decades (1990s) is that the majority of the municipal managers have not had appropriate knowledge of water and sanitation technology assessment requirements (Infrastructure Dialogue, 2015).

Currently, South Africa is facing a backlog in the provision of adequate supply of proper basic services

such as water and sanitation of almost 1.4 million households and 2.1 million households respectively. In some areas, this backlog is caused by inappropriate infrastructure inherited by municipalities during the democratic dispensation which is unable to cater for the current demand (Infrastructure Dialogue, 2015). In order to resolve the water contamination and infrastructure problems, appropriate human resources should be selected on merit so that suitably qualified individuals can implement the research outcomes on the re-use of water and desalination technology (National Planning Commission, 2011).

In South Africa, a Department of Water and Sanitation survey highlighted that 37% of the country's water is consumed at municipal level and does not generate income due to the inappropriate systems that are applied which include the pricing strategy, water-use meter monitoring, billing and payments (Infrastructure Dialogue, 2015). According to Watson (2001) in Paradza, Mokwena and Richards (2010), as stipulated in the White Paper on Local Government, it is expected that municipal councillors should work with institutions of civil society and community structures to resolve matters that affect them so that there can be local solutions to local problems. Effective cooperation between government and society was demonstrated in 2011 by UNICEF Malawi when a mixed method market research approach was used to improve sanitation in areas with sandy and with clay soils. The problem was the collapse of pit latrines dug in both soil types. In areas that had clay soil, wooden flooring used to cover pit holes was eaten by termites and rotted within 12 months of construction due to intrusion by surface water. As a result, the sanitation programme could not meet household requirements (Cole, 2013).

In resolving the problem, UNICEF Malawi moved away from a textbook approach to toilet construction and turned to participatory design for solutions, applying participatory design methodologies as documented in Spinizzi (2005) and IDEO's 'Human-centered design toolkit' (2009). Local builders/masons, health workers and Environmental Health Officers (EHOs) were invited to develop toilet designs and critique each design so that the best option could be adopted with professional engineers ratifying and authenticating the designs and structures. Design prototypes were constructed on-site and these were evaluated and critiqued by both male and female users and the best design was chosen from three prototypes (Cole, 2013).

2.11 National Development Plan: Vision 2030

According to the National Development Plan: Vision 2030, South Africa needs to develop better planning for rapid urbanisation. For this to happen there should be appropriate data on the movement of people within the country and those entering the country (National Planning Commission, 2011).

This was emphasised by Dhesigen Naidoo, the CEO of the Water Research Commission when he said:

"the movement of people from rural areas to towns and cities will increase while migration, predominantly from other African countries is likely to continue. This is a serious threat to the country given the scarcity of water and treatment plants of municipal and industrial wastewater which is reintroduced into rivers after treatment. There is a need to upgrade the systems so that water released should not contaminate the source at all. Currently, many municipalities lack the technical capacity to build and manage their wastewater treatment systems" (National Planning Commission, 2011).

2.12 Monitoring Inputs and Enabling the Environment

South Africa is regarded as a water scarce country. Consequently, care should be taken regarding how this finite and easily contaminated resource can be preserved, locally and globally. In the light of this, the World Health Organisation is implementing the objectives of the UN-Water Global Analysis and Assessment of Sanitation and Drinking-Water (GLAAS). The intention is to monitor the inputs from human resources, finance, enable the environment by ensuring that plans, policies, institutional arrangements and monitoring are adhered to. Through the GLAAS initiative, there is further analysis of factors associated with progress for the purpose of identifying advantages, disadvantages, bottlenecks and drivers of water policies in the world. In addition, GLAAS facilitates the creation and strengthening of government-led plans for improving water, sanitation and hygiene service delivery (GLAAS, 2014). The positive impact of GLAAS on government policies which were electioneering smoke screens in the past was felt when it turned the tide by reducing the number of children dying from diarrhoeal diseases associated with poor water, inadequate sanitation and hygiene from 1.5 million in 1990 to approximately 600 000 in 2012 (WHO, 2014).

In South Africa, the monitoring of water quality, faecal sludge and sanitation should be done by the Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS) through its Blue and Green Drop programme and reports should be produced on a regular basis. The most recent Green Drop report was released in 2013, and, by its own admission in March 2018, the DWS has not produced any further reports over the past five years. Lack of capacity was cited as the reason. The 2013 Green Drop report was released only because the DWS was forced to do so after an opposition party won a case in court under the Promotion of Access to Information Act, Act 2 of 2000 (Savides, 2018).

In the 2014 Blue Drop report, the DWS acknowledged that the overall quality of drinking water in the country had decreased from 87.6% to 79.6%. The 2013 Green Drop report indicated that, out of 824 wastewater treatment plants in the country, only 60 were in excellent condition. Regarding the rest, as many as 284 were judged to be in critical condition and 161 were said to be in poor condition. Thus, in 2013, 49.6% of South Africa's waste-water treatment plants were failing to meet the required legislative requirements for the quality of treated water released to the environment (Savides, 2018). It was heard in parliament that, instead of solving the problems on the ground at the wastewater treatment plants the DWS channelled financial resources to pay costly project management and professional fees, placing the department in financial distress. In addition, leadership instability and a skills crisis were cited as part of the problem, despite the DWS having nine Deputy Directors generals and 74 chief directors in its employ (Savides, 2018).

3. Methods and Materials

Empirical data was obtained from interviews with the municipal officials and councillors of Polokwane Municipality who are directly involved in sanitation activities.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Water Required to Transport Faecal Sludge and Urine

According to Conradin, Kropac and the University of Limpopo's Department of Water and Sanitation (2012), it is estimated that each person produces 50kg of faeces per year which equates to 136.99 grams per day. On average, each person produces

500l of urine per year which is equal to 1.37 litres per day or 1 370g per day. Ultimately, 20 000 litres of fresh water, a scarce resource, is required to flush away these amounts of waste. This equates to 54.8 litres of fresh water per person per day. It is said that the quality of faeces produced daily depends on the food consumed and the people's lifestyle. Those who consume unprocessed foods with high fibre produce a higher quality of faeces by mass and volume compared with those who take in larger amounts of meat-based and processed food (Nlwagaba, Mbequere & Strande, 2014). A study on human excreta and sustainable water management in Hungary showed that water consumption was 34.1 m³/year/person in 2011 and the combined amount of faeces and urine produced per person was estimated to be 1.5 litres a day which amounts to 550 litres per year (Zseni, 2015).

4.2 Expansion of Houses but No Infrastructure Development

When looking at the Stats SA figures from 1996-2011, the trends showed that the population of ages 5-24 years and ages 25-85 years had increased on average by 9 000 per annum. This has resulted in more people needing water supply and ablution facilities and has created a high demand on faecal sludge management facilities. This increased need for sanitation was confirmed by the respondents in this study who indicated that houses were being built, new establishments constructed and informal settlements or back rooms occupied by people but the sewage systems were constructed to cater for people under the Group Areas Act, 41 of 1950. This sanitation supply deficit was noted by Hedden and Cilliers (2014) who state that, since 2004, the demand for water and sanitation has gone up and consequently, South Africa is presently exploiting renewable water resources nationally. This study also stated that rural-urban migration, as well as expected income levels, will ultimately fuel up the residential consumption of water as the gap between demand and supply increases daily in South Africa. This is evident in the three sewage plants in Seshego and Mankweng which were for blacks and the town sewage plant which was for people of colour and Europeans (known as whites). The challenge for the town sewage plant began when the homelands were abolished and the government administration was located in the city of Polokwane (SA City Network, 2014). The infrastructure experienced increased demand as people moved with their families to be

closer to their places of work. Squatter camps and RDP housing also became part of the picture with no expansion of the existing sewage infrastructure. This created an overload on the faecal sludge management systems within the Municipality of Polokwane and water supply came under pressure as more water was needed (Mabotha, 2019).

4.3 Faecal Sludge Management in Rural Areas and Informal Areas of Polokwane Municipality

When the municipal land occupation increased from 122 816 square kilometres in 1996 to 125 254 in 2011, the Polokwane Municipality adopted more rural areas which did not have access to running water and sewage networks. According to the respondents in this study, the faecal sludge management technology used in these areas was pit toilets and most were not lined to protect contamination of ground water. The other sanitation method that was utilised was bucket toilets, mostly used in informal settlements as there was no place to dig pit toilets because of the high population density. The infrastructure also did not provide for the supply of water. Water supply and faecal sludge is still a challenge, according to the respondents, because there are no data that show how many people live in backrooms in some yards around the municipality.

Currently, the municipality provides lined VIP toilets in the rural areas. In the urban areas, there is no other sanitation method except the sewage network system which is waterborne (Mabotha, 2019). This finding correlates with the sentiments expressed by Dodane *et al.* (2012) who indicate that South African people are in conflict with the United Nations and the World Health Organisation that consider onsite septic tanks and onsite VIP toilets to be equivalent to improved sanitation systems in the MDG. This was further evidenced by people in the rural areas of Tokologo Municipality who rejected the 270 VIP lined toilets supplied by the municipality when eradicating the bucket system.

4.4 Problems Faced by Wastewater Treatment Plants of Polokwane Municipality

As previously mentioned, Polokwane Municipality has three sewage plants (Mankweng, Seshego and Polokwane). Of the three sewage plants, the only one that is currently coping is Mankweng although it faces challenges associated with hospital effluent

and abattoir waste which adds a lot of oil to the ponds. Excess oil affects the natural wastewater treatment process as it blocks the primary settlement tanks and suffocates the bacteria. Problems associated with abattoir waste have also been experienced in Klerksdorp (Mjoli, 2012) where high Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) became septic in the inlet screens and caused blockages from clots of abattoir wastewater. Another problem is the uncontrolled release of wastewater from chicken processing factories as this results in high BOD wastewater flowing to the treatment plant. In addition, chicken feathers block the system and impact negatively on the treatment process. Lastly, fat deposits increase the concentration of suspended solids, mainly in winter. Another problem is caused by people who open man holes near their homes thus enabling sand and stones to runoff to the treatment plants (Mabotha, 2019).

The Polokwane and Seshego plants have deteriorated in performance owing to high wastewater intakes that exceed their capacity and are attributable to high rural-urban migration which took place after the 1994 democratic elections. This problem is exacerbated by a high density of housing infrastructure that has been constructed around the city with no associated extension to the sewage plants. Mjoli (2012) indicates that when experiencing this problem, the Matlosana City invested in the expansion and upgrading of sewage networks and wastewater treatment plants. This approach, according to the findings of this study, is the route the Municipality of Polokwane is following by erecting a regional sewage plant that will be built in phases and will have a higher intake capacity than the existing plants (Mabotha, 2019).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study focused on the faecal sludge management and improvement of water usage within the Municipality of Polokwane as water levels are low and people perceive good sanitation only as waterborne toilet systems. Studies conducted by Welsh Water and confirmed by Genc (2009), as pronounced by Cater (2006), stated that increasing world population brings forth new challenges for the environment and sustainability. This is as a result of the high consumption of fresh water used to flush toilets. Millions of people flushing waste daily creates environmental pollution of natural resources, resulting in unhealthy conditions. According to Quitzau (2007)

in Genc (2009), there is a serious need for the designers of flush toilets to change the system as these could result in the environmental downfall of the world. This is evidenced by statistics that show how much water is used in homes for flushing toilets as compared to water for drinking. Of the total amount of water delivered to houses, 95% goes down the drain and only 3% is used for drinking. Over a quarter of clean water, estimated to be 30%, is used to flush toilets. Care needs to be taken in that by 2025 there will be another two billion people in the world requiring food and water. It is estimated that 1.8 billion people in the world have drinking water sources that are faecal contaminated (GLAAS, 2014).

There is a need for integrated development plans to be supported by collaborative efforts of national governments, local communities and international agencies. Governments need to be persuaded to show strong support for universal access to drinking water and sanitation supported by political will. There is also a need for the improvement of inter-departmental capacity for monitoring, tracking funding for water and sanitation as well as proper utilisation of data for investment and report back on deliverables (GLAAS, 2014). In the Polokwane Municipality, as in most countries, faecal sludge management experiences insufficient finances, especially for operations and maintenance which are keys to sustainable and safe service provision. Furthermore, another critical factor is the lack of human resources in the sector. Most countries reported to GLAAS that they do not have human resource strategies in water, sanitation management and hygiene for both urban and rural areas (GLAAS, 2014).

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Effects of Exchange Rate Movements on Stock Market Prices in South Africa

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Abstract: The exchange rate and stock market prices nexus can help investors to diversify their portfolio and choose a country for investment to increase the returns in their portfolios. Exchange rate as the rate of one country's currency in terms of another, play an important role in a country's level of trade. The paper investigated the relationship between stock market prices and the exchange rate in South Africa using monthly data for the period 2006 to 2016. The analysis began by conducting the unit root tests using both the Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillips- Perron approaches to address stationarity in this time series model. The model applied the Johansen cointegration, Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (ARCH) and the generalised ARCH (GARCH) models due to high volatility of the stock market prices. The ARCH test indicated presence of heteroscedasticity and that gave way to run the GARCH model. The GARCH model results confirmed that when the foreign exchange rate appreciates, the stock market will thus be negatively affected. The results from the Johansen cointegration test have proven that a long relationship between stock market prices and the exchange rate exist. A large portion of Johannesburg Stock Exchange investors are foreign and are influenced by variations in the exchange rate on share-price valuation. Hence, it is recommended that the South African Reserve Bank needs to stabilise and protect South Africa's currency.

Keywords: Exchange rate, Stock market prices, Volatility, GARCH

1. Introduction

Several studies have investigated the relationship between exchange rate and the stock market prices. Exchange rate is the rate of one currency in terms of another (Basher, Haug & Sardosky, 2016). Exchange rates play an important role in a country's level of trade, which is vital to most open market economies in the world including South Africa (Auer & Schoenle, 2016). This makes exchange rates to be one of the most watched, analysed and governmentally manipulated economic measure. Jain & Biswal (2016) add that amongst others, the relationship between stock market prices and exchange rate can also help determine economic performance and political stability of a country.

Foreign investors look for countries with strong economic performance to invest their capital (Menike, 2006). If a country has both a strong economic performance and stable politics, it attracts huge investments for itself. Political turmoil can, for example, cause a loss of confidence in a currency and a movement of capital to the countries of more stable currencies. Mahmudu & Gazi (2009) argues that the impacts of exchange rate on stock exchange provide important implications for monetary policy, risk

management practices, financial securities valuation and government policy towards financial markets.

The stock market in South Africa is administered in the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) Limited where buyers and sellers of stock meet. The JSE is the oldest existing and largest stock exchange in Africa. Despite its relatively large size, historically, the turnover ratio has been relatively low (Serpil, 2016). As shown in the JSE, the All-Share index was 19.49% in 2012 and it decreased all the way to 4.53% in 2016. The year 2015 was one of the most difficult years for the South African stock market with the All-Share index of 2.37%. Ramey (1995) explains that exchange rate volatility is inversely related to economic growth. Aurelijus (2012) goes on confirming this by proving that a 50-percent increase in volatility translates into 0.4-percentage-point lower annual per capita growth. The openness of a country's economy is also recognised as a cause of volatility of its market (Enyaa, 2011). Hence, it was imperative to determine if the fluctuations are related to exchange rates. The study adopts exchange rate as the main macroeconomic variable that could influence the stock market prices. The volatility and fluctuations in both the stock market and the exchange rate are the challenges that led to an interest of investigating

a relationship between the stock market prices and exchange rate. High volatility is the unpredictability of the cost of capital, which undermines the efficient allocation of funds (Akdogu, 2016).

This research was motivated by the fact that, although the impact of exchange rate on stock markets has been investigated in both developed and developing economies, it is still of limitation in South Africa. Even the researchers that have documented this relationship, did so some decades back, Jammine & Hawkins (1974), Hadassin (1976) & Du Toit (1986), Affleck-Graves & Money (1975), Gilbertson & Roux (1977, 1978), Knight & Afflect-Graves (1983). Van Rensburg (1995, 1998, and 1999) conducted the most notable study of this nature in South Africa. However, the sample period of this study spanned the apartheid era in the history of South Africa. In this period, South Africa's economy was crippled by economic sanctions, international disinvestment and trading restrictions (Coovadia, 2014). Although Serpil (2016) stresses that exchange rates and stock prices play a major role both in fostering financial sector development and in aggravating financial crises, Hossein (2011) complains that the literature has rarely studied the potential impact that macro-economic variables may have on developing stock market index.

Determining whether stock market prices can be explained using changes in exchange rate, analysing whether a long run and a short run relationship exist between exchange rate and the stock market prices and predicting whether exchange rate is useful in forecasting the volatility in South African stock market prices are the three objectives of this study. The sections of this paper are structured as follows; the second section examines the theoretical literature and empirical evidence, the third section examines the research methodology, the fourth section, empirical results and discussion and the last section concludes.

2. Literature Review

The literature review is divided into two sections which discuss the theoretical and empirical literature.

2.1 Theoretical Literature

Serpil & Ayse (2016) argue that there are two theoretical approaches that address the relationship

between stock markets and exchange rate namely stock orientated models and flow orientated models. Flow orientated model, is a traditional approach initially developed for exchange rate determination (Serpil & Ayse, 2016). It suggests that the stock market reacts to changes in exchange rates, which are the result of the current account performance of the country.

Stock orientation model suggests the causality runs from stock market to exchange rates. This model focuses on the financial capital account as the main determinant of exchange rate dynamics. Akdogu (2016) emphasises that, "there is no reason to expect only one of these theories to be empirically valid; all of the mechanisms mentioned above may be simultaneously at work". Thus, the nature of the relation between stock prices and the exchange rate is likely to be dependent on the particulars of individual countries as well as the global conjuncture.

Bahmani-Oskooee & Saha (2015) theoretically justifies a positive link from stock prices to exchange rates. The author argues that an increase in stock prices causes an increase in output through an increase in wealth and investment. Then, the Mundell-Fleming model with J-curve effect was employed to trail out the impact of higher output on the exchange rate. Finally, theoretical support for the negative impact of exchange rates on stock prices was outlined.

2.2 Empirical Literature

This section discusses studies showing a relationship between the stock market, exchange rate, interest rate, inflation and money supply. The importance of how macroeconomic variables affect stock markets has been in the interest of many researchers as from the 1960s. Although some developing countries have also investigated the importance and usefulness of this relationship, research into the relationship between stock market returns and multiple macroeconomic variables for the South African economy has been limited. Ajayi (1996) investigated both the long run and short run relationship between stock prices and exchange rate of eight developed economies. It was found that an increase in stock prices causes the currency to depreciate for both the United Kingdom and the United States of America. This proved an existence of a negative relationship between exchange rates and stock prices.

Abdalla & Murinde (1997) observed the relationship for four emerging market economies; India, Pakistan, South Korea and Philippines. The error correction model was applied using monthly data from 1985 to 1994. The results indicated that causality runs from exchange rates to stock prices in India, Pakistan and South Korea while in Philippines, it runs in the opposite direction. Other studies such as Akdogu & Ayse (2016), at the same time, provided findings that there is no universal pattern for the causal relationship between stock prices and exchange rates in emerging market economies. These findings were based in the case of 21 emerging economies, included amongst others were Brazil, Egypt and Chile, for the period 2003 to 2013.

Interest rates had been the most used macroeconomic variable in investigating this relationship with stock prices (Alam & Uddin, 2009). When Cengiz & Başarir (2014) investigated the long run relationship between stock market capitalization rate and interest rate in Turkey for the period 1998 to 2012, it was figured out that there is long-run relationship between stock market capitalization rate and interest rates. Furthermore, interest rate and stock market performance were found to be negatively related. If interest rate increases, investors will avoid making high-risk stock market investment comparing to low risk interest.

On the other hand, Seyed, Zamri, & Yew (2011) discovered that in both long and short run, there is a linkage between the four chosen macroeconomics variables (crude oil prices, money supply, industrial production and inflation rate) and stock market indices in both China and India. In the long run, the impact of increases in crude oil price in China was positive but in India negative. In terms of money supply, for example, Lai discovered that the impact on Indian stock market was negative, but for China, there was positive impact. The effect of industrial production was negative only in China. From these findings, even though both China and India are developing economies, it was evident that the effects of macroeconomic variables on stock markets might differ for each country's economy.

Ramin, Lee, & Mohamad (2004) investigated the relationship between interest rate, exchange rate, inflation rate, money supply, industrial production and stock market indices on the Singapore stock market. Singapore stock market and the Stock Exchange Singapore All-S Equities Property Index

formed significant relationships with all macroeconomic variables identified, while the SES All-S Equities Finance Index and SES All-S Equities Hotel Index form significant relationships only with selected variables. This proves that not all macroeconomic variables relate positively with the stock market. Contrarily, some researchers discovered that the relationship exists between the stock market index and all four selected macroeconomic variables namely interest rate, exchange rate, inflation rate and money supply (Fama, 1981; Mhmoud, Sara & Khaled, 2016). This was found in the case of two emerging economies, Tunisia and Egypt. In this case, the researcher argued that the macroeconomic factors can be used in explaining stock market fluctuations.

A long run relationship between the New Zealand stock market indices and seven macroeconomic variables (inflation rate, exchange rate, gross domestic product, money supply, long term interest rate, short term interest rate and domestic retail oil price) was documented by Christopher, Minsoo, Hua, & Jun (2006). Although New Zealand is a developed economy, its stock market is relatively small compared to other developed economies. As a result, New Zealand stock exchange was found not to be a leading indicator for the investigated period 1990-2003. Strohe (2002) confirmed this positive relationship existed also in two large export countries Japan and Indonesia.

The Asian crisis of 1997-1998 has made a strong pitch for dynamic linkage between stock prices and exchange rates (Nath & Samantha, 2003). The study revealed that the crisis had been proved to have a negative effect on the exchange rate in the form of depreciation, and led to a fall in the stock prices. It was evident that a causal relationship between stock prices and exchange rate exists. While the study was based in India, for the period 1993 to 2003, generally returns in these two markets were not interrelated, though in recent years, the return in stock market had causal influence on return in exchange rate with possibility of mild influence in reverse direction.

The major impact exchange rate had on stock market returns has also been found in the study done in Pakistan (Jamil & Ullah, 2013). It was enlightened that, if there are fluctuations in rupee, the exchange rate will unfavourably affect the change in market returns. Thus, this tells us that for a stable

stock market, exchange rate must be maintained in a favourably territory. This attested to a study done, focusing in two countries, the United States of America and the United Kingdom. In the study, Dimitrova (2005) investigated whether there is a link between the stock market and exchange rates that might explain fluctuations in either market. Dimitrova (2005) made the case that, in the short run, an upward trend in the stock market may cause currency depreciation, whereas weak currency may cause decline in the stock market. Gavin (1989) showed that a booming stock market has a positive effect on aggregate demand.

Some contradictions are found from Suriani, Kumar, Jamil & Muneer (2005) that a relationship between exchange rate and stock market prices does not exist. The paper applied the Granger causality test which showed that both variables do not Granger cause each other. This means the variables do not affect each other and there is no interaction in between them. Furthermore, Bhattacharya & Mukherjee (2003) supported the findings of the study that there was no integration in stock price and exchange rate by conducting the research in India.

Odoyo, Muasya & Kipyego (2014) argued that the economic theory points to the relationship between stock price and exchange rates but does not properly define the direction of the relationship. In the investigation in Kenya, it was established that there was a robust, positive correlation between foreign exchange rates represented by the Kenyan shilling to the US Dollar and the stock price index as provided by the Nairobi securities exchange 20-share Index. Thus, when the exchange rate rises it infers an increase of the Kenya shilling or appreciation of the foreign currency. This means that when the foreign currencies appreciate or Kenya shilling depreciates, the stock prices fall. Also, when the stock prices rise, the foreign currencies depreciate or Kenya shilling appreciates.

3. Methods and Materials

This section outlines the methodology used in the paper. It integrates the model specification, data collection and estimation techniques.

3.1 Data

In order to achieve the stated objectives of how exchange rate influence stock market prices in South

Africa, secondary time series data on monthly basis for the period 2006 to 2016 was chosen. Gay (2016) notes that the South African stock market recently witnessed a continuous drop in the All-Share Index and volume of traded securities in the period 2005 to 2015. Hackland (2015) also adds that during this period, the 2008/9 global crisis caused the drop in all sectors of the JSE. The stock market indices have moved far relative to their previous year's levels.

The data used was sourced from South African Reserve Bank (SARB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), Statistics SA and Quantec SA.

3.2 Model Specification

This study used quantitative research design. The variables under investigation are as follows; market index as proxy for stock market prices, South African Rand (ZAR) per U.S dollar as a proxy for exchange rate; deposit rate to represent interest rates; consumer price index as proxy for inflation and M2 for money supply. Most studies that investigated about the effects of macroeconomic variables on stock prices have used interest rate as the most important factor, thus it should be noted that this study uses exchange rate.

$$SM_t = f(ER_t + IR_t + CPI_t + MS_t) \quad (1)$$

Equation 1 indicates that Stock Market prices (SM) as a dependant variable is a function (f) of exchange rate (ER), interest rate (IR), consumer price index (CPI) and money supply (MS).

Linearizing the model, we obtain Equation 2,

$$SM_T = \alpha + \beta_1 ER_t + \beta_2 IR_t + \beta_3 CPI_t + \beta_4 MS_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Where, α is the constant, β 's are the coefficients of the explanatory variables and ε is the error term.

3.3 Estimation Techniques

To test the hypotheses that exchange rate affects stock market prices, an econometric analysis was employed. Unit root tests, Johansen cointegration and general autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity models are discussed in the sections below.

3.3.1 Unit Root Tests

Phillips-Perron (PP) and Augmented Dicky Fuller (ADF) were used to test whether each of the time

Table 1: Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillips-Perron Test Results

Order of Integration	Variable	ADF			Phillips-Perron		
		Intercept	Trend	None	Intercept	Trend	None
Level	1.Lstock Prices	-7.511485*	-9.765588*	-1.049271	-6.961320*	-9.002097*	-1.498470
1 st Difference				-18.01722*			-21.96977*
Level	2.Lexchange Rate	-0.934338	-2.051050	1.400940	-0.774434	-1.834369	1.659323
1 st Difference		-8.557046*	-8.526196*	-8.400879*	-8.507479*	-8.475758*	-8.301802*
Level	3.Interest Rate	-1.767221	-2.216878	0.115123	-1.441405	-1.750244	0.223534
51 st Difference		-3.849526*	-3.847274*	-3.836360*	-10.84339*	-10.82908*	-10.83883*
Level	4.Inflation Rate	-3.879472*	-3.715640*	0.103819	-2.709047	-2.428191	0.064821
1 st Difference				-5.038009*	-9.469989*	-9.638768*	-9.375863*
Level	5.Lmoney Supply	-5.641990*	-5.257174*	2.966357	-4.247233*	-4.621635*	5.836568
1 st Difference				-2.270124*			-6.991817*

Notes: * denotes rejection of the null hypothesis at 0.05 level

Source: Author

series variables used in the study is non-stationary or not, and therefore possesses a unit root (Dickey & Fuller, 1979). The researcher chose Phillips Perron for confirmation of the ADF based on Brooks (2008) argues Phillips and Perron's theory of unit root to be more comprehensive. If variables are found non-stationary they will be differenced make them stationary (Brooks. 2008).

3.3.2 Johansen Cointegration Test

The Johansen cointegration test was used to test if a cointegration relationship between exchange rate and the stock market prices exists. Both the trace and maximum Eigen values have been used to indicate 1 cointegration relationship. The presence of cointegration is an indicator of a long-run relationship in the series.

3.3.3 General Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity Model

The autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH) model was used to provide a framework for the analysis and development of time series models of volatility. The ARCH model was introduced by Engle (1982). Through following two decades, this basic model was significantly extended, leading to many different types of models, which created an extensive ARCH family framework (Engle, 2001). The most important extension of the ARCH model was the Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (GARCH) model introduced by Bollerslev, Chou & Kroner (1992). Before running any GARCH model, it is important to ensure that an ARCH effect exists in the model. A simple ARCH specification would not definitely be sufficient to capture all

dynamics of the process. This can be understood as a confirmation that variance processes of stock market returns are highly persistent (Engle, Lillien & Robbins, 1987; Ryan, 2004; Reboredo & Rivera-Castro, 2014).

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents the results found in the study and discussions thereof.

4.1 Unit Root Test Results

Most of the series data is non stationary at level, therefore before making any estimation of the GARCH model, all our variables need to be tested for stationarity. The reason is that regressing two trending variables can lead to a spurious regression, where we have a high coefficient of determination and high significance of independent variables, although these variables are completely unrelated.

Unit root testing was conducted using both Augmented Dicky Fuller and Philips-Perron. The test was conducted under all assumptions, that is, with intercept; without intercept but trend; and without intercept and trend. The results for all the five variables are presented in Table 1 above.

Table 1 indicated five variables that were tested for stationarity namely stock market prices (SMP), exchange rate (ER), interest rate (IR), inflation rate (CPI) and money supply (MS). Exchange rate, interest rate and inflation were found to be non-stationary at levels and stationary at first difference which is the common phenomenon in most of the economic

Table 2: Johansen Cointegration Test Results

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Trace statistics	Critical value (0.05)	Probability
None*	70.16153	69.81889	0.0469
At most 1	43.47198	47.85613	0.1215
At most 2	25.07370	29.79707	0.1588
At most 3	13.24427	15.49471	0.1061
At most 4	3.232234	3.841466	0.0722

Notes: * denotes rejection of the null hypothesis at 0.05 level

Source: Author (2019)

time series (Dimitrova, 2005). Further, ADF statistics and PP test rejects null hypotheses of unit root at level of the other two variables, stock market and money supply at five percent in case of trend and trend & intercept. Without trend and intercept, the data was differenced once to make it stationary. Therefore, it can be concluded that generally variables are of first order integration and became stationary after first differencing.

4.2 The Johansen Cointegration Test Results

After indicating the order of integration, the Johansen cointegration test was run using both the trace and the max Eigen values. The trace results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 indicates the presence of one cointegrating relationship. This is shown by the trace statistic of 70.16153, which is greater than the critical values of 69.811889 at 5% level. This means that a long-term relationship exists between the stock market prices and exchange rate, proven by the p-value of less than 0.05 at none. We thus reject the null hypothesis because it is significant.

Hancocks (2010) supports these findings by claiming that a large portion of JSE investors are foreign and are influenced by variations in the exchange rate on share-price valuation. Thus, foreigners benefit from a weaker rand position when investing in the South African stock market (Hamrita & Trifi, 2011). This also affects domestic investors because factors such as inflation and market growth affect them directly. In the long run, an unfavourable outlook in either of these factors will cause a marked swing in price performance on stock market performance with depreciation in exchange rate, an increase in money supply or a decrease in inflation having a positive effect on the stock market.

4.3 The ARCH Model Test Results

Before the application of any GARCH model, it is convenient to ensure the presence of ARCH effects. Engle (1982) proposed a procedure for testing the presence of ARCH effects. Table 3 on the following page presents results of the ARCH test.

From Table 3 test results, it can be seen that the probability of the F-version statistic is significant, suggesting that there is heteroscedasticity in the stock market prices and exchange rate relationship. This is a go ahead to run the GARCH model.

4.4 The GARCH Model Test Results

Stephan (2014) argued that the main advantage of the GARCH model is allowing for a longer memory of process, but at the same time, getting along with a much more flexible lag structure. Table 4 on the following page indicates results of the GARCH model.

Table 4 showed that there is a negative statistically significant relationship between exchange rate and stock market prices. The negative relationship was also found in literature from studied of Jamil & Ullah (2013), Dimotrova (2005) and Nath & Samantha (2003). This indicates that a depreciating exchange rate could increase stock market prices. Furthermore, this implies that a 1% decrease in exchange rate would increase stock market prices by 3%. This suggests a relatively large degree of persistency in the variance equation. It will thus take a relatively long time for the impact of past shocks to disappear (Robert, Sinclair, & Robert, 1997). Interest rates and money supply also indicated a negative strong relationship with stock market prices. However, inflation is the only variable in the model to show a positive relationship.

Table 3: The ARCH Model Test Results

Heteroskedasticity Test: ARCH				
F-statistic	0.000309	Prob. F(1,129)	0.0005	
Obs*R-squared	0.000590	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.0027	
Test Equation: Dependent Variable: WGT_RESID^2 Method: Least Squares Sample (adjusted): 2006M02 2016M12 Included observations: 131 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	1.009466	0.155610	6.487150	0.0000
WGT_RESID^2(-1)	-0.059113	0.085476	-0.691570	0.4905
R-squared	0.003694	Mean dependent var	0.951597	
Adjusted R-squared	-0.004029	S.D. dependent var	1.498601	
S.E. of regression	1.501618	Akaike info criterion	3.666112	
Sum squared resid	290.8764	Schwarz criterion	3.710009	
Log likelihood	-238.1304	Hannan-Quinn criter.	3.683949	
F-statistic	0.478269	Durbin-Watson stat	1.971969	
Prob(F-statistic)	0.490450			

Source: Author (2019)

Table 4: The GARCH Test Results

Dependent Variable: LSMP Method: ML ARCH - Normal distribution (BFGS / Marquardt steps) Sample: 2006M01 2016M12 Included observations: 132 Failure to improve likelihood (non-zero gradients) after 38 iterations Coefficient covariance computed using outer product of gradients Presample variance: backcast (parameter = 0.7) GARCH = C(6) + C(7)*RESID(-1)^2 + C(8)*GARCH(-1)				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
LEX_RATE	-0.030103	0.013645	-2.206104	0.0274
CPI	0.002946	0.000732	4.025578	0.0001
IR	-0.008729	0.000823	-10.60693	0.0000
LMS	-0.214047	0.010729	-19.95091	0.0000
C	5.418507	0.033154	163.4350	0.0000
Variance Equation				
C	6.11E-05	1.29E-05	4.735157	0.0000
RESID(-1)^2	0.641192	0.193762	3.309170	0.0009
GARCH(-1)	-0.007132	0.003272	-2.179678	0.0293
R-squared	0.692309	Mean dependent var	3.926366	
Adjusted R-squared	0.682618	S.D. dependent var	0.028247	
S.E. of regression	0.015913	Akaike info criterion	-6.159112	
Sum squared resid	0.032161	Schwarz criterion	-5.984396	
Log likelihood	414.5014	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-6.088115	
Durbin-Watson stat	0.746301			

Source: Author (2019)

Table 5: Summary of Diagnostic Tests Results

Test	Probability	Conclusion
Jarque- Bera (JB)	0.546 > 0.05	We do not reject the H ₀ , terms are normally distributed
Breusch- Godfrey Serial Correlation LM test	0.4022 > 0.05	We do not reject H ₀ , there is no serial correlation
ARCH test	0.4904 > 0.05	We do not reject H ₀ , there is heteroscedasticity

Source: Author (2019)

4.5 Diagnostic Tests

Three diagnostic tests have been run to test for normality, heteroscedasticity and serial correlation. Table 5 presents the diagnostic test results.

To test for normal distribution, the Jarque-Bera test was conducted. The kurtosis of 3.456 was found which implies that the series is normally distributed. Theory states that the kurtosis must be equal or greater than three for the data to be normally distributed (Brooks, 2008). The Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation Lagrange Multiplier test indicated a p-value 0.4 which is greater than 0.05 implying no serial correlation in this time series model. Lastly, the ARCH test for heteroscedasticity also indicated a p-value of 0.4 (which exceeds 0.05), thereby concluding that there is no heteroscedasticity in the model.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This aim of the study was to analyse the relationship between the stock market prices and exchange rate in South Africa for the period 2006 to 2016. The key macroeconomic factors examined in this study are exchange rates, inflation, interest rates and money supply. The study made use of the Johansen cointegration and general autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity methodology to analyse the relationship.

The Johansen cointegration indicated a long run relationship between the exchange rate stock market price series. The conclusion of this study is that long-run relationships between macroeconomic factors and share prices on the JSE exist. This finding corresponds with international studies which found that both developing and developed markets are all influenced by various macroeconomic factors. These factors are shown to have a shaping effect exogenous to the stock market itself on prices within the market. The implications of this are that changes in the selected macroeconomic factors can be used to predict future moves in stock prices.

In the long run, an unfavourable outlook in exchange rate fluctuations can cause a marked swing in price performance on stock market prices. Money supply negatively influence stock market prices while inflation having a positive effect on the stock market. From the GARCH test, it is evident that the volatility of exchange rate does have an impact in stock market prices, thus it can be used to determine the state of the stock market. This shows that it is important for the South African Reserve Bank to stabilise and protect South Africa's currency.

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Short Term Public Private Partnerships: A Starting Point for Botswana

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Abstract: Despite the introduction of a Public Private Partnership Policy Implementation Framework a decade ago, Botswana has implemented only a handful projects under the Public Private Partnerships (PPP) arrangement. Known PPP projects include the two office buildings in the capital city Gaborone and pockets of other PPP infrastructure that have been completed within and outside the capital city. One of the concerns in Botswana regarding PPPs is that the PPP Unit in the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MFED) has had a very limited and in some instances, no role in the implementation of some of the PPP projects in the country. Another major concern regarding the implementation of PPPs in Botswana is limited knowledge on PPPs, by government officials. The leadership and government officials require adequate understanding of PPPs in order for government to consider fully, PPP as an alternative and viable procurement method of public infrastructure and services. As a central advisor, depository, approver and guarantor of PPPs projects, government should, through the PPP unit always be involved in any PPP project. The unit should be capacitated to function effectively to enable it to take ownership of relevant responsibility towards its mandate. This study advances short term PPPs as a preferred means of public procurement in the government of Botswana's trajectory towards implementing long term PPPs.

Keywords: Public Private Partnerships, Concession, Long term, Short term, Service contracts

1. Introduction

Governments across the world have been experiencing the need to change ways through which they procure public assets and services. Pressure to change the standard model of public procurement arose because of public debt, which grew rapidly during the 1970s and 1980s (Tharun, 2014:56). Responding to this economic demise characterised by continued poor performance of public enterprises, collapse of communism, and advocacy of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPS) by donor agencies, public sector agencies in developing countries started rolling back leading to a shift of emphasis from public sector to private sector (Obadan, 2008:20-23). These developments led to privatization in its different forms (Sharma, 2008:1) thereby according the private sector a role in the provision of public infrastructure.

By the early 1990s, the private sector had been actively involved with the creation and operation of public infrastructure particularly in the developed economies and this has given rise to yet another the public sector reform namely PPP's (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2009, 2012). In the United Kingdom (UK) for instance, the conservative government of John Major introduced in 1992 the private finance initiative (PFI), a first systematic

programme aimed at encouraging PPPs (Tharun, 2014:56). PPPs are long term contractual arrangements between the government and a private partner whereby the latter delivers and funds public services using a capital asset, sharing the associated risks (OECD, 2012:18). Some PPP projects may be long-term, including new infrastructure investments as in concessions and Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT) projects (Alexandersson & Hultén, 2009:97). To illustrate, a concession typically takes place in a period of 25 to 30 years. This period is long enough to amortize major initial investments fully (World Bank, 2018). While a longer concession period is more beneficial to the private investor, it should be noted that a prolonged concession period may result in loss for government investments (Nasirzadeh, Khanzadi & Alipour, 2014:423, 425, 439).

Because a conventional PPP project constitutes long-term commitment, this can be expensive to change if the needs of government change or were misunderstood in the first place (The World Bank Group, 2019). If well structured and implemented, PPPs offer the prospect of sizable efficiency gains in the construction of infrastructure assets and the provision of associated services. Nonetheless, they can involve significant costs and risks for government over the longer term, and under certain circumstances can even threaten debt sustainability

(International Monetary Fund, 2004:4). Potential constraints that can further be presented by long term PPPs to government may include: insufficient instruments to undertake long-term equity and financial liability required by an infrastructure project and; hindrance in enabling a regulatory framework (Kurniawan, Ogunlana, Motawa & Dada, 2013:66; Government of India, 2012). Additional to these are: inability of the private sector to fit into the risk of investing in diversified projects; lack of credibility of bankable infrastructure projects used for financing the private sector and inadequate support to enable greater acceptance of PPPs by the stakeholders (Kurniawan, Ogunlana, Motawa & Dada, 2013:66; Government of India, 2012).

Conversely, other PPP projects may be more short-term concerning reinvestments only and sometimes, even limited to the task of operating a finished construction (Alexandersson & Hultén, 2009:97). The nature of a PPP project is conservatively determined by a particular government's need. The need for short term PPPs as such, becomes inevitable more especially in emerging economies that do not have much experience and capacity to handle large scale and long-term PPP projects. The advantage for Botswana in implementing these short-term PPPs infrastructure projects is that the country already has a number of these such as: the Ombudsman and Land Tribunal Office (OLTO); the SADC Headquarters building (Tshombe & Molokwane, 2016:310) and Mongala Mall in Kanye Village. Additionally, the country's economic performance in the past few decades also renders it financially able to finance some of the PPP projects where requisite.

Given the foregoing, this study provides an analysis of short term versus long term PPPs. The study begins by placing into context a public procurement debate and describing the privatization reform as a previous method of choice that preceded the advent of PPPs. The study then introduces the PPP debate presenting various PPP options. Succeeding this debate are discussions on long term and short term PPPs, followed by a case for short term PPPs in Botswana.

2. The Role of Government in the Provision of Public Goods and Services

Over the years, the traditional role of the state has been to provide public goods and services. These

included a wide range of basic functions of government namely: provision of economic infrastructure, provision of various collective public goods and services, resolution and adjustment of group conflicts, maintenance of competition, protection of natural resources, provision for minimum access by individuals to goods and services to the economy as well as stabilisation of the economy Hughes (1998:101-104). Earlier public sector reforms targeting provision of public goods and services in the 1950s throughout to the 1980s comprised of public enterprises (PEs) that were popularly used as a vehicle for the provision of public goods and services (United Nations, 2007:25,26,75,76). According to Farazmand (1999:551), PEs have played a pivotal role in building infrastructure, providing operations and enhancing social and economic justice around the world. PEs to that effect had been the engines of economic and social development in both industrialised and developing nations.

It was until the 1980s, that the provision of public infrastructure had pre-eminently been the domain of governments (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2005:98). The same decade saw the introduction of the private sector in the provision of publicly-funded goods and services. This shift in paradigm raised expectations of governments and their people alike as it was believed that the private sector had the potential to bring about change in the delivery of what was previously perceived to be public goods and services. The reform in place now was privatization. According to Cook and Hulme (1998:221-31), this new paradigm found expression in policies of liberalisation. Removing price distortions in product, labour and capital markets, reducing government expenditure, privatisation of PEs and creating a legislative-constitutional environment conducive to the private sector were now the key components of economic liberalisation. In short, proponents of privatisation argued against government involvement in the economy and favoured the market place for services (Farazmand, 1999:553).

As Hughes (1998:52) observes, this paradigm shift had a significant impact on public management where the 1980s and 1990s saw the emergence of a new managerial approach in the public sector. A new trend developed whereby government functions were reduced through privatisation, other forms of market testing as well as contracting out and, in some cases, quite radically. In some cases, privatisation meant selling a state entity to one

private owner, a move that often met with a lot of criticism (Tobin, 2012:3). In this sense, Kay and Thompson (1986:29) argued that the privatisation of large and dominant firms was at best pointless and possibly harmful in the absence of effective competition and where no benefits to economic performance were likely to be achieved. The authors argued further that privatisation of this kind would not, of course, be the first ineffectual restructuring of relationships between government and nationalised industries which had a lengthy history, but was potentially more damaging because it made it difficult for competitive incentives to be introduced in the future. Similarly, Hughes (1998:110) maintained that converting a public monopoly into a private one did not improve competition and could have the additional effect of making future competitive changes more difficult to bring about.

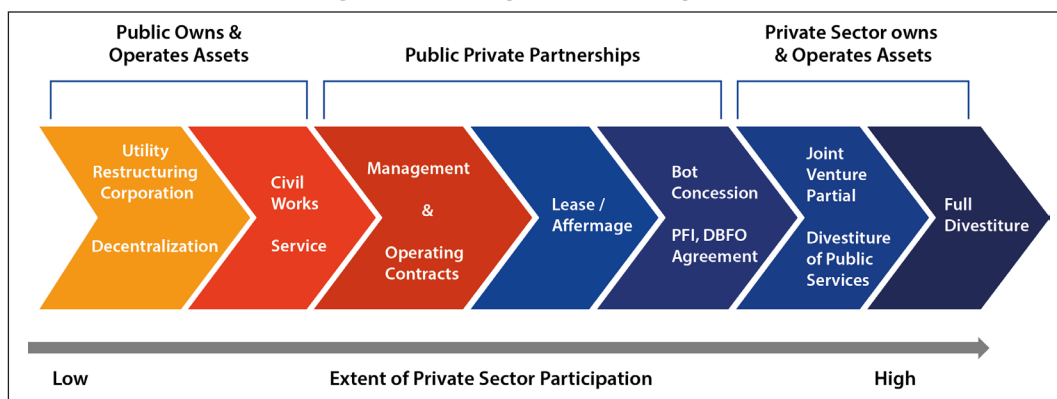
As the involvement of the private sector in the provision of public infrastructure and services in developing countries, particularly in the late 1990s and early 2000s, became evident, some budgetary changes became discernible. For instance, in Uganda, government expenditure on roads and public works went from 8.3% in 1999/2000 to 8.9% in 2001/2002 and the share of government expenditure on water increased from 1.5% in 1999/2000 to 2.8 in 2001/2002 (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2005:98). Senegal continued liberalising and privatising its power and telecommunications sub-sectors, while Ethiopia has removed restrictions on private sector participation in energy generation and eliminated Government monopoly in telecommunications in preparation for privatisation (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2005:98). Despite these positive efforts, African countries have, however, not attracted

as much private investment as other developing regions. Private investment in infrastructure in developing countries rose from \$14 billion in 1990 to \$117 billion in 1997, and then decreased to \$89 billion in 2000 due to reduced demand for infrastructure services that resulted from the economic crises in Argentina, Brazil and East Asia (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2005:98). Only 2% of the total private investment in infrastructure went to sub-Saharan Africa, while 49% went to Latin America and the Caribbean, 29% to East Asia and the Pacific, 11% to Europe and Central Asia, 6% to South Asia and 14% to the Middle East and North Africa. In general, African countries have been slow in adopting policies and putting in place institutions to ensure business competition (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2005:99). These foregoing developments paved way to the evolution of PPPs.

3. PPP Range of Options

According to Partnerships Kosovo (2009:4), there are two basic forms of PPPs: Contractual and Institutional. As indicated in Figure 1, PPPs fall somewhere in between the traditional public sector model of public service delivery and full privatisation. The order of spectrum of options begins from left to right. First, there is the traditional procurement; followed by management contracts; Lease Develop Operate (LDO) agreements; Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT), concession, Private Finance Initiative (PFI), Design, Build, Finance and Operate (DBFO) agreements and divestitures. As one moves across the spectrum from traditional public works and service contracts towards divestitures and privatisations, private sector risks and responsibilities increase. For instance, with management contracts, public

Figure 1: PPP Spectrum of Options



Source: Jeffery (2010)

authorities retain ownership and investment responsibilities, but transfer management and operations to the private partner (Partnerships Kosovo, 2009:5).

Further, along the spectrum (see Figure 1), with concessions, Build-Operate-Transfer schemes and long-term lease arrangements, public authorities retain ownership of infrastructure, but transfer both investment and operations/management responsibility to the private partner. With BOO and divestitures, the ownership, operations and investment responsibilities are all transferred to the private partner, while the public sector only retains responsibility for regulation and strategic sector planning (Partnerships Kosovo, 2009:5). However, in some instances, under the BOO and DBFO, ownership of the asset remains that of the private sector. The Asian Development Bank (2008:27) provides six main PPP options that are available for consideration.

These include service contracts, management contracts, affermage or lease contracts, Build Operate-Transfer (BOT) and similar arrangements, concessions and joint ventures. Examples of PPPs include among others, the Build Own, Operate and Transfer (BOOT), which is commonly used in public works concessions contracts, through which private operators build, own and/or operate a facility for a specified period of time (Republic of Botswana, 2000:13). Additional examples include the Build, Own and Operate (BOO), Build Lease and Transfer (BLT), Rehabilitate-Own-Operate (ROO) (Turner & Hulme 1997:193), Design, Build, Finance and Operate (DBFO) (World Bank, 2009:8). Izaguirre (1998:1) points out that, different countries have undertaken various project types when implementing PPPs. These include among others, greenfield projects, divestitures, management and operations contracts with major capital expenditure.

4. Long Term PPPs

Long-term PPP contracts usually range from 25 to 50 years (Asian Development Bank, 2008: 36). This relationship between the public and private sectors is indeed a long-term one. A typical 'long-term-PPP' is where a concession <https://ppp.worldbank.org/public-private-partnership/agreements/concessions-bots-dbos> – Concessions gives a concessionaire the long-term right to use all utility assets conferred on the concessionaire, including responsibility for operations and some investment. Asset ownership remains with the authority who

is typically responsible for replacement of larger assets. Where assets were under ownership of the private partner, they would then revert to the public authority at the end of the concession period (World Bank, 2018). During the concession period, the operator has sufficient time to recover the capital invested and earn an appropriate return over the life of the concession (Asian Development Bank, 2008:36). As these type of PPPs have long-term implications for future generations, their selection requires especially robust analysis and justification (European Court of Auditors, 2018:35). This circumstance puts managing the partnership at the forefront.

5. Short Term PPPs

Short term PPPs exist to serve the public sector in a comparatively short-term as compared to long term PPPs. These may constitute projects or services ranging typically between 1 to 10 years. Some of the PPP arrangements available for implementation by government include: affermage or lease contracts; management contracts; service contracts and some of the BOT arrangements. The distinction between a BOT-type arrangement and a concession is that a concession generally involves extensions to and operation of existing systems, whereas a BOT generally involves large "greenfield" investments requiring substantial outside finance, for both equity and debt (Asian Development Bank, 2008:27).

Regarding service contracts, the public authority hires a private company or entity to carry out one or more specified tasks or services for a period, typically 1–3 years. The public authority remains the primary provider of the infrastructure service and contracts out only portions of its operation to the private partner. Governments generally use competitive bidding procedures to award service contracts, which tend to work well given the limited period and narrowly defined nature of these contracts (Asian Development Bank, 2008: 38; Molokwane & Tshombe, 2017:162-164). Common among short-term PPPs of less than five years are water and wastewater treatment facilities (Binder, 1997:2). PPPs can help relieve short-term liquidity constraints allowing of introduction commercially viable user-pay PPPs. The extent to which PPPs can help relieve borrowing constraints however depends on the nature of the constraint. (The World Bank Group, 2019). In this context, governments may also take into consideration additional criteria in deciding which potential PPP projects to develop first. Often

at this stage, the priority is to build experience and momentum in the PPP program by achieving project successes in a relatively short time frame (The World Bank Group, 2019). Various PPP mechanisms are congruent with the application of short term PPPs. These include Value for Money (VFM), Risk Sharing (RS), Performance-Based Payments (PBP), Special Purpose Vehicle (SPV), Private Financing (PF) and Output Specifications (OS).

5.1 Service Contracts - A Case in Point of Short Term PPPs

Service contracts are the simplest form of short term PPPs, where the private sector is contracted to perform a specific service for a brief period of time (Asian Development Bank, 2008:29) or to complete a specific project. Examples include consulting assignments, construction contracts, and "contracting out" of services such as pipeline inspection, rehabilitation, laboratory services (Canadian Council for Public Private Partnerships, 2001:5), meter reading, revenue collection and maintenance of equipment (Republic of South Africa, 2007:24). Under service contracts, the "contracts" specify an agreed cost of the service and must satisfy agreed-upon performance standards (Asian Development Bank, 2008:29).

Service contracts can have a significant effect on productivity and can be a means of transferring technology from the private to the public sector. These contracts are short-term (usually 1-3 years) and have low barriers to entry since only a discrete service is required making it easy for private firms to participate. There is also repeated competition since the contracts have short runs. Together, these features of the contract put pressure on the contractor to keep costs down (Canadian Council for Public Private Partnerships, 2001:5). With regard to project financing, under a service contract, the government pays the private partner a predetermined fee for the service, which may be based on a one-time fee, unit cost or another basis. Therefore, the contractor's profit increases if it can reduce its operating costs, while meeting required service standards. One financing option involves a cost-plus-fee formula, where costs such as labour are fixed and the private partner participates in a profit-sharing system. The private partner typically does not interact with the consumers. The government is responsible for funding any capital investments required to expand or improve the system (Asian

Development Bank, 2008:29). In general, service contracts enable governments to accomplish tasks for which there is insufficient demand to develop using internal resources (Canadian Council for Public Private Partnerships, 2001:5).

6. Botswana in the Sub-Regional Context

Botswana's investment climate compares favourably with that of member states in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. In 2013, the SADC office conducted a project scan to assess the level of PPP activity in the region. A total of 194 projects were taken from the Short Term Action Plan (STAP) and SADC Regional Infrastructure Development Master Plan (RIDMP) project lists and an additional 30 were identified. A very simple but effective screening method was used to identify the projects that would be most suitable for implementation as PPPs in the short term (SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG, 2013a:6). The SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG (2013a) SADC 3P Project Network Scan documented PPP maturity of specific member states citing a number of projects by sector. For Botswana, projects indicated included: Platjan Bridge; Tchobanine Heavy Haul Railway (Tchobanine); a heavy haul railway line and a port at Ponta Tchobanine, Mozambique; the extension of Kinshasa- Ilebo Railway Link; Trans Kalahari Railway; TransKalahari/Mamuno One Stop Border Post; Plumtree-Ramokgwebane One Stop Border Post and the Pioneer Gate-Skilpadhek. While some of the projects are new developments, some involve upgrading and extension (SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG, 2013a:4,11,12). Projects assessed are all cross border projects. Primarily, the SADC 3P Network aims to assist member states in setting up institutions and frameworks through strengthening the capacity of public-private partnership (PPP) practitioners for defining, managing and implementing PPP policies, programmes, projects and harmonizing processes, institutions and policies across the region.

7. A Case for Short Term PPPs in Botswana

The Government of Botswana (GoB) is one of the few countries in the SADC region to have recognized early, the necessity to create a solid environment aimed at encouraging and attracting the private sector for infrastructure and service delivery—being aware that the country is in competition with others

for similar investments (Axis Consulting, 2013:7). Although not widely utilized, PPPs in Botswana are considered as a substitute in terms of financing investments in provision of economic assets such as roads, railways, social assets and government accommodation (Republic of Botswana, 2009:3). A number of factors give rise to an ardent need for provision of public goods and services through PPPs.

7.1 Ease of Doing Business in Botswana

A number of factors place Botswana in a favourable position for investment through short term PPPs. In terms of protocols, treaties, conventions and agreements, Botswana has ratified bilateral agreements with SACU, SADC, MERCOUR, EFTA, Malawi and Zimbabwe (Republic of Botswana 2016). Negotiations conducted with the European Union on an Economic Partnership Agreement in July 2004 accord the country access to markets in United States under AGOA (Republic of Botswana, 2009). In the same vein Botswana is committed to the Doha Development Agenda and recently signed the agreement on Trade Facilitation. This agreement on trade facilitation aims at reducing both the financial costs and time needed to do business across borders (Neufeld, 2016:2). Further to this, Botswana has a National Trade Policy. Policies and strategies adopted by the GoB have promoted trade and economic diversification. The country has experienced impressive levels of economic growth since 1970 (Maipose, 2008:iv,5,6). Over the last decade Botswana has experienced a notable increase in exports, moving from merely over US\$4 billion in 2005 to close to US\$ 8 billion in 2014. Imports have realized a much larger increase over the same period, moving from around US\$ 4 billion in 2005 to US\$ 8 billion in 2014 (United Nations, 2016:xi).

7.2 Legal Framework

Botswana does not have a dedicated PPP law. The country currently utilizes the PPP Policy and Implementation Framework; the PPAD Act; Sectoral Ministry or Department Legislation and other public procurement legislative provisions in PPP projects. The OECD Investment Policy Review (OECD, 2013) analysis of Botswana's PPP Framework confirms that the policy's broad approach towards scope of PPPs may reduce the clarity of the document for procurement entities wishing to take the PPP route. This will be true especially given that the structure and upstream preparation of PPP contracts are very

different for physical infrastructure as compared to services or movable assets (OECD, 2013; Axis Consulting, 2013:9). Botswana's PPP unit currently needs to be capacitated to handle large-scale PPP projects. Regardless of this deficiency, line Ministries have demonstrated that they are capable of handling relatively large-scale PPP projects however in the short term. A dedicated PPP legislation will be a single source providing PPP legalities relating to among others OS, VFM, risk transfer, project financing and contracts.

7.3 PPPs Provide Relief to Government Fiscus

The majority of developing countries fund their infrastructure expenditures directly from fiscal budgets. Several factors, such as macro-economic instability and growing investments requirements however, have shown that public financing is unpredictable and often does not meet infrastructure expenditure requirements sufficiently. Reinvigorating the supply of infrastructure investments within developing countries requires supplementing traditional sources of official finance with new sources of equity (Andres, Biller & Schwartz, 2016:41) and debt finance because infrastructure projects often have high debt to equity ratios.

Public infrastructure and services provided through PF provide relief to the development budget. Under PF, a private-sector party generally raises project funds both in equity and debt finance for a PPP. An analysis of Botswana's public budget for the years 2008 to 2019 illustrates that the GoB typically raises revenue through conventional means such as taxes, grants, tourism, beef sales and mineral proceeds. Botswana's 2008-2019 national budgets place emphasis on privatisation with the 2009-2011 and 2018 budget speeches mentioning in a rather mild sense, PPPs as a way of enhancing private participation and describing the PPP Policy and Implementation Framework. Nonetheless, all the budget speeches outline government plans and projects for instance, investing in infrastructural development; creating employment opportunities as well as road network and maintenance as some of the activities that can be provided through PPPs. The 2012-2017 budget speeches are silent on PPPs. While these budget speeches do not mention PPPs, the 2016 budget speech has in it the Output and Performance-Based Road Contract (OPBRC), which clearly has strong PPP characteristics however, the contracts under this arrangement were issued

through traditional competitive bidding process. The civil works contracts for two OPBRC packages cover a total of 335 km in the Southern region (Republic of Botswana, 2016).

7.4 Availability of Domestic Capital and Debt Funding

There is substantial capital to finance short term PPPs within Botswana. According to the SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG (2013b: 3), the capital markets in Botswana are mature but small with a total market capitalisation of domestic companies of P4.5 billion (USD525 million). That of foreign companies is much larger at P372 billion reflecting the export nature of extractive industries in the country. Further to this, there are eight domestic banks operating in a small but well regulated market, six registered equity funds and the country has a large number of pension funds thus signifying a strong market (SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG, 2013b: 3).

8. Lessons Learnt

Various lessons become apparent from this study. Firstly, establishing solid institutional safeguards is imperative. These include: an independent PPP legal framework; avoiding high costs of contract negotiation and building capacity to accept unsolicited proposals; competent and enabled institutions that can appropriately identify, procure and manage PPPs and; efficient oversight procedures as well as proper Legal Frameworks (Axis Consulting, 2013: 10). Botswana has a PPP policy and Implementation Framework, an Anti-Corruption agency namely the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime, a Public Procurement body namely the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal board, a Financial Intelligence Agency and a PPP Unit located at the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development. While all these policy and institutional safeguards are present, their effectiveness and independence have often been under scrutiny.

Secondly, there is an impending need for the GoB to introduce a PPP Law in addition to the policy in place. The PPP Law will take precedence over sector laws and will enable government to play an effective role in the PPP process as opposed to what is currently obtaining with some PPP projects having had been implemented without the PPP Unit's active participation. Thirdly, short term

PPPs are a viable starting point for countries with incipient PPP environments such as Botswana. With a very small number PPP projects which have been largely short term i.e. not more than 10 years, the country is still inexperienced on PPPs. The choice to begin experimenting with short term PPPs is the correct one nonetheless; the GoB has to attract more investment on this front. While PPPs may be the answer for many governments, they are not without risk and there are certain challenges thus before PPP projects enter the development phase, they must undergo appropriate suitability checks and prefeasibility processes (SADC PPP Network, German Cooperation & KPMG, 2013a: 5). Lastly, there is firm political commitment and stakeholder dialogue. These factors are important in contributing to the promotion of PPPs in a larger context (Axis Consulting, 2013:10).

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

Short term PPPs a viable means of providing public infrastructure and services by leveraging on private technical expertise, finance and technology. Countries whose PPP environment is still at its nascent stages should prioritise short term PPPs as a starting point and utilize these as foundation towards long-term PPPs. Government authorities need to be capable of developing sector reform policies and assessing fiscal risks associated with PPPs. They should base their decisions about public procurement versus PPP on comprehensive VFM assessments and have impartial transaction advisory at hand to make PPP deals bankable and sustainable (International Evaluation Group, 2012; Ahmad, Khan, & Khan. 2016: 24, 25). To this end, the GoB requires a shift towards implementing in a more robust way short term PPPs as these will be beneficial in this era of scarcity of public finance.

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The Use and Benefits of E-Technology Business Applications

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Abstract: The paper investigates the use of and resultant benefits of e-business applications within the Capricorn District Municipality in the Limpopo Province. E-business applications are components of e-business such as e-commerce, and e-marketing which enable firms to perform their day-to-day activities with their partners and target market for developing and delivering value proposition to a firm's customers. The study uses the quantitative method to analyse the use and the benefits of e-business. Exploratory and descriptive research will be utilised to determine the use of e-business applications by businesses. A sample size of 330 businesses was used. The questionnaire was used for a pilot study conducted to improve the validity. The Cronbach alpha test was conducted to ascertain the reliability of the research instrument. Data were collected through the use of self-administered questionnaires in a survey. SPSS was used for data analysis. The results showed a clear exposition of the use of e-business applications, and the benefits that businesses experience when using e-business applications. Businesses experience several benefits when utilising e-business in their operational processes of developing value propositions. Business applications have a high impact on the operational performance of value propositions. E-business applications are easy and useful to implement in a business and provide relative inexpensive options for SME enterprises. Recommendations to businesses are to utilise e-business applications so that they are able to create and deliver value propositions in an efficient and effective manner.

Keywords: E-business, E-business applications, Benefits of e-business

1. Introduction

Internet technologies are changing the traditional ways of doing business (Kumar and Kumar, 2014:349). E-business is the use of online facilities that are utilised to create value propositions with the intention of meeting the needs of the society at large and also generating profit for the business (Mudholkar, Shanker & Maitra, 2013:513). Products and services that are produced using e-business applications lead to an increase in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), (Goldstuck, 2015:39). There is also a growing number of internet users worldwide (Shahriari, Shahriari & Gheiji, 2015:51). In developing countries, it was found that the utilisation of e-business is regarded as a necessity to improve participation in the world economy (Abou-Shouk, Lim & Megicks, 2016:327). Alyoubi (2015:480-481) found that in South Africa, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia (developing countries from Africa), the slow dissemination of e-business can be attributed to numerous economic issues. However, some African countries (Morocco, Tunisia, Senegal and Ivory Coast) made progress in their e-business links (Alyoubi, 2015:480-481).

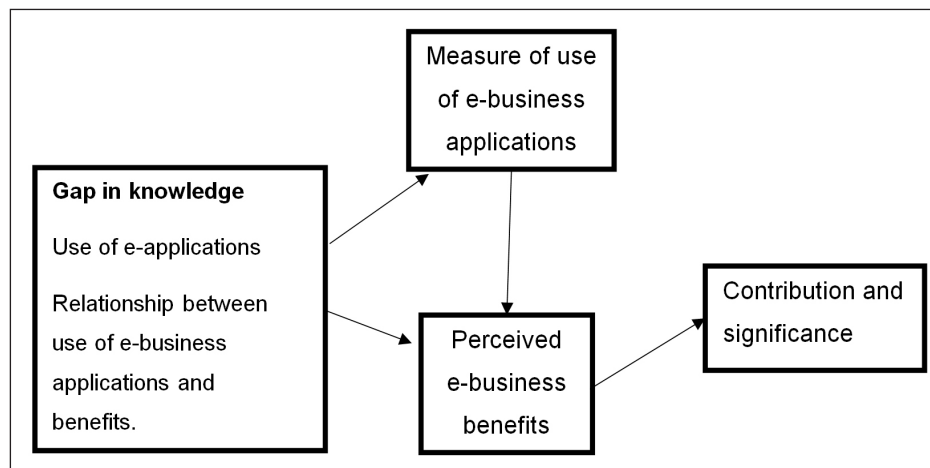
South Africa is a developing country that progressed quickly in internet adoption. The majority of the

country is already a "networked society" and currently the country's focus is to encourage e-business skills to achieve economic improvement through e-business benefits (Mbatha, 2013:10-11). E-business applications are defined as components of e-business such as e-commerce and e-marketing, which enable firms to perform their day-to-day activities. The applications enable the developing and delivering of value proposition to a firm's customers (Zott, Amit & Massa, 2011:6-7).

2. The Problem

E-business makes it possible for firms to produce goods and services for consumption by consumers using the internet. Beattie and Smith (2013:244) affirm that businesses create or develop new value proposition through the utilisation of interactive e-business applications. The problem is that the level of e-business utilisation in the Limpopo Province and how the utilisation affects operational performance of businesses, are unknown. This requires an investigation into the use of e-business applications and the benefits derived. The research will only focus on businesses that operate within the borders of Polokwane municipality.

Figure 1: Framework for Analysis - The Effect of e-Business Applications on the Development of Value Propositions



Source: Author's own concept

3. Aim of the Study

The study investigated the efficiency and effectiveness of e-business applications when used for the creation and delivering of value propositions. This helps business to have successful new business developments and also ensure that the businesses remain competitive. The objectives set for this study were:

- To identify the e-business applications that can be used in the development of new value propositions for businesses.
- To identify the benefits that the use of e-business applications offers to businesses.

4. Theoretical Basis for the Research

Zott and Amit (2013:5) state that value creation in a firm takes place with the business's activity system when skills, systems and procedures of a firm produce new products and services that constitute high quality functionality. Da Silva and Trkman (2013:1) state that a business model is a broad conceptualisation of a value proposition. The framework for analysis is outlined in Figure 1 above.

According to Boons and Lüdeke-Freud (2013:14), business models outline the economic exchange relationship between a firm and its stakeholders and further enable a firm to understand the economic basis of production and consumption logic when developing new products. Advancements in internet technology, offer new methods that firms can deploy when creating and distributing value propositions

(Breivold and Crnkovic, 2014:29). E-business applications allow firms to increase integration of their operational processes in order to become efficient and effective in value propositions (goods or services). The e-business applications used in this research are set out below:

E-Procurement

According to Baladhanadyutham and Venkatesh (2014:26), e-procurement is the application of e-business that consists of all procurement activities (including authorisation, purchase requests, orders, distribution and payments between the firm and its stakeholders) of a firm, which are electronically incorporated and managed.

E-Supply Chain

Hafeez, Koey, Zairi, Hanneman and Koh (2010:525) posit that e-supply chain is one of the e-business applications that is utilised when creating value propositions and define e-supply chain as the enabler of firms to become more flexible in the distribution of various products and result in shorter lead times for marketing of various products.

E-Marketing

E-marketing is an application of e-business. Rahimnia and Hassanzadeh (2013:242) describe e-marketing as the use of digital instruments to interact directly or indirectly with the stakeholders of the firm by circulating information related to the firm and its value propositions.

E-Logistics

According to Skitsko (2016:9), e-logistics is a composite scheme that includes producers, resellers, customers and logistics midpoints which occur over the internet to interchange data. It is an application of e-business that alleviates cross-functional efforts of supply chain consolidation.

E-Services

E-services are an application of e-business and are defined as services which are carried out by firms to provide value to customers through the mediation of information technology (Shambour & Lu, 2011:815).

Electronic Data Interchange (EDI)

According to Field (2016:24), EDI is an application of e-business that is utilised in value propositions, and it is further outlined as a record keeper and distributor of all information in the consignment system. Nicolau, Ibrahim and Van Heck (2013: 986) outline EDI as an application that eases cooperation in the execution of supply chain activities.

E-Selling

E-selling can be deployed in the development of value proposition and it is described as selling of products and services which is carried out through the internet with the intention of enhancing value proposition by assuring a common benefit from business interchange (Parvienan, Oinas-Kukkonen & Kaptein, 2015:214).

E-Collaboration

According to Rittgen (2010:24), e-collaboration is described as coactions between various individuals and firms through the utilisation of digital technologies to attain a mutual goal.

E-Payment

Kabir, Saidin and Ahmi (2015:112) describe e-payment as a system of purchasing goods and services; this purchasing system takes place among firms and their stakeholders through the utilisation of internet technologies.

Social Commerce

Zhou, Zhang and Zimmermann (2013:61) outline

social commerce as a class of commerce that includes the utilisation of internet-based media such as social media to enable firms and its stakeholders to make transactions among themselves.

E-Networks

Al-Washah, Al-Hyari, Abu-Elsamen and Al-Nsour (2013:142) is an inter-organisational information scheme that enables more than one buyer, seller and other stakeholders to engage and make transactions over the internet.

5. Benefits of E-Business

All businesses that adopted e-business in their day-to-day operations tend to experience significant, broad ranging and relevant benefits in their businesses (Abou-Shouk *et al.*, 2016:491). According to Jahanshahi, Zhang and Brem (2013:850-851), e-business is accompanied by many opportunities and benefits that firms only realise or receive when e-business is adopted and utilised in their operational processes.

This study uses the value chain of the operations of businesses to categorise the benefits of e-business as shown in Table 1 on the following page. The last column shows the generic operational performance measures according to Slack *et al.* (2010:608). The measures of operational performance for value proposition benefits are discussed below. In order to measure the benefits that e-business present to businesses, performance yardsticks are employed. Benefits of value proposition effects can be measured in operational performance improvements.

6. Methods and Materials

The research followed a positivistic approach to enable the researcher to evaluate the relationship between variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011:271; Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013:254). The population studied was businesses that operate within Polokwane Municipality (Hanlon & Larget, 2011:7). A list of these businesses was obtained from the Polokwane Local Municipality. The population size was one thousand, nine hundred (1 900) businesses. A random sampling method was utilised in order to allow each unit of the population to have an equal probability of inclusion (Bryman & Bell, 2011:175-176). The random sample was obtained from the list supplied by the Polokwane Municipality and a

Table 1: Categorisation System of E-Business Benefits

Supply side suppliers, wholesalers, business	Primary core value chain functions	Sell-side partners such as exchanges, wholesalers, distributors	Support side partners such as finance, human resources and admin	Generic Operational Performance measures
Help firms to serve better the needs as well as the expectations of their consumers (Dube, Chitura and Runyowa, 2010: 5).	Higher quality productivity (Dube <i>et al.</i> , 2010: 5).	Provide high quality services (Olatokun and Kebonye, 2010: 44).	Improved efficiency in the workplace (Dube <i>et al.</i> , 2010: 5).	Quality
Enable firms to execute data transactions along activities of the value chain (Dube <i>et al.</i> , 2010: 5).	Fulfilments of orders and cycle time (Alshomrani and Qamar, 2013: 15).	Accessible anywhere, at any time (Dube <i>et al.</i> , 2010: 5).	Quicker in rendering services (Alshomrani and Qamar, 2013: 15).	Dependability
Flexibility in offerings (such as variety of product or services) (Abid <i>et al.</i> , 2011: 1)	Enable re-engineering business processes (Alshomrani and Qamar, 2013: 15)	Enable access to worldwide markets (Abid <i>et al.</i> , 2011: 3).	Enable firms to communicate with its employees and other stakeholders at the same time (Abid <i>et al.</i> , 2011: 1).	Flexibility
Increasing speed with which goods can be dispatched (Olatokun and Kebonye, 2010: 43).	Improve efficiency in sharing of information (Shorkovy, 2015: 44).	Enable quicker retailing response (Olatokun and Kebonye, 2010: 43).	Enable an employer to communicate with many employees at the same time (Shorkovy, 2015: 44).	Speed
Lower marketing costs (Fauska, Kryvinska and Strauss, 2013:41)	Lower transaction costs (Fauska <i>et al.</i> , 2013:41)	Overhead costs are minimised (Fauska <i>et al.</i> , 2013:41).	Lead to lower costs of communication and administration (Shorkovy, 2015: 44-45).	Cost

Source: Authors

Table 2: Categorisation of Business Sectors

Business sectors	Categories
Academic	Academics
Local government	Government
National government	
Parastatal	
Provincial government	
Restaurant	Hospitality
Hospitality	
Motor Industry	Manufacturing
Manufacturing	
Telecommunication	Service Provider
Banking	
Energy Efficiency	
Pest Control Hygiene and Cleaning	
Logistics services	
Audio visual	
Retail	
Service provider	
Telecommunication	
Wholesale	

Source: Authors

Table 3: Cronbach's Alpha Test

	Mean if Item Deleted	Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Electronic Data Interchange	31.71	41.469	0.404	0.696
E-Operations	31.12	44.204	0.385	0.699
E-Services	31.41	44.614	0.338	0.706
E-Supply Chain	31.78	41.901	0.490	0.682
E-Logistics	32.11	41.468	0.436	0.690
E-Procurement	31.53	43.908	0.334	0.707
Social Networks	31.65	44.803	0.247	0.722
E-Payment	31.11	46.207	0.211	0.725
E-Design	32.90	40.731	0.426	0.692
E-Catalogues	31.88	41.231	0.569	0.671

Source: Authors

random number generator was used to select the intended respondents. A self-administered survey was used since a higher response rate of self-administered surveys has been found when compared with other techniques of collecting data (Cooper & Schindler, 2011:242-243). Yamane's (1967:886) formula was utilised to calculate the sample size of this study. The sample size calculated was 330 businesses. Three hundred and thirty questionnaires were distributed to businesses in Polokwane Local Municipality via e-mail. The researcher made a follow up through e-mail to ensure that the respondents answer and return the questionnaires and a response rate of 44,5% was achieved. As can be seen from Table 2 on the previous page the business sectors were well spread out and the response rate was therefore deemed acceptable.

This study's questionnaire consists of close-ended questions. Close-ended questionnaires were used in this study because they are better suited for computer analysis to determine the relationships and therefore simple to analyse (Murthy & Bhojanna, 2010:106). After the completion of the data collection process, the questionnaires were edited and data collected were coded and captured (Bryman *et al.*, 2011:302-303). Descriptive statistical methods were used to determine the frequencies of use for E-applications, operation performance measures and ease of implementation of the different e-applications. (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013:245). A Likert scale was used (Bryman & Bell, 2011:313; Burns & Burns, 2008:368). A pilot study using ten respondents was employed to help improve reliability. Changes to the questionnaire

were then made, based on the problems incurred in the pilot study (Arain, Campbell, Cooper & Lancaster, 2010:1). The Cronbach Alpha test was utilised to assess internal consistency of the question items (Bless *et al.*, 2013:229). Cronbach alphas of above 0.7 were used to ascertain if there was internal consistency among the questions measuring the different constructs.

Table 3 indicates the Cronbach's alpha test for e-business applications. The Cronbach alpha test result for four items suggests that there is relatively high internal consistency of the questions. Some of the e-business applications (such electronic data interchange, e-operations, e-supply chain, e-logistics, e-design and e-catalogues) have a Cronbach's Alpha test value that is near to 0,7 and they are accepted because the study is investigating the research questions, not testing hypotheses. A statistical expert was consulted to evaluate the research instrument for conceptual clarity to better validity. The questionnaire was developed based on the theory discussed above. As this theory is generally accepted, the questionnaire should have an acceptable level of validity.

7. Results and Discussion

7.1 Frequencies of Use of E-Business Applications

The analysis of the e-business applications is presented in Table 4 on the next page that indicates the frequency and percentage of each e-business application.

Table 4: E-business Applications Used by Businesses

	EDI		E-OPERATIONS		E-SERVICES		E-SUPPLY CHAIN		E-LOGISTICS		E-PROCUREMENT		SOCIAL NETWORKS		E-PAYMENT		E-DESIGN		E-CATALOGUES	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Never	27	18.4	7	4.8	12	8.2	17	11.7	35	23.8	17	11.6	24	16.3	14	9.5	74	50.3	11	7.5
Yearly	10	6.8	8	5.4	6	4.1	14	9.5	6	4.1	7	4.8	8	5.4	5	3.4	12	8.2	24	16.3
Monthly	23	15.6	26	17.7	32	21.8	33	22.4	40	27.2	33	22.4	23	15.6	13	8.8	20	13.6	45	30.6
Weekly	31	21.1	25	17	42	28.6	49	33.3	36	24.5	34	23.1	41	27.9	30	20.4	19	12.9	34	23.1
Daily	56	38.1	81	55.1	55	37.4	34	23.1	30	20.4	56	28.1	51	34.7	85	57.8	22	15	33	22.4
Total	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100

Source: Authors

7.2 Percentage per Period Use of E-Business Applications

The figures below indicate the use of e-business applications. The numbers below are developed out of the percentages that are shown in Table 4 above.

Figure 2 shows 50.3% of businesses do not use e-design. It is concluded that the majority of businesses in the study area do not use e-design, while the minority of the businesses in the study area do not use e-operations at all.

Figure 3 indicates that the majority of businesses use e-catalogues yearly, while the minority of businesses in the study area use e-payment yearly.

Figure 4 shows that only 8.8 % of businesses do use e-payment. It is concluded that 30,6% businesses use e-catalogues.

Figure 5 indicates that 33.3% of businesses use e-supply chain weekly and the others are used even less. It is therefore concluded that the majority of businesses do not use e-applications on a weekly basis.

Figure 6 indicates that the majority of businesses use e-payment daily, while a minority of businesses in the study area make use of e-design on daily basis.

Table 5 indicates the categorisation of the use of e-business applications. The businesses in the study

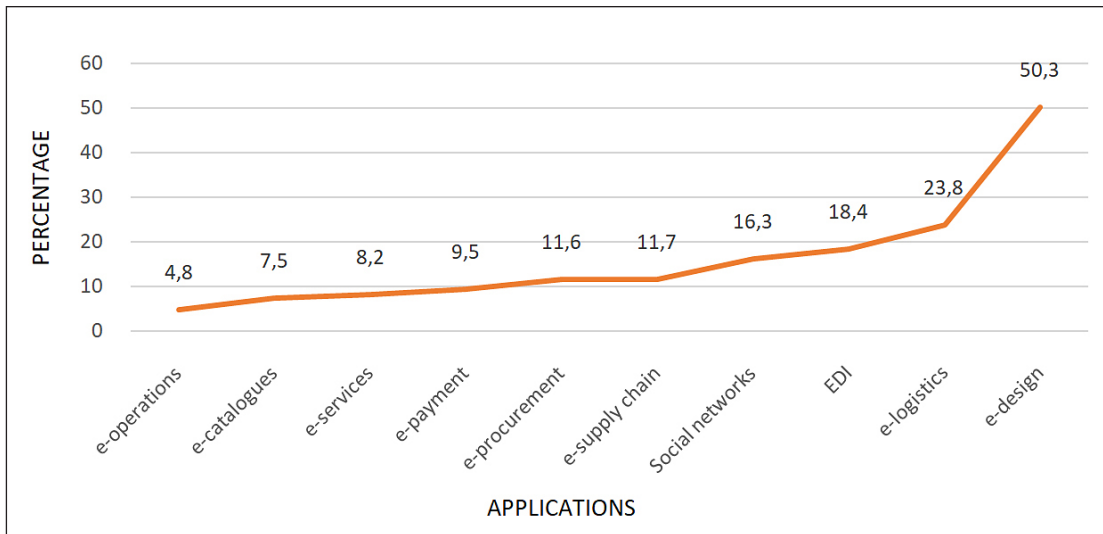
area have high use of electronic data interchange, e-operations, e-services, e-operations, e-payment, social networks and e-procurement. The businesses in the study area have medium use of e-catalogues, e-logistics and e-supply chain. The businesses in the study area have low use of e-design.

It is concluded that businesses have high use of electronic data interchange, e-operations, services, e-operations, e-payment, social networks and e-procurement because businesses use them to carry out their day-to-day activities; that businesses monthly use e-catalogues, e-logistics and e-supply chain for monthly promotions; that businesses in the study area utilise e-design at a low level because they are the subdivisions of large businesses that are in Gauteng. The secondary data also confirm the use of e-business applications by businesses in their operational performances of developing value propositions (Wiengarten *et al.*, 2015:4963; Breivold & Crnkovic, 2014:29).

7.3 E-Business Benefits

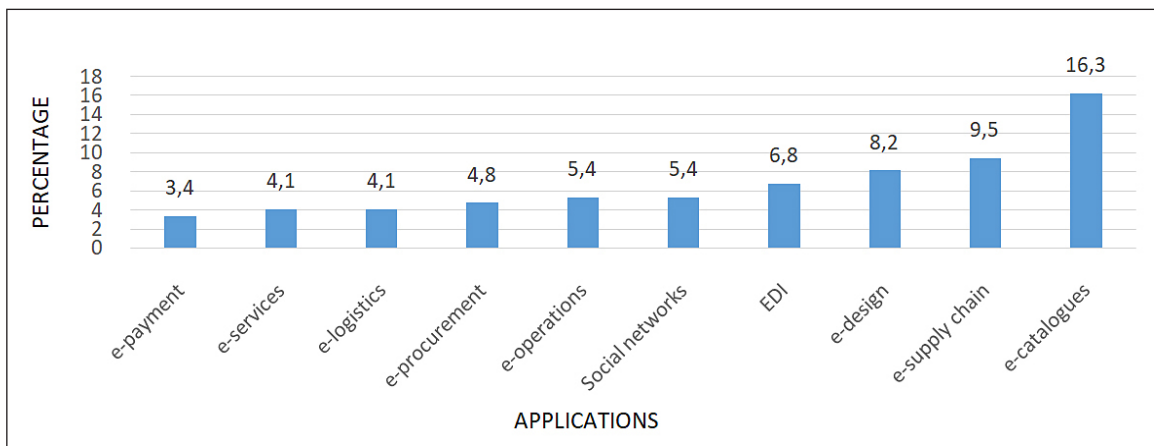
The e-business benefits that businesses experience when utilising e-business applications in the development of value propositions are indicated and discussed below. The e-business benefits are represented by e-business benefits database in framework for analyses (Figure 1). The e-business benefits database is the data that were collected from the businesses that operate within the study area (Limpopo Province).

Figure 2: Percentage of Businesses that Do Not Use Specific E-Business Applications



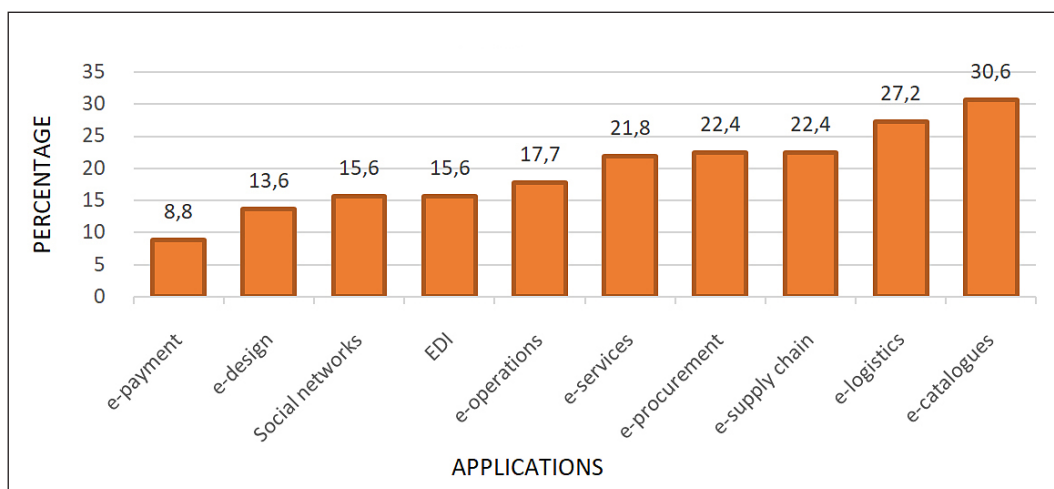
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Figure 3: E-Business Applications Used Yearly



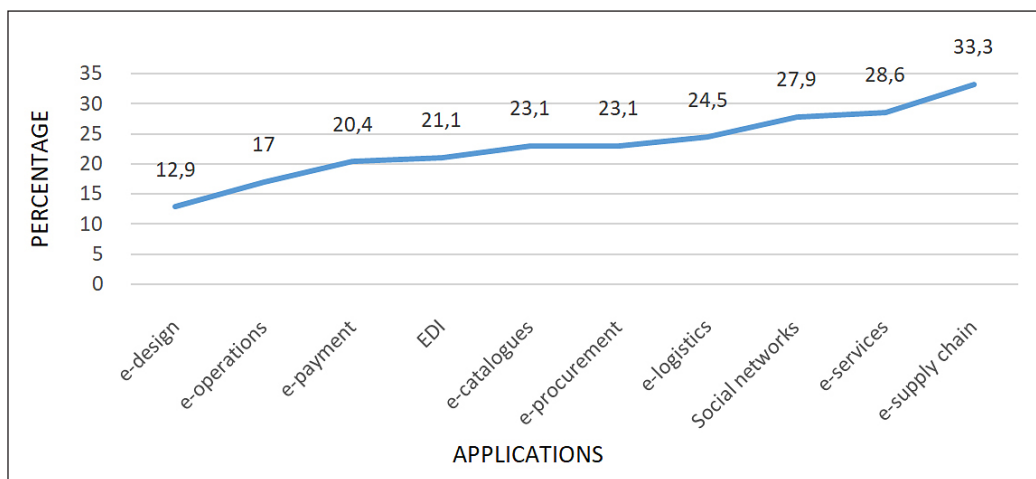
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Figure 4: E-Business Applications Used Monthly



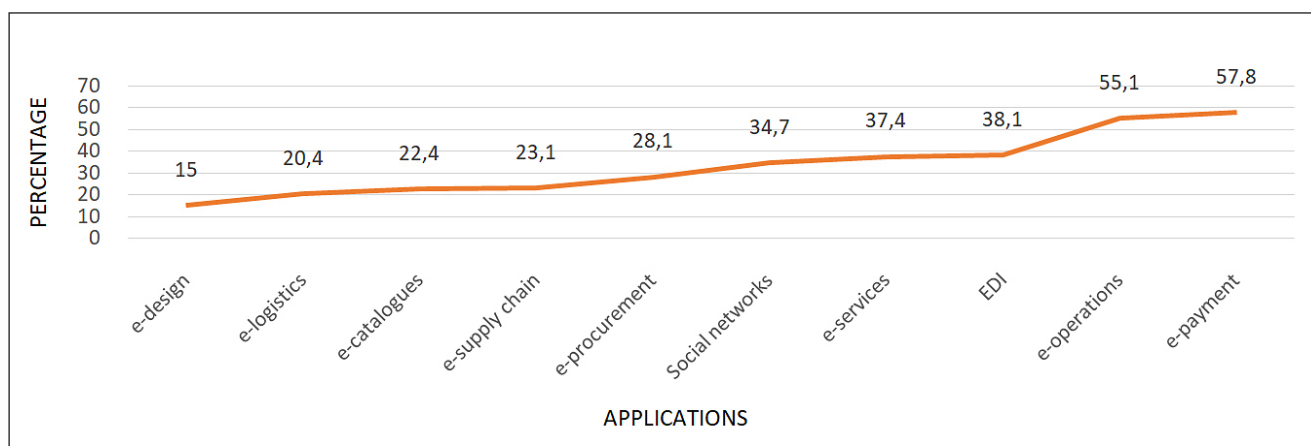
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Figure 5: E-Business Applications Used Weekly



Source: Authors

Figure 6: E-Business Applications Used Daily



Source: Authors

Table 5: Classification of the Use of E-Business Applications

Low	Medium	High
E-Design	E-Catalogues E-Logistics E-Supply Chain	Electronic Data Interchange E-Operations E-Services E-Payment Social Networks E-Procurement

Source: Authors

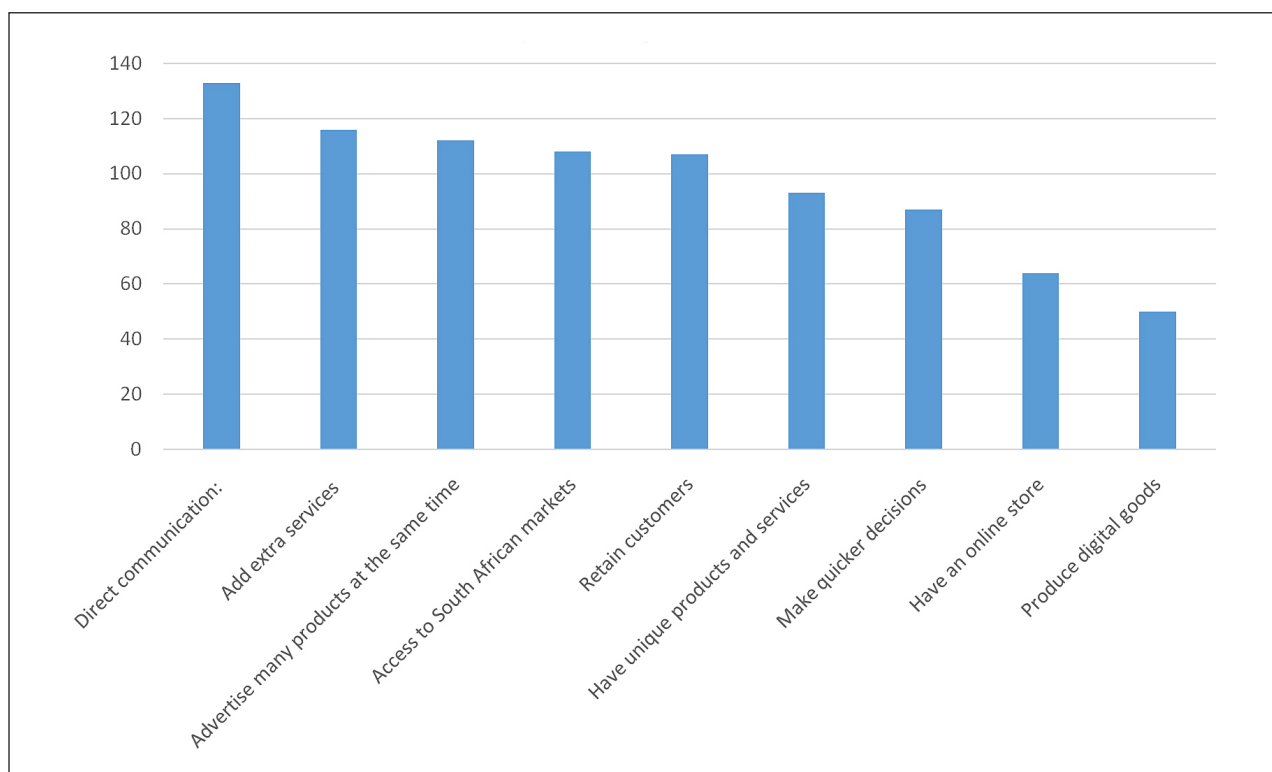
The figures below indicate the benefits of use of e-business.

E-business allows businesses to advertise many products at the same time. The results concur with the study of Fauska, Kryvinska and Strauss (2013:41) on the fact that e-business allows a firm to advertise many products at the same time.

The results show that when businesses use e-business, it allows them to access South African markets. According to Abid, Rahim and Scheepers (2011:3), the use of e-business enables businesses to access worldwide markets.

The use of e-business allows firms to make quicker decisions. The results concur with Olatokun and

Figure 7: Benefits of Use of E-Business



Source: Authors

Kebonye (2010:43) on the fact that e-business enables businesses to make quicker decisions.

The use of e-business does not enable businesses to produce digital good(s). The findings disagree with the study of Jahanshahi, Zhang and Brem (2013: 850-851) on the fact that e-business enables firms to produce digital goods.

The use of e-business allows businesses to add extra services to a product at little cost. The findings accord with Fauska *et al.* (2013:41) on the fact that e-business when utilised allows a firm to add extra services to a product at little cost.

The utilisation of e-business allows businesses to have unique products and services. The results concur with Abid, Rahim and Scheepers (2011:1) on the fact that e-business when used enables businesses to have unique products and services.

E-business ensures direct communication between the business and its stakeholders. The results accord with Abid, Rahim and Scheepers (2011:1) on the fact that e-business when utilised ensures direct communication between the business and its stakeholders.

E-business does not enable a business to have an online store. The results contrast with Dube, Chitura and Runyowa (2010:5) on the fact that e-business enables a business to have an online store.

E-business allows businesses to retain customers. The findings accord with Alshomrani and Qamar (2013:15) on the fact that e-business when used, allows a business to retain customers.

7.4 Improvement in Operational Performance

The operational performance measures indicate the impact of e-business applications on operational performance in the development of value propositions.

Table 6 outlines the operational performance measures. The table above indicates the frequencies and percentages of operational performance.

The figures below are developed with the percentages of operational performance measures shown in Table 6.

7.5 Consistency of Producing Products

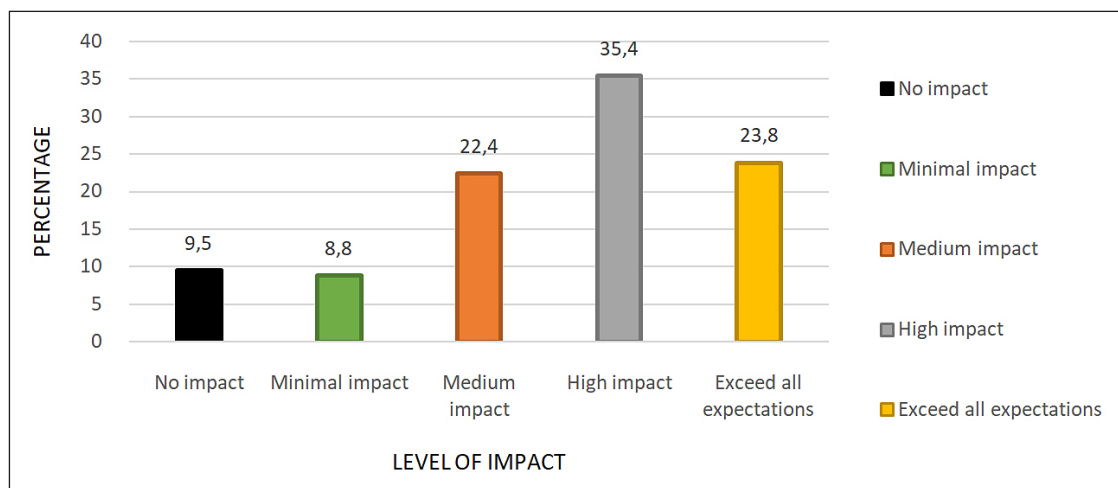
Figure 8 indicates that 35.4% of businesses experience high impact in the consistency of producing

Table 6: Operational Performance Measures

	Consistency in the production of high quality		Enhance productivity		Fast and easy interaction among a firm and customers		Minimum cost of producing		Present opportunities for interactive design of products		Quick product and service delivery		Dynamic and flexible digital catalogue		More attention to customer queries and problems	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No impact	14	9.5	8	5.4	2	1.4	6	4.1	35	23.8	2	1.4	9	6.1	16	10.9
Minimal impact	13	8.8	12	8.2	17	11.6	18	12.2	16	10.9	14	9.5	14	9.5	21	14.3
Medium impact	33	22.4	28	19.0	24	16.3	36	24.5	38	25.9	37	25.2	28	19.0	31	21.1
High impact	52	35.4	49	33.3	73	49.7	60	40.8	36	24.5	60	40.8	50	34.0	37	25.2
Exceed all expectations	35	23.8	50	34.0	31	21.1	27	18.4	22	15.0	34	23.1	46	31.3	42	28.6
Total	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100	147	100

Source: Authors

Figure 8: Consistency of High Quality Production



Source: Authors

high quality products and 23.8% businesses experience impact that exceeds all expectations in the consistency of producing high quality products using e-business.

7.6 Enhanced Productivity

Figure 9 illustrates that 33.3% of businesses experience high impact and 34% of businesses experience impact that exceeds all expectations on the enhancement of productivity. It is therefore concluded that the majority of businesses in the study area experience high impact while the minority of businesses in the study area don't experience impact on the enhancement of productivity when using e-business.

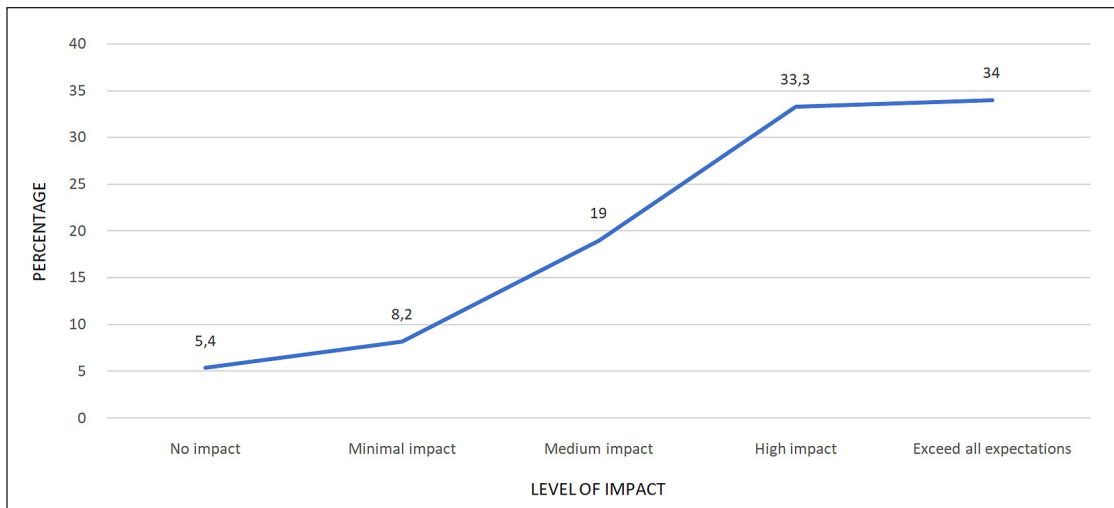
7.7 Interaction Between a Firm and Its Customers

Figure 10 shows that, 1.4% of businesses experience no impact on fast and easy interaction between a firm and its customers when using e-business, while 70.8% of businesses experience a high impact on fast and easy interaction between a firm and customers.

7.8 Ensure Minimum Cost of Production

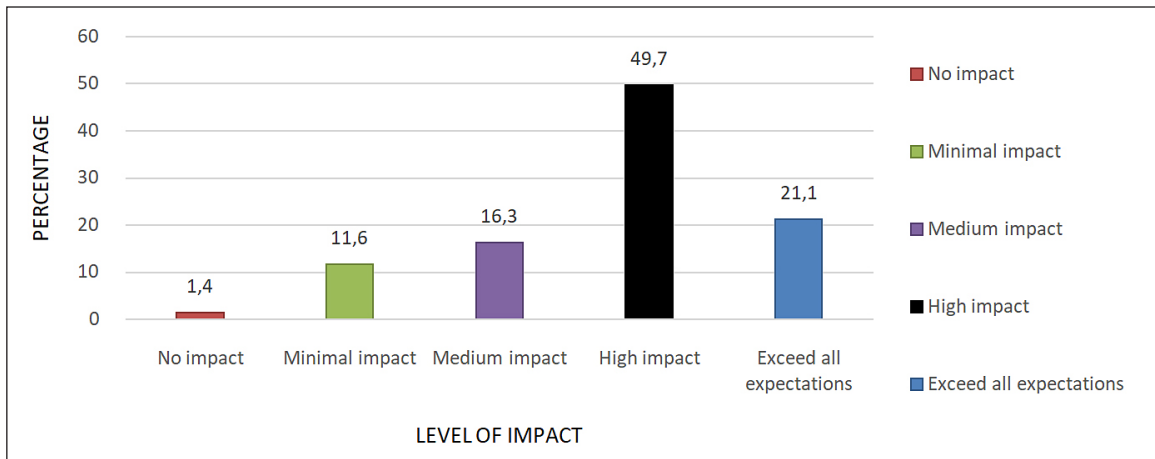
Figure 11 indicates that the majority of businesses in the study area experience high impact when using e-business to ensure minimum cost of producing, while the minority of businesses in the study area don't experience an impact.

Figure 9: Enhanced Productivity



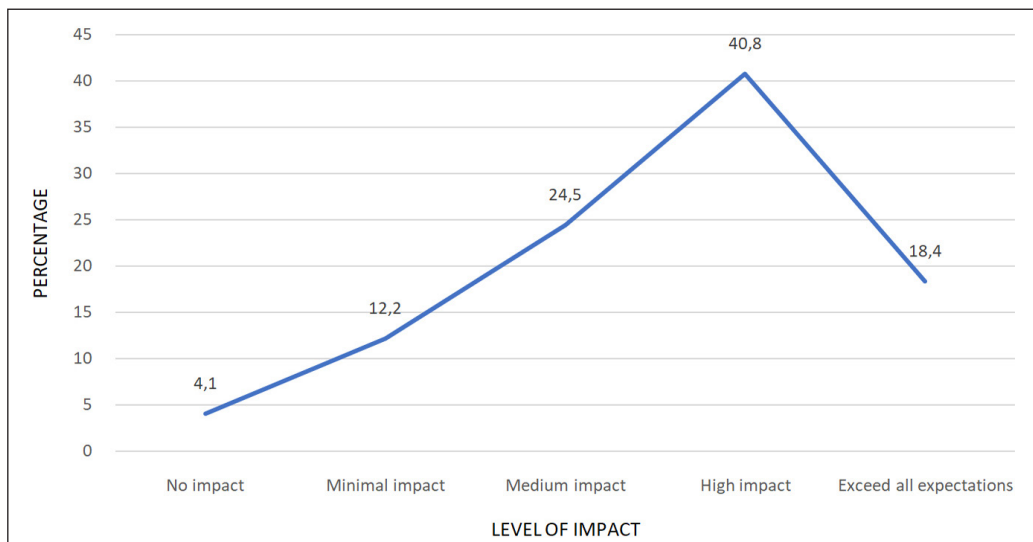
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Figure 10: Interaction Among a Firm and its Customers



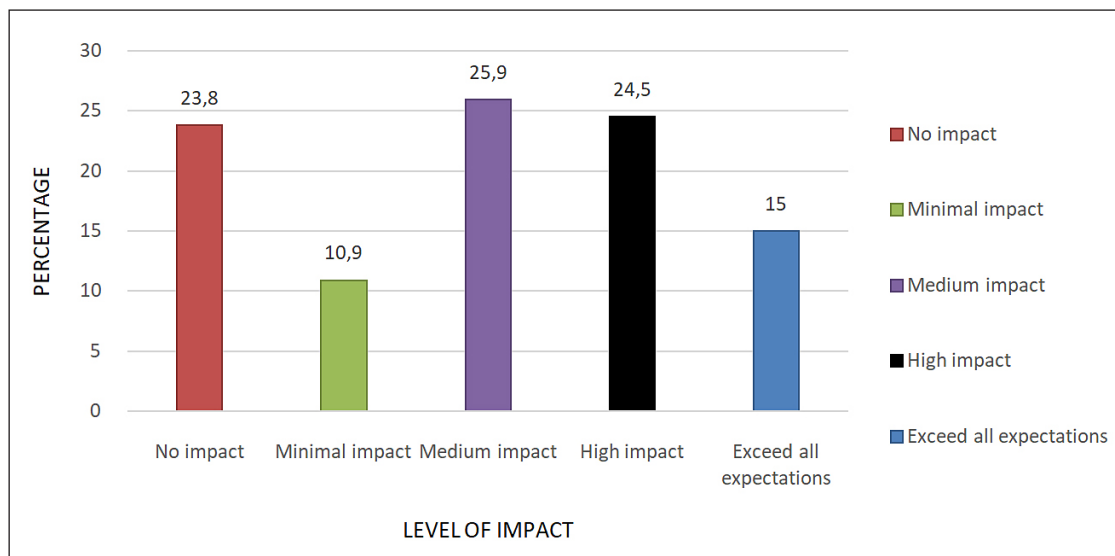
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Figure 11: Minimum Cost of Production



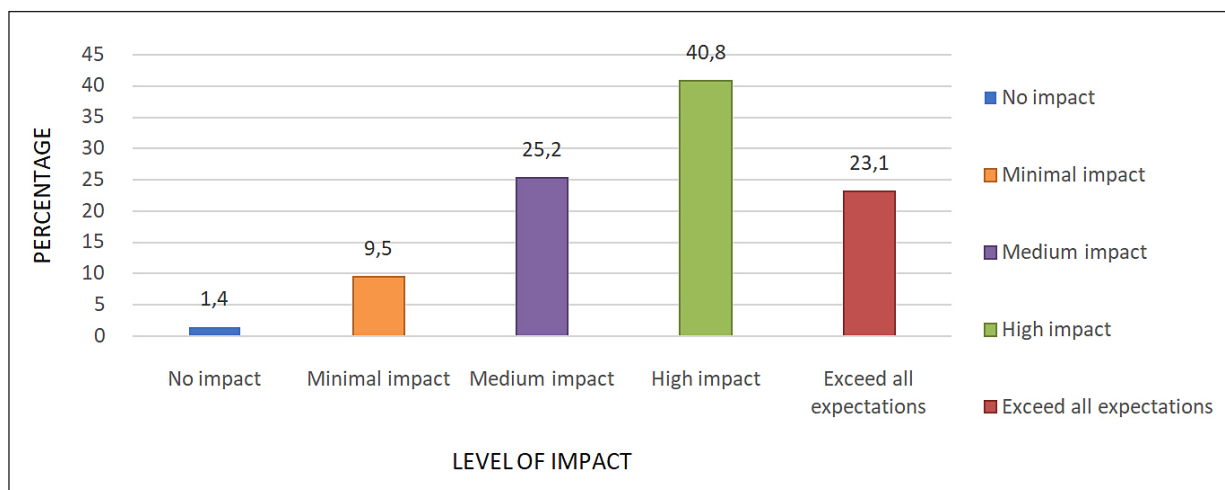
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Figure 12: Interactive Design of Products



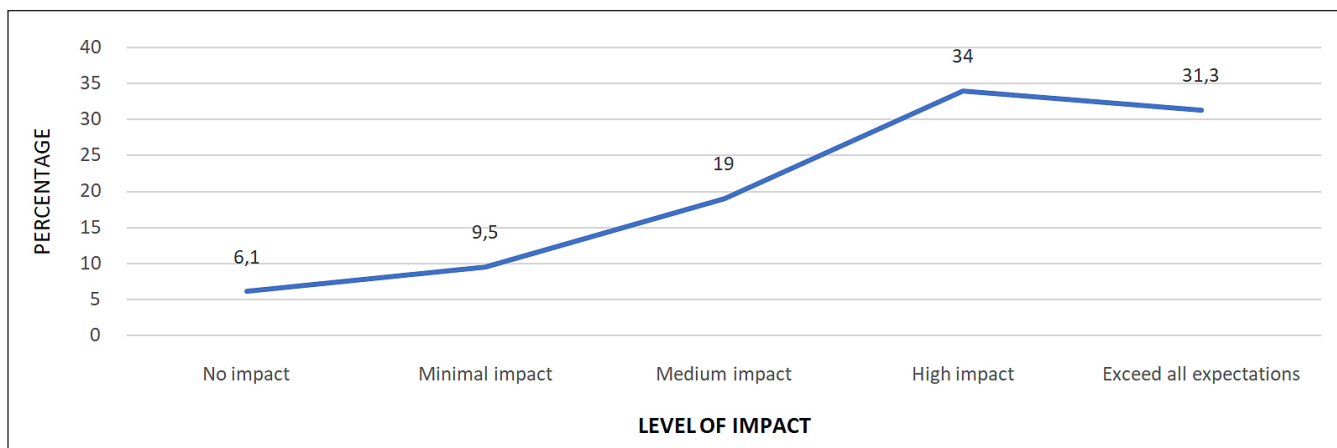
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Figure 13: Quick Product and Service Delivery



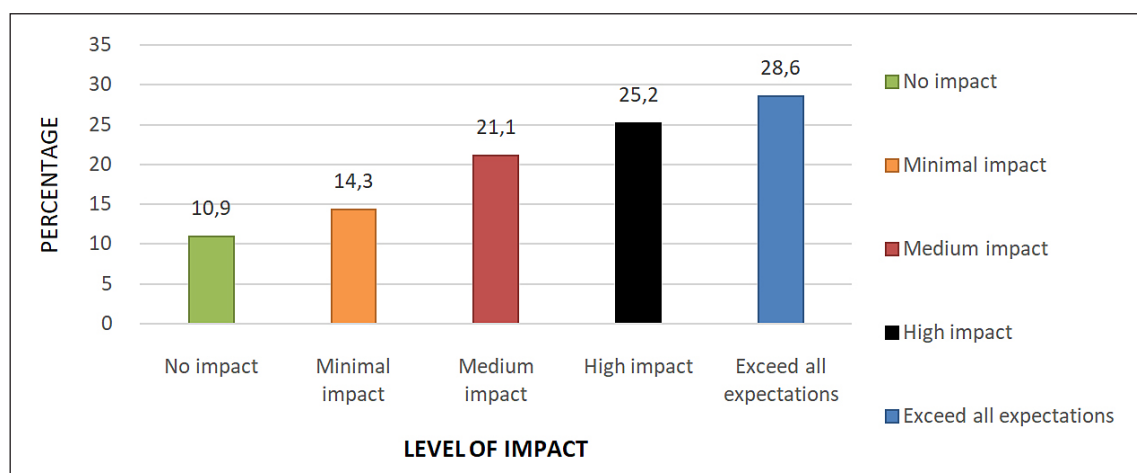
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Figure 14: Ensure Dynamic and Flexible Digital Catalogue



Source: Authors

Figure 15: Customer Queries



Source: Authors

7.9 Interactive Design of Products

Results from Figure 12 indicate that the majority of businesses in the study area experience an impact when using e-business for interactive design of products, while minority of business experience minimal impact when using e-business to present opportunities for interactive design of products.

7.10 Product and Service Delivery

Figure 13 shows that concluded that the majority of businesses in the study area experience a high impact when using e-business to enable quick product and service delivery.

7.11 Digital Catalogues

Figure 14 illustrates that the majority of businesses in the study area experience high impact when using e-business to ensure dynamic and flexible digital catalogue.

7.12 Customer Queries

Figure 15 indicates that 10.9% don't experience impact while 28.6% experience impact that exceeds all expectations when using e-business to enable more attention to customer queries and problems.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study reaffirms that businesses make use of e-business applications in creating and delivering value propositions. The following e-business applications are mostly used by most of the businesses:

electronic data interchange, e-operations, e-services, e-supply chain, e-logistics, e-procurement, social networks, and e-catalogues. The results further illustrate that majority of businesses do not make use of e-design in the delivering of value of propositions, because businesses in the study area are subdivisions of large businesses. The study clearly outlined the e-business applications that businesses utilise in the development of new value propositions. This study will influence businesses to take e-business into consideration as a key strategy to achieve better performance. The study will help businesses to know the important role that e-business plays in an organisation.

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Exploring the Effects of the Use of Interactive Whiteboard on Teachers Professional Development in South African High Schools

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Abstract: The paper evaluates the effects teacher development in the use of the interactive whiteboard (IWB) when teaching. This comes as a result that technology continuously evolves and requires teachers using the interactive whiteboard to remain lifelong learners in the area of technology. More time and resources should be allocated to facilitate professional development of teachers and make teachers familiar with the interactive features of the IWB. A literature review approach in this paper highlights inputs from different writers and later discusses findings and provides recommendations from a South African perspective on professional teacher development in the use of IWBs. This paper takes the form of a qualitative method and as a result a case study research design was selected for this study. Data were collected by means of interviews and observations. Data were analysed using ATLAS.ti version 6.2. The education district involved in the study has 41 high schools with about 1457 teachers but only 36 high schools had the IWBs installed and functioning. A non-probability sampling called convenience method was used to sample the population and 23 teachers from 22 schools were sampled. The results show that challenges encountered by teachers relate to the ineffective training methods, lack of follow-ups sessions as well as the lack of on-going training. In a study conducted in Tshwane North district, South Africa, the following question was asked: How is the teacher professional development conducted on the use of IWBs in teaching and learning? The study further revealed that teachers received professional development on the use of IWB. However, it was found in this study that the training was not enough in terms of the duration, and that training was only about how to learn the technical use of the IWB. Most of the teachers reported that training took two hours in the afternoon, three months, twice a week, every Wednesday, and after school. The study further revealed that poor IWB development caused frustrations when teachers had to utilise the IWB in class. When effectively used, IWB add the visual impact, assist in the learning process, increase active participation and engagement, and creates excitement and a positive attitude to learning. We recommend that professional teacher development in the use of IWB in both technical and pedagogical aspects be a priority for successful use of this technology in schools. In this regard adequate teacher development could assist in eliminating a trend where the IWB is used by teachers as a projector to show videos or books but promote the interactivity provided by the features of this tool.

Keywords: Interactive whiteboard, Professional development, High Schools, South Africa

1. Introduction

Globally, the interactive whiteboards (IWB) has gained popularity and wide acceptance in classroom teaching and learning processes most of the school has invested in them. The advent of the 4th industrial revolution driven by automisation economy whereby the world is becoming more and more digitalised, this drives the education to follow suit (Kloos, 2018). In fact, Education 4.0 promotes the use of current technologies such as interactive whiteboard in education because of the nature of resource presentation and on learning processes, affecting the development of thinking skills, encoding and retention of information, and interaction between students and teachers (Kloos, 2018). In this

case, IWB support education to meet the requirements of the 4th industrial revolution. In the current decades, the IWB is relatively common educational tool in high schools that also supports Education 4.0. The concept of Education 4.0 arises from the fourth industrial revolution whereby education is expected to align itself with. Thus the introduction of information and communication technologies (ICT) in education saw education taking advantage of the technology but with massive challenges (Intelitek, 2018). And, there should a revisit to the educational paradigms to accommodate technology (Intelitek, 2018).

In this case the benefits of the use of the IWB include improvement of whole-class teaching, fostering

of student engaging learning, and can be used as an experiment tool in teaching practical subjects (Gregorcic, Etikan & Planinsic, 2018). This benefit is further stressed by Shi, Peng, Yang & Macleod (2018) where they stated that IWB develops high levels of academic self-efficacy and invigorate more opportunities for students to interact with their teachers, fellow students and the content being taught. The benefits of the IWB go further to influence the teaching strategies the 21st teacher. This view is supported by Kearney, Schuck, Aubusson & Burke (2018) and White (2018) where they point out that the IWB is used and valued for instructional purposes. The benefits in the use of IWBs in teaching and learning further stated by Schneider (2018:19), "Students who utilised the IWB in their classrooms showed improvement in focus, enthusiasm, and academic focus".

In this regard, technology continuously evolves and requires teachers using the IWB to remain lifelong learners in the area of technology. In fact, more time and resources should be allocated to facilitate professional development of teachers and make teachers familiar with the pedagogical interactive features of the IWB. The effective use of IWBs requires teachers to understand the methods of interactive teaching. Consequently, this needs more appropriate training but also teachers need continuing professional development to ensure their growth and improvement (Ninlawan, 2015). It is argued that teacher training is important because teachers are critical agents in mediating the software; integration of the board and software into the subject aims of the lesson (Bayar, 2014). This research carried out in South Africa shows that many teachers attended the basic training for using the IWBs when it was first introduced. On the other hand, the challenges encountered by teachers in professional development relate to the ineffective training methods which include among others lack of follow-ups sessions as well as the lack of on-going training (Gutierrez & Kim, 2017). It is pointed out that teachers discontinue using IWBs in the regular classroom lesson delivery, because of the lack of ongoing and practical training on the integration and use of this technology (Gutierrez & Kim, 2017). The paper would like to answer the following research question: How is the teacher professional development conducted on the use of IWBs in teaching and learning? In order to answer the main question participants were asked to participate in four observation questions and two interview questions.

The observation were based on the following: How do teachers use IWB during the lessons; How efficient are teachers using the IWB in presenting the lesson; By using the IWB what is the confidence or self-esteem of the teacher; And what are the challenges encountered by teachers during the lesson when using IWB; The interviews were based on the following questions: Did you receive training on the use of IWB? Yes/No elaborate on the training, and How do you use IWB in class?

2. Literature Review

Professional development of teachers is argued that it has a potential to deal with the main pedagogical orientations in the use of IWBs and should be regarded as essential (Burke, Schuck, Aubusson, Kearney, & Frischknecht, 2018; Comi, Argentin, Gui, Origo, & Pagani, 2017). However, Richards, Bladdek & Okamoto (2018:11), and Karsenti (2016) argue that IWB training should focus on the interactive features of the IWB. This is a view shared by Sanders & George (2017) that the focal point of professional development should not only be on the technical use of IWB or pedagogical aspects in isolation but should instead include ICT skills, pedagogy, and subject teaching in every respect. Furthermore, McKnight, O'Malley, Ruzic, Horsley, Franey & Bassett (2016) stress out that the discharge of technologies in schools should not center on the technology itself but that attention should be on teacher-centered professional development. This view is further stressed by Schneider (2018:34) that, "We must promote interactivity in the teacher training in order to promote our teachers to teach interactively".

In addition, Gregorcic, Etkina & Planinsic (2018) point out that more time and resources should be allocated to facilitating professional development of teachers in the utilisation of IWBs. This view is supported by Aksu & Öztürk (2018) wherein some instances teachers using the IWB in teaching and learning indicated that it was essential for them to receive training on the use of IWB. Accordingly, Tatli & Kiliç (2016) propagate the inclusion of IWB training programs for undergraduate students and pre-service teachers. Schneider (2018) emphasises that the level of training in the use of the IWB by teachers and level of interactivity when using the IWB has a great impact on education results. In addition, White (2018) found out that in some instances teachers training focussed mainly on the practical operations of the features of the IWB ignoring its importance

as a teaching tool. White (2018) further highlighted that it was a common practice for teachers to be afforded little training which on the one hand compromises the effective use. Proper training leads to the creation of interest in learners and makes teaching easy as it motivates learners to learn (Sheikh, Ahmad-Baig, Munir, Habib & Gulzar, 2018).

However, Gregorcic *et al.* (2018) and White (2018) identify negativity towards the use of IWBs by teachers due to lack of training, enthusiasm for the new technology, or training been too short to prepare teachers adequately. Furthermore, Sheik, *et al.* (2018) states that in some situations schools received IWBs with little training been offered and that resulted in the project failing due lack of professional development. In some instances, insufficient and not satisfactory professional development is observed (Ackay, Arslan & Guven, 2015).

2.1 The Importance of Professional Teacher Development

The importance of teacher professional development on the use of IWBs is stressed by McKnight *et al.* (2016) who argues that teachers who successfully implement technology change the way they teach the curriculum and some other teachers can learn by observing their peers using the IWB (Richards, Bladek & Okamoto, 2018). This is a view shared by Tunaboynu & Demir (2016) who points out that IWBs allows the use of diverse classroom instruction models in order to offer effective and efficient learning which caters for learning differences among learners. Accordingly, Alghamdi & Higgins (2015) highlighted the benefits of adequate professional development on the use of IWBs as production of active lessons; enhance teachers' satisfaction and desire for teaching; increase teachers' skills, confidence and enjoyment; enhance teaching abilities and improve creativity; aid teachers to be autonomous and self-guided learners, and develop teachers' IWBs skills.

Generally, teacher development is viewed as an important aspect of empowering teachers (Carpenter & Linton, 2018). The above mentioned view is stressed by Schneider (2018:33) that, "Through training and practice, teachers will become comfortable enough to effect students' learning outcomes through the interactive use of Smart Boards and all interactive whiteboards". Training of teachers in the use IWB plays a vital role as proper, adequate and

continued training reduce anxiety among teachers (White, 2018). IWB poses the possibilities to improve pedagogy if effective training on how to use the technology is implemented (Habeeb, 2018). The importance of training teachers on how to use IWB also brings diversity in the classroom, allows teachers to keep notes and it is reported that using the IWB in teaching and learning is more effective than any other ordinary teaching aid in schools (Hasan & Ibraheem, 2018).

3. Methods and Materials

A qualitative method was used in this study. This method was preferred based on the type and size of the targeted population and sample. Furthermore, a case study research design was selected for this study.

3.1 Population and Sampling

Population of this study is 1457 high school teachers who use or had functional IWBs installed in their classrooms in the Gauteng province, Tshwane North District of South Africa. Participants were selected using convenience sampling. The participants were selected because they were available, accessible and the statistical inferences were made about the data (White, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The researchers sampled 18 teachers from 18 schools for interviews and 5 teachers were sampled from a different set of four schools to participate in the observations. In total 23 teachers were sampled from 22 of the 36 high schools who had IWBs installed.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments and Procedure

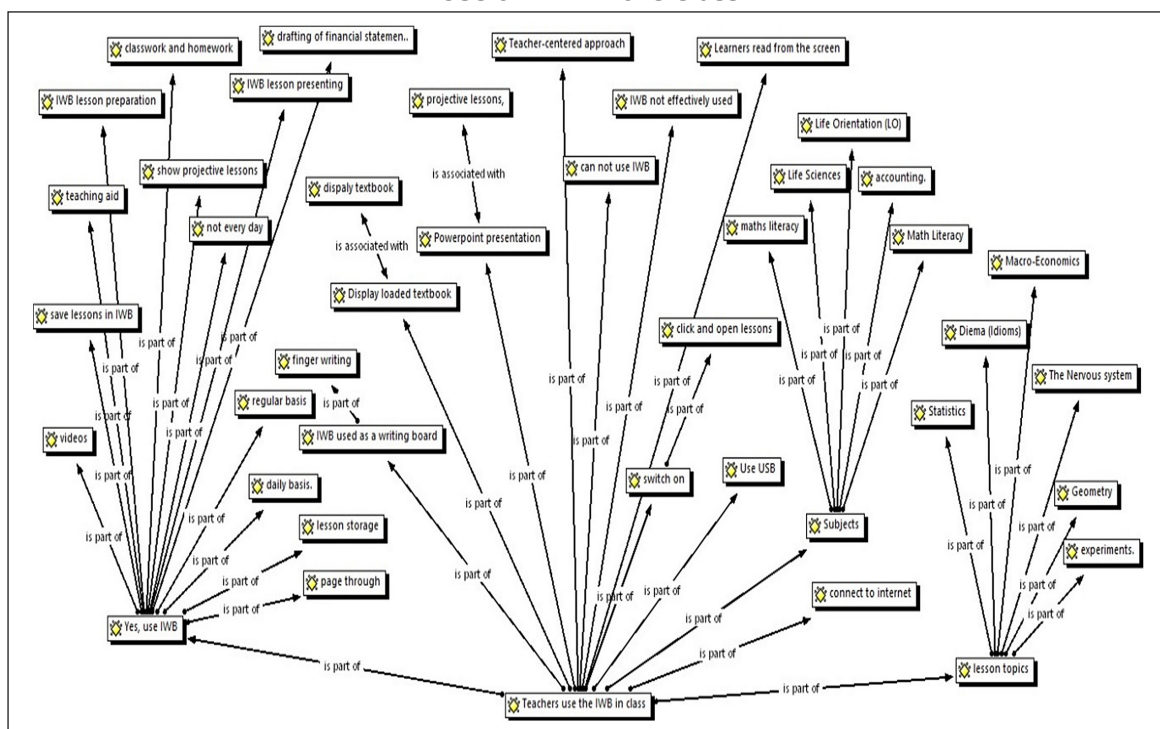
Instruments used in the collection of data were observation tools and semi-structured interview questionnaire. The observation tool was prepared beforehand. The lesson observations were conducted in a non-interference approach. Interviews provided much greater depth of understanding of the research questions especially when it is semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted individually at sampled schools. The researcher interviewed 18 teachers from 18 schools and the interviews were conducted at schools during lunch breaks. The interviews were recorded using a smart phone. Trustworthiness was used to assure qualitative data. Confirmability was ascertained by focusing on different findings from the qualitative

Figure 1: Primary Documents

Primary Doc Manager [HU: Smartboard Project]										
Documents Edit Miscellaneous Output View										
Id	Name	Media	Quot...	Author	Created	Modified	Usable	Origin	Location	Families
P 1	Data capture ...	Rich ...	110	Super	03/01/20...	03/19/20...	***	C:\Users\MOKOEN...	***	
P 2	Interviews.docx	Rich ...	305	Super	03/01/20...	03/23/20...	***	C:\Users\MOKOEN...	***	

Source: Authors

Figure 2: The Network or Conceptualisation Relating to Teacher Use of IWB in the Class



Source: Authors

aspects (ATLAS.ti 6.2) that is findings from observations and interviews to see if they corroborated each other. To address issues of objectivity in this study, the instruments were discussed with supervisors in order to assure issues of objectivity. And to comply with respondent validation, (Bless *et al.*, 2013), the interview transcripts data were discussed with participants for them to verify if what was interpreted is what they meant.

3.3 Data Analysis

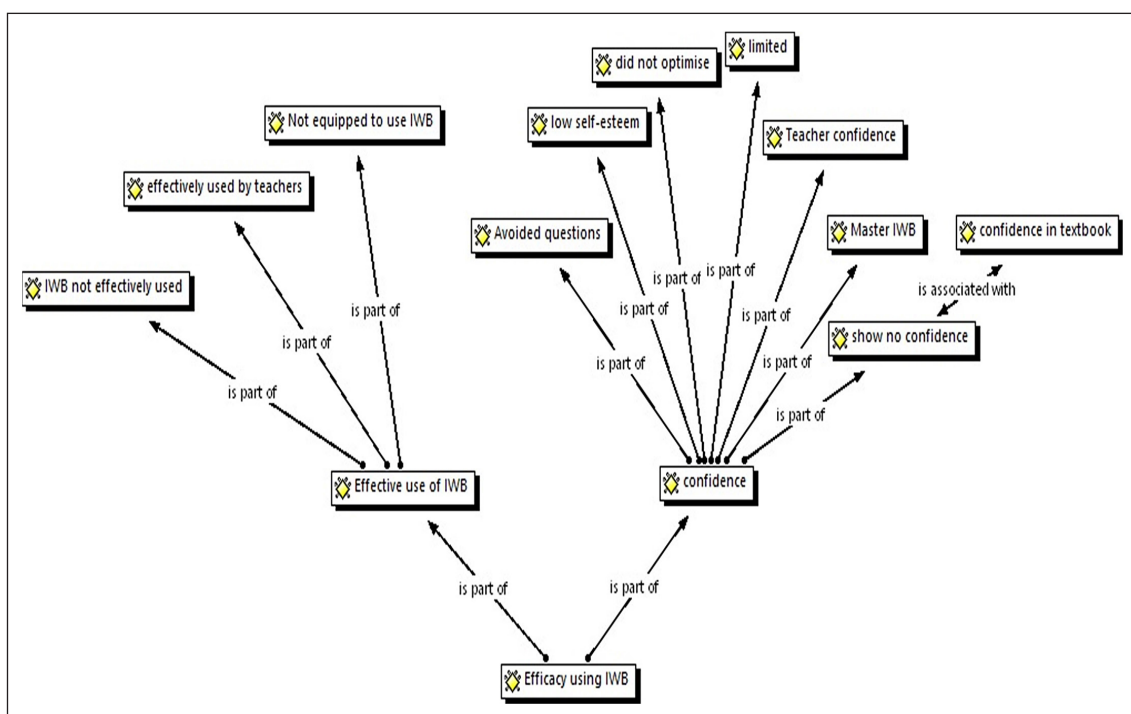
In analysing qualitative data, the qualitative analysis software ATLAS.ti 6.2 was used. Firstly, the researcher started by creating the hermeneutic unit called smart board Project. In this hermeneutic unit,

two primary documents were uploaded. P1 represents data form observations and P2 represents data from interviews. From these documents, the researcher coded 366 codes. The system generated 415 quotations. See Figure 1.

4. Results and Discussion

Firstly, researchers observed how teachers used the IWB during the lessons. In this regard data was gathered during lessons. The following categories were identified: *Yes I use IWB*, *IWB used as a writing board*; *display loaded textbook*, *PowerPoint presentation*, *teacher-centered approach*, and *Cannot use IWB*. The following network relating to teacher use of IWB in the class was created. See Figure 2.

Figure 3: The Conceptual Network Relating to Efficacy Using IWB



Source: Authors

In terms of the second observation item, *teacher use of IWB in the class*; teachers were observed using the IWB in class when teaching. Furthermore, teachers were observed using the IWB as a writing board. The researchers further observed teachers writing on the screen using their fingers. We further observed teachers display pre-loaded materials and display textbook on the IWB and learners were made to read from the screen. The researchers further observed teachers using a USB to load a slide presentation resulting in a PowerPoint presentation, researchers further observed that teachers cannot use the IWB.

Secondly researchers observed how efficient are they using the IWB in presenting the lesson and by using the IWB what is the confidence or self-esteem of the teacher. In this regard the following categories were created: *Effecting use of IWB* and *confidence*, as shown in Figure 3.

In case of effective teaching using IWB, researchers observed that teachers effectively used IWB for slide presentation. Furthermore, researchers observed that the IWB's built-in features were not utilised, and that the IWB was used as a writing board. With regard to teacher confidence, researchers observed that teachers were limited to the use of USB, were not properly equipped to use the IWB, and from the

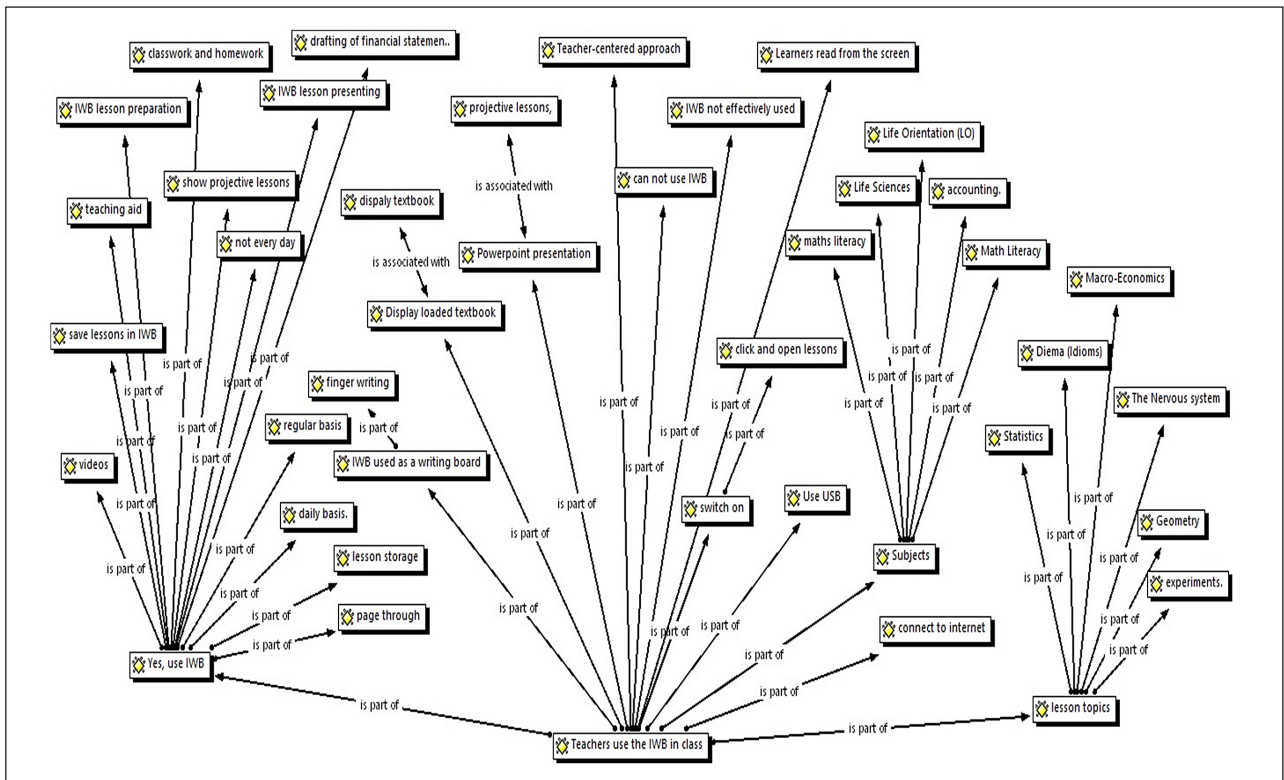
researchers' observational point of view that was an indication of low self-esteem when using the IWB. Furthermore, researchers observed that teachers seemed to have confidence in the textbook rather than the IWB.

Thirdly researchers observed the challenges encountered by teachers during the lesson when using IWB. In this case the following categories were created: *board stuck, restart the board, takes time, resorting to textbook, lack of audio enhancement, cannot draw graphs, cannot add information, takes time, lack of the Internet connection, shuts down, lesson smooth, and no problems*. Figure 4 on the next page shows the conceptual network relating to IWB challenges. These were challenges expressed by teachers in connection with their usage of the IWB.

In this case researchers observed that the IWB got stuck and froze in the middle of the lesson. It was also observed that the IWB took time to load information when used in the classroom. Furthermore, it was observed that the IWB lacked audio enhancement and internet connection. In this case teachers were observed to be resorting to the use of textbooks instead of the IWB.

In the research questions, firstly teachers were requested to respond to the question: Did you

Figure 6: The Conceptual Network Relating to Teachers Use of IWB in Class



Source: Authors

receive training on the use of IWB? Yes/No elaborate on the training. Here the following categories were created: *yes; receive IWB training, not enough, duration, and days*. These categories are shown in Figure 5 on the previous page as the conceptual network relating to IWB training.

In this case teachers revealed that they attended the IWB training however teachers indicated varying patterns and levels of training. In this study teachers showed that IWB training was not enough in terms of duration, the research further showed that IWB training durations varied from two hours, five hours, and was conducted in the afternoons or after school hours. Teachers revealed that lack of or insufficient training frustrated them sometimes because they needed to do some of the things on the IWB but could not because they were not properly trained to use the IWB in their lessons.

The second research question required teachers to respond to: *How do you use IWB in class?* In this regard the following categories were identified: *Yes, use IWB, IWB used as a writing board, display loaded material, PowerPoint presentation, cannot use IWB, learners read from the screen, switch on, use USB, subjects, connected to internet, lesson topics and IWB*

not effectively used. These categories are shown in Figure 6 as the conceptual network relating to teachers use of IWB in class.

In this case teachers revealed that they used IWB mostly for writing. This statement is confirmed by a teacher who indicated, "I do write on it, but it is the only thing I do with the IWB". The study further revealed that the IWB has loaded textbook material but the materials are not enough. In this case a teacher from another school said, "The IWB does not have enough material related to the subject that I am teaching. So, I am currently planning my own lessons on the use of the IWB".

Teachers revealed that they prepare PowerPoint presentations at home and then in class they use the IWB for a slide presentation. This statement is supported by Teacher from another school stated commented that, "I use it for projective lessons, videos and experiments". The study further revealed that teachers could not use the IWB, another Teacher said "but I do not know how to use the IWB". The study further revealed that some teachers battled to switch on the IWB in order to use it in class, on the contrary another group of teachers reported that they can operate the IWB. In this case Teacher Pete

indicated that; "When you switch on, the problem is difficult because the textbook is behind; you find that it blocks and it freezes. You cannot even go on", while Teacher Bheki was positive that; "I can always click on the IWB and open my lesson preparation".

It is evident that teachers received some form of professional development on the use IWB. However, this study indicated that the training was not enough in terms of duration and context. Participants in the study showed that not enough time was allocated to the training. The study reported that training occurred in the afternoons, took two hours or five hours, and it that it was conducted in the afternoons or after school hours. It is based on these findings that the level of teacher professional development in the use of IWBs was not adequate, a phenomenon also noted by Pourciau (2014). The study further revealed a particular pattern on how teachers used the IWB in the classroom. Here teachers indicated that they use IWB for PowerPoint presentation to leverage more interactive teaching and learning (Burke, *et al.*, 2018). Teachers also indicated that they were writing on the screen using their fingers more or the same as they did on the chalkboard, this gives an implication that teachers had substituted the chalkboard by the IWB but still apply same teaching styles. Furthermore teachers reported that the training was only about how to learn the technical use of the IWB. This was also reported by (Aksu & Öztürk, 2018; Karsenti, 2016). Research revealed that it is crucial to conduct IWB teacher training in order for teacher to gain confidence in the classroom when using the tool (Lewis, 2017). An observed pattern from the study was that the technical problems and malfunctioning of IWBs frustrated the already poorly trained teachers in class. The study revealed that sometimes the IWB took long to load materials, IWB froze during lessons, and teachers also could not switch them on.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is reported in this study that teachers did attend the formal professional development on the use of IWB. However, it was also found out that the training received by teachers was inadequate, because not enough time was allocated for professional development. In this case, the use of IWB in class frustrated teachers and led to them reverting to using the IWB as a writing board instead of it been an interactive teaching tool. This study further reported technical

challenges faced by teachers, such as lack of internet connectivity, freezing and shutting down of IWBs and lack of audio enhancement as causes of frustrations to teachers and affects teacher confidence on the use of IWBs. Generally, on the above mentioned findings, a conclusion can be made that most of the schools lacked and had poor ICT infrastructure and support systems.

It is recommended that continuous professional development in the use of IWB in both technical and pedagogical be a priority for successful use of this technology. This is a view shared by Kiilu, Nyerere and Ogeta (2018) that the success of IWB use in schools relies on continuous teacher training. The study further recommends that teacher in service training and novice teacher training should be prioritised. Furthermore, for a successful implementation and adoption of the IWB as teaching tool, it is important that the IWBs are continuously serviced for optimal functioning as it emerged from the study that teachers were sometimes frustrated by malfunctioning of the IWB. In addition, it is important that teachers do not only use the IWB as a projector where they only show videos, books or worksheets, but promote the interactivity provided by the features this tool (Kearney, Schuck, Aubusson, & Burke, 2018). To increase teacher confidence in the use of IWB, training should be both pedagogical and technical as supported by Lewis (2017). This view is further supported by White (2018) who pointed out that training must be aimed at using the IWB as a teaching tool.

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The Role of Internal Audit Functions with Regard to Audit Outcomes at South African Municipalities

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Abstract: The internal audit functions are expected to assist their organisations, including the municipalities to identify and resolve the challenges faced by these organisations. The internal audit functions (IAFs) are expected to play a number of roles to add value to their municipalities, including oversight role, detection role, insight role and deterrence role. Although IAFs are instruments with the expertise to assess efficient utilisation of financial resources within the municipalities and help improve oversight and financial performance, research has paid little attention to the role of IAFs in the financial management process. As a result, South African municipalities have been obtaining negative audit outcomes from the Auditor general South Africa (AGSA) over the years. This paper relied on AGSA reports in South Africa in establishing what role the IAFs are playing in municipalities, and whether they have any role to play in assisting the municipalities in obtaining the desired audit outcomes. Therefore, the data was collected from the AGSA audit reports for the period of five years, being the period from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018 financial years. The paper suggests that there is limited contribution or no contribution made by the IAFs in South African municipalities towards the achievement of positive audit outcomes by the municipalities.

Keywords: Internal audit functions, Local government, Municipalities, Value-adding

1. Introduction

The IAFs staffed with the internal auditors that are well well-trained can play a significant role in assisting their municipalities in addressing the deficiencies and challenges facing their municipalities. It is expected that the professionally independent IAFs should report their audit findings to an unbiased audit committee, which should oversee any necessary implementations. Once the IAFs are able to identify and report the findings to the effective audit committees, the municipalities can easily mitigate challenges in all areas and end up achieving positive audit outcomes when audited by the AGSA.

The IAFs are regarded as effective and value-adding if they meet the intended outcome they are supposed to bring about (Mihret & Yismaw, 2007:1). The main objective of the paper was to determine the role played by IAFs with regard to audit outcomes in municipalities. Sawyer (1995) stated: "...the internal auditor's job is not done until the identified weaknesses are corrected and remain corrected". Van Gansberghe (2015:12) supported this statement by noting that internal audit effectiveness in the public sector should be evaluated by the extent to which it contributes to effective and efficient service delivery, as this drives the demand for improved internal audit services.

The IIA (2018:10-12) describes the IAF as a crucial internal assurance mechanism in public financial controls and a tool for monitoring and evaluating managerial activities prior to evaluation by external auditors. Internal auditors further enhance transparency and fairness, reduce corruption, and ensure value for money in public procurement. An IAF is an essential part of any public expenditure management system and should ensure that public spending is within budgetary provisions and that payments comply with specified procedures, as well as providing for the timely reconciliation of accounts and effective systems for management and accounting of physical and financial assets. Therefore, the role of internal auditing is undoubtedly crucial for any municipality and if the role is fully played positive audit outcomes can be achieved. This paper aims at determining what role the IAF can play in ensuring that their municipalities obtain positive audit outcomes.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Expected Role of Internal Audit Functions

The International Professional Practices Framework (IPPF) (2014) defines internal auditing as "an independent, objective, assurance and consulting activity

designed to add value and improve an organisation's operations. It helps an organisation accomplish its objectives by bringing a systematic, disciplined approach to evaluate and improve effectiveness of risk management control and the governance process". This definition emphasises the aim of internal auditing, being to "add value" within organisations, and further indicates how effectiveness can be improved.

Based on the definition above, the IAFs should contribute to reducing risk exposure. In order to reduce the risks identified, the IAF needs to determine what areas of difficulty may stand in the way of accomplishing the company's stated objectives and also assess the controls that are in place to determine whether those controls are suitable and acceptable in light of the risks identified (Sawyer, Dittenhofer & Scheiner, 2003:141-142).

According to the Standards (IIA, 2009), the IAFs must evaluate the adequacy and effectiveness of controls in responding to risks within the organisation's governance, operations and information systems regarding the reliability and integrity of financial and operational information, the effectiveness and efficiency of operations, safeguarding of assets, and compliance with the laws, regulations, and contracts. De la Rosa (2007:52) argued that IAFs are responsible for the evaluation of the accuracy of an enterprise's risk management reporting, and should provide independent and value-adding recommendations to management. IAFs are adding value by responding to the risk impact through communication, controls, and contingencies (Pickett, 2005:59; Hermanson, Ivancevich & Ivancevich, 2008:14). Lastly, the definition of value-added indicates that IAFs add value by rendering both assurance and consulting services. If all the functions discussed above are fully rendered, the municipalities will be able to operate smoothly and positive audit outcomes will be achieved.

According to Morse (2012:2) a good IAF should be the "eyes and ears" of senior management, giving honest and clear information about organisational affairs. Marks (2013:1) states that the IAF becomes effective if it provides the audit committee and executive management with the assurance they need, namely, that they can depend on the municipality's processes and systems to manage risks towards the achievement of the municipality's objectives. This means that the IAF must provide assurance in

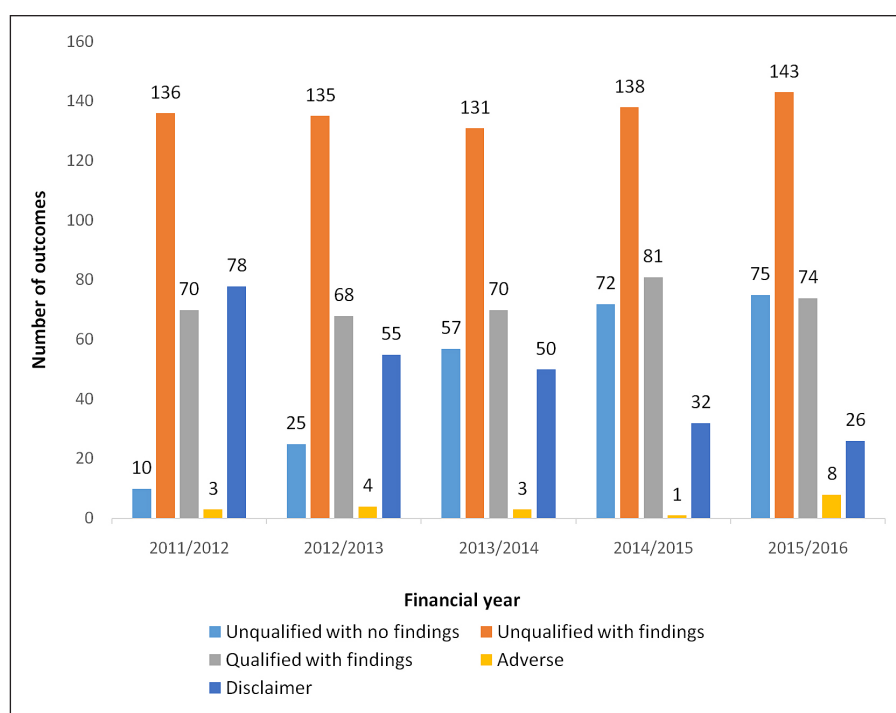
the form of the period, on the current risks of the municipality. Ackermann (2015:272) supports this by stating that IAF can only be regarded as adding value, ethical and competent in its core technical areas if it provides a product (report) which is informative, persuasive and calling for action.

Barac, Plant and Motubatse (2009:983) further argued that the IAFs should identify operational improvement. This is echoed in the definition of internal auditing, which highlights that the IAF's activities should contribute to the improvement of the organisation's operations (IIA, 2009). According to the Standards, the IAF must evaluate and contribute to the improvement of governance, risk management and control processes, systems, and operations (IIA, 2009).

According to the Auditor General South Africa (AGSA) the IAFs in South African municipalities are to be partly blamed for auditees not obtaining clean audit opinions (AGSA, 2012:86). The AGSA stated specifically that the IAFs do not adequately evaluate the internal controls and therefore, did not fully communicate with the audit committees on matters such as accounting, risk management and loss control (AGSA, 2011:32; AGSA, 2012:86, AGSA, 2013:31, 35, 75, 103). This indicates the expectation by the internal auditing standards and that of the AGSA that the IAFs need to assist their municipalities in ensuring the achievement of clean audit opinions among others. Hence, the internal audit reports (whether negative or positive) provide a strategic direction to future public service delivery planning and controlling efforts in that they provide a kind of strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis of the municipal performances (Motubatse, 2016). The internal auditors are further considered as "information guardians" but their functioning impaired if their reports are inadequate (Stuebs & Alejandro, 2010:53; Lenz & Sarens, 2012:533; Ernest & Young, 2013:5; Jackson, 2014:43).

2.2 Regulations of Internal Audit

The IAFs in South Africa functions as recognise by the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) and Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) which are the legislations complying fully with the South African constitution. The regulatory framework is further strengthened by the internal audit framework of the public sector (RSA, 2004) which provides the minimum guidelines for the development and

Figure 1: Opinions Provided by AGSA to Municipalities

Source: Author's own analysis

operation of internal auditing in the public sector. This framework provides guidance to the IAFs in the public sector to ensure that the IAFs comply with the PFMA, MFMA and the constitution.

2.3 Audit Outcomes in Municipalities

Figure 1 details the opinions provided by the AGSA to municipalities over the years.

Based on Figure 1 above, it is evident that a number of municipalities since the 2011/2012 to 2015/2016 financial years have received unqualified opinions with findings. One would expect to find these municipalities obtaining unqualified opinions with no findings, since most of them either have IAF in place, or outsourced to audit firms. Figure 1 further indicates the number of municipalities that obtained disclaimer opinions, which means that these municipalities cannot provide the necessary documentation to support their financial statements, raising the question of where these IAFs are in the municipalities, and what role do they play to ensure that this does not happen?

It is further evident from Figure 1 that the municipalities obtaining qualified opinions and adverse opinions remain constant, with no improvement. However, it is encouraging to note a declining trend,

with municipalities obtaining disclaimers, the number declined from 78 in the 2011/2012 financial year to only 32 in the 2014/2015 financial year. Furthermore, the number of municipalities that obtained unqualified opinions with no findings improved from 10 municipalities in 2011/2012 to 72 municipalities in 2014/2015.

3. Methods and Materials

This is a qualitative research study conducted in which the AGSA's reports for five consecutive years were analysed using a content analysis method to determine the role played by the IAFs in their municipalities in South Africa. This study was conducted with the use of the secondary data obtained through the analysis of the audit reports presented by the AGSA as from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018.

3.1 Data Collection

The AGSA's reports for the period of five years, from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018 financial year were collected with the assistance of Atlas.ti software. These data were collected from all the three categories of municipalities existing in South Africa, namely, metropolitan municipalities, district municipalities and local municipalities. The main theme formulated in gathering the data was on internal audit

Table 1: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Eastern Cape Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
Only 29% of the IAFs provided full assurance.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
The IAF did not add to the credibility of the financial reports.	Lack of resources by IAFs.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.
Understaffed IAFs.	Understaffed IAFs.	Understaffed IAFs.	Understaffed IAFs.	IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

Table 2: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Free State Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
The impact of the IAFs on audit outcomes is fairly limited.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
The IAF did not add to the credibility of the financial reports.	Lack of resources by IAFs.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.
Understaffed IAFs.	Understaffed IAFs.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.		IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of information technology controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

and the role they play. This was done in order to determine what the main AGSA's findings are with regard to the role of the IAFs in municipalities.

3.2 Data Analysis

The data was analysed through the use of Atlas.ti software, this was to ensure that the theme formulated is clearly followed and identified on the voluminous AGSA reports and unbiased analysis can be achieved. The data was analysed by means of coding the collected AGSA's data to allow the identification of themes and subthemes. Coding in qualitative research consists of the assignment of short phrases to capture a meaning of a large portion of textual data (Yin, 2011). Babbie (2013:550) and Saldaña (2009:8) both define coding" as a process of arranging raw data into a standardised form. The process started with a review of AGSA reports for five years' period 2012/2013 to 2017/2018 financial years. While considering the whole context, the data was coded.

4. Results and Discussion

After concluding the analysis of the AGSA audit reports for the five years' period, the following main findings were raised with regard to IAFs in municipalities per province in South Africa. Table 1 presents these findings from the AGSA audit reports.

Based on Table 1, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in Eastern Cape province did not assist their municipalities in obtaining positive audit outcomes.

Based on Table 2, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in Free State province did not assist their municipalities in obtaining positive audit outcomes as they provided a limited or no assurance expected.

Table 3 on the next page provides evidence that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs existed in more than 95% of the municipalities,

Table 3: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Gauteng Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
Little IAFs impact on the overall audit outcomes.	Limited assurance by IAFs.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
Limited assurance by IAFs.	Lack of capacity and appropriate skills at IAFs.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Lack of capacity and appropriate skills at IAFs.	IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of information technology controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

Table 4: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in KwaZulu-Natal Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
The 38% of the IAFs did not evaluate the integrity and reliability of financial information.	Integrity and reliability of financial information not evaluated.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.
Ineffective monitoring by IAFs.	Lack of resources by IAFs.	Ineffective monitoring by IAFs.	Ineffective monitoring by IAFs.	IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

Table 5: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Limpopo Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
The IAFs provided a limited or no assurance.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
Lack of focus by IAFs on the audit of financial information	Ineffective monitoring by IAFs.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.
IAFs were not fully compliant with legislative requirements at 14 auditees.	Lack of resources by IAFs.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.		IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of information technology controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

however, these IAFs provided little impact on the overall audit outcomes of the municipalities.

Based on Table 4 above, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in KwaZulu-Natal province did not provide positive impact on the financial statements of the municipalities resulting in a reduction in the level of assurance from these governance structures which is also indicative of regressions in the province.

Based on Table 5 above, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in Limpopo province did not provide the expected assurance and they lacked focus on the functions they need to perform.

Based on Table 6 on the next page, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in Mpumalanga province did not extend their scope of independent reviews to include all aspects of financial and

Table 6: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Mpumalanga Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
IAFs did not have a positive impact on the audit outcomes.	Insufficient assurance by IAFs in the required areas by legislation to audit and report on.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
Inconsistent monitoring by IAFs of the progress made on management commitments.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.
IAFs did not broaden their scope of independent reviews to include all aspects of financial and performance management.	Lack of resources by IAFs.	IAFs did not broaden their scope of independent reviews to include all aspects of financial and performance management.		IAFs did not actively follow up the implementation of information technology controls.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

Table 7: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in North West Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
IAFs were established at 85% of auditees, however, at 83% of the auditees the IAFs did not have a positive impact on the audit outcomes.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
The IAFs did not evaluate the financial statements and the reliability of financial information	Lack of resources by IAFs.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial reports.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

Table 8: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Northern Cape Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
IAFs were established at 86% of auditees, however, at 79% of the auditees the IAFs did not have a positive impact on the audit outcomes.	Only 35% of IAFs provided full assurance	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
Non-functional or noncompliant IAFs.	Lack of competent and experienced IAF staff.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Lack of competent and experienced IAF staff.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

performance management, in order to assist their municipalities in obtaining positive audit outcomes.

Based on Table 7, it is evident that from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in North West province did not have any impact in assisting their municipalities in changing the negative audit outcomes obtained by the municipalities.

Based on Table 8, it is evident that from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018 financial year the IAFs in municipalities in Northern Cape province did not have any impact in assisting their municipalities in changing the negative audit outcomes obtained by the municipalities.

Based on Table 9 on the next page, it is evident that since 2013/2014 financial year to 2017/2018 financial

Table 9: The AGSA Findings Regarding IAFs in Western Cape Province over Five Years' Period

2013/2014 Financial year	2014/2015 Financial year	2015/2016 Financial year	2016/2017 Financial year	2017/2018 Financial year
Ineffectiveness of IAFs.	Limited assurance by IAFs.	IAFs had little impact on audit outcomes.	Regression on the work of IAFs as the assurance provider.	Ineffectiveness of IAFs in assisting auditees to submit the financial statements on time.
Non-compliance findings of IAFs included: Inadequate evaluation/ advice on internal controls, accounting, risk and loss control.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Inadequate quarterly reviews of financial and performance reports.	Limited assurance by IAFs.	Limited or no assurance by IAFs.
Lack of reporting to audit committees by IAFs on compliance with legislation.				

Source: AGSA reports (AGSA, 2013/2014; AGSA, 2014/2015; AGSA, 2015/2016; AGSA, 2016/2017 & AGSA, 2017/2018)

year the IAFs in municipalities in Western Cape province were found to be ineffective and contributing to the failure of the municipalities to submit their financial statements within the legislated deadlines.

Based on Tables 1-9, the 2013/2014 – 2017/2018 financial years were dominated by the following findings from the AGSA (in summary):

A larger number of findings emanating from the IAFs were raised in the five years' period. These findings raised were mainly that even though IAFs were well established in many municipalities in South Africa, they did not contribute positively to the audit outcomes received by those municipalities, meaning that they did not add the expected value, and were therefore redundant. This finding was raised in a number of the provinces, as indicated in Tables 1-9 above and dominated the findings raised by the AGSA. The root cause highlighted by this finding was lack of sufficient resources and competent, skilled internal auditors who would have assisted these IAFs to perform their functions optimally, and thereby assist their municipalities in obtaining better audit outcomes.

5. Discussion of Results

According to the data gathered through the content analysis. The results revealed that a number of IAFs in municipalities (varying from one province and municipality to another) did not provide sufficient assurance to their municipalities, did not assist their municipalities in obtaining desired audit outcomes and did not evaluate their compliance with laws and

regulations. This again indicates another important deviation and neglect of the IAFs in performing their fundamental function of ensuring and assisting their organisations, in this case municipalities, in complying with rules and regulations. The question that arises here is: what is the function of the IAFs if they cannot assist their municipalities in complying with laws and regulations as required? The results further revealed that the AGSA found many IAFs in municipalities were dysfunctional not compliant with the MFMA, and were failing to implement proper control systems for the safeguarding and maintenance of assets. One of the key responsibilities of the IAF is to assist those in authority or management in safeguarding the assets of their organisations, and ensuring that those assets are protected from destruction and misuse.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This means that the IAFs in municipalities need to improve their performance drastically and add the expected value to their municipalities to prove the reason for their existence. The limited contribution could be one of the reasons why the IAFs are not taken seriously by the municipalities they serve. The findings of this paper can assist the IAFs and the general public in understanding the challenges faced by IAFs in South Africa and start assisting in addressing these challenges. This paper can further assist among others the stakeholders within the public sector to understand fully the role that needs to be played by the IAFs and how best can these functions be supported to maximize their contribution to their municipalities. It is recommended

that the IAFs source the necessary resources and training that can assist the internal audit staff members to perform their functions, thereby add value to their municipalities.

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The Role of Macroeconomic Variables in the Johannesburg Stock Exchange's Oil and Gas Stock Returns

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Abstract: The study pursued an investigation into the role of macroeconomic variables on the stock return volatility of the JSE's Oil and Gas sector, South Africa. The study focused on Brent crude oil prices, exchanger rate (R/\$), Broad money supply and Gold Price as the selected macroeconomic variables. The GARCH-GED model to incorporate volatility was employed. Additionally, variance decomposition and impulse response were arrayed to test for shocks and forecast using secondary monthly data for the period 2007-2015. The findings were that change in oil prices and broad money supply had a positive and significant effect on the sector stock returns, 1% and 10% respectively, while changes in exchange rates and gold price had a negative and significant effect at 1%. There was clustering of volatility detected in the sector returns, but faded at a moderate speed. A recommendation is that both the oil price and exchange rate must be monitored by market players as they have significant positive shock effect in the short-run and persist in the long-run. Risk, portfolio managers and interest players should keenly monitor gold prices to negate any losses due to gold positive performance as an alternative to the Oil and Gas sector.

Keywords: GARCH Model, Macroeconomic variables, Stock returns, Volatility

1. Introduction

South Africa's oil and gas sector has received much needed boost with the discovery of gas deposits off the coast of Southern Cape. This is sure to have an enhancement on the overall share value of the Oil and Gas sector index in the Johannesburg Stock exchange (JSE) inducing the exchange of stocks through buying and selling over the counter. It is also acknowledged that the stock market does not operate autonomously, but rather influenced by other factors, such as political and economic factors (JSE, 2015). To this effect, a number of studies document that a relationship exists between macroeconomic variables and stock returns (Bilson *et al.*, 2001; Mangani, 2009; Chinzara, 2011; Masuduzzaman, 2012; Gupta & Modise, 2013).

The macroeconomic variables chosen for the paper were as a result of current concerns and also as provided by literature. Firstly, Brent crude oil as the primary element in the oil and gas sector is expected to have an influence through pricing, and secondly, exchange rates are also expected to influence the sector with oil as a heavily imported commodity in South Africa. It is revealed by National Energy Regulation South Africa (NERSA) that the majority of South Africa's crude oil is supplied by three countries, namely Saudi Arabia, Nigeria and

Angola which supply 89% of South Africa's total crude imports (NERSA, 2017). Thirdly, Broad money supply (M3) is included because of the government's cash injection in the sector through its industrial action plan; and finally, the gold price is included on the bases that gold is seen as a safe haven. The gold price in particular acts as a stimulus to certain industries through demand for products to be used on the mines, isolated as a macroeconomic variable due to the fact that its determination is largely divorced from other domestic economic variables (Van Rensburg, 1995).

The sector's stocks were halted for trading in 2015 December and resumed in March 2018. According to the author relevant studies are lacking in the South African context. To this effect, it is significant to provide research study on the role of macroeconomic indicators on the sectors stocks. Additionally, address uncertainty over the role or how the sector stock returns reacts to the macroeconomic variables amid the expected gains in the sector. This study is expected to add to literature, thereby, advancing the relationship and how some economic factors affect the sector. It is also hoped that it might assist both private and public investors to capture any risks from the economy. Hence, beneficial to asset and portfolio managers on the stock market sector analysis especially regarding risk return nexus on

equities, to be successful when trading (Chinzara, 2011; Ramos & Veiga, 2011). Beneficial in that they may, to some degree mitigate economic risks and be successful in the stock market. Thus, the relationship between Brent crude oil prices, exchange rate, broad money supply and gold price on oil and gas stocks listed on the JSE warrants investigation. Most studies measuring the relationship between macroeconomic variables and the aggregate stock market share prices exists (Enisan & Olufisayo, 2009; Mangani, 2009; Ajayi & Olaniyan, 2016; Ali, Abdelnabi & Iqbal, 2016). This paper will help, to some degree, portfolio or equity traders keep abreast of the relationship of the oil and gas stock returns to the selected macroeconomic variables. The remainder of this paper is as follows: the next section is the underlying theories and literature review. This is followed by a section on methodological process to be followed. Section four presents the results and discussions. Finally, section five concludes and provides recommendations.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Literature

Two theoretical perspectives were adopted in determining the effects of oil prices and exchange rates movements on oil and gas sector stock returns, which are Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) and Efficiency Market Hypothesis (EMH). Ross (1976) hypothesizes the APT where various economic risk factors may explain stock market returns. This theory adopts an idea that stock market returns may be impacted by and explained through risk elements of micro and macroeconomic fundamentals. It is acknowledged that stock returns remain exposed to systematic economic news, priced accordingly in relation to economic risks which require accomplished and simple intuitive financial theory to measure the economic exposure (Ouma & Muriu, 2014). This theory provides a more realistic explanation to the variations in stock prices as it allows for a wider selection of various factors that determine stock return.

EMH is based on the assumption that prices of securities in financial markets fully reflect all available information, which views expectations of future prices as equal to optimal forecasts using all currently available information (Mishikin & Serletis, 2011). Hence, stock prices determination quickly adjusts as information of relevant economic or

sector indicators become available. Nordin *et al.* (2014) puts forward three forms of market hypothesis, but the most relevant hypothesis is the stronger form of market efficiency which has received much attention and subject of much study in the financial markets, because it provides the basis to assess which indicators offer much information to asset pricing. The equilibrium returns of securities is influenced by numerous risk factors, as efficient market hypothesis views expectations of future prices, henceforth the returns, as equal to optimal forecasts using all currently available information making it relevant to the study at hand.

2.2 Empirical Literature Review

There is some empirical evidence on stock market sector analyses, specifically in the South African context, where much analysis was done for the JSE indices as opposed to more sector specific studies. For instance, Gupta & Modise (2013) supported that macroeconomic variables such as crude oil prices and money supply do not contain much information to predict South African stock returns. These sentiments somewhat gave impetus to Ramos & Veiga (2011) that oil and gas sector in developed countries responds more strongly to oil price changes than in emerging markets. However, other studies encompassing volatility such as Mangani (2009) found that gold prices do largely influence stock return volatility giving credence to Mongale & Eita (2014) that increase in commodity prices has a positive association with stock market performances. A more recent study by Szczygielski & Chipeta (2015) also found that oil prices, money supply (M3) and exchange rates had a positive and significant influence on South African Stock Returns. West & Macfarlane (2013) addressed the empirical question of whether macroeconomic variables drive future stock market returns in South Africa. They examined data over a 45-year period from 1965 to 2010 through the use of Johansen multivariate cointegration, Granger causality and innovation accounting. Findings as per the VECM model estimates revealed that inflation and money supply had a positive relationship with the 'all share stock index' over the long run. A negative relationship was found for the South African 10-year Government Bond Yield, measure of interest rate, the rand dollar exchange rate and GDP.

Following on Tripathi & Kumar (2015) on Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS) study; stock returns had significant negative relationship

with current inflation, current exchange rate, long run inflation and long run interest rate. Hsing (2014) examined the effects of selected macroeconomic variables on the stock market index in South Africa applying the exponential GARCH model. Findings indicated that the stock market index is positively influenced by the growth rate of real GDP. Ntshangase *et al.* (2016) found that money supply, interest rate, inflation, exchange rate and government expenditure influence the stock market. An assessment of the effects of currency volatility on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange, the GARCH model was used in establishing the relationship between exchange rate volatility and stock market performance (Mlambo *et al.*, 2013). A very weak relationship between currency volatility and the stock market was confirmed, furthermore, since the South African stock market is not really exposed to the negative effects of currency volatility, government can use exchange rate as a policy tool to attract foreign portfolio investment.

A size effect of macroeconomics factors in New York stock exchange returns were investigated by employing a VECM Model (Shubita & Al-Sharkas, 2010). It was found that inflation and interest rates had an inverse relationship to market stock returns in United States of America (USA). Contrary to that study, Jareno & Negrut (2016) found that consumer price index was insignificant to U.S stock returns. Park & Ratti (2008) examined oil price shocks and stock markets in the U.S and 13 European countries over the period 1986-2005. The findings in retrospect to European countries suggest that oil price shocks contribute variably and depress stock market returns significantly. Oil price shocks had a greater impact than interest rates in stock market return variability. Ajayi & Olaniyan (2016) studied the dynamic relations between macroeconomic variables and stock prices for United Kingdom (U.K) and South Africa employing the VECM model spanning from March 2000 to December 2009. The U.K results reflect that stock prices are positively related to industrial production, however, had a negative relationship with inflation. An impact of several macroeconomic variables on the Dow Jones Sustainability and Dow Jones Wilshire 5000 indexes, using a GARCH model and monthly data for the period January, 2000 to January, 2008 was examined (Sariannidis *et al.*, 2010). The results show that changes in returns of crude oil prices affect negatively the U.S. stock market; the exchange rate volatility affects negatively the returns of the U.S. stock market.

Hsieh (2013) used exponential GARCH to find that New Zealand's stock market index was positively influenced by real GDP and the world stock market index and negatively affected by the ratio of the government debt to GDP, the domestic real interest rate, the nominal NZD/USD exchange rate and the domestic expected inflation rate. Dhaoui & Khraief (2014) examined empirically whether oil price shocks impact stock market returns using monthly data for eight developed countries (US, Switzerland, France, Canada, UK, Australia, Japan and Singapore) from January 1991 to September 2013 applying the EGARCH model. It was found that at the 5% significance level the oil price exerts significant effect on returns for three countries (US, Switzerland, Canada) and on volatility, only Switzerland had a significant effect of oil price. Arouri & Nguyen (2010) investigated the relationships between oil price changes and sector stock market returns in Europe over the last turbulent decade. Results confirmed the significance of oil price shocks as a factor affecting sector returns in Europe, oil and gas sector index included. Additionally, Granger causality results show that there is bidirectional causality between oil price changes with the oil and gas sector among other sectors.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Data and Model Specification

The model embraces the role of macroeconomic variables movements on oil and gas stock returns volatility listed on the JSE. The study employed secondary monthly data spanning the period 2007 to 2015. Data on variables such as Brent crude oil prices and exchange rate were collected from InetBFA, while data on money supply and gold prices were collected from the South African Reserve Bank (SARB). The time span is chosen purely because on data availability. The oil and gas stock indices were converted into continuously compounded returns by subtracting the logarithm of last month's index from the logarithm of the current month's index, then multiplying by 100 (Brook, 2008). The general empirical model for oil and gas stock returns is specified as follows:

$$OilGas_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OILP_t + \beta_2 EXR_t + \beta_3 M3_t + \beta_4 GP_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Where *OilGas* denotes growth rate in sector returns, *OILP* is Brent crude oil prices, *EXR* is exchange rate, *M3* is broad money supply and *GP* is gold prices.

3.2 Estimation Technique

To obtain the set objectives the General Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity (GARCH) model was employed to measure volatility. Volatility, as measured by the standard deviation or variance of returns, is often used as a crude measure of the total risk of financial assets (Brook, 2002). Variance decomposition and impulse response function were carried out to measure the shock effect and forecast variance on the sector returns. Lastly, diagnostic and stability test were conducted to check the viability of the chosen model.

3.2.1 Unit Root Tests

Unit root is run to purely avoid spurious results and determine stationarity level (Brooks, 2002). Unit root testing determines the properties of the variables since they are macro-economic variables of a time series in nature. For this purpose, the study utilised the Augmented Dickey Fuller test (ADF). Attari & Safdah (2013) affirmed that ADF contains extra lags for the dependent variable to remove serial autocorrelation. One criticism of the ADF test is that it cannot distinguish between unit root and near unit root process (Naik, 2013). A solution is offered by Phillips & Perron (1988), who finds a non-parametric way of adjusting the estimated variance so that the tabulated distribution is valid (Sjo, 2008). Therefore, the Phillips & Perron (1988) unit root testing is utilised to conclude with certainty the order of integration.

3.2.2 Generalised Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity

Based on the volatility of variables under investigation, the GARCH model was employed to find the estimates. Volatility is a process of change in behaviour, value or investment over the time and cumulative persistence of that change to the next phase (Ahmad & Ramzan, 2016). However, the GARCH model is an extension of the autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH) model. Sariannidis *et al.* (2010) gave the specifics of the ARCH model, in that, it allows the conditional variance of a time series to change over time as a function of past squared errors by imposing an autoregressive structure on conditional variance and allowing volatility shocks to persist over time.

The ARCH model through the 'ARCH-effect' is used as the first stage of detecting volatility, by testing whether heteroskedasticity is present allowing the

study to run any chosen GARCH. The ARCH's ability to capture the non-linearity and volatility clustering in stock return data is one of its benefits. In a linear regression model, with or without lagged-dependent variables, ordinary least square (OLS) is the appropriate procedure if the disturbances are not conditionally heteroskedastic by running or testing the Lagrange multiplier (LM), the ARCH-LM test (Engle, 1982). The standard GARCH model is given by the following equation:

$$OilGas_t = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{k=1} \beta_1 OILP_t + \sum_{i=1}^{k=1} \beta_2 EXR_t + \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k=1} \beta_3 M3_t + \sum_{i=1}^{k=1} \beta_4 GP + \varphi_1 \sqrt{h} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\mu_t / \Omega_{t-1} \sim N(0, h_t^2) \quad (3)$$

$$h_t^2 = \beta_0 + \lambda_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 + \Phi_1 h_{t-1}^2 \quad (4)$$

Where β_0 in Equation 1 is the intercepts of the regression and represents the risk free rate, $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ are the coefficients of the variables and ε_t is the residual errors of the regression. β_j, λ_1 and Φ_1 are coefficients to be estimated ($j=0,1,2$), h_t^2 is the conditional variance which is dependent on lagged values of square errors and lagged values of the conditional variance, Ω_{t-1} is the set of all information available at time $t - 1$. λ_1 and Φ_1 are the ARCH and GARCH coefficient, respectively, and all other terms assumes the usual interpretations of the GARCH model. Equation 3 is the conditional mean return expression, while Equation 4 gives the distribution of the error term, conditional upon available information. Equation 4 gives an expression for the volatility of returns. Henceforth, the third term, h_{t-1} , is the GARCH model, measuring the impact of last period's forecast variance. λ_1 and Φ_1 help in confirming the presence of ARCH and GARCH effects.

3.2.3 Impulse Response Function and Variance Decomposition

The impulse response function is meant to trace the effect of a one-time shock function to one of the innovations on current and future values of the endogenous variables. In essence, the impulse response describes the oil and gas stock return's reaction as a function of time to the underlined macroeconomic variables at the time of the shock and subsequent points. Thereby, shows the effects of shocks on the adjustment path of the variables (Brooks, 2002). The impulse response uses the

Table 1: Unit Root Tests

		Panel A: Stationarity at level I (0)			Panel B: Stationarity at first level I (1)		
Variables	Model specification	ADF test	PP test	Results	ADF test	PP test	Results
OilGas	Intercept	-2.413777	-2.377544	Non stationary	-11.70461	-11.7236	Stationary
	Trend and intercept	-2.143744	-1.961114	Non stationary	-11.83941	-12.2735	
	None	-0.460261	-0.507869	Non stationary	-11.74241	-11.7611	Stationary
OILP	Intercept	-1.880496	-1.733579	Non stationary	-6.357426	-6.38918	Stationary
	Trend and intercept	-1.796924	-1.604833	Non stationary	-6.448033	-6.48963	Stationary
	None	-0.513547	-0.430496	Non stationary	-6.374281	-6.40634	Stationary
EXR	intercept	0.835466	0.865273	Non stationary	-9.835317	-9.84053	Stationary
	Trend and intercept	-0.678735	-0.701016	Non stationary	-10.04903	-10.0491	Stationary
	None	1.954947	1.944601	Non stationary	-9.563426	-9.62437	Stationary
LM3	intercept	-2.315663	-1.657102	Non stationary	-7.653431	-8.02593	Stationary
	Trend and intercept	-3.90623	-3.622247	Stationary	-3.102292	-5.02226	Stationary
	None	10.38232	6.474112	Non stationary	-8.022509	-8.02251	Stationary
LGP	intercept	-2.353641	-2.277052	Non stationary	-8.657160	-8.59796	Stationary
	Trend and intercept	-0.68337	-0.739907	Non stationary	-7.968137	-7.96617	Stationary
	none	1.092230	0.936583	Non stationary	-11.70461	-11.7236	Stationary

Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

VAR system to examine how each of the variables responds to innovation the other variables, which is, mapping out a dynamic response path of variable due to one standard deviation shock on each other.

West & Macfarlane (2013) postulated that unlike the impulse response function, which trails the effects of shocks to one variable on the other variable in the VAR, the variance decomposition, however, separates the variation of the macroeconomic variables into the constituent shocks of the VAR. Henceforth, a measure of the contribution of each type of shock to the forecasted error variance entails running forecast error variance decomposition (Brooks, 2002). Ordering of the variables is important to differentiate the calculation of impulse responses and variance decompositions because they are almost similar.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Stationarity Tests

Table 1 above presents the PP and ADF test results by testing the null hypothesis that the oil and gas stock indices and the four macroeconomic variables non-stationary. Unit root tests were run for all variables at intercept, trend and intercept, and at none, incorporating all regression forms to conclude the level of stationarity for all variables.

Table 1 indicates that only money supply is stationary at trend and intercept, therefore cannot be stated with certainty that it is stationary at level since it is non-stationary at intercept and none. The tests were carried out at all regression forms based on the automated SIC lag length for ADF and PP automated at Newey-West using Bartlett Kenel. The variables are showing signs of trending and the data is influenced by time at all specifications, hence, the variables are non-stationary at level, that is, the null hypothesis is maintained and thus holds at level. The same procedure was followed at panel B, however, all the variables were tested for unit root at first difference to test the null hypothesis. Both the ADF and PP concluded that the variables are stationary after first differencing, that is, integrated at an order of I (1).

4.2 Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity (GARCH) Model

Before proceeding with estimating the model, the residuals were examined for heteroscedasticity. There's a strong evidence of ARCH effect in the model residual series as seen by the ARCH-LM test in Table 2 on the following page. The null hypothesis of no ARCH effect is rejected and concludes that there is presence of ARCH effects. Therefore, this paves the way to utilise the GARCH because there is the presence of heteroscedasticity.

Table 2: ARCH-LM Test

F-statistic	4.511745	Prob. F(1,99)	0.0362
Obs*R-squared	4.402266	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.0359

Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

Table 3: GARCH Model Estimates of the ML ARCH - GED

Panel A: Mean equation					Panel B: Variance equation				
Variables	coefficients	Std. Error	z-Stat	Prob	Variables	coefficients	Std. Error	z-Stat	Prob
@SQRT (GARCH)	-0.9084	0.4205	-2.1601	0.030	C	0.028	0.023	1.235	0.216
OILP	0.5340	0.0346	15.426	0.000	ARCH:RESID(-1)^2	0.052	0.014	3.594826	0.003
EXR	-0.1729	0.0511	-3.3785	0.007	GARCH(-1)	0.478	0.204	2.346	0.018
M3	0.5792	0.3263	1.7749	0.075	0.531				
GP	-0.3818	0.0536	-7.1171	0.000					
C	0.2027	0.1314	1.5428	0.122					

Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

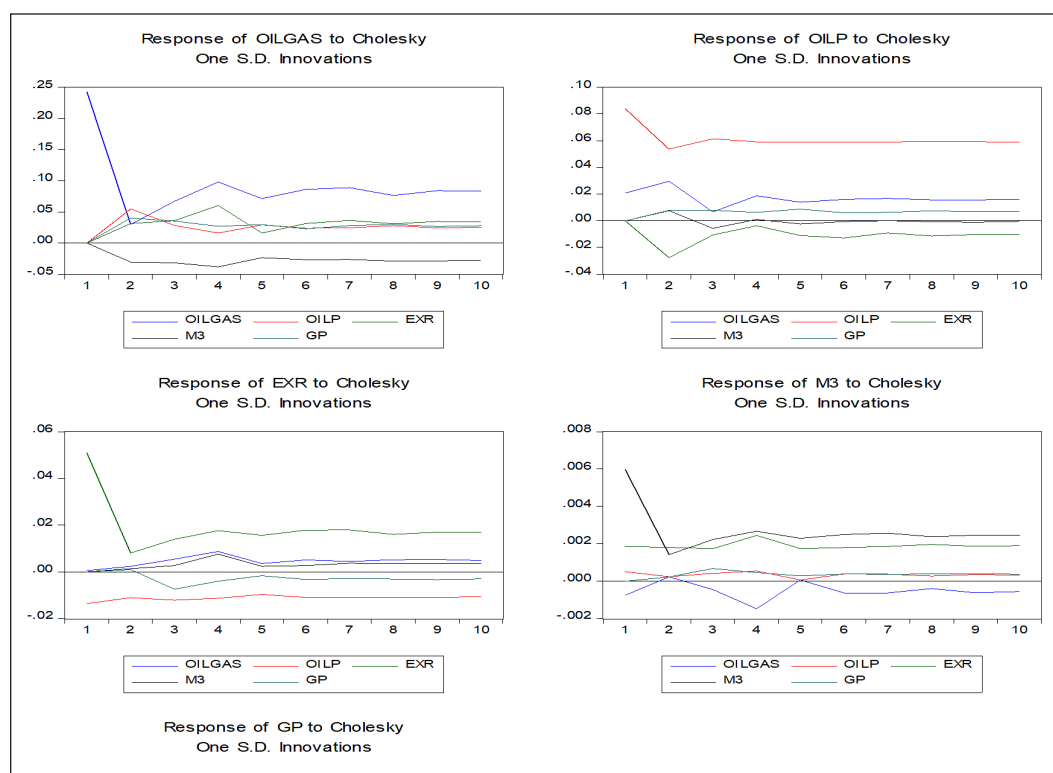
Now that heteroskedasticity is detected, the next step is to determine the GARCH estimates to investigate the role of the macroeconomic variables on the oil and gas stock returns while incorporating volatility. The commonly used GARCH (1,1) model estimating employing Generalised Error Distribution (GED). This estimation formation is favoured because Kosapattarapim (2013) postulated that the best fitting model is GARCH (1,1) with GED.

The role of change in macroeconomic variables on the volatility of stock returns was analysed by estimating the GARCH-GED. Table 3 above reveals two panels; panel A presents the mean equation on the left side of the table and Panel B presents the variance equation of the model on the right side of the table, which measure the volatility effects of the macroeconomic variables. The mean equation revealed that change in Brent crude oil prices had a positive upshot on the sector returns, and statistically significant at 1%. These findings are in line and complement findings by Szczygielski and Chipeta (2015). This means that the sector stock returns are expected to react positively to an increase in Brent crude oil prices. However, change in exchange rate had a negative upshot on the sector's stock returns, which is also statistically significant at 1%. Hsing (2014) tested and found similar results with effective nominal exchange rates. Consequently, a depreciation of the Rand/Dollar exchange rate has a dampening effect on the oil and gas sector stock returns. This holds because as the Rand value declines, it means the cost of purchasing a unit barrel increases, therefore, impacting on the

profit margins of the companies in the oil and gas sector, *ceteris paribus*.

Change in broad Money supply has a positive effect on the sector stock returns, but only statistically significant at 10%. These findings are in line with Szczygielski & Chipeta (2015) and Hsing (2014) who also found a positive relation. Henceforth, an injection or increase in money supply has an added benefit in the said sector stock returns. Change in gold prices has a negative effect on the Oil and gas sector returns, significant at 1%. Since literature is lacking in the South African context; foreign studies do advocate for such findings. Moore (1990) found that gold prices and the stock markets had a negative correlation, that is, when gold prices were rising, the stock markets were declining in the New York Stock Market. Perhaps, the notion that gold plays a vital role as a safe haven is affirmed. As gold prices rise, investors view gold as an alternative instead of other markets like the oil and gas sector, affecting the sector undesirably.

The variance equation in panel B illustrates that, the ARCH and GARCH coefficients were found to be significant, with both estimates appearing as positive. This offers evidence of ARCH and GARCH effect on volatility of stock returns. Henceforth, this displays that there is volatility clustering in the oil and gas market. In all the significant macroeconomic variables volatilities associated with each do not last for long before it fades away as evidenced through the low values. The non-negative estimates of the ARCH is in line with Engle (1982) and Bollerslev's (1986), as observed in the table, a positive sing.

Figure 1: Response of Cholesky One S.D Innovation

Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

4.3 The Response of Stock Returns to Shocks in Each Macroeconomic Variable

To examine the signs and persistence of the short-run response of the Oil and Gas stock returns to one standard error shocks in each of the macroeconomic variables, impulse response functions was estimated as revealed by Figure 1. Attention is placed only on the first illustration of Figure 1, that is, response of oil and gas to one standard deviation in the macro-economic variables which illustrates effect of shock in Brent crude oil price, exchange rate, broad money supply and gold prices. There were visible shocks in the second month for oil price and the fourth month for exchange rate. This seem to suggest that oil prices shock effect on the stock returns is quite instant, while in the exchange rate there is some delay though still quite in the short-run. These are relevant and expected outcomes as Wakeford (2006) asserts that the most immediate, direct effect of an oil shock is a rise in the price levels of liquid fuels for transport and other uses, and in the costs of oil-based petrochemicals. The gold price shock effect seems to be quite stable from the first month till the last period. However, contrary to mean effect the shock effect is positive.

A shock effect in broad money supply has a negative and consistent response effect in the sector returns throughout the period of ten months. This suggests that though the effect is negative the shock doesn't trend in any undesirable way to be of concern.

4.4 Variance Decomposition Results

Table 4 on the following page presents the variance decomposition results which illustrates as to how much of the forecast error variance for any variable is explained by shocks to each descriptive variable. The focus is solely placed on the dependent variable, the Oil and Gas sector returns. The objective is to observe the effects of shocks to the regressed variable in the short and long-run. Short-run indicator is represented by the third period, while the long-run indicator in represented by the tenth period.

The results reflect a positive shock on oil and gas returns, OILP, EXR, M3 and GP. The shock in oil and gas returns causes 85.55% of the fluctuations in the sector returns, that is, Oil and gas's own shock. Furthermore, the shocks in OILP causes about 5.04% of the fluctuation in the sector returns; shocks in EXR causes about 3.02% fluctuations in the sector returns, and shocks in M3 and GP causes about 2.58% and

Table 4: Variance Decomposition

Variance of De-composition	Period	S.E	OilGas	OilP	EXR	M3	GP
OilGas	1	0.242868	100.0000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
	3	0.274280	85.55268	5.036931	3.019027	2.581164	3.810202
	10	0.387244	76.15645	5.376925	7.825196	5.207713	5.433720

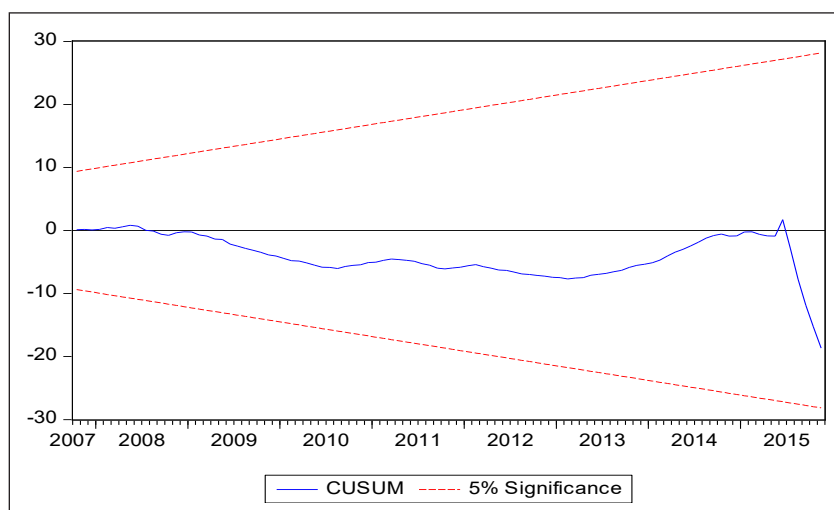
Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

Table 5: Heteroscedasticity Test, ARCH

F-statistic	0.198968	Prob. F(1,100)	0.6565
Obs*R-squared	0.202544	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.6527

Source: Author's computation with E-Views 9.0

Figure 2: CUSUM Stability Test



Source: Author

3.81% fluctuations in the sector returns in the short-run (third month) respectively. In the long-run (tenth month) the shocks are still minimal, however, with EXR showing some improved shock effect. Oil and gas shock and effect on itself causes a 76.16% fluctuations, while EXR causes a 7.83% fluctuations in the sector returns. OilP, M3 and GP shock effect trends is similar, hovering around the mean of 5% at 5.38%, 5.28% and 5.43% fluctuations respectively in the long-run.

4.5 Diagnostic Tests and Stability Results

After running the GARCH estimation, a post estimation diagnostic test is required to assess whether the heteroskedasticity problem is corrected. Table 5 shows the ARCH-LM test after the heteroscedasticity was run through the GARCH residual process.

The presence of heteroscedasticity is rejected through the ARCH test as revealed in Table 5. The

probability of the 0.6565 greater 0.5 rejects the null hypothesis of heteroscedasticity. This test further justifies the reliability of the GARCH model, which then gives impetus to the results as significant and reliable. This test is also formulated on the same principle and similar formulas as the white test and the Bruesch Pagan test (Brooks, 2002).

Furthermore, in Figure 2 the CUSUM test output reports satisfying results, in that, the blue CUSUM line fluctuates inside the two red critical lines which is a condition for stability. Henceforth, the oil and gas stock returns model is stable and reliable, therefore these results could be trusted.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study investigated the role of macroeconomic variables movements on the JSE's oil and gas stock return volatility for the period 2007 to 2015. Monthly

time series data was used and GARCH, impulse response and variance decomposition techniques were employed for analysis. Incorporating volatility, it was found that Brent crude oil prices and broad money supply had a positive and significant effect on Oil and Gas sector stock return, at 1% and 10% respectively. Oil prices and broad money supply have the power to cause an effect in sector stock returns. Therefore, investors should be in the lookout for Brent crude oil price fall as this would yield a fall in stock returns, hence exposing investors to negative returns. While, exchange rates and gold price movements had a negative and significant effect on the sector stock returns, all at 1%. Gold prices increases poses as a risk exposure in that capital or funds may be shifted away from oil and gas stocks as gold is proven to be a safe haven asset. Depreciation of the Rand adds to the extent of the gravity to entice international investors to prefer gold commodity as opposed to the oil and gas stocks. As a recommendation, portfolio managers and interest players should keenly monitor gold prices to negate any losses due to gold positive performance.

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The Assessment of the 7C Protocols for Policy Implementation in Improving Service Delivery in South African Municipalities

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Abstract: This paper attempts to recognise and discuss the assessment of the 7C protocols for policy implementation in improving service delivery in South African municipalities. The paper reviews the literature on the previous 5Cs, and how they partly created policy gaps in local government. The advantages of successful 7Cs are to plan effectively and execute better policy. The main thrust of this paper is to clarify the 7C protocol concepts, and identify the fundamentals of policy implementation in improving municipal services. The paper adopts a desktop study, and reviews literature in order to explore the dynamics of the previous 5Cs towards becoming the 7Cs. It therefore, exposes policy gaps which existed during the application of the 5C protocols. Hence, it recommends what could be possibly be done to apply the 7C protocols to municipal service delivery.

Keywords: Commitment, C protocols, Policy, Policy implementation

1. Introduction

Over the past decades South African has undergone a rigorous policy changes like many other African countries (Wynberg & De Beer, 2018). This contributed towards the phase of improving service delivery both in the public service and public sector. The continuous Policy implementation and service delivery are fundamental to the contemporary society. There are countless cases recorded in the media about service delivery protests or the lack thereof. This has caused the government to place much attention in service delivery and to improve in policy implementation particularly in local government sphere. Therefore, the question that confronts everyone in government is how does one enhances strategies for implementation and ensure successful service delivery. New policy developments have to take place. New strategies have to be adopted since people are experiencing an ever-changing society. The government cannot constantly continue to use the same old strategies for decades. Communities have changed and even their needs have changed. The government need to meet and match the needs its citizens.

Successful service delivery cannot be achieved overnight. It would require policy development, implementation so as to improve service deliver. Lack of policy development should be avoided particularly in improving service delivery (Mokimi, Schneider & de Vries, 2018). The policy development

and implementation need to be consolidated in a coherent manner of which match the ongoing policy and strategies system so that performance management mechanisms are developed and reviewed in government.

2. Theoretical Framework

The idea of policy cycle as a model or framework has over the past years received much attention across the field of research. Theoretical framework attacks exist in the theories that guide policy process as a model. This has discredited the application of the policy process as a model or framework. According to Jann and Wegrich (2007:43) the idea of applying policy process as a model was first put forward by Lasswell. Laswell's initially introduced seven stage which as (1) intelligence; 2) promotion, 3) prescription, 4) invocation, 5) application, 6) termination and 7) appraisal. Lasswell's aimed to establish 'a multidisciplinary and prescriptive policy science'. However, this approach to use the seven as a model was contested and criticised due to the stage that termination was before the appraisal stage. As time passed by, the three generation of implementation research emerged. Their ultimate aim was introducing different theoretical approaches which include 1) top-down theories, 2) bottom-up theories, and hybrid theories.

The top-down theories were supported by works of Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), Sabatier and

Mazmanian (1980, 1979), Bardach (1977), Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) and Pressman and Wildavsky (1973). The top-down theories supported the idea that policy implementation begins with a decision made by the central government. Pulzl and Tribe (2007) points out that these theories were strictly based on the assumption that only central policy makers were the ones that had power to drive the government vehicle, which inclined to disregard the impact that such policies had on the actual implementers on policy delivery. As a remedy to the top-down theories, the bottom-up theories emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The bottom-up theories were perceived as a critical response to the ills done by the top-down theories. On the contrary, bottom-up theories have been criticised for its lack of guaranteeing acceptable behaviour of local bureaucrats. Thereafter, the hybrid theories were introduced with the ultimate aim to overcome the confusion found between the top-down, and bottom-up theories and other theoretical models which may have existed (Winter, 1990; Elmore, 1985; Ripley & Franklin, 1982; Majone & Wildavsky, 1973).

Given the theoretical framework, the purpose of this paper, the theoretical framework sketches across the stages of the policy cycle, which include amongst others; agenda-setting; problem recognition and issue selection, policy formulation and decision-making, implementation, evaluation and termination. The theories of the policy cycle (Jann & Wegrich, 2006:4554).

3. Conceptualising the Meaning of Policy Implementation

DeGroff and Cargo (2009:47) attest that policy implementation compose of multiple change process. The process where government decisions are transformed into projects, programs, procedures, practices and regulations should at all times focuses on improving socio-economic issues. Public policy has to do with the selection of strategies and making choices (Raipa, 2002:10). The policy process includes amongst others (1) agenda setting, (2) issue identification, (3) policy formulation, (4) policy decision, (5) policy implementation, (6) evaluation, (7) maintenance, succession, or termination. In simple terms policy implementation can be defined as a process of carrying out government decisions.

The concept of policy implementation is very broad. However, in defining policy implementation, it is

critical to draw a distinction between policy implementation process and policy outcomes. According to O'Toole (2000) policy implementation process and policy outcomes are interactive in practice. DeGroff and Cargo (2009) provides that policy process differs from policy outcomes. The process has to do with action on the behalf of the policy itself, while on the other hand policy outcomes has to do with the ultimate effect on the policy problem. Implementation further includes the process where ideas are shared as policy, then later be transformed into acceptable behaviour and expressed as social action. The main purpose of implementation is meant for social betterment and which lead to the transformation of programs, procedures, practices and regulations by government.

The study of policy implementation has gone various changes. It has swung in and out of fashion in the past years. O'Toole (2000) claims that the subject has gained much attention since the Great Society and the subsequent years of the welfare state and budgetary crises in California during an Economic Development Administration project. The Great Society was the initial idea of the former American Lyndon B. Johnson's presidency in the 1960s; his ultimate aim was to introduce the antipoverty programs with anticrime programs to lay the foundation for the contemporary mass incarceration. This was to fight the inequality experienced in the black American communities through the civil rights movement. The implementation of the programs contributed to certain legislations like the Voting Rights Acts and the Law Enforcement Assistance Act, which later broke ill operations of local police (Hinton, 2015).

Grindle (2017) has a different point of view that the politics of policy implementation has emerged as a public discourse for scholars in public administration, politics, and policy science in the third world. Implementation has drawn attention through a wide variety of issues, ranging from the availability of sufficient resources towards the structure of intergovernmental relations. Policy implementation even when done successfully, it still involves far more than just technical way of achieving goals into a routine project and procedures.

The substantial works of Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) have been studied and reviewed. This works has uncovered many unknown and masked myths about policy implementation. Much literature is

expected to be available and accessible but yet it is not found. In fact, public administration and social science should have countless literature on the subject (Brynard, 2005). There's a gap between public policy and policy implementation even to this day. The insights of significant analytical work of implementation are often lacking. In this context this could be the reason why some government fail to implement public policy successfully. Grindle (2017) argues that policy implementation depends on the program carried out assuming that the program is to be geared towards the attainment of policy goals, whereas this assumption is not often borne into practice. In this context, if the assumption is found to be faulty or wrong, then the policy implementation could fail. Consequently, this partly affects service delivery. Gabriela (2016) raises a question of how can policy implementations be defined if there can be public policy with visions based on the ever-changing of government institutions, organisations and people? In reality there is unreformed public space, aligned to obsolete guidelines. The question that should be actively taken into consideration is; how one chooses the right strategy to synergise policy implementation and improve service delivery.

Brynard (2005) indicate that there's still confusion of where does implementation has to start, how many types of implementation are there and when it should end? The most common meaning of implementation found is similar to that of Webster which means to carry out government decision, to accomplish, to fulfil, to produce or complete what been set by government. Implementation also has to do with how one forges relevant links in line with the casual chain in order to attain the desired outcome.

According to Van Meter and Van Horn (1974:447) "policy implementation encompasses those actions by private or private individuals or groups that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions". Khan (2016) claims that policy implementation involves translation of goals and objective of a policy into an action. In addition, policy implementation is an important process of the policy-making process. "Policy implementation can be viewed as a process, an output and an outcome, and it involves a number of actors, organisations and techniques of control. It is the process of the interactions between setting goals and actions directed towards achieving the" (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973:74).

The variations found in research strategies have contributed to different meaning of implementation (Wheat, 2010). Ferman (1990:152) referred to policy implementation as "what happens between policy expectations and perceived policy results". For the new democratic dispensation, a more precise definition is required. Policy Implementation is the process in which basic policy decisions are expressed, corrected and defined to fit the needs of the concerned citizens through proper evaluation of government officials who are to exercise formal authority with no fear or favour. This definition is influence by Mazmaniam and Sabatier (1983:20-21) definition which say "policy implementation is the carrying out of a basic policy decision made by government officials exercising formal authority".

4. Three Generations of Research into Implementation

As highlighted earlier, variations in research strategies have caused various understanding and meaning of policy implementation. Literature provides partly confusing definitions, meaning, and strategies on policy implementation. This leaves the question how can one choose the best and successful strategy so as to improve service delivery, especially in local government. This sphere of government is where policy implementation is frequently questioned and challenged. In this context, it often leads to community protest due to lack of understanding of when and how policy implementation is to be executed (Sturgess, 2018:155).

Literature shows that there are three generation of research into implementation exists. This three generation have their own focus, own understanding and different ways of doing things (Brynard, 2005:651). The first generation also known as a cog in the administrative machine is of the assumption that policy implementation can just occur automatically as long as relevant policies are established and developed. It questions and challenges the decisions made. It demonstrates how implementation may fail. Case studies are used to show how possible it is to experience policy implementation failure. In other words, this helps in identifying future risks and problems, so that appropriate measures can be measured and applied. The second generation provides that policy implementation is a political process with minor implication as compared to policy formulation. The third generation also known as analytical generation pays little attention

to specific implementation failure. It places its attention on how things works in general and at least tries how prospects may be improved (Brynad, 2005:651-653).

5. The Policy Gap

According to Khosa in Brynard (2005) the policy gap that exists in some South African municipalities is mainly caused by unrealistic and unachievable policies and the lack of proper application of the 7C protocols in those policies. It can be argued that maybe the failure might be partly cause by the fact that most institutions appoint bad managers with lack of managerial expertise. Insubordination of policy implementation contributes to ineffective policy implementation. Case study approach researches are lacking, particularly in municipalities. In fact, if it were possible, each municipality is supposed to be exposed in terms of their weakness and use that in turn as a strategy to implement policy (Nachum, Norouzi, Xu & Schuurmans, 2017). This could assist the provincial government to offer whatever training should be done. Another key finding is that there's a huge gap in matching the job requirements. The inability to link municipal principles and objectives with that of the national and provincial government remains another issue in other municipalities. This creates a space for failure and it hampers the implementation process. Lack of communication amongst government officials has contributes towards poor co-ordination; it has weakened the commitment of employees. It frustrates communities when they do not receive their basic needs, let alone this amount to unending service delivery protests.

6. Making Use of the 7C Protocols as a Tool to Improve Service Delivery in Municipalities

The origin of the 5C protocols was first introduced by scholars like Brynard in the early 2000s. The 5C model is primarily influenced by studies conducted in the Netherlands at the Erasmus University Rotterdam. The opportunity to make use of the 5Cs was to strategically synergize the complex linkages involved in policy implementation. Taking into cognisance policy implementation complexity the 5C critical variables were proposed by Brynard (2000:178-186 and 2005:656-662) with an aim to make sense of the misunderstood complexity of policy implementation. In reality, the 5C critical

variable for policy implementation was applied as from 2000s to late 2017. Although, Brynard (2002) suggested in his substantial works for policy implementation the sixth C, such as communication, it seemed like it was somehow neglected, and the 5Cs were the ones accepted and frequently use to improve service delivery. In this context, the 7Cs were later introduced in the early 2018 by Cloete, Coning, Wissink and Rabie, (2018) so as to put emphasis on improving service delivery with a more renewed focus on policy implementation.

It is crucially important to understand the 7C protocols as they can be used a tool for improving service delivery and the betterment of the society. Understanding policy implementation requires sound research as it is not an easy political process. Through time, the studies of policy implementation have become dynamic, their surroundings have changed and the processes itself have changed (Cloete, Coning, Wissink & Rabie, 2018). However, each institution or organisation has its own direction with regard to policy implementation. Therefore, the following sections seek to discuss the 7C variables with an ultimate aim of improving service delivery in municipalities.

6.1 Content

The issue of policy content is an old issue. It was Lowi (1963) who perceived policy as either "distributive, regulatory, or redistributive". In that broad sense, distributive policies are to yield public goods so as to fit the general welfare and are non-zero-sum in all its entirety. As for regulatory policies, policies should specify on how one is to behave guided by rules of conduct with proper punishment caused by failure to comply. With redistributive policies, it is attempted to change wealth distribution or power of certain groups at the expense of others.

Research supports the fact that policy content has been found useful by various implementation scholars (Edler & Fagerberg, 2017; Mugwagwa, Edwards & de Haan, 2015). However, there's still a growing concern that some municipalities in South Africa are still confronted issues of policy implementation. This has to be taken into account. Experienced scholars should assist municipalities with capabilities to identify and understand their content. Service delivery can be best provided if the policy content is critically understood as a process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared

to achieving them" (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). Policy content is what will help the municipality to draft the best Integrated Development Plan. The content is what makes the institution or organisation. No person can protest if the municipality still to their annual plans.

Principles and objectives affect policy content. It is evident that without principles and clear objective improving service delivery at the local level would be a difficult task. Therefore, municipalities should strive for good environmental principles and objectives. All this principles and objectives must be linked to the national and provincial policies and strategies. Some of the outdated principles and objectives should be scratched out with newly adopted ones guided by those policies and strategies set at the national and provincial level (Rakate, 2006).

6.2 Context

It is widely acceptable that any policy developed and implemented has to be within its initial context, so as to allow relevant theory and practice to match the focused area. This is key since a particular policy may be developed for a certain area with the aim of improving service delivery. Policy context helps in identifying political, social, economic, and legal setting. Policy makers can easily know in which area should be improved (Brynad, 2005).

The focus of this paper is on institutional context, which is likely to be shaped by the social, political, economic and legal circumstances. It is with no doubt that the outer context has to be acknowledged so as to bring about appropriate changes to the policy implementation. In other words, being aware of both the internal and external context might help in strengthening how a particular institution can respond to certain challenges or address them in policy formulation and implementation. This contributes the principal concern as to how policy implementation process can be impacted. The uncommon or unfavourable circumstance in policy implementation such as service delivery protests, threats, gestures of respect, public trust, bargaining and related issues often leads to effective working relations which in turn may partly improve service delivery. This is because; when the municipality is under public scrutiny and pressure it may work harder to maintain its reputation. This would be done in order to avoid failure to fulfil administrative obligations.

Improving service delivery requires policy to be institutionalised. Institutionalising a policy helps with the policy to be positioned at the desired direction. This is what municipalities should take into consideration. Everyone in the local government must be cognisant of which policy should guide them. Active leadership is required so as to provide necessary direction in the implementation process (Abbas & Asghar, 2010:10).

6.3 Commitment

The government may have all the required resources, the policy can be established fitting the cost and benefit analysis and it may have the best structure format, but if those responsible for executing it are not willing to do so, little will happen and government transformation might not be valued (Stephen, 2010:3; Najam, 1995:45 & Warwick, 1982:135). Commitment is the starting point towards the success of any policy. The availability of managerial, financial and political commitment is the beginning for achieving desired outcomes. Commitment is something that cannot be forced onto government officials. It requires an official to be highly motivated and know exactly what could be achieved with proper commitment. Commitment is often influenced by policy content, context, communication, clients, and coalition, and coordination. It is from within that government officials get to develop this kind of aspect (Oyelere, Opute & Akinsowon, 2015:2).

Commitment is needed in all policy process. Those involved in the process should have sense of ownership, and sense of belonging to a particular institution. This could improve their level of commitment. Their ideas should be analysed not negatively criticised. Ideas and strategies about improving service delivery should not be suppressed. The level of commitment amongst government in all spheres should be of high standard, particularly at the local level since it is closer to its constituents. The will to achieve goals and objectives triggers the commitment in government officials to perform better. The variable like that of content, capacity, context, clients and coalitions, communication and coordination cannot be ignore if one aspire for effective policy implementation and improve service delivery in local government (Koma & Tshiyoyo, 2015).

Decision makers are to be committed to their work. There must be enough buy-in from the decision made by municipal officials with regard to the provision of

service delivery. For instance, if a particular municipality has not been up to date with regard to both the national and provincial policy and legislation that would mean it will become difficult to improve service delivery. It will also mean that services provided at a particular municipality do not speak to what has been set by both the national and provincial government.

6.4 Capacity

Capacity is critical for the attainment of policy implementation and better service delivery. It comprises of both tangible and intangible resources. Tangible resources refer to resource like human, financial, material, technological, logistical and transportation, to mention but few. Intangible resources include commitment, leadership, motivation, willingness, guts, endurance, and trust. Segovia and Ramos (2018) advise that institutional capacities should be considered as the first step of establishment in the process of implementation.

It is an actual scientific fact that various municipalities often experience resource constraints. In fact, most municipalities' especially local municipalities in South Africa find themselves with limited resources such as funding and shortages of qualified staff and change of management issues (Mawela, Ochara & Twinomurizi, 20017:150; Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2009:4). Shortages of resources or the lack thereof contribute to cases where a particular municipality fail to step out their comfort zone so as to perform better than before and improve service delivery. Therefore, there's a need for a paradigm shift. A paradigm shift that would help generates enough revenue, and attracts newly and qualified staff. Government should be consistent in investing and training its employees so that policy implementation might progress and services to be rendered successfully (Hamid, Surbaini, Hadi & Zaaba, 2018:283).

In instances where the administrative capacity is questionable, particularly in providing services, one needs to have at their disposal alternative ways of doing things. This is because failure of fulfilling the administrative obligation can lead to provincial intervention in terms of Section 139 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The Section clearly stipulate that "when a municipality cannot or does not fulfil an executive obligation in terms of the Constitution or legislation, the relevant provincial

executive may intervene by taking any appropriate steps to ensure fulfilment of that obligation." This should be avoided at all costs in municipalities that could be affected. The administrative capacity is fundamental to the application of policy and its implementation, hence, to adequately satisfy community needs. Additional support from other stakeholders, including the provincial government should be considered.

6.5 Clients and Coalitions

The application of the newly 7C protocols is critical for any government institution. The previous 5C protocols have been effectively applied in other institutions. For instance, service delivery has been improved in the Western Cape through the Grabouw ELF Non-Governmental-Organization (NGO). Community members became the clients of this NGO as they were provided with training for community project. The project was aimed at developing and improving agricultural firms as small business. The project also included construction development, social development, entrepreneurship, and training of municipal officials. This local initiative is how happy clients are made.

Local councils wishing to play a vital role in improving communities should not be denied the opportunity by both the provincial and national government. Administrators in provincial government should understand and appreciate any effort made to improve the lives of communities. In addition, Brynad (2005:661) emphasizes that coalitions produce good working environment and improves the success of service delivery.

The gap between some municipalities and their clients need to be filled with an effective tool to engage the relevant stakeholders. Engagement strategies include amongst others; community engagement, local government communication forum and district communication forum as a communication coordination point. Hence, the engagement strategies must be actively applied. Stakeholders should be involved before any initiative is to be undertaken, and such must be implemented without any bias. Rondinelli (1997) affirm that policy implementation requires clear and appropriate tools on how to satisfy clients and form relevant coalitions. Formal strategy should be at hand in order to ensure that all clients are treated and fairly engaged in the affair of their government. Moreover, in support of local coalition

the government has done a tremendous task to boost service delivery mechanism in local municipalities through outsourcing, corporatisation, decentralisation, joint ventures, partnerships and alliances, assistance, consultants, privatisation and other means to improve service delivery (Suess, 2013).

6.6 Communication

Communication is crucially important in any institution. The substantial works of Bouah (2016) made a tremendous opportunity to contribute in adding communication as part of the 7C protocol. Brynad (2005) also included communication in his article as the sixth variable of the previous 5C protocols. Although, communication was suggested as the sixth C, one could say it was partly neglected as part of the adopted 5Cs. Policy implementation must be communicated with the implementers; therefore, this makes communication as an integral part of the variable for effective implementation. The role of NGOs and civil society organisation should form part of the communication strategy. Policy information that affects policy implementers and the municipality at large should be neglected. The media including community radio stations, newspapers, and social networks should form part of the communication strategy. It can be singled out that the integral part of all the variables is communication, hence all variables are crucial in policy development and implementation.

6.7 Coordination

According to Burger (2015:94) coordination is the most important tool for ensuring the success of policy implementation. Coordination plays a crucial role because if all variables such as content, context, commitment, capacity, clients and coalitions, and communication are put into place and no one is willing to coordinate then poor policy implementation might partly be experienced. Coordination today is recognised as the 7th C in Najam's protocols. In this paper coordination is referred to as a variable that can be developed, used and embodied in an organisation as a tool to induce a desired behaviour in policy implementation. Peters (2018:1) claims that coordination became popular in government since the 1980s. The concern over coordination was to try to match the success of the New Public Management (NPM) (Peters, 2018:1). Coordination is critical to the NPM partly because without active coordination the NPM framework or paradigm may

fail to fully modernize and re-engineer the public sector (Hope, 2001:119).

Coordination consists of inter-organisational and intra-organisational coordination. Inter-organisation coordination happens whenever two government departments interact to provide a particular service. For instance, this may be in the form of "Public-Public-Partnership (PPP)" (Walwyn & Nkolele, 2018). Public-Private-Partnership is a glimpse of the NPM strategy to allow for organisations to interact with an ultimate aim of enhancing service delivery. Intra-organisational coordination refers to a situation whereby employees try to improve the working relationships with the same department by working together for the betterment of achieving successful implementation and service delivery (Riech & Hershcovis, 2011:11). This kind of coordination may help relief departments and individuals of complex tasks and policies.

When everyone knows what is required of them and such are clearly specified in the content of the policy, then commitment might improve in some organisation. Work with required skills, knowledge, qualifications, and experience should be specified so that individuals and the organisation should take into account in which area should capacity be built and improved. This is important as it gives direction on what kind of staff are to perform a particular task.

Communication should remain effective in policy implementation. Where there's no communication or the lack thereof, there's lack of coordination. The communication tools must trigger active coordination. In simple terms, poor communication results in poor content, context, commitment, capacity, clients/coalition, communication, and coordination. Effective communication brings successful coordination (Husain, 2013:43). Peters (2018) argues that policy is a designed task, and a designed task requires a designed coordination. In essence, a good coordination is like a map which show how things ought to be done by others with others.

7. Applying the 7C Protocols to Improving Municipal Service Delivery

Different opinions and views are expressed in research on how the 7C protocols can be used and applied. However, little or no studies exists which shows how various organisations including municipalities are making use of the 7C protocols to better

improve the success of policy implementation and service delivery. Brynard (2005) contend that internationally various paradigms are prominently debated and practised. South Africa, for example, seems to have chosen a complete different path in implementing various policies in Government. The question that remains is whether South African government have had successful policy implementation. The answer is debateable. Ngcobo (2007) argues that policy implementation should meet the modern problems and solve them in order to maintain a modern status quo in policy implementation. Wittenberg (2006:550) suggests that highly decentralised element enshrined in policy is offset by centralising in the political arena. Rosenberg and Wrinkler (2017) assert that much attention is being provided to the complex policy and translate it into policy implementation actions. Since South Africa remains in the implementation era, it is important that some municipalities understand the response they are expected to provide under normal circumstances. This could be questioned and challenged by the citizenry.

In the attainment of successful policy implementation and service delivery, all supporting legislative frameworks, sources of finance, institutional arrangements and the need for co-operative governance must be actively considered at all policy implementation centres. Municipalities operate with the system of co-operative governance; therefore, even the development and implementation of policies must be in line with the 7C protocols. Thirusellvan (2015) suggests that utilising a case study approach to map policy principles could help in exploring how other organisation are equipping themselves with the right tools.

South African communities have suffered for many decades, and today because of the new democratic dispensation, service delivery protests should not be as major problem. The policy discrepancies need a proper turnaround strategy, especially in local government. The ultimate recommendation is that during the decision-making process, municipalities should not neglect the importance of the 7C protocols.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

In a nutshell, the South African public sector has undergone drastic policy reforms. This can be mirrored at the national, provincial and local government where technical committees have had joint

committees to incorporate all effort in improving service delivery. The policy gaps including leadership, politics and administration, commitment, management must be exposed by interdisciplinary teams within municipalities. A municipality must review their existing policies and check if such fit with the 7C protocols. The purpose of reviewing policies helps to re-structure and realise some the flaws in policies. This is a sign that a lot still need to be done in terms of implementation and service delivery. The provincial and local sphere of government can learn from successful lead projects implemented by the national government. The gap in coherence of policy implementation and service delivery requires an urgent response both at the provincial and local level.

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Provision of Recreational Facilities by Local Government in South Africa: A Case of City of Tshwane

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Abstract: The provision of recreational facilities in South Africa has been receiving considerable attention as a significant part of the character of a planned community. This is due to their value in contributing to the on-going economic vitality of communities throughout the country in areas of tourism, revenue producers for entrepreneurs and recreational spaces within natural resources. This realization has placed a mammoth task on authorities within the local sphere of government. Municipalities are at the epicenter of the both the provision of these facilities in terms of availability of resources, quality and accessibility of these facilities by local communities. To ensure that these facilities contribute to the strategic value and a direction of sustainable recreational services, this article presents the results of a study conducted within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipal area in predominantly / underdeveloped communities. A case study design research paradigm was designed for this study in which data was collected through survey questionnaires, official reports and archival documents. What the study revealed is the incongruence of the officials' views as against the communities' expectations. The recommendations are presented to effect alignment of this challenge.

Keywords: Benefit-based management, Metropolitan municipality, Recreation facilities, Tshwane metropolitan municipal

1. Introduction

This study was prompted by the need to understand the underlying factors on the importance of the provision of recreational facilities as a significant part of the character of a planned community. These facilities contribute to making community desirable places to live, work, play and visit, thereby contributing to the on-going economic vitality of communities throughout the country. This article was also necessitated by the need to investigate management structures and plans of recreational facilities to determine the success and identify what they want to achieve through financial and social objectives on meeting local needs. A well-developed management plan is a useful promotional tool for educating staff, community groups and decision makers about the importance of recreational facilities and their management, and what they try to achieve. Recreational facilities exist in two broad categories of structures. One is natural environment where little about the attraction has been constructed by people; the other category of recreation facilities include man-made structures, which are planned, conceived, designed, constructed and occupied by management system to deliver a recreation product (Mull, Beggs & Renneisen, 2009:18-9), Managers, have the ability to manipulate recreation settings

which can directly or indirectly influence recreation behavior that results in visitor-produced recreation experiences and benefits. Creating and maintaining a recreation facility as a fundamental space requires significant management effort. This forms the basis of recreation facility management, a support process aimed at enhancing the success of the core product and its extensions. This article will limit itself to the following aspects as they relate to the South African local government system, with reference to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM); National Framework for Local Economic Development in South Africa; National and Provincial Sports and Recreational Legislation and associated strategic documents. The challenges of the provision of recreational facilities faced by the City and possible recommendations will be advanced.

2. The History of Recreation: A Global Overview

During the Middle Ages (1000-1500), the need to enclose cities within protective walls necessitated building within a compact area that left little space for public gardens or sports areas. Satellite communities developed around the city, but usually with little definite planning. As the Renaissance period (1400-1600) began, European town planning was characterised

by wide avenues, long approaches, handsome buildings, and similar monumental features. There were walks and public squares often decorated with statuary. In some cases, religious brotherhoods built clubhouses, gardens, and shooting stands for archery practice that were used by town people for recreation and amusement. Great outdoor gardens were established in England to provide entertainment and relaxation (McLean & Hurd, 2012).

McLean and Hurd, (2012) further state that, the earliest planned outdoor spaces were commons or greens found in many New England communities and used chiefly for pasturing cattle and sheep but also for military drills, market days and fairs. In the design of new cities, the colonists began to give attention to the need for preserving or establishing parks and open spaces. From the mid-nineteenth through the early twentieth century this period was characterised by the widespread development of organised recreation activities and facilities by government and voluntary agencies with the intent of achieving desirable social outcomes. The beginning of the twentieth century was an exciting period marked by growing economic and recreational opportunity. At the same time, municipal parks became well established throughout the United State of America (USA). Gradually the concept that city governments should provide recreation facilities, programs and service became widely accepted.

In the 1860s, recreation in Australia has developed into a major land use, the activities that come under the broad category of recreation are really a series of land uses with varying social, economic and environmental impacts (Education and Tourism: Recreation and Tourism, 2013:1) From the earliest days in the 1800s, the beginning of the organised recreation increased. The development of facilities specifically for recreation began with the construction of government accommodation chalets in popular areas. Australian government did not consider biodiversity conservation as a high priority in the creation of protected natural areas until the 1970s. The contemporary view of protected natural areas recognises their value for conservation of biodiversity and associated ecosystem services that support human survival (Hughes, 2012).

3. The History of Recreational Facilities Management in South Africa

Since the emergence in the 1940s of an industrialised market economy in South Africa, the demand

for outdoor recreation and tourism has surged, spurred on by the availability of attractive physical facilities, greater leisure time, higher disposable income, and improved education and general living standards. Apartheid had a severe impact on the leisure lifestyles of South Africans, as degrees of affluence had become closely associated with race. Irrespective of these racial practices various sport organisations tirelessly fought for establishing a sport system free of discrimination and that would provide equal participation opportunities for all South Africans. The advent of democracy in 1994 ushered in significant changes to policies and legislation that impacted on all sectors of society and that addressed all aspects of political, social economic and human rights of people. On the same year when the newly elected democratic government came to power, it has been exerting its influence, not only on the provision and utilisation of recreational facilities, but also on the outdoor recreation behaviour patterns of many (South Africans, National Sport and Recreational Plan, 2011).

Sport and recreation in South Africa aims to improve the quality of life of all South Africans by promoting participation in sports and recreation in the country, and through the participation of sport people and teams in international sporting events. The Siyadlala Mass Participation Programme (SMPP) is the cradle of community sports in South Africa. The programme was launched in 2005 to facilitate access to sports and recreation for as many South Africans as possible, especially those from historically disadvantaged communities. The idea is to establish at least one hub in every ward in every municipality across South Africa. In 2005, the ministries of education and of sport and recreation signed a partnership agreement to resuscitate and revitalise school sports and Physical Education programmes. It focuses on capacity building, providing sports equipment for use at events, sustaining the programme by supporting local sports assistants and local leagues, and providing logistical support.

3.1 The National Level

National Sport and Recreation Act 110 of 1998 was established to provide for the promotion and development of sport and recreation in the republic. The Act determines the sport and recreation policy after consultation with or after consideration of proposals made by the Sport Confederation in so far as high performance sport is concerned, and

determine the general policy to be pursued with regard to sport and recreation. The policy determined by the Minister may, among others:

- Confirm the roles and responsibilities amongst the various role players in sport and recreation to ensure that all efforts are coordinated in an efficient manner.
- Maintain the focus on the administration of sport and recreation, as well as the development of a volunteer corps, to assist in the implementation of the various mass participation programmes.
- Provide funds annually for the creation and upgrading of basic multipurpose sport and recreation facilities subject to the provisions of section ten and according to priorities as determined by Sport and Recreation South Africa in consultation with provincial and local government and relevant sport or recreation bodies, (subsection 5(b) of Act 18 of 2007).

The National Sport and Recreation Plan (2011) was formulated within the framework of non-sexist and democratic principles as enshrined in South African Constitution (1996). In this regard sports and recreation should be seen as an integral part of transforming the society.

3.2 Policies, Programs and Plans Relating to Sports and Recreation

The White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2011) makes a clear pronouncement on government's policy regarding sport and recreation in the Republic of South Africa regarding the value of sport and recreation as a social connector, one of its most powerful development attributes. Community sport and recreation networks are an important source of social networking, helping to combat exclusion and fostering communities' capacity to work collectively to realise opportunities and address challenges. It sets out government's vision, strategic objectives, policy directives, outcomes and outputs for promoting and providing sport and recreation. In formulating White Paper on Sport and Recreation, cognisance was taken of the strategic environment in which sport and recreation is delivered. The effective implementation of government's policy on sport and recreation will also require an appropriate legislative framework, White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2011).

The focus of the National Sport and Recreation Plan is the physical well-being of the nation, it will focus on supporting sport and active recreation. There is a need to use active recreation programmes as a means to develop citizenship values in young and to teach them how to make a valuable contribution to their communities. Active recreation programmes should be designed to reach broad sectors of the population, including marginalised groups, affording them access to participation and a share in the wider sport community. The National Sport and Recreation Plan recognise that recreation is a significant part of any nation's culture, leisure time, health, economy and education. The physical activities people engage in, how they are integrated into community life, the values expressed through them and how they are celebrated, helps define individuals, groups, communities and a nation. Innovative campaigns targeting the inactive sectors need to be actioned to promote participation in sport and recreation by initiating and implementing targeted campaigns. Employees without the opportunity to participate in wellness programmes may develop serious illness and could find themselves on long-term disability for an extended period of time or be forced to discontinue working entirely National Sport and Recreation Plan, (2011).

3.3 Provincial Legislation, Plans and Programs

Gauteng Provincial Government through the Department of Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation (SACR) is geared toward ensuring the access, increased participation and transformation of the sport, arts, culture and recreation sectors in a manner that yields optimum socio-economic benefits for all in the province. The department's vision is to develop Gauteng as a vibrant home of champions where sport, arts, culture and recreation promote nation building, social cohesion, economic growth and sustainable livelihoods through ensuring skilled, active and healthy communities, Gauteng online: (2012). The mandate of the Department of Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation (DSACR) is drawn directly from Schedule 4 and 5 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which describes the functional areas of exclusive provincial legislative competence. In response to this mandate, the aim of the Department of Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation is to ensure access, increased participation and transformation of the sports, arts, culture and recreation sectors in a manner that yields optimum social and economic benefit for all in the province, and promotes nation building and social

cohesion among its people, Department: Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation. Strategic Plan, (2009-2014).

To ensure that the Gauteng Provincial Government invests in and supports the sector in promoting access, equity and redress, the department, through the mass participation programme, implements a number of recreational programmes ranging from adventure courses for youth at risk, sport for safety programmes, cluster festivals, fun runs, fun walks, marathons, 16 days of activism programmes, indigenous games, capacity building programmes, gymnastada, holiday programmes and golden games (Revised Five Year Strategic Plan, 2009-2014).

4. The Theoretical Framework Informing Facilities Management

In order to provide a context within which the study was conducted, two main theoretical frameworks were considered (i.e. Benefit-Based Management and Cost-Based Management / Cost-Benefit Analysis Approach) however, for the purpose of the study and this article the Benefit-Based Management (BBM) was adopted in is hereby explored.

4.1 Benefit-Based Management (BBM)

Benefit-based management (BBM), a new and evolving recreation management framework, targets hard to measure benefits in an attempt to define clearly the outcomes of recreation engagements. Within BBM, a benefit is an improved condition or state of an individual, a group of individuals, a society, or even nonhuman organisms. While the beneficial outcomes of recreation and leisure are becoming more widely documented and programs to facilitate positive outcomes for participants in urban recreation and sports activities are being more widely developed, managing public lands for recreation benefits is relatively new idea, (Stein & Lee, 1995). BBM expands experience-based management does not only at individual benefits but also social, economic, and environmental benefits. In order to provide opportunities for recreationists to achieve desired benefits, managers must have some knowledge of the relationship between setting characteristics and desired beneficial outcomes. A critical element in the application of BBM is an understanding of the role of the provider or recreation manager in providing benefit opportunities to recreation customers. This will require knowledge of the relationships between benefits and the activities and setting characteristics

that may facilitate realisation of those benefits (Stein & Lee, 1995).

Borrie & Roggenbuck (1995) are of the view that the BBM approach focuses on the effects of a recreational activity rather than on the activity itself. BBM is an attempt to reverse this trend by providing a clearer understanding and documentation of the recreation management process and outcomes and by giving the community voice in the planning process. It also aims to explicitly identify the unmet needs of the community, to develop specific time-bound management objectives that guide planning and programming to help meet these needs, and then to measure the outputs, or social benefits, of an agency's management. The successful classes and programs of a previous year are commonly used to simply replicate a de facto policy decision for further years. These decision making processes focus on the provision of recreation activities and on the number of people who participate in them. Facilities, staff abilities, and resource constraints also determine which opportunities are offered. BBM goes beyond simple exhibited demand for park and recreation opportunities because it looks at the needs of the people rather than just what they demand.

BBM seeks to understand not only individual on-site beneficial experiences, but also the off-site benefits, which accrue to individuals, society, the economy and the environment from the provision of public recreation opportunities (Anderson, Nickerson, Stein & Lee, 2000). A benefit can be looked at as the value-added portion of a community's role as tourism provider for persons recreating on nearby wild land areas. In terms of the BBM, benefits can be associated with one of four general categories: personal, societal, economic and environmental. The causality chain describes the temporal nature of benefit accrual and helps explain the relationships between short and long term benefits and the corresponding connection between in-site beneficial experiences and off-site benefits. Incorporating all four types of benefits into recreation resource management corresponds well with the holistic approach described within the ecosystem management literature (Anderson, Nickerson, Stein & Lee, 2000).

Bruns, Driver, Lee, Anderson & Brown, (1994) stipulate that applications for BBM include clarifying visitor demands and needs, promoting sound resource allocation decisions, optimizing management by

clarifying outputs, enabling consumers to exercise greater sovereignty in their leisure decision making, facilitating closer working relationships among a diversity of recreation-tourism partners, and advancing leisure theory and the leisure profession. BBM builds on existing managerial frameworks rather than replacing them, it expands the frame of reference for experience-based management by looking at improved conditions over time and by explicitly specifying the desirability of the managerial outputs or results which have been defined as benefits.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Overview of the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

The South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, provides for three categories of municipalities. The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, Act 117 of 1998, contains criteria for determining when an area must have a category A-Municipality, (Metropolitan Municipality is a municipality that has exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in its area) and municipalities that fall into categories B (local municipalities that shares municipal executive and legislative authority in an area with a category C municipality within whose area it falls) or C (district municipalities that has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality).

City of Tshwane is classified as a Category A Grade 6 Urban Municipality by the Municipal Demarcation Board in terms of section 4 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act, Act 117 of 1998. The Municipality was established on 5 December 2000 through the integration of various municipalities and councils that had previously served the greater Pretoria regime and surrounding areas. The new City of Tshwane which has a Mayoral Executive System combined with a ward participatory system in accordance with section 2 (g) of the Determination of Types of Municipality Act, 1 of 2000, and section 2(1) (c) (vii) of the North West Municipal Structures Act 3 of 2000, it has 105 wards, 210 councillors and about 2,5 million residents, and is divided into seven regions. As the administrative seat of government and hosting a number of embassies, City of Tshwane has proven to be a leader on the African continent in providing affordable industrial sites, various industries, office space, education and research facilities, (City of Tshwane: online 29 May 2013).

The Municipality serves the residents of Tshwane through the following departments: City Planning and Development, Corporate and Shared Services, Economic Development, Emergency Services, Health and Social Development, Housing and Human Settlement, Metro Police, Public Works and Infrastructure Development, Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture, Transport and Roads, and ICT Management. The main focus in this regard is the Department of Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture (the diagram below provides an inside picture of the Department). This department fall under the umbrella of National Department of Sport and Recreation (City of Tshwane: www.cityoftshwane.co.za online). The functionality of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) is premised on the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (1996) which affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. In line with these constitutional imperatives, SRSA has been assigned the powers and functions to develop and implement national policies and programmes regarding sport and recreation in the country. The National Sport and Recreation Act (NSRA) also ensures that South Africa contributes to sport, physical education and social development by legislating on sports participation as well as on sport infrastructure. In ensuring this, SRSA has Directorates that deal with facilities, mass mobilisation, school sport, and scientific support, as we required by the NSRA (Sport and Recreation South Africa Strategic Plan 2012-2016).

5.2 Functional Structures of the Department of Sport and Recreation (CTMM)

5.2.1 Strategic Executive Director for Department of Sport and Recreation

The Executive Director is responsible for the successful leadership and management of the organisation according to the strategic direction set by the board of directors.

5.2.2 Member of Mayoral Committee (MMC): City of Tshwane

The responsibilities of the Members of Mayoral Committee includes amongst other others to amplify the provision of municipal services and infrastructure. Accelerate economic growth, job creation and social development. Build sustainable communities with clean, healthy and safe environments as well as integrated social services. Strengthen participatory democracy and the Batho Pele principles. Promote sound governance and

ensure financial sustainability, and to intensify organisational development and transformation. The City of Tshwane contemplates these pillars in an endeavour to maximise its strengths and minimise its weaknesses, so as to make it possible for the City to deliver better and quality services to the residents of Tshwane.

5.2.3 Department of Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture

This department focuses on providing the best possible sport and recreation facilities and services to all people in Tshwane to enhance their quality of life. The focus is also on promoting and developing, conserving and maintenance of the arts, culture and heritage in the city by making a world renowned cultural city. And lastly to provide community library and information services that contribute to the development and education of all the residents of Tshwane. The core functions of the department as mandated by the Constitution are to provide: Library and Information Services, Arts and Culture development, Facilities development, Sport and Recreation Development, Heritage Resources Development, Events Management, Archival Services

5.3 Policies, Programs and Plans Relating to Sport and Recreation

Policies, programs and plans of the Municipality are guided and formulated according to the Integrated Development Plans as required by the Municipal Systems Act, Municipal Spatial Development Framework (MSDF), Physical Planning Act (1991), Strategic Plans and Different projects implemented to satisfy different and specific needs of the residents.

5.4 Projects Completed

The City of Tshwane covers an extensive area, characterised by different types of development in terms of character, scale and intensity. It currently consists of urban and rural areas. Not all areas are urbanised to the same extent, and the City of Tshwane also has significant regional open spaces and environmentally sensitive areas. These areas are located mainly at the periphery of the city. The open space system of the City of Tshwane currently consists of developed open spaces (decorative parks, play parks, traffic islands, boulevards, malls and squares), undeveloped open spaces (play parks and traffic islands) and nature areas. The nature areas consist of nature

conservation areas, mountains, ridges, river systems and catchment areas, parks and recreational facilities IDP (2012-2016).

The Municipality implements a range of projects to address the community, strategic and technical needs of the city. Some projects are funded through a capital budget, for example, roads with estimated budget of R950 million, as they create an asset for the city. Other projects are funded through an operational budget, for example training and skills development, sustainable communities with clean healthy and safe environments and integrated social services and also economic growth and development and job creation. Departments are required to indicate the location of planned projects, so that communities will know of the projects that will benefit them. There are still challenges in this regard, due to some projects being so large in nature that they are designed to benefit more than one community, for example the waste water treatment works.

City of Tshwane adopted region based service delivery model. Each region has a regional office, managed by a Regional Executive Director. Regions are divided into wards. These wards are led by Ward Councillors together with Ward Committees. 2011-2016 Integrated Development Plan (IDP) of City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality states that there are projects that are already completed regarding sports and recreational facilities.

The main focus area is largely on Region One (1) which consists of the following places, according to IDP 2011-2016, Ga-rankuwa, Mabopane, Winterveldt, Soshanguve, Theresa Park, Nina Park, Amandasig, Karen Park, Rosslyn, The Orchards, Kopanong, Klipkruisfontein and Hebron. For the purpose of this study, the focus was on the North Western Area of Region One: Ga-rankuwa, Mabopane, Soshanguve and Winterveldt. This region features informal settlements, low income residential areas and high dependency on public transport.

A. Mabopane Golf Development Project

It entails commencing bid to improve and develop golf as a sporting code. It targeted golf clinics where hands on tips, demonstrations and lectures by the professional golfers will be on display to the aspirant golfers. The young and upcoming golfers from disadvantaged backgrounds benefit from coaching methods, exposure to fundamental skills and techniques by the professionals.

B. Ga-Rankuwa Library

It is named after Mr VT Sefora, the first principal of the first high school in Ga-rankuwa called Thopo, and now called Tselatshweu, who was active in politics. It is situated in Ga-rankuwa, Zone 2. The general services of this library include assistance with school projects, study facilities, photocopying services and book loans. The library is also conveniently situated nearby tertiary institutions like Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) Medical University of South Africa (Medunsa). The focus of community library is on the provision of information, supporting education, the development and maintenance of a reading culture, and the presentation and facilitation of various developmental outreach programmes.

C. Soshanguve Block X Community Centre

This centre is a public location where members of a community tend to gather for group activities, social support, public information and other purposes.

D. West End Disability Sport Facility, Soshanguve Block K

This is a community based rehabilitation centre which works to enable persons with disability to overcome their physical limitations and empower them economically and socially to become self-reliant and fully integrated members of their community.

6. Related Challenges of Provision of Sport and Recreational Facilities**6.1 Management of Facilities**

Sport and recreational facilities are created to cater for the communities' needs at large. These facilities are managed on the daily basis through a diary and per appointment.

- A community member may book a facility according to the event that need to be pursued. All necessary documentation including amongst others the walk-in documents, message books, contract book, security damage deposit form as well as stationary and equipment forms will be filled to secure that particular facility.
- In order to ensure that facilities are at all times secured, a weekly attendance register of staff and weekly activity sheet that govern the various programs in various sport and recreational facilities.

6.2 Challenges Facing the Management of Sport and Recreational Facilities

- The challenge relates to the lack of resources, especially staffing and the minimal involvement of community in the planning stages of the projects.
- The lack of congruence between what the department's plans and the community's needs in terms of the actual service for a particular community, for example, hosting water or swimming polo clinic, which might not be relevant to a specific community as they don't have swimming pool or have less interest in swimming.
- Lack of full support and cooperation from ward councillors, the department and other stakeholders because of disagreements and miscommunication, lack of technical knowledge and understanding of projects, which tends to be time consuming.
- Lastly, compiling a report in the sport and recreation division (Standard and Norm report, Occupational Health and Safety report and Financial report), is always problematic as they don't usually correlate.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The overall aim of the paper was on the provision of recreational facilities in ensuring a complete and balanced life-style for communities, and the importance of their maintenance to ensure the vitality of communities. The article identified among others, that the CTMM is committed in its endeavour of providing the best in the provision and management of recreational facilities within its jurisdiction within its available financial and administrative capabilities. What came as a key aspect in the challenges identified relate to the role local communities play in ensuring the sustainability of the services by collaborating with the authority. The results revealed that the CTMM, in its pursuit of this mandate, is working within the ambits as provided for by the South African Constitution (1996), Sports and Recreational South Africa (National), the Provincial Framework, The Municipal Framework including its programmes and projects. The following are the recommendations based on the challenges identified:

Investing in Human Capital: The Department should consider investing in young people, with lots of energy and enthusiasm, through the possibility of

creating opportunities for sponsoring employees to universities and colleges to equip them with the necessary technical skills and knowledge regarding sport and recreation management.

Information Flow: Communication plays a vital role in the success of the project, therefore effective channels of communication and information be established between the government and city officials, elected representatives, communities and other stakeholders to facilitate effective participation.

Ensuring the Relevance of Projects to Communities: It is imperative for government to know the communities they serve and their needs. The Department should consider extensive involvement of in the planning of projects for the benefit of those communities.

Community Involvement in All Stages of Projects: the department should continuously engage stakeholders in all stages of projects to avoid boycotts and rejection of service delivery.

Standard Reporting: for the benefits of both government and communities, it is important that officials report on all phases of the projects that are undertaken. Reporting on all aspects agreed upon. These should include but not limited to norms and standards, occupational health and safety and, finally financials.

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The Paradox of Development Initiatives and Implementation Issues in Zimbabwe

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Abstract: This paper explores issues surrounding development and sustainability of development projects in the African context. Africa is a young continent with regards to development. The continent continuously faces various challenges such as economic stagnation, high levels of poverty and unemployment, political instability as well as increasing inequality. Cognizant of these challenges, development aid and project implementation are thus seen as a panacea to poverty reduction and the gateway to development, as they have a potential to improve the livelihoods of African citizens. For instance, through the interaction and contribution of various actors within the development spectrum, development project implementation can improve conditions for these developing economies. This paper presents a case study of beneficiaries of the International Labour Organization's youth development programme in Zimbabwe where the programme's sustainability in reducing poverty and improving lives was assessed. A qualitative approach was utilized to attain in depth knowledge on the program, from the perspectives of beneficiaries. Data was analyzed using qualitative content analysis. Findings of the study portrayed various factors which hinder the success of development project implementation such as politicization of programmes, the unstable state of the economy, poor monitoring and evaluation systems and lack of financial support. The study recommended promoting formalisation of the informal sector, alleviating political interference in development programmes and community inclusion in all stages, supporting youth businesses and implementing strong monitoring and evaluation systems including measures that will address the widespread challenges impacting sustainable development in Africa.

Keywords: Development, Evaluation, Informal economy, Monitoring, Poverty, Sustainable

1. Introduction

Development encompasses several issues for instance, economic growth, freedom, democracy, social justice, reducing income inequalities and further portrays change in the economy and society in general (Lawal, 2017). Africa has been experiencing high levels of poverty and inequality (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005) which are the same conditions various development initiatives being implemented are 'addressing' hence the paradox. However, research in most parts of these countries such as Zimbabwe, Botswana and Nigeria has shown a small percentage of success as projects continue to fail due to various factors such as corruption, setting of unrealistic goals, lack of funds and political instability (Makinde, 2013; Bothale, 2017). These countries continue to face challenges despite numerous 'development orientated' interventions. This negatively impacts sustainable development in Africa as a reduction in both poverty and inequality play a huge role in ensuring future generations benefit from the resources of the present.

Development projects and interventions are therefore long term plans consisting of certain objectives

to be achieved (Ika, 2012). The projects are financed by various development agencies and organizations such as The World Bank, The European Union, The African Development Bank (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005). Implementation of these projects involve the interaction that occurs among various actors such as local stakeholders and development practitioners in order to come up with strategies that help improve the conditions of the poor (Hart, 2006). This helps to assess problems and understand what the project has to address and thereafter designing and implementation can occur to achieve the stated objectives (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005; Ika, 2012). Thus, rigorous planning before implementation is vital to understand the needs of the people and the real issues that need to be addressed. This paper reviews development initiatives and their implementation issues in the Zimbabwean context using a case study of the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) 'Skills for youth empowerment and rural development programme'. The first section of this paper introduces literature which provides knowledge on previous development projects in Africa, constraints of development, sustainable development issues, background of the challenges facing Zimbabwe, and introduces the ILO programme under

study. Thirdly, the methodology section provides a design and approaches used for the study. This is followed by a discussion of results and recommendations then the paper is concluded.

2. Previous Collaborative Projects in Africa

Africa remains underdeveloped despite decades of development aid. There is a wide array of previously implemented development projects and programs dating back to the pre-independence era. Some of these initiatives as highlighted in Nkurayiga (2011) include the Priority Programme of Economic Redressing of Africa (PPREA) by the Organization of African Unity in 1985 which ran until 1990; The African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programme (AAF-SAP) which was adopted by the UN Economic Commission for Africa and the African Scope of Reference for SAPS for Socio-Economic Redressing and Transformation. There is also the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) which is an amalgamation of the Omega Plan, the Millennium Action Plan for African Recovery Programme (MAP) and the New Compact with Africa. The impact of the projects is mostly questioned due to increased poverty and inequalities (Diallo & Thuillier, 2005). For instance, The Independent Evaluation Group (2010) cited in Ika (2012) points out that 39% of World Bank projects have been unsuccessful. Furthermore, Dugger (2007) cited in (Ika, 2012) mentions that 50% of World Bank projects have failed regardless of investing more than US\$ 5 billion in over 700 projects in Africa. Most of the successful World Bank projects in Africa have been in infrastructure, oil and gas industries while the weak ones have been in banking and manufacturing (Ika, 2012).

2.1 Constraints of Development

In principle, the state in African countries must play a key role in structural transformation and economic development. However, the incidence of corruption is thwarting development in the African continent (Lawal, 2007). Nduku and Tenamwenye (2014) argue that corruption hinders development progress while simultaneously destabilizing the legitimacy of accountability of governments. For example, the development funds which would have been channeled to African states in the name of development tend to be misused with states failing to account for these funds. Some of the causes of corruption

in Africa also include lack of political will, weak judicial systems, regular conflicts and insecurity, lack of transparency and accountability, poor leadership, weak ethical values, the colonial legacy, greed and selfishness (Lawal, 2007; Nduku & Tenamwenye, 2014). As long as corruption exists in Africa the continent will continue lagging in terms of economic growth and development taking into consideration that corruption has many negative effects such as discouraging foreign investment, subversion of democracy, and increased poverty (Lawal, 2007).

Development projects in Africa have also been failing due to many other reasons (Ika, 2012). Resource constraints is also a challenge as projects require funding hence sometimes a lack of resources causes problems for carrying out implementation (Lawal, 2007; Ika, 2012). Differences in the systems and demands of the donors and the government of the recipient country also lead to projects failing (Desai & Potter, 2004; Diallo & Thuillier, 2005). This is because donors have more power and funding over the recipient government. Hence as much as aid is believed to lift people out of poverty and encourage growth, this has been found to be controversial as others question its effectiveness for various reasons such as project failure and aid conditionality (Desai & Potter, 2004; Ika, 2012).

Politics and corruption also interfere in the success of development projects as only a few get to benefit (Ika, 2012). Lack of implementation, putting emphasis on quick results as well as ignoring aspects of sustainability of the projects also contribute to development projects failure (Ika, 2012). For example, the US4 billion Chad-Cameroon pipeline project portrays development project failure in Africa (Ika, 2012). The project was meant to build a 1000 km pipeline and reduce poverty, among others (Ika, 2012). However, the project finished a year ahead its end date and it has had negative impacts on the environment and people's health (Leibold, 2011). According to Leibold (2011), the project failed due to World Bank's neoliberal approach to development, as well as ignoring the local context of the project and problems that needed to be addressed beforehand such as corruption (Leibold, 2011).

2.2 Can Africa Achieve Sustainable Development?

The rationale behind sustainable development is that of improving quality of life, conserving resources

while also protecting the environment for future generations (Brundtland Commission, cited in Redcliff, 2008:333; Mistry, 2014). There are three dimensions of sustainability and these are the economic, social and environment (Awan, 2013). Social aspects are to ensure safety of people and make positive impacts in communities, economic aspects ensure growth and environment aspects ensure minimal harm to the environment and health of the people due to the emissions and toxic wastes (Cannon, 2008; Awan, 2013). However, in Africa, sustainable development is far from being achieved. For instance, there have been plenty of oil spills in the Niger Delta region where there were huge and irrevocable impacts both on the society and environment (Olawuyi, 2012). Such challenges affect Africa's to ability to save for future generations furthermore, due to poverty it is difficult to save when resources of the present are insufficient.

2.3 A Case of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is currently facing various challenges and these impede growth. One of its biggest challenges is unemployment. ZIMSTAT (2013) showed that only 56% constitute the economically active population. Furthermore, Murinda (2014) mentioned that Zimbabwe's young people aged 15-34 years constitute 84% of the unemployed population. Unemployment affects youth in many ways as they cannot take care of themselves or their families which then leads to a poverty cycle (Bhebhe, Bhebhe & Bhebhe, 2016). Increased crime rates in urban areas of Zimbabwe such as Harare and Chitungwiza, political violence, early marriages, spread of diseases, increased inequalities and migration to other countries are also attributed to youth unemployment (Mpfu & Chimhenga, 2016). Youths are also starting their businesses to earn income however, lack of capital and skills hinder progress including inability to access loans from the banks as they do not have collateral (Mpfu & Chimhenga, 2016).

Apart from these challenges, the residents of Harare also face poor service delivery, population increases in urban areas due to rural urban migration thereby causing an outbreak of diseases like cholera and an increase of the informal sector (Mugumbate, Maushe & Nyoni, 2013). The informal sector is a major challenge as vendors mushroom in efforts to avoid unemployment (Chenga, 2013). The Zimbabwean economy being highly informal, many earn low wages and work in poor conditions

(Ndiweni Mashonganyika, Ncube & Dube, 2014). Therefore, education and the provision of skills training is vital to not only improve the skills but also increase the people's chances of employability (Makura, Mweha, Chikwiri, 2016).

In order to create employment opportunities and improve skills, several development initiatives have been implemented in Zimbabwe by the government, different institutions and individuals (Murinda, 2014). These include Vocational Training for Enterprise Programme, National Skills Development Policy Framework, National Youth Policy, Integrated Skills Outreach Programme, The Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development, the 2018 Empower Bank, etcetera (Murinda, 2014; Daily News, 2018). Majority of the efforts made to curb unemployment have failed when it comes to delivering impacts (NewsDay, 2017) hence it is vital to understand how to achieve sustainability and improve livelihoods.

2.4 ILO's Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development Programme

The programme was led and implemented by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in collaboration with the Government of Zimbabwe, different organisations, civil society, the private sector, employers, workers, among others and funded by the Government of Denmark (ILO, 2015). It ran for a period of six years from 2010 to 2015 in Zimbabwe and its main objective was to strengthen the skills of the youth, improve their chances of employability, provided employment opportunities as well as increase income generation that will be able to sustain the youth, thereby developing their communities (ILO, 2015). According to ILO (2015), the programme 'Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development' in Zimbabwe was implemented through two methodologies. These two methodologies were the Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE) for the rural communities, and the Quality Improvement in Informal Apprenticeships (QIA) for the informal sector (Murinda, 2014; ILO, 2015). The Government of Zimbabwe through the Ministry of Youth, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment (MYIEE) adopted the TREE and QIA models as working models for addressing youth empowerment needs and solving the country's rising youth unemployment challenges (Murinda, 2014).

The study focused on the QIA component of the programme in Harare. QIA focus on improving skills of

Table 1: The Number of People Who Benefited from the Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development Programme

Quality Improvements in Informal Apprenticeships (QIA)		Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE)	
Direct Jobs	Indirect Jobs	Direct Jobs	Indirect Jobs
150	2972	4	4418

Source: Muradya (2019)

an apprentice through a master craft person who is skilled in that trade (ILO, 2015). The ILO QIA projects include motor vehicle mechanics; cosmetology; fashion design and clothing; arts and crafts; carpentry and hotel and catering. The QIA programme reached out to 2300 MCs to train the youth, approximately 1300 MCs took part in the programme and over 3 300 apprentices were helped (ILO, 2015).

3. Methods and Materials

A case study research evaluating sustainability of the informal apprenticeship programme was conducted in Harare. The study was descriptive and exploratory as it sought to investigate the youth unemployment issue and gain new insights (Kothari, 2014). This was done through reviewing literature, analysing ILO documents and interviewing programme beneficiaries. The study was qualitative in nature. Data collected for the study was both qualitative and quantitative thus a concurrent embedded research design was adopted. This allowed mixed data collection methods with qualitative being the primary method and quantitative supporting it for numerical data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Qualitative content analysis was utilized and this involves interpreting data from texts to find their meaning and the data is then put into codes, categories and themes to find meaning (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

4. Results and Discussion

According to the ILO official, the programme achieved a lot as it provided skills to those without qualifications. Informal jobs were created due to the informal nature of the economy (Ndiweni *et al.*, 2014). The official also mentioned indirect jobs were also created were youths who managed to start businesses ended up employing others, 2972 under the QIA and 4418 from TREE. Also, about 150 and 4 direct jobs were created by QIA and TREE respectively (see Table 1). The official further mentioned that indirect jobs are mostly as a result of the

economic trickle down of the successful businesses that offer opportunities for others.

Furthermore, the official mentioned challenges facing youths such as building sustainable businesses in an unstable economy like Zimbabwe's, factors such as inflation and corruption are also hindering progress. In addition, the politicization of programmes also stop majority from benefitting. These support studies conducted by Ika (2012), Makinde (2013) and Bolthale (2017) highlighted politics and corruption as some of the factors that hinder development and implementation in most African nations. According to the official, the programme impacted positively on the youths as women participation was encouraged even though in some instances some dropped as they did not feel comfortable to participate, probably attributed to the patriarchal nature of the society. Youths also show a change of behavior for instance, they save and invest more, some are going back to finish school and there are low incidences of HIV/AIDS as youths are empowered and now make more informed and better decisions affirming Mpfu & Chimhenga's (2016) views.

Furthermore, the official reported possibilities of scaling up the programme and transferring to other regions provided there are sufficient human and financial resources. This was also supported in documents collected from ILO. Youths are also encouraged to pay back loans as well and not misuse donor funds. This is ideal in encouraging sustainability of future programmes. Also, the government should take more action within implementation of programmes. The official also encouraged community participation as he mentioned when various actors fully participate and are committed, development initiatives can have more impact. This supports views of Diallo & Thuillier (2005) and Hart (2006) on the importance of involving local stakeholders for projects to work.

Results from the youth showed appreciation for skills training programmes. They mentioned that

youth unemployment has negative effects like indulging in illegal activities, influencing hopelessness, and also leads to spreading of diseases and early pregnancies, further supporting Mpofu & Chimhenga's (2014) assertions. Sixty-seven percent of youths acknowledged having a good experience with the programme in terms of attaining skills and certificates, this confirms the importance of skills training for improving one's life as reported in Makura *et al.* (2016) study. However, thirty-three percent expressed disappointment as they expected more than just acquiring skills, also portraying that more needs to be done to ensure skills training genuinely change lives.

Mastercraft persons indicated that a majority of QIA beneficiaries are finding it difficult to find employment, 60% of the participants mentioned benefits included receiving certificates and upgrading skills in areas such as carpentry, business, leadership, hotel management and catering, metal work whilst 27% mentioned ability to start businesses and improved income. However, 13% mentioned programmes do not help. QIA is also said to have helped with forming networks for some although participants faced financial problems to start or stay in business. Others did not receive the promised loans. This affirms Mpofu & Chimhenga's (2016) who mentioned that youth businesses fail due to lack of funds. A majority acknowledged that programmes can have more impact if they provide funding, allow youth participation in the programme and decision making processes. Politicization of programmes also hinder effectiveness (Ika, 2012). Youths also felt that the possibilities of their businesses expanding are very low and is dependent on the Zimbabwean economy. This supports views of Mugumbate *et al.* (2013) who attribute Zimbabwe's challenges to its economic state.

During the document analysis process, it was discovered that whilst QIA objectives were achieved and more youth benefitted than targeted (ILO, 2016), interviews with youth portrayed only a few were employed or started profitable businesses, and that a majority are unemployed. QIA was very beneficial when it came to improving skills and youths attaining certificates however, more needed to be done as majority are unemployed and for the few who are in business, not all anticipate growth neither are they receiving profits, businesses are not sustainable. This shows the contradiction between planning versus implementation of projects. The

programme could have taken into consideration the needs of the youth as they were not involved prior to the skills training.

Hence, development initiatives can be effective however implementation is difficult and more needs to be done to ensure majority benefit and lives are truly transformed. ILO through QIA managed to successfully implement its programme and achieve its objectives although in reality it was not sustainable. This is evident as majority of the youths despite improving in skills, are failing to secure employment while some are working and earning low wages as well as depending on the extra financial support of families to run business. The few that managed to start their businesses however anticipate growth if the economy of Zimbabwe changes. Other challenges faced included not all youths received loans or start up equipment for businesses and they do not have financial support to run businesses. This supports the views of Mpofu and Chimhenga (2016) who mentioned unavailability of funds makes it challenging for youth to grow businesses. Youth were also not involved in decision making processes to know what they needed, they could have been engaged in all stages of the programme to have better outcomes.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The developmental issues faced by Africa in efforts to develop its disparate countries are to certain extent giving an impression that development aid can assist to enable desired change. This paper has argued the paradox embedded in development initiatives as they fail to achieve the desired development in Africa due to both donor and governments' limited commitment to the development discourse. Often programmes are initiated and implemented to the satisfaction of donors and governments with recipients of the initiatives not considered. This leads to programmes that are not sustainable and long term impacts of such programmes by recipient communities not being realized. The case of Harare's youth who were involved in the QIA programme attest to the minimal gains of this development programme which has left the issues of high youth unemployment unresolved.

In addressing key issues that emanated from this study it is recommended that national ownership is encouraged for development projects as governments get the chance to lead the process since they have the knowledge and understanding of the

context and needs of their people unlike donors. Also, corruption is an issue of governance that can be improved through transparency, accountability and increasing participation of the people in decision making processes.

Furthermore, the community should be involved in development projects so that when the donor pulls out the initiative may still be able to survive thereby leading to sustainable projects. On involving community, it is also important to include women so that they are part of development initiatives and will not drop out due to feeling threatened. The community also plays a role in monitoring programmes to uphold accountability from both the government and donors.

Additionally, depoliticisation of projects is crucial in empowering all beneficiaries and not the few that have advantages over others. Hence increased access to markets and information to all is vital. It also helps to correct mistakes for instance ILO documents portrayed the misuse of funds in some instances. Furthermore, not all youths received loans hence through monitoring such mistakes can be avoided in the future. The state should also support businesses through policies that formalize the informal economy so businesses can grow.

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South African Land Reform Strategy: A Panacea for Unlocking Developmental Debacles

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is efficaciously to evaluate if land reform remains a pertinent a strategy for unlocking development in South African socio-economic realm. Pragmatically access to land habitually perpetuate and lead to explicit advancement for unlocking development in spheres of socio-economic conditions. The latter is lamented by the disillusioning acts of confiscation of South African land without remuneration. The South African land reform remains a lip-serviced subject of contention, notwithstanding the unsurpassed strides undertaken by the contemporary government regime through its wider legs of restitution, tenure reform and redistribution. Moreover, the wider legs of reform were explicitly found to serve as rudimentary within which progress towards unlocking developmental debacles can be measured. The paper is purely theoretical, it's a desktop study which relied heavily on the literature review to underpinned the argument. The paper takes cognizance of section 25 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 to extract and expatiate the argument. The paper argues that the demise to development planning and practices is inextricably linked to inability of the government to operationalize land reform strategy. The land dispossession during the colonial era and the decades of apartheid regime rule produced an enormous unequal pattern of land ownership that served as impediments to development and unrelentingly perpetuated widespread rural poverty in South African communities.

Keywords: Land, Poverty, Perceptions, Government, Gradualism

1. Introduction

The development literature edified that the most daunting and disillusioning developing countries phenomenon has always been access to an array of productive land. Land, particularly in South Africa, has been declared a primary focal asset for rustic advancement and human survival (Akinola, 2016). Continually, land reform strategy has conspicuously seen fit to address vast developing countries development debacles. After independence, South Africa set out on a land reform program that is intended to review the exceedingly unjust land proprietorship which came about because of Apartheid (Makombe, 2018). Despite more than two decades of implementation, land reform in South Africa remains a hotly contested terrain that is beset with numerous challenges and uncertainties (Chikozho, Makombe & Milondzo, 2019). The topic of landownership in a majority rule South Africa stays uncertain and emotive, amid obvious societal imbalances (Sebola & Tsheola, 2014). There is a genuine societal separation in regard to the most suitable way to deal with

settling the issue of landownership, with the limits of the big push and the gradualism (Edigheji, 2007; Ashton, 2014; Sebola & Tsheola, 2014). Land reform in South Africa remains a fervently challenged territory that is assailed with various difficulties and vulnerabilities (Chikozho *et al.*, 2019). Land, which is a focal asset and the essential primary recipe for rural development and financial flourishing, has turned into a subject of contention (Zarin & Bujang, 1994; Akinola, 2016).

Land particularly in South Africa is owned in the redistribution channels such as Communal Property Associations (CPAs) (Hall *et al.*, 2003; World Bank, 2006; Mkhize, 2014). The development literature lamented that appropriate execution of the land reform program decreases poverty, affords families to accumulate riches, and enables countries to satisfy their human rights commitments (Cavaliere, 2015). Implanting Land reform in the Constitution was no incident (Pienaar, 2015) since Section 25 of the Constitution of South Africa immensely accommodates land reform.

2. Theoretical Framework

The paper is argued from the gradualism as one of the methodologies for speeding up the transformation of land which resides on the sphere of social perceptions. It is based on the cognitive notion that "ask the poor to be patient" so that they get to transform perceptions on the significance and the use of land for productive purposes and agricultural productivity. Menager and Valente (2007) articulated that social perceptions are found to be the most critical factor in the transformation of the economy and establishing new social perceptions about land, so that the land may become productive. The most compelling evidence is that gradualism requires that enough time be allowed for the farmers or land beneficiaries to allow their social perceptions towards the redistributed land to be modified. Therefore, it is now clear those social perceptions are highly variable factors and they depend upon the following: the functional attributes of the physical environment (referred to as land), familiarity with the material products of the culture which embodies *inter alia* technology and technical skills and lastly the communication systems employed in the culture which gives pragmatic meaning to the ideas (Hall, 2009). Gradualism also has been declared as a slow pace for the redistribution of land in order to allow people on the ground an opportunity to transform their perceptions regarding the use and the significance of land (Kepe & Tessaro, 2014). It is clear from this paper that land redistribution without the transformation of people's perceptions could not entirely deal with the unprecedented incidences of poverty in South African communities

3. Conceptual Clarification of Land Reform: A South African Perspective

Land reform is a transient procedure that was left on in two unmistakable stages in South Africa: first by method for an exploratory program before the new established regulation initiated, trailed by, furthermore, a comprehensive program after April 1994 (Pienaar, 2015). Land is not only a divine or spiritual resource but also a socio-economic asset and status symbol (Anafo, 2015). It is pivotal to tolerate as a primary concern that there is no fixed meaning of land reform or no single definition that would do the trick in all conditions (Pienaar, 2015). The pursuit of land reforms, however, is surrounded by theoretical and conceptual positions

which posit methodological supremacy over each other (Anafo, 2015). According to Pienaar, (2015) land reform alludes to activities, encapsulated in authoritative, arrangement and different measures, comprising activities and instruments went for expanding access to land, improving security of tenure and reestablishing area or rights in land.

4. Land Reform Strategy: A Panacea for Developmental Problems

As indicated by Mendola & Simtowe, (2015) the reason for land reform is to build land access to poor rustic family units to lessen disparity and destitution. Land reforms programs intend to address imbalances brought about by various political frameworks everywhere throughout the world, redressing frontier asset misdistribution, social value, diminishing and controlling ecological debasement in minimal territories (Makombe, 2018). A definitive objective is to improve the employments of poor or potentially impeded people (Mendola & Simtowe, 2015). In South Africa the destinations of land reform are fourfold, to be specific; reviewing Apartheid treacheries, cultivating national compromise and soundness, supporting financial development, and easing destitution by improving family unit welfare (Republic of South Africa, 1997; Hart, 2012; Makombe, 2018). Program of land reform is an essential yet not adequate condition for important change of the employments of the families included (Chikozho *et al.*, 2018).

Access to land is a wellspring of natural capital, social maintainability and monetary sustenance (Akinola, 2016). Land reform aims to reverse skewed land distribution, which is the legacy of segregation and apartheid (Kepe & Tessaro, 2014). Numerous lawmakers and activists call for land change as the component to redress the disparity and the perpetual injustices in South Africa (Belinkie, 2015). Land reform is basic to South Africa's security, monetary advancement, and recuperating post-politically sanctioned racial segregation (Netshipale, Oosting, Raidimi, Mashiloane & de Boer, 2017). Land reform can make a discrete hop in the profitable abundance of poor specialists to empower them to open their undiscovered potential, and produce critical monetary additions (Keswell, & Carter, 2014). Land reform could convey speedier outcomes as the inversion of 'blackspot' expulsions through re-instatement of previous African title-holders or installment of money related remuneration (particularly in regard

of urban constrained evacuations) in lieu of such re-instatement (Leyshon, 2009). To address the unequal appropriation of land in the nation (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). Later reforms have focused on enhancing tenure security, commercialization of land rights and improving agricultural productivity (Kalabamu, 2019). Pienaar (2015) attested that Land reform has for the most part been utilized on a worldwide scale to accomplish two primary objectives to diminish poverty and to address net disparity. These general objectives are normally enhanced and bolstered by different objectives, including

- Promoting output, efficiency and growth in the agricultural sector;
- enhancement of the environment and environmental sustainability; and
- enabling peace and stability, in general.

Considering the above, it becomes clear that land reform exists to safeguard development and serves as a panacea to development debacles that people of South Africa find themselves in. For a colonised people the most essential value, because the most concrete, is first and foremost the land: the land which will bring them bread and, above all, dignity (Fanon, 1963; Jansen van Rensburg, 2013).

5. Conceptualization of Land Reform: Three Wider Legs

According to Government of South Africa (1997), Hart (2012), Aliber & Cousins (2013) & Makombe (2018), the South African land reform programme is conceptualized from the three wider legs, namely: land restitution, redistribution and tenure reform.

5.1 Land Restitution

Land restitution is rights-based and attainable through land claims and money remuneration (Sebola & Tsheola, 2014). Land restitution re-establishes land to blacks whose property was taken under politically sanctioned racial segregation enactment (Belinkie, 2015). Under the land claims activity, blacks are given back the property that was detracted from them under politically sanctioned racial segregation enactment, with the objective of correcting past wrongs and advancing equity and land proprietorship between the races. Restitution applies to both

rural and urban land claims (Belinkie, 2015). Land restitution includes the mediation of cases, with the gathering qualified for harms having the alternative of either land or money related remuneration (Belinkie, 2015). It exists to deal with the individuals who were landless, to some degree as a result of chances denied to them because of skin shading (Brown, 2015). Land restitution is an integral asset for significant country change and network improvement (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006). South African land restitution can be interpreted as developing through unexperienced pathways of office which reliant on a disparate rationale of exceptionality (Zenker, 2014). South African land restitution was commanded both by the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 200 of 1993) and by the present Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) as an uncommon measure, putting the state under an obligation to review land dispossessions because of past racially oppressive laws or practices (Zenker, 2014).

5.2 Land Redistribution

Land redistribution includes people or communities applying for government to allow access to land through the willing-seller willing-buyer principles (Cousins 2013:3; Sebola & Tsheola, 2014). Land redistribution includes appropriate planning to increase the number of black landowners (Belinkie, 2015). The objective of the land redistribution program was to furnish blacks South Africans with access to farming area. Redistribution was one of the underlying objectives of the land reform program since it was as a rule maximally ready to advance financial equity and monetary improvement for the black community (Belinkie, 2015). Land redistribution intends to defeat racial lopsided characteristics in possession and access to arrive by exchanging land from individuals of European plummet (the minority) to recently hindered gatherings (the dominant part) for settlement and creation purposes (Netshipale *et al.*, 2017). The point of the land redistribution program was to reinforce the property privileges of people previously possessing the land and to give access to land to those recently denied of the privilege to be the proprietors of land (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014).

5.3 Land Tenure Reform

Land tenure reform issues proprietorship rights to blacks, who have worked and lived on ranches

for a considerable length of time without verified rights (Belinkie, 2015). Land tenure reform aims to secure rights of those who are already occupying land with insecure occupation rights (Avhafunani, Simon, Edzisani, Majela, & Imke, 2017). The legislature planned land tenure reform to give proprietorship conceivable outcomes to black ranchers who had worked or had other authentic professes to white-possessed farmland. Land tenure is a composite of rules and socio-economic relations between people and land (Kalabamu, 2019). People looking for tenure had cases to the property dependent on years, some of the time returning ages, of chipping away at business cultivates, or dependent on living and dealing with mutual countries (Belinkie, 2015). Land tenure reform intends to verify privileges of the individuals who are as of now involving area with shaky occupation rights (Netshipale *et al.*, 2017). Land tenure security must be established to achieve efficient allocation of land among farm households and to promote investment in land improvement (Holden & Otsuka, 2014).

6. The South African Land Reform Deficiencies

According to Makhado (2012) land reform in South Africa is moderate, principally because of monetary, infrastructural and limit difficulties and it is obvious that the "willing seller willing buyer" rule has additionally turned out to be less powerful in accelerating land reform. Land reform program is not conveying exchanges of land at a productive pace (Vink & Kirsten, 2003). The "willing seller willing buyer" rule does not advance land reform but rather goes about as a hindrance instrument to restrain the pace for land redistribution (Makhado, 2012). Erasmus (2018) contended that it is because of ineptitude that land reform has been such a fiasco. The "*willing seller willing buyer*" principle further improves class society since individuals who can bear the cost of extravagant land are the individuals who are financially advantaged (Makhado, 2012). The real obstruction is having enactment administering land reform making no arrangement to consider recipients responsible for the benefits they get in these exchanges (Erasmus, 2018). The "willing seller willing buyer" rule is along these lines right now considered by individuals seized from their property as rude, considering that when they were removed from their land, they were not compensated (Makhado, 2012).

Land reform in South Africa has experienced a few transformations; regardless of this, the pace has been moderate, and government is by all accounts coming up short on thoughts on the most reasonable arrangements to actualize land redistribution and address recorded treacheries (Dlamini & Ogunnubi, 2018). "Willing seller willing buyer rule sets aside a long effort to arrange land cost with the present land proprietors" (Makhado, 2012). Sacred settlement and assurance of private property remains as an outlandish hindrance in the way of land redistribution in South Africa (Dlamini & Ogunnubi, 2018). The present approach instruments, including the eager willing seller willing buyer strategy, and different arrangements of Section 25 of the Constitution are preventing successful land reform" (Makinana, 2018). Land redistribution is stigmatized for being a poor purchaser of land with long postponements and vulnerabilities' that prompted proprietors, who had at first been eager to sell their territory, pulling back their offers (Dlamini & Ogunnubi, 2018). The least ambiguous finding was that "get to land has turned out to be progressively limited and unreliable (Peters, 2009). The substantial separations between the gathering's territory that had been bought by the Department of Land Affairs presently known as the bureau of Rural Development and Land Reform and their homes. Thus, these types of decisions disadvantage the poor more than the rich due to the difficulties the poor experience in accessing affordable transport (Bradstock, 2005). There is no political will to support the programmes that comes with land reform in a nutshell (Cloete, 1992).

7. Legal Framework Pertaining to the Governance of Land Reform

7.1 Communal Property Associations Act 28 of 1996

As indicated by Communal Property Associations Act 28 of 1996 it is a legitimate system that tries to empower communities to shape juristic people, to be known as public property relationship so as to gain, hold and oversee property on a premise consented to by individuals from a network as far as a composed constitution; and to accommodate matters associated therewith. The demonstration further expresses that "while it is attractive that distraught networks ought to have the capacity to set up fitting legitimate establishments through which they may get, hold and oversee property in like

manner". The Communal Property Association (CPA) Act of 1996 enabled impeded communities to obtain and oversee property all things considered and to record and enlist public rights quickly (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006). The CPA Act accommodates government enlistment of CPAs and government oversight to authorize the privileges of customary individuals (Center for Law and Society, 2015).

The CPA expected to enable communities to accomplish lodging, horticulture and social welfare, to distribute land rights by lion's share assent, and to co-work with state organizations or private elements (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006). Since the land reform program would include the exchange of land from the state and private landowners to black South Africans, a legitimate substance should have been made through which land reform recipients could secure, hold and oversee property (Center for Law and Society, 2015). The 1996 enactment contained no national norms by which privileges of enrollment and long term improvement choices were connected over all communities entering the field of land restitution (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006). The point of the land redistribution program was to fortify the property privileges of networks previously involving the land and to give access to land to those recently denied of the privilege to be the proprietors of land (Koppers & Pienaar, 2014). Communal types of land proprietorship stay reasonable alternatives for seized communities (Everingham & Jannecke, 2006). It set out to give secure title or practically identical change to a great many rural tenants, the individuals who live in the least fortunate pieces of our nation, as a rule ashore held for communities by assigned network pioneers, if not straightforwardly by the state (Mostert, 2011).

7.2 Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997

As indicated by Moolman, (2018) the reason for this Act is to work related to the Land Reform Act, 1996 (Act 3 of 1996, for example the Labor Tenants Act) and the Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act, 1998 (Act 19 of 1998, for example the PIE Act) to guarantee security of living arrangement as one of the destinations of land reform. Since the presentation of tenure reform, complex strategies must be pursued to guarantee the legitimacy of any expulsion procedure being considered (Gootkin & Narshi, 2014). The fundamental motivation behind the Act is to

guarantee that individuals who live ashore that has a place with landowners in rural and peri-urban regions are ensured essential human rights, subject to sensible constraints (Roodt, 2007). The net impact of this enactment is that it limits ownership (Moolman, 2018). A center capacity of land law is to guarantee security of rights or interests in land (Mostert, 2011). It is trite that protected tenure and access to land are essential for monetary development and social advancement (Mostert, 2011). As indicated by Roodt, (2007) "ESTA was passed in the post-politically-sanctioned racial segregation period to encourage the long haul security of land tenure; to control the states of home on certain land; to manage the conditions on and conditions under which the privilege of individuals to live ashore might be ended; to direct the conditions and conditions under which individuals, whose privilege of living arrangement has been ended, might be ousted from land; and to accommodate related issues".

7.3 Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act 2 of 1996

The Act gives to labour occupants the privilege to gain property from a proprietor and accommodates the procurement of land and rights in land by them (Cowling, Hornby and Oettlé, 2017). The most vital part of the Act, notwithstanding, gives instruments by which labour tenants can obtain responsibility for that they are qualified for use and possess (Cowling *et al.*, 2017). The Land Reform (Labor Tenants) Act 1996 endeavors to give security to powerless labour occupants (Jacobs, 1998).

7.4 Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994

The Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 ('Restitution Act') makes a privilege to compensation for individuals seized of land rights after 19 June 1913 because of racially prejudicial laws and practices (Hall, 2003). Those seized, or their relatives, were qualified to submit claims against the state for reclamation of their territory rights or for remuneration (Section 10(1)). The Commission for the Restitution of Land Rights is in charge of giving post-settlement support, its job is as far as Section 15 of the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 confined to the assistance of the procedure (Van der Elst, 2007). The Act set up a Commission on the Restitution of Land Rights to drive the procedure of land restitution: to help individuals to make claims, to examine their legitimacy, to organize them, and

to get ready for settlement or mediation (Hall, 2003). As far as the Restitution Act a gathering that needs to get evenhanded review in this way needs to demonstrate that it is an individual or a community that was confiscated, of a privilege in property after 19 June 1913, which dispossession occurred because of racially prejudicial laws or practices (Du Plessis, 2017). Expressed that the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 ('Restitution Act') was not intended to just profit 'hindered' race groups (Mostert, 2006).

The Restitution Act predicted the issues that depending on oral and gossip proof may present in restitution cases, and consequently embedded section 30 into the Act. Section 30 of the Restitution Act assents for a deviation from the typical principles of proof. The court can "concede any proof, including oral proof, which it considers important and fitting to the issue being heard by it, regardless of whether such proof would be acceptable in some other official courtroom (Du Plessis, 2017). The transformation of land or a privilege in land in accordance with a case as far as the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 is multifaceted anyway It is both enthusiastic and institutional having genuine outcomes on a few dimensions (Van Wyk, 2010).

7.5 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 Section 25

Section 25(5) of the Constitution presented the second mainstay of land reform, which is ordinarily alluded to as the land redistribution program. Confiscation is a unique type of obtaining of possession whereby the state secures proprietorship without the assent of the past proprietor (Pienaar, 2015). As far as this section the state is under the sacred obligation to take "sensible administrative and different measures, inside its accessible assets, to cultivate conditions which empower natives to access land on a fair premise" (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). According to Koppers & Pienaar (2014) Land tenure security is tended to through area 25(6) of the Constitution which expresses that "An individual or community whose residency of land is lawfully unstable because of past racially unfair laws or practices is entitled, to the degree given by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legitimately secure or to tantamount change" (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). In such manner section 25 accommodates the redistribution of land; the tenure reform program; and the restitution program (Pienaar, 2017). Area 25(7) of the Constitution

accommodates restitution on a basic level, however inside a statutory structure (Pienaar, 2017). The privilege to restitution of land rights was set up in Section 25(7) of the 1996 Constitution, which recommends that: "An individual or community seized of property after 19 June 1913 because of past racially prejudicial laws and practices is entitled, to the degree given by an Act of Parliament, either to compensation of that property or to impartial change" (Hall, 2003). Implanting land reform in the Constitution was no incident (Pienaar, 2015).

7.6 White Paper on Land Reform Policy 1997

As indicated by the White Paper on Land Reform Policy (South Africa, 1997), it is visualized that land will be appropriated all the more evenhandedly, that poverty will be annihilated, and that the general nature of the recipients' lives will improve in a manageable manner, in both the medium and long haul (Van der Elst, 2007). So as to additionally address the issue of land reform, the White Paper on Land Policy, (1997) was discharged with the particular vision of setting up a land strategy which is simply, expands on compromise and solidness, adds to financial development and supports family welfare (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). Section 3 of the White Paper on Land Policy (South Africa 1997) recognizes the absence of compelling post-settlement support in the land reform program as an institutional deficiency that should be tended to (Van der Elst, 2007). With reference to redistribution, the White Paper expressed that: "the motivation behind the land redistribution program is to furnish the poor with access to land for private and productive uses, so as to improve their salary and personal satisfaction" (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014).

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

It can be deduced from the paper that the slow pace of land redistribution breaks the vital line of development in communities to address the socio-economic issues. It can further be said that the communal property associations seem to be effective in terms of awarding people access to land since it is characterized by concerted efforts of people who are acquiring land collectively. Mendola & Simtowe, (2015) argue that the purpose of land reform is to increase land access to poor rural households to reduce inequality and poverty because, as they argue, for many developing countries, land is a critical component of wealth and its creation. Land

reform programmes aim to correct inequalities caused by different political systems all over the world, correcting colonial resource misdistribution, social equity, reducing and controlling environmental degradation in marginal areas (Makombe, 2018).

Land reform thus represents popular hopes in poor countries: that average people, too, may have access to their homeland's patrimony (Cavaliere, 2015). Therefore, as a remedy the paper recommends that the central government should clarify the terms of reference for land reform since the country is awaiting passing of the amendment bill of the property clause section 25 of the constitution. It is further recommended that Land Reform be treated as a priority and as such its roles within the expropriation of the South African land without compensation must be explicitly articulated and specified in the relevant legislation. The department of Rural Development and Land Reform should be well equipped to can fully implement the Land reform programmes in the advent of the Expropriation of South African land without compensation for equal distribution. The paper further recommends that the land reform process should not be in the hands of the politicians and that the willing seller willing buyer principle be scrapped out as it is not an effective strategy for addressing the imbalances of the past as it perpetuates inequality in terms of access to land. Land reform policies and legal frameworks must be revised.

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Job Satisfaction and Attitudes Toward Organisational Change: A Study at the National School of Government

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Abstract: Organisational changes happen too frequently in some organisations due to a reaction to the disruptive and turbulent environmental factors that shape the current practices of those organisations and result in changes towards their organisational values. Organisational change has become a significant part of work life, with changes impacting not only on an organisational level but also on a personal employee level. The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of organisational change on job satisfaction and attitudes of employees towards the change. Empirical research was conducted on a research sample of 229 employees of the National School of Government (NSG). A survey was administered to all employees of the NSG. A total number of 109 employees responded to the questionnaire and only 103 of these questionnaires were usable. Detailed analysis indicated that there is a strong positive statistical relation between organisational change and job satisfaction.

Keywords: Job satisfaction, Organisational change, Uncertainty attitude, Strategy

1. Introduction

Globalisation, driven by complex, ambiguous and burgeoning transformations, has seen many organisations embark on convoluted changes such as restructuring, downsizing, business process reengineering, shared services, total quality management, mergers and acquisitions just to keep the competitive edge. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004); Akhtar and Rong (2015) continue by stating that it is both the internal and external forces such as market changes, technological advancements, social and political factors, demographic characteristics, managerial behaviour and human resources problems or prospects, increased competition, new mandates, etcetera, that exert tremendous pressure in the scramble for organisational success today, making change inevitable. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004); Akhtar and Rong (2015) conclude that this then triggers the need for organisations to initiate the change process.

In the flux of change, these organisations are increasingly challenged to balance the clamorous expectations of multiple stakeholders such as; investors, clients, management, customers and employees (Muzanenhamo, Allen-Illie, Adams & Iwu; 2016:480). Organisational change has become a significant part of work life, with changes being required not only on an organisational level but also on a personal employee level (Anderson, 2013). As

a strategic dimension, change in an organisation is intended to move a company from its current unfavourable situation to a desired future situation (Zafar & Naveed, 2014). In the case of the National School of Government (NSG), the change was triggered by the changing political mandate of the time.

The first major change process for the National School of Government (then SAMDI) took place during the 2007/08 financial year after Cabinet mandated that the South African Management Development Institute (SAMDI) be reconstituted to become a public service Academy to provide training on a larger scale to all spheres of government (South African Management Development Institute, 2008). At the time, it was believed that in its current status, SAMDI would be unable to respond adequately to the new mandate. The roll-out of the reconstitution of SAMDI into what became known as the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) took place over the 2007/08 financial year (South African Management Development Institution, 2008).

The next change process took place in 2011 during the PALAMA term. This process involved reconfiguring the structure of the organisation in order to align the skills of employees to the needs of the organisation. Although both processes were intended to assist the organisation in its achievement of the strategic goals, the difference between the 2007 process

and the 2011 process was in how they were carried out. While the former process consulted extensively with employees and prepared employees for what is to come, the latter process did not do that. Employees of the organisation subsequently termed it 'the lightning strike' to reflect its sudden nature.

In October of 2013, a third change took place wherein PALAMA was re-launched as the National School of Government in line with the Presidential Proclamation (No. 46 of 2013) to amend the Public Service Act. This was not a simple transformation of PALAMA, as the change entailed both strategic and operational issues that introduced a new organisational form with a different business model (National School of Government, 2013). This change differed from the two previous changes in that it did not have a direct bearing on individuals. After the second change, which was not consulted, there was a sense of unhappiness and disgruntlement amongst employees because some employees were re-assigned different responsibilities without prior consultation. It was assumed that this unhappiness translated into poor job satisfaction for the employees affected. In order to get a true sense of these feelings and perceptions, tools such as surveys, questionnaires and focus groups were administered and facilitated internally to assess the prevailing climate within the organisation as well as employee's perceptions of the change process. The above change processes rendered the NSG the ideal setting to conduct the research for this paper in order to explore and determine if there is an empirically provable relationship between the two variables; job satisfaction and organisational change. The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of organisational change on job satisfaction and attitudes of employees towards the change with a focus on determining the relationship between organisational change and job satisfaction and how employee's attitudes are impacted by change.

2. Literature Review

A number of researchers have delved into the topic of organisational change and although all these researchers sought to understand this concept, it is the interaction of organisational change with other variables that sets the different research studies apart. Variables that have been linked to organisational change include, but not limited to, employee resistance (Pieterse, Caniels & Homan, 2012; Zafar & Naveed, 2014), organisational

commitment (Yousef, 2016), job satisfaction (Akhtar & Rong, 2015), organisational trust and psychological empowerment (Mangundjaya, 2015), employee attitudes (Gupta, 2016), communication (Husain, 2013) and job satisfaction (Struijs, 2012; Osei-Bonsu, 2014; Mangundjaya, 2015). Although the topics of organisational change and job satisfaction have been researched extensively, the challenge that was encountered during the literature review for this study is that there is a paucity of literature that focuses specifically on the public sector.

2.1 Organisational Change

Muzanenhamo *et al.* (2016:473) indicate that a number of organisations embark on complex changes such as shared services, transformation, mergers and acquisitions or massive technology implementation. Therefore, for many managers and entrepreneurs, organisational changes constitute a nightmare. In some instances, there is no single structure which will enable a given change to be managed within an enterprise and as a result, the implementation of change slows down, and can even stall or fail completely. Muzanenhamo *et al.* (2016:473) states that there are however, potential gains for organisations which are able to effectively facilitate the successful implementation of change in terms of delivering on time, within an allotted budget and with all the business, technical and human objectives met.

"Organisational change takes place when a company makes an evolution from its current state to some desired expectations" (Gupta, 2016:45). It also takes place as a reaction to an ever-changing environment or as a response to a current emergency situation (Akhtar & Rong, 2015). Change can be understood as having the potential to impact an organisation structurally and strategically, while impacting the workplace culture, affecting human capital and seeing technological transformation. According to research, as many as 90% of change initiatives are likely to fail in achieving their strategic objectives, mainly as a result of human factors such as change-related responses, attitudes and behaviours (Wood, 2000; Muzanenhamo *et al.*, 2016).

According to Terry and Jimmieson (2003:92), unprecedented rearrangements around organisational surroundings trigger the need for organisations to change familiar traditions and methods of operation which subsequently influence the organisational

life and behaviour of the labour force. Terry and Jimmieson (2003:92) furthermore asserts that managing organisational change is therefore the process of forecasting and implementing change in an organisation in such a way as to reduce employee resistance and cost to the organisation while at the same time maximising the effectiveness of the change effort. For the purpose of this study the following definition is accepted; that is, organisational change is the process by which individuals adapt to environmental change. It may include the acceptance of new techniques, new management or changes in the organisation's strategy or policy (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Burke & Litwin, 2008).

2.1.1 Need for Change

The growing globalisation of business, increasing competition and technological advancement has led to an increasing need to change organisational policies and strategies (Hampel & Martisons, 2009). As already alluded above, in an organisation, most problems and challenges are generated by competition, advanced technology, mergers, expansion, product quality improvement, enhancing employee efficiency, rapid growth, new business venture, innovation, new leadership and management (Madsen, 2009:46). According to Gupta (2016:44) "change is important for any organisation because without change, businesses would likely lose their competitive edge and fail to meet the needs of what most hope to be a growing base of loyal customers". Wu and Wu (2011:1304) indicated that the inevitability of organisational change in the highly competitive modern business world is having an increasing impact on employees, and dramatic or sudden changes can lead to resistance among an organisation's employees.

Since organisational change leads to the redistribution of benefits and the adjustment of relationships between different positions, employee resistance can be expected. Senior managers must consider how to introduce organisational reforms. They need to understand how employee dissatisfaction can arise as a result of changes to organisational policy or working processes (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Emery & Trist, 2008). It is for the above reason that organisational change must be well-planned, communicated and executed. In his paper, Osei-Bonsu (2014) cites a number of studies that emphasise the importance of communicating planned changes in advance as well as at every stage, therefore employees who are informed of the change are less likely

to be resistant, are more trusting of management's intentions and therefore less stressed about the impending change. In a study by Mangundjaya (2015:1), "every organisation needs to change in order to survive, exist and compete; however many variables play an important role in the success of organisational change and the most important one is people". Mangundjaya (2015:1) adds on to say that without the buy-in, support and involvement of people, organisational change cannot be achieved successfully.

According to Yang, Zhuo and Yu (2009, cited in Chen, Suen, Ling & Shieh, 2016), when an organisation undertakes a change process it can target elements such as the vision, strategy, culture, structure, system, leadership style and so forth. The NSG's change efforts were necessitated by the mandate change and targeted some of these elements. An organisation's vision and accompanying strategy refer to the long term goals that the organisation needs to achieve and how these will be achieved. The NSG's changes came about mainly because of the changing political leadership of the time. As a result, the organisation found itself needing to constantly revise the strategy to achieve that particular leadership's vision and mandate. It is important to note that over the past seven years the NSG has been under the leadership of six Ministers and three Director-General's (now referred to as the Principal). Currently the NSG is under the leadership of an acting Principal since the former Principal was deployed to another department with effect from 1 August 2018. Leadership, as another important element, brings with it changing mandates and priorities which affect how business is carried out.

The structure of the organisation is critical in ensuring that the organisation has the right people in the right place. The NSG operated for a number of years with only a temporary structure and this created a lot of anxiety amongst employees. The change process that took place in 2011 targeted the structure through reconfiguration. The culture of the organisation, which is the common norms and values that employees share that inform how the organisation's people do what they need to do to achieve the same goal, also undergoes this change process. Business processes, which refer to the internal mechanisms that are in place to implement the strategic vision of the organisation, were also affected by change through the business reengineering process.

Chen *et al.* (2016) noted that, in a real organisation, the above change focus areas overlap with each other at some point and it is this systemic viewpoint which illustrates how the sum of the parts is bigger than the parts themselves. Before change can take place, an organisation assesses which of the above elements needs to be transformed to achieve the desired future state.

2.1.2 Attitudes Towards Change

Combined and in isolation, the above mentioned elements have some influence on how employees view and respond to the organisation and the change process it undergoes. This is the biggest risk that organisations face when implementing change processes because it can lead to possible resistance from employees as well as the possibility of poor job satisfaction afterwards. Employees' attitudes towards organisational change are important in determining whether they will adapt to the implemented change and the type of attitude they will have towards the change (Yousef, 2016). Elias (2009, cited in Yousef, 2016) defines attitude towards organisational change as the positive or negative judgement employees feel towards change in their organisation. Researchers such as Struijs (2012), Zafar and Naveed (2014) focused specifically on resistance to change as an attitude that employees can have.

An organisation cannot successfully implement a change process without involving all stakeholders; particularly the employees as they are the ones who eventually get affected by the change. The findings indicate that when employees are involved in the change process, even if just through communication only, they view change positively and display less resistance (Osei-Bonsu, 2014). However, Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), point out that change is not a one-size-fits-all process because much as employees might have been involved in the design of the change process, it does not mean that their attitude to change will not be that of resistance. In the paper on resistance to change and its influence on job satisfaction, Struijs (2012) highlights the importance of taking into consideration employees' emotional reactions during organisational change. Employees who have a negative attitude and subsequently are resistant towards change are those who do not understand why change happens (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008) as well as those who had past negative experience of the change (Struijs, 2012).

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is arguably one of the most researched topics in the world of work (Irani & Scherler, 2002; Christen, Iyer & Soberman, 2006; Struijs, 2012; Akhtar & Rong, 2015; Yousef, 2016). This is primarily because in management's quest to improve their organisations' performance, there is a general belief that 'a happy employee is a productive employee' (Moorman, 1993; Aziri, 2011). For the numerous studies on job satisfaction that have been conducted, there are an equally large number of definitions of the concept. Despite these varying definitions, at the crux of it, job satisfaction refers to whether individuals are content or not content with their jobs as a result it links to the emotional reaction employees have towards their jobs (Mangundjaya, 2015).

Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford and Wood (2007:312) describes job satisfaction as an extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic or extrinsic aspects of one's job. Job satisfaction is basically an employee's overall assessment of work related experiences which is influenced by individual values, ideals and beliefs. Job satisfaction is therefore a multidimensional concept which includes a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings in terms of which employees perceive their jobs (Davis, 2004; Iwu, Ukpere & Allen-Ile, 2012). As is the case with organisational change, there are several variables that influence and/or are influenced by job satisfaction; for example, organisational commitment (Yousef, 2016); transformational leadership (Mokgolo, Mokgolo & Modiba, 2012); turnover intentions; job performance (Christen, Iyer & Soberman, 2006); organisational change (Osei-Bonsu, 2014; Akhtar & Rong, 2015; Mangundjaya, 2015); employee attitudes (Struijs, 2012; Zafar & Naveed, 2014; Yousef, 2016). As already alluded to above, the focus of this paper is on exploring the linkage between organisational change, job satisfaction and attitudes of employees towards change.

Muzanenhamo *et al.* (2016:476) asserts that organisations today are more concerned with the effectiveness of change and selecting the right methodology to implement change. Therefore, the uncertainty employees experience with organisational change inevitably has a bearing on their job security, stress levels, trust, commitment, organisational identification, performance, employee work attitude and ultimately job satisfaction. The importance of employees as a key element in the

success of any change process can therefore not be emphasised enough (Bulder, 2014; Zafar & Naveed, 2014).

Studies by Cross & Travaglione (2004) and Svensen, Neset & Eriksen (2007) indicate that if employees have had a bad experience with past changes, their satisfaction levels are likely to be negative. However, if previous changes were perceived as positive, job satisfaction is likely to be high. Job satisfaction is predominantly high after major organisational change such as downsizing, because those who are left behind will be more content than the victims of change. When the NSG's change process was implemented in 2011, some of the employees who were present during the 2007 change process were resistant because the 2007 change resulted in several staff members being placed in excess to the establishment. This was the start of the negative attitude of staff members to proposed change processes. The negative feelings were further entrenched again at the end of the 2011 change process that saw the reconfiguration of the structure, as a result of people being moved from their posts without consultation (NSG, 2019).

Although some resistance to change is natural and expected in change processes, it should still be managed through the involvement of employees at every stage, improving the competence of managers to handle the change and fully communicating the change (Zafar & Naveed, 2014). It is therefore crucial that any future change processes which the NSG may embark upon should take the emotions of all individuals into consideration to minimise resistance. According to Struijs, 2012 employees that display less resistance (a positive attitude) are usually employees that will be satisfied with their jobs at the end of the process whereas employees who are more resistant will experience higher job dissatisfaction.

In his paper, Mangudjaya (2015) found that if employees are satisfied with their jobs, they will display higher commitment and participation in the change process. Akhtar and Rong (2015) also highlight the importance of taking the psychological contracts that employees have with the employer into consideration when planning and executing organisational change. Employees who are not clear about the change and how it will affect them, may feel that the employer is violating this unwritten contract between employer and employee; thus

resulting in resistance and subsequent dissatisfaction with one's job.

3. Methods and Materials

3.1 Population

The population of this study consisted of 229 employees at the NSG. It is to be noted that at the time of the data collection the school was undergoing a leadership change process. The head of the school (Principal) was moved on the 1st of August 2018 to another government department and he was replaced by an acting Principal.

3.2 Research Instrument and Data Collection

This study was quantitative in nature and a questionnaire was used to collect data. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure job satisfaction, however as it needed to be made relevant to the public sector it was re-formatted by taking away some of the questions and replaced with more relevant ones. Organisational change was measured using eight item instrument. The items that were included are working conditions, organisational structure, training, management support and performance. Examples of the items included are: "I am satisfied with change in the organisational structure"; "there is improvement in employees' skills due to organisational change". A 4-point response scale was used, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 4 (strongly disagree).

An electronic version of the questionnaire was loaded on Monkey survey and emailed to all employees of NSG and the closing date was in seven days' time from the date of distribution. The questionnaire consisted of 25 closed ended questions and took ten minutes to complete. A total of 229 questionnaires were distributed and only 123 were returned which gave a response rate of 54%. Out of the completed questionnaires, 103 were usable and 20 were not fully completed, therefore rendering them unusable because of the missing data.

Participant's demographic details are presented in Table 1 below. Job levels of the participants were 11% intern, 12% level 1-5, 59% level 6-12, 18% level 13-14. The ages of respondents were 73% below 45 and 27% between 46 and 65 years old. The number of years in the organisation were split 50-50 between people that have worked less than 5

Table 1: Participants' Demographics

Characteristics	Freq.	%
Job Level		
Intern	11	10.68
Levels 1-5	12	11.65
Levels 6-12	61	59.22
Levels 13-14	19	18.45
Age		
18 - 25 years old	7	6.8
26 - 35 years old	31	30.1
36 - 45 years old	39	37.86
46 - 55 years old	20	19.42
56 - 65 years old	6	5.83
Years of Service		
Less than 5 years	51	49.51
6 to 15 years	48	46.6
16 to 25 years	2	1.94
26 to 35 years	2	1.94
Job Status		
Permanent appointment	82	79.61
Contract appointment	11	10.68
Intern	10	9.71

Source: Authors

years in the organisation and those that have been working between 6 and 35 years. Finally, the job status was divided into 10% interns, 11% contract workers and 79% permanent workers.

3.4 Data Analysis

For this study, data was collected using Lime-survey and exported to MS Excel. The dataset was coded using the find and replace functions, i.e. strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, disagree = 3, and strongly disagree = 4. Similarly, extremely satisfied = 1, very satisfied = 2, somewhat satisfied = 3, not satisfied = 4. Descriptive data analysis was done using both the Lime-survey data analysis function (frequencies, percentages) and MS Excel (means, standard deviations, scatterplot). Inferential statistical analysis (correlations and linear regression models) were calculated using Excel's Analysis ToolPak add-in.

4. Results and Discussion

Findings of this study serve as a tool to inform future organisational change endeavours and in

the process contribute to knowledge base of organisational change process and job satisfaction. The results will be beneficial to academics, practitioners and managers alike. With respect to Table 2 on the following page, it can be seen that there is a positive and strong relationship between the majority of organisational change variables and job satisfaction variables. According to Liu and Norcio (2008:62), these results are consistent with previous research findings which acknowledge the significance of assessing the relevance of job satisfaction as a consequence of perceived change efficacy. Employee behaviours are directly influenced by the way the change process is managed.

According to various authors (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2004; Brown, 2011) organisational change attempts to increase organisational efficiency with the purpose of increasing productivity through invigorated employees who are able to develop creativity, performance and innovation. This refers to managerial attempts to improve performance by altering the formal structure of task and authority leadership. In Table 3, 56% of

Table 2: Correlations Between Organisational Change and Employee Satisfaction Factors

Correlations between organizational change and job satisfaction																		
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	keep busy	work alone	different things	supervisor handles	supervisor decisions	contribute o.dev	steady dev	supervise	use abilities	policies practice	amount work	job advancement	views & sugg	work conditions	get along	feedback	accomplishment
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	1																	
keep busy	0,358***	1.000																
work alone	0,184	0,651	1.000															
different things	0,373***	0,632	0,497	1.000														
supervisor handles	0,356***	0,271	0,360	0,355	1.000													
supervisor decisions	0,353***	0,273	0,317	0,413	0,908	1.000												
contribute o.dev	0,553***	0,368	0,325	0,526	0,409	0,488	1.000											
steady dev	0,476***	0,463	0,317	0,569	0,407	0,449	0,596	1.000										
supervise peop	0,222*	0,306	0,313	0,298	0,261	0,312	0,388	0,381	1.000									
use abilities	0,345***	0,503	0,444	0,628	0,377	0,405	0,528	0,566	0,489	1.000								
policies practice	0,680***	0,257	0,143	0,407	0,362	0,386	0,542	0,544	0,337	0,497	1.000							
amount work	0,200*	0,351	0,268	0,237	0,224	0,223	0,147	0,253	0,305	0,284	0,176	1.000						
job advancement	0,490***	0,379	0,244	0,386	0,353	0,357	0,380	0,490	0,329	0,463	0,603	0,391	1.000					
views & sugg	0,467***	0,211	0,222	0,502	0,584	0,568	0,533	0,404	0,274	0,406	0,454	0,305	0,468	1.000				
work conditions	0,364***	0,224	0,239	0,381	0,521	0,526	0,462	0,297	0,285	0,310	0,367	0,308	0,342	0,593	1.000			
get along	0,399***	0,232	0,262	0,337	0,364	0,358	0,442	0,361	0,120	0,360	0,452	0,074	0,337	0,445	0,377	1.000		
feedback	0,369***	0,230	0,310	0,419	0,552	0,530	0,443	0,465	0,193	0,410	0,467	0,187	0,407	0,539	0,460	0,509	1.000	
accomplishment	0,383***	0,524	0,440	0,655	0,442	0,424	0,425	0,542	0,412	0,673	0,507	0,327	0,546	0,556	0,480	0,436	0,641	1.000
p<0.001	***																	
p<0.01	**																	
p<0.05	*																	

Source: Authors

respondents indicate that they are not satisfied with the change in the organisational structure therefore disagree with the theory above.

Bateman and Organ (1983, cited in Muzanenhano *et al.*, 2016:477) noted that the extent to which employees display extra-role behaviours is largely determined by their feelings of satisfaction towards their work as compared to the support extended by their leaders or colleagues. This statement is evidenced by the findings in Table 3 on the following page, whereby only 35,92% of participants agreed with the following statement: while implementing change, the employer provides support to employees. Employees indicated a higher level of job satisfaction even though there is less support from their employer.

In the works of Brown (2011) and Noe, Hellenbeck, Gerhart & Wright (2012) results indicated that the manager or the agent of the organisational change should make sure that all parties involved in the change are allowed to participate in the decision process rather than being forced to go along with it. This is a basic technique that may be used to increase acceptance of change and increase motivation. If there is a labour union in the workplace it needs to be involved and be supportive of the change program. This is the strategy that was implemented by the NSG as the change management team that was appointed included members of the labour union and frequent meetings were held between management, labour unions and employees to discuss the change progress.

Recent studies indicate that in a change process, communication has positive correlation with many organisational outputs like organisational commitment, performance, organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction. Communication during organisational change is considered to be vital for effective change and reduces resistance to change (Malmelin, 2007; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009). Respondents indicated that change was not properly communicated and this is evidenced by 74% of respondents who disagreed with the statement that change plans are being timeously communicated to employees. Therefore, it can be said that along with the role of management to the impending change, distribution of information and actual communication regarding the need for change and the objectives thereof are also critical (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Elving & Hansma, 2008).

Findings in various studies (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Hyo-Sook, 2003; Husain, 2013) indicate that employee participation was associated with higher job satisfaction and better well-being individuals tend to report higher job satisfaction when they have an opportunity to provide input into how decisions are made. Excellent organisations enclose management structures that empower employee's participation in decision making. Hosain 2013, stated that increased participation in decision making by lower level employees has been found to have a positive effect on the efficiency of the decision making process, therefore employees who participate in the decision making process have higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organisation.

Table 3: Frequency Analysis

Characteristics	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)
Organizational Change		
I am satisfied with the change in the working environment in the organization	58 (56,31)	45 (43,69)
I am satisfied with change in the organizational structure	45 (43,69)	58 (56,31)
Change plans are being timeously communicated to employees	29 (28,15)	74 (71,85)
Proper training is provided to employees for implementing the change	36 (34,95)	67 (65,05)
While implementing change, the employer provides support to employees	37 (35,92)	66 (64,08)
There is improvement in employees' skills due to organizational change	46 (44,66)	57 (55,34)
Performance of employees is improving due to change in organizational plans and policies	40 (38,83)	63 (61,17)
Management is positively participating in the change process and boosting the morale of employees	30 (29,12)	73 (70,88)
Job Satisfaction		
Being able to keep busy all the time.	75 (72,81)	28 (27,19)
The chance to work alone on the job	68 (66,02)	35 (33,98)
The chance to do different things from time to time.	63 (61,17)	40 (38,83)
The way my supervisor handles his/her workers.	60 (58,25)	43 (41,75)
The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	59 (57,28)	44 (42,72)
Being able to contribute to organizational development as part of a team?	56 (54,37)	47 (45,63)
The way my job provides for steady development.	54 (52,43)	49 (47,57)
The chance to supervise people.	41 (39,81)	62 (60,19)
The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	59 (57,28)	44 (42,72)
The way organisational policies are put into practice.	33 (32,04)	70 (67,96)
My salary level and the amount of work I do.	28 (27,18)	75 (72,82)
The chances for advancement on this job.	33 (32,04)	70 (67,96)
My views and suggestions are respected.	44 (42,71)	59 (57,29)
The working conditions.	64 (62,14)	39 (37,86)
The way my co-workers get along with each other.	61 (59,22)	42 (40,78)
The feedback I get for doing a good job.	61 (59,22)	42 (40,78)
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	63 (61,16)	40 (38,84)

Source: Authors

Following the above discussions, we can therefore conclude that the way employees comprehend organisational change and perceive it as beneficial to both the organisation and the workforce, determines the magnitude of their satisfaction which in turn promotes better performance. It is to be noted that the manner in which the change process is administered also directly influences employee attitudes in the workplace. Therefore, well administered change initiatives stimulate job satisfaction.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

According to research it has been found that employees' attitudes towards organisational change affect

not only the success of the change process, but other important considerations for organisations such as employee's job satisfaction and commitment to and involvement in their work (Muzanenhano *et al.*, 2016).

Recommendations of this study are that any organisation that is involved in a change process should adopt the change management initiative model by Isa, Hin and Yunus (2011:109) which indicates that:

- An organisation must develop a new vision and a new faith in the workforce before it can approach the organisational change process. Managers must exhibit trust in the workers to

contribute to solving organisational problems, which in turn will translate into a trust relationship between management and workers.

- Change must be well articulated and communicated across the board for larger buy-in by all stakeholders. This will ensure that resistance to change is minimal and it is also crucial to have top management support.
- Reinforcement and compensation for change stimulates employees to voluntarily support change initiatives, which consequently enhance organisational competitiveness. Organisations are encouraged to consider offering their employees a wide range of rewards as a way of encouraging them to perform and accept change.
- Training is more effective when the reason for change is properly communicated as it assists employees to know how to effectively tackle change through knowledge and skills sharing.
- Participants in the change process need to be informed about progress and development occurring. Therefore, feedback should be used as an instrument to measure change more often.

Finally, it is to be noted that the nature, extent and magnitude of change vary from one organisation to the other. Therefore, if not well managed organisational change can have a negative impact on job satisfaction. Whereas properly instituted change management initiatives significantly enhance the process of change and its success. Taking into consideration the limitation in research and literature on organisational change focusing specifically on the public sector, one of the recommendations is to share this study with other public sector institutions to encourage research in those institutions; particularly those that have undergone organisational change.

In May of 2019, South Africans will be voting in the 6th general elections since the dawn of democracy in 1994. Following these elections, there might be an administrative change that equals change of leadership and subsequently, change of mandate. As already noted, most of the changes that have occurred in the NSG over the years were largely influenced by the change in the political mandate of the time. As it is the case, political mandates are influenced by the vision and strategy of the leadership

of the time. This change of leadership and political mandate may once again have an influence on the way the NSG does its business. The change, depending on the mandate, might be minor (for example, change in the funding model) or major (for example, business process reengineering); but whatever the size of the change, the organisation needs to properly consult, plan, communicate and execute the change plan with the involvement of all stakeholders. The recommendations as highlighted above need to be taken into consideration to ensure a smoother transition with less resistance, to the desired state.

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The Impact of Government Expenditure on Economic Growth in South Africa: A VECM Approach

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Abstract: Economists hold opposing views as to whether government expenditure is an effective way to stimulate the economy or not, while economic theory as well does not generate strong conclusions on the same issue. It is against this background that this paper aims to explore whether there exists a relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in South Africa. This paper employs the Johansen Cointegration analysis and Vector Error Correction Model on time series for the period 1997-2017 to examine the relationship. The paper further employs the Impulse Response Function to check for possible shocks among the variables. The empirical results strongly support the Keynesian view and the hypothesis that government expenditure is beneficial to economic growth in South Africa. Results revealed a long-run and short-run relationship amongst the variables. Moreover, the classification of government expenditure indicates that social infrastructure significantly contributes to a higher economic growth in the short-run then contract negatively in the long-run. However, economic infrastructure has no impact towards economic growth. The findings may provide an overview of policy suggestions to improve the effects that government expenditure has on economic growth.

Keywords: Government expenditure, Economic growth, VECM, Generalised impulse response function

1. Introduction

Policymakers' views contradict on whether government expansion helps or hinders economic growth. Those in favour of a bigger government maintain that government programs provide valuable public goods, i.e. education and infrastructure. They maintain that increased government expenditure may boost economic growth by injecting money into people's pockets (Mitchell, 2005). While supporters of a smaller government argue that more spending weakens economic growth by shifting additional resources from productive sectors of the economy to the government, which may use them ineffectively. Economists as well hold two diverse views: some believe that purchases by the government lead to a chain reaction of spending, while others suggest that government expenditure may "crowd out" economic activity in the private sector. These views contradict as to whether government expenditure may stimulate the economy or not. However, what they both agree on is that public expenditure in developing countries is an issue. Economic theory, seemingly, does not generate strong evidence on the impact of government expenditure on economic performance. Two well-examined economic hypotheses, the Keynesian macroeconomic framework and the Classical view, have been a base to argue the impact of government spending on economic growth.

According to the Keynesians, public spending boosts economic activities (Ju-Haung, 2006). The Keynesian macroeconomic model supports the view of an active government intervention through an increase in government expenditure and money supply to stimulate the economy (Chipaumire *et al.*, 2014). An increase in government expenditure will enhance output and employment through the simple multiplier in the economy. The theory maintains that a long-run relationship between government expenditure and economic growth exist. As a result, the Keynesian economist argue that government spending increases national spending of a country. However, the Classical economists' view is opposite of the Keynesian hypothesis.

The Classical view is based on the argument that increase in government spending will result in an increase in national output. Government spending is seen as the destabilising force in the development of the economy of a country rather the driving force of the economic growth. Therefore, according the Classical economists, the economy should be left to operate on its own and only prescribed a limited role for the government to play (Chipaumire *et al.*, 2014). In addition to these two hypotheses, The Neo-classical model submits that fiscal policies cannot bring about changes in long-run growth output. Instead, the model identifies population

growth, the rate of labour force growth, and the rate of technological progress to drive the growth rate in the long-run (Solow, 1956).

Barro (1989) maintained that GDP growth is negatively related to the government consumption expenditure. In his endogenous growth model, he argues that government consumption leads to misrepresentations, however does not provide an offsetting incentive to investment and growth. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: The paper provides a review of the empirical evidence first, followed by a discussion of the methodology and the data set. Then the empirical test results are discussed. The study is concluded with some policy recommendations.

2. Literature Review

There have been a number of studies on the relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in both developing and developed countries. These studies have employed different theories and research methods to establish this relationship.

Chipaumire *et al.* (2014) using quarterly data from 1990-2010, investigates the validity of the Keynesian macroeconomic framework and the classical perspective of a long-run relationship and causality between government expenditure and economic growth in South Africa. The Granger causality test results indicated a negative causal relationship between government spending and economic growth. The study thus, found that increased government spending in South Africa has not led to a meaningful development of the economy which is inconsistent to the Keynesian stance. Ghura (1995), found similar results with Chipaumire *et al.* (2014), using pooled time-series and cross-section data for 33 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa for the period 1970-1990 indicated an existence of a negative relationship between government consumption and economic growth.

In line with the findings of Ghura (1995), Chude and Chude (2013) studied the impact of government expenditure on economic growth in Nigeria using Error Correction Model (ECM). The study employed Ex-post facto research design and applied time series econometrics technique to examine the long and short-run effects of the variables. The results showed that total expenditure on education has a positive relationship on economic growth in Nigeria in the long-run. Ramon, Vinod and Yan (2010) study

the effect of fiscal policies on the quality of growth. Results point out that government spending on public goods is strongly associated with faster economic growth as well as with greater poverty reduction. Thus, linking more spending on public goods to accelerate economic growth and reduced poverty. However, government expenditure on private goods and subsidies to firms are associated with weaker economic growth and greater structural inequality.

Hasnul (2015), using OLS techniques on time-series data for the period 1970-2014, studied the relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in Malaysia. The results are similar with that of Ghura (1995), indicating a negative correlation between government and economic growth. However, classification of government expenditure indicates that only housing sector expenditure and development expenditure significantly contribute to a lower economic growth. Moreover, education, defence, healthcare and operating expenditure show no significant evidence of an impact on economic growth. On contrary, Hsieh and Lai (1994) developed a model based on Keynesian and Endogenous growth to investigate the nature of the relationship between government expenditure and economic growth in G-7 countries, namely Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, UK and USA. The results suggested that the relationship between government spending and economic growth can vary significantly across time. However, there is no robust evidence of a positive or negative effect of government spending on growth.

Wu *et al.* (2010) found contrasting results to Hsieh and Lai (1994). The study conducted a panel Granger causality test using panel data set from 182 countries for the period 1950-2004 to re-examine the casual relationship between government expenditure and economic growth. The results strongly supported both Wagner's law and the hypothesis that government spending is helpful to the economic growth. Tang (2001), supporting the Wagner's law, applied Johansen's multivariate co-integration tests and found no co-integration between national income and government expenditure over the period 1960-1998.

Based on these literatures, it's clear that the effect of government spending on economic growth can be positive or negative. The literature either support the Keynesian hypothesis or the Classical view, whereas in the case of South Africa, the literature supports the Keynesian hypothesis, which indicate

that there is a positive effect of government expenditure on economic growth.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data

This section details the nature of the methods and estimation techniques employed. In addition, several tests, including unit root, lag order selection criteria, Johansen co-integration, VECM, diagnostic tests, stability tests and forecast tests will be discussed. This paper used yearly time series data from the period 1997 to 2017, obtained from South African Reserve Bank (SARB).

3.2 Model Specification

The econometric model to be estimated in assessing the short-run and the long-run real effects of government expenditure upon economic growth is as follows:

$$GDPP_t = f(EINFR, SINFR, CONSG) \quad (1)$$

Where $GDPP$ denotes the measure of economic growth at market price, $CONSG$ denotes Government expenditure, $SINFR$ denotes social infrastructure and lastly $EINFR$ represents economic infrastructure.

The above selected variables in Equation 1 can be written in a linear form as follows:

$$LGDPP_t = \alpha + \beta_1 EINFR + \beta_2 SINFR + \beta_3 CONSG + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

3.3 Estimation Techniques

To assess the short-run and long-run real effects of government expenditure upon economic growth, which is the primary objective of the paper, various estimation techniques and tests will be employed, which include the tests below.

3.4 Stationarity/Unit Root Test

This is the first step in the time series analysis is to check whether the data obtained is stationary or not (Brooks, 2008). According to Studenmund (2001), there is a criterion that must be met in order for a time series variable to be stationary. A time series variable, is stationary if: (i) the mean of the data is constant overtime (ii) the variance of the data is

constant overtime (iii) the simple correlation coefficient between the mean and variance depends on the length of the lag but no other variable.

To test for stationarity, the paper made use of the Augmented Dickey Fuller unit root test of Dickey and Fuller (1979) as a test for stationarity and the Phillip-Perron test formulated by Phillips and Perron (1988) as a confirmatory test. The ADF is probably the most common procedure used in applied research to test for the presence of unit root. It allows the inclusion of the intercept or intercept plus trend coefficients in order to test for stationarity. Phillips (1987) and Phillips and Perron (1988) have developed a more comprehensive theory of unit root non-stationarity. The PP tests are similar to ADF tests, but they incorporate a correlation factor to the Dickey Fuller (DF) procedure to allow for autocorrelated residuals (Kocenda & Cerny, 2015).

3.5 Johansen Cointegration

Cointegration concerns long-run relationships between variables. Two variables possess an equilibrium relationship if, despite their univariate nonstationary behaviour, they move together in a manner that is stationary. Two variables that possess an equilibrium relationship defined in this way are said to be cointegrated (Sterwart, 2005). Because of the drawbacks of the Engle-Granger test, the Johansen (1988, 1995) cointegration test instead will be utilised to test the long-run behaviour among variables. The papers employ the use of the Maximum-Eigen value and the Trace test.

3.6 Vector Error Correction Model (VECM)

The Error Correction Model (ECM) is a single equation representing the speed of adjustment, whereas the Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) is a multiple equation model based on restricted Vector Auto regression (VAR) (Asari *et al.*, 2011). An advantage of using the VECM is that it allows variables to evolve jointly overtime. However, the model is used when variables are integrated in order of $I(1)$ and there is a cointegrating relationship among variables, if not then VAR would be employed instead (Brooks, 2008).

3.7 Diagnostic Tests

According to Michael (2003) heteroscedasticity usually arises from one of two causes. The first is that the average size of the dependent variable

increases. The second is that a few outliers dominate the regression estimates. The simplest test is to correlate the residuals with each other. There are tests which can be undertaken to check the presence of heteroscedasticity such as the White test and Breusch-Pagan test. The White test (1980) is more general test than merely determining whether heteroscedasticity of the residuals is present. Under the assumptions of the linear model, heteroscedasticity will affect the standard errors and the goodness-of-fit statistics but not the parameter estimates. Breusch-Pagan test is a Lagrange multiplier test for heteroscedasticity. The main characteristics of Lagrange multipliers are that they do not require the model to be estimated under the alternative and that they are often simply computed from the R^2 of some auxiliary regression (Verbeek, 2008). Serial correlation is also tested and it occurs in time-series studies when the errors associated with a given time period carry over into future time periods. There are different types of serial correlation; one of them is first-order serial correlation. With first-order serial correlation, errors in one-time period are correlated directly with errors in the ensuing time period. Durbin-Watson statistic is a popular test which is used to test for serial correlation (Getmansky, Lo & Makarov, 2004).

3.8 Stability Tests

Stability tests of a regression model are tests designed to evaluate whether the performance of a model in a prediction period is compatible with its performance in the sample period used to fit it. There are two principles on which stability test can be constructed. One approach is to focus on the predictive performance of the model and; the other one is to evaluate whether there is any evidence of shifts in the parameters in the prediction period (Dougherty, 2007). We check for stability using tests such as the Chow test, CUSUM and CUSUM squares.

The Chow test is most commonly used in time series analysis to reveal the existence of a structural breakpoint. The total period is divided into two sub-periods (this is a simple case of the existence of one breakpoint). The CUSUM test is used to detect any systematic eventual movements where the coefficients values reflecting a possible structural instability whereas CUSUM squares test is used when we want to detect random movements (those that do not necessarily come from a structural change in coefficients) (Farhani, 2012).

3.9 Generalised Impulse Response Function

The generalised impulse response function (GIRF) is the revised technique given that the IRF has omissions which were spotted by previous researchers, so Persaran and Shin (1998) came up with the GIRF (Hurley, 2010). It does not need the orthogonalizing of shocks, because the response urge of the variables is the same to the sequences of the VAR and thus supplies relevant outcomes. The estimation is done by consistently taking one VAR equation to shock and utilise the spread of the decreased vector to work out the results of the other variables (Nazifi & Milunovich, 2010). The GIRF can be equated as follows:

$$GR_{\Delta p}(m, \theta_i, \Omega_{t-1}) = E(\Delta p_{t+m} | u_{it} = \theta_i, \Omega_{t-1}) - E(\Delta p_{t+m} | \Omega_{t-1}) \quad (3)$$

The Ω_{t-1} denotes the previous information of the variables which is transparent up to the lagged period shown by $t-1$ (Nazifi & Milunovich, 2010). θ_i is a subscript of the size of the shock of the variable i and the correlation of the decreased form of innovation represented by the vector u_{it} .

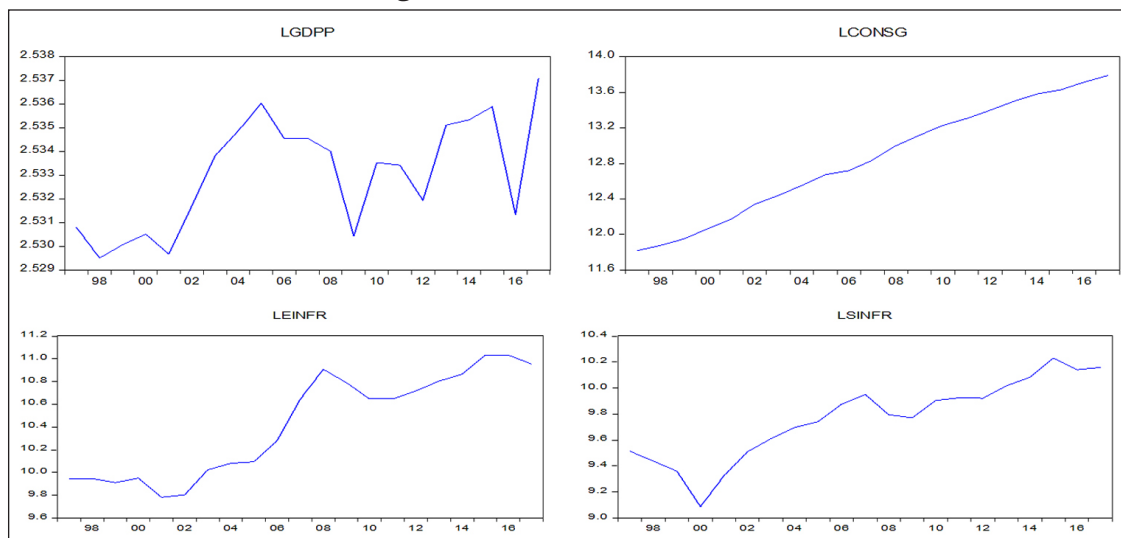
3.10 Variance Decomposition

Powers and Yun (2009) describe how the variance decomposition analysis emphasises on the rates that react to the volatility in sole and structural components with more than one variable. This approach is what is called the multivariate decomposition technique and is mostly used in social findings to distribute the inputs in different groups in average forecasts from the multivariate models. The approach uses the outcome of the regression analysis to issue parcels characteristics of a varying group in statistics like the mean. In a linear regression model, the main thing is decomposing the variance of the reaction of the dependent variable Y into parts resulting from the dependent variables together with their errors (Grömping, 2007), which can be as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + X_1\beta_1 + \dots + X_i\beta_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

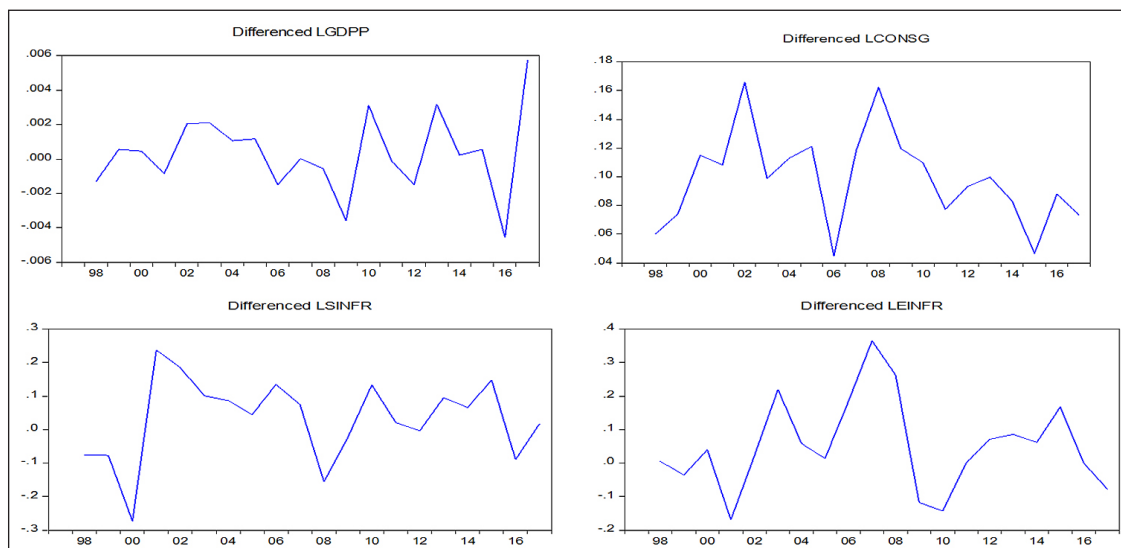
With the Equation 4 above, the y β_s are the unknown constant, also the dependent variables are random with equals $1 \dots i$ (Grömping, 2007). The i denotes the random variables and the ε_t is the error term. The ε_t is assumed to be zero and the variance to be greater than zero. On the matrix side, the inter-regression of the correlations ijk and the $i \times i$ is the correlation

Figure 1: Time Series in Levels



Source: Author's calculation

Figure 2: Time Series in 1st Difference



Source: Author's calculation

matrix. The relationship between the two is assumed to be positive, meaning that any sample regression of the matrix with $n > i$ rows is a full column order.

4. Empirical Results and Discussions

This section provides a summary of the results of all the tests undertaken to estimate the model. The results are interpreted in details and recommendations based on the findings are made in the last part of the paper. Existing literature has shown that estimating time series variables without testing for unit root may lead to spurious results. Hence, to avoid such, the ADF and PP unit root tests were conducted to check for stationarity.

4.1 Unit Root Test

Figure 1 depicts LGDPP, LCONSG, LEINFR and LSINFR in levels. Since the line graphs of all the variables display an upward trend, it implies that the time series may not be stationary at level. Eventually, when variables are transformed to their first difference status in Figure 2, all the line graphs appear to be hovering around their mean which suggest the possibility of stationarity after first differencing. But the graphical approach cannot be used to make conclusive statements about stationarity therefore, formal tests in the form of Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests were applied to the data for efficient and robust unit root

Table 1: Unit Root Test Results

Variables	Test	T-statistic at intercept	Critical value at 5%	Probability	Results
LGDPP	ADF	-6.023981	-3.029970	0.0001	I(1)
	PP	-6.167452	-3.029970	0.0001	I(1)
LEINFR	ADF	-3.796714	-3.040391	0.0113	I(1)
	PP	-10.93600	-3.029970	0.0000	I(1)
LSINFR	ADF	-3.901330	-3.029970	0.0087	I(1)
	PP	-4.653352	-3.029970	0.0018	I(1)
LCONSG	ADF	-3.476719	-3.029970	0.0207	I(1)
	PP	-3.457402	-3.029970	0.0215	I(1)

Source: Author's calculation

Table 2: Johansen Cointegration Test Results

Maximum - Eigen Value				Trace Test			
Null hypothesis	Alternative hypothesis	Test statistic	0.05 Critical value	Null hypothesis	Alternative hypothesis	Test statistic	0.05 Critical value
r = 0	r = 1	43.79247*	27.58432	r = 0	r ≥ 1	79.22301*	47.85613
r = 1	r = 2	17.07291	11.13162	r = 1	r ≥ 2	35.43054	39.79707
r = 2	r = 3	13.57060	12.26460	r = 2	r ≥ 3	18.35763	19.49471
r = 3	r = 4	4.787031	2.841466	r = 3	r ≥ 4	4.787031	5.841466

*denotes a rejection of the hypothesis at 0.05 level

Source: Author's calculation

Table 3: Normalised Coefficient Test Results

LGDPP	LEINFR	LSINFR	LCONSG
1.000000	0.061857	0.072751	-0.342824
	(0.01554)	(0.01857)	(0.02922)

Source: Author's calculation

testing and the results are presented in Table 1. The unit root results revealed that all variables were not stationary in levels hence they contained a unit root. When variables are transformed to first difference, they all become stationary at 5% level of significance and thus allows this paper to further determine a long-run relationship through cointegration.

4.2 Johansen Cointegration Test

The Johansen cointegration test is calculated to determine whether the variables in the paper have a long-run relationship amongst each other and in Table 3 the normalised coefficient equation is presented.

In Table 2 above, the calculation suggests that there is one cointegration equation from both tests. The

hypothesis of stating that there is no cointegration is rejected, since the test statistics are greater than the critical values. This suggests a long-run relationship.

$$LGDPP + LEINFR + LSINFR - LCONSG = 0 \quad (5)$$

The displayed signs above indicate the signs that are found in the normalised equation which are equated to zero. For accurate results the signs will have to be reversed.

$$LGDPP = -LEINFR - LSINFR + LCONSG \quad (6)$$

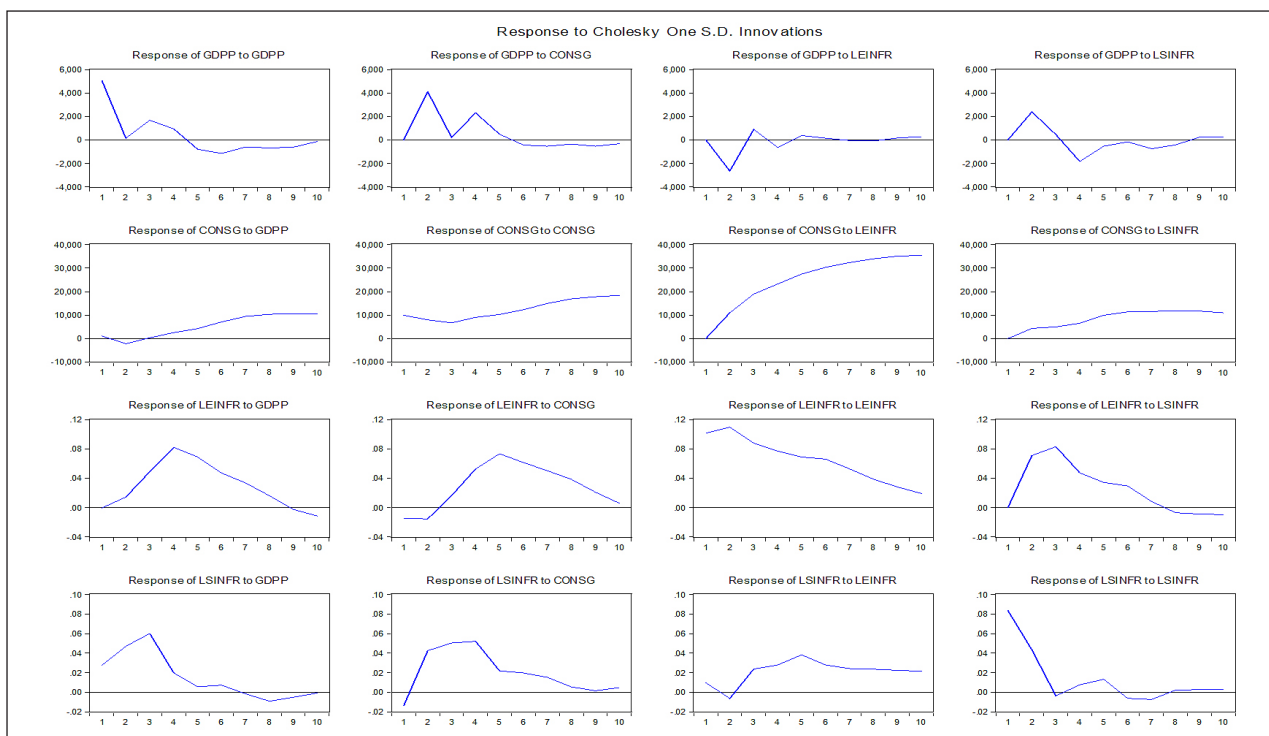
Equation 6 above assumes that in the long-run the government expenditure's influence on the GDP is economically and statistically significant. This is shown by the positive sign above.

Table 4: VECM Test Results

Dependent variable: D(LGDPP)			
Variable	Coefficient	Standard error	T-statistics
EC (-1)	0.308219	(0.26526)	[-1.16195]
C	-0.018517	(0.02167)	[-0.85457]
D(LGDPP(-1))	-0.430378	(0.31985)	[-1.34557]
D(LCONSG(-1))	0.293438	(0.21221)	[1.38278]
D(LEINFR(-1)) -	0.094745	(0.04692)	[-2.01937]
D(LSINFR(-1)) -	0.005754	(0.07203)	[-0.07988]
R-squared 0.471659, Adj. R-squared 0.268451			

Source: Author's calculation

Figure 3: Generalised Impulse Response Function Table



Source: Author's calculation

4.3 VECM Test Results

The VECM test is calculated to determine the short-run relationship among variables, which will determine the level of speed adjustment.

The error correction term (ECT) from the regression assumes the expected negative sign which is also statistically and economically significant. The strong significance entails the fact that the variables in the model are cointegrated in the short-run. The results of the short-run dynamics indicate that a positive linear relationship exist between economic growth and the variables (Government expenditure and Social infrastructure). The measured speed of adjustment

confirms that economic growth has an automatic adjustment mechanism. The value of -0.308 for Error Correction Term (ECT) suggests a fast speed of adjustment of roughly 31 percent. The adjusted R-squared looks at the goodness of fit, therefore, the model explains a significant proportion of the variability of the series. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that the model explains about 47 percent of the systematic variations in the economic growth.

4.4 Generalised Impulse Response Function

This methodology approach is employed to track the time area of how GDP respond to government expenditure in the action of the function's shocks

Table 5: Variance Decomposition

Period	S.E.	GDPP	CONSG
1	5045.063	100.0000	0.000000
2	7412.970	46.35885	30.50054
3	7670.085	48.09160	28.56825
4	8293.598	42.42930	32.14977
5	8371.947	42.55130	31.88207
6	8465.512	43.4865243	31.43883
7	8536.210	43.25657	31.43883
8	8581.421	43.43687	31.31101
9	8624.461	43.50646	31.14630
10	8639.683	43.37351	31.22718

Source: Author's calculation

Table 6: Summary of Diagnostic Test Results

Test	Null hypothesis	t-statistic	P-value	Conclusion
Jarque-Bera	Residuals are normally distributed	0.6487	0.7229	Do not reject Ho since PV is >5% L.O.S
Breusch-Godfrey	No serial correlation	0.5479	0.7604	Do not reject Ho since PV is >5% L.O.S
AutoCorrelation	No Autocorrelation	4.4511	0.974	Do not reject Ho since PV is >5% L.O.S
ARCH	No Heteroskedasticity	0.1308	0.7175	Do not reject Ho since PV is >5% L.O.S
Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey	No Heteroskedasticity	3.1994	0.4090	Do not reject Ho since PV is >5% L.O.S

Source: Author's calculation

and it assists in providing both the short and long-term relationship amongst the variables, using the decomposition method.

The response of GDP to government expenditure shocks implies a positive display and declines towards the end of the forecast. On the other hand, the response of government expenditure to GDP starts of negatively then after 3 years strengthens and maintains being positive. These results suggest that in the first two years the standard deviation shock to GDP marginally decreased the level of government expenditure, but after that increased until the end of the forecast. After the second period the results indicate that an increase in GDP reveals an increase in the level of government expenditure.

4.5 Variance Decomposition

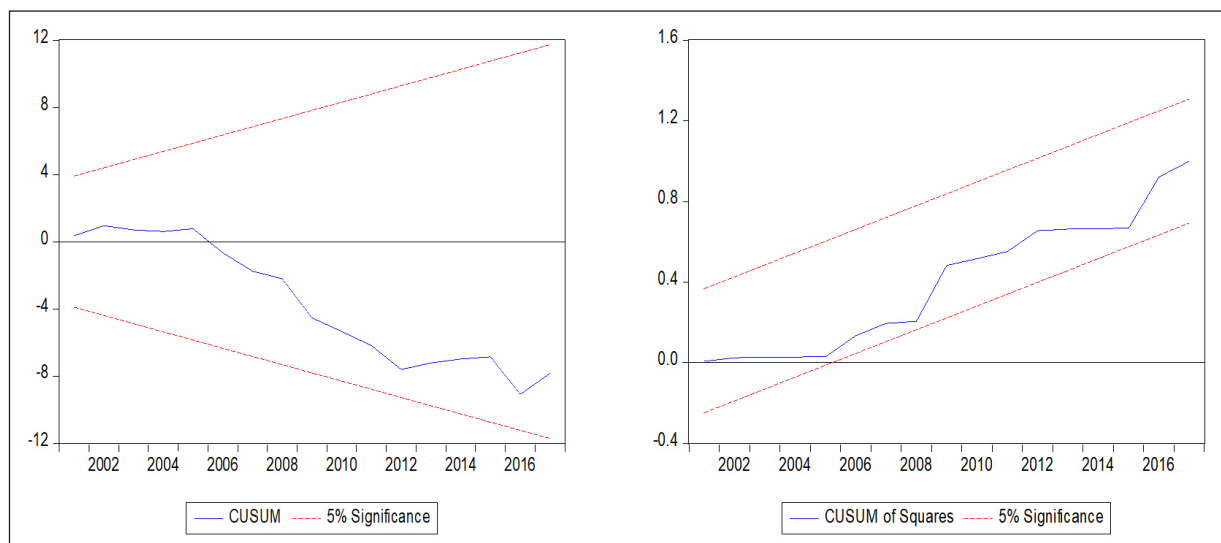
The variance decomposition results are shown in Table 5 which are used to forecast these shocks to

be able to analyse and predict the variation of the fluctuation of GDP and government expenditure since they are from a single regression equation.

Table 5 above suggests that government expenditure suggests a significant influence of more than 30 percent in the fourth year and a further escalation of more than 31 percent in the tenth year. Variance decomposition suggests that government expenditure's shocks do have influence on GDP. Thus GDP implies its own innovations significantly by more than 42 percent in the fourth year and more than 43% in the tenth year.

Table 6 shows the diagnostic test for serial correlation, heteroscedasticity and normality of residuals using the Breush-Godfrey Serial correlation LM test, Autocorrelation, Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey heteroscedasticity Test and the Jarque-Bera normality test. All the probability values of the tests are above 5% level of significance. Therefore, all the null hypotheses

Figure 4: Plot of CUSUM and CUSUMSQ Tests



Source: Author's calculation

cannot be rejected. This means that the model is free from serial correlation, autocorrelation, heteroscedasticity and residuals are normally distributed as shown by the absence of asterisks in the table above. Such an outcome reinforces the reliability and robustness of the research results.

Figure 4 shows that the plots of the CUSUM and CUSUMSQ residuals remained within the critical bounds of 5% level of significance throughout the period of study which imply that, the model was stable (Mohapatra *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, it can be concluded that both the short-run and long-run coefficients in the VECM models are stable.

5. Conclusion

This research study investigated the impact of government expenditure on economic growth by incorporating into the model, economic infrastructure and social infrastructure as control variables covering the period 1997 and 2017. Both the Augmented Dickey Fuller and the Phillips Perron unit root test results show that economic growth, government expenditure, economic infrastructure and social infrastructure are I(1) variables. The Johansen Cointegration test results confirmed an existence of a cointegration among variables. The test indicated that government expenditure is significant and positively related to economic performance, while economic infrastructure and social infrastructure are significant and negatively related to economic performance. The VECM test results reported a positive short-run relationship between economic growth

and the independent variables. The results equally indicated 31% automatic fast speed of adjustment mechanism if the model deviated from equilibrium in a balancing manner. The diagnostic tests revealed that the model is bereft of the problems of serial correlation, autocorrelation, heteroscedasticity and residuals are normally distributed. The stability test confirmed that the long-run coefficients in the short-run coefficients and the long-run coefficients in the VECM models are stable.

6. Recommendations

The suggestion of the direction of policy formulation is based on the robust research study outcomes. The South African government needs to increase expenditure aimed at shaping the general efficiency of the economy and shrink the allocation towards social and economic infrastructure. This may lead to a higher economic growth rate which tends to increase government revenue and thus fund government spending.

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Isomorphism and 'Capability Trap' in the South African Public Service

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Abstract: As stipulated in sections 26, 27 and 29 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, public institutions are mandated to legislative measures in delivering services to the public. This mandate has to be fulfilled by public institutions regardless of the enormous pressure by internal and external pressure. This pressure compels South African public service to willingly/unwillingly transform and adopt appropriate models for improved service delivery. When enhancing service delivery, government departments often than not unconsciously experience isomorphism, which is later explained in this paper. In some instances, isomorphism leads to 'capability trap', which results to an institutional failure exacerbated by the state of isomorphic mimicry. The purpose of this paper is to answer the question, to what extent is the South African public service experiencing isomorphism? Subsequently, it is important to ask whether isomorphism leads to capability trap that various public institutions are seen to be experiencing recently. These questions are explored by undertaking a critical literature review adopting a hermeneutic reading modality, which is grounded in qualitative studies. It is the intention of this paper to derive the meaning and understanding of the isomorphic state of the South African public service. This paper firstly conceptualises isomorphism and further identify and conceptualise the various forms of isomorphism. State capability trap is deliberated upon in order to demonstrate the extent of isomorphism in the South African public service. This section is followed by examples that indicate the influence of isomorphism in public administration. Concluding remarks summarise this paper and propose mechanisms that could be put in place to avoid isomorphism.

Keywords: Isomorphism, Isomorphic mimicry, Capability trap, Public service, Hermeneutic

1. Introduction

Public institutions are influenced by political and social contexts. Organisational change is deemed necessary to strike the balance between diverse contexts. Public institutions, specifically in South Africa, are confronted with multiple goals; hence, organisation change becomes inevitable. In the process of organisational change, adopted powerful internal and external actors diffuse public sector models and reforms in organisations. This diffusion leads to isomorphism. Isomorphism can be seen an intervention for transforming the public service in the drive of improving service delivery. Internal and external pressure imposed on organisations may result in improved organisational performance. Some of the public service reforms contribute to service delivery and are efficient and effective to a certain extent. Miterev, Engwall and Jerbrant (2017:11) attest to this when arguing that formalising institutional rules and procedures can enhance organisational performance. This is a view that has been highly contested due to its bureaucratic approach. Similar to this, most institutions are experiencing isomorphic pressure which does not

always improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Instead, it is established for conforming to norms and expectations set by other organisations (Walter-Drop & Remmert, 2018:548). The purpose of this paper is to answer the question: To what extent is the South African public service experiencing isomorphism? Firstly, this was achieved by conceptualising isomorphism. Secondly, this paper discusses the various forms of isomorphism. Thirdly, state capability trap is discussed in order to demonstrate the extent of isomorphism in the South African public service. This section is followed by practical examples that indicate the influence of isomorphism in public administration.

2. Conceptualising Isomorphism

Isomorphism depicts the idea that organisations can look alike, following 'prescribed policies and procedures' formulated using a top-down approach (Worth, 2012:63). Correspondingly, Pillay, Reddy and Morgan (2017:423) define isomorphism as "a similarity of processes or structure of one institution to those of another". The pressure from regulatory bodies exacerbates this similarity. Organisational

performance can be enhanced by formalising institutional rules and procedures (Miterev, *et al.*, 2017:11). This pressure is not always negative because in some instances, it can increase organisations' efficiency and effectiveness. In contrast, Pillay *et al.* (2017:424) argue that conforming to social and external pressures can limit the focus on technical efficiency and neglect the context. Beckert (2010:155) contends that actors in isomorphism are not pushed but act voluntarily. Institutions are enticed by a specific institutional solution that they see as a panacea to their challenges. The reviewed literature identifies three types of isomorphism, namely; coercive isomorphism, mimetic isomorphism and normative isomorphism (Walter-Drop & Rimmert, 2018; Worth 2012). These types of isomorphism are discussed below.

2.1 Coercive Isomorphism

DiMaggio and Powell (1983:150) define coercive isomorphism as "formal and informal pressures exerted on organisations by other organisations upon which they are dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organisations function". Therefore, this form of isomorphism becomes persuasive and leads to 'forced' organisational change. This is evident when organisations have to comply with 'legal mandates or funding stipulations' (Carter, 2016:439) and constitutional mandate in public administration context. These pressures can include, "strict regulatory and legal requirements from employees, education training programmes that impart best practices on peer institutions across the field to encourage imitation, professional associations and bodies" (Pillay *et al.*, 2017:424). In addition, the external pressures can include legal requirements, contractual obligations, health, and safety regulations (Ashworth, Boyne & Delbridge, 2007:167). Teodoro (2014:984) acknowledges that coercive isomorphism emanates from "political influence and the problem of legitimacy". For example, the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank to name a few, formulated policies that are internationally acclaimed (Beckert, 2010:153). The internal pressure confronting organisations include, "prescriptive guidelines and frameworks, assurance systems and internal audits and steering committees (Miterev, *et al.*, 2017:12). These pressures are not always bad because they are necessary. Krause (2013:2) argues that imitating good performers is not bad if institutions adapt these imitations to their own institutions to make it relevant. Similarly,

Levi (2018:609) argues that coercion is a necessary condition for a state to provide security and ensure compliance. This further ensures state fairness by punishing those who fail to comply. Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan 2030 acknowledges the importance of strengthening the criminal justice system which necessitates "cooperation between all departments in the justice system crime prevention and security" (National Planning Commission, 2011:350). This will require a form of coerciveness to ensure compliance. For example, public organisations are more often than not subjected to "coercive scrutiny, evaluation and regulation" and this results to 'isomorphic transformation' (Frumkin & Galaskiewicz, 2004:284). These organisations find an escape route by adopting routines and structures as determined by regulatory bodies. This implies that organisations are constructed rather than being a 'product of natural interaction' (Frumkin & Galaskiewicz, 2004:284). The results of this construction of organisations are clearly identified by Frumkin and Galaskiewicz (2004:284) when asserting, "organisations are subject to government pressure and embrace institutional myths and strategies and structures are disseminated and a homogenized organisational field is created". The communities that expect public institutions to implement appropriate actions can also exert these pressures (Miterev, *et al.*, 2017:12). Similarly, Pillay *et al.* (2017:423) acknowledge that isomorphism occurs when public institutions are pressurised to abandon 'traditional practices for new beliefs, operating systems, environmental forces, and individual behaviours'. This results to similar processes that are constructed by the organisational constraints. In addition, Beckert (2005:153) acknowledges that when institutions or organisations are experiencing a crisis, a strong external institution can exert influence and provide a new institutional design without encouraging experimentation of that design. This becomes a response to a power constellation exerted by the external institution that is seen to be successful.

Most organisations are experiencing isomorphic pressure. The latter does not always improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Instead, it is established for conforming to norms and expectations set by other organisations (Walter-Drop & Rimmert, 2018:548). This isomorphic pressure can be internal (formal structures and standard procedures) or external (donors or funders). Moreover, local organisations are confronted with coerced conformity instead of developing most appropriate and sustainable institutions (Walter-Drop &

Remmert, 2018:549). This result in unintended and in some instances dire consequences that affect the beneficiaries (the public at large). Service delivery satisfaction is compromised because of the coercion facing these organisations.

Moreover, this form of isomorphism becomes dubious when public institutions satisfy donor demands due to isomorphic pressure instead of improving organisational performance and functions (Krause, 2013:2). Krause (2013:3) further maintains that as long as institutions are dependent on donors for their survival, "superficial best practices" are inevitable. Schnell (2015:277) asserts that these "best practices" are criticised by communities because they "increase international legitimacy and governments copy institutional forms that are not suited to the local context". Beckert (2010:155) calls this, "shop around for best institutional practices". This leads to international policy diffusion, where the choice of policies is influenced by what is happening in other countries (Schnell, 2015:277). Examples of such policy include policies that address the issue of human rights, democratic reforms and environmental policies that are universal and are being accepted (Schnell, 2015:277). Policy makers are experiencing pressure to implement successful policies to the betterment of the citizens. As they engage in policy making, they intend to propose some laws and legislation that are clear-cut and this is not always possible. On the contrary, Ashworth, Boyne and Delbridge (2007:169) argue that organisations can make necessary changes over time owing to a new model of the public service. Isomorphic pressures can cause the changes that confront an organisation. Organisations can start to converge with or without compliance.

2.2 Mimetic Isomorphism

The second form of isomorphism is mimetic isomorphism that occurs when institutions replicate practices (Carter, 2016:439). It is influenced by standard responses to uncertainty (Teodoro, 2014:985). In addition, it occurs when public institutions consider other public institutions as successful and they imitate those institutions without acknowledging their context and "institutional peculiarities" (Pillay *et al.*, 2017:429). When institutions are experiencing uncertainties, they tend to imitate what other institutions are doing in order to avoid failure and secure legitimacy (Masocha & Fatoki, 2018:3; Yang & Hyland 2012). Among the factors that contribute to this form of isomorphism is 'the limited number of

readily available models' that could be implemented to enhance organisational performance (Miterev, *et al.*, 2017:12). The non-availability of such models forces institutions to imitate ones that look successful. This implies that government institutions adopt "practices and institutional forms of social leaders and thereby are perceived by others and themselves as being advanced, progressive and morally praiseworthy" (Marsh & Sharman, 2009:272). Moreover, Pillay *et al.* (2017:429) argue that other institutions may introduce a new legislation that is less relevant. In some instances, the public institutions may be aware that the adopted policy is 'technically ineffective' (Marsh & Sharman, 2009:272). In a similar vein, Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes and Melton (2010:873) contend that "mimetic forces might encourage an organisation to change because the change is culturally supported and helps reduce uncertainty in the environment".

Various mimetic mechanisms are demonstrated in various organisations. Miterev *et al.*'s (2017:17) study used an in-depth ethnography-inspired case study. They found that managers who were deemed more successful and credible were imitated by temporary organisations. These managers were copied because of the perceptions not necessarily undertaking an intensive analysis to identify their failures. This form of isomorphism focuses on the success factors without acknowledging that they could be some failures within organisations. Krause (2013:2) contends that some form of mimicry is inevitable because problem-oriented institutional change requires some mimicry. In most instances, in mimicking other institutions that are seen as more successful and consistent, similar templates are used to gain legitimacy (Beckert, 2010:159). This process becomes repetitive because of new regulations and policies that are being implemented (Frumkin & Galaskiewicz, 2004:286).

2.3 Normative Isomorphism

This form of isomorphism occurs through professionalisation, where formal education and participation by public servants in professional bodies/organisations is encouraged (Miterev *et al.*, 2017:12). During this professionalisation, "professional norms, organisational models, mind-sets and problem solving approaches" are adopted and infused in professionals (*ibid.*). These professional norms and organisational models, to name a few, are determined by the professional community (de Freitas & de Aquino Guimarães, 2007:39).

This process results in creating a pool of professionals who adopt the same cognitive base belonging in the same professional associations (Miterev, Engwall & Jerbrant, 2017:12). Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings (2002:62) identify three reasons that highlight the importance of professional associations:

- They are arenas through which organisations interact and collectively represent themselves. They allow organisations within the same community to interact and it is from these interactions that understandings of reasonable conduct and behavioural dues of membership emerge.
- Shared typifications develop not solely because of interaction within a community but also as a product of interactions with other communities. Professional associations act as negotiating or representative agencies, shaping and redefining appropriate practices of interaction for their respective memberships.
- Professional associations can play an important role in monitoring compliance with normatively and coercively sanctioned expectations. They serve as mechanisms of conformity and reproduction.

Considering the above reasons for establishing professional associations, they seem to serve as a positive influence in organisations while the opposite is normally observed in public institutions. The normative processes further "capture the ways in which organisations are expected to conform to standards of professionalism and to adopt systems and techniques considered to be legitimate by relevant professional groupings". Owing to normative forces, organisations can be motivated to change because of being moral and feeling obligated to do so (Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes & Melton, 2010:873). This may also result in convergence where organisations "may converge because of shifts in the normative environment (Pitts *et al.*, 2010:873). For example, public institutions may not be rational or strategic when implementing some policy such as affirmative action policy. They can do so because other organisations are implementing it. Because of the external actors, they end up implementing those policies because they are deemed to be socially acceptable. In an article entitled, "*When professionals lead: Executive management, normative isomorphism and policy, implementation*", Teodoro (2014) undertook an empirical study in an attempt to explain that normative isomorphism helps to explain

how professions shape executive management and, ultimately, public policy outcomes. Teodoro (2014:1000) found that public utilities headed by professional engineers "commit fewer regulatory violations other than those that are not". This indicates that professionalism is important; hence, in this finding, professional influence became evident. According to Teodoro (2014:985), conforming to dominant behaviour of professional communities is promoted by rewards and sanctions that are established. This influences individual professionals' behaviour.

Pillay *et al.* (2017:427) identify two sources of normative isomorphism which takes place when a university graduate obtains formal education then becomes involved in professional networks/associations/organisations. Pillay *et al.* (2017:427) further acknowledge that in South African government institutions, there is an increasing number of institutional professionals and professional associations.

Professionalisation takes place during professional training where people's perspectives on regulative goals are influenced. Sadly, this leads to "routines and taken for granted institutionalised practices" (Beckert, 2010:156). In most public institutions in South Africa, institutions are guided by a code of conduct and ethics that promote ethical standards. Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes and Melton (2010:873) provide an example of a diversity management programme to illustrate the importance of professionalism. They indicate that it could be learnt through formal education and the practitioners will be taught how to implement it. The formal education will influence the choices of the practitioners in implementing diversity management programmes. Convergence takes place in this instance because of the networking opportunities and exposure to formal education.

Section 195(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South requires public servants to maintain a high standard of professional ethics. Public institutions have implemented a code of professionalism to enhance compliance. Chapter 12 of National Development Plan 2030 states that training for professionalism in the Police Services can be achieved by strengthening the capacity of detectives and investigators who are employed in special units (National Planning Commission, 2011:355). This will in turn enhance their skills and competence. A level of normative isomorphism is necessary.

Table 1: Common Types of Agenda Conformity

Types of Agenda Conformity	Description	Author's Own Interpretation
Inputs	Organisations request more financial inputs (budget)	Public institutions request more funds in their budgets at the beginning of a financial year in order to comply with political influence. This form of agenda conformity relates to coercive isomorphism.
Process of compliance and control	Claim to increase process compliance or increase management controls like information management systems	This is aligned to mimetic isomorphism where compliance to certain norms becomes prevalent.
Relabelling problems and solutions.	Adopting a solution whether it solves the problem or not.	This can be aligned to the three forms of isomorphism (coercive, mimetic and normative). Often when organisations are confronted with some form of uncertainty they mimic other successful organisations.
Intensification or best practice	Adopting new inputs or training or upgrades that appeal to internal constituencies independently of their impact on outputs and outcomes.	This relates to normative isomorphism where organisations are influenced by professional bodies and adopt solutions that are deemed to be best practices by professional associations. Best practices are not always best if they are not context-specific.

Public institutions often experience internal and external pressure for them to conform and comply. Such pressure is not evidence of high performance. This is evident in cases where state-owned enterprises have been involved in corruption and wasteful expenditure. Agenda conformity can lead to capability traps of public institutions.

Source: Andrews, *et al.* (2017)

3. State Capability Trap

A capability trap occurs when the primary focus of leaders is organisational survival through routine compliance and conformity to prescribed agendas neglecting the citizens they serve (Andrews, Pritchett & Woolcock, 2017:49). If organisations are not subjected to public scrutiny, this capability trap becomes worsened. The current political dynamics in South Africa demonstrates what Call (2008:1491) calls, "failing, fragile, stressed, and troubled states". The majority of citizens are made to believe that a democratic agenda (government capacity development) is a priority but the status quo demonstrates some dire weaknesses. Armstrong (2013:3) defines Government Capacity Development as "a process in which government organisations and agencies come to understand, harness, expand and retain the ability to craft and implement policy that enables the country to become healthier, wealthier and more resilient". This is a necessary development programme that becomes weakened when the eternally aided government capacity developments interventions result in unsatisfactory results owing to the failure to improve sustainable capacity (Armstrong, 2013:3). Best practices that

are borrowed from developed and rich countries are not always appropriate in developing countries. Goodman and Jinks (2013:43) call it 'decoupling within states'. This merely refers to the process where a state adopts "organisational structures and formal policies that are disconnected from internal demands and implementation". This form of isomorphism becomes problematic because of the variations in historical and social backgrounds.

Andrews *et al.* (2017:54) further argue that expecting "newly formed organisations to implement functions that similar organisations perform in rich countries" is an indication of weakness of premature load bearing and isomorphic mimicry. Pritchett *et al.* (2013:9) maintain that isomorphic mimicry is one technique that facilitates persistent failure of the state because institutions imitate forms of modern institutions without functionality. They further argue that this does not always produce the desired results. The capability trap might cause evidenced instability in the South African public service. In addition, Andrews, *et al.* (2017:38) identify several common types of agenda conformity (as captured in Table 1) which demonstrate state capability trap.

4. Isomorphism in Public Administration

This section of the article reflects on few examples that show the prevalence of isomorphic mimicry in public administration. For example, in public finance, employees yearn to maintain similar set of beliefs as other finance counterparts (Moynihan, 2004:225). This is done in an attempt to adhere to professional norms and professional standards for public finance practitioners. The Public Financial Management Act (PFMA) no 1 of 1999 influences these professional norms and standards. Maramura and Thakhathi (2016:243) argue that PFMA secures sustainable financial affairs in all spheres of governments and it outlines the budgetary norms and standards. In sections 38 to 43 of the PFMA, the responsibilities of accounting officers are stipulated. Public institutions are expected to adhere to accounting boards and bodies. If certain institutions are experiencing a time of uncertainty, they tend to imitate institutions that are seen as successful. This leads to public institutions to mimic other institutions without necessary delving into challenges that those institutions have faced to be successful. These public institutions end up employing a logic of appropriateness based on what they perceive to be professional norms and standards (Moynihan, 2004:225).

To achieve performance, public finance practitioners come up with more centralised systems and they use a top down approach (Moynihan, 2004:225). This is not always a bad decision; it becomes problematic when it is not context-specific. Moreover, Moynihan (2004:227) found that elected officials in Alabama believe that traditional financial systems assist public employees to behave appropriately, implement policies successfully avoiding failure and inefficiency. In contrast to Moynihan's finding, in the South African public service, there is a high rate of corruption, fruitless and wasteful expenditure regardless of the budgetary norms and standards (Maramura & Thakhathi, 2016:243). This is an indication that isomorphic mimicry in public finance does not always result in ethical behaviour among public finance practitioners. Isomorphism is used as way of justifying or defending why an organisation has adopted a policy that is similar to that of a successful organisation (Cook, An & Favero, 2018:5).

Another form of isomorphism in the public sector occurs when public institutions adopt new innovative frameworks such as e-government. Heeks

(2002:87) maintains that "e-government is an imported concept based on imported designs". In many developing countries, the World Bank and other donor institutions impose e-government without considering the costs that are involved in implementing such an initiative. Jun and Weare (2010:495) argue that economic development programmes can be costly when they are not well planned. They also acknowledge that e-government is "a generic set of technologies and services that can be employed by a wide range of public organisations... (Jun & Weare, 2010:496). Saxena (2005:501) identifies two aims of e-government, namely, (i) to improve the performance of public institutions and make them more responsive and (ii) to help build a partly virtual and completely joined-up administration in which the user knocks at the front door either virtually (electronically) or physically by going to a one stop service counter. Moreover, adopting e-government can be risky if public organisations lack resources because complex technological resources are needed to ensure effective service delivery, improved internal management and better political communication (Jun & Weare, 2010:497). Implementing e-government poses various challenges in the South African community; hence, there are still service delivery challenges in municipalities regardless of e-government models that are deemed to be effective. As already alluded to, these innovations such as e-government are adopted in Africa originating from the West where African realities are not experienced.

Another public reform that is externally imposed especially in developing countries is e-governance. Saxena (2005:502) argues institutions such as the World Bank imposed e-governance externally. Saxena (2005:501) further maintains that e-governance can pose some risks if "e-government initiatives are not well conceived and implemented, they can waste resources, fail in their promise to deliver useful services, therefore increase public frustration with government". Developing countries are confronted with unique challenges that cannot be addressed by adopting e-governance initiatives. These challenges, among others, include "poor infrastructure, corruption, weak educational systems, and unequal access to technology" (Saxena, 2005:501). This is evident in South Africa where corruption is prevalent and other municipalities cannot afford to provide equal access to technology. The Department of Public Service and Administration has initiated various e-governance strategies to accelerate service

delivery. These include electronic systems which are called e-services. Regardless of these e-services, Maramura and Thakhathi (2016:243) contend that it failed to fulfil e-governance's main objectives and goals. They further argue that this has effect on public service delivery owing to the politics-administration dichotomy. Moreover, Maramura and Thakhathi (2016:244) further state, "e-governance is competing with other priorities, such as housing and health services and where unemployment is high and where the government is abusing public funds. Therefore, e-governance is more than implementing e-governance tools and initiatives but it means planning for capacity building for the public good through relevant legislative framework and policies".

E-governance is not necessarily a bad initiative. However, its implementation seems to be problematic. It appears to be a necessary initiative in countries that have appropriate technology and infrastructure. Heeks (2002:87) argues that e-governance can result to partial or complete failure owing to the challenges experienced in the African continent such as the lack of e-readiness. This failure is worsened in countries where the national infrastructure is problematic. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is still a challenge in developing countries compared to industrialised countries where accessibility is enhanced and inexpensive (Saxena, 2005:502). For example, South Africa is currently experiencing major challenges in implementing e-governance owing to "problems of poverty, inequality, corruption, insecurity, illiteracy, and skills shortages (Mutula & Mostert, 2010:44). These challenges prohibit the general public in utilising e-governance models that are currently implemented. A worse challenge lies with various service departments such as Electricity Supply Commission (ESKOM). This is problematic owing to the deficit in electricity supply in South Africa. This is a clear indication that South Africa is still grappling to produce professionals with the sought after skills (technical and managerial skills) in order to improve ICT. Since these e-government projects are adopted in Africa, they seem to be adopted without ensuring the availability of human skills capacities to "manage, integrate and sustain them" (Mutula & Mostert, 2010:44). Some initiatives yielded positive results such as the South African Revenue Services e-filing system, the Department of Home Affairs Smart Identification Card System for citizens, the National Health Normative Standards Framework

(HNSF) and the Police Crime Administration System. These examples provided in this section indicate that isomorphic mimicry can lead to capability traps in public institutions if not adequately implemented. This shows that African countries can adapt the adopted initiatives to suit the African context.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper has achieved to conceptually answer the question: To what extent is the South African public service experiencing isomorphism? This was achieved by first conceptualising the concept *isomorphism*, which depicts the idea of look-alike institutions. Three forms of isomorphism were identified and discussed in depth: coercive, mimetic and normative isomorphism. These three forms of isomorphism are adopted in various public institutions as attested by the literature review. The reviewed literature indicates that policies from wealthy countries are adopted in African countries. This diffusion becomes more coercive especially if these wealthy countries provide financial aid to the developing countries. This leads to agenda conformity and compliance without addressing the current challenges that are faced by developing countries. Public institutions also experience isomorphic mimicry where they mimic other institutions for agenda conformity purposes. Three examples were provided to indicate the extent of isomorphic mimicry in the public service. First e-government was introduced, there was e-governance and recently mobile-governance is introduced. Sadly, these initiatives flourish in the metropolitan municipalities not necessarily in the municipalities that face difficulties with infrastructure. This isomorphic mimicry is exacerbated by the fact that these initiatives are internationally acclaimed. Developing countries are mostly concerned about their international standing and are often persuaded to adopt models/initiatives that emanate from the West. Therefore, it is recommended that the South African public service needs to first address critical issues such as poverty, inequality, corruption to name a few, before being lured by the initiatives that emanate from wealthy countries.

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The Impact of Racial Diversity of Executive Managers on Financial Performance of South African State-Owned Companies

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Abstract: Globally, companies are increasingly embracing both gender and racial diversity and are beginning to witness the impact of this diversity on performance. Several studies suggest that with increased diversity, companies can gain access to unique networks, information and human capital, which ultimately improves financial performance. In this paper, we investigate whether racial diversity at executive management level bears financial benefits. The study is set in the South African context where, since the advent of democracy in 1994, regulations such as the Employment Equity Act of 1998 require companies to racially diversify their workforce. This study examines data from 21 state-owned companies (SOCs), covering the period of 2010 to 2014. Correlation and regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between the racial composition of executive managers (Black, White, Indian or Coloured) and the companies' financial performance (i.e. profit margin, return on assets and fruitless and wasteful expenditure as a percentage of revenue). The results indicate that there is slow progress made by the South African government on including non-whites in their executive management teams in SOCs. However, no correlation was found between the racial diversity of the management teams and the financial performance of these SOCs. These findings are significant, particularly for South African regulators and policy makers, as they provide justification for increased efforts to racially diversify the South African executive management teams in SOCs. This is important since numerous studies have demonstrated that such diversity is financially beneficial, particularly in the private sector.

Keywords: Financial performance, State-owned companies, Racial diversity, Workforce

1. Introduction

Over the past few decades, the number of women and ethnic minorities has increased in the boardrooms of companies around the world (Hillman, Cannella & Harris, 2002). The justification behind such increases has been to address gender and racial imbalances in the corporate environment. However, apart from simply rectifying inequalities in the boardroom, some companies have begun realising significant increases in workforce productivity and performance. A growing body of literature argues that a diverse workforce, that includes more women and racial minorities, drives economic growth (Burns, Barton & Kirby, 2012). It has also been suggested that with increased diversity, governance is also improved, leading to better financial performance (Carter, D'Souza, Simkins & Simpson, 2010).

Most studies examining the impact of board and management diversity have traditionally focused on developed countries (Shleifer & Vishny, 1997; Vafeas & Theodorou, 1998). It is only recently that a growing number of research publications have emerged on

developing countries (see for instance Abidin, Kamal & Jusoff, 2009; Baek, Kang & Park, 2004; Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006). However, only a handful of studies have investigated this subject in the South African context (Ho & Williams, 2003; Mangena & Chamisa, 2008; Okeahalam, 2004).

Research on the impact of racial diversity is particularly important in a country such as South Africa, which has a long history of racial discrimination. Over the last twenty years, various policies and legislation have been introduced to rectify these inequalities, notably, the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (EEA) and the affirmative action (AA) programmes. These laws were implemented in order to drive transformation in South Africa's corporate environment (including SOCs) and redress the racial imbalances of the past. Consequently, the progress, as well as the impact of these anti-racism laws and policies, has drawn the interest of researchers.

According to Sebola (2009), AA policies simply focused on balancing corporate demographics, however, this often leads to the appointment of poorly

qualified and incompetent employees. Such a problem stems from two perspectives, namely, political nepotism and the lack of suitable candidates from the designated groups. These two problems do not take into account the need for serving the public efficiently and effectively, particularly in the public sector. Bullard (2007:3) states that in principle, there is nothing wrong with AA policies and addressing past inequalities, but it is equally important for these programmes to serve the economic needs of the country and ensure the delivery of efficient public services. He moreover contends that AA programmes are an 'insult' to qualified black employees as it is sometimes perceived that black applicants are unable to compete as equals against white applicants. In this study, we focus on the impact of racial diversity (a component of affirmative action) on the financial performance of all major SOCs. The study examines the implementation of the EEA in SOCs in terms of racial diversity and seeks to determine whether racial diversity has affected the SOCs' financial performance. The article therefore seeks to establish whether there is a business case supporting racial diversity in SOCs.

The next section reviews literature on racial diversity in South Africa's corporate environment, the role and performance of SOCs as well as the link between the racial diversity of management and the financial performance of companies.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Role of State-Owned Companies and their Performance

After the Second World War, many countries worldwide established SOCs. These enterprises were established in order to redress market failures created by the war and to provide essential services such as telecommunications, aviation, nuclear energy and electricity to the public. Since such services were too expensive to be deployed by the private sector, SOCs were established to deliver these services and yield both a financial and social return for the capital invested in them by the government (Heath & Norman, 2004).

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) 2004 comparative report on the corporate governance of SOCs, some of the governments in OECD countries still own a majority of the businesses in essential

sectors such as energy, transport and telecommunications. In developing countries, SOCs play a much more important role as they are also expected to promote economic development and equity (Kaldor, 1980). Balassa (1993) specifies that the role of SOCs is to provide economic and social infrastructure, promote science and technology for development and ensure better distribution of wealth and opportunities for society.

In South Africa during the apartheid era, SOCs were given an economic development mandate. These entities assumed a dominant role in key infrastructure areas such as rail, air and sea transport, telecommunications, water, coal-based synthetic fuels and nuclear energy. The government also viewed these industries as being important for industrialisation, employment creation and economic development. Unfortunately, during this period, there was racial segregation and white South Africans were the only beneficiaries. Thus, post-apartheid, the stance of the South African democratic government was to transform these SOCs (Thabethe, 2010) by employing blacks, women and physically disadvantaged people. McGregor (2014) reveals that today in South Africa, SOCs play a crucial role in providing economic infrastructure. They serve the needs of capital-intensive industry, assist with sustainable job creation, promote Black Economic Empowerment and help governments to implement employment equity by eliminating previous apartheid discrimination practices.

The financial measurement and monitoring of these SOCs is therefore important. According to a 2004 OECD report on SOCs, these enterprises are required to publish their annual financial statements, which are subjected to examination and review by stakeholders. In South Africa, the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) of 1999 was adopted to make financial management in the public sector more efficient. The Act was intended to reduce fraud, corruption and wasteful expenditure. The PFMA established clear lines of accountability and broad frameworks of best practice that managers were required to adopt. Any executive manager underspending or underperforming would be transgressing the Act and would be open to the specified sanctions. Transgressions include unauthorised, irregular, fruitless or wasteful expenditure. Fruitless or wasteful expenditure is expenditure made in vain, which could have been avoided had reasonable care been exercised.

Worldwide, the performance of most SOCs has been disappointing (Kim & Chung, 2007). Over the years, the majority of SOCs has lacked budgetary discipline and governments have found it financially strenuous to keep on injecting capital into these enterprises as there were other competing programmes that needed funding. During the 1980s, the financial burden of these SOCs in most countries had grown so onerous, that it contributed to increasing public deficits, rising interest rates and growing inflation (OECD, 2004). The poor performance of SOCs can be attributed to their structure and governance, which makes them susceptible to weak accountability by management. In the private sector, should an entity underperform, the shareholders withdraw from the business regardless of the social implications (Heath & Norman 2004). In the public sector, however, governments (who are the shareholders) constantly bail out SOCs when these face financial difficulties. Governments very rarely let an SOC become bankrupt. These regular bailouts lead to the management of SOCs not being as financially efficient as management in the private sector (Heath & Norman 2004).

In Ghana, SOCs have been criticised for being overstuffed and inefficient, which resulted in considerable strain on government finances and inflation (Odainkey & Simpson, 2013). South Africa has also had its share of criticism relating to the performance of SOCs. The majority of these SOCs are failing to deliver on a number of key objectives, namely, efficient public service delivery, failure to meet the transformation needs of society, lack of skills transfer and job creation and failure to play a catalyst role in broader industrial development and economic growth (Gumede, 2012).

In South Africa, the majority of SOCs are currently in serious financial distress (McGregor, 2014). McGregor (2014) points to a poor selection system of board of directors, constant turn-over of executive managers as well as inadequate structures and systems as some of the key reasons leading to the failure of these SOCs (McGregor, 2014). It is worth mentioning that these SOC corporate failures are happening following the adoption of EEA and AA programmes (i.e. post 1998).

2.2 Racial Diversity in the South African Corporate Environment

South Africa has had a long history of racial discrimination that was created by the apartheid regime.

Following the advent of democracy in 1994, various pieces of legislation have been introduced to drive transformation in South African companies. In 1998, the EEA was adopted. This Act was intended to end racial, gender and ethnic discrimination in the workplace, giving birth to AA policies and programmes (Tladi, 2001). The main objective of the AA was to correct the misrepresentation of the overall demographics of the South African workplace. These programmes sought to ensure that companies gave preferential treatment to previously disadvantaged racial groups (i.e. Blacks, Indians and Coloureds) as well as women, who were also discriminated against during the apartheid era. The AA policies also required companies to develop the skills of these previously disadvantaged groups, and finally, to promote employment opportunities which were equal for all (Burger & Jafta, 2010; Tladi, 2001).

The 2014-2015 Commission for Employment Equity (Department of Labour, 2015) reported on the employment distribution of the various population groups in terms of their representation at the top management levels of organisations. The representation of white people decreased by 2.6%, dropping from 72.6% in 2012 to 70% in 2014. Black representation increased slightly by 1.3%, rising from 12.3% in 2012 to 13.6% in 2014. The representation of Coloureds remained the same at 4.7%, while the representation of Indians increased by 1.3%, rising from 7.3% in 2012 to 8.6% in 2014. Notwithstanding the fact that there is a steady but slow decline in the representation of whites, their dominance remains as they maintain more than a two-thirds majority in terms of representation at management level in organisations. This is of major concern since more than 80% of South Africans are black.

A 2005 study by von Holdt & Webster revealed that, in South Africa the old racial colour bar that was created by apartheid laws in the working environment remained unchanged. The authors further state that even in rare cases where black people occupy senior positions, they usually earn less, have fewer benefits and less responsibility compared to their white counterparts. Booysen & Nkomo (2006), Selby & Sutherland (2006) and Thomas (2004) support this statement, maintaining that increasingly, black applicants are required to have higher qualifications for jobs once done by less-qualified white people.

From the discussion above, it is evident that there could be barriers in South Africa's corporate

environment that are hindering black employees from progressing in the workplace. Ngambi (2002) and Thomas (2004) identify organisational culture issues such as the exclusionary 'old white boys clubs' as creating barriers which make it challenging to retain black employees and women at management level.

Selby and Sutherland (2006) and Thomas (2004) state that even though South African anti-discrimination legislation is fundamental in addressing unfair workplace discrimination, legislation on its own is not sufficient. It is important to change organisational culture. These researchers are of the view that the implementation of the EEA needs to be supported by comprehensive employment practices that focus on human capital development and promote organisational culture change.

2.3 The Relationship Between Racial Diversity and Financial Performance

Advocates of diversity in corporate boardrooms usually base their arguments on agency, resource dependence and stakeholder theories (Goodstein, Gautam & Boeker, 1994; Carter, Simkins & Simpson, 2003). Firstly, agency theory suggests that both executives and non-executives from diverse backgrounds, rather than homogenous, elite groups with similar socio-economic backgrounds, increase board independence and improve executive monitoring (Van der Walt & Ingley, 2003). Secondly, a diverse board of directors carries with it diverse ideas, experience and business knowledge (Baranchuk & Dybvig, 2009). The diverse composition of boards also leads to increased creativity and innovation due to diversity in cognitive abilities, which can facilitate effective decision-making (Carter *et al.*, 2003). Thirdly, resource dependence theory suggests that companies which embrace diversity in their leadership are better able to attract critical resources, including skills, business contacts, prestige and legitimacy (Goodstein *et al.*, 1994). Fourthly, Rose (2007) argues that companies with a diverse leadership convey a positive signal to potential female and ethnic minorities that they are not excluded from the highest positions in these companies.

Drawing closer to home, Swartz & Firer (2005) investigated JSE listed companies and reported a statistically significant and positive association between the average number of blacks (i.e. Blacks, Indians and Coloureds) and financial performance.

These results were consistent with those of Ntim (2013) who assessed 291 companies listed on the JSE over a five-year period and found a positive and statistically significant relationship between board diversity and the stock market valuation of the firm. Another South African study by Yortt (2009), which examined the top 40 listed companies, revealed that only 32.5% of the directors in the top 40 companies were Black, and only two of these companies employed at least 50% Black executive directors. She also found a positive correlation between ethnic diversity and company performance which was measured in terms of both return on assets (ROA) and return on equity (ROE).

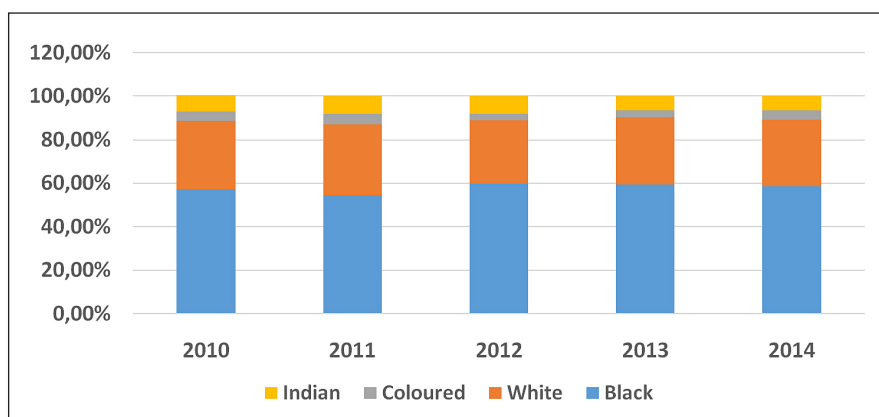
It is evident from the literature reviewed that there are financial benefits that come with the inclusion of Black members on the board of directors and in management positions. However, these studies have only tested JSE listed companies. The 1998 EEA, AA programmes as well as the introduction of the King Report (i.e. King Code of Corporate Governance reports) require companies (particularly JSE listed companies and SOCs) to set targets on the composition of executive and non-executive management in terms of their race and gender. These companies are also required to conduct regular reviews of these targets and to report on them in their annual financial statements. It is also worth noting that the majority of studies on the impact of race on performance have been conducted on JSE listed companies. The current study is unique as it focuses on SOCs and therefore brings additional empirical evidence on the topic of diversity and performance. Furthermore, the study provides insights on how government has implemented its own AA policies in SOCs and the impact of these on performance.

3. Methods and Materials

3.1 Data Collection Process

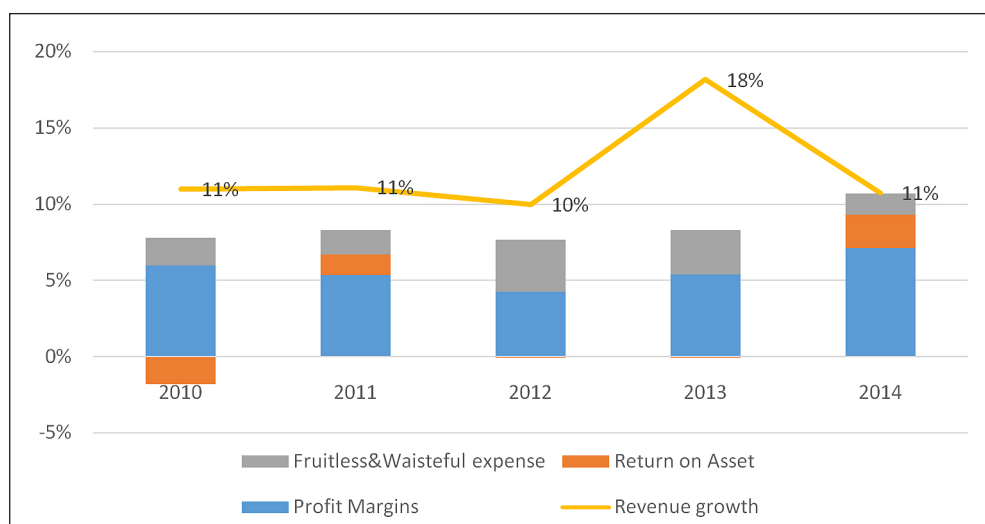
The PFMA requires all SOCs to publish their annual reports. These annual reports include both financial and non-financial information. In this study, all 21 entities that are classified as major public entities according to Schedule 2 of the PFMA were included in the population and sampled. Each entity's annual report was obtained from its website for the five-year review period (2010 to 2014). Calculations of the profit margin, ROA and fruitless and wasteful expenditure as a percentage of revenue were then derived from the financial statements. Information

Figure 1: Analysis of Racial Diversity of SOCs



Source: Author

Figure 2: Analysis of Financial Performance of SOCs



Source: Author

on the racial demographics of the executives was also extracted from the annual reports. In most cases, pictures of the executive management team were also included, which enhanced our investigation on the race of the executives.

Measures

It was important to identify and measure the two variables, namely, racial diversity and financial performance, and to establish the nature of the relationship between these two variables. The independent variable in the study was the race (i.e. Black, White, Indian and Coloured) of the executive management while the dependent variable was financial performance (i.e. profit margin, return on assets (ROA) and fruitless and wasteful expenditure). This study investigated whether the dependent variables (profit margin, ROA, etc.) changed when the management team was more racially diverse.

3.2 Data Analysis

In this study, SPSS was used to determine the association between the diversity of executives' management and the financial performance of the SOCs. First, the study conducted a descriptive analysis of the two variables (i.e. race and financial performance). The results from this descriptive analysis are displayed in graphical format (Figures 1 and 2 above), showing the percentage of Black, Indian, Coloured and White managers over the five-year review period. Figure 1 displays the gradual improvement made by government to racially transform SOCs over the review period. In addition, the same descriptive analysis was conducted on the financial performance measures. The results are displayed Figure 2 that shows how the financial performance of these entities had improved over the five-year period. Finally, correlation and regression

analyses were conducted to demonstrate the specific effects of the independent variables (i.e. executives' race) on the dependent variables (i.e. profit margins, ROA etc.). This analysis revealed how the SOCs' financial performance tended to change or vary with changes in executive managers' racial composition.

4. Results and Discussion

The statistical results of this study demonstrate the racial diversity of executive managers in SOCs and how this racial diversity influences the companies' financial performance. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the racial diversity and the financial performance on the SOCs over the review period, demonstrating the improvement or regression in racial diversity as well as in the financial performance. The figures are followed by Tables 1 to 3 which describe the correlation between racial diversity and financial performance.

4.1 Racial Diversity in SOCs

The statistics in Figure 1 indicate that the majority of executives in SOCs are non-white (approximately 69% in 2014). This translates to 58% Blacks, 7% Indians and 4% Coloureds. The statistics further indicate that there are approximately 31% White executives in these SOCs. The graph also demonstrates an insignificant growth in the racial demographics of the executive management teams over the five-year review period. However, it is worth mentioning that the racial diversity statistics in Figure 1 differ considerably from the current composition of South Africa's racial population. According to the 2014 mid-year statistical information reported by Statistics SA, South Africa's population had a representation of 80% Blacks, 8.8% Coloureds, 8.4% Whites and 2.8% Indians. Therefore, even though the majority of the executives in these SOCs are non-white, their representation is not consistent with the racial demographics of South Africa. The results suggest that the South African government, as the owner of the SOCs, has not effectively implemented the EEA and greater efforts still need to be made to racially transform these SOCs.

4.2 Financial Performance of SOCs

Similarly, a descriptive analysis was conducted on the financial performance of the SOCs. The results showed a total average 16.8% increase in revenue over the five-year review period. This increase

stems from government's implementation of the New Economic Growth Plan (NDP Plan). During this period the South African government was investing funds into SOCs so they could implement the NDP plans. The implementation of the NDP plan resulted in an increase in profit margins as well as an increase in ROA. Also worth mentioning is that during this period, the ratio of fruitless and wasteful expenditure to revenue declined over the review period. This is an indication that during the review period, there was an increase in revenue and the fruitless and wasteful expenditures that was reported was at a minimal level.

4.3 The Relationship Between Racial Diversity and Financial Performance

Both correlation and regression analyses were performed to determine the relationship between the demographic makeup of executives and the financial performance of the SOC. The outcomes of these analyses are summarised in Tables 1 to 3.

The results indicate that all the racial groups had an insignificant relation to profit margin. The analysis between profit margin and Indians showed an insignificant relationship of -0.19. Based on these results it was concluded that the demographic composition of SOC executives had very little impact on profit margin.

Table 2 shows no significant correlation between ROA and SOC executives who are Black, Coloured or Indian. This correlation analysis was followed by a regression analysis. The regression analysis also indicated no correlation between ROA and all racial groups.

Table 3 shows a positive correlation of 0.247 between fruitless and wasteful expenditure and Coloured executives. However, additional analysis was performed and after the third iteration of the Cochrane-Orcutt estimation method, there was no correlation found between fruitless and wasteful expenditure and Coloured executives. When interpreting fruitless and wasteful expenditure as a percentage of revenue, one should bear in mind that during the period under review, revenue was on the increase (due to investments made towards the NDP), which therefore diminished this particular ratio. Furthermore, it should be noted that the sample size in this study is relatively small (21 companies), which may have had an impact on determining of the correlation.

Table 1: Pearson Correlations - Profit Margin vs Racial Demographic Variables

		Black	Coloured	Indian
Pearson Correlation	Profit Margin	-0.02	0.00	-0.19
Sig. (1-tailed)	Profit Margin	0.44	0.50	0.03
N	Profit margin	99.00	99.00	99.00

Source: Author

Table 2: Pearson Correlation - Return on Asset vs Demographic Variables

		Black	Coloured	Indian
Pearson Correlation	Return on Assets	-0.094	0.086	-0.084
Sig. (1-tailed)	Return on Assets	0.177	0.200	0.203
N	Return on Assets	99	99	99

Source: Author

Table 3: Pearson Correlation - Fruitless and Wasteful Expenditure vs Demographic Variables

		Black	Coloured	Indian
Pearson Correlation	Fruitless & Wasteful Expenditure	-0.133	0.247	0.056
Sig. (1-tailed)	Fruitless & Wasteful Expenditure	0.095	0.007	0.292
N	Fruitless & Wasteful Expenditure	99.00	99.00	99.00

Source: Author

Consequently, in most cases, the correlation and regression analyses showed an insignificant or no relationship at all.

The results of this study indicate that there has been limited racial transformation in SOCs at executive level. This is of concern, especially considering the fact that South Africa's government (who is the owner of these SOCs) implemented the EEA two decades ago. The correlation and regression analyses indicate that there is no significant relationship between the racial diversity of management and the financial performance of the SOCs. These results correspond with those of Zahra & Stanton (1988), who conducted a correlation analysis on a sample of American companies, examining the relationship between women and ethnic minorities and found no relationship between the percentage of females and ethnic minorities on the board of directors and ROA and profit margin.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The results from the study point to a clear need for more rigorous regulatory enforcement in the area of transformation such as a legislative quota similar to that applied in Sweden, where companies are obliged to have a certain percentage of women

in their top corporate positions (Adams & Ferreira, 2009). In the South African context, quotas would be based on the inclusion of non-white employees. It is also important to mention that the South African government, as the author of the EEA, should take the lead when it comes to transformation. It should ensure that government-owned companies, namely, SOCs, fairly represent the racial demographics of the country. If the South African government were to lead by example, the private sector would follow in its transformation of the South African workplace. Transformation in South Africa is not only intended to correct the inequality of former apartheid laws; it has been proven that transformation in South African JSE listed companies can also be financially beneficial.

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Challenges Faced by Women Ward Councillors in South Africa

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Abstract: The paper aims to identify barriers and challenges faced by women ward councillors in South Africa and how these challenges are addressed when reported. Considering the political history of South Africa, the paper explores whether women ward councillors have ever been discriminated against based on race and gender while executing their duties. Women in politics face challenges when they have to be elected into positions especially at the local government level. Ward councillors are elected by local communities to represent their respective wards, to be accountable to the community that elected them and not their interests. Women, irrespective of race had to contest elections equally with men at the local government level after 1994 in South Africa. South Africa has been recognised worldwide for its advanced policy frameworks which have enhanced the condition and representation of women. However, statistics show that the number of women councillors has been fluctuating over the years. Most women are in the municipal councils as Proportional Representative (PR) councillors, and are struggling to attract more women into politics. The study is exploratory and qualitative in nature. It focuses on ward and PR councillors, males and females from six local municipalities of the KwaZulu-Natal (78 out of 341) and Eastern Cape (26 out of 54) Provinces who were interviewed using an interview guide, face-to-face and telephone techniques. The findings of the study were analysed using content analysis and themes were generated from the interview data. The study revealed that although women are not discriminated against within the councils, race and gender are a challenge. Furthermore, there are no mechanisms to report or to ensure that discrimination issues are properly addressed. Politics in general, political parties, lack of municipal support, limited resources and community projects not completed, are some of the challenges identified in this study.

Keywords: Gender, Local politics, Ward councillors, Participation, Representation

1. Introduction

Women in politics face challenges when elected into positions, particularly at the local government level. Both developed and developing countries have been struggling with the low number of women due to government or political party's strategy failures. Women can be discriminated against by their community, party leaders and family members when they contest the elections. Furthermore, there is lack of information on the challenges faced by those already participating as ward councillors in different municipalities, especially in developing countries. The history of South Africa portrays women, especially Black women, as the most marginalised group in all spheres of life. Women are severely affected by the failure of local government in terms of providing good services. Beall (2004) affirms that the woman of the house is most affected when municipalities terminate services because of unpaid bills. Ward councillors are elected by local communities to represent their respective wards, to be accountable to the community that elected them. However, they face different challenges while attempting to execute

their duties. Statistics shows that the number of women councillors has been fluctuating since 1996. Most women are in the municipal councils as Proportional Representative (PR) councillors and are struggling to attract more women into politics. The paper aims to identify barriers and challenges faced by women ward councillors in South Africa and how these challenges are addressed when reported. It also explores whether women ward councillors have ever been discriminated against based on race and gender while executing their duties. The paper identifies how discrimination challenges experienced by women ward councillors are reported and addressed by the municipal council. The findings will be useful to government, municipalities, communities, gender advocates and other policy makers when planning for the future of women's participation and representation in politics at local level.

2. History of Gender Representation in South Africa

Historically, women were excluded from politics based on gender, race and class. South Africa's

apartheid system created an urban and rural landscape of race-based inequality that was destined to prevail long after formal apartheid was dismantled (Kusambizi-Kiini, 2018). The segregation policies divided Whites from Blacks, Indians and Coloured people in South Africa. Black people were further divided according to their ethnic groups with minimal infrastructure and basic services. Lack of access to economic, education and health resources forced especially African women to stay in rural areas (Chagunda, 2004). However, South African women of all colours and races were at the forefront in their communities, fighting for emancipation and their democratic rights (Imbokodo, 2006).

After the first non-racial democratic elections in 1994, most women activists moved from local to central level and left a vacuum without grooming any other women in community work or politics. The presence of women in politics now depends on the political parties. Lovenduski (1993) identifies three strategies that can be employed to increase women's representation in political parties. Firstly, when the leadership of the political parties take women's participation in politics seriously and ensure that they are represented at all levels. Secondly, they groom women candidates for representation and participation as well as providing resources to support them. Lastly, they use the quota system to allow women to influence decisions that are taken in different structures. It must be noted that the South African government has no position on the issue of a quota system, but created institutions to address gender issues. According to SALGA Women's Commission (2017), statistics indicate that there has been a fluctuation on the number of women ward councillors after 1994. There was an increase from 11 (1995); to 17 (2000); and 37 (2006). There was a decline in the number of women ward councillors from 33 in 2011 to 32 in 2016. Hence, it is crucial to identify barriers and challenges faced by women already in the council.

3. Current Political Situation Affecting Women in South Africa

Ramzanolgu (1987) mentioned some practices of violence against women such as abuses, stares, scorns, intimidations, verbal abuse, and dirty jokes as mechanisms to show women where they belong. In South Africa, between 2004 and 2017, there have been 1377 municipal service delivery protests attributed to local government not fulfilling its mandate (Kusambizi-Kiingi, 2018). Communities display their anger by

destroying and burning buildings as well as attacking councillors in their homes (Hamhill, 2015). According to Mkhize (2018) beyond governance challenges, some of the municipalities are beset by a high level of political infighting and instability. In KwaZulu-Natal alone, 80 councillors including women have been killed since 2004 (Harper, 2019). While the family unfriendly and male-dominated culture of political institutions may discourage women from pursuing long-standing careers (Dolan, 2010), women are also less frequently reselected by party gatekeepers than men (O'Neill & Stewart, 2009). Women also experience significant challenges posed by family, community and other political leaders when they indicate interest in joining politics (Martin, 1993).

4. Theoretical Overview of the Functions of Municipalities and Councillors

4.1 The Constitution and Municipalities

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Constitution), Bill of Rights Chapter 2(9) (1) to (9) (5) has a clause on equality which reveals a guarantee to promote gender equality and ensure that women enjoy equal rights. Chapter 7 of the Constitution creates a framework for local municipalities where each municipality is divided into wards and each ward is represented by a ward councillor. The Constitution's section 152(1)(a) states that the councillors must be sensitive to public opinion. Furthermore, section 153(1)(e) makes provision for the councillor to react to the community needs.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998) states that municipalities should ensure that there are representatives from different groups who were previously councillors and who can contest the elections. The emphasis is also on accountability that strengthens the role of councillors for the benefit of all community groups including women. It also addresses the issue with regard to the delegation of roles and powers to committees within the municipal council to ensure participation in the council's decision-making processes. Furthermore, ward councillors serve as a link between the ward community and the rest of the government for proper consultation with local communities with respect to the planning and implementation of provincial and national programmes impacting on the ward.

Consequently, a number of legislation such as Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998;

and Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 were promulgated. Section 19(2)© and 3 of the Municipal Structures Act, directs municipalities towards a new culture of governance that complements representative democracy through participation. Section 21 states that municipal councillors are elected public representatives of their constituents and are mandated to make decisions on behalf of their constituencies. According to this section of the constitution, one can be elected as a councillor irrespective of race, gender or level of education, whereas, Section 22 provides that an equal number of councillors represent the various political parties proportionally in accordance with the percentage of votes attained by that party. The participatory form of democracy is evident in the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) where a community consists not only of the structures, functions and administrators of the municipality but also the communities, residents and ratepayers of the municipality (Cameron, 2001).

4.2 The Role of Municipal Councils and the Speaker

The municipal council has a significant role in the public policy process (Memeti, 2016). Firstly, municipal councils pass by-laws which include local laws and regulations about any of the functions they are responsible for and are subject to the Constitution. Secondly, they approve budgets and development plans as every year a municipal budget must be passed that sets down how money will be raised and spent; and impose rates and other taxes (PLM, 2015). In terms of Schedule 5 of the Constitution, the council is responsible for the roads, public transport, street trading, water and electricity. It is crucial for the council to be kept informed of the business of the municipality by receiving regular reports on the activities of the administration (Potgieter, 2019). A Speaker is the chairperson of a municipal council in terms of section 36 of the Municipal Structures Act (1998). According to section 37, the Speaker should preside at council meetings; ensure compliance in the council and its meetings with the Code of Conduct, and ensure the necessary training for councillors, provide support and assistance.

The Speaker plays a role in monitoring the degree to which councillors are open and accountable towards the community (SALGA, 2011). Complaints lodged against councillors by community members must

be dealt with by the Speaker according to item 14(i) (b) of the Code. Councillors as public representative must be given administrative support in order to exercise their duties. In relation to Ward Committees, the Speaker is tasked to oversee the election of ward committee members; ensure that ward committees meet regularly; ensure that ward councillors report back to the council on their ward committee meetings; and coordinate the assignment of PR councillors to ward committees, where possible.

4.3 The Role of Municipal Councillors

The duties of councillors are found in the Municipal Systems Act, section 54 which has the code of conduct for councillors and staff members. The responsibilities of municipal councillors according to SALGA (2011:61) are that they must:

- act as representatives of the community they serve;
- provide leadership in councils;
- act as custodians and guardians of public finance;
- promote the cooperative governance ethos;
- provide effective oversight over the municipal executive and council officials;
- be accountable to local communities and report back to their constituencies on council matters;
- be responsive to the communities they serve.

Councillors are responsible and involved in the municipal decision making process:

- In accordance with the Standing Rules of Order;
- Through their party caucuses;
- In ward committees and ward activities; in development forums and community based organisations;
- Through community information/liaison exercises;
- Through the various committees of Council of which they are members; and
- In regard to any municipal function designated to them by the Executive Mayor (Potgieter, 2019: 12).

As ward councillors often receive complaints from the public, they are in a good position to advise the public on how to resolve their issues (IOB, South Africa, 2019). However, when a councillor breaches the code, community members may report them for investigation and disciplinary action (Corruption Watch, 2016).

4.4 The Duties of Ward Councillors and Ward Committees

In terms of Section 17 of the Municipal Systems Act, the roles of ward councillors is to establish ward committees, chair and report progress on ward activities. A ward committee may make recommendations on any matter affecting its ward to or through the ward councillor (Municipal Structures Act, 1998). According to the SALGA (2011), ward committees provide advice to ward councillors on policy matters affecting wards; identify needs and challenges that wards face; receive complaints from residents about municipal service delivery; and communicate information to wards on budgets, IDP's and service delivery options. Ward councillors and committees must know their communities and the people they represent (PLM, 2015).

5. Empirical Studies on Municipalities and Councillors

There are relevant studies which can shed more light concerning the challenges at local level. In a study conducted by Allen (2012:712), women have 'consistently been found to be more likely to drop out after just one term as a councillor'. In the 2012-2013 survey, the ICMA (2014) found that 60 percent of women reported "inappropriate or disrespectful" comments from a commissioner or council member (Holman, 2017:290). Marumo (2014) conducted a study on challenges faced by female councillors in Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality and found that the support structures and systems exist solely on paper as there are no proper assessments to check if it is effective and relevant. Other challenges were low levels of education, lack of communication skills which made it difficult for women to campaign for strategic decision-making positions. Kusambizi-Kiingi (2018) argued that without definite clear systems and credible structures, democracy is almost non-existent for most citizens in South Africa.

Councillors should not be struggling on their own as municipalities have an option of establishing ward

committees that can communicate the needs, aspirations and potential challenges of communities. A study conducted by Seithloho (2016) on ward committee challenges in Tlokwe City Council found lack of finances and infrastructure, lack of knowledge of local government legislation and regulations, absence of continued training and empowerment and political interference from committee members which affects the functioning of the committee.

Taaibosch and van Niekerk (2017) identified some challenges in their study on municipal councillors' specific competencies and skills in order to successfully execute their mandate in the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality. On the part of councillors, challenges are high turnover rate and excessive workload that hinders them from meeting the requirements of their positions, whereas, municipalities performance is affected by shortage and availability of skills of councillors to fulfil their functions effectively. In addition, they mentioned that, with the introduction of new council structures and new mandate for municipalities, specific functions of councillors are not comprehensively dealt with in legislation. Furthermore, they recommended that training on national, provincial, municipal legislation and policies should be provided including budgeting and financial management. Training should also be on the code, reporting and report writing skills as well as induction training.

6. Methods and Materials

The study adopted an exploratory research design and is qualitative in nature. It focuses on six local municipalities of the two provinces in the Republic of South Africa, namely, KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) and the Eastern Cape (EC). The provincial estimates showed that KZN has the second largest population, with 10.8 million (21.4%) people, after Gauteng with, 11.3 million (22.4%) people. The EC is in the third place with 14 per cent (South African Government Information, 2017). In KZN, four local municipalities under UMgungundlovu District were involved namely, uMsunduzi, uMngeni, uMshwati and uMkham-bathini Local Municipalities. Ethekwini Metropolitan Municipality, the only metro in KZN, which has 103 wards, was also involved in the study. The EC Province is situated in the eastern part of South Africa and the study focused on Mzimvubu Local Municipality under Alfred Nzo District Municipality. In KwaZulu-Natal 78 out of 341 councillors were interviewed, in the Eastern Cape, 26 out of 54 councillors took part from the only municipality that was targeted. There were

Table 1: Discriminated Against Based on Race and Gender

Themes	Frequency of Responses
No, never experienced any discriminated	56
Discriminated against based on gender	21
Discriminated against based on race	18
Discriminated against based on other grounds such marital status, language and social status	9

Source: Author

twenty-three (23) women ward councilors; thirty-seven (37) male ward councilors, thirty (30) women PR councilors and fourteen (14) male PR councilors that participated in the study.

In-depth semi-structured interviews were adopted to allow the respondents flexibility when responding to questions. Face-to-face interviews were conducted and the telephone was used due to the geographic dispersion of the respondents, especially from the EC. Data was collected using secondary information such as annual municipal reports, national policies and local government prescripts and other publications. Content analysis was used and themes were induced from the interview data. Data was presented in the form of tables and percentages. The gatekeeper's letter was obtained from all targeted municipalities and ethical clearance approval from University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) was granted before data collection. The issue of confidentiality was communicated to all respondents. The study was limited to ward and PR councilors.

7. Results and Discussion

The findings were analysed and presented in the form of tables which list the themes and the frequency of the responses. Anecdotes were also presented to describe the respondents exact response where there are no tables. In order to identify challenges experienced by ward councilors, four questions were asked. The focus was also on establishing whether or not there were mechanisms available to address such barriers and challenges. It must be noted that the researcher decided to address this question not only for women councilors but for all respondents to share their experiences.

7.1 Discrimination Based on Race and Gender

Firstly, respondents were requested to state whether they ever felt discriminated against based on race or gender while executing their duties.

The research findings in Table 1 show that the majority of the respondents (n=56) 54%, never experienced any kind of discrimination when executing their duties. Respondent 59 indicated that his *"ward covers Indians and White communities, our problems are not the same but have never experienced any discrimination"*. This response points to significant progress as the new constitution emphasises equality. Most councilors are able to focus on representing their communities and make decisions on their behalf in terms of section 21 of the Municipal Structures Act (1998). Nonetheless, 20% (n=21) of the respondents reported that they had been discriminated against based on gender while executing their duties. Respondent 13 mentioned that if there is a community meeting *"they say, that girl is coming and do not recognize me as a councillor"*. It must be noted that respondents who indicated that they had been discriminated against based on gender, were women ward councilors. It was not only African women, but women of all races in the council that experienced some kind of discrimination within and outside the council. This is in line with a study (Holman, 2017) which revealed that 60 percent of women reported 'inappropriate and disrespectful' comments from a council member. Hence, women are likely to drop out after just one term as councilors (Allen, 2012).

Only 17% (n=18) of the respondents reported that they had been discriminated against based on their race. Respondent 88 said *"ninety percent Indian community in my ward...sometimes they remind me that I am Black and do not have skills to perform"*. Race is still a very sensitive subject in South Africa considering its political history. Both Black men and women of all races began to work together for the very first time at local government after 1994 without any experience. Some respondents reported that they had been discriminated against based on grounds such as marital status, language, political party and social status (n=9) at 9%. Respondent 41 commented *"I do not speak isiZulu and I feel excluded sometimes"*. This response contravenes the Municipal Structures Act (1998) as

Table 2: Barriers and Challenges of Councillors

Themes	Frequency of Responses
Politics and political parties	25
The role of municipalities and councillors	14
Lack of municipal council support	12
Lack of resources like budget	12
Community projects not completed	10
Family issues	7
Threats from community members	7
Age and gender	5
Lack of support for women programmes	4
Traditional authority versus municipal council	3
No barrier or challenges	5

Source: Author

there are no minimum requirements for councillors. The primary role is to represent the interest of the people in that ward, irrespective of race, gender, language, education level, social or marital status.

7.2 How Discrimination was Reported and Addressed

The researcher had to make a follow up where respondents indicated that they did experience some kind of discrimination while executing their duties and had to indicate how they reported or addressed the issue of discrimination at local government level. Forty-four percent (n=21) of the respondents explained that there were no mechanisms to report or to make sure the issue is properly addressed. Respondent 3 pointed out that *"If undermined because of your skin colour, it is a mental gymnastics... you need to prove your capabilities"*. Thirty-seven percent (n=18) of the respondents indicated that they had to report the issue to another structure for it to be resolved. Respondent 24 said *"I just spoke to one official from the municipality to come and speak to those families"*. Nineteen percent (n=9) of the respondents reported that they never reported the issue. Respondent 63 said *"I cannot report something that has hurt me...I deal with it myself...I do address individuals after the meeting"*.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998), states that municipalities should ensure that there are representatives from different groups which were previously marginalised to contest the elections. Ward councillors serve as a link between the ward community and the rest of government for proper

consultation. The question is who should be protecting municipal councillors when faced with these challenges. Is it the ward committee members or the Speaker of the council? Should they like any other citizen, approach the Equality Court for protection against discrimination? The concern is that councillors would prefer not do anything when faced with challenges. It further highlights that there is a lack of structures and support for councillors. However, one of the duties of the Speaker is to ensure the necessary training for councillors, provide support and assistance. The Speaker should not act only when there are complaints from community members against councillors in terms of Item 14(i)(b). This is in line with Maruno's study (2014) that found that the support structures and systems exist solely on paper.

7.3 Barriers and Challenges of Councillors

Respondents were asked about barriers and challenges that they normally face as councillors when executing their duties (see Table 2 above). Twenty-five respondents (24%) were concerned about the way politics and political parties affect them when performing their duties.

Respondent 67 said *"my predecessor was male and he spoke badly about me"*. This response indicates that people may come from the same political party but not support each other. Currently, there is high political infighting and instability as 80 councillors have been killed, including women. The role of the municipalities and councillors at 13% (n=14) was another reason mentioned. Respondent 39 remarked that *"to be a councillor you do not go to any special school;*

it is difficult". The response shows that with the new council structures and mandate for municipalities, training of councillors is crucial in order to understand their role and that of municipalities. The respondents added lack of municipal council support at 11% (n=12) as another barrier. Respondent 19 also stated that *"service delivery in the municipality is mixed with politics, which is why we have service delivery protests, they match against you, smash your car"*. Councillors should not be struggling on their own when there is a Speaker and ward committees which make recommendations on matters affecting its ward in terms of the Municipal Structures Act (1998). The Speaker should ensure that councillors are provided with administrative support to execute their duties. One respondent mentioned that sometimes support is withheld because the councillors are affiliated to a ruling party. Community members are not aware of internal politics within the council. According to Hamhill (2015), community members display anger by attacking councillors in their homes.

Lack of resources like budget at 11% (n=12) has been another challenge. Respondent 13 said *"budget constraint is a challenge...a financial year would end without a single project completed for the community"*. Ten respondents (10%) indicated that there are community projects not completed which is a challenge for them. The challenge can be with the municipality and or the decisions made by the council. Taaibosch and van Niekerk (2017) recommended training on municipal legislation and policies including budgeting and reporting skills. This is crucial for councillors and ward committees to be realistic and communicate information to wards on budget, IDP's and service delivery options. Other challenges are family issues at 7% (n=7) and threats from community members at 7% (n=7). These challenges have been discussed above as women are marginalised within their families and by community members, especially Black women. Although not that significant, it is also important to note other reasons mentioned by respondents such as age and gender at 5% (n=5) traditional authority versus municipal council at 3% (n=3); and lack of support for women's programmes at 4% (n=4). Very few respondents reported that there were no barriers at 5% (n=5).

7.4 Overcoming Barriers and Challenges

The researcher explores how respondents overcame barriers and challenges in their role as councillors at local government level. It must be stated that a large

number of the respondents reported that they have never done anything (n=22) and very few are still dealing with the challenges (n=3). Respondent 15 mentioned *"I do not say anything and I ignore it completely"*. Section 153(1)(e) of the constitution provides that councillors should respond to the community needs. But who is taking care of councillor's needs? This response shows that there is no support for municipal councillors. Fifteen respondents indicated that they hold meetings in order to address the challenges. Whereas, ten respondents mentioned that they had to report to higher structures for issues to be resolved. It must be noted that structures included the women's wing of a political party, business people and the police which are independent of the municipality council. Twelve respondents indicated that education especially political education, writing reports and inviting relevant officials to come to meetings assisted them. Twelve respondents mentioned that they received support from senior authorities to deal with issues properly. Respondent 8 said *"the former chairperson is in the BEC, has a lot of influence and political knowledge"*. Eight receive support from family members such as children, parents and partners. Six respondents mentioned that they had to draw up a plan. One can notice that councillors have to network and receive family for support in order to resolve issues. None of the councillors mentioned the Speaker of the council or ward committee members as advisors on matters affecting their wards. Seithlo's study (2016) maintains that ward committees themselves have challenges such as lack of finances and infrastructure, lack of knowledge of local government legislation and regulations as well as political interference.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

Evidence in the study indicates that, in general, women councillors never felt discriminated against while executing their duties. Both men and women ward and PR councillors have been able to work with diverse people of South Africa. It must be noted that those who experienced discrimination based on gender were women of all races. Race is still a largely discussed issue even after 25 years of democracy in South Africa. The study found that there were no mechanisms to report discrimination or to ensure that issues are properly addressed and resolved by the council. This is a challenge for our democracy as municipal councillors including women need to be protected. It is difficult for councillors to focus on community needs, yet they remain vulnerable and their needs are neglected.

With regard to barriers and challenges that both ward and PR councillors have faced, the study found politics and political parties; the role of municipalities and councillors; lack of municipal support; community projects not completed; family issues; lack of resources like budget; threats from community members; age and gender; traditional authority versus municipal council; and lack of support for women's programmes. The study revealed that councillors overcome these barriers and challenges by holding meetings; drawing up a plan; reporting to higher structures or senior officials; relying on family support and educating people politically. None of the councillors mentioned the Speaker or ward committees providing support when executing their duties. One can conclude that there is something missing in the municipal policies or legislation, not only in relation to specific functions of councillors but also to their protection in the field. These challenges will remain a barrier for women ward councillors to work effectively both in the council and in their ward.

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Local Government Service Delivery Expectations and Prospects at the Collins Chabane Local Municipality, Limpopo Province

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Abstract: The Collins Chabane Local Municipality (CCLM) was established in 2016. This was after massive disruptive protests by community members predominantly from Malamulele area demanding re-demarcation and to be moved from the Thulamela Local Municipality into the new municipality (previously known as LIM345). Central to the demand of the 'new' municipality was the fact that the Thulamela Local Municipality was according to the residents failing to extend the delivery of services to the populace of the Malamulele constituents. This paper seeks to probe the expectations and prospects in relation to service delivery by the 'new' municipality. This is done through a quantitative survey questionnaire. The paper argues that inasmuch as the contention for the creation of the Collins Chabane Local Municipality was the failure of the Thulamela Local Municipality to deliver services, there is a huge expectation on the CCLM to deliver services to its constituent while also seeking to redress the 'service delivery imbalances' as claimed by the residents. The paper concludes by proposing measures on how the municipality must meet the expectations of their communities within its jurisdiction.

Keywords: Demarcation, Local government, Municipality, Service delivery

1. Introduction

The Collins Chabane Local Municipality (CCLM) was established in 2016 as a result of the incorporation of the portions of the Thulamela Local Municipality (TLM) and the Makhado Local Municipality (MLM). The CCLM is a category B municipality situated within the Vhembe District Municipality (VDM) in Limpopo Province. The Municipality is one of the four local municipalities in the district and make up 20% of its geographical area. Disruptive protests by 'angry' residents mainly from the Malamulele area launched a campaign demanding a 'new' municipality. This subsequently resulted in the Municipal Demarcation Board (MDB) deciding to establish the CCLM. The resident's matter of contention was that the TLM, which they initially fell under, deprived them of goods and services and therefore demanded their own municipality. However, antagonists argued that the demand for the 'new' municipality was solely based on tribalism rather than service delivery. They argued that the demand of the 'new' municipality was fuelled by the fact that the majority of the populace in the TLM are Venda speaking while residents of Malamulele are Tsonga speaking. Since the establishment of the CCLM, residents of the Malamulele area have huge expectations from their municipality in relation to

service delivery which will be contrary from the 'imbalances and injustices' imposed by the TLM as claimed. This article is empirical in execution and relied on a survey questionnaire to collect primary data pertaining to service delivery expectations and prospects by the CCLM residents. The article therefore provides a background on the formation of local government in South Africa, the legislative and policy framework governing local government and further interrogates the phenomenon of municipal demarcation. The article also outlines the research design and further presents analysis of data collected from the residents of the Malamulele area.

2. Background of the Formation of Local Government in South Africa

According to Du Toit and van Der Waldt (1999:246), 'local government is a product and process of urbanisation'. Sequentially, informal settlements develop into townships, towns and cities which ultimately become urban areas (Thornhill & Cloete, 2014:2). These urban areas transform into what in South Africa is commonly referred to as metropolitan areas. Examples of such metropolitans are amongst others; City of Cape Town, City of Joburg, City of Tshwane, Ekurhuleni, Nelson Mandela Bay and Mangaung. Metropolitans in South Africa are

one category of municipalities. As such municipalities are categorised into A, B and C. A municipality refers to a political portion established in terms of sections 151 and 152 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), and has control of local matters under its jurisdiction. According to Thornhill and Cloete (2014:3), the word municipality emanates from Latin *municipalis* which means a city with some self-governing authority.

According to Craythorne (2006), between 1984 and 1993, intensive negotiations by the Local Government Negotiation Forum (LGNF) and the Kempton Park Negotiations (KPN) took place between the National Party (NP), African National Congress (ANC), Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) and the South African Communist Party (SACP). These negotiations culminated to the enactment of the Local Government Transition Act (209 of 1993). The Act provided for amongst others; the establishment of local and metropolitan negotiating forums, powers of Members of Executive Committees (MECs) responsible for local government, local government elections and the establishment of transitional council.

Once the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) came into effect in 1997, section 151 of such Constitution recognised the status of municipalities, section 155 provided for the establishment of municipalities, section 156 gave powers and clarified functions of municipalities while section 157 provided for the composition and election of municipal councils. Some of the matters that local government (i.e. municipalities) exercises power on include matters relating to air pollution, child care facilities, electricity and gas reticulation, local tourism in terms of Part B Schedule 4 of the Constitution and cemeteries, funeral parlours, billboards, beaches, markets, traffic and parking etc. in terms of Part B of Schedule 5 of the Constitution. Subsequently, important pieces of legislation such as the Organised Local Government Act (52 of 1997), Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act (27 of 1998), Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998), Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) and the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act (56 of 2003) were enacted for ensuring proper functioning, sound management and good governance in local government. To date, municipalities across South Africa have been established, some merged and others abolished. The sphere of local government remains crucial as municipalities are institutions

closer to the constituents for the purposes of ensuring service delivery.

3. Legislative and Policy Framework Governing Local Government Service Delivery

There are several legislative and policy frameworks guiding local government service delivery in South African municipalities (Pretorius & Schurink, 2007; Phago, 2009; Madzivhandila & Asha, 2012). Amongst such frameworks are the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, the White Paper on Local Government of 1998, the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003, the Division of Revenue Act 2 of 2013, the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995, and the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act 23 of 2009.

3.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996

The South African Constitution (1996) is the supreme law of the Republic; law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled. Section 152 of the Constitution, 1996 outlines the objectives that municipalities were established to fulfil. Among those objectives; the municipality must promote social and economic development. This can be achieved by ensuring that municipalities meet the socio-economic need of municipal communities by providing them with goods and services. Section 153 encompasses the developmental duties of a municipality whereby municipalities must structure and manage its administration, budgeting, and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote social and economic development of the community. Local government must promote a safe and healthy environment and encourage community participation on matters of local government. It should ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner and promote a safe and healthy environment.

3.2 White Paper on Local Government of 1998

The White Paper on Local Government of 1998 views the delivery of services to municipal communities as a way of achieving developmental local government. Local government is the sphere of

government that interacts closest with communities. Therefore, municipalities are responsible for the services and infrastructure that are so essential to our people's well-being, and it is tasked with ensuring growth and development of communities in a manner that enhances community participation and accountability (Beall, 2004; Barichiev *et al.*, 2005; Steytler, 2005). This White Paper is unique, as it does not deal with a sectoral policy, but with an entire sphere of local government. It can almost be regarded as a "mini-Constitution" for local government, as it one way or the other affects all South Africans. The second section of the White Paper, deals with issues of Developmental Local Government, puts forward a vision of a developmental local government, which centres on working with local communities to find sustainable ways to meet their needs and improve the quality of their lives. It articulates the aspirations of the 1996 Constitution in that it advocates for the provision of basic needs of communities, promote the socio-economic development of the community, and partake in national and provincial developmental programmes (Phago & Malan, 2004). The developmental role of a municipality is an unavoidable function in which every existing municipality must engage itself, to adhere to its ultimate service delivery responsibility to communities.

3.3 Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998

The Local government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 as amended by Municipal Structures Amendment Act 33 of 2000; Municipal Structures Amendment Act 20 of 2002 and Local Government: Municipal Structures Amendment Act 1 of 2003 was promulgated to among other purposes; provide for the establishment of municipalities in accordance with the requirements relating to categories and types of municipality and provide for an appropriate division of functions and powers between categories of municipalities. The Act also aims to regulate the internal systems, structures and office-bearers of municipalities. Section 30 (5) of the Act requires the executive committee of a municipality to submit a report and make recommendations on the approval of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) for the municipality, and any amendment to that plan. Section 44 (2) of the Act states that the executive committee must make recommendations on the municipal council's strategies, programmes and services to address priority needs of communities.

3.4 Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 32 of 2000

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act, 2000 was promulgated to, among other purposes provide to core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of local communities, and ensure universal access to essential services that are affordable to all. The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 is the principal piece of legislation that regulates the service delivery. It requires the municipality to assume developmentally oriented planning in ensuring that it endeavours to achieve the objects of local government enshrined in sections 152 and 153 of the Constitution of 1996. Section 25(1) requires the Municipal Council, within a prescribed period after the start of its elected term, to adopt a single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality.

3.5 Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, 56 of 2003

The Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 was promulgated to secure sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of municipalities and other institutions in the local sphere of government and to establish treasury norms and standards for the local sphere of government. The Act provides a mandatory provision that relate to financial and performance management. The Act is the principal legislation that guides financial affairs at a local level of government. Section 2 of the Act stipulates that the object is to secure sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of the local government institutions. If municipalities are successful in ensuring effective implementation of the provisions of this Act, services as contained in the IDP are implemented for the benefit of the municipal citizenry. Section 17(3)(b) of the Act states that when an annual budget is tabled, it must be accompanied by measurable performance objectives for revenue from each source and for each vote in the budget taking into account the municipality's deliverable objectives.

4. Conceptualising Service Delivery Expectations

Although this paper is premised on the field of public policy and public administration practice,

the concept of service delivery expectations is private sector oriented. Bebko (2000) acknowledges the difficulty associated with defining customer satisfaction concisely and meaningfully. However, he defines service delivery expectations as beliefs about services delivered that serves as standards of judgment against actual performance or delivery. The reason could be that societies are diverse and complex, therefore meaning expectations and service delivery prospects differs. According to Ho and Zengh (2003), customers are not only satisfied by quality but also the shorter delivery times which services are expected. With this being said, the delivery of quality services to communities necessitates that public institutions beware of the expectations from customers they service. Central to this, Ipsos (2014) alludes that the following questions can serve as a guideline:

- What type of expectation standards do communities have on services?
- What factors informs the formation of these expectations?
- What role do these factors play in the change of expectations?
- How can institutions exceed service expectations?

Public institutions can use these questions as guidelines as a framework to attempt and meet the service delivery needs of communities. Although, this is not a model that can be used as a catalyst, it can go a long way in addressing service delivery challenges particularly in South African municipalities. This paper attempts to use the questions in the data analysis and interpretation and see how the Collins Chabane Local Municipality can address the expectations and prospects in the delivery of services to its municipal community.

5. Politics of Municipal Demarcation

The creation of LIM 345 (Collins Chabane Local Municipality) was as a result of massive disruptive protests by Malamulele residents demanding to be removed from the TLM. Consequently, new boundary determinations were published in 2016 creating the CCLM which comprised of certain wards from Thulamela and Makhado (LIM 344 and 343) respectively. The Municipal Demarcation Board (MDB) delimits wards particularly for the purposes

of elections and capacity assessment. Capacity assessment can be viewed as a process preceding the creation of a new municipality through analysing the municipality's ability to collect own revenue and sustainable service delivery (Municipal Demarcation Board, online). This is so because according to Chauke, Sebola and Mathebula (2017), capacity challenges in South African municipalities are related to their ability or inability to efficiently collect own revenue rather than solely relying on equitable shares from national government. Capacity assessment is a means of testing adequacy, rules, knowledge for the supply of infrastructural services for the municipal community.

The MDB draws its mandate to demarcate and re-demarcate municipal boundaries from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (1998) and the Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act (1998) being the principal piece of legislation governing issues related to municipal demarcation. The Act was promulgated with its main objectives being to establish a criterion to be used in the determination of municipal boundaries. This objective is consistent with the provisions enshrined in section 155(3)(b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). One of the key requirements of the Act is that when the Board is engaging in determination or re-determination of municipal boundaries such decisions be published in the Government Gazette. This is so because in most disputed MDB's decisions are that members of the public affected by decisions of the Board are not consulted. Furthermore, Government Gazettes have not been made available for comment hence giving rise to issues of transparency in the process. The Act requires the Board to take into consideration its objectives and factors to be taken into account in the determination and re-determination of boundaries which are; public and stakeholder participation and conducting formal investigations in relation to determination. It was argued that the residents of Vuwani were ignored in the re-determination that led to the creation of the Collins Chabane Local Municipality.

5.1 Case Study of Vuwani and Malamulele

It was in the wake of August 2016 when the Municipal Demarcation Board announced the establishment of a 'new municipality' (LIM 345) that would include Malamulele, Masia, Mashau, Masakona, Tshino, Davhana, Khakhanwa, Mulenzhe, Tshikonelo,

Ramukhuba, Piet boy, Tshimbupfe and Vyeboom. However, this proposal was received by one of the most violent demarcation demonstrations of the democratic South Africa. There are many and sometimes confusing reasons that sparked the violence which ultimately led to the establishment of the Pro-Makhado Task Team by community structures in Vuwani. The task team clearly stated that they did not want to form part of the new municipality instead they must be retained to the initial Makhado Local Municipality. The formation of the task team was therefore preceded by the burning of schools and other public assets. It is speculated that the people in Vuwani who are predominantly Venda speaking do not want to be led by Tsonga speaking people and that there would be minimum job opportunities for them (Case Study on Vuwani Demarcation Protest, 30 June 2016). To the core of the contentions in Vuwani is the fact that the Municipal Demarcation Board failed to put in place consultation platforms and therefore ignoring the provisions of the Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act (28 of 1998).

It is further argued that this is inconsistent with the provisions of Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) which demands that people must be encouraged to participate in policy and decision making processes. It is critically important that the voice of the people in a democratic dispensation is provided with space and be navigated to policy maker's table. However, this article condemns violence as it cannot be a mechanism of registering discontent with government and its institutions. The paper is however of the view that the Board has failed to take into account stakeholder's inputs in the determination of the 'new municipality'. This is in line with the submissions of the South African Police Services made at the South African Human Rights Commission where it was submitted that the Board failed to explain demarcation processes to the residents which ultimately resulted into violence (Manyathela 2016). Stakeholders in Vuwani claim to have made several submissions to the Board and were told that nothing can be done to reverse the decision of establishing the 'new municipality' (News24 Correspondent, 2016).

6. Methods and Materials

According to Schwardt (2007:195), a research methodology is a theory of how an inquiry should proceed. It involves an analysis of the assumptions, principles

and procedures in a particular approach to inquiry. There are mainly two types of methods particularly in social science research; qualitative and quantitative. Due to the nature and scope of the study both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were utilised to obtain deeper knowledge on the Collin Chabane Local Municipality's residents service delivery expectations and prospects. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) allude that qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world, i.e. qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Quantitative research aims at testing particular theories by examining the relationship amongst variables (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative findings are numerical and can easily be quantified and presented in figures and graphs.

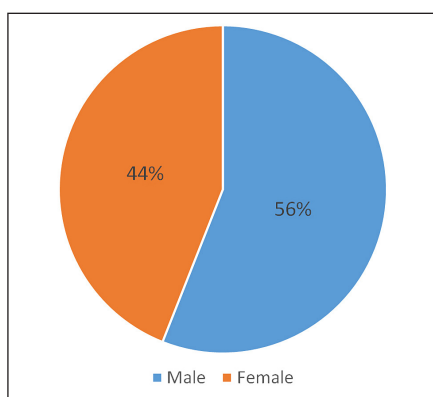
A sample is a group of elements or single element from which data are obtained. The identification of the elements or element from which data has to be sourced is known as sampling (McMillan, 1996:86). 70 respondents from the Malamulele town were randomly and conveniently sampled to participate in the study. However, only 52 questionnaires were returned for the purposes of manipulation and interpretation. In order to enhance the validity of the quantitative data as collected through questionnaires, 50 unstructured and supplementary interviews were randomly conducted to elicit further data in order to understand the service delivery expectations and some of the prospects brought about by the new Collins Chabane Local Municipality. Dobson (1963:13) defines an interview as follows:

An interview is a spoken exchange of information, between a person or two, even a small group. An interview is different from every day "chit chat" type of conversation. This exchange of information involves speaking and listening on both sides.

Both qualitative and quantitative data was then arranged, categorised and manipulated accordingly.

7. Results and Discussion

The discussion in the following section reports on the findings of the data collected through a structured questionnaire and supplementary interviews. The questionnaires were administered to the residents of the Malamulele town to unearth their service

Figure 1: Gender Representation of Respondents

Source: Authors

Table 1: The State of Service Delivery at the Thulamela Local Municipality was Satisfactory

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	5	5	5	15	22
Percentage (%)	9.6%	9.6%	9.6%	28.9%	42.3%

Source: Authors

Table 2: The Reason for Demanding a New Municipality was Solely on the Basis of Service Delivery

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	35	11	1	2	3
Percentage (%)	67.3%	21.2%	1.9%	3.8%	5.8%

Source: Authors

delivery expectations by the CCLM. All respondents were black Africans and Tsonga speaking. This could be ascribed to the geographical location the respondents find themselves in.

In Table 1 above, 9.6% of the respondents strongly agree that the state of service delivery of their former municipality (TLM) was satisfactory, 9.6% agree, 9.6% is undecided, 28.9% disagree, 42.3% strongly disagree. In Table 2 above, 67.3% of the respondents are of the view that the demand of a new municipality was solely based on lack of service delivery by the TLM, 21.2% agree, 1.9% is undecided, 3.8% disagree while 5.8% strongly disagree. From the findings above, it can be seen that majority of the respondents are of the view that service delivery by the TLM was not satisfactory. Furthermore, the findings reiterate that the demand for a new municipality was based on the lack of service delivery rather than any other motive as is advocated

by other 'anti-new' municipality. As pointed out in literature, the demand for a new municipality was due to the failure to meet service delivery needs of the Malamulele area. This is inconsistent with the issue of tribalism which was thought to have perpetuated the need for a new municipality by the Malamulele residents. It was contended that tribalism rather than service delivery was a driving factor behind the demand for a new municipality.

As pointed out in literature, service clients always expect institutions servicing them to deliver as per the expectation. Quality of services and the period within which services are delivered plays a crucial role in meeting service delivery expectation. In this study as indicated in Table 3 on the following page 53.8% of the respondents strongly agree that better services from the CCLM as expected, 38.5% of the respondents agree, 7.7% are undecided, and no respondents neither disagree nor strongly

Table 3: The Expectation is that the Collins Chabane Local Municipality Will Deliver Better Services

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	28	20	4	0	0
Percentage (%)	53.8%	38.5%	7.7%	0%	0%

Source: Authors

Table 4: The Collins Chabane Local Municipality Will Deliver Better Services that the Thulamela Local Municipality

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	25	22	3	0	2
Percentage (%)	48.1%	42.3%	5.8%	0%	3.8%

Source: Authors

Table 5: Residents are Expecting Improvements in Existing Infrastructure and Services

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	20	24	5	2	1
Percentage (%)	38.5%	46.2%	9.6%	3.8%	1.9%

Source: Authors

Table 6: Residents are Expecting New Developments in Infrastructure and Services

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	21	24	5	2	0
Percentage (%)	40.4%	46.2%	9.6%	3.8%	0%

Source: Authors

disagree that the expectation for better services by the CCLM exists. Table 4 indicates that 48.1% of the respondents strongly agree and expect the CCLM will deliver better services that the TLM, 42.3% agree, 5.8% are undecided, 0% disagree, while 3.8% strongly disagree. As pointed out in literature, the municipality can use the four questions as proposed by Ipsos (2014). If the municipality fails to meet the expectations of citizens, frustration will always grow among service clients. This is so as residents expect the new municipality to deliver better services by the TLM. However, the findings of this study may not necessarily translate into what will practically transpire in terms of service delivery. CCLM is a new municipality and as pointed out in literature, capacity might not allow the municipality to collect adequate self-revenue and therefore defeating the aim of sustainable service delivery.

In Table 5 above, the study probed whether municipal residents expected the CCLM to make improvements to already existing infrastructure and services. 38.5% strongly agree, 46.2% agree, 9.6% are undecided, 3.8% disagree while 1.9% strongly disagree. In Table 6, respondents were asked whether the Municipality will develop new infrastructure and expand the delivery of services. On that note, 40.4% strongly agree, 46.2% agree, 9.6% undecided, 3.8% disagree while 0% strongly disagree. On the basis of these findings it can be drawn that the CCLM is expected to deliver new infrastructure and services while also ensuring that improvements are made to existing services and infrastructure.

There is a tendency among South African citizens to embark on violent demonstrations when public institutions do not perform as expected. Over the

Table 7: If the Municipality Fails to Meet the Expectation, there will be Service Delivery Protests

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Frequency	12	24	9	4	3
Percentage (%)	23%	46.2%	17.3%	7.7%	5.8%

Source: Authors

past 10 years, service delivery protests across the country have become rife. This may be ascribed to huge expectations that citizens place on government institutions. In this study 23% strongly agree, 46.2% agree, 17.3%, 7.7% disagree while 5.8% strongly disagree that if the CCLM fails to meet their expectations as indicated in the data in the above table, they are likely to engage in service delivery protests. Expectations create anxiety in people and if not met there is a likelihood of disappointment and violence.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

The aim of this article was to report on the findings acquired through literature and empirical evidence. The study was conducted in the Malamulele area in order to understand the municipal community's service delivery expectation by the new CCLM. From the findings, it can be concluded that although the CCLM relatively with low capacity to collect self-revenue due to its rural setting, residents have huge service delivery expectations. Due to the nature and extent of the expectations for service delivery, if the CCLM fails to meet the service delivery expectations, residents are likely to embark on service delivery protests. It can also be seen from the findings that the demand for a new municipality by the Malamulele community was mainly based on the lack of service delivery rather than tribalism as was advocated by other groups. In light of this, the following recommendations are proposed:

- The prioritisation of service delivery by the Municipality;
- Inviting investment for the purposes of industrialisation and job creation of jobs;
- Building of public facilities such as schools and houses and;
- Support for small businesses.

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'Practice Makes Perfect' – The Significance of Standardised Methods and Procedures in Public Administration: A Case of the Madibeng Municipality

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Abstract: Even though research on the determining and revision of methods and procedures as generic administrative functions matured in the late 1990s, there is a shortage of research on the significance of standard operating procedures in public administration in present-day local government. As a result, there is lack of knowledge of what the determining and revision of methods and procedures entail and the exact nature of standard operating procedures that municipalities implement. More often, researchers fail to adequately interpret the scope of methods and procedures, identify types of procedures, and recognise the significance of standardised methods and procedures at operational level in local governments. Consequently, the development and implementation of standard operating procedures are often reduced in practice to red tape or the excessive use of inflexible rules and regulations. The significance of methods and procedures is unfortunately underestimated and at times poorly expressed in public administration literature. With regard to the Driving Licence Testing Centre of the Madibeng Municipality, the lack of standardised methods and procedures results in unjustifiable delays in the issuing of driving licences and lengthy queues is a familiar sight. Also, staff of the Driving Licence Testing Centre can often not be held accountable for not upholding directive documents and guidelines. By implementing standardised methods and procedures, the Driving Licence Testing Centre of the Madibeng Municipality, fulfil its duties in terms of what is required to ensure driver fitness. This paper uses quantitative and qualitative data as well as document analysis of a specific case, the Madibeng Municipality, to explore the importance, nature and scope of the determining and revision of methods and procedures in public administration. It analyses and interprets responses to five statements posted to the respondents as well as dialogues from the follow-up interviews. The paper concludes with recommendations to the Madibeng Municipality.

Keywords: Driving licence testing centre, Method, Procedure, Public administration, Standard operating procedure

1. Introduction

The determining and revision of methods and procedures specify the sequence, processes and techniques necessary to execute certain actions and operations within a given framework. It states how tasks, programmes, responsibilities and controls must be exercised, and also indicates who must take action. Methods and procedures thus form an indispensable part of any public organisation's activities (Ijeoma & Nzewi, 2016). Botes, Brynard, Fourie and Roux (1996) claim that methods and procedures simplify the work of public and municipal officials; it also enables the officials to utilise the authority delegated to them. As a generic administrative function, the determining and revision of methods and procedures are intertwined because methods, as the orderly arrangement of valid and legal ideas and ways of executing tasks, cannot exist without procedures as a series of consistent chronological

steps that must be followed to accomplish a task (Kanawaty, 1992). Consequently, methods and procedures are built into all public service activities, regardless whether these are administrative, functional or auxiliary.

Despite the significance and benefits of using standardised methods and procedures, it seems that the Madibeng Municipality lacks contemporary and efficient standard operating procedures for the issuing of driving licences... impeding driver fitness. The current situation revealed how disintegrated legislated aims and objectives are in relation to policy implementation at operational level. The research problem is thus that the lack of contemporary and relevant standard operating procedures impedes the effective issuing of driving licences at the Driving Licence Testing Centre of the Madibeng Municipality (hereafter referred to as the MM DLTC). The purpose of this article is thus to establish the significance of

determining and revising methods and procedures, and standard operating procedures in public administration, specifically at the MM DLTC.

The study commenced with a conceptual analysis of the concepts 'public administration', 'methods' and 'procedures'. Sketches of types and the importance of methods and procedures then follow. A brief overview of the case study is provided before the research methodology is elaborated on. The data analysis and findings are thereafter presented to enable relevant and practicable recommendations to the MM DLTC.

2. Conceptual Analysis

To place this study in the context of public administration, the concept 'public administration' is defined before the concepts methods and procedures, are put into perspective.

2.1 Defining Public Administration

In this study, the concept 'public administration' is utilised to describe the processes and functions provided by government to serve society according to its needs, desires and demands, as well as the academic discipline that study these processes and functions (Nkuna & Sebola, 2014). The concept 'public administration' is thus broad-ranging and comprises of a combination of fundamental activities, principles and practices to provide public services, as well as enable the understanding of government's processes and functions and its relationship to society within a feasible and constitutionally justifiable framework (Erasmus, 2015). In summary:

Public administration is a process that has to do with government institutions and the activities of appointed public officials aiming at satisfying the needs of society within the borders of a specific state (Wessels, 2017). It includes the provision of public services and products by the authorities at all spheres of government (Thornhill, 2012). Public administration as a process may broadly be defined as any kind of administration in the public interest (Basu, 2004).

Public administration is an academic discipline that aims to study the various processes and activities of government institutions that have the purpose of improving the general welfare of society by providing public services and products to society. As an

academic discipline, Public Administration refers to the activities of scholars, academics and students as they make a study of public administration in practice (Theletsane, 2013).

Public administration is grounded within the public interest and comprises of a mixture of processes and functions that embodies the relationship between government and society. The significance of public administration in South Africa is thus vested in service to the public within the legal framework provided by the Constitution of 1996 to advance the common good (Constitution, 1996: Section 195(1); Daweti & Evans, 2017). Since public administration is concerned with the execution of functional, specialised and auxiliary activities, public managers and officials must determine and follow certain procedures to perform their duties. Methods and procedures, as an integral element of public administration, is determined and implemented so that government institutions may fulfil its calling, i.e. promote the public interest.

2.2 Methods and Procedures

The concept 'method' in public administration refers to the manner in which a specific step within procedure is performed. A method is thus the orderly arrangement of ideas or regular habits. Methods in this study will be defined as thorough consecutive steps or instructions of how a procedure must be performed, while the concept 'procedure' refers to the actions or steps to be taken in succession to complete a task or to carry out policy (Cloete & De Coning, 2011). According to Booyens (2001), the purpose of procedures is to be used for communication, understanding, standardisation and coordination. Procedures will therefore be defined as a series of interdependent consecutive steps and instructions which must be taken towards the achievement of a set objective. Work procedures are interpreted as a management tool for internal control and innovation (Nzewi, 2017). Methods and procedures are thus very similar, but a method is a smaller component of a procedure. A procedure is a way of placing the smaller components (methods) together in sequence or combination to achieve objectives (Cloete & De Coning, 2011).

De Treville, Antonakis and Edelson (2005) and Kanawaty (1992) described 'standard procedure' is a series of actions or chronological steps which have to be executed in the same manner to always

achieve the same result under the same conditions. Therefore, it can be posited that standardised procedures are step-by-step sequences of activities that must be followed in the same order over a wide number of situations and over an open period of time to eventually correctly perform a task. Nzewi (2015) as well as Barbosa, Zuliani Mauro, Bavaresco Cristóvão and Mangione (2011) concur with this definition and assert that standard operating procedures comprise detailed instructions to attain uniformity when officials carry out a specific function. Alvarez and Hall (2008) added that accurate, accepted and approved methods and procedures act as instruments to ensure compliance with legislative requirements.

3. Literature Review

Methods and procedures manifest in a process as a series of steps conducted in a specific manner; primarily in established and routine actions and behaviour. In public institutions, these series of actions occasionally constitute a point of contact between public officials, as representatives of government, and the public as the citizens of the state. This point of contact with the public directly or indirectly gives meaning to what Acts and Regulations imply to ordinary citizens by way of the everyday work and the established manner in which tasks are executed (Knott & Miller, 2008). A certain image of government is created of how ordinary citizens are treated during face-to-face interventions with public officials. Compliance with legislative frameworks should form the backbone during these interventions so that a precise image of government is portrayed (Nzewi, 2013). This implies that certain activities are pre-planned and instructions on how public officials should perform their duties should be established. The instructions generally comprise step-by-step guidelines of what needs to be accomplished, while considering individual behaviour within certain working environments. Furthermore, responsibilities need to be identified and information about how and when tasks need to be completed should be stated. It now becomes clearer that methods and procedures should be subordinate to legislation, but with the force of delegated legislation.

3.1 Types of Procedures

Three types of procedures can be differentiated. The first type of procedure is legislative authorised

by statute and applied by standard operating procedures with the full force and effect of the law. Legislative procedures are technically highly specialised procedures and are enacted by Parliament after seeking expert advice on the matter (Ponte, Gibbon & Vestergaard, 2011). The second type of procedure is interpretative. Interpretative procedures guide the public and public officials of how to interpret legislation. Examples of interpretative procedures include decisions made by judges in a court of law, including judgments and court rulings.

The third type of procedure refers to a broader understanding of the concept of *standards* and includes standardised procedures that govern government departments' internal practices (Ponte *et al.*, 2011). Budgetary instructions and guidelines issued by financial sections of government departments are examples of standardised procedures enforced as delegated legislation. The significance of standard operating procedures is consequently found in well-structured and uniform explanations of how legislation and policy should be implemented.

3.2 Importance of Methods and Procedures in Public Administration

Methods and procedures form an integral part of all the activities of public managers and officials with the aim to ensure compliance with legislation through coordinated actions. Methods and procedures are reflected in directive documents, such as policies, standard operating procedure manuals and codes of conduct. These directive documents serve as guidelines of how officials should act when addressing the needs of society. Non-compliance with official directives does not necessarily imply disobeying the law. However, it implies misconduct which might result in disciplinary investigations, suspension or dismissal (Evans & Dean, 2003).

Legislators play a crucial role in formulating policy. However, Parliament and provincial legislators cannot attend to all the legislative requirements required to implement policy effectively at all spheres of government. To surpass harsh time constraints, the drafting of methods and procedures is delegated to responsible authorities at operational level. Methods and procedures then serve as a necessary bridge between the political decision-making system and the officials who implement public policy on operational level. Without standardised procedures, effective and efficient service delivery would

be lacking as the actions of public officials will not be coordinated towards reaching the goals of government (Reddy & Govender, 2014).

3.3 Bureaucracy, Red Tape and Standard Operating Procedures

Rules, regulations and procedures that entail a compliance burden without advancing the legitimate purpose they intend to serve is generally defined as red tape. Consequently, an unavoidable negative connotation associated with standard operating procedures and bureaucracy is red tape or the excessive use of inflexible rules and regulations. Cumbersome standardised procedures generally seem to be developed by and exclusively for the benefit of the public officials while mostly excluding benefits to the public (Kaufmann & Tummers, 2017).

Contradicting the typical view that bureaucracy and standardised procedures result in red tape that impedes the public interest, De Treville, *et al.* (2005) indicated that the use of standard operating procedures may lead to meaningful working conditions. Despite the negativities associated with bureaucracy and rigid procedures, standardised methods and procedures have benefits; particularly in situations where routine tasks are performed by a maximum number of employees over a long period.

With the brief literature review covered, details about the case study are presented in the following section.

4. Driving Licence Testing Centre of the Madibeng Municipality

The Madibeng Municipality, a Category B municipality, is one of five local municipalities in the Bojanala Platinum District Municipality, one of four district municipalities in the North West Province (Local Government Handbook: South Africa, 2017). The Madibeng Municipality is facing rapid development and growth which implies that while there is infrastructure that requires continued maintenance and rehabilitation, there is a huge demand to cater for previously under-serviced areas. This requires significant resources and as such, the municipality's financial strategy is based on strict financial reform. Moreover, the municipality is characterised by huge backlogs in service delivery and a large number of households that do not have direct access to electricity, clean water and sanitation. To

compound these problems, the municipality also faces the non-payment of services. The backlog in service delivery and the non-payment of services places undue pressure on the financial status of the municipality. This results in limited resources available to address and respond to the needs of the citizens of the municipality. The DLTC that falls under the Directorate of Public Safety, Fleet and Facilities Management, is not exempted from these challenges. The influx of learner drivers from areas outside the municipal area is one of the challenges experienced by the DLTC. As a result, insufficient resources have limited the DLTC's capacity to consistently fulfil its role and responsibilities (Madibeng Municipality, 2019).

The MM DLTC is equipped and authorised to examine and test applicants for learner and driving licences of any code; substitute a driver's licence of any code with the new format; and issue new and duplicate learner licences, driving licence cards, and professional driving permits. General problems experienced by the MM DLTC are that incorrect details on driving licence cards are often reported by the public. In addition, procedures are neither aligned nor updated according to the licensing and road traffic policy amendments. These outdated procedures often result in unlawful actions. The development and implementation of standard operating procedures offer a probable solution at operational level. Standard operating procedures for the Centre must subsequently be founded and based on the provisions of the National Road Traffic Act 93 of 1996 and the relevant National Road Traffic Regulations. From a legal perspective, any newly developed standard operating procedures need to become law in action and enforce delegated legislation (Vigoda, 2002).

The research design and methodology followed to determine what the significance is of determining and revision of methods and procedures at the MM DLTC are elaborated on in the following section.

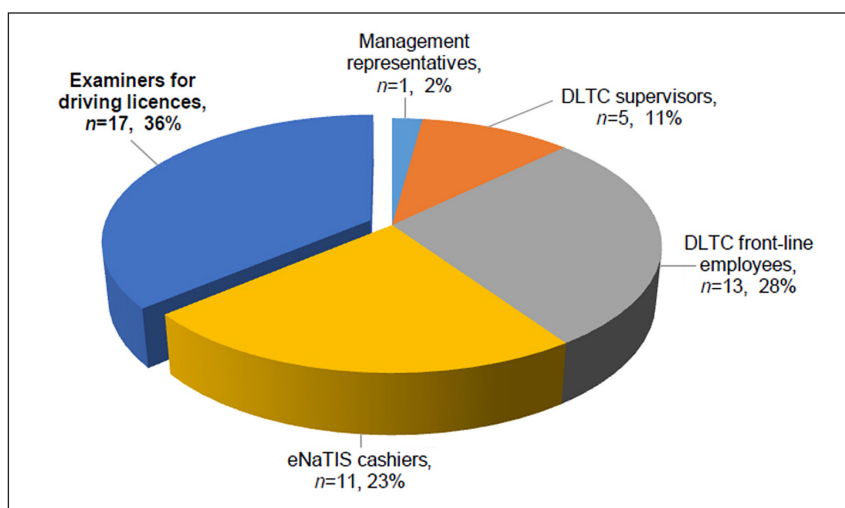
5. Methods and Materials

The study adopted both the non-empirical and empirical research methodology. The non-empirical aspect of the study included a thorough literature review. Empirical data was collected utilising a combination of quantitative and qualitative research designs that is, a mixed methods research design. One questionnaire and two sets of interview questions were utilised as data collection methods. The

Table 1: Selected Target Population, Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

Data collection instrument	Population	Sample size	Sampling technique
Structured questionnaire	56 employees of the DLTC	56 respondents	Probability sampling
Personal interviews	1 management representative 3 supervisors	4 participants	Non-probability sampling

Source: Author's interpretation

Figure 1: Quantitative Data - Sample Distribution by Occupational Category

Source: Author's interpretation

interview schedules were developed after analysing the responses to the questionnaire and identifying matters that needed further clarification.

5.1 Sampling Procedures

Only officials directly involved with issuing driving licences were requested to complete the questionnaire and/or were interviewed. Two parallel sampling techniques were considered appropriate for the study. The selected target population, sample size and sampling techniques are summarised in Table 1.

With regard to the completion of the questionnaire, the majority of the responses comprised of the examiners for driving licences. All the response percentages are illustrated in Figure 1 per occupational category.

In addition to the questionnaire, semi-structured personal interviews were conducted. The reason for embarking on semi-structured personal interviews was to allow the participants to provide input and any information they think is significant. As opposed to the questionnaire that was distributed

to all the staff at the Centre, the interviews were directed at one manager and three supervisors. Ethics clearance for this study was obtained from the University of South Africa prior to collecting data. Data collection took place after permission to conduct the study was acquired from the Madibeng Municipality.

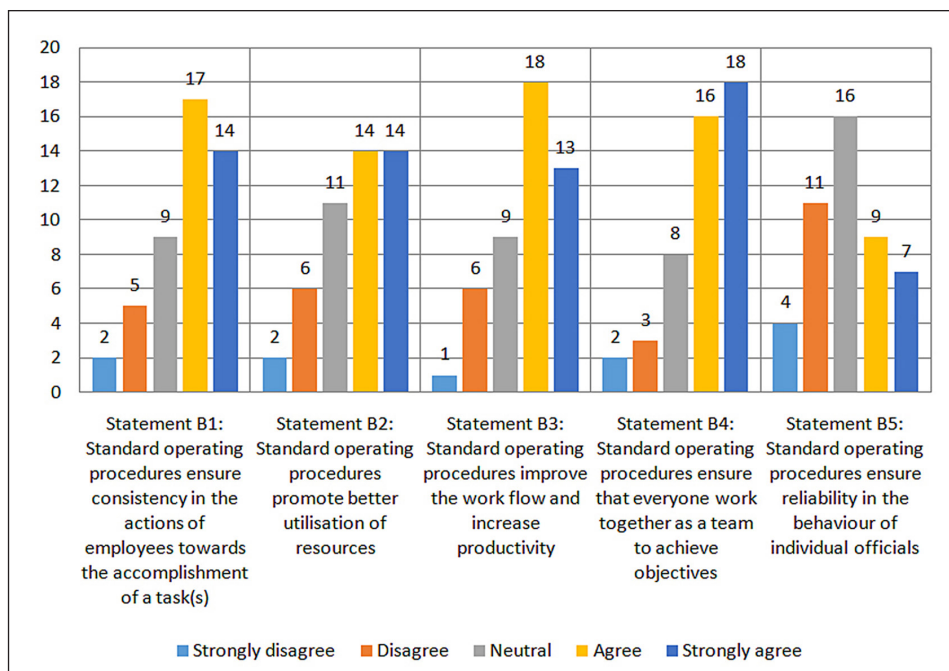
6. Results and Discussion

This section describes the findings and interpretations of the data obtained by way of the questionnaire and the interviews.

6.1 Analysis of Quantifiable Data: Questionnaire

Section B of the questionnaire dealt with the respondents' opinions about the significance of determining and revising or updating methods and procedures, including standard operating procedures at the MM DLTC. The respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement with five statements by selecting one of the following options: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Neutral* (neither agree nor disagree), 4 = *Agree* and 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

Figure 2: Use and Significance of Standard Operating Procedures - Total Responses



Source: Author's interpretation

Detailed analysis and findings of each of the statements included in the questionnaire follows immediately after Figure 2 that summarises the quantifiable data.

6.1.1 Ensuring Consistency in Accomplishing Tasks

Methods and procedures offer every official involved in performing a task, an overview of the total actions, so that the official acquires a better understanding of any of the individual steps and detailed activities of the institution or department. In this way, public officials can understand how their seemingly trivial activities relate to an entire task and other activities performed by their colleagues (Nzewi, 2015). Statement B1 (*Standard operating procedures ensure consistency in the actions of employees towards the accomplishment of a task(s)*) sought to establish whether the implemented methods and procedures at the MM DLTC equip and enable the employees such that their actions are executed in a consistent manner when completing a task. With regard to the data, four percent ($n=2$) strongly disagreed and eleven percent ($n=5$) disagreed that standard operating procedures ensure consistency in the actions of employees towards the accomplishment of a task. A total of nineteen percent ($n=9$) of the respondents remained neutral. A significant thirty-six percent ($n=17$) agreed, while thirty percent ($n=14$) strongly agreed with the statement.

Based on the opinions held by the respondents, it is concluded that the (limited) available procedures at the MM DLTC promotes consistency of the employee's actions and behaviour at the Centre.

6.1.2 Utilising Resources Optimally

Once methods and procedures have been developed in the form of standard operating procedures, the road has been paved for improved workflow, increased productivity and better utilisation of resources (Alvarez & Hall, 2008). To test this benefit in an environment with limited resources, statement B2 (*Standard operating procedures promote better utilisation of resources*) sought the DLTC employees' opinions of whether standard operating procedures leads to the effective and efficient utilisation of their restricted resources.

In this instance, four percent ($n=2$) of the respondents strongly disagreed, while thirteen percent ($n=6$) disagreed that standard operating procedures promote better utilisation of resources and twenty-three percent ($n=11$) of the respondents remained neutral. A total of thirty percent ($n=14$) of the respondents agreed and another thirty percent ($n=14$) also strongly agreed with the tendency towards effective and efficient utilisation of resources. The majority of the respondents inadvertently realised that standard operating procedures offers the Centre certain advantages.

6.1.3 Improving Workflow and Increased Productivity

Methods and procedures in the form of standard operating procedures leads to, amongst other advantages, improved workflow, increased productivity and a decrease in the cost of services and products (Alvarez & Hall, 2008). However, these advantages can only be achieved by using procedures that are accurate and relevant to the applicable work situation. Statement B3 (*Standard operating procedures improve the workflow and increase productivity*) endeavoured to establish whether the respondents from the MM DLTC held that standard operating procedures at the Centre improves the workflow and, as a result, also increases productivity. Should the majority responses lean towards better workflow and increased productivity, the data will confirm that the existing procedures could be utilised as a foundation for the development of a new and updated set of standard operating procedures.

Two percent ($n=1$) of the respondents strongly disagreed and thirteen percent ($n=6$) disagreed with the notion that standard operating procedures improves the workflow and increases productivity, while nineteen percent ($n=9$) of the respondents remained neutral (neither agreed nor disagreed). A significant majority of the respondents agreed with the assertion that there is a link between standard operating procedures and the progress (or rate of progress) in work being done. A total of thirty-eight percent ($n=18$) agreed and twenty-eight percent ($n=13$) agreed quite strongly. The majority of the responses, sixty-six percent (thirty-eight percent plus twenty-eight percent) in total, thus either agreed or strongly agreed that standard operating procedures at the MM DLTC results in improved workflow in issuing licences as well as increased productivity, which ultimately results in effective and efficient public service delivery (Clark, 2015). The findings revealed that minimum procedures exist at the MM DLTC and concurs with the assumption.

6.1.4 Achieving Objectives Through Teamwork

Officials who are involved in a specific step of a task can consult the standard operating procedures to acquire a clearer understanding of how their activities relate to those of their colleagues. Consistency of the individual official's actions in the accomplishment of the task is thus assured because they are informed of the combined actions/steps (Nzewi, 2013). Standard operating procedures to issue

driving licences are communicated to the DLTC officials so that they are aware of how to achieve the objectives as a team namely: testing applicants and the subsequent issuing of the appropriate licence should the person pass the test. So, with the use of standard operating procedures, DLTC employees could work collaboratively regardless of whether they are aware of every detail of their colleagues' functions (Alvarez & Hall, 2008). Statement B4 (*Standard operating procedures ensure that everyone work together as a team to achieve objectives*) sought to confirm whether methods and procedures promote standardisation for a chain of different actions as it structures the way in which officials perform their duties as a team (Evans & Dean, 2003).

With regard to the number of responses received, four percent ($n=2$) of the respondents strongly disagreed, while seven percent ($n=3$) of the respondents disagreed that standard operating procedures ensure that everyone works together as a team to achieve the objectives. Seventeen percent ($n=8$) of the respondents remained neutral, thirty-four percent ($n=16$) agreed, while thirty-eight percent ($n=18$) agreed strongly with the statement that standardised procedures boost teamwork at their office. The overwhelming sentiment seems to be that the implementation and utilisation of standard operating procedures leads to the achieving objectives through teamwork.

6.1.5 Encouraging Reliable Behaviour Among Individual Officials

It is generally expected that methods and procedures will guide the official's actions when interpreting and executing public policy and not control their behaviour (Reddy & Govender, 2014). Consequently, statement B5 (*Standard operating procedures ensure reliability in the behaviour of individual officials*) was formulated to acquire knowledge of modern day respondents' views of the influence of standard operating procedures on an individual official's behaviour in the workplace. It is significant that thirty-four percent ($n=16$) of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, that is, they were not prepared to commit themselves either way. Of those respondents who committed themselves, twenty-three percent ($n=11$) of the respondents disagreed, while a further nine percent ($n=4$) disagreed vehemently. In contrast, nineteen percent ($n=9$) agreed, while only fifteen percent ($n=7$) of the respondents agreed strongly that standard operating procedures can be used as a management tool to

control the behaviour of individual officials, as supported by Nzewi (2017). It can be inferred from the majority of the respondents who remained neutral that standard operating procedures ensures reliability in individual official's behaviour, which requires freedom and flexibility to a certain extent. However, when reflecting on the confirmation that standard operating procedures lead to the achievement of objectives through teamwork, it can be deduced that standardised procedures promotes the behaviour of groups of individuals who perform a sequence of steps to complete a task.

6.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data: Follow-up Interviews

To establish the extent to which standard operating procedures are actually utilised at the MM DLTC, Manager A was interviewed for further insights. He confirmed that standard operating procedures have the same authority of delegated legislation. Manager A also indicated that standard operating procedures should be utilised as law in action, because standardised procedures are utilised primarily to ensure compliance with legislation at the DLTC. His responses supported the underlying premise of the study that the effective implementation of updated standard operating procedures to issue driving licences according to the licensing and road traffic legislation. However, Manager A admitted that there is a lack of (updated) standardised procedures at the Centre. This confirmed the notion to identify the lack of procedures, as correct.

When analysing the questionnaire, it was noted that the respondents reacted positively towards the relationship between standard operating procedures and teamwork, while a significant number remained neutral about the link between standard operating procedures and the effect thereof on the behaviour of individual officials. Thus, a follow-up interview question was posed to Manager A to acquire further insight into the relationship between standard operating procedures and teamwork at the MM DLTC.

Manager A suggested that the staff acts with certainty and commitment when their decisions are based on the requirements included in the procedures. He confirmed that groups of employees, such as the cashiers and the examiners for driving licences occupational categories, work together as teams to accomplish their daily routines and duties.

Though, Manager A cautioned against working in isolation because it may result in undetected deviation from standardised procedures by individual employees. Based on Manager A's response, it is deduced that the implementation of standard operating procedures encourages conformist behaviour at the Centre, as advocated by Nzewi (2013).

To further explore the utilisation and significance of standard operating procedures at the MM DLTC, statement B3 (*Standard operating procedures improve the workflow and increase productivity*) of the questionnaire endeavoured to establish whether the respondents held that the utilisation of standardised procedures improves workflow and productivity. The majority of the respondents replied positively to the statement. It was also revealed that standardised procedures ensure better workflow and productivity. However, the exact way in which procedures are optimised at the MM DLTC still needed to be established. Three supervisors were consequently asked individually to explain how they would go about using standard operating procedures to improve the workflow at the DLTC. All three supervisors were convinced that the standardised procedures encourage consistency in the actions and behaviour of their subordinates and their colleagues. One of the supervisors preferred to elaborate on how the existing procedures guides the communication flow at the Centre, while the other two supervisors focused on advantages such as consistency, improved planning and compliance with legislation. All three supervisors spoke about the benefits of implementing procedures. Supervisor A agreed that standard operating procedures become visible when routine actions allow reliability and predictability of the tasks to be performed. In this way, standard operating procedures attach legitimacy to the relevant routines because all actions must be executed within a clear legal mandate (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2014).

Supervisor B argued that workflow is improved because standard operating procedures lead to better planning and the utilisation of resources. Supervisor B also confirmed that standardised procedures promote better planning, while pointing towards the requirement to comply with legislation. Consequently, the predictable nature of routine tasks and the consistency provided by standard procedures leads to effective planning during policy implementation. Better planning

would ultimately lead to improved workflow and productivity. Supervisor C echoed the argument held by Evans and Dean (2003) that methods and procedures communicate information to employees so that they understand what, when and how to perform their duties.

The recommendations presented in the following section build on the literature review and the empirical findings of the study.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The literature review revealed that, as a generic administrative function, the concepts methods and procedures are intertwined and form an integral part of the activities of public and municipal managers and officials with the aim of ensuring compliance with legislation. As a process, methods and procedures is an interdependent and interrelated process which receives inputs, acts upon them while considering feedback from the environment, and then produces outputs. It was eventually confirmed in the empirical research that methods and procedures are significant in the South African public service because of the growing need to coordinate the activities of officials in all the spheres of government, specifically at the MM DLTC.

The DLTC staff admitted that standardised procedures offer certain advantages to the Centre, and results in effective utilisation of resources. It is interesting that the staff believe standardised procedures enhance teamwork at the office. It seems that groups of employees, such as the eNaTIS cashiers, work together as teams to accomplish their daily routines and duties. It is recommended that management guard against individual employees working in isolation as it may result in undetected deviation from standardised procedures. Furthermore, deviations from policy and procedures should not be allowed.

Actions executed at the DLTC are within a clear legal mandate and standard operating procedures can be used as a tool to legitimise relevant routine tasks. Unfortunately, there is a lack of updated standardised procedures at the Centre, and the existing procedures does not comprise the full scope of the processes and tasks necessary to issue licences. Due to the benefit that the limited available procedures promote consistency among the employees, it is recommended that the DLTC management representative conducts an analysis to determine

which procedures are lacking. It is suggested that when updating and developing the procedures, a basic framework for the development of standard operating procedures is applied.

To improve service delivery at the Centre, management is encouraged to exploit the positive perception of the staff to ensure that standard operating procedures results in improved workflow in issuing driving licences as well as increased productivity. It is suggested that management focuses on the potential reliability of individual officials when implementing new methods and procedures. It is further recommended that the predictable nature of routine tasks and the consistency provided by standard procedures is used for effective planning. Moreover, the management representative should ensure that the procedure manuals are accessible for input by the staff, relevant authorities and other role-players.

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Factors Contributing to the Decline of Votes in South Africa: A Case Study of Mankweng Community

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Abstract: One of the basic democratic rights of citizens of any country in the world is voting. However, global statistics depict a steady decline in voting from eligible voting population of the world, particularly the youth and to a lesser extent, the elderly. According to Statistics South Africa, in 2019, there were 26.1 million registered voters on the voters roll. However, 9 million South Africans who were eligible to vote did not register to do so. This decline indicates that eligible South African electorate's appetite to exercise their voting right has dissipated. The question is why? This article seeks to examine factors which contribute to the decline of votes in South Africa using Mankweng community as a case study. Its objective is to investigate reasons behind the low voter turnout among eligible South African voters, utilising Mankweng community as a microcosm. The researchers have used qualitative research method which adopted random sampling when accumulating data from Mankweng community members. Fifteen (15) eligible voters from a total population of twenty-eight (28) from Mankweng community were incorporated in the study for data collection. Open-ended interviews were used as data collection tools. Rational Choice Theory was employed to undergird the study. The study found that the majority of Mankweng community members of voting age, especially the youth and, to a lesser extent, the elderly believe that the government does not adequately add value to their lives. As a result of this vexing concern, South Africa is challenged by a worrying trend of dwindling voter turnout from its electorate.

Keywords: Citizenship, Democracy, Elections, Electorate, Mankweng community, Rights, Voting

1. Introduction

After six seamless years of democratic elections in South Africa, which make twenty-five years from 1994 to 2019, there has been an enormous decline of votes from South African citizens. Many South African citizens who are eligible to vote have been steadily refraining from doing so. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), Section 19(3) (a) of the Bill of rights, stipulates that, "Every adult citizen has the right to vote in elections for any legislative body established in terms of the constitution, and to do so in secret". However, according to van Vollenhoven (2015), it is depicted that South African electorate have not been duly exercising this right. As a result, this study seeks to investigate factors which contribute to the decline of votes in South Africa.

According to Vasquez (2017), voting is a fundamental right of any citizen to elect the preferred leaders of their choice. Douglas (2013) states that when citizens collectively elect representatives they affirm the idea of governing themselves through free choice. Mehlape (2016:17) asserts that through casting votes we, as citizens, "protect our inherent right to make choices, regardless of our identity or

social class". Free choice is the hallmark of democracy. Furthermore, voting is not only a platform for citizens to exercise their democratic right; it is also a viable avenue to conscientise them about their citizenship. Moreover, voting, as a right, underscores the establishment of any democracy (Douglas, 2013). According to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, every citizen who is eighteen (18) years and above, is eligible to vote. In other words, the right to vote for any party of one's choice is enshrined in the Constitution of the country. Lindell (2019) states that voting is an expression of preference in terms of which party should govern the country. As a result, everyone should be given the leverage to vote because they are entitled to their free choice. In addition, Vallve (2011) mentions that voting portrays the desire to take everyone's opinion into consideration rather than imposing the decision of one group on the other group. Furthermore, people should be granted space to cast their votes freely and fairly.

2. Theoretical Framework

This paper is underpinned by the Rational Choice Theory which, like a mirror, helps crystallise the

reasons behind the (de)motivation of the electorate during the voting process. Lovette (2006:238) posits that, "the point of Rational Choice Theory (RCT) is to show that certain social phenomena can be explained with reference to their usefulness in solving problems arising from the general pursuit of self-interest". In the voting context, the Rational Choice Theory assists voters to calculate the costs and benefits of voting in order to derive their conclusion of whether they vote or not. In this instance, the low voter turnout, particularly in South Africa, is caused by the fact that citizens do not see the necessity to vote as the government does not fulfil its duties towards them. This theory elucidates that voters only decide to cast their votes if they are guaranteed service delivery by the government of the day. It emphasises that people vote based on their rational choice. Their behavioural pattern is (de)motivated by their rational decisions towards voting. Furthermore, this theory serves as a barometer of this article in that it helps ground the reader's understanding of what dampens the rational choice of voters against voting in South Africa. Through its incorporation in this article, readers will better assimilate the reasons for the lacklustre voting behaviour displayed by many South Africans.

3. The Importance of Voting

In every country, government representatives are elected by the citizens (Chapman, 2019). The only process used to do this is voting. According to Ferguson, Ali, Olfert and Partridge (2007), voting is one of the critical measures that individuals can use to influence government's decision-making. In addition, Greg (2018) stipulates that without a vote, citizens are fundamentally voiceless. This shows how crucial voting is in selecting the government that is trusted and capable to lead its people. This article posits that voting is an invaluable tool for citizens to elect their democratic form of government. Agu, Okare, and Idike (2013) aver that voting is the most visible and widespread of citizen involvement in issues affecting their country.

According to Kour (2018), electoral participation, through voting, is not just about supporting a favoured party, candidates or issues occurring in the country; it is also about supporting democracy. Democracy is a system where people become part of the decisions of their community or nation (Carvalho, 2019). Consequently, citizens can only have a say or freely practise their democratic right through voting

(Cortinars, 2018). Cortinars (2018) further notes that for citizens to be change agents and have influence, they must vote. When people vote, they entrust those who have been delegated into government with the responsibility of being accountable representatives and catalysts for change hence the importance of voting.

4. Voter Turnout

Voter turnout is determined by the number of eligible voters who show up at the voting stations during the day of elections (Hutt, 2018). There are people who register to vote and never turn up on election day. Conversely, there are citizens who do not register at all, which automatically disqualifies them from voting. The study conducted by Schulz-Herzenberg (2014) reveals that the voter turnout is examined as a proportion of the eligible voting-age population over 20 years. The figures confirm a decline in participation from 86% in 1994 to 72% in 1999, and 58% in 2004. Only in 2009 a slight rise to 60%. However, this was followed by a drop to 57% in the 2014 elections. Schulz-Herzenberg (2014) declares that there was a decline of eligible South African voters during the investigated election periods. This is a concerning matter because freedom was not delivered to the majority of people on a silver platter. Blood was profusely shed for the attainment of this universal suffrage. It is for this reason that South Africans must jealously guard this democratic right by going to the polling stations in droves during elections. Disappointingly, South African eligible voters are apathetic when it comes to exercising this democratic right hence the low voter turnout at the voting stations during the voting season.

Wade (2017) confesses that the low voter-turnout in South Africa, which is manifested in the decline of voters from the accumulated figures from 1994 to 2014, may be affected by various factors such as poor education, poor service delivery, unemployment, corruption and crime. He further states that the voting can be a laborious challenge to citizens; both the process of registering and turning up at the voting stations. Person, Sundell and Ohrvall (2014) contend that citizens only vote if the benefits of voting outweigh the costs. Even though the right to participate in the elections is the fulcrum of democracy, citizens do not vote (Mahler, Jesuit, Paradowski, 2014). They stay away from the polls because their political representatives only show up during election canvassing season to proselytise

them to vote. According to Chapman (2019), many citizens do not participate in elections because they think that the political system is unresponsive to their needs. Poor or lack of service delivery is one of the reasons for their abstinence from voting (Nathan, 2016). In addition, Wade (2017) declares that the lackadaisical voting response from citizens ensues from the perception that their votes do not matter. They are only used as voting cows.

Miracle (2008) indicates that some of the reasons which contribute to voter apathy include, *inter alia*, busyness, scheduling conflicts, illness, forgetfulness, not registered to vote, transportation problems and inconveniences. He further shows that out of all these hindrances, older people from 65 to 74 years of age usually outvote those of any eligible voting group. This occurs primarily because old people comprehend that voting is one of the fundamental tenets of democracy. They also fathom the sacrifices people made in order for this democracy to come into being. Majority of them have, in different ways, experienced oppression prior to 1994. In other words, they know what it feels like to live in bondage hence their unwavering appreciation of exercising their democratic right of going to the polls in large numbers notwithstanding the political infelicities which the country is facing.

4.1 Factors Contributing to the Decline of Votes in South Africa

Tracy (2016) unearthed the following factors which compound low voter turnout in South Africa since the maiden elections in 1994:

4.1.1 Unemployment

South African electorate, mostly the youth, desist from voting because of the unfulfilled promises from the government of the day about the provision of jobs (Tracey, 2016). Daniel (2018) mentions that "According to a report published by The Economist's Pocket World in Figures, South Africa has the highest youth unemployment rate of any other country in the world". According to Carvalho (2019), Statistics SA show, "The unemployment rate in South Africa decreased to 27.1 percent in the fourth quarter of 2018 from 27.5 percent in the previous period. Unemployment rate usually falls in the last quarter of the year due to higher job activity during the festive season. However, a year earlier, the rate of jobless people was lower at 26.7 percent". The figures show that unemployment is a

vexing issue in South Africa. This is one of the main reasons why the youth are despondent about going to the polls. According to Mthethwa (2019), there is a group of young people who do not participate in the elections because they feel that politicians renege on their electoral mandates. He further reveals that 35.7% of South African population is youth. Evidently, "Statistics revealed in Pocket World put the youth unemployment rate at 57.4%". The youth are the ones who are at the coalface of these detrimental challenges. As a result of these vague and oftentimes, empty employment promises by politicians, young people get discouraged from participating in the electoral processes.

4.1.2 Poor Education

Education, particularly when it is sound, is the accumulation of an understood knowledge with skills that are implemented in the actual world for the development of a country. Majority of South African citizens are dissatisfied with the quality of their education because they feel that there is a disjuncture between their needs and the curriculum in that it does not empower them. In other words, the curriculum does not talk to the economic needs of the country hence the advent of the scourge of youth unemployment. Thus, many young graduates roam the streets unemployed because the education system has not equipped them with the necessary skills that are geared towards the socio-economic development of the country. According to Morries (2018), "South Africa's deficient education system is the greatest obstacle to socio-economic advancement, replicating rather than reversing patterns of unemployment, poverty, and inequality and effectively denying majority of young people the chance of a middle class-life". This denotes that education should emancipate people from all their everyday challenges and struggles. It must help them face their tomorrow with a spring in their feet. This is, however, not the atmosphere in South Africa today hence the decline in voter turnout at the polling stations during elections.

4.1.3 Poor Infrastructure and Service Delivery

Poor infrastructure and lack of service delivery are also part of the major concerns which contribute to the low voter turnout in South Africa, and they are inextricably intertwined. These two factors have cause and effect on each other. For example, impassable roads amount to lack of access to critical amenities such as hospitals, clinics, schools and even voting stations (Nhlapo, Anderson & Wentzel, 2007).

According to Mamabolo (2016:28), "Post 1994, South African government has always acknowledged that there were serious infrastructure backlogs, which include roads, health, telecommunications and housing". Regardless of this acknowledgement, robust interventions have not been made on the matter. Neglected road infrastructure is still a major cause of road accidents, low economic output and damage to motor vehicles. Thus, if roads are not drivable, they tend to threaten the lives and livelihood of citizens, and cause them to be dispirited on issues of voting and politics in general.

4.1.4 Corruption and Malfeasance

Corruption and malfeasance are not a blemish in South Africa government only, but they are an eyesore in many governments the world over. The electorate want to elect ethical and corrupt-free leaders; those with impeccable credentials and unquestionable integrity (Adejumobi, 2000). According to the study conducted by Haffajee (2019), one of the young concerned South African citizens who was interviewed by the *Daily Maverick* said:

"I think the government is not fair. To get a job, you must pay a bribe. You only get a job if you know someone. Employers only hire their relatives or friends. I do not know anyone in government. I will vote but I do not know why it is important".

Young people display their impatience and agitation by staying away from voting. Regardless of their hard work at universities, it is still a challenge for them to get a breakthrough in the workplace due to corruption. The perception of this interviewee indicates loss of hope in the government of the day. This is evident when she states, "I think the government is not fair". Beaton (2016) also highlights that politicians are self-serving hence the youth's restlessness about voting for them.

5. Voter Reform

In a country with such a low voter turnout, voter reform is needed. From 1994 to date, things have changed for the worst in terms the voters' zest. Young people have caused an electoral anti-climax by withdrawing *en masse* from electoral participation. Not only is this withdrawal caused by the foregoing factors but they are also engendered by the archaic voting methods which are unappealing to them. Voting venues are also incompatible with their dispensation. Youth want voting to be

digitised in tandem with the fourth industrial revolution that is currently on us. According to Kenski (2005), voting reform intends to bring two kinds of changes: proliferating levels of participation and changing the outcome of the results of the electorate. In addition, reformers hope that the increase in turnout usually brings the electorate approximately to the total number of the population who are eligible to vote. Mehlape (2016:15) corroborates this point by stating that "there is a need for voter education in South Africa before the actual election process takes place". Voter education assists in communicating "information about when, where and how they [voters] should register to vote" (Mehlape, 2016:23).

Benda (2009) states that young people have long been identified as the collective of electorates who disengage from electoral participation. The study conducted by Miracle (2008) affirms that older voters (65-74) perpetually form part of the electoral participation than any other age group. This reveals that older people do not have problems voting as compared to the youth. Wade (2017) agrees that the reason behind the disengagement of youth in the electoral participation is because voting cannot be done electronically. According to him, electronic voting is relevant for young people as many of them spend most of their time online. In addition, Kenski (2005) highlights that, "As we enter the new millennium and look to technology to rejuvenate the efficacy of and enthusiasm towards electoral participation, it may be that internet voting will become the main feature of 21st century elections". Wade (2017) and Kenski (2005) perceive internet voting as a convenient platform that can improve youth participation in elections. It is an established fact that most of the youth spend much of their time online. As a result, this new voting reform can be accommodative in that it resonates with them. Mbenga (2015) assents that, "the opportunity that the internet possesses, for example, allows the youth to use new social media for political discussions and conversations". This normally leads to the formation of public opinion, in some instances, which usually raises people's awareness about the importance of electoral participation.

6. Methods and Materials

The paper utilised qualitative research method guided by a case study of Mankweng community. Researchers accumulated data from a randomly

sampled number of fifteen (15) members extracted from the total population of twenty-eight (28) eligible voters in Mankweng area. The aim of this random sampling was to establish reasons which drive citizens to either vote or desist from voting. Open-ended interviews were used to gather authentic data which is not limited by the discussion and engagement of the researchers and the participants. Data which was gathered from participants was thematically analysed. Thematic analysis permits researchers to form themes from data collected in order to analyse results. Through open-ended interviews, researchers intended to understand factors which contribute to the decline of voter turnout in South Africa.

7. Results and Discussion

This paper adopted qualitative research as a method of accumulating data. In this case study of Mankweng community, participants were incorporated through random sampling. Researchers intended to find out people's perceptions of electoral participation using the randomly selected participants as cases in point. They, furthermore, wanted to understand why people register to vote but later on refrain from doing so. Moreover, they also sought to examine factors which encluse or disclose them from voting. Open-ended interviews were used by the researchers to in order to get data from participants.

7.1 Have You Registered to Vote?

Out of fifteen (15) eligible voters, only six (6) were not registered to vote. Their reasons encapsulated, *inter alia*, the following: commitments, misunderstanding of politics and lack of interest. One of the participants was a student at the University of Limpopo. This student did not see the need to be part of the electoral enterprise. According to him, there is no point in voting.

"Throughout the year, politicians are very silent and nowhere to be found. It is only during the time of elections where they commence to do societal visits. This proves that, it is actually about them than the people they claim to be leading".

From this participant's view, it is clear that politicians are perceived to be self-centered, egocentric and selfish. This is one of the contributing factors that dissuade people from voting.

7.2 What Has Influenced Your Decision?

Researchers asked one of the eligible participants who did not register to vote about what has influenced the decision not to do so. The participant who is 23 years of age responded:

"The government makes a lot of promises and eventually fails to fulfil them. They only respond when we go on strike. It is pointless to even vote. The people we put in power only remember us when they need our votes. Once they win the elections, they do not come back. Infrastructure is very poor in our community. The same goes for service delivery. Crime has escalated. The vast majority of young people are unemployed. However, the government and the so-called politicians are doing nothing about it".

The participant referred the researchers to the recent crime scene that transpired in Polokwane to indicate to them the extent to which voting is fruitless to him, particularly when criminals brazenly murder law-abiding citizens with impunity.

7.3 Are You Satisfied with the Current Government?

Each participant, in the study, was not satisfied with the performance of the current government. Their major concerns revolved around unemployment and poor service delivery. One of the elders in the community of Mankweng who kept her name anonymous said:

"The government promises us jobs, but never delivers. Corruption is prevalent. They only hire those whom they know. As a result, I do not see the reason why I should waste my time to vote for a political party that does not care about me".

The issues which are faced by the members of the community are very serious. They massively affect voter turnout in an adverse manner. People are discontent with the current government. They feel undone by it hence the erosion of interest to vote.

7.4 How Long Have You Been Voting?

From the fifteen (15) participants, two (2) elders have been voting since 2000. Even though they were appreciative of the social grant they get from

government, unemployment remained a concern to them. They asserted:

"The social grant from the government is helping. However, it is not enough. Our children attend school but eventually fail to get employment. Universities are no longer our hope. Our children go to universities and come back home the same way they left. This matter gives us sleepless nights".

Poor quality of education negatively influences voter turnout. A university student aged 24 stated:

"I am doing my Masters in English Studies and PGCE with UNISA, hoping to get employment. As a first-time voter, I wish the political party that I am going to vote for will make a difference. It is heart-breaking to be having qualifications but without employment. Our parents are losing hope in our education system. And voting is becoming irrelevant because politicians do not assist with anything".

7.5 Are You Satisfied with the Methods of Voting Utilised in the Country?

Out of all the fifteen (15) participants, those who were eligible to vote but opted not to register wished that voting was done online. When they were asked about their perception of internet voting, they literally recommended that it is perfect because it saves time and money. Participants complained about queues at the voting stations. One of them responded:

"Even though I wished to vote, my schedule sometimes would not allow me. However, if it was internet voting, we would create time to vote as it is convenient".

Nevertheless, older people in the study did not recommend it. They preferred their old method of voting even though the lines are tiring.

7.6 Education

Education is a key to the prosperity of any country while the educated youth of any country foreshadow a bright future for that country because the youth are the custodians of tomorrow. However, participants in the study hold a contrary view because they claim that South African education system is of questionable quality hence the unacceptably

high unemployment rate of young graduates. The economy cannot absorb these youth because of lack of articulation between the job market and the education system. Students must be offered curriculum that will enable them to be instantly employed after completing their studies. One of the participants said:

"I have a daughter who has graduated. She has been applying for jobs and nothing is happening. If the education system was that important, why is she home like she has never attempted to become anything in life? This is the reason why it is not convincing for me to vote".

Citizens have lost hope in the country's education system and government in general, hence the decline in voter turnout at the polling stations during elections. Researchers have, through this study, discovered that South African citizens are dejected with the education system. This is one of the contributing factors to the decline of votes.

7.7 Service Delivery

Service delivery is also one of the almost insurmountable challenges faced by the community of Mankweng. Participants elucidated that during the campaigning season political parties deliver enticing speeches about the content of their manifestos but quickly renege on those promises once they are elected into office. Roads were one of the examples given by the participants. They complained that their roads were full of gaping potholes, some were left incomplete (*bemuda* roads), some were swept away by rains and were left in a state of disrepair. All these service delivery bottlenecks compel residents of Mankweng to be nonchalant about electoral participation. One of the eligible unregistered voter participants responded that:

"Whether I vote or not, that will not make a difference. These people have their own motives. T-Shirts will not give us a better life. It seems as if they buy us with their T-Shirts while avoiding our wellness".

The common finding from all the participants is that politicians are inward looking. They get into politics for self-gain not to serve the people. This self-serving practice among politicians is the main reason why people have lost their voting appetite because, to them, whether or not they vote, the *status quo* will remain the same; unchanged.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

The steady decline in voter turnout has perpetually been identified since 1994 to date. This study elucidated some of the factors which contribute to the loss of voting appetite by many South Africans. Youth are the major culprits in this voter apathy exercise because they have and are still withdrawing in droves from electoral participation notwithstanding the reality that voting is one of the fundamental democratic rights. This is because they (youth) are, of all the age groups in South Africa, the most hard-hit by unemployment despite their high qualifications. The study found that the youth and the general South African citizenry epitomised by the elderly people of Mankweng, fervently believe that the government does not duly add value to their lives. As a result of this profound concern, South Africa is encountering low voter turnout from her people.

Prior to 1994, many South Africans were disenfranchised on the basis of colour, race and creed. However, in the post-apartheid era, universal suffrage is granted. The study established that it is imperative to participate in elections even though majority of young people hold a contrary view because of factors which have been outlined in the better part of this article. These youths are, however, unaware of the fact that by being election bystanders, they are part of the problem. They are complicit to the politicians' criminal betrayal of the people's trust. They should know that elections are a bloodless, non-violent, democratic and civil way of putting into power or out of power of governments. According to the study conducted by Tracey (2016), there are four fundamental areas and opportunities that can persuade the youth and citizens in general, to participate in elections:

8.1 Meaningful Engagement with the Youth

This study revealed that some of the youth withdraw from the electoral participation due to political misunderstanding which leads them to blindness about the necessity to vote. Therefore, politicians, government, non-governmental organisations and the business sector must ensure that they organize seminars, workshops, and effective dialogues with citizens on voter education. This initiative will permit citizens to speak about their concerns, dreams and visions about the kind of government they envisage and how it should be voted into power. This will

rekindle their interest in voting as they shall have gained insight into what voting entails.

8.2 Voting Reform

It has been two decades and a half since the demise of apartheid. Times have rapidly evolved. This study found that, today, youth spend most of their time online. This technological development is, unfortunately, not fully manifested in the South African voting system hence these youth's frustration with voting. It is because they consider it (voting system) boring, inconvenient and outdated because it is still, mainly, manual. This study, therefore, recommends that scholars, IT specialists and political researchers do more research on the possibility of introducing a user-friendly internet voting system which will accommodate majority of voting South Africans, most importantly the elderly, the disabled and the disadvantaged. This will help galvanise people, particularly the youth, into participating in the electoral processes as this digitised voting system will serve as a drawcard.

8.3 The Necessity for Various Stakeholders, Government and Politicians to Find Innovative Ways to Engage the Youth in the Elections

Social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram occupy the better part of the time of the South African youth. These platforms can be used innovatively and effectively to engage the youth. As youth participation in the use of different social media platforms proliferates, chances of convincing them about the importance of voting as a democratic right, using these social media platforms, will be heightened.

8.4 Review of Existing Civic and Voter Education Programmes in Schools

Accessible information on civic and voter education in schools can bring more awareness to the youth. As they comprehend why they should vote, chances are that they will become active participants in the elections, and politics of the country in general. This approach is recommended because a country with a vision, invests in its youth. The more they are informed, the better chances of their involvement in the electoral process of their country. This will improve voter turnout at different polling stations during the elections. Patriotism will also be harnessed by this initiative.

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The Role of Internal Communication in the Morale of Staff and Improvement of Productivity: A Case of the University of Venda

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Abstract: This paper aimed to evaluate the role of internal communication in staff morale and improving institutional productivity at the University of Venda. A sample of 523 participants was chosen to fully represent the staff. The data was collected through both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The appropriate research methodology and techniques were identified and used to gain a further intuition into the role of internal communication in the morale of staff and improvement of productivity. The questionnaires were physically administered by the Researcher. The levels of communication were used in the paper. These levels of communication include upward, downward and lateral/horizontal. The results of the paper show that the internal communication system of an institution plays a vital role in the morale of staff and improvement of productivity which in turn contributes to the effective management and governance of an institution. The paper revealed that internal stakeholders are rarely consulted in decision-making processes, for them to support the policies. The paper also revealed that when internal stakeholders are poorly informed, they may lose confidence in the institution, particularly the executive leadership and that could negatively affect their morale more especially when they are not consulted on matters that affect them and the institution. The paper further revealed that poor bottom-up communication can result in employees failing to understand the expectations of the institutional leadership which could eventually lead to a communication vacuum. The paper recommends effective and constant communication with internal stakeholders.

Keywords: Internal communication, Staff morale, Institutional productivity, Motivation, Governance, Management

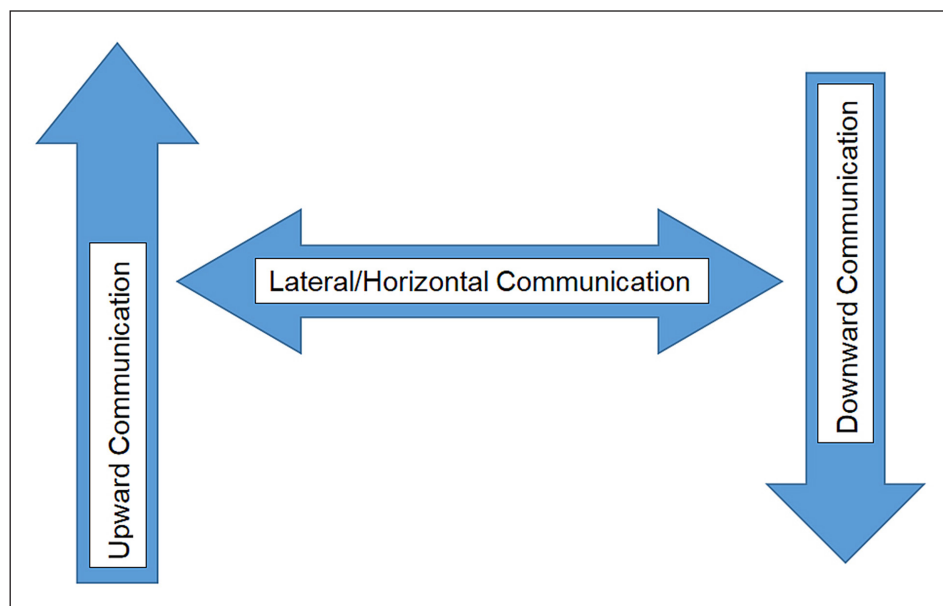
1. Introduction

Communication is considered the lifeblood of institutions. This implies that in the absence of effective internal communication, institutions could struggle to achieve their intended objectives. This is mainly due to the fact that if the leadership do not involve all members of the institution in matters that affect them, including working conditions, the staff morale would be negatively affected and productivity within the institution would decline. According to Mersham and Skinner (2005), organisational communication is the lifeblood of any institution. They maintain that institutions would cease to exist if there are no processes for effective communication. They further state that effective use of communication tools and well managed and motivated employees within the institution are more productive. It will be highly impossible to achieve organisational goals without effective communication tools which are accessible by all stakeholders. No single department within an institution can operate in isolation, without interacting with sister departments. This implies that departments should operate in a coordinated

manner and there should be effective and accessible communication tools in order to achieve better management and governance as well as improved staff morale. This could be achieved by encouraging regular and constant interaction between the departments.

2. Levels of Communication

Through effective communication processes, internal stakeholders will be able to understand their respective roles as well as the strategic direction of the institution. Otherwise if communication processes within institutions of higher learning are poor, the end result will be that there will be high level of uncertainty among internal stakeholders, leading to low morale. Understanding of stakeholder's communication roles is possible when relevant communication tools are utilised to communicate (Greenberg & Baron, 2011; Jones, 2011; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Stromback, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) have shown communication in the following three distinct directions in Figure 1 on the following page.

Figure 1: Levels of Communication

Source: Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008)

When employees are given the opportunity to participate in the entire business process of the institution, they tend to take ownership of their work. This however does not necessarily mean that they need to sit in decision making committees. What is of critical importance to employees and other internal stakeholders is to constantly communicate decisions with them using communication tools that will easily and effectively reach them (Hamilton, 2008; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008; Jones, 2011; Wicks, 2015; Bode, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Stromback, 2017). Effective management and governance at institutions of higher learning is easily achieved in environments where internal stakeholders believe that they are valued by management (Bergstrom, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017). This could be experienced when proper communication tools are used to interact with internal stakeholders. This will encourage and motivate employees to stay in their respective jobs for a long time (Bergstrom, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017). Institutions that have effective communication tools hardly experience resistance to change within internal stakeholders. In order for the institutions of higher learning to achieve their objectives effectively, it is of vital importance to make provision for internal stakeholders to be involved in decision making committees through their representatives (Baker & Gaut, 2002; Hamilton, 2008; Konopaske & Matteson, 2011; Jones, 2011; Walker, 2015; Bergstrom, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017).

There is no doubt that communication is considered as the glue that holds institutions together, more especially when there is constant or regular sharing of information. Communication tools play a vital role in effective management and governance and this also depends on the level of interpersonal communication within the institution. Communication becomes effective when stakeholders are consulted and involved in determining communication tools that effectively convey messages to different target audience (Konopaske & Matteson, 2011; Jones, 2011; Bergstrom, 2016; Boulianne, 2016; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

2.1 Upward Communication

According to Barker and Gaut (2002), upward communication refers to a situation in which a subordinate sends a message to a line manager. There are instances where subordinates communicate valuable information to management or line managers through this process. Subordinates are also able to express their concerns through the same process (Barker & Gaut, 2002; Fenech, 2013; Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Stromback, 2017). Upward communication is considered as another platform to allow subordinates to make inputs in the management and governance of the institutions using various tools of communication. This arrangement minimises conflicts and tensions because subordinates will have the opportunity to participate in decision making processes. In

some institutions, internal stakeholders are represented in decision making committees by elected representatives who carry the mandates of their respective constituencies when participating in decision making committees (Barker & Gaut, 2002; van Staden *et al.*, 2005; Smith, 2006; Hamilton, 2008; Bright, 2016; Gottfried *et al.*, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

2.2 Downward Communication

Downward communication is a process of communication that is initiated by the line managers at the institutions. Line managers usually communicate with subordinates when they assign them various tasks to perform. It is of great importance to ensure that the message that is communicated is clear and that the line manager should ensure that the recipient understands the message in accordance with the expectation of the sender of the message. During this process, provision should also be made for subordinates to provide feedback about matters that affect them for better performance of the institutions of higher learning. Making provision for feedback is perceived as being effective in minimizing tensions between line managers, institutional management and subordinates as well as improving morale (Van Staden *et al.*, 2005; Hamilton, 2008; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017). Downward communication is also important when line managers clarify certain issues about tasks and or assignments given to subordinates. This clarification helps in ensuring that subordinates will have a better understanding of what they are expected to do. Smooth flow of communication will ensure healthy communication within the institution (Van Staden *et al.*, 2005; Smith, 2006; Hamilton, 2008; Wolfsfel *et al.*, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

2.3 Lateral/Horizontal Communication

According to Barker and Gaut (2002), lateral communication refers to communication between departments and divisions within an institution. This also refers to communication among people who are on the same level within an institution. It could take place informally or formally in formal meetings. It is of critical importance to have smooth flow of lateral communication because it also leads to cooperation among internal stakeholders and this also contributes positively to effective management and governance of the institution. It is also important

for departmental heads to cooperate among themselves so that they could also encourage respective subordinates to cooperate for the purpose of effectively achieving institutional objectives (Barker & Gaut, 2002; Hamilton, 2008; Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

3. Institutional Culture

The culture of an institution comprises of accepted ways of doing things. Institutions are mainly made up of people from diverse cultures. Although institutions are made up of people from diverse cultures, it is important to ensure that the institutional culture is aligned to the institution's strategic objectives. It is critical to note that institutions have their unique corporate cultures. These cultures are influenced by individual cultures of internal stakeholders. The culture of an institution plays a vital role in its performance (Fenech, 2013; Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017). It is important to understand that communication is mainly based on the behaviors that happen between the interacting systems. An institutional culture could be the standard practice of using a particular communication tool to communicate with internal stakeholders. For instance, internal stakeholders could be used to the fact that when there is a crisis within the institution, they will receive text messages informing them about the situation on Campus (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2004; Hamilton, 2008; Walker, 2015; Bright, 2016; Scott, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

4. Institutional Climate

Institutional climate plays an important role in the productivity of an institution as well as its management and governance. The institutional communication climate can build or destroy the reputation of the institution. It is important to always create a good climate for internal stakeholders so that they could speak in one voice. This will also avoid a situation where there are internal stakeholders working against the strategic objectives of the institution. This is only possible if the management involves employees in the management and governance of the institution. If internal stakeholders, in particular employees are not involved in the governance of the institution, they tend not to support the vision of the institution which could negatively affect its accomplishment and performance (Hamilton, 2008; Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Gottfried *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

5. Organisational Internal Communication

According to the proponents of organisational communication theory, the internal communication system of an institution plays a vital role in the morale of staff and improvement of productivity which in turn contributes to the effective management and governance of an institution. Internal stakeholders in particular staff tend to perform well and motivated in a situation where the tools and channels of communication are open (Komodromos, 2014; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Gottfried *et al.*, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017). Employees' morale could be improved by merely involving them in decision making processes and regularly communicating with them about the strategic direction of the institution (Seitel, 2004; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Scott, 2017). Institutions need to create a positive internal climate and effective tools of communication. In order to achieve this, institutions should create or develop internal communication strategies that are responsive to the needs of employees. Employees are considered the most important assets of the institution and they play a vital role in the effective management and governance of institutions (Peter, 2015; Walker, 2015; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). Employees who are well informed are always satisfied and this leads to effective management and governance of the institution as well as improved morale and productivity. It is therefore important for management to take the concerns expressed by employees seriously (Seitel, 2004; Bright, 2016; Gottfried *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

5.1 Communication Between Management and Employees

Hendrix (2001) defines employee communication as all communications between management of an organisation and its employees. In order to determine the satisfaction of employees within an institution, it is of primary importance to conduct a survey on the perception of staff within an institution. According to Theaker (2001), if such surveys could be conducted, it is likely to increase the employee knowledge of organisational activities and policies and the employee attitudes towards the organisation would be enhanced favorably (Walker, 2015; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Stromback, 2017). Organisations should have good

public relations systems in order to be productive. According to Skinner (2003), the reputation of a good employee has to be earned. The atmosphere within an organisation plays an important role in the morale of employees and organisational productivity. The atmosphere within organisations has a vital bearing on the morale of employees. It is therefore important for institutions to ensure that there is a conducive environment for employees to have a fair understanding of their job and institutions (Skinner, 2003; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Scott, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

According to Smith (2006), internal communication is imperative for the effective management and governance of institutions irrespective of the size of the institution. Most institutions experience corporate turmoil and unrest as well as protests due to amongst other ineffective communication. Due to differences between management and employees, there is always tension and the loyalty of employees to their institutions declines (Belch & Belch, 2012; Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017). Apart from publications that are intended to keep employees informed and updated on the activities taking place within the institution, it is of primary importance to have regular meetings with employees or their representatives. In order to improve productivity at institutions of higher learning, it is of primary importance for employers to devise strategies of communicating with employees (Smith, 2006; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017).

5.2 Effective Internal Communication

In order to achieve organisational goals, it is important to maintain healthy communication between management and staff at various levels within the institution. Most institutions tend to make a mistake of neglecting internal stakeholders and focus more on external stakeholders. For instance, when internal stakeholders learn about strategic and critical decisions taken by the institution, through the media (Walker, 2015; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Scott, 2017). It is therefore of primary importance for communication practitioners to play their role of ensuring that institutions communicate with internal stakeholders who are considered to be the most important resource. Institutions sometimes create the right climate and make provision for appropriate tools to motivate employees (Du Toit *et al.*, 2003; Skinner, 2003; van Staden *et al.*, 2005; Smith,

2006; Botha *et al.*, 2007; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017). Management should take into cognisance that employees have an important role to play in maintaining a positive image of the institution. This could be achieved if employees are kept abreast of the developments and activities taking place within their respective institutions (Du Toit, 2003; Bode, 2016; Bright, 2016; Gottfried *et al.*, 2017; Stromback, 2017).

6. Overcoming Challenges to Improve Organisational Communication

Communicators who are effective endeavour to ensure that they convey messages that are relevant to the target audience. They do this through amongst others learning from their mistakes. For instance, if they do not get a response to their requests, they tend to change the approach. It is however of primary importance to consider reasons as to why the messages are not responded to. The communication tools used vary from stakeholder to stakeholder (Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). In order to use relevant tools, it is important to know the target audience so that relevant tools could be identified and used for various stakeholders. Successful communicators possess some of the qualities below: (Soroka, 2012; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

6.1 Precision

When conveying messages, they ensure that they create a meeting of minds so that the target audience could share the same sentiments. In order to achieve effective communication, it is important for the sender of the message to ensure that the message is crafted in such a way that it will be well understood by the receiver (Shen & Kim, 2012; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). This could be possible if the sender of the message puts him/herself in the position of the intended recipient of the message. It is also important for the sender of the message to take into cognisance how the intended recipient would feel about the message and to ensure that the communication tools used will be easily accessible. This implies that when messages are crafted, the sender of the message should strive to respond to anticipated questions that might arise upon receipt of the message by the intended recipient (Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

6.2 Credibility

Effective communicators are believable. The target audiences are made to have faith in their messages and their information is trusted. Although the tools which are used also play an important role, provision of accurate information all the time plays an important role in making the recipients to believe the sender of messages. The tools of communication also play an important role in ensuring credibility. For instance, if an institution has a weekly or monthly publication, there could be readers who would not like to miss a single issue of the publication (Belch & Belch, 2012; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). The reason being that, the accuracy of the information provided had made such readers believe that the publication is credible. It is therefore important to ensure that such credibility is maintained by always providing accurate information. The same applies to television news, there are people who would not like to miss the news and some people prefer to have television in their offices so that they should not miss important information (Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

6.3 Control

Effective communicators have the ability to shape the responses of the target audience. They are able to make the target audience laugh or take action. Messages are communicated with intentions. It is therefore important to know the target audience in order to identify relevant communication tools and craft relevant messages for respective stakeholders. This could only be possible if the sender of the message anticipates how the message would be received and interpreted by the intended target recipient. This is also important for someone who chairs a committee, more especially during meetings. The Chairperson of the meeting should be in a position of controlling the meeting by amongst others effectively reading the minds of the participants. This could also minimise tension because, whenever statements are uttered, the Chairperson or any other participant will be in a position of anticipating the reactions of the participants or members of the committee (Miller, 2014; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

6.4 Congeniality

Effective communicators create pleasant relations with the recipients of message. Irrespective of

whether that target audience is in agreement with them or not, they are able to command the respect of recipients. Target audience or recipients of messages are able to work with them regardless of their views. There is a saying that people differ to agree (Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017). It is for this reason that in a committee set up, it is practically impossible for all committee members to be in agreement with all matters for discussion and in a situation where one member has a view which is contrary to the views of other members it does not mean that they fight. The same applies to an interview; it is unlikely to find that the whole selection committee is in agreement with the appointment of a particular candidate. However, the successful candidate would be offered the position despite the fact that there are some members who are not in agreement (Miller 2014; Walker, 2015; Dimarco, 2017; Kapur *et al.*, 2017; van Ruler *et al.*, 2017).

7. Results and Discussion

Questionnaires were directed to a sample population consisting of academic, administrative and service staff of the University of Venda. The results of the paper were then correlated with the literature review and the organisational communication theory. The analysis revealed that the majority of staff believed that effective communication can improve the morale and productivity in the workplace. The paper also revealed that staff felt that they were not effectively communicated with mainly due to poor access to various communication tools used at the University of Venda.

The paper revealed that in some instances, available tools of communication are not effectively being utilised. For instance, if a staff member submits a request for purchasing an equipment, which is critical for his/her performance, whoever is responsible for processing the request could take very long time without providing feedback about progress, to the end users. Despite availability of communication tools like e-mails, and telephones, some end users had to make follow-up with responsible personnel. This situation negatively affects the performance of staff in particular and the entire institution in general. In order to avoid this situation, there should be guidelines on internal communication including timelines for providing feedback. It is also of vital importance to have effective monitoring and evaluation system within the institution. The use of social

media as official communication tools has been recommended by the majority of respondents.

The paper further revealed that internal stakeholders respond to messages as and when they feel like doing that without any sense of urgency. Some respondents indicated that they view and respond to their e-mails at least once per day. Some access their e-mails more than a day or some days later. This could lead to poor performance and ineffective management and governance. In order to address this situation, the institution should make available communication tools to all internal stakeholders and ensure that they are able to access e-mails even through mobile devices which are portable. As a result, staff could be able to access messages even when they are off campus.

The paper also revealed that a very small percentage of internal stakeholders are familiar with available communication strategy and policies. Although some respondents indicated that the information about the policies and other communication tools is brought to their attention during new staff orientation sessions, the institution should ensure that there are campaigns to familiarise all stakeholders about available communication tools and their effective use.

The majority of service staff indicated that they only receive limited information about activities taking place within the institution through their respective supervisors. In order to keep all stakeholders abreast of developments taking place within the institution, there should be weekly briefing sessions at departmental and or school level. The university management should also consider having regular staff engagement sessions. This could help to ensure that internal stakeholders are familiar with the strategic direction of the institution. The paper also revealed that there are few tools that the university makes use of without having given internal stakeholders the opportunity to make inputs on the determination of such tools of communication. In order to address this matter, the university should list all available tools to communicate information and get buy-in about the use of such tools. For instance, if the agreement between the university management and staff is that information will be communicated through e-mails, sms, Univen Radio, website, weekly e-newsletter, messages should consistently be communicated using all these tools. This implies that if some stakeholders could not receive the message

from one or two tools, they would certainly be able to access the message through other tools. It is further recommended that internal stakeholders should receive regular training on communication.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper revealed the importance of having effective tools of communication to ensure flow of information within an institution to keep employees updated on the activities taking place within the institution as well as employee motivation. All these are manifestations of effective management and governance at institutions of higher learning. It was evident through the literature that if communication channels are open, staff morale could improve, and institutions can operate in a productive manner. It was explicitly demonstrated that communication should not only be one way. This was demonstrated through different levels of communication which are upward, downward and lateral or horizontal. It is worth reiterating that organisational communication is significant and it focuses on amongst others upward, downward and lateral communication. The paper emphasised the importance of being specific when communicating, using various tools of communication to communicate same messages, like following-up phone calls with confirmation e-mails. This helps to ensure that the message sent is well received and correctly interpreted. As reflected in this paper, there is no doubt that in order for institutions to achieve effective governance and management, there is a serious need for competent communicators and identification as well as the use of relevant tools of communication. It is therefore imperative for institutions to have people who can follow and give instructions, accurately listen, get along with fellow employees, work well in teams and have the ability to critically solve problems to have a well-functioning and productive institution. Efficient organisational communication entails knowing how to exchange information in a professional manner, working with people from diverse backgrounds as well as being able to communicate in an appropriate manner with internal stakeholders of the institution.

Through effective and regular communication some problems can be avoided within organisations and staff morale could be improved. It is therefore recommended that institutional leadership should have regular assemblies like open forum sessions where all staff could get the opportunity to engage on matters of strategic importance.

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How Critical is Government Commitment and Support for a Successful Implementation of Land Reform Program? A Review of Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy in South Africa

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Abstract: The South African government has introduced a series of land reform programs to balance the injustices of the past, improve land use efficiency, and to ensure that the land that is allocated to the disadvantaged people is used effectively. Land reform program has generated a mixture of impacts and socio-economic consequences in South Africa. The study was conducted in the Mopani District of Limpopo Province. Data was collected through interviews in a Focus group discussion and Key informants' interviews. This article argues that the land reform program can only work if the government can provide support to the beneficiaries. The South African government should spend money on the development of the emerging black farmers so that they can be able to participate and compete in the market with the commercial farmers. Without assistance from the government, the emerging farmers under Proactive land acquisition strategy are likely to fail because of lack of resources, training, lack of access to information and market. This paper reviews the South African land reform program Proactive land acquisition strategy and the role that the government can play to ensure a successful land reform in the country. The South African government should make land reform a number one priority.

Keywords: AgriSETA, Bureaucracy, Local government, Monitoring and evaluation, Rural development

1. Introduction

Government have a significant role and responsibility to provide the necessary support to the black emerging farmers with funding, training and management or business skills; however, it remains fragile to say the least (Sebola; 2018:2). South African black emerging farmers are struggling because of finance and other support to be able to run their farming businesses. This has a negative impact on land usage under program (PLAS). The success of emerging black farmers is compromised by a lack of financial resources to buy equipment which is required for agriculture activities, lack of technical support and insufficient training. It is imperative that Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) should consider providing training before the commencement of the project so that the beneficiaries are aware of the tasks ahead of them (Kariuki, 2004:40). The beneficiaries of land reform are experiencing plentiful problems when it comes to access to services such as credits/loan, training, extension advice, transport and ploughing services, and veterinary services, as well as input and produce markets (Lahiff, 2007:190).

Those who received training are of the view that the training was inadequate and in most cases, not

available when required. This lack of integrated training of beneficiaries is seen as a contributing factor to the projects perceived as high risk in terms of their viability and management expertise required to manage a farming business successfully. The majority of these emerging farmers do not have the management experience and managing a massive amount of funds and run a farm business without training is a huge responsibility. Government officials are unable to monitor and support the beneficiaries' farming activities. It is crucial that the government should provide prospective farmers with access to land and be able to offer all form of support for production inputs and technical advisory services (Kariuki, 2004:40). Malatji (2018) posits that this is the strategy that was introduced by the South African government to try and accelerate the land reform program, it was adopted in 2006, and it is the current policy that is being implemented for land distribution for to promote emerging black farmers (Sebola, 2018).

2. Land Reform Programmes in South Africa

The government of South Africa decided to adopt the land reform policy, and the aim was to redress the injustices of the past. While the land reform

policy was adopted, it also meant to foster national reconciliation and stability, underpinning economic growth, to improve household welfare, and alleviate poverty (Deninger, 1998). Large numbers of beneficiaries in South Africa are of the view that efficient agricultural production is only possible on a large farm. It is the responsibility of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and provincial government to see to it that land reform becomes a reality, and they should also determine how and where the complementary services are provided (Deninger, 1998). This is the land which was unjustly taken from black people by the minority white farmers, and it should be used for improving the livelihood of the local people (McCusker, 2004)

According to Groenewald (2004), for the government to be able to deal with the problem of threat of food security, there is a severe need for agricultural development, and that will assist in terms of improving agricultural produce and ensuring that previously disadvantaged people have access to land and provided with some agricultural skills. So when formulating land policy, evidence plays a critical role but it is also essential that the government consider the following for an effective policy formulation: proper planning, infrastructure, training and education, support to the potential farmers, as well as the involvement of private and public bodies (Groenewald, 2004). According to McCusker (2004), the reform in South Africa was divided into different programmes, which are as follows:

- **Restitution** – the restitution programme was specifically designed to restore the land to the people who lost it through racial discrimination legislation and practice.
- **Redistribution** – Redistribution was very critical in the sense that it has to provide land to the previously disadvantaged poor community for the residential as well as productive purpose so that the poor people can improve their livelihood and also contribute to rural development.
- **Land tenure reform** – the tenure programme was established to look at the land rights issue.
- **Willing buyer willing seller** – government buy the land only if the seller is willing to sell.
- **SLAG** – Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG), it used to be the primary mechanism

for land redistribution up until 1999 when it was replaced by the then LRAD. This is how the programme was implemented; the State would provide a standard subsidy of R16000,00 per household to be used for acquisition of land. The amount was too small to procure the land and use it effectively.

- **LRAD** – Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development. The LRAD programme was implanted, and the grant allows for previously disadvantaged group or black South African citizens to access land precisely for agricultural purposes. The grant was accessed on an individual basis, per sliding scale from a minimum of R20 000 to a maximum of R100 000, but that depends on the participants' contribution. The farmers had to use the money to cover expenses such as land acquisition, land improvements, agricultural infrastructure investments, capital assets, short-term agricultural inputs and lease options (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2001).

It is fundamentally important to note that the land reform process focuses its attention to certain areas which are, restitution, land tenure reform and land redistribution. With restitution the South African government use to reimburse individuals who have been forcefully removed from their ancestral land. The idea failed and as a result of that, the government realised that the aim and objectives will be unachievable and this lead to the introduction of the redistribution policy with secure land. The aim of the redistribution program was to foster an improved livelihoods and quality of life for previously disadvantaged individuals. However, the initiative of enabling communities to acquire commercial farms did not yield any positive outcomes. People have been waiting in vain and are still waiting with no success but a lot of empty promises from government.

The South African government under the leadership of the ANC, after 1994 at the dawn of democracy saw the need and the importance of land restitution for the purpose of rural transformation and community development. Unfortunately, it is not everybody who lost the land during apartheid regime who was ready to acquire the land. Black South Africans who lost their land/properties needed their ancestral land back for different reasons. Majority of them aimed to utilise land for agricultural production,

subsistence or commercial farming, some wanted it for settlement or for non-agricultural initiatives. Government did not do enough to give people the land back and that frustrated many communities. It is not easy to participate in the domestic or local economy if you do not have land. Under restitution and redistribution black people had hopes that they will finally get their lost land back with the assistance from government, but their dreams did not come to pass.

Land tenure reform is a system of recognising people's right to own land and therefore control of the land. The challenge here was that blacks did not have any land of their own because the land they were promised still belonged to the whites (minorities).

In South Africa redistribution happens to be the most important component of land reform. Initially, land was bought from its owners under the (willing buyer) by the government (willing seller) who are the farmers, and reallocate to the previously disadvantaged communities, in order to maintain public confidence in the land market and also to ensure that the land purchased and redistributed to the beneficiaries is effectively used. At some stage under the WBWS, the government failed to procure the land as per plan and that is where black South Africans started to lose hope on the government of the day. Sometimes those who call themselves owners of land were not willing to sell their land to the government and only sell when the offer is good. The white farmers took advantage of the policy and saw an opportunity to milk the state, their prices kept escalating and made it very problematic for state to procure the land. Willing buyer willing seller was one of the weakest policy because there were whites' people who had land but not for agriculture or farming but because they saw a loophole in government and wanted to make money, they sold the land to government and government spent millions of money for land that is not suitable for agriculture. This caused serious problems because the beneficiaries felt like government is punishing them by giving them land that is not good for agriculture.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 is advocating the idea of equitable share of land. In terms of Section 25(5), the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land. South African

government has failed to provide land as per the constitution. Perhaps there is a need to change or amend the constitution or take land without compensation since the state fail to prioritise. LRAD which replaced SLAG, aimed at developing blacks through agriculture. The only challenge was the implementation because the subsidy was too little, and the emerging farmers could not use the money for production and other farming equipment or develop farming infrastructure. Nevertheless, majority of the poor beneficiaries decided to pool their subsidies and applied for loans so that they can be able to farm, some did not even qualify for the loans and that frustrated them and that is the reason why they stopped farming. The reality is that if the program was meant to develop the historically disadvantaged people, there is a concern about the government's inability to increase the subsidy. There was a need for government to adjust the subsidy high to enable the emerging farmers to realise financial stability and to enable them to use the land effectively. To this end, the government is not committed to take land back to the people who were disposed through the Land Act of 1913. Land reform will never be a success unless there is government intervention pertaining to the land crisis. This programme failed due to lack of commitments and prioritisation in government.

2.1 PLAS, State-Driven (Controlled by the Government)

Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy is a land reform programme which was adopted in 2006. This is currently the available policy programme which is meant for land distribution to promote black emerging farmers in South Africa. According to this strategy, State procure the land and identify the beneficiaries in a lease agreement, in this case, beneficiaries are provided with land, and they must use it effectively so that they can pay the lease amount to the department. Emerging farmers can use the land for production while paying the lease amount as agreed. The beneficiaries are now allowed to lease the land for more than ten years and can even buy such land from the government (Sebola, 2018:5). During the apartheid era, the government used the land as a way of economic and social oppression of black South Africans and land became a central issue and that is why the land question remains critical in South Africa today (Dlamini, 2014). Dlamini further notes that land reform is a necessary condition in South Africa if the country wants to have

a harmonious society. It is essential for the poor or previously disadvantaged people to have access to land and use it effectively to reduce poverty and unemployment.

The majority of emerging farmers under the PLAS programme are not in full production, and there are those who are not producing at all as a result of lack of support from the departments concerned, lack of training and finance. The South African agricultural economy has little or no room for the emerging Black farmers (Chikazunga & Paradza 2012). According to Henning (2010), PLAS and its implementation process are expected to contribute to the improvement of the socio-economic status of the emerging farmers, employment and equity. According to Kloppers (2012), it should also be noted that until the beneficiaries are selected to acquire the land, the Department of Land Affairs must ensure that the land identified is suitable for farming. According to the strategy, if you are a beneficiary and acquire the land, and you do not use it, the department has full authority to take the land back (Kloppers, 2012). It is essential that the farmers are equipped with skills so that they can diversify and concentrate also on other farming activities rather than seasonal production. Skills development plays a vital role in the successful functioning of a farm.

Henning (2010) states that PLAS should be implemented at the local or district level, and must be included in the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process. Cousins (2013) further indicates that the State purchase the land or farms and allocate them to the identified beneficiaries based on 3-5 years' leasehold agreement and later on the lessee will then be offered the opportunity to purchase the farm. The emerging farmers are black South Africans, and they are defined in the following categories:

- They should be small scale farmers who are farming for a living and also selling their agricultural produce at the local market.
- Emerging farmers who are already in farming but on a small scale, but are constrained by land and as well as other resources.

In the local municipality of Ermelo in Gert-Sibande District, for example, the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) was applied to acquire land, mostly

for labour tenants as a way of empowering them (Hall, 2003). According to Kgosiemang and Oladele (2012) in Mkhondo municipality, farmers agree that participation in agricultural programmes will enhance access to land as currently, subsistence farmers can access land through PLAS. The potential farmers under this municipality have access to lease state land and that enable them to continue with their agricultural activities within the leased portion of land. The farmers complain about a shortage of extension officers in the Department Rural Development and Land Reform, and that affect their farming activities, some staff members are under qualified and are unable to render services to the community.

2.2 The Role of Land in Rural Livelihood

According to Chitonge (2013), the role of land reform in South Africa is not only directed in agriculture in general but also on promoting rural livelihood more. It is expected that land reform in rural areas will improve the rural economy and create employment opportunity for the rural unemployed community members. Some of the community members in rural areas are faced with social and economic challenges. In his study, Chitonge (2013) demonstrates that South African land reform has been associated with failure and a decline in agricultural production. In some parts of the rural areas of South Africa, the majority of households are using their land to produce different crops and livestock products for home consumption and sale in order to generate income. Tao *et al.* (2010) demonstrate that in China, the local government leases land to commercial users for the sake of local economic development. When commercial users use the land, they generate more taxes for local governments. This means that the local government is in charge of the local land, and that contributes to the local economic growth.

According to Chitonge (2013) land reform in South Africa has the potential to make some significant improvement in the rural income and employment. Most of the beneficiaries of land reform rely heavily on social grants. Chitonge (2013) points out that the majority of the beneficiaries, more particularly in the rural areas, do not have that aspiration and the capacity to produce at a commercial scale. Most of them are only producing for their household consumption rather than for commercial reasons (Chitonge 2013).

3. Methods and Materials

According to Saunders, Fernandes and Kosnes (2009) research methodology is regarded as a theory of how a research study should be undertaken, it involves the study design and the methods that are used for data collection and data analysis, it also helps to understand why such a study has been undertaken and how the research problem is defined (Malatji, 2017). Relevant oral data was collected employing qualitative research method. The study was conducted in Mopani district municipality, and the researcher used census sampling method to collect data from the emerging farmers or beneficiaries, and purposive sampling was used to select officials from the Limpopo Department of Agriculture and Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Data was collected in a Focus group discussion and individual interviews.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Roles and Responsibilities of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and the Limpopo Department of Agriculture

The Key Informants were asked about the role and responsibilities of the respective departments in the implementation of the PLAS strategy. The whole responsibility of the strategy is in the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. The role of the department is to make sure that the strategy is implemented by way of acquiring and redistributing the farms or land and managing the farms in the form of a lease contract. The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform indicated that they get support from the Limpopo Department of Agriculture.

The Key informants from the Limpopo Department of Agriculture reported that their role starts once a farm has been allocated to a farmer. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform also invites the Limpopo Department of Agriculture officials during interviews of PLAS applicants because they are experts in the field of agriculture. The Limpopo Department of Agriculture also offers technical support in terms of advising what needs to be done for a farm to function well. However, The Limpopo Department of Agriculture cannot continue with its responsibilities until the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform has provided the

necessary approval. The findings can be linked to the views of Zhang and Donaldson (2010) and Tian and Ma (2009) who report that in China the local government is the one which has the responsibility of land reform. In South Africa, the approach is different from that of China. The local government in China is not only responsible for the land lease, but farmers are given more support, and this might be the reason why Chinese farmers are doing better.

3.2 Government Support in Cash or Kind

When coming to the issue of government support, one farmer highlighted that when she received the farm, it was no longer a going concern, and it did not have any equipment. She further indicated that she did not receive any form of assistance from the Limpopo Department of Agriculture except that they brought visitors who came to do exposure on some of their produce. The emerging farmers are of the view that the department officials use them to compile their reports; this was after one field worker from Limpopo Department of Agriculture brought a green book to her to sign to report. She recalls:

"Only to lease the farm, that is how they assisted me, but it was misleading because I am struggling with this farm on my own. I was expecting help from them, like money. I appreciate and acknowledge the lease, but I am losing more money; negative outweighs the positive contributions".

Overall, the respondents indicate that they did not receive any assistance from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. It was a challenge for some of the beneficiaries especially those who are in crop farming because when the officials come to the farm for support, they will bring a small number of fertilisers which do not even cover half of the hectares of land. This is not the kind of support the emerging farmers expected from the department. The emerging farmers will then divert their household money which they are supposed to use to support their families to buy more and extra fertilisers which will cover all the hectares; some will even loan money from their neighbours. This is a clear indication that the government is failing to provide the necessary support either in cash or in kind to the emerging black farmers. As a result of financial constraints experienced by the emerging farmers, their projects fail, and this is an indication that the program is not effective. It is apparent that the current lack of government support in this regard has

the potential to compromise the actualisation of the project's specific goals. A respondent reported that the Limpopo Department of Agriculture officials "will call and ask you how far are you with spring programme because they can help you also with loose products, they call when they do not know where to take the products, so they give you in order to clear their storeroom. This way, they will throw the products at you." Another respondent reported:

"Agriculture officials promise many things, but nothing is done. Last time they came and asked me what problems I have, and I told them that I have a water shortage, and nothing has been done".

One respondent stated that since he took over the farm, he is still waiting to be recapped and that he has waited for too long. According to some of the respondents, they received assistance from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, but they are not happy because the kind of assistance they received was not what they expected. A respondent mentioned that out of 100% the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform assisted him with 2%. The respondent mentioned that:

"they do not negotiate with you; they give you whatever they want to give you, and it will be up to you to decide if you take it or not".

3.3 Identification of Beneficiaries

The respondent from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform mentioned that the process of identification of beneficiaries is complicated in the sense that daily the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is confronted by people who need land for farming. This situation is the single most important about challenges of farming land needs, and subsequently, the department often ends up having a high volume of demand with a minimal supply of land. The annual budget is not sufficient to acquire the land that is available at the market value in order to allocate for the people that are in need. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is experiencing a huge backlog with a database of more than 4500 people that have made applications for accessing agricultural land while the allocated budget to proactively acquire land can usually afford to buy less than 26 farms per year. In other words, the demand for agricultural land is high, whereas the supply of resources to acquire land is often low.

3.4 Training Offered to the Emerging Farmers

The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform indicated that the programme of PLAS requires that there should be a partnership between the emerging farmers and skilled people and companies who can transfer to the emerging farmers the necessary agricultural technical skills and business skills. The respondent mentioned that they also work with the Limpopo Department of Agriculture, which assists in skills training for the farmers. It was further eluded that Agricultural Sector Education Training and Authority (AgriSETA) on the ground assist with skills development. There are diverse support programmes that farmers can tap into if they want to develop their skills set like management skills, land care and other farming related skills. South African government should ensure that the emerging farmers are provided with the training required so that they can be able to continue with their farming activities. Insufficient training to the farmers contributes to their failure, and this also leads to the failure of the strategy. It is of crucial importance that the emerging farmers are equipped with skills; the government should provide and arrange those training. Majority of beneficiaries of PLAS did not receive any form of training; some received training but not sufficient.

3.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform state that they set target annually and five-year targets. It is part of the plan to achieve the targets, and they are supposed to get monthly reports on activities on the farms belonging to the emerging farmers. There are project officers who are required to visit the farms to inspect the farm activities. This respondent further indicated:

"We also expect the beneficiaries to send the reports as and when we need them".

The Key informants from the Limpopo Department of Agriculture mentioned that they do Monitoring and make follow-ups to check on the progress after providing farmers with technical advice. The engineers also make follow-ups after the setting up of infrastructure. However, some of the emerging farmers are not farming since they got the land in 2010/2012 and never received funding from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, so they do not send reports because there

is no production on their farms. The government does not have resources, and that is why some of the emerging farmers are still without funds, so they end up not using their land. These findings are in agreement with the views of Tian & Ma (2009) that the government should ensure that there is adequate supervision of land use. However, from the farmer's sentiments, it appears as if there is inadequate supervision of the emerging farmers. Farmers reported that they take up to six months without being visited by the officials. According to the Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, there is a need for performing impact assessment of the PLAS programme. However, currently, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform carries out the impact assessment. For objectivity purposes, this is an activity that should be outsourced.

3.6 Bureaucracy in Government and its Effect on the Implementation of PLAS Programme

The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform mentioned that there are many committees that each transaction (farm purchase) must go through. Before a property can be acquired, it must be presented to at least six committees in government. There are six structures/committees chaired by the Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform for every piece of land the department wants to acquire. Because of the inefficient operation of the various committees, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform ends up taking periods as long as six months to acquire a property, yet the acquisition time could be much shorter, say maybe two months. This is because some committee sittings are postponed for various reasons, for instance, if the chairperson is absent, the meeting can be postponed to the following month. Therefore, some departmental systems and requirements seem to work against that ability of the PLAS programme to achieve its objectives. This is some of the reasons why the program is not effective; there are so many things involved before the procurement can take place. Imagine a procurement that is supposed to take only three months can take about six months or more. The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform mentioned that it might be much better if the department can consider centralising (Pretoria office) and the decision-making process for land acquisition to enable the achievement of the targets.

3.7 Success or Failure of the Strategy

The Key informants from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform reported that the process of PLAS is moving at a slow pace. According to the respondents, contributing factors to the slow pace of the PLAS program are the bureaucracy in the departments concerned, and the sellers always inflate the prices of their properties. The sellers are taking advantage of the loophole which exists in government, knowing that the government is desperate to achieve the target, which allows sellers to take advantage of the system. One respondent stated:

"One can argue that the State is failing to get its priorities correct. If you know what your priority is, you will focus on it as government, but if you want to focus on everything, you end up not achieving anything at all and only to find that you have wasted resources".

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The beneficiaries of Proactive land acquisition strategy find it challenging to succeed in their farming business because of lack of support from the government. All that is needed for land reform to be a success in South Africa is if the government provide all the necessary support to the black emerging farmers. Emerging farmers lack resources to enable them to maintain their farming enterprises. The South African government should provide not only funding but training and technical support to the emerging farmers. There are those emerging farmers who produce, but the majority of the products produced by these farmers is sold to informal markets with low market value, and this is one of the contributing factors to their failure. The emerging farmers suffer from a lack of market information owing to a lack of communication, tools and support services from the government or officials from the departments concerned. When the emerging farmers are provided with all the support needed, they will be able to create jobs for the local people and contribute to the local economy and assist with food security threats in the country.

The overall success of these projects under PLAS is compromised by the lack of financial resources to buy equipment which is required for agricultural activities. South African government should spend money to develop and support the emerging farmers if the country is serious about land reform, and

this will help emerging farmers to be a commercial farmer. Land should be in the hands of government and farmers lease the land. The emerging farmers are not provided with the necessary training in farming and business management. Several promises were made by the government to train the farmers, but this has yet to be implemented. Usually, these farmers find it very difficult to sustain their farms because of the lack of required farming skills. It is recommended that the government provide the farmers with farming and management skills for a successful implementation of the strategy. The government should prioritise land reform and ensure that the emerging farmers especially those who are in crop farming have access to water, they should be assisted to secure finances so that they can be able to farm and use the land productively. Without funding, emerging farmers will always find it challenging to migrate to commercial farmers.

To be able to farm, farmers must have starting capital and use it for production. Many farmers do not have sufficient capital; they always require government support for grants so they can use the land, a situation which is untenable or unsustainable. It is recommended that the State provide capital to the emerging farmers and monitor how the fund is spent. It is recommended that instead of buying more land for the previously disadvantaged people and failing to sustain them, the government should buy fewer lands and make sure that it supports the few beneficiaries up until they are economically viable before going further and acquiring more land. It is recommended that there should be an effective monitoring or supervision process by the State after handing over the farms to the rightful beneficiaries. Because the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform find it difficult to monitor and evaluate itself, it is recommended that there should be an outside organisation that could monitor and evaluate the department.

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The Effects and Challenges of the South African Cuban Technical Support Program (SACTSP) in the South African Human Settlements Sector

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Abstract: The aim of the paper is to evaluate the effectiveness of the South African Cuban Technical Support Program (SACTSP) as is currently applied in the participating provincial Departments of Human Settlements (Mpumalanga, Western Cape, Limpopo and Free State). The post-apartheid government inherited an urban housing backlog of approximately 1.3 million units at its inception in 1994. This huge backlog was partially contributed by apartheid discriminatory administrations and laws such as the Black (Native) Laws Amendment Act, No 46 of 1937 and the Black Communities Development Act, No 4 of 1984 along with rapid urbanization during the post-apartheid period. In a bid to address past injustice related to housing, it has become necessary for the post-apartheid government to diversify housing delivery approach to include alternative development and delivery strategies, methodologies and products including upgrading of informal settlements, and implementation of People Housing Process (PHP). Amongst other adopted methodology for fast tracking housing service delivery was the South African Cuban Technical Support Programme (SACTSP). The SACTSP is governed by the bilateral agreement and is aimed at recruiting the Cuban Technical Advisors to South Africa to assist in the delivery of sustainable human settlements.

Keywords: Cuban technical advisors, Evaluation, Human settlements, South African Cuban technical support program, Sustainable human settlements

1. Introduction

South African-Cuban relations were established a long time ago between the then liberation movement of the African National Congress (ANC) and the government of the Communist Party of Cuba. The bilateral, political and multilateral relations between South Africa and Cuba are excellent and are underpinned by historical ties forged in the common struggle against apartheid, colonisation and repression. The activism of the relations between these two countries was also evident in South Africa neighbouring countries such as Namibia and Angola (Mill and Williams, 2006:23). The post-apartheid South African democratic government remains a beneficiary of Cuba's on-going assistance in the form of exchange programmes for students in different fields.

Currently, there are close to 1 400 South African students studying medicine at Cuban universities. About 323 South African graduates from the Cuban programme work as medical doctors in various South African hospitals. Over, 40 000 Africans have studied in Cuba, with Cuba offering to cover some of the expenses (Department of International Affairs

and Cooperation, 2016:27). The end of Soviet aid to Cuba created a "special period" where a programme has been set up sending physicians, nurses, dentists, engineers and other professionals to more than 52 countries in the developing world. There are about 1 200 Cuban doctors working on the African continent, including in Angola, Botswana, Cape Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and other areas in the Sahara (Veelen, 2013:11). There are more than 400 architects, engineers, electricians and other technical experts deployed throughout South Africa by various line function departments such as Human Settlements, Public Works and Social Development (Veelen, 2013:17).

In November 2002 the South African government and Cuba concluded an agreement, undertaking to cooperate in Economic, Scientific, Technical and Commercial areas. Subsequent to the signing of this agreement, a bilateral agreement was entered into between the two countries in 2004 on the Employment of Cuban Technical Advisors (CTA's) in the relevant South African Provincial Departments of Housing. The SACTSP programme is based on the

co-operation agreement between the governments of South Africa and Cuba that provides a platform for the provinces to implement the Technical Support Programme. This Agreement was valid for three years and was to be further extended every three years. In November 2013, the bilateral agreement between the two countries was renewed with new areas of cooperation's in the Human Settlements Sector. The Objectives of the Programme as stipulated in the new Bilateral Agreement between the two countries are: to provide a framework to enable the South African government through its competent authority, to make use of the technical services rendered by the CTA's identified by the Union de Empresas Constructor as Caribe (UNECA S.A) within the context of the human settlements programmes launched by the South African Government and, in particular, to achieve the following:

- Technical support, to accelerate the implementation of the People's Housing Process (PHP) projects and other Human Settlements projects;
- Knowledge and information sharing on best practices, for engineers and architects working in human settlements projects;
- Promotion of community participation based on the Cuban experience; and
- Innovative and cost effective implementation based on Cuban experiences (Department of Human Settlements, 2016:42).

The South Africa-Cuba Technical Support Programme is managed through a National Committee comprised of representatives from provinces participating in the programme and the National Department of Human Settlements represented by Technical Capacity Development, International Relations and the PHP chief directorates. The programme is reported to the Joint Bi-National Commission hosted bi-annually between Cuba and South Africa (Department of Human Settlements, 2016a:12). Up to this date, almost 220 of CTA's was recruited from Cuba to work in the South African Human Settlements sector. The South African Cuban Technical Support Programme (SACTSP) was initiated mainly to accelerate the implementation of People's Housing Process (PHP) based on Cuban experience and to improve the lives of housing beneficiaries in South Africa. It remains to be seen if the programme is achieving what it was initiated for, since its inception.

The paper is set to analysis the environment, that led to the origin and the development of the SACTSP, asses (against the international theoretical background) the development and applications of post-apartheid South Africa self-help housing policy with special focus on government Aided Self-help housing and to evaluate, by comparing housing case studies where CTA's were involved in assisting beneficiaries and cases where CTA's were not involved in assisting housing beneficiaries.

The study focused on the evaluation of the effectiveness of the SACTSP in three different provinces (Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Western Cape) participating in the programme. Multiple case studies (Housing projects) were evaluated to determine the value brought by the involvement of the CTA's (through the SACTSP) in the lives of South African's housing beneficiaries. The study was mostly conducted by a comparison between the projects where the Cuban Technical Advisors (CTA's) were involved in building and those where the CTAs were not involved. Multiple sources (triangulation) were used to collect the required data (Yin 2009:120).

2. Literature Review

Much has been written on the origin of self-help in housing (Pugh, 2001:401). According to Pugh (2001:402) self-help housing is as old as humankind. In many cases, the idea of government support to enable families to build their own houses came from the people themselves, and not from governments or international experts (Harris, 1998; 2003). Various researchers have indicated that self-help has been a common phenomenon for centuries in a number of countries (Parnell & Hart, 1999:370), and that aided self-help was lobbied for, and practised, long before the rise of the ideas of Turner in the 1960s and 1970s. Thus, as pointed out by Harris (2003:247), the formulation of ideas on self-help may well be the result of western writers following, rather than leading, international trends. Harris and Giles (2003:180) cite the examples of Puerto Rico and India in the late 1930s and 1940s to illustrate this point. At the same time, aided self-help and the renewed emphasis on this approach in the 1960s and 1970s cannot be considered in isolation from the drive for government involvement in housing. Although there are indications of government involvement in housing before the World War II, the demolition of urban settlements during that war provided a further impetus for direct state involvement in

a post-war period. Soon, government involvement in housing became conventional wisdom. However, international literature suggests that very few countries have actually managed to address their housing problems by means of state-driven approaches (Harris & Giles 2003:167). Government-driven housing has frequently been criticised for being too expensive (Rodell & Skinner, 1983:43), as well as for its peripheral location (Gilbert, 1997:21), the inability to provide enough units, and the lack of cost-recovery for maintenance purposes. It is against this background that Turner's work in Latin America became known (Turner, 1976:77). Turner based his work on a number of principles in respect of housing. In analysing Turner's ideas, one should realise that he theorised against a background of failure of the public sector to provide housing. He used concepts like "dweller satisfaction", "use value", "housing as a process" and "housing as a verb" in his writings (Turner, 1972:146). According to Turner, the value of a house lies in what it does for people rather than how it looks from the outside. He suggested that the function of a house cannot be equated with the material standard of the structure (Harris, 1999b:289).

The practical implication of Turner's work is that governments should not provide those aspects of housing which people can provide for themselves. Consequently, Turner was a proponent of site-and-service schemes (referred to as "aided self-help" schemes) in terms of which governments had to take responsibility for the provision of basic services, and individual households were responsible for the construction of the housing unit (Pugh, 2001:89). This variety has been practised world-wide for centuries by low and high income households (Hardy & Ward, 1984:217; Masotti *et al.*, 2011:75). The second form of self-help, which can be termed "aided self-help", comprises an approach in which site and service schemes have played a crucial role. The state assisted, to a large extent, to create an environment in which people could build for themselves. Commonly, these two forms of self-help have been motivated by a range of political economic arguments. For example, they reduce the costs for governments, and transfer costs to the individual, while at the same time making housing more affordable to the individual households (Masotti *et al.*, 2011:170). Thirdly, however, the world has also seen self-help implemented through institutional organisations. Typically, this has involved the establishment of housing cooperatives. Such cooperatives were commonly used in India,

Jordan, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Thailand, Iran, Cuba, Egypt, Botswana, Zimbabwe and Zambia (Khurana, 2001:23).

Self-help housing strategies have changed throughout different periods of times (Landman & Napier, 2010:11). While self-help housing may come naturally for the poor, its success requires different forms of assistance from NGOs and governmental agencies (Sengupta, 2010:324). Ideally, self-help approaches would include providing technical advice to facilitate citizen participation in different aspects of housing development. Such supports have long been advocated in many housing forums and academic circles. It is in this context that looking at Cuba's success in codifying and extensively implementing a participatory design method may provide valuable lessons on how citizen participation in housing processes can be implemented and may suggest solutions to issues that have been identified elsewhere. It is of great importance for the purpose of this research to look at the dynamics of Cuban housing policy as it forms a foundation upon which the existence of the SACTSP was established.

3. Methods and Materials

Different research problems lead to different: (a) research designs, (b) methods, (c) and interpretations of the data, which has been collected and analysed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:97). This study is generally an evaluation/tory study, which has adopted a case study approach where the SACTP in the human settlements is the point of focus. The design is aimed at answering the question of whether the SACTSP has been successful or effective in resolving the problems that it was meant to address. The understanding of this concept throughout this study is in line with the commonly accepted definition provided by Rossi *et al.* (2004:69) who defined program evaluation as the use of social research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs in ways that are adapted to their political and organisational environments and are designed to inform social action to improve social conditions. According to Mouton (2006:304), the main aim of any outcome and product evaluation study is to establish whether the intended – but also other unintended – outcomes of the program or strategy have materialized. The impact or outcomes of the program or strategy could either be short, medium or long term. This study employed mixed methodologies

Table 1: Size of the House

Size	CTA	Non-CTA	Total
40m ²	4 (7.0%)	8 (19.0%)	12 (12.1%)
41m ²	-	8 (19.0%)	8 (8.1%)
42m ²	3 (5.3%)	26 (61.9%)	29 (29.3%)
50m ²	50 (87.7%)	-	50 (50.5%)
Total	57 (100.0%)	42 (100.0%)	99 (100.0%)

Source: Authors

using data collection instruments such as sample, documents, questionnaires, and interviews in order to collect rich data.

3.1 Research Strategy: Procedures and Study Areas

The research design of this study is a multiple Case Studies approach. Initially the scope of the study was related to three provinces participating in the SACTSP, which are Mpumalanga (MP), Western Cape (WC), and Limpopo (LP). The intention was to have both the control group and the intervention group in the same province. Due to the over usage of the CTA's in these provinces the researcher decided to use Gauteng Province (GP), a non-participating province in the programme, as a control group. This is also due to the fact that the province (Gauteng) is also commonly known for publicly criticising the effectiveness of the SACTSP programme. It is again the only province with three metropolitan municipalities with existing effective governing structures with authorities to decide on the development of their areas. Data was collected in three housing projects from the three Gauteng Metropolitan Municipalities Tshwane, Ekurhuleni and City of Johannesburg. The selected projects were Mamelodi Extension 5 in Tshwane, Villa Lisa (Boksburg) in Ekurhuleni and Driekiek Extension 3 in Orange Farm, Johannesburg. The selected projects where the CTAs participated (experimental group) were Chicago Bulls at Strand in Cape Town (WC), Thekwane South Housing Projects, Nelspruit in Mpumalanga and Westernburg at Polokwane in Limpopo Province. In each unit of evaluation, questionnaires to collect data were distributed to the rightful owners of the houses, who were above eighteen years of age (beneficiaries). It is common that each (PHP) project where the CTAs are involved is limited to between eighty and hundred units, and the researcher distributed fifty (50) questionnaires to each project. The participants,

all rightful owners of state subsidies, were identified by means of systematic random sampling (purposive sampling). Interviews with main role players in housing circles were also conducted. The selection is also influenced by what is called the "good enough" rule in formulating evaluation research (Rossi *et al.*, 2012:28). Stated simply the "good enough" rule advocates that the evaluator should choose the strongest possible design from a methodological stand point after having taken into account the potential importance of the results, the practicality and feasibility of each design and the probability that the design chosen will produce useful and credible results (Rossi *et al.*, 2012:33)

4. Results and Discussion

The characteristics of the sample in this paper will be discussed under the following sub headings: *Quality and size of the house; maintenance and repairs; transference of skills by CTAs to beneficiaries; and house value and beneficiaries' interest.* The variables were discussed using frequencies, proportions and means. The items in a construct were assessed using a five-point Likert Scale. The average of each item was calculated and it was used for ranking with the aspect on top being the one with the lowest average in the construct. Items in a construct were averaged to come up with a composite variable which represent all the items in the construct. The graphical techniques used to depict the distribution of the overall scores were the histogram and boxplot. This selection is influenced by the "good enough" rule in formulating evaluation research (Rossi *et al.*, 2012:28).

4.1 Quality and Size of the House

The respondents were asked to indicate the size of the house as shown in Table 1.

Almost half of the respondents, 50.5% indicated that their house was 50m² in size while 29.3% (n=29)

Table 2: The Level of Satisfaction on Issues on Size and Quality of House

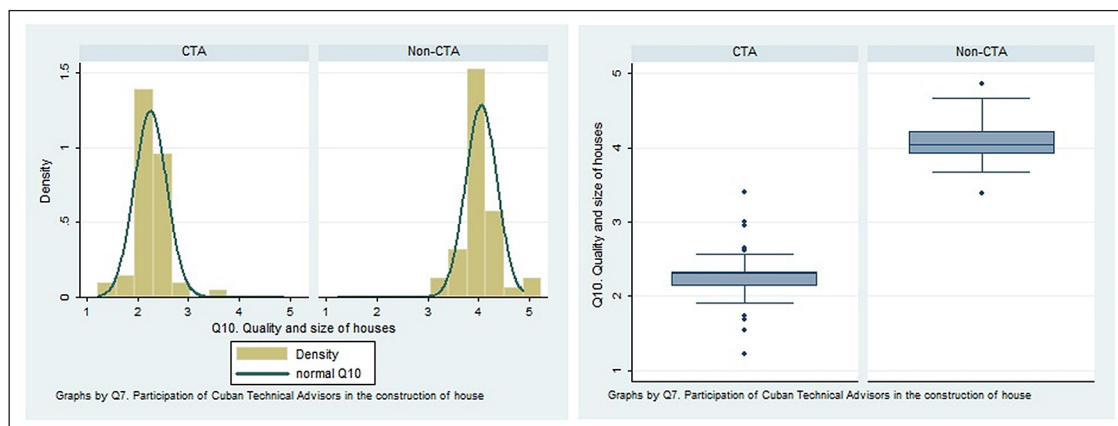
Statement	CTA				Non-CTA			
	Satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Mean	Satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Mean
Q10q. State of walls in your PHP house	92.6% (50)	7.4% (4)	-	1.83	-	7.1% (3)	92.9% (39)	4.12
Q10p. The overall design of the house (e.g. structure)	90.9% (50)	9.1% (5)	-	1.84	-	38.1% (26)	61.9% (26)	3.71
Q10w. The overall service provided by SACTSP	96.4% (54)	3.6% (2)	-	1.88	-	8.3% (1)	92.7% (11)	4.42
Q10r. The material making the windows in your PHP house	89.1% (49)	10.9% (6)	-	1.91	-	9.8% (4)	90.2% (37)	4.00
Q10v. The overall condition of the home/ apartment	96.4% (54)	3.6% (2)	-	1.98	-	7.3% (3)	92.7% (38)	4.00
Q10u. The type of bricks used to build the house	93.0% (53)	7.0% (4)	-	1.98	-	12.5% (5)	87.5% (35)	4.00
Q10n. The adequacy of lighting in the house (e. g. electricity bulbs)	91.3% (42)	6.5% (3)	2.2% (1)	1.98	2.4% (1)	40.5% (17)	57.1% (24)	3.62
Q10o. The adequacy of ventilation in the home (e. g. number of windows)	92.9% (52)	5.4% (3)	1.8% (1)	2.02	-	33.3% (14)	66.7% (28)	3.79
Q10j. The type of material used for the doors	83.6% (46)	12.7% (7)	3.6% (2)	2.11	-	7.3% (3)	92.7% (38)	4.05
Q10m. The type of wood used for the cupboards n the bedrooms	82.2% (37)	15.6% (7)	2.2% (1)	2.18	-	7.5% (3)	92.5% (37)	4.05
Q10a. The overall size of the house	73.7% (42)	22.8% (13)	3.5% (2)	2.21	-	14.0% (6)	86.0% (37)	4.02
Q10s. The quality of floors	78.2% (43)	18.2% (10)	3.6% (2)	2.22	-	10.0% (4)	90.0% (36)	4.13
Q10k. The type of material used in the kitchen	69.1% (38)	29.1% (16)	1.8% (1)	2.25	-	4.8% (2)	95.2% (40)	4.14
Q10l. The type of material used in the bathrooms and toilets	66.1% (37)	30.4% (17)	3.6% (2)	2.34	-	9.8% (4)	90.2% (37)	4.10
Q10t. The adequacy of the space of the PHP houses	69.8% (37)	26.4% (14)	3.8% (2)	2.36	-	7.5% (3)	92.5% (37)	4.05
Q10g. The condition of the bedrooms	59.6% (34)	38.6% (22)	1.8% (1)	2.39	-	2.4% (1)	97.6% (41)	4.17
Q10i. The condition of the toilets and bathrooms	59.2% (29)	22.4% (11)	18.4% (9)	2.49	-	4.8% (2)	95.2% (40)	4.21
Q10h. The condition of the lounge/living area	52.6% (30)	43.9% (25)	3.5% (2)	2.49	-	4.9% (2)	95.1% (39)	4.12
Q10b. The adequacy of the number of bedrooms in the house	49.1% (28)	45.6% (26)	5.3% (3)	2.51	-	9.3% (4)	90.7% (39)	4.07
Q10e. The size of the bedrooms	49.1% (28)	43.9% (25)	7.0% (4)	2.60	-	-	100.0% (42)	4.21
Q10f. The adequacy of the space in the lounge/ living area	38.6% (22)	52.6% (30)	8.8% (5)	2.70	-	4.9% (2)	95.1% (39)	4.12
Q10d. The size of the kitchen	31.6% (18)	57.9% (33)	10.5% (6)	2.77	-	5.3% (2)	94.7% (36)	4.21
Q10c. The adequacy of the number of toilets and bathrooms in the house	31.6% (18)	49.1% (28)	19.3% (11)	2.79	-	11.6% (5)	88.4% (38)	4.05

Source: Authors

indicated that it was 42m². Thus, the majority of the houses are either 50m² or 42m². Only 20% are either 40m² or 41m². The participants were asked to assess their satisfaction on 23 aspects on the size and quality of the house measured on a Likert scale that ranged from 1 (very satisfied) to 5 (very dissatisfied). A mean of less than 2.5 indicated that overall the participants were satisfied while a mean of 3.5 and more meant that the participants were dissatisfied. See Table 2.

Only one item had an average less than 2.5. About 79.4% (n=54) indicated that they were satisfied by the overall service provided by SACTSP and the mean was 2.32. In terms of proportions, more than half of the participants were satisfied with the overall condition of the home/apartment (55.7%); the type of bricks used to build the house (54.7%); the adequacy of ventilation in the home (e.g. number of windows) (53.1%); state of the walls in the PHP house (52%), the overall design of the house (e.g. structure)

Figure 1: Histogram and Box Plot Showing Level of Satisfaction on Size and Quality of House



Source: Authors

(51.5%) and the material making the windows in their PHP house (51.1%). Close to half (49.9%) were satisfied with the type of material used for the doors. On the other hand, 53.9% were dissatisfied with the condition of the toilets and bathrooms and close to half (49%) were dissatisfied with the adequacy of the number of toilets and bathrooms in the house. It can be noted that the level of satisfaction seems to be average as evidenced by most means being close to three. A composite variable for size and quality was calculated by finding the average of the 23 items. The mean and median levels of satisfaction of the respondents were 3.03 and 2.51 respectively. On average, the participants indicated that the level of satisfaction was to some extent satisfactory. The standard deviation was .948 resulting in a coefficient of variation of 31.27%. There is some variability in the level of satisfaction as the coefficient of variation is not close to zero (no variability).

Approximately 68.26% of the participants had an average rate of satisfaction ranging from 2.08 to 3.98 (\pm one standard deviation from the mean). It can be noted that the majority of the participants gave ratings from two to four.

The histogram is bimodal. It shows two groups of people, one that are satisfied with the size and quality of the house and the other that is dissatisfied. The data is not normally distributed and this is supported with the box plot with a longer tail to the right. From the boxplot it can be observed that more than 50% of the participants had a rating less than three. It can be concluded that the participants are on average satisfied with aspects on the size and quality of houses. See Figure 1 above.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics on Maintenance and Repair

In terms of maintenance and repair, the participants were given 12 items to rate the level of frequency on maintenance and repair. See Table 3 on the next page.

In terms of averages, all the items had averages close to 4 indicating that most of the repairs never occurred. The participants indicated that no repairs were made on the following repairs; faulty water geysers (63.1%), water pressure (61.5%), leaking of roofs (53.2%), faulty stove (51.2%), painting (50.0%), faulty doors (49.5%) and ceiling (49%). These are the items that have never been needing maintenance or repair. On the other hand, 54.7% indicated that re-flooring and tilling was done once a year. This means that most of the items seem to be durable such that they were not needing maintenance and repair.

A composite variable was created by averaging the level of frequency. A mean less than 2 indicated that maintenance and repairs were done within six months. A mean of 3.5 and more meant that repairs were rarely done or never occurred. The average ranged from 1.85 to 5 giving a range of 3.15. The mean, median and mode were 4.22, 4.46 and 3.25 respectively. Thus on average maintenance and repairs rarely occurs. The standard deviation was 4.218 resulting in a coefficient of variation of 15.81%. Thus, there was less variability between the responses of participants.

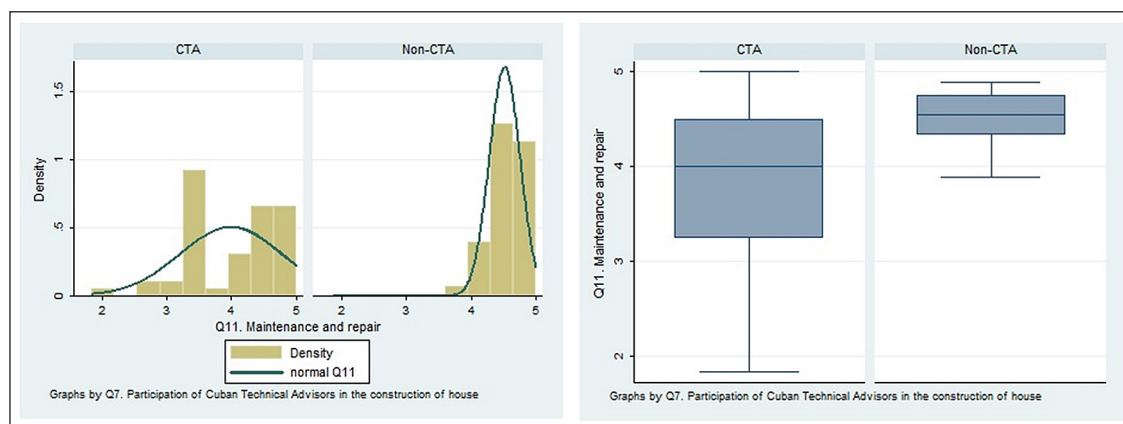
The histogram shows that the levels of frequency are negatively skewed, that is, there are few respondents who indicated that they do maintenance and

Table 3: The Level of Occurrence on Maintenance and Repair of House

Statement	CTA				Non-CTA			
	Within four months	Once or twice a year	Never so far	Mean	Within four months	Once or twice a year	Never so far	Mean
Q11d. Blockage of water sewer system	44.7% (21)	19.1% (9)	36.2% (17)	3.40	-	58.1% (25)	41.9% (18)	4.37
Q11c. Broken cupboards in the kitchen and bedrooms	47.7% (21)	6.8% (3)	45.5% (20)	3.45	-	50.0% (21)	50.0% (21)	4.50
Q11b. Faulty water taps in the kitchen and bathrooms	4.4% (2)	68.9% (31)	26.7% (12)	3.67	-	55.8% (24)	44.2% (19)	4.42
Q11h. Faulty issues related to electricity	2.3% (1)	60.5% (26)	37.2% (16)	3.86	-	72.1% (31)	27.9% (12)	4.28
Q11e. Broken windows	3.9% (2)	56.9% (29)	39.2% (20)	3.88	-	58.1% (25)	41.9% (18)	4.42
Q11f. Leaking of roofs	3.8% (2)	48.1% (25)	48.1% (25)	3.98	-	40.5% (17)	59.5% (25)	4.57
Q11l. Ceiling	4.1% (2)	46.9% (23)	49.0% (24)	4.06	-	-	-	-
Q11a. Faulty doors	3.7% (2)	64.8% (35)	31.5% (17)	4.06	-	27.9% (12)	72.1% (31)	4.72
Q11i. Faulty water geysers	4.8% (2)	57.1% (24)	38.1% (16)	4.21	-	11.9% (5)	88.1% (37)	4.88
Q11j. Re-flooring/Tiling	2.0% (1)	60.8% (31)	37.3% (19)	4.29	-	-	100.0% (2)	5.00
Q11m. Water Pressure	7.7% (2)	30.8% (8)	61.5% (16)	4.31	-	-	-	-
Q11g. Faulty stove	4.7% (2)	41.9% (18)	53.5% (23)	4.42	-	51.3% (20)	48.7% (19)	4.49
Q11k. Painting	2.0% (1)	48.0% (24)	50.0% (25)	4.42	-	-	-	-

Source: Authors

Figure 2: Histogram and Box Plot Showing Overall Ratings of Level of Occurrence of Maintenance and Repairs



Source: Authors

repairs in less than a year. The boxplot shows a long tail to the left and at least 50% of the participants indicated that they had not done any maintenance and repairs so far as evidenced by an average rating of more than four. The participants were asked to indicate the overall expectation on their house and the proportions. See Figure 2 above.

The majority of the respondents, that is, 70.1% (n=68) said that the house was not as good as they expected it to be, 16.5% (n=16) said that it was

exactly as they expected it to be while 9.3% (n=9) indicated that it was even better than they expected it to be. Thus, the majority of the people's expectations indicated that the house was not as they expected it to be. See Table 4 on the next page.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics on Transference of Skills by CTAs to Beneficiaries

There were 15 items assessing the assistance or involvement of CTA. The items were measured on

Table 4: Overall Expectation of House (n = 90)

Level of Expectation	CTA	Non-CTA	Total
It is even better than I expected it to be	9 (16.1%)	-	9 (9.3%)
It is exactly as I expected it to be	12 (21.4%)	4 (9.8%)	16 (16.5%)
It is not as good as I expected it to be	34 (60.7%)	34 (82.9%)	68 (70.1%)
It is much worse than I expected it to be	-	2 (4.9%)	2 (2.1%)
I have never really thought about it (do not know)	1 (1.8%)	1 (2.4%)	2 (2.1%)
	56 (100.0%)	41 (100.0%)	97 (100.0%)

Source: Authors

Table 5: The Level of Extent on Issues Regarding Assistance or Involvement of CTA

Statement	CTA				Non-CTA			
	To a large extent	To some extent	Not to any extent	Mean	To a large extent	To some extent	Not to any extent	Mean
Q13d. Did the CTA ensure that the site foreman was responsible for deciding which teams would work on which stand?	63.5% (33)	9.6% (5)	26.9% (14)	2.55	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13i. Were there mechanisms in place for monitoring the payment of workers?	47.7% (21)	11.4% (5)	40.9% (18)	2.60	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13j. Were the suppliers hiring and firing the workers as they pleased?	61.9% (26)	9.5% (4)	28.6% (12)	2.63	-	-	100.0% (39)	5.00
Q13n. Did the CTA participate in ensuring fair distribution of completed houses to beneficiaries?	58.5% (31)	13.2% (7)	28.3% (15)	2.71	-	-	100.0% (36)	5.00
Q13e. Was there any exploitation of beneficiaries by outside stakeholders?	46.3% (19)	2.4% (1)	51.2% (21)	2.71	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13k. Were there quarrels with the project certifier about the latter's competence to certify houses?	35.3% (18)	9.8% (5)	54.9% (28)	2.71	2.7% (1)	-	97.3% (36)	4.89
Q13f. Were there any problems with payments and delivery of materials?	30.2% (13)	14.0% (6)	55.8% (24)	2.71	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13g. Were beneficiaries trained in managing finances of the projects?	19.5% (8)	9.8% (4)	70.7% (29)	2.71	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13l. Were there reports that the building materials were being stolen?	6.8% (3)	6.8% (3)	86.4% (38)	2.71	-	2.7% (1)	97.3% (36)	4.95
Q13o. CTA ensured involvement of youth and women in the programme?	66.7% (32)	8.3% (4)	25.0% (12)	3.25	-	-	100.0% (36)	5.00
Q13h. Was the project monitored by the CTA during the construction phase?	66.0% (31)	29.8% (14)	4.3% (2)	3.43	-	-	100.0% (40)	5.00
Q13c. Did the CTA ensure that PHP was accountable to the community?	69.8% (37)	28.3% (15)	1.9% (1)	3.47	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13a. Was there any assistance or involvement of the Cuban Technical Advisor during the construction of your house?	70.9% (39)	29.1% (16)	-	3.65	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00
Q13m. Did the CTA ensure that the beneficiaries participated in the building of the house?	55.4% (31)	42.9% (24)	1.8% (1)	3.65	-	-	100.0% (36)	5.00
Q13b. Is there any benefit (Knowledge, Skills or Training) that you got from the CTAs during the construction of your house?	85.5% (47)	14.5% (8)	-	3.67	-	-	100.0% (41)	5.00

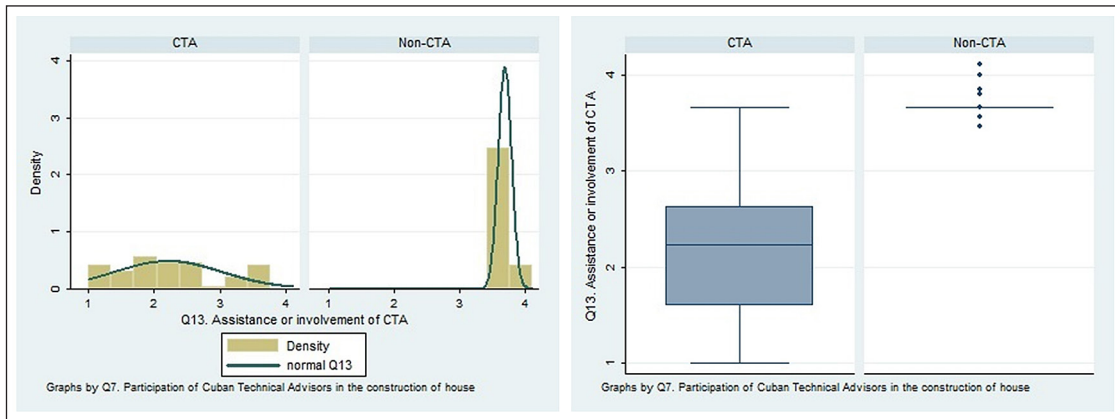
Source: Authors

a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (to a very large extent) to 5 (not to any extent at all). A mean of less than 2.5 indicated that the level of assistance or involvement of CTA occurs to a large extent while a mean more than 3.5 indicated that it occurred to a lesser extent. See Table 5.

The majority of the people indicated that there was no training of beneficiaries in managing finances of projects (68.3%). Secondly, there was no participation of CTA in ensuring fair distribution of

completed house to beneficiary (55.1%). Thirdly, the CTA did not involve any youth and women in the programme (54.8%). Fourthly, the CTA did not ensure that the site foreman was responsible for deciding which teams would work on the stand and lastly, no mechanisms were in place for monitoring the payment of workers (52.9%). However, about 87.7% indicated that there were no reports that the building materials were being stolen. In addition, 70.7% said there was no exploitation of beneficiaries by outside stakeholders. Close to 65.9%

Figure 3: Histogram and Box Plot Showing Assistance or Involvement of CTA



Source: Authors

Table 6: The Level of Acknowledgement on Type of Knowledge, Skills or Training Obtained from the CTA

Training	CTA		Non-CTA	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Q14c. Building skills	94.5% (52)	5.5% (3)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14e. House roofing	94.5% (52)	5.5% (3)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14b. Laying a foundation	92.7% (51)	7.3% (4)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14d. Plastering	78.6% (44)	21.4% (12)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14h. Monitoring of stock (building materials)	63.6% (35)	36.4% (20)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14a. Building designs	60.7% (34)	39.3% (22)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14i. Allocation of houses	60.0% (33)	40.0% (22)	2.6% (1)	97.4% (38)
Q14g. Purchasing of building materials	52.7% (29)	47.3% (26)	-	100.0% (38)
Q14f. Management of finances	44.6% (25)	55.4% (31)	-	100.0% (38)

Source: Authors

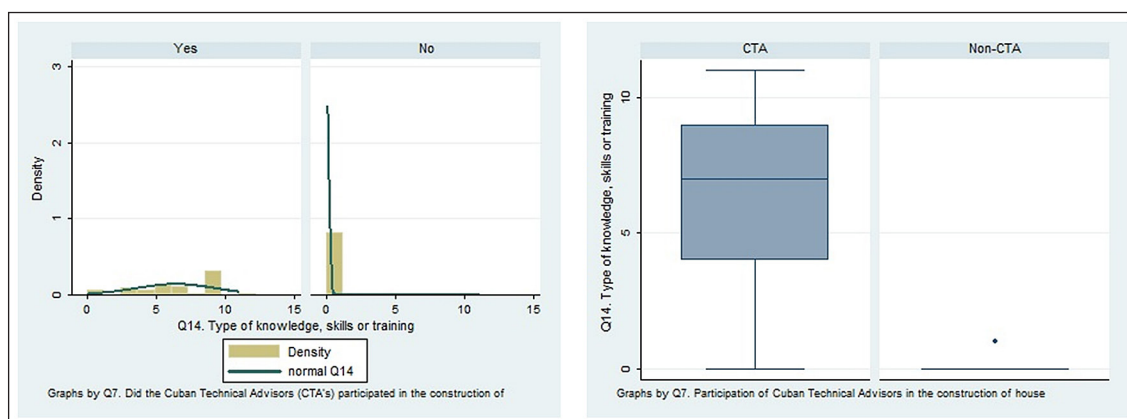
indicated they were no quarrels with the project certifier about the latter's competence to certify houses while 57.1% indicated that there were no problems with payments and delivery of materials and 56.8% indicated that the suppliers were not firing and hiring workers as they pleased.

From the above mentioned proportions one can conclude that not much was done in training and involvement of youth and women in the programmes. However, administration of the programme seems to have been done very well. Of all the items assessed in this construct, overall, none of them had an average less than three. The average ratings in participation and involvement of CTA had mean and median ratings of 2.835 and 3.462 respectively. Thus, on the average the involvement was to some extent.

A standard deviation of .969 was obtained and the coefficient of variation was 34.18%. There seem to be variability in responses of participants as the coefficient of variation is not close to zero (no variability). Using the empirical rule, approximately 68% of the respondents had ratings ranging from 1.87 to 3.80 (\pm one standard deviation from the mean). This shows that the majority of the participants gave ratings from two to four.

The highest peak on the histogram as shown in Figure 3 indicates that the highest proportion was an average of at least 3.5. The histogram and boxplot show that data is negatively skewed. The participants were asked to indicate the type of knowledge, skills or training they obtained from CTA and Table 6 gives the information.

Figure 4: Histogram and Box Plot Showing Type of Knowledge, Skills or Training



Source: Authors

Table 7: Forms of Skills Transfer

Training	CTA				Non-CTA			
	Training (seminars, workshops, etc.)	Coaching	Mentoring (attachment to expert)	Never occurred	Training (seminars, workshops, etc.)	Coaching	Mentoring (attachment to expert)	Never occurred
Q15a. Building designs	3.8% (2)	52.8% (28)	7.5% (4)	35.8% (19)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15c. Building skills	8.9% (5)	76.8% (43)	8.9% (5)	5.4% (3)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15d. Plastering	9.1% (5)	60.0% (33)	10.9% (6)	20.0% (11)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15e. House roofing	9.1% (5)	40.0% (22)	45.5% (25)	5.5% (3)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15f. Management of finances	-	44.2% (23)	5.8% (3)	50.0% (26)	-	-	-	100.0% (39)
Q15g. Purchasing of building materials	3.7% (2)	18.5% (10)	37.0% (20)	40.7% (22)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15h. Monitoring of stock (building materials)	-	57.4% (31)	5.6% (3)	37.0% (20)	-	-	-	100.0% (40)
Q15i. Allocation of houses	-	48.1% (25)	21.2% (11)	30.8% (16)	-	-	-	100.0% (39)

Source: Authors

The participants indicated that they were given building skills (55.9%), taught on house roofing (55.95) and laying a foundation (54.8%). Close to 50% (46.0%) were taught on plastering. However, the majority of the participants were not given the skills on monitoring of stock (building materials), building designs, allocation of houses, purchasing of building materials, and management of finances. A composite variable was created by giving a 1 to those who indicated that they were given the knowledge or taught on a type of skill and 0 if they indicated that they were not taught. All in all, there were a total of nine skills. A composite variable was formed by adding the ones. It means a person who was taught all the skills would have a total of nine. On the average the mean and median were 3.78 and 3. This means on average

participants were taught four out of the nine skills. The standard deviation and coefficient of variation were 3.843 and was 101.69% respectively. There is high variability between the responses the coefficient of variation is not close to zero (no variability).

The histogram in Figure 4 shows that the largest proportion relates to participants who did not receive any kind of knowledge, skills or training. Both boxplots and histograms show that the data is positively skewed. The boxplot shows a long tail to the right and at least 50% of the participants received less than three skills. This means that people did not receive a lot of knowledge, skills or training. The participants were asked the method used to do the training. Table 7 shows how three methods

Table 8: Level of Acknowledgement on Issues Regarding House Value and Beneficiary Interest

Statement	CTA			Non-CTA		
	Yes	No	Not sure	Yes	No	Not sure
Q16h. Do you think the house has been of benefit in your life?	96.4% (53)	3.6% (2)	-	95.3% (41)	2.3% (1)	2.3% (1)
Q16e. Do you think you are privileged (e. g., lucky) to have a PHP house?	96.4% (53)	1.8% (1)	1.8% (1)	95.3% (41)	2.3% (1)	2.3% (1)
Q16f. Do you think the whole PHP process ensured value for money?	96.4% (53)	1.8% (1)	1.8% (1)	95.3% (41)	2.3% (1)	2.3% (1)
Q16d. Do you think the community values or appreciates the PHP houses?	94.5% (52)	-	5.5% (3)	74.4% (32)	23.3% (10)	2.3% (1)
Q16g. Do you think some of the PHP houses have more value than the others?	74.5% (41)	5.5% (3)	20.0% (11)	95.3% (41)	2.3% (1)	2.3% (1)
Q16a. If someone made you an offer of R110 000 to buy your house today, would you sell it?	23.6% (13)	10.9% (6)	65.5% (36)	48.8% (21)	41.9% (18)	9.3% (4)
Q16b. If someone offers you to rent your house, would you allow it?	7.3% (4)	16.4% (9)	76.4% (42)	51.2% (22)	44.2% (19)	4.7% (2)
Q16c. Do you agree to exchange your house for RDP or other houses in the community not built by PHP?	5.7% (3)	43.4% (23)	50.9% (27)	27.9% (12)	67.4% (29)	4.7% (2)

Source: Authors

of training, coaching and mentoring were used to impart skills.

As observed earlier the majority of the participants indicated that training was never done on plastering (53.7%), monitoring of stock (building materials) (63.8%), building designs (63.5%), allocation of houses (60.4%), purchasing of building materials (66.0%) and management of finances (71.4%). However, 44.8% were coached on building skills while 40.6% were coached on laying a foundation.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics on House Value and Beneficiaries Interest

The participants were asked to indicate the level of acknowledgement on issues regarding house value and beneficiary interest. The information is presented in Table 8.

About 95.5% indicated that they were privileged to have a PHP house, secondly, that the whole PHP process ensured value for money and thirdly, that the house has been a benefit. About 85.7% indicated that the community values or appreciates the PHP houses an 83.7% indicated the PHP houses have more value than the others. In addition, 54.2% indicated that they would not agree to exchange their house for RDP houses in the community not built by PHP. By adding the numbers of yes, that is, yes was given a 1 and no and not sure a 0. There were eight items giving a total of eight. The mean and median were 5.63 and 5 respectively. On average

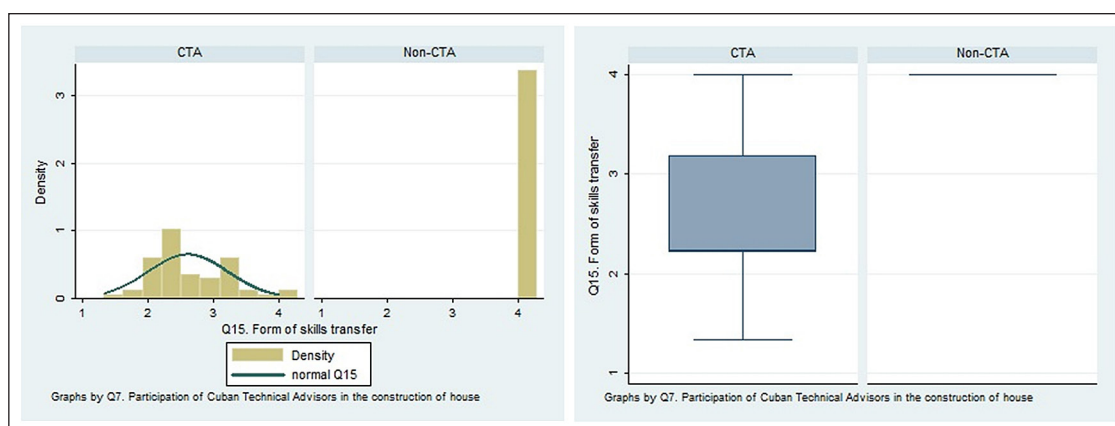
the participants agreed to six out of the eight items. A standard deviation of 1.446 was obtained giving a coefficient of variation of 25.67%. There is some variability between the ratings as the coefficient of variation is not close to zero (no variability). Using the empirical rule, approximately 68% of the participants agreed to 4 to 7 of the statements. The histogram and box plot are shown in Figure 5 on the following page.

The box plot had outliers on both sides of the distribution. The histogram in Figure 5 showed that the distribution was positively skewed. The highest peak was at five. Thus, the largest proportion of participants agreed to five out of the eight statements. The majority of the people agreed to more than five out of the eight statements on house value and beneficiary interest.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Evidence from the literature review indicates that self-help principles are to a certain extent entrenched in the three main South African policy documents on low-income housing. Furthermore, South African literature on the topic indicates that the founding of self-help through the PHP mechanism in housing delivery is also based on principles similar to those advanced by Turner (1976:39). When Turner argued in defence of self-help, he maintained that self-help should be viewed as a mechanism for achieving what he called 'people-driven housing delivery. It can be safely said that the practice of self-help

Figure 5: Histogram and Box Plot Showing House Value and Beneficiary Interest



Source: Authors

housing in South Africa has to a large extent failed. The literature reviews (Marais, 2003:129; Marais, Ntema & Venter, 2008:49) make it clear that self-help in South Africa, as indeed the rest of the world has since 1994 been structured mainly around state control and not around dweller control, thus in many ways it is similar to how self-help was conducted prior to 1994. Overall, the intent of policy is neo-liberal, whereas the practice contains numerous elements of welfarism and of the state control associated with welfarism. It could thus be appropriate, based on the above discussion to conclude that, in the absence of dweller control or greater choice by beneficiaries in their housing process, households are being reduced to beneficiaries of an externally designed and controlled process.

From the above discussion it is recommended that the Department of Human Settlements should not only formulate policy but also expect implementation on the part of the provinces and municipalities. The Department should also have a mechanism to ensure that the formulated policy is correctly implemented. Policy monitoring and evaluation teams should be established which will enforce the correct implementation of the formulated human settlements policy. It is evident from the interviews conducted with some of the programme stakeholders in the participating provinces, that the CTAs make a difference in the lives of the beneficiaries. Some of the interviewees indicated that their provinces cannot survive without the CTAs. Some of the beneficiaries indicated that they have learned skills that make them better able to survive in daily life, yet the majority of provinces are not participating in the programme citing budget constraints as the reason for non-participation. The researcher therefore

recommends the centralisation of the SACTSP. Thus the National Department of Human Settlements should be the host of the CTAs and deploy them to all nine provinces. This should be done based on provincial needs. The process of CTAs transferring skills must be well coordinated and students from the engineering or construction fields of study, receiving bursary from the Department of Human Settlements should be encouraged do their internship under the supervision of the CTAs to gain a background of international experience. The researcher also recommends that an additional annexure be added in the signed agreement between Cuba and South Africa which will allow the South African engineering students to learn the social aspects of their technical career in Cuba.

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The Role of Project Management on Local Economic Development Programs: A Case of Greater Giyani Local Municipality

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Abstract: The paper aims to investigate the role of project management on local economic development in Greater Giyani Local Municipality in Mopani District, Limpopo Province. Project management has become crucial in the management of an organisation. However, poor project management in municipalities can lead to a slow pace of local economic development. The implementation of local economic development is often hindered by ineffective project management resulting from shortage of skilled, trained and experienced personnel. To achieve these objectives, the researcher utilised a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methodology to avoid biases of results. The findings from this paper revealed that inadequate budget, lack of compliance to the municipal bylaws, lack of compliance to procurement processes, redeployment of officials by political parties and lack of proper infrastructure negatively affect the management of project on local economic development. Furthermore, the paper reveals that compliance with the project management procedures and policies could enhance the role of project management on local economic development. The paper concludes that project management can make an essential contribution to local economic development in terms of the provision of employment to those who are less fortunate in order to eradicate poverty and ensure economic empowerment.

Keywords: Development programmes, Local economic development, Local municipalities, Project management

1. Introduction

Project management has been in existence globally since time immemorial. Today project management is an important means of addressing the problems or taking opportunities, the discipline is even more attractive to many organizations in the performance of their activities (Lewis, 2007). Mashele (2015) attest that project management has become crucial in programme management of many organizations. The Project has therefore become an integral part of modern organization. However, the success or failure of an organization in achieving the project objectives largely depends on the knowledge and skills of the project manager (Lewis, 2007). For public managers to achieve the objective of the project, they need to have skills on project management, financial management, good infrastructure, relevant resources and other related equipment to enhance local economic development. The new democratic South Africa requires the public managers to deliver the service that will have an impact on local economic development. These mandates assist the municipalities to create a

conducive environment and improve local economic development.

According to Davis and Rylance (2005), local economic development initiatives have been put forward as a panacea to poverty reduction and economic empowerment of communities through project management. Recently, the application of the local economic development strategy at the municipal level in South Africa has been aimed at reducing joblessness and poverty amongst many unskilled people, by funding local economic development projects as job creation programmes (United Nations Development Program, 2000). Local economic development is about local people working together to achieve sustainable economic growth that brings economic benefits and quality of life for all in the communities (Demaziere & Wilson, 2011). According to the Department of Provincial and Local government (2007) in most municipalities in South Africa, the implementation of local economic development is often hindered by ineffective project management as results of the shortage of suitably trained and

skilled personnel, some hindered by inexperienced and lack of financial resources to complete such projects. To support this statement Mawila (2015) argues that lack of relevant resources in the municipalities hinders the success of the projects. Therefore, the study wants to investigate the role of project management on local economic development.

In South Africa, Local Economic Development projects are seen as critical in the creation of jobs and alleviation of poverty by improving the standard of living of poor people and enhancing the country's economic performance (Binns & Nel, 2014). The new democratic South Africa requires the public managers to deliver the service that will have an impact on local economic development. Recent changes in Greater Giyani Local Municipality have exerted a lot of pressure on public managers to a project management perspective. These managers are compelled to change from public administrators to project managers in order to accelerate service delivery and improve local economic development. Factors such as managerial skills, effective training, lack of infrastructure and other related issues are some of the challenges that impact negatively on project management and local economic development (Mawila, 2015:7). Therefore, the study wants to investigate the role of project management on local economic development in the Greater Giyani Local Municipality.

2. Understanding the Concept Project Management within Municipalities

The concept project management has been defined, analysed and interpreted by different authors like Atkinson (2005); David & Ireland (2007); Dumisa (2010) Lewis (2007), Barker & Cole (2013). Project management is the application of a collection of tools and techniques such as the matrix organisation to direct the use of diverse resources toward the accomplishment of a unique, complex, one-time task within time, cost and quality constraints (Project Management Body of Knowledge, 2016). Munns and Bjeirmin (2013:83) define project management as the process by which projects are defined, planned, monitored, controlled and delivered such that the agreed benefits are realised. Projects are unique, transient endeavours undertaken to achieve the desired outcome (David & Ireland, 2007). Projects bring about change and project management is recognised as the most efficient way of managing such change.

The municipal environment is unique in the manner in which it conducts projects. Project management in the municipalities does not start when the project start, but when the people express the needs for change in their environment which will provide an improved quality of life (Lewis, 2007). Project management ends when the intended beneficiaries finally benefit from the project deliverables. The project managers in every municipality are a valuable asset. According to Lizzarde (2015: 65) project managers in a municipality needs a wide range of skills, and must be visionary with ability to solve problems as and when they arise and deliver the project as expected.

3. The Nature of Project Management on Local Economic Development

The project management has been a popular tool aimed at ensuring local development in the municipalities in terms of reducing poverty in the local people of South Africa, especial in providing employment to those who are less fortunate (Atkinson, 2005). The local development project helps local people in their striving to incorporate in the national economy. According to Lizzarde (2015:65) "project managers in municipalities need a wide range of skills and must be able to think out of the box, be able to solve problems whenever they arise and deliver the project as expected". Project management has evolved in order to plan, coordinate and control the complex and diverse activities that are undertaken to improve the local economic development. The project requires resources and is for a limited time, each project has different resource requirements, for example, the project manager may have core skills but need outsource some service in the project (Munns & Bjeirmi, 2013). Management of the project shares the common characteristics, the projection of ideas and activities into new endeavours. The ever-present element of risk and uncertainty means that the event and task leading to completion can never be foretold with absolute accuracy (Maylor, 2010:55). The project management should assist the project managers to foresee or predict as many of the dangers and problems as possible and to plan, organize, and control activities that are undertaken to improve local economic development until the projects are completed as successfully as possible in spite of all the risks (Maylor, 2010:67). This process starts before any resource is committed, and must continue until all work is finished. The primary aim of

the project manager is for the final result to satisfy the project users, within the promised timescale and without using more money and other resources than those that were originally set aside or budgeted (Mashele, 2015). Planning and control must, of course, be exercised over all the activities and resources involved in a project.

Meredith and Mantel (2012:4) discussed project management in terms of producing project outcomes within the three objectives of cost, schedule, and specifications. Project managers are then expected to develop and execute a project plan that meets cost, schedule, and specification parameters. According to this view, project management is the application of everything a project manager does to meet these parameters. According to the PMBOK guide (2013) "a project management plan is a fundamental tool for the project manager to deliver the project successfully". This document is a strategic and formalized roadmap to accomplish the project's objectives by describing how the project is to be executed, monitored and controlled.

4. The Role of Project Management in Local Economic Development

The literature on the role of project management in local economic development has viewed local economic development as an approach that has the capacity to bring economic development and to alleviate poverty (Binns & Nel, 2014). Project management is developed as a reaction against what was perceived as the failure of regional and rural development programs to address the difficulty of poor people (Boddy, 2012). He further mentions that such failure was attributed to the fact that most regional programs that regarded economic growth as the guiding criterion were not always matched by parallel economic development. There is widespread recognition that the creation of employment through local economic development projects is a central issue in the alleviation of poverty in developing countries (William, 2006). The need has been especially apparent in African countries as more and more youth complete primary and secondary education and have heightened expectations for their futures, but insufficient opportunities. Such countries need to create many jobs to solve the unemployment problem (William, 2006). For this and other reasons, as outlined by Smallbone, North, Baldock, Ekanem (2002), donor agencies and social development organizations

have begun, as a matter of priority, to focus their energies on income generating projects targeting the rural people.

The project management role in local economic development is arguably the most challenging role. As the project progresses through its various stages, project managers must be able to adapt themselves to the changing demands of the project and the team (Davis & Rylance, 2005). According to Barker and Cole (2013:11), the need for project management can be realized from its benefits and the role it can play in local economic development. A project is a set of interrelated activities, usually involving a group of people working together on a one-time task for a period of time. A project manager needs skills such as leadership, management skills, communication skills and other related.

5. The Phases of Project Management Life-Cycle

According to Barker and Cole (2013:34), the process each manager follows during the life of a project is called the Project Management Life Cycle. A proven methodical life cycle is necessary to repeatedly implement and manage projects successfully. During the life cycle of any project, proven and tested project management processes or best practices should be initiated. The types and extent of processes initiated depend on the nature of the project, i.e. size, the probability of failure and consequences of failure. Strong and effective project managers apply the process to protect all projects. Every project has a life cycle, with a beginning, a life and an end of a project. The project management life cycle includes project initiation, project planning, project execution, and project closure.

6. The Importance of Community Participation in Local Economic Development

The community participation is a crucial instrument in the local economic development project. The community participation empowers the community to make a decision that directly affects their lives. The community participation helps to achieve greater citizen's satisfaction with their communities and development at large. Therefore, active community participation is key for building an empowered and responsible community (Callaghan, 2014:31). According to the RDP White Paper, "development is

not about the delivery of goods to a passive citizenry, it is about involvement and growing empowerment". Community participation creates a sense of ownership of the development process to the community itself. Development processes become an integral part of the community and help the community to believe that they own their development process (Davids, Maphunye & Theron, 2009:21). According to Callaghan (2014), for any development to be sustainable, it must be acceptable. In order to achieve acceptance, a sense of ownership must be engendered. Furthermore, ownership can only be achieved through active participation of the target community. It is generally agreed that participation without power "is an empty and frustrating process for the powerless" (Swanepoel, 1992:6). Failure of a community to take ownership has resulted in, for instance, vandalism, corruption and sometimes premature termination of projects which are supposed to benefit the community (Canzanelli, 2001). The situation of involving people in all stages of development creates a mutual partnership between the government and communities which results in sustainable development. Community participation develops true democratic processes in the development process.

7. Legal Framework Governing Development Local Government and Right of Community to Participate in Local Economic Development

There are a number of policies and legislative frameworks governing developmental local government and supporting the participation of the community in local economic development programs. Three of them are discussed below.

7.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) promotes the idea of developmental local government. Local government is in charge of the development process in municipalities and in charge of municipal planning. Section 152(1)(e) specifies that one of the objects of local government is to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in matters of local government. Section 195(e) states that people's needs must be responded to and that the public must be encouraged to participate in local economic development.

7.2 White Paper on Local Government of 1998

According to the White Paper on Local Government (1998), the role of the local sphere of government is to build local democracy. It states that the local government allows citizens as individuals or interest groups to have continuous input into local politics. The White Paper on Local Government, 1998 acknowledges the fact that local government is the sphere of government that interacts closest with communities and is responsible for the rendering of essential public goods and services to residents. It is also tasked with ensuring the growth and development of communities in a manner that enhances community participation and accountability, the promotion of local economic development and community empowerment and the redistribution of national wealth by improving the quality of lives of dwellers.

7.3 Municipal Finance Management Act (Act 56 of 2003)

The Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 was promulgated with the objective to secure the sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of municipalities and other institutions in the local sphere of government and to establish treasury norms and standards for the local sphere of government. Once again, the importance of the views of the community in the financial and non-financial affairs of their local government must be highlighted. As of such, every public action, and especially the development of the environment in which communities live, will carry a financial implication (Meiring, 2001:130).

According to Labuschagne (2010:96), each of these Acts and policies focuses on different aspects of local government, such as, amongst others, the rights, duties, functions and powers of municipalities, community participation and integrated development planning. It provides local authorities with a structure for managing their administration, outlines political decision-making systems, defines principles for structuring administrations and ensures that adequate internal oversight structures can be implemented at a municipal level (Williams, 2012:18). For managers to enhance the role of project management on local economic development, they need to encourage the local communities to participate in decision making. These processes can be done through ward councillors and other

community forums. Every process needs to be done within the principles and legal frameworks.

8. Areas to Be Improved to Achieve Successful Local Economic Development Projects

The municipal policies prescribe and require cost-effective measures to be adhered by managers for the prevention of fraud, corruption, favouritism, unfair and irregular practices when service is delivered to improve local economic development (Subban & Theron, 2011:98). The service to the communities is compromised. The major practical challenges that hinder the role of project management on local economic development are interference in the management by political bearers, lack of inadequate budget, nepotism and the lack infrastructure, qualified technical and professional experts, ignorance, non-compliance and lack of understanding of the municipal policies and other related issues (Demaziere & Wilson, 2011). The suggested areas that need to be improved to achieve a successful local economic project are discussed below.

8.1 Adherence to Guidelines on Minimum Competency Levels

Adherence to guidelines on minimum competency levels is one of the areas that need to be improved in order to achieve the successful local economic development programs. Guidelines on minimum competency levels have been recently issued to ensure that municipal staff and senior managers within a municipality have the necessary competency levels in the short to medium term (Bhojaram, 2012). The responsible department must ensure that the performance of a successful service provider is in accordance with the specification. Where perceived poor performance occurs, this should be brought to the attention of the responsible department. Where poor performance continues, steps should be taken to recover damage and where performance is seriously compromised, the contract terminated on the ground of non-delivery (Bhojaram, 2012).

8.2 Establishment of Project Management Units

According to Hickey and Mohan (2004) project management units are required to be established within all municipalities. Wherever possible, such a unit

must operate under the auspices of the accounting officer of the municipality or an official to whom this duty has been delegated. Accounting Officers must ensure that their project management units are appropriately staffed with skilled professionals and that staff receives training, where required, to be able to deliver a high-quality service.

8.3 Divide the Role of Politicians and Project Managers

Moloba (2015) argues that clarity is needed between the role of politicians and project managers. A properly executed policy recognizes the important role that both politicians and project manager's play, whilst clearly and unambiguously distinguish the role of each. In this regard, politicians need to set policy and strategic direction, whilst project managers implement the policy under the leadership of the Accounting Officer. Accountability and oversight are only possible if there is a clear separation of the legislative roles, responsibilities, and powers of councils, mayors, executive committees and project managers. Politicians and officials need to act in a spirit of self-sacrifice rather than greed and self-interest of which many are being currently accused (Moloba, 2015).

8.4 Regular Training

Regular training for all people who are involved in the project management is needed. The managers who have the minimum qualification in certain aspects, including project management should hold senior positions in the project management for local economic development. This has been a good initiative as understanding the new project management processes is important for municipalities to function effectively and efficiently Regular workshops, during which the legislative prescripts are explained, can assist in overcoming the said challenges (Hickey & Mohan, 2004).

9. Methods and Materials

The researcher used a mixed methods approach which is a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques for data collection and analysis. The utilisation of mixed method research design eliminates the existence of bias kind of research results as one method would cater to a single result as compared to both methods that will balance the controversy of the methods. The study adopted

both purposive sampling and random sampling strategies. Purposive sampling techniques involve selecting certain units or cases based on a specific purpose rather than randomly (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2009:173). Purposive sampling implies that not every element of the population has an opportunity for being included in the sample. Random sampling techniques involve a selection process in which each element in the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected (Alvi, 2016:12). The sample size of the study was 10 municipal officials and 50 community members.

9.1 Data Collection

Data gathering is the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to the research sub-problems, using methods such as interviews, questionnaires, observation, focus group discussions, narratives and case histories (Burns & Grove, 2003). Three sources of data were identified for this study namely, interviews, questionnaires which are referred to as a primary source of data and documentation as a secondary data to investigate the role of project management on local economic development in the Greater Giyani Local Municipality.

9.2 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process where one transforms data collected with the aim of gaining useful information and coming up with the conclusion (World Bank, 2012). Data analysis involves reducing data collected into manageable data proportions and identifying patterns and themes in the data (Montan, 1996:161). Since the study is a mixed method approach, the two data analysis methods were adopted. For quantitative data, the researcher utilized descriptive statistics. For qualitative data, the researcher utilized thematic analysis method. The major aim of the used data analysis methods was to identify patterns and draw conclusion to generate relevant recommendations.

10. Results and Discussion

10.1 The Responses from Community Members

Fifty questionnaires were distributed to the community members in the Greater Giyani Local municipality. The researcher collected data from 50 participants, which are 25 males and 25 females.

The equal distribution of gender has been done in order to eliminate biases in the study and meet the requirement of gender equality and equity in the area of the study.

10.1.1 Poor Project Management and Local Economic Development

The community members were asked as to whether poor project management has an effect on local economic development. In terms of the data collected, the results show that (80%) of the respondents agreed with the statement. It is clear that poor project management may lead to the incompleteness of the intended program in the area of the study. Mawila (2015:5) attest that poor project management may always hamper the acceleration of the implementation of the programmes

10.1.2 Training, Project Management and Local Economic Development

The community members were asked if training can improve the role of project management on local economic development. The majority (76%) of the respondents agreed with the statement. It is evident that the majority of the respondents believe in training. The role of project management depends on the training that the officials have in the organization. Training plays a very important role in project management and implementation.

10.1.3 Budget, Project Management and Sustainable Development

The community members were asked as to whether the inadequate budget has an effect on project management for sustainable development in the area of the study. The results reveal that (80%) of the respondents agreed with the statement. It is clear that inadequate budget may have a negative effect on project management for sustainable local government. Motaung (2013:8) stated that insufficient budget may have a negative effect on project management.

10.1.4 Redeployment, Political Parties, Project Management and Local Economic Development

The majority of the community members (88%) believe that the redeployment of officials by political parties may have a negative effect on the role of project management on local economic development. Mawila (2015) attest that most of the projects that are not completed are caused by the redeployment of unqualified project managers. Redeployment of officials may always hinder the management of the projects.

10.1.5 Alternative Strategies, Project Management and Sustainable Local Economic Development

The majority (78%) of the respondents agreed that a lack of alternative strategies impacts negatively on project management for sustainable local economic development. From the above responses from the community members, it is clear that a lack of alternative strategies can always impact negatively on the management of the projects.

10.2 The Responses from the Municipal Officials

The total number of the municipal officials expected to participate in the posed questions in the form of interview guide was ten. Ten of the respondents were interviewed and participated in the project which accumulates 100% of the respondents.

10.2.1 The Nature of Project Management, Local Economic Development

The officials interviewed, the majority of them believe that the nature of project management has an effect on local economic development. One of the respondents commented that:

"The incompleteness of project, is mostly affected by the nature of project and poor management due to irrelevant qualification and another thing is nepotism in which it is a challenge to many municipalities including Greater Giyani local municipality whereby human resource department hire project managers whom they know in which they do not have the required skills and qualifications needed in order to run a project and due to shortage of skills many projects ended up being incomplete which may be caused by lack of financial resource, lack of planning"

10.2.2 Project Management and Local Economic Development

The in-depth interviews that were conducted in the municipality, officials produced mixed results that had to do with impact of project management on local economic development. The majority of the officials believe that the role of project management can have a positive impact on local economic development. Some of the respondents remarked that:

"Project management plays a very important role towards the improvement of livelihood in our local municipalities"

"The role of project management can only be realised if the livelihood in our community can be improved"

10.2.3 Public Management Skills and Local Economic Development

Majority of the respondents believe that lack of public management skill can always have an impact on project implementation and local economic development. One of the respondents commented that:

"How can you expect the local economy to develop if our public officials lack management skills? Lack of management skills hinders the implementation of the project. These situations raise a question on how managers will be able to implement the project for which they do not have the necessary managerial skills. Lack of resources can also influence the employees to fall behind with their completion of the project"

From the above comment, it is clear that the majority of the respondents accept as true that poor managerial skills can also affect the role of project management on local economic development.

11. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper has been compiled with the aim of investigating the role of project management on local economic development in the Greater Giyani Local Municipality, the results show that the majority of the respondents confirmed that the poor project management has a negative effect on local economic development. Furthermore, the study also found that the lack of an appropriate alternative strategy impacts negatively on project management. The claim was supported by a majority of the respondents who stated that there was a lack of relevant alternative strategies that should enhance the role of project management on local economic development. The failure to address these issues will continue affecting the role of project management on local economic development. Therefore, it is recommended that project managers should be encouraged to further their studies on project management skills, so as to enable them to manage projects effectively. This process can assist them to have a positive effect on project management for sustainable local economic development. It can be concluded that compliance with the project management procedures and policies could enhance

the role of project management on local economic development. The study was just an eye opener to the policy makers, executive management, project managers and other stakeholders. It is now their responsibility to look into the researchers' ideas and recommendations for possible ways of enhancing the role of project management on local economic development at the Greater Giyani Local Municipality.

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Design and Implementation of the 'Separation of Powers Governance Model' at the Local Sphere of Government: The Case of the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality

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Abstract: In 2005, the City of Johannesburg metropolitan municipality adopted the 'separation of powers' governance model that separates the executive and legislative functions of the Council to improve governance at local level. Despite this, we are not certain if separating legislative and executive functions of a municipality improves governance at local level. Therefore, it became prudent to assess this intervention. To do this, Chikwema and Wotela (2016) developed an interpretive and conceptual framework whose summary we share in this paper. Based on this proposed research framework, this paper shares some empirical evidence on the design and implementation arrangements of the 'separation of powers governance model' in the City of Johannesburg. Specifically, we interrogate the design of the 'separation of powers' governance model in the municipality, its structures, powers and functions as well as its implementation arrangements. Other aspects that we look into are available resources and capacity for oversight leading us to outline its activities and procedures. This interrogation provided for establishing the logic underlying the 'separation of powers' governance model in the City of Johannesburg. We conclude that the overall review of governance arrangements and subsequent implementation of the 'separation of powers' governance model in the City of Johannesburg can be understood within the context of the democratic theory of governance. However, institutionalism is a more appropriate framework to explain the findings on the overall structure and configuration of the legislature in the City of Johannesburg. We also use the principal-agent theory to interrogate the implementation arrangements (processes and procedures) implemented to effect oversight, accountability, and public participation.

Keywords: Accountability, Design, Governance, Oversight, Transparency, Participation

1. Introduction

Oversight and accountability of the executive to the legislature are cardinal to good governance and ultimately democracy and political development. Conflating legislative and executive functions limits oversight, effectiveness of governance arrangements, accountability, and public participation. This is unfortunately the situation at local government level in South Africa. Visser (2005) concluded that the governance problems in municipalities in South Africa arise from poor accountability caused by weak oversight at municipality level-culminating in low levels of accountability, non-existent oversight and weak public participation processes. Further, the 2009 assessment of local governance in South Africa undertaken by the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) describes municipal governance as being 'in distress'- a position that we think has not changed eight years later.

The assessment identifies two root causes of distress (i.) non-separation of legislative and executive

functions leading to (ii.) inadequate oversight, and hence weak accountability measures, (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009). Similarly, Christmas (2009) points to the obscure division between executive and legislative roles in municipalities as the key cause of distress in municipal governance. Despite supposedly effective legislative provisions and implementing several interventions, McLennan (2009) concurs that governance arrangements in several South African municipalities are ineffective and remain a critical challenge. Feesha (2008) suggests, governance challenges including a lack of accountability and responsiveness at municipality level may imply a flawed design of local government in South Africa (Feesha 2008). To improve governance, the City of Johannesburg provided for an enhanced separation of executive and legislative functions in 2006. However, after implementing this governance model, we need to deduce the causal logic of the 'separation of powers' governance model and its implementation arrangements as the first step in ascertaining whether separating legislative

and executive functions can improve governance processes at municipal level.

To evaluate governance models in municipalities probably one should ask the question, 'does implementation of the 'separation of powers' governance model promote accountability, oversight, and public participation in local municipality?' To respond to this primary question a research should pursue three questions. First, what is the causal logic of the 'separation of powers' governance model and its implementation arrangements? Second, what challenges do municipalities face when implementing a 'separation of powers' governance model? Third, to what extent is the 'separation of powers' governance model promoting accountability, oversight and public participation in local government?

This paper pursues the first of the three research questions in the context of the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality - that is, 'what is the causal logic of the 'separation of powers governance model' and its implementation arrangements? This implies providing an overview and context of the 'separation of powers' governance model. The paper seeks to establish the design and implementation arrangements of the City of Johannesburg metropolitan municipality model, its structure, number and membership of oversight structures, powers and functions of oversight committees, resources and capacity available for oversight, as well as activities, processes, and procedures of the governance model. To establish this contextual understanding, the study interrogates official programme documentation of the model (which include: inception report, performance reports, committee establishment and membership reports, oversight committee reports, committee terms of reference among other documentation). First, we establish the theoretical and conceptual frameworks before articulating the research strategy, design, procedure and methods. Finally, we provide findings, summary and conclusion.

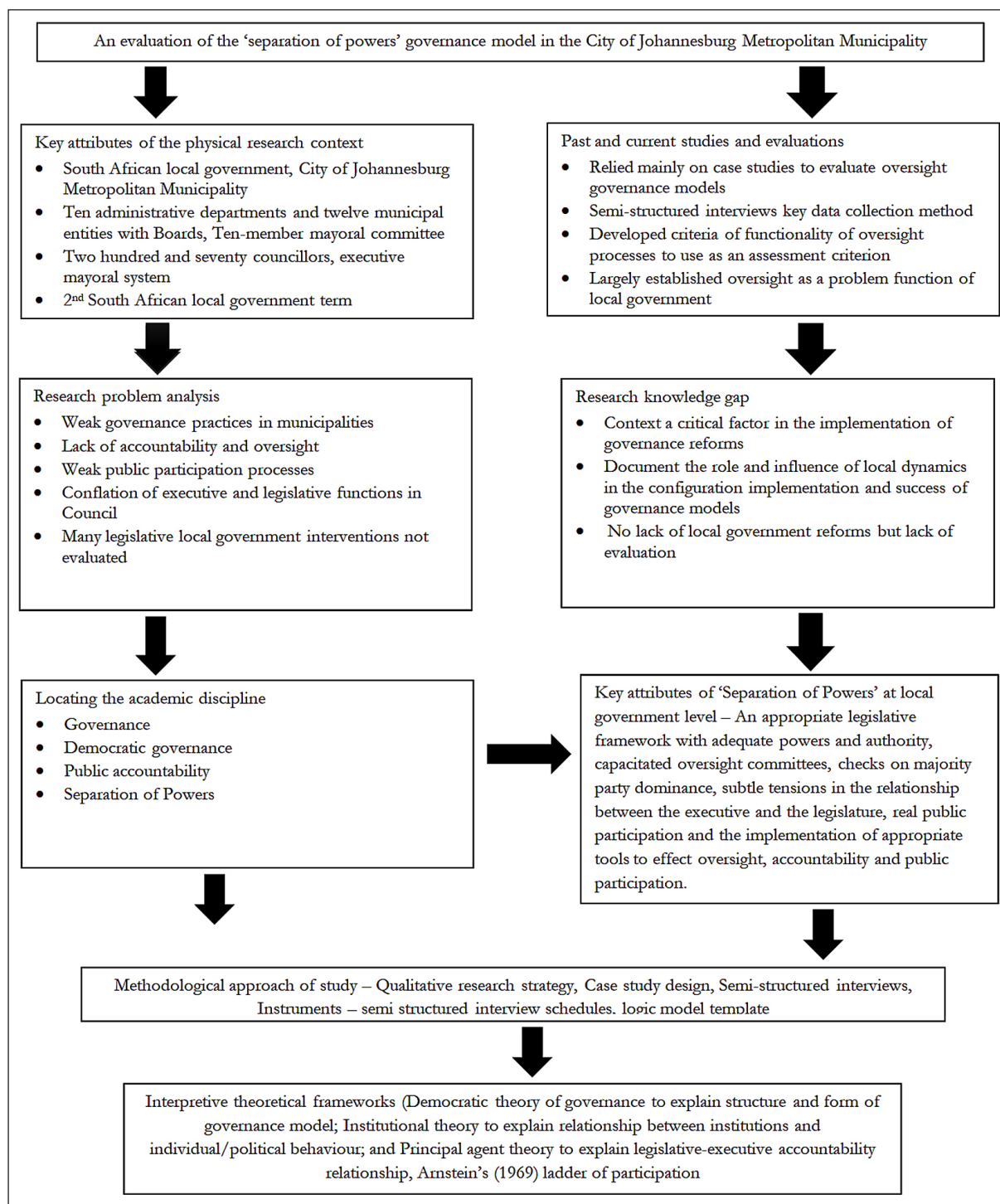
2. The Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 presents an updated conceptual framework for a formative assessment of the City of Johannesburg 'separation of powers' pilot project proposed by Chikwema and Wotela (2016). This study applied this conceptual framework to collect, collate, process, and analyse information as

well as interpret the empirical results, therefore, it is important that we acquaint ourselves with this framework. Here we only provide a summary of its key aspects. First, our research problem (improved oversight and scrutiny) analysis in context of South African municipalities and more specifically the City of Johannesburg shows that governance arrangements of these sub-national entities are based on the checks and balances effect of the 'separation of powers' principle. This allows for oversight, scrutiny, accountability, and democratic governance. However, while the implementation of the doctrine is clear at provincial level, there are implementation challenges to the 'separation of powers' doctrine at local government sphere. While Section 133(2) of the South African Constitution (1996) explicitly provides for separation of legislative and executive functions at national and provincial government, this is not the case at local government level. As a result, governance arrangements - such as oversight, public participation and, therefore, accountability - at local sphere are weak partly because of conflated executive and legislative functions in council. As a result, there are attempts - for example, City of Johannesburg 'separation of powers' intervention (City of Johannesburg 2005) - to rectify these challenges with an emphasis on the 'separation of powers' between the legislature and the executive. Figure 1 on the following page illustrates the road-map we followed to undertake the research.

Second, a review of similar past and current empirical research studies on and evaluations of governance arrangements in general and 'separation of power' in particular shows that knowledge on local dynamics that influence effectiveness of governance models is lacking (Chikwema & Wotela, 2016). Specifically, some studies such as Leach and Wingfield (1999) as well as Snape (2000) show that oversight is a problem at local government level because of three reasons informed by the local context. First, establishing effective committees is a challenge. Second, politicians meddle in oversight and scrutiny functions especially when the legislature is dominated by the ruling party. Last, oversight institutions are allocated inadequate constitutional powers. Therefore, if the objective of separating powers is oversight and scrutiny then we should focus on (i.) the nature of committees, (ii.) their structure and processes, (iii.) the capacity of scrutiny officers, (iv.) the resolution tracking, and (v.) the questioning arrangements as the leading attributes. These attributes can be used to assess and evaluate the practical institutional

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for a Formative Evaluation of the City of Johannesburg 'Separation of Powers' Pilot Project



Source: Chikwema & Wotela (2016)

arrangements in South African local government in general and as practiced in the City of Johannesburg in particular. Further, their review exposes the following knowledge gaps on this subject. First, in South Africa, the challenge of local governments is not the absence of reforms but rather evaluating the contribution of the instituted local governance reforms.

Second, determining the influence of local dynamics when implementing governance reforms and assessing their impact. Last, accounting for public declarations that robust scrutiny is actually backed by practice. Being a formative evaluation, in this paper we interrogate the programme theory of the City of Johannesburg 'separation of powers' pilot project.

We focussed on the design logic operational arrangements of the model. With this knowledge in place, we then collected data and information on this project to compare its intentions to its reality.

To interpret these empirical results, we used (i.) the institutional theory to understand the physical and abstract structure of the governance model, (ii.) the principal-agent theory to understand the processes and procedures of the governance model and the (iii.) the democratic theory of governance to understand the broad framework within which the governance model was designed and implemented.

3. Research Strategy, Design, Procedure and Methods

We relied extensively on the qualitative processes of document analysis and semi-structured interviews to define the logic and programme theory of the City of Johannesburg's 'separation of powers' governance model and to assess the extent to which the implementation arrangements of the model followed this logic. We analyse official programme documentation of the model which include inception report, performance reports, committee establishment and membership reports, oversight committee reports, and committee terms of reference among other documentation.

Specifically, the document analysis focused on the inception report *'Report on the Proposed High-Level Legislative Structure of the City of Johannesburg'*, to establish the conceptualisation and objectives of the governance model; the *'Oversight and Scrutiny Framework for the City of Johannesburg Legislature'*, to determine the systems and procedures; *Terms of Reference of Committees* to obtain stated committee powers and functions for comparison; as well as *Oversight visit reports of Section 79 Committees*, *Oversight Reports of Committees on the Performance of City Departments and Entities* and *Oversight Committee Meeting Minutes* to determine and generate quantitative data on oversight committee outputs as well as volume of meetings; *Quarterly Performance Reports of City Departments and Entities* to determine the relevance of oversight focus areas to outcomes of the governance model.

The analysis of this documentation is complemented by thirty-five semi-structured interviews conducted with critical stakeholders of the 'separation of powers' governance model, including councillors,

chairpersons of oversight committees, office bearers, whips of political parties represented in the City of Johannesburg Council as well as researchers and committee coordinators who supported the oversight committees. The interview schedule was organised into an introductory section and five other broad sections covering; i.) the objectives of the governance model; ii.) the effect of the governance model on governance processes in the City; iii.) the challenges/functionality of the governance model; iv.) public participation and v.) recommendations for the governance model. The analysis of official documentation on the 'separation of powers' governance model and the responses to interview questions provided insight on a number of factors which include; the stakeholder interpretation of the stated objectives and rationale of the governance model, their perceptions of the structure, number and membership of oversight structures, powers and functions of oversight committees, resources and capacity available for oversight, as well as activities, processes, and procedures of the governance model-attributes that we identified in the literature review as critical to the conceptualisation and implementation of similar governance models. Therefore, our findings are drawn from two key sources-the thirty-five stakeholder interviews and the document analysis conducted on key programme documentation. To organise the interview outcome, an identifier was created for all the interview transcripts and organised by category of participants and then labelled each of the interview schedules using numbers i.e. interview number 1 to 35. This helped to establish similarities and differences in the responses of people of a similar category as well as between categories. Using qualitative content analysis, several themes (informed by both the emerging data and literature review) were developed from the research question, interview transcripts and the programme documentation, allowing categories to emerge out of data. These categories of data were arranged using a designed Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. See Table 1 on the following page.

In the first column of the excel worksheet, we inserted all the relevant themes that emerged from the research questions, literature, the interviews and programme documentation. Each subsequent column was numbered in accordance with the corresponding interview number. Each interview transcript was read looking for interviewee responses that were relevant to an identified theme.

Table 1: Illustration of Excel Spreadsheet Used to Organise and Analyse Interviews

To what extent does the 'SoP' governance model promote accountability oversight and public participation in the city of Johannesburg			
Theme	interview 1	interview 2	interview 3
Functionality of Separation of Powers		Honestly, I am not convinced by it; it has been frustrating to try and effectively change the direction of the City.	Accountability has been strengthened; There has been subtle tension: Model must improve service delivery without increasing decision making structures
Oversight, scrutiny and Accountability	Oversight committees are effective: Pass resolutions for implementation Chairpersons are tabling oversight reports. MMCs are accountable to Committees. The executive is cooperative.	We have researchers that support the work of the committee. In the health committee we conducted oversight visits on a monthly basis, surprise inspections and were able to pick up anomalies.	Oversight based on what is done and the quality of what is done has improved but there is room for improvement

Source: Authors

Where relevance was established the respondent's opinion was paraphrased along a relevant theme. This helped to disaggregate the information, clearly establishing what was relevant to each theme and identifying what was not directly relevant, in the process identifying what each respondent said about a particular theme, or whether they said anything at all about a theme. To determine the research story for each theme, the excel spreadsheet was read across each of the lines, one theme at a time. This helped to establish the different opinions, the dominant ones and those in complete contrast, and to establish the opinions that consistently appeared across the line. Through this process a theme-based-story related to the research question emerged.

4. Results and Discussion

This section provides for information that helped us deduce the causal logic of the 'separation of powers' governance model and its implementation arrangements. It provides for responses to three semi-structured interview questions pursuing information on the (i.) objectives of the governance model, (ii.) institutional and organisational arrangement for implementing the governance model, and (iii.) activities and outputs of the 'separation of powers' governance model. It complements the outcome of the analysis of programme documentation. When establishing the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, we reviewed selected similar studies on and evaluations of governance models. In doing so, we reviewed their respective research approaches, designs, procedure and methods as

well as their empirical results, findings, and conclusions that these studies have realised. Here we compare the empirical research results of these studies with ours.

We place our findings into two categories, those that reinforce already established perspectives, so most of our results and findings reinforce how governance models are established, structured, and operate. The second category of results and findings, however, is different from what was established in similar studies and thus reflect the peculiarity of South African local governments including Johannesburg. First, the objectives of the City of Johannesburg Municipality 'separation of powers' governance model - improving oversight, accountability and citizen engagement - and its causal logic echo those in Ashworth and Snape (2004) and Ashworth (2004). They found that one way of counter-balancing executive influence in decision making in Councils is to establish oversight and scrutiny committees and delegate the powers and functions that support this counter-balancing objective. They also established the link between oversight and organisational scrutiny and performance management which is mirrored in governance model of the City of Johannesburg which emphasises a performance evaluation objective in oversight committee terms of reference. Second, there is further agreement between our results and those of Ashworth (2003) who found that, as in the City of Johannesburg, often, committees are provided with a range of powers that, if implemented, are adequate to ensure effective implementation of the committees' mandates. However, it is also

common that committees are often unable to implement this wide range of powers fully, for a number of reasons. One reason is that the work of committees is largely skewed more towards routine performance monitoring, keeping committees focussed in a cycle of routine performance monitoring functions.

Using public accounts committees as an example, Ashworth (2003) also found, as is the situation in Johannesburg that the powers and functions of public accounts committees are limited to retrospective scrutiny of financial performance. Oversight committees in the City of Johannesburg and their specific role with regards to budgetary and financial scrutiny remains uncertain and yet to be clarified. In practice, due to limitations in the implementation of their seemingly adequate powers and functions, committees in the City of Johannesburg consider themselves powerless yet they have authority in their terms of reference which if exercised would make them powerful. Third, regarding the range of powers and authority of oversight committees, our results and findings echo the findings of Cole (2001); Ashworth (2003); Makhado and others (2012) that there exists a common set of core formal powers available to oversight committees which include power to call evidence sessions, to make recommendations to Council, as well as power to demand responses from the executive. An assessment of terms of reference of oversight committees reveals these powers and functions are also entrusted to oversight committees in the City of Johannesburg.

Similarly, on the chairing of oversight committees by majority party councillors, this arrangement is not unique to Johannesburg. Johnson and Hatter (2003) concluded that many local authorities in the United Kingdom and Scotland resolved to let the ruling party provide chairpersons for either all or most of the overview and scrutiny committees (Johnson & Hatter, 2003). There were some exceptions though, such as the equal spread of chairs in some Councils and the proportional spread of chairs in a few others. This was done to manage political dynamics as well as to increase the perception of objectivity in the governance processes. Fourth, and last, the study established that the concept of a committee of chairpersons as exists in the City of Johannesburg is not unique. It resonates with Johnson and Hatter's (2003) results and findings who conclude, based on the scrutiny model in the United Kingdom, that a

co-ordinating body such as the chairpersons' committee is extremely helpful because it allows for regular communication between the committee chairpersons and, therefore, eliminates overlaps. It also allows other committees to know what other committees are doing. Similarly, having a committee that oversees public funds is also not unique to the City of Johannesburg legislature. It is present at national and provincial level where it is referred to as the Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA). It is prevalent in international jurisdictions that have audit committees. The motivation for this committee is to improve management of public funds especially at a time when South African municipalities were failing to account for the resources disbursed to them (Makhado, Masehela & Mokhari, 2012).

There are however, some results and findings established in this study that are different from what has been established in past studies, which to some extent reflects the peculiarity of the City of Johannesburg context. First, Ashworth and Snape (2004), Ashworth (2003), as well as Leach, *et al.* (2003) emphasise the importance of policy development and review as a critical function of oversight and scrutiny committees. In the City of Johannesburg, the study found that the terms of reference of the oversight committees do not elevate policy development and review to strategic importance but emphasises the role of committees in the by-law process. The governance model retains policy development and strategy review to be a prerogative of the executive.

Second, we found the number and average size of oversight committees established in the City of Johannesburg to be high when compared to other similar jurisdictions (Cole, 2001; Ashworth & Snape, 2004; Sandford & Maer, 2004; Cole & McAllister, 2015). Sanford and Maer (2004) established that there are three basic options for structuring oversight committees – that is, either matching executive member portfolios or matching the executive's key service directorates or establishing cross-cutting committees which match neither portfolios nor directorates. They recommend that overview and scrutiny committees take on a cross-cutting structure rather than a narrow service-based structure to mitigate limited time available for oversight activities and improved coordination of oversight programme intervention. In contrast, in the City of Johannesburg, the ten oversight committees correspond to each executive portfolio while in the United Kingdom the decision to establish oversight

committees is based on key themes and areas of focus due to limited time available and restricted numbers due to smaller Councils (Sandford & Maer, 2004). For example, a study conducted when the United Kingdom initiated its local government model shows that none of the local authorities studied had more than six scrutiny committees and in many instances these committees covered one or two complete cabinet portfolios as well as small parts of other portfolios and often including issues which are not within the competence of the Council (Sandford & Maer, 2004). This approach tends to be efficient with regards of how committees dealt with their business. Third, in terms of decision-making powers of committees we established that committees in the City of Johannesburg do not have any decision-making powers, they can only make recommendations to Council. The study established that while this is similar to provincial and national oversight committees, it is significantly different to what was established elsewhere. Sanford and Mayer, (2004) established that a fundamental feature of the oversight and scrutiny model in the United Kingdom local government is that oversight committees are formally empowered to call-in executive decisions before they are approved or immediately after they are approved (Sanford & Mayer, 2004).

In Section 2, we provided for three frameworks that we can use to interpret the empirical research results on the design and implementation arrangements of the governance model as presented in Section 4. First, the democratic theory of governance which states that democratic governance is based on the enforcement of the fundamental values of democracy complemented by principles of governance which include public participation; second, the institutional theory which explains the nature and form of government institutions; third, the principal agent theory which is useful for explaining accountability relationships between citizens (principals) and executive (agents) as well as between the legislature (acting as principal) on behalf of citizens and the executive and bureaucracy. In varying degrees all the above frameworks are relevant to explain findings relating to (i.) motivation and conceptualisation of the governance model; (ii.) structure, and components of the governance model; and (iii.) processes and procedures of the governance model – critical aspects of the 'separation of powers governance model. In essence, the overall governance arrangements and subsequent implementation of the 'separation of powers' governance model in the City of Johannesburg can

be understood within the context of the democratic theory of governance. The implementation of the 'separation of powers' governance model resonates with the intent of improving democratic governance in local government in general through enhancing aspects of democratic governance using new political management arrangements. This theory explains the logic of improving accountability, public participation and oversight through emphasising the relative independence of legislative and executive functions.

The separation of powers principle and its advocacy for checks and balances helps explain the terms of reference of oversight committees and the powers and functions allocated to oversight committees. In its crude form, separation of powers is a separation of legislative, executive and judicial functions of government primarily to prevent abuse of power by any one of these bodies through a system of checks and balances (Samuels, 2002). The core assumption is that where sufficient checks and balances are applied and are fully functional the legislature and executive bodies discipline each other to the benefit of the electorate. The powers and functions of the City of Johannesburg's oversight committees are derived from the need to create checks and balances which give effect to the separation of powers principle. The principal-agent theory also informs, to some extent, the allocation of a 'scrutineer' role to nonexecutive councillors inform the elevation of non-executive councillors to play a more significant role in local governance. This counters the dominance of one arm of government, primarily the executive, dominating other arms of government (Sweeting, 1999; Samuels, 2002; Wilson & Game, 2002). This explains why there is a strong emphasis on strengthening the role of non-executive councillors as compared to the executive in the new governance model. There is deliberate focus on ensuring that within the new governance model, the executive and the legislature are viewed as equal and that councillors play their representative roles.

Institutionalism is more appropriate to explain the findings on the overall structure and configuration of the legislature in the 'separation of powers' governance model in Johannesburg. This theory explains that based on historical and other political development factors, there exist templates of how particular institutions are structured and when new institutions are developed, they borrow their structure from these existing institutional templates, sometimes without due consideration of

the technical performance requirements (Peters, 1999). Organisations, according to institutional theory have to accommodate institutional expectations in order to prosper and survive even as those expectations may have little to do with the technical requirements of their expected performance. The physical structure and processes and procedures of the legislature of the City of Johannesburg are arranged like the parliament (National Assembly) of South Africa with a set number of oversight committees, even as there exist different and potentially more efficient structures (as shown elsewhere) to operationalise the separation of powers governance model. However, the choice of a parliament, according to the theory, has been defined prior to, as being the most appropriate way of organising a legislature. This explains the reproduction of a typically parliamentary structure, components and functions in the City of Johannesburg.

The structure, components, processes and procedures of the Johannesburg governance model were 'borrowed' from the structure of Westminster parliamentary tradition as applied to South African national and provincial legislatures. It mirrors the configuration of executive and legislative arms of government and the functions, roles and responsibilities of the national parliament and provincial legislatures. The similarities of the structure to the national and provincial government can therefore, be explained by this theory. The theory (sociological institutionalism components in particular) further suggest that public organizations, prefer not to be innovative because conformity reinforces their political legitimacy and improves the social image of their members, therefore adopting a similar structure in Johannesburg also presented legitimacy. A critical challenge, however, of this structure was that it overlooked the peculiarity of local government. The processes and procedures implemented to effect oversight, accountability and public participation as enshrined in the terms of reference of oversight committees in Johannesburg can also be viewed in the context of principal-agent theory. This is a useful analytical framework to explain executive-legislative accountability relations, specifically, how delegations of authority and accountability arrangements envisaged in the model were conceptualised and implemented. The new governance model emphasised the role of public representatives (Council) as agents of residents and principals of the executive, empowered by communities to hold the executive to account. The model also recognised the role of

the executive as agents of Council on one hand and principals and the administration on the other. It elevated and reaffirmed Council as the sole decision-making body of Council, accountable to the requirements of the Constitution.

The 'separation of powers' governance implemented in the City of Johannesburg while generally like the broad interpretation of separation of powers principle, also reflects adaptation in several instances. Again, this variation is of theoretical relevance. There is evidence that it is impossible to implement a formal separation of powers as envisaged in the principle and that in many instances many jurisdictions choose an understanding of the principle for implementation. One of the key reasons for this is that for a start, the executive is formed out of the legislature and the full Council sitting has both members of the legislature and executive, eliminating the possibility of a formal and clear separation between the two. This explains why the model implemented in Johannesburg has delegations that are unique to Johannesburg and could be substantially different if implemented in a different metropolitan municipality.

According to Lane (1994:220-221) the doctrine of separation of powers is not binding in terms of its implementation and that jurisdictions can alter its implementation. This is because it is impossible to implement a formal clear version of the separation of powers governance model as it would collapse government (Lane, 1994). This explains why in other jurisdictions; similar governance models are also referred to as 'fusion' or 'incoherent' or 'hybrid' application of different aspects of the separation of powers principle. The City of Johannesburg's model is no different, and it is a combination of aspects of the separation of powers principle perceived capable of functioning within the City's context. In the City of Johannesburg 'separation of powers' referred more to the elevation of legislative functions at local government level which is different from the classical separation of three arms of government, i.e. the executive, the legislative and the judiciary (Persson, Roland & Tabellini, 1997).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Despite some levels of variation, there is, generally, a commonly shared understanding of the logic of the 'separation of powers' governance model, and more specifically, its objectives as being improving

accountability through oversight and public participation. The establishment of the governance model presented a major transformation in the physical governance structure and governance arrangements of Council in Johannesburg, in line with the physical structure and governance arrangements applied in provincial and national legislature. The City of Johannesburg retained the use of committees, albeit increased in number and with a broad range of delegations and powers to implement legislative functions of Council. There are also a range of internal processes and mechanisms such as question time, motions and debates that support committees and council to execute its responsibilities. The City of Johannesburg also put in place significant physical and financial resources, insufficient in some instances to support the implementation of the governance model. The conclusion can be drawn that the governance model was implemented (physically and operationally) as intended, largely informed by the already existing templates of national and provincial legislatures in South Africa. The local political and organisational factors influenced and shaped the conceptualisation and implementation of the model leading to the City of Johannesburg implementing a merged/fused version of the separation of powers model, because the constitutional mandate of Council eliminated the possibility of a formal and physical separation between the executive and legislative arms of government as was possible with provincial and national spheres of government.

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Challenges Faced by Local Municipalities in Controlling the Informal Traders: The Case of Polokwane Local Municipality

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to unpack the challenges faced by local municipalities in controlling the forever increasing number of informal street traders and their unfriendly environmental practices. It is, however, cannot be argued that rapid growth of rural-urban migration and urbanisation phenomena together with a slow expansion of employment in the formal sector has forced the largest share of the workforce into the informal economy. Thus, placing much of the developmental burden on the government, local government in particular. Yet, it is also observed that, local municipalities throughout the country are going through a process of important, and often difficult change, and street trading accelerates as the local municipalities are also facing daily developmental problems. This paper also intends to find out any informal street traders measures that could be used by the municipalities in managing the sector as well as managing the uncontrollable influx of people who resorts to informal street trading in cities and towns. The study was conducted at the Polokwane Municipality. The study followed a qualitative approach, whereby personal interviews was conducted with the Polokwane Municipality's Local Economic Development office/unit to gather a sum of challenges experienced within the city posed by the informal street traders. The data in this paper is analysed and interpreted in a narrative form. Although, the findings and results are not limited to those collected from the municipality, the use of literature was employed to gather more information. Inter alia, the respondents indicated that there is a lack of enforcement of street trading by laws. The recommendations, amongst others, are that there should be law enforcement by the municipality, adherence to municipal by-laws by both the municipal officials and informal street traders, establishment of management structure, integrated management and planning, limiting overtrading and preference on trading levies.

Keywords: Informal trading, Municipality, Polokwane, Development, Management

1. Introduction

According to International Labour Organisation (ILO), (2002); Lyons and Snoxell (2005) rapid growth in rural-urban migration together with a slow expansion of employment in the formal sector has forced the largest share of the workforce into the informal economy. Cognisant to the problem of informality, since the 1960s, policy makers and development agents have recognized the persistence of unemployment as a major challenge of development in the cities of Less Developed Countries (LDCs) (Tanga, 2009). In response to this, the informal economy became the chief source of livelihood for the majority of the urban poor in LDCs (ILO, 2002). As a country undergoing transformation, South Africa could not be exempted from those other poor countries struggling to kick-start the formal economy. It is however argued that, many developing countries are currently experiencing rapid rates of urbanization (Alaci, 2010). In 2010, more than 70 percent of urban residents in the world were found in developing countries (UN-Habitat, 2012). It is also estimated

that, between 2010 and 2015, 200,000 people were added to the world's urban population each day and about 90% of this daily increase was projected to take place in developing countries (UN-Habitat, 2012). The process of rapid population growth in the cities of developing countries is, however, mainly due to the high rate of rural-urban migration leading to a significant increase in the urban labour force.

According to Fundie, Chisoro and Karodia (2015) the informal sector in South Africa can play a pivotal role in alleviating the high levels of unemployment and poverty due to the potential increase in employment creation and the challenge of the government to pick and achieve its main objectives on the developmental agenda or policy such as the National Development Plan. The South African government has been encouraging people for over past years to start up their own businesses to create job opportunities and to accelerate economic growth (*ibid*). The numbers of informal street traders in South Africa have grown significantly. Tshuma and Jari (2013), Schmognerova (2004) and Selepe (2017) state that

job creation and poverty alleviation are the positive impacts of informal trading in South Africa. Informal traders have attracted increasing attention in recent years in light of concrete evidence of the importance of new business creation for economic growth and development (ACS, Arenius, Hay & Minniti, 2005).

There is a challenge of an increasing number of informal street traders within areas that are managed by local municipalities in most cities and towns in South Africa. Given the challenges that local government is experiencing in South Africa as eminent through the on-going service delivery protests (Municipal IQ, 2017), it remains unquestionable that there are number of individuals that see opportunity of survival in the informal sector. It is however necessary and equally important to note that in South Africa, Section 152 of the Constitution, 1996 sets out the objects of the local government which *inter alia*, includes; ensuring the provision of services to the communities in a sustainable manner; promoting social and economic development as well as ensuring safe and healthy environment, whereas section 153 of the same constitution states *inter alia* that; the municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning process to give priority to the basic needs of the community. In the same vein, the latter could imply that those informal street traders that are operating outside the proper administrative regulations of the municipality may eventually trigger administrative and managerial challenges to a given municipality. Similarly, Local municipalities are expected to ensure that street trading does not operate outside of the law. Informal trading by-laws have been adopted by local municipalities based on the Business Act, 1991 to regulate informal trading. Most by-laws related to informal trading are proportional to the following regulations being effected by municipalities: Traders must not get in the way of traffic or pedestrians; Traders must not get in the way of delivery vehicles; Traders must not use gas, electricity or other equipment in a way that is dangerous for the public; Traders must not get in the way of fire hydrants and road signs; and Traders must keep their sites clean.

2. Management of Street Trading in South Africa

Lund, Nicholson and Skinner (2000) maintain that in South Africa, area managers are charged respectively with the need to secure space for traders. They

are responsible for the development and promotion of street traders as entrepreneurs of the present and future. The management of the informal economy while considering the needs and demands of pedestrians and motorists for urban spaces should also fall within the sphere of their function. In the Polokwane Municipality, street trading function is placed under the Local Economic Development Section. It is the same unit that is responsible for designing the street trading by-laws and the general management of street trading (Majadibodu, 2016). Most of the municipalities in Limpopo are managing street trading in these particular LED offices. Tidimalo Chuene, Polokwane Spokesperson has this to say of the hawkers who invaded the Good Hope Primary School's pavements:

"The municipality is committed to ensuring that trading within its boundaries is regulated. Any person who wants to trade in the streets within the municipality area must apply and be granted a permit to trade. Failure to comply with the municipality's street trading by-laws will result in a R500.00 fine" (Malatji, 2014).

The Polokwane Municipality has developed a policy for the management of street trading within Polokwane Municipality as a way of appreciating the existence of the sector as well as managing the sector in the municipality (Polokwane Local Municipality, Undated: 1). Street trading in this municipality is approved, regulated and monitored. The policy acknowledges street trading as a positive development that contributes to the creation of jobs and alleviates poverty. Products and services prohibited as in the Polokwane Street trading By-Laws (Polokwane Local Municipality, Undated: 5) include the sale of flammable liquids; drugs; intoxicating substances; fireworks; braiding and cutting of hair; the sale of raw meat and perishable foodstuff; repair of motor vehicles and car washing on street parking bays but allowed on demarcated areas. The following are restricted trading areas in the Central Business District (CBD): Landros Mare' Street, Thabo Mbeki Street, corner Rissik and Paul Kruger Streets and Paul Kruger & Excelsior Streets. Street trading in the City of Polokwane is concentrated along the streets but mostly in the taxi ranks where a large number of commuters and pedestrians are attracted to. The success of street traders depends on the knowledge they have on the management of small businesses and the understanding of the concept development and its interrelationship with other variables.

3. Legislative Framework Governing the Informal Sector in South Africa

In South Africa, street trading is fundamentally governed and regulated by municipal by-laws as well as policies at the local government level (Selepe, 2017). The Businesses Act, 72 of 1991, together with the Businesses Amendment Act, 186 of 1993, gives municipalities the mandate to draw up and implement such by-laws. Municipal by-laws must finally be in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 and legislation which gives effect to constitution e.g. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. In contrast, Legodi and Kanjere (2015) argue and state that there is no direct legislation that governs informal business sector in South Africa, however it is generally accepted that the legal framework governing the Small, Medium and Micro Sized Enterprises (SMMEs) sector, also governs the informal sector, amongst others, these includes; Businesses Act 1991 (71 of 1991); National Environment Management Act, 107 of 1998; Regulation 918 and Street trading strategy.

4. The Challenges Facing the Informal Sector in South Africa

According to Saunders and Loots (2006) one of the key challenges faced by the informal economy in South Africa is vulnerability to microeconomic and macroeconomic trends. For an example, the sales of vegetables and fruit in major retailers negatively affect the market share of street traders. Another challenge facing the informal sector is the relative lack of government support for the informal economy. Uys and Blaauw (2007) states that the informal or second economy is familiar with all levels of government as representing a real and significant component of the South African economy, but despite this, at the national government level, there are no coherent policies specifically tailored to support the informal economy. However, Nenzhele (2013) and Selepe (2017) whispers that there are challenges and obstacles that are faced by informal traders. Some of the obstacles are also experienced by the formal enterprises. However, informal enterprises (traders) are much more vulnerable in relation to some problems (Becker, 2004). Tambunan, (2009) and Nenzhele, (2013) identified three common groups of constraints faced by informal traders which are infrastructural, institutional and economical:

4.1 Infrastructural Challenges

Infrastructural challenges are associated with poor infrastructural services such as transport, storage facilities, water, electricity, lack of working premises, poorly developed physical markets, toilets and storage facilities.

4.2 Institutional Challenges

Institutional challenges include lack of access to formal training, lack of skills, particularly basic economic skills and managerial expertise; Lack of formal schooling, sometimes even resulting in illiteracy; limited access to land and property right; excessive government regulations; limited access to formal finance and banking institutions; and too restrictive or cumbersome taxation systems and labour law.

4.3 Economic Challenges

Economic challenges include, excessive registration and transaction costs of starting or operating business; low income or lack of regular income as household consumption competes for the use of business earnings; and limited access to technology.

4.4 Socio-Economic Challenges

Kamara (2012) further states that the majority of informal traders have very daunting working conditions. *Inter alia*, Kamara states that; most of the informal traders have wooden tables and plastic offcuts which serve as mats to expose their merchandise. They are generally exposed to the sun. This not so rosy situation strengthens the conviction of informal traders whose most vital worry is their "survival" and is at the same time a means of urging the state and local authorities to address their situation. Similarly, Ngcaweni (2000) adds that, earnings are only one aspect of employment. Job security is also of equal importance from the point of view of security of employment and security of earnings. There is more job security in the informal sector, than the formal one because one cannot be fired from self-employment. One might also expect informal earnings to be subject to more fluctuation than occur in the formal sector. Ngcaweni (2000) further explains that South Africa has experienced a mixture of foreign nationals e.g. Senegalese, Somalis, Nigerian, Zimbabweans and Ghanaian people who have joined the street trade

in South Africa. Some of these immigrants have become active agents of forged or fake goods, and thereby offer unfair competition to the local street traders.

5. City of Polokwane Street Trading by-Law: Some Exegesis

According to Polokwane Local Municipality Street Trading By-law (n.d: 3) one of the objects of Municipalities set out in the Constitution Republic of South Africa, 1996 is to promote social and economic development, and also obliges a Municipality to participate in national and provincial development programs. Furthermore, the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, stipulates that a Municipality must develop a culture of Municipal governance that promotes and undertakes development within the municipality. The Municipality must for the purpose of this Act, develop local government legislation to create terms and conditions for local communities who participates in economic development and business as a whole. However, amongst other by-laws this paper discusses few of those provisions such as: Restricted & Prohibited Areas, in this case informal street traders in Polokwane are restricted of selling in some areas or streets in particular but this is case in in the town of Polokwane. According to the street trading by-law of City of Polokwane (n.d; 9) it states therein that:

"The Municipality may, by resolution and in terms of section A (2) of the Act, declare any place in its area of jurisdiction to be an area in which street trading is restricted or prohibited, and must, to enable compliance therewith, prescribe or make signs, markings or other devices indicating"

With regard to prohibited conduct, often street traders are associated with unfriendly public health and environmental practices. It is stated in the by-law on street trading of City of Polokwane that:

"No person shall, within the municipal area of the Polokwane Local Municipality, carry on the business of a street trader: a. at a place or in any area declared by the Municipality in terms of section 6A (2) (a) of the Act as a place or area in which street trading is prohibited."

In terms of prohibited products and services, the by-law of the City of Polokwane enshrines that:

"Selling and/or offering of the following products and/or services are not allowed. Sale or any trade of flammable liquids. Trade involving any illegal activities i.e. drugs. Repair of motor vehicles, including washing of motor vehicles. Liquor or any intoxicating substances. Harmful chemicals, poisons and defoliants; Raw meat, fish, livestock, Mopani worms and all perishable foodstuffs (including raw and boiled eggs) but excluding ice cream and frozen yoghurt; Fireworks; Clay and clay soils and Braiding of hair".

In most cases, within the city and jurisdiction of Polokwane municipality the practices of informal trading are usually contrary to the provision of the By-law of street trading, informal street traders are trading prohibited products and services, they are trading on the restricted and prohibited areas as well as practicing the prohibited conduct as a result the entire municipality faces challenges on how to control such natures.

6. Research Design and Methodology

The paper followed an explorative research design. The researcher attempted to explore the challenges that are faced by the local municipalities in controlling and/or managing the informal street traders with specific reference to Polokwane Local Municipality. The study mainly followed a qualitative approach. A qualitative methodology has been chosen to gather opinions, views and facts from selected municipal personnel with the use of semi-structured interviews. As explained by Babbie and Mouton (2007), a qualitative study attempts to study human action from the social perspective. The research question for this paper was qualitative in nature as it attempts to explore as opposed to measure. The study was conducted at Polokwane Local municipality. The target population of this study was the municipal officials particularly the office of the Local Economic Development (LED) which is now referred to as the office of Economic Development and Tourism. It is under the Directorate of Economic Development and Planning. The office was chosen because it is mandatory to the economic life of the municipality, this includes the life of informal street traders. The target population was the municipal officials, particularly the abovementioned department. The research employed non-probability and its subtype purposive or judgemental sampling. Purposive or judgemental sampling method was used because the respondents were known prior to data collection and were in a position to give additional

information than may be expected. The sample size of (06) six respondents was chosen to represent the department, however, on three (03) staff members managed to participate in the study. Data was collected through in-depth personal interviews with the delegated staff members' department or SBU from the Polokwane Local Municipality and also includes data from literature or online documents. Data in this paper is analysed thematically and narratively.

7. Results and Discussions

Data was collected through interviews; the interview took place amongst the three (03) departmental personnel. The main research question of this paper was to investigate solely the challenges that local municipalities are often confronted with, as far as controlling informal street trading is concerned. The objective was to answer the research question which needs to understand the challenges faced by local municipalities, using City of Polokwane as a Case Study. This section presents and interprets the findings from the respondents in the Department/ Unit of Local Economic Development (Polokwane Local Municipality). The findings are presented thematically and interpreted simultaneously. In the interview the question was on challenges faced by Polokwane local municipalities.

7.1 Lack of Law Enforcement and Trading Balance

According to the respondent the challenge was the enforcement of law, particularly the by-law on informal street trading.

"There is lack of law enforcement by the municipal officials, informal traders are there to exist and often engage in the wrong environmental practices". The respondent further indicated that "There is inability to strike a balance between the formal and informal traders". In the case of the latter statement, the respondent concisely gave an example of the Mankweng (Turf loop) KFC that there was an informal street trader who was selling on that spot before the KFC building could be established and said that he will not leave the spot because he's been selling there before the existence of KFC.

7.2 Lack of Co-Existence Amongst Traders

On behalf of the department, the respondent mentioned that there is a need for co-existence between

the formal and informal traders. In context, the respondent stated that: *"Informal street traders do not want to co-exist among themselves"*. This could imply that if there are chances and international or migrant traders, it is possibly apparent that issues such as xenophobia and xenophobic attacks may occur in the jurisdiction of the municipality, and the municipality may have to account for that through relevant department and these becomes a major challenge.

7.3 Poor Integration of Plans and Misuse of Infrastructure

In this area, the respondent gave a multiple number of issues or challenges to be precise. The respondent indicated that:

"There's lack of integration of plans amongst municipal units to control the influx of informal street traders".

On implication, it has emanated during the field-work that offices such as: Health Department, Waste Department, Traffic Department, Legal Services and Community Safety Department, are also involved and cooperative towards the management of informal street traders. Each of this department is responsible for the activities that are being performed by the informal street traders. For instance, it is the work of the traffic officers to see to it that street traders are hampering the way of vehicles on the road and they should take action. The respondent indicated that municipality is faced with the forever outburst of drainage system within the town and even in the outskirts of the city. Informal traders are imposing more of financial strain on the municipality, because it could be deduced that infrastructural maintenance in the town would necessitate excessive expenditure. To support this, the respondent stated that:

"There is consistent blockage of drainage system in the town and informal traders are misusing the infrastructure given by the municipality".

7.4 Reluctance to Pay Trading Levies and Trading on Prohibited Areas

It is well known that informal traders should pay the trading levy to the municipality of that location, these levies are paid either, daily, weekly, monthly or annually. The respondent indicated that: *"Informal traders do not want to pay trading*

levies". The Polokwane municipality street trading by-law outlines and explicitly clarify that there are prohibited and restricted areas that informal street traders are not supposed to trading on or at. The municipality is then challenged by this nature of practice. The respondent further indicated that:

"Informal traders are trading on the undesignated areas such as; parking lots, and before formal and registered businesses.

Nenzhelele (2013) and Selepe (2017) contend that municipalities also face challenges when they deal with informal traders. *Inter alia*, this challenges includes: instability and vulnerability of informal traders' representation and associations, Multiple structures within municipalities, (which do not plan and operate jointly) are mandated to facilitate, manage, implement and monitor informal trading; No common denominator, between hawkers on their constitutional rights to trade and the municipal by-laws prohibiting them from trading on specific sites; Increasing number of street traders which results in overcrowding; and Low literacy levels are also a challenge to the local government because informal traders are unable to exercise their constitutional rights and duties and this continuously frustrates municipal officials.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

From the above discussion, it is for some reason clear that municipalities are faced with a number of challenges which can range from those that are stated in the paper to even those that are not stated in this paper. Municipalities should not be always seen as stepping stone of every challenge that the society is confronted with. The public (informal street traders) should also protect the environment at which they are operating from. As stated on the response for the Respondent number (3) where it is stated that there's misuse of infrastructure, of which it could reflect truth. Today, in most cities and towns particularly on the streets there is spillage of unclean water, the drainage systems are blocked, also there is a development of smell that results from the unhygienic food stuff thrown away by the ordinary public and informal traders in particular and this pose a serious threat to public health and environmental safety.

Municipalities, time and again are faced with the challenges of budget and if the practices of misuse of infrastructure continues this may put a strain on the

municipal budget, and this requires informal street traders to be careful when are using the municipal infrastructures. Municipalities are operating on the revenue that is collected from the civil society and informal traders are no exception. When the informal traders are reluctant to pay the trading levies this places the municipal revenue collection processes on strain, it also impacts the municipal finance. It should not be forgotten that this revenue will at a later stage service this informal traders. It is also important for the municipal offices to work together in ensuring the smooth running of the informal trading. Those who are enforcing law on informal traders should be hands on and protect the environment of the city and thereby enforcing informal trading by-laws on informal trading should determinately observe this mandate. This paper does not intend to isolate informal trading from its operation, but should be carried out in a manner that it does not compromise the environmental safety and public health. At the midst of that, municipalities should not always take accountability of the actions of the citizenry. Individuals, public and informal traders should release the municipality from the unnecessary administrative stress and challenges that the local government is faced with, as a result of malpractices by informal traders including uncooperative officers and offices. Emanating from the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

8.1 Management Structure

An administrative structure to manage informal trading is necessary. It is important to have representation of stakeholders on the management. The principle is area-based management. In terms of this principle, management zones are determined to promote orderly planning and development. Within management zones, trading in certain places can be prohibited, for example, around historic buildings. Within the area management zone, a local/area team is responsible for management. For example, an Informal Trading Task Team could be injected and must manage informal trading. The principle on which the management of trading areas is based is that 'different situations require different models and different relationships, depending on the characteristics of the market or informal trading areas'. Management of the formal market sites is granted on a tender basis and outsourced by the municipality. Permits are granted for fixed trading sites, mobile trading and intersection trading, with a fixed number of traders per intersection.

8.2 Integrated Management and Planning

Informal trading is not merely the responsibility of one department of the municipality. Many departments are involved, for example Local Economic Development, Metro Police, Safety and Security, Environmental Health, Health, Legal Services, Land-use Planning and Sanitation. An Interdepartmental technical task teams should be involved in issues relating to informal trade. The establishment of an integrated service delivery consisting of three portfolios, namely utilities, services and cleansing; economic development and planning; and community services could be useful in this case. In addition to managing informal trade, a large number of external institutions may also be involved as service providers. These include the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), welfare departments and NGOs. These institutions should also be involved in the Informal Sector Coordinating Committee to ensure a comprehensive support programme.

8.3 Limiting Overtrading

A problem that is endemic of informal trading is often the numbers of informal traders. Very few can be accommodated in markets and the informal sector cannot accommodate all the subsistence traders. In that case, in revamping the sector in the long-term, the subsistence traders will disappear from the sector and be absorbed into the burgeoning economy as employees in the formal sector. It is probably futile to hope that the informal sector (even in its current format) would be fully absorbed in future. Therefore, there must be a limit to the number of traders the streets can accommodate.

8.4 Spatial Planning

Selepe (2017) states that spatial planning is part of the integrated development of a municipality. An IDP contains a Spatial Development Framework (SDF). Both the IDP and the SDF must accommodate informal trading. The land-use management scheme within the SDF must indicate those areas demarcated for informal trading.

8.5 Preferences on Trading Fee/Levies

The issue of the payment of rental or levies must be carefully addressed. Once again the type of market/trader will determine the amount of the levy/rental. Preferences on trading fees could be made in the

same way as a value is placed on built property depending on where it is located, a value is placed on a trading site, such as a pavement trading site. A system of differentiated rentals is applied, to cover street traders, travelling vendors and people trading in built markets. Rentals are based on location and level of services provided. For instance, Ligthelm & Van Wyk (2004) indicated that in Johannesburg, informal traders pay various levies at the Metro Mall open stalls with a roof covering the rentals vary from R75,00 to R210,00 per month; semi-closed stalls with steel gates from R350,00 to R650,00 per month; and shop/kitchen stalls from R 400,00 to R 800,00 per month, depending on services and facilities available. This money could be used for the maintenance and upkeep of the markets.

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An Exploration of Reasons Behind Service Delivery Protests in South Africa: A Case of Bolobedu South at the Greater Tzaneen Municipality

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Abstract: This paper aimed at exploring the underlying reasons behind municipal service delivery protests at Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality. South African municipalities also form part of concerned public entities in terms of service delivery backlogs and protests behind service delivery. Over the past few years, South Africa has experienced a large number of protests against poor and insufficient service delivery across most municipalities in various provinces. Therefore, an increase in service delivery protests in South African municipalities, as regularly seen in various media platforms such as newspapers, television and social media makes it necessary for policy-makers, government practitioners and scholars to understand the underlying factors behind service delivery protests. This paper also intended to explore if whether community members protest due to poor or sufficient service delivery. It is quite evident that some people take advantage of the protests to their best interests rather than protesting for better service delivery. To accomplish the aim of this paper, a desktop research approach was applied to validated the argument and to uncover the underlying factors of service delivery protests. From the literature perspective, it is discovered that unemployment, poverty and lack of access to information, political instability, corruption, nepotism and lack of public participatory are underlying factors behind service delivery protests. Despite some of the success of the post-apartheid South African government, the country still faces some serious challenges of high unemployment, poverty, inequality and political instability. These are some of the key factors which culminate in citizens on streets protesting or expressing their dissatisfaction over the problem of poor service delivery.

Keywords: Dissatisfaction, Poverty, Protests, Service delivery, Unemployment

1. Introduction

Service delivery remains one of the major challenges of the 21st century. Service delivery protests are not uncommon around the world especially in those countries where public service delivery remains a challenge. At Yemen in Asia, during 2012, the country experienced protests coupled with road blockages by citizens demanding lower fuel prices and increased supply of electricity. There were also widespread protests against government and security officials accused of corruption (Akinboade, Mokwena & Kinfack, 2014:10). In South Africa, protesting is not a new phenomenon nor is it a phenomenon which is unique. As early as the 1700's for instance, during the French revolution, citizens protested against perceived injustices perpetrated by the governing elite against the poor and working class (Brown, 2017). Cases indicate that there is almost no country or continent which can claim that they have not experienced some form of unrest or violent protests by citizens. Therefore, citizens have been involved on service delivery protests because

they were no longer satisfied with the status quo of service provision or about the undelivered promises of the elected government. In this regard, South Africa has seen both, violent and non-violent protests, prior and post first democratically elected government (Brown, 2017:3).

Service provision is a constitutional obligation in terms of section 152 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which lay obligations to the municipalities that the objects of local government are: (a) to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities; (b) to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; (c) to promote social and economic development; (d) to promote a safe and healthy environment; and (e) to encourage the involvement of communities and community organizations in the matters of local government (Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996). Therefore, South African municipalities are legal obliged to ensure the provision services as enshrined by the constitution. Mathebula (2014) indicates that most

service delivery protests have been about unfulfilled objects of local government which often leads to community members on street demanding for the provision of services to communities.

According to Burger (2009), there are various reasons which contribute to service delivery protests within the jurisdiction of South African municipalities, including at Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality. The first reason behind service delivery protests is dissatisfaction of delivery of basic municipal services such as clean running water, electricity and toilets, especially in rural settlements. Another reason includes the unemployment rate which is officially at around 27%, high levels of poverty, poor infrastructures such as road, health facilities and lack of houses (StatsSA, 2018). These matters add to the growing dissatisfaction in South African communities and generally lead to many socio-economic challenges such as high levels of crime and diseases. These issues have become in the wake of political promises from 1994 elections, whereby people were promised that all and most of these will be addressed once the new government is placed into power. To some protesters, unfulfilled promises have been recurring in every election since 1994. Most of these service delivery protests have also turned violent whereby criminals are taking advantage of the situation (Burger, 2009).

This paper explored variety of factors underlying service delivery protests in South African municipalities, with particular reference to Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality. It is further evident that failure to render municipal goods and services could prompt impatient communities into rioting and protesting as a means of forcing the government to deliver (Shaidi, 2013). Therefore, it is paramount that a proper exploration into the root causes behind service delivery protests be launched. The paper applied qualitative research design to uncover trends in thoughts, opinions and to dive deeper into the problem. Qualitative research design was also deployed to allow the researcher an opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of the underlying reasons behind service delivery protests using Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality as a case of reference. In other words, a desktop research design was used to review documentation. According to Morudu (2017:2), an increase in service delivery protests in South African context, as regularly seen in various media platforms such as newspapers, television, social media such as Facebook, Twitter and

YouTube. These make it essential for policy-makers, scholars and government practitioners to know the underlying reasons behind service delivery protests. In truth, the reasons behind service delivery protests are normally poorly understood and this has raised many speculations on why protests occur and if indeed whether these protests are really about service delivery or not. Given a large number of protests that have occurred in the recent years South African's Provinces Municipalities, it is no astonishment that there is a mounting concern amongst the public as to why these protests are happening (Allan & Heese, 2004).

The South African municipalities have been seriously criticized for its poor administration which results in poor service delivery to the public. Fraud and corruption in the local government sphere and public service in general, remains a huge challenge for good governance in the public sector where huge sums of state funds go missing without being accounted for and state resources being utilised for personal gain. It is therefore evident that the public sector lacks an adequate reporting system to support good governance (Smit & Cronje, 2002:192). Service delivery has become a common problem in South Africa. Starting from Harrismith in Durban, Phulong in Free State and Diepsloot in Gauteng Province to Bolobedu South at Relela in Limpopo Province, endless service delivery protests have been undertaken by communities demanding for better and sufficient service provision (Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs, 2017:2). The presence of service delivery protests, especially violent ones, is a threat to South Africa's young democracy and its sustainability. (Maphumulo, 2016).

2. Conceptualisation of Service Delivery Protests in South African Context

In order to understand the service delivery protests as they are happening in South Africa, it is imperative to outline their meaning. Firstly, it is also paramount to understand what is meant by service delivery. Service delivery is concerned with the provision of products or services, by a government or a governmental body to a community that was promised or expected that services (Crous, 2004:19). In other words, service delivery can be seen as a common phrase in South Africa used to describe the distribution of basic needs that citizens depend on such

as water, electricity, sanitation infrastructure, health care, and housing (Chen, Dean, Frank & Kumar, 2014:1).

According to Shaidi (2013:16), Service delivery protests refer to community action through which the residents of an area decide to voice their dissatisfaction or grievances with the manner and scale at which public services are rendered to them. These protests could be either peaceful or violent. Naturally, Service delivery protests in South African municipalities are often characterized by violence and non-violence. Therefore, violent protests can be defined as those protests whereby protesters participate in physical acts that either causes instant harm to persons or damaging physical state properties (Dassah, 2012:21). Acts of violence include a range of practices such as blockading of major highways, erection of barricades, burring of tires, burning of public buildings such police station, clinics, Public libraries and politicians' houses, looting of shops, stoning of police officers and vehicles. While non-violent protests involve marches to hand over a memorandum of grievance or instances whereby protesters marches peacefully gathered in public area (Dassah, 2012:21).

Another reason why people protest is that they believe that protests receive a better response from responsible authorities than other means of engagement. Alexander (2010:25) further argues that there is existence belief that grievances or complaints expressed in the form of violent protest action stood a better chance to be addressed under Zuma's administration. For example, Relela protests campaign, only received attention after residents have expressed their complaints in some form of protests which lead to violence (Chiwara, 2014:32). Since 2004, South Africa has experienced a movement of local protests amounting to a rebellion of the poor. This has been widespread and intense, reaching insurrectionary proportions in some cases. On the surface, the protests have been about service delivery and against uncaring, self-serving, and corrupt leaders of municipalities. A key feature has been mass participation by a new generation of fighters, particularly unemployed youth but also school students (Alexander, 2010:25).

3. Factors Contributing to Municipal Service Delivery Protests

There are various reasons underlying to service delivery protests in South Africa. However, this

paper explored number of reasons behind service provision which includes; dissatisfaction with service delivery, unemployment and poverty, lack of access to information, lack of public participatory, political instability and unfulfilled promises as they are discussed as below.

3.1 Dissatisfaction with Service Delivery

Mathebula (2014:107) indicate that slow pace of service delivery and dissatisfaction with municipal performance with regards to water and sanitation, electricity, housing and other basic services leads to the community on street protesting for the basic rights as enshrined by the Constitution of Republic of South Africa 1996, through the Bill of Rights. According to Burger (2009), there are many reasons for protests in South Africa. The primary reason is dissatisfaction with the delivery of basic municipal services such as running water, electricity and toilets, especially in rural and informal settlements. Unemployment (officially at around 27%), high levels of poverty, poor infrastructure, and the lack of houses add to the growing dissatisfaction (StatsSA, 2018). According to Akinboade *et al.* (2014:2), indicates that community dissatisfaction with public service delivery in South African municipalities has started to experience a rash of service delivery protests in recent years. From 2007 onwards, the poor performance of public representative as well as the dysfunctionality of local government administrative structures has been the main crucial points of anger, directing the community to protests over service provision.

3.2 Unemployment and Poverty

Allen and Thomas (1992:56) explain that unemployment means being without work or working without being paid. According to Nematili (2006:8), unemployment is seen as a lack of job opportunities for graduates and matriculates. Unemployment in South African is extraordinary and rising. Unemployment rate which is officially at around 27%, high levels of poverty, poor infrastructures such as road, health facilities and lack of houses (StatsSA, 2018). Unemployment is a matter of critical concern because of its effects on economic welfare, production, poverty, crime, erosion of human capital, social exclusion and social instability such as protests. Some view the level of unemployment and its rise as the most serious threat facing South African society and its governance (Kingdon & Knight, 2004:391).

According to Mamabolo (2015:143), high rate of poverty and joblessness in South Africa is a contributing factor towards xenophobic attack, protests and crimes. The people that are suffering from poverty and unemployment are often confused and desperate to such an extent of developing hatred against successful foreigners and elected representatives. This can be seen as a factor which mostly contributes to service delivery protests because most people mostly rely on government or their local municipalities for better service delivery due to lack of economic opportunities such as proper employment and food security. Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs (2014:7) also support the statement that poverty and joblessness constrain the developmental local governance. As a result of poor governance in local government, the majority of people, particularly youth are not working with relevant qualifications. From Greater Tzaneen municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP), unemployment rate ranges from 36.9% to 47.1% in the year 2017/18 which contribute to increased risk of malnutrition, poverty and crime in the area (Greater Tzaneen municipality IDP, 2017/18). The level of unemployment has risen drastically for both youth and adult in the society, looking at different villages such as Relela, Sethong, Morutji, Motupa and Moleketla villages. The Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs (2014:7) indicate that "Most of the participants indicated that they have qualifications but they are unemployed. It is unpleasant to have people who had qualifications since the late 1990's but still not having a permanent or a proper job. This is the reason why people are angry at the government as they are blaming the local government in all these ills". According to The Natal Witness (2003), indicates that poverty is a crucial factor that causes protests in communities as many people are being required to pay bills for basic services such as water and electricity, refuse removal even though they do not afford.

Dassah (2012:10) share the same sentiment that a major factor in the protests is poverty, with its accompanying socio-economic conditions and unemployment. These problems pose a difficult obstacle to good provision and sustainable development. Lastly, Chikulo (2016:54) states that there are claims that the protests against poor service delivery are strengthened by the growing inequality and poverty in South African societies. Regardless

of the achievement of significant service delivery milestones, minor progress has been made on the central objectives of reducing poverty and inequality. According to Political Process Theory by McAdams Douglas (1970), community members engage in a mobilization structure to foster social and economic changes such as reducing pandemic challenges such as poverty, unemployment and inequality faced by the country.

3.3 Corruption and Nepotism

According to Mhango and Chirwa (2018:5), corruption is a common appearance of poor governance in most developing countries. According to The Citizen (2014), it is relieved that the Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality is faced with corrupt practices and unethical behaviours including lack of accountability by public servants. It is also found that the Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality has not followed proper supply chain management processes or procedures when procuring goods and services. The Citizen (2014) reported that "the municipality has uncovered irregular tenders worth more than R40 million. According to the documents presented to The Citizen, the municipality deviated from tendering processes when awarding Quality Plant Hire and Expectra 388 cc the tenders. Expectra 388 cc was awarded an R38 million tar road project without even submitting a formal document". In this paper, poor accountability within the municipality has been noted as one factor which influences service delivery demonstration by community members within the jurisdiction of the municipality. Corruption threatens the livelihood of everyone by crippling service provision, undermining economic development and eroding the lawfulness and proper functioning of the state. Corruption and other unethical conduct such as nepotism by public servants and political office bearers have been the driving factors toward service delivery protests and in most cases, this has led to community member going on strike or protest for better and sufficient service delivery. Managa (2012:5) indicated that Limpopo Province has not been in the spotlight about protests lately. He believes that "many protests were conveyed between 2007 and 2010, of which 42% were in the Sekhukhune district, followed by the Mopani and Vhembe districts at 17% while 14% were in the Capricorn district and 10% in the Waterberg district. Managa (2012:5) further indicate that are often protesters that refer to a lack of accountability of government officials, corruption

and maladministration as the aggravating factors to service delivery protest".

3.4 Political Instability and Unfulfilled Promises

The protests had not only been about houses, water, and toilets, electricity and other infrastructures, but also about the political process. At the municipal level, protesters had regularly complained about the unresponsiveness of officials and Councillors. With this statement, it is clear that there is a problem with politicians who do not listen to protesters (Twala, 2014:163). Furthermore, service delivery discontent is influenced by a number of factors including inequality, unfulfilled political promises and uneven access to services. Frustration is compounded by the lack of responsiveness by officials and Councillors as well as limited or unclear channels of communication, provision of substandard services and high levels of poverty (Masiya, Davids & Mangai, 2019:38). Ndaba (2007) stated that the "African National Congress admitted that infighting within the organization contributed to the service delivery protests at South African municipalities". The Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs (2014:8) also support that there is political infighting occurring in certain municipalities in South Africa, which undermined the provision of service delivery and development.

3.5 Lack of Access to Information

According to the Constitution of Republic of South Africa (1996), section 32 (1), paragraph (a), anyone has the right to access to any information held by the state, unless the information is classified. Everyone has the right to access to information such as legislation, regulations, economic and social opportunities within their area of jurisdiction. Procedures under section 32 of the constitution are regulated by the Promotion of Access to Information Act (2 of 2000). Besides, Batho Pele Principles (1997) also emphasis on access to information as an individual right as illustrated in the Bill of Rights. "Information: all citizens are entitled to full, accurate information" (Batho Pele, 1997). Mathebula (2017:108) believes that this right must be conferred by the government. Failure by the government to provide access to information or other basic services has resulted in the public revolting through protests. According to Allan and Heese (2004), service delivery protests in rural areas makes it clear how a lack of access

to information often leads to the rapid spread of rumours of favouritism, corruption, and mismanagement. In this paper, the researcher believes that indeed Lack of access to information is also a contributing factor behind service delivery protests within Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality areas. Despite media and other forms of communication tools, communication is still a pandemic issue which needs to be resolved and improved.

3.6 Lack of Participatory Democracy

Managa (2012:4) indicated that protesters mostly express discontent and frustrations for being excluded from local government decision-making. Section 16 subsection (1) of the Municipal Systems Act (2000) requires a municipality to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. Municipal councils must encourage the involvement of the local community in the decisions that directly affect them. Booyesen (2007:25) affirm that the right of public participation in the governance process is a constitutional obligation and protected by various policy frameworks governing local governments. The community involvement is meant to provide information as well as improve public decisions, programmes and projects. Without a doubt, public participation is both a constitutional and legal prerequisite (Tsatsire, 2008:166). Bekker (1996:75) also states that "citizen participation can serve as a means of converting dependents into independents, that is converting the poor from the passive consumers of services into the producers of those services, thereby benefiting them both economically and socially by taking part in governing". Therefore, participatory democracy is a great challenge for democratic South Africa due to inadequate knowledge of citizens about political operation locally and internationally. The service delivery protests and marches are a clear indication that participatory democracy is a great challenge in democratic South Africa and as a result poor public participation leads to underdevelopment of local government (Modise, 2017:2).

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper explored underlying factors behind service delivery protests in the local government. Despite some of the success of the post-apartheid South African government, the country still faces some serious challenges of unemployment, poverty

and inequality, political instability. These are some of the key factors which culminated to citizens on streets to protesting or expressing their dissatisfaction over the problem of poor service delivery, commonly known as service delivery protest. Service delivery is a common phrase in South Africa used to describe the distribution of basic resources which citizens depend on daily such as water and sanitation, electricity, transport and road infrastructures, health service, refuse and waste removal and shelter. To realize developmental local government and sustainable development, the paper recommends lawfulness and peacefulness protests among community protesters, municipality representatives and South African Police Service (SAPS) and other stakeholders involved. This paper also promotes effective communication as a tool for all challenges faced by both stakeholders. Therefore, this paper encourages that communication must also be fostered among the parties involved to avoid issues such as violence and malicious damaging of properties during the strike. Concerning corruption practices, the paper recommends that organisations found guilty of misconducts and misappropriations must be black-listed and must face criminal charges in terms of the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Act 12 of 2004.

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Organizing Government to Deliver on Sustainable Development Goals: A Regional Perspective

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Abstract: Africa as a continent is in the provisional period following the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that were due to be achieved by 2015. The new phase began in September 2015 with Agenda 2030 for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Most of the countries on this continent are aiming for substantial change. The anticipated transformation will occur in each country with the implementation of Agenda 2030 by each government. The success of this programme will be achieved by incorporating the seventeen goals into each country's national development plan. The integration of Agenda 2030 into the national development plan requires a thorough understanding of the sustainable development goals by government officials. In the past two years most countries began implementing the seventeen goals. This study will attempt to evaluate the progress of the Agenda 2030 on the African continent. A progressive change will occur on the continent once the governments are able to achieve all the SDGs. The research will use secondary data to analyse the progress of the 2030 Agenda on the continent. For the purpose of this research, a desktop analysis and an extensive literature survey will be undertaken.

Keywords: Agenda 2030, National development plan, Service delivery goals, Sustainable development goals, Programme implementation

1. Introduction

The implementation of the MDGs in Africa was not a successful undertaking among the various governments on the continent. The main reason for this failure is because numerous countries in Africa have failed to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. The level of poverty and hunger on the continent is higher than ever and access to clean energy and water is still very low in most countries. This paper will not focus on the failure of the MDGs, but on the implementation of Agenda 2030. Reflection on the fifteen years of MDGs' implementation on the continent will assist most of the governments in executing the 2030 Agenda successfully. The transition period in Africa after the Millennium Development Goals' end in May 2015 requires attention. The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2015:3) asserts that "Africa is off track in achieving most of the targets, so the MDGs will still remain relevant important beyond 2015". The post 2015 period and implementation of Agenda 2030 saw a need for complementarity between the MDGs and the current programs. A matter of concern is that African states should continue working toward meeting all the objectives before the 2030 deadline.

For the past two years the majority of African governments have begun introducing the Sustainable Development Goals 2030 into their national development plans. According to Hajer, Nilson, Raworth, Bakker, Berkhout, Boer, Rockstrom, Ludwig, and Kok (2015:1) "the SDGs have a potential to become a powerful political vision that can support the urgently needed global transition to a shared and lasting prosperity". Supporting this argument, Agenda 2030 in Africa will become an indicator of the development in the various sub-regions of the continent. Each government should prioritize the execution of the seventeen goals on an annual basis. This would require a collaboration of all stakeholders within each country. For any change to occur in Africa, there is a need for an integrated approach for each country regarding the execution of the SDGs. This study will attempt to answer one question. What mechanism should African governments employ to achieve the Agenda 2030 goals for sustainable development? The focus of this study will be discussed under four headings. The first part will discuss the foundation of the sustainable development in the world. The second part's focus will be on the implementation of Agenda 2030 in Africa, the third part will discuss the challenges African countries encounter regarding the Agenda 2030 implementation's oversight mechanism and lastly, a conclusion.

2. The Foundation of Sustainable Development

The development of Africa today requires resilient governments to achieve prosperous societies for future generations. This particular statement is linked to the concept of sustainable development (SD). The discussion of SD began several years ago and there is no need in this study to provide a historical background of SD. For the sake of this paper, the generally quoted definition "development *that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*" will be used (WCED, 1987:8). Under this definition it is understood that each country should improve progress for the current generation taking the next generation into consideration. The priority of our government today is to achieve development that satisfies all communities. Nobody can be left behind in terms of job creation, economic opportunity and access to services provided by the government. Africa made the decision to take a holistic approach with regard to sustainable development. That approach suggests that economic, social, environmental and political factors should be integrated under the same dimension. Any decision regarding development in Africa must take all four factors into consideration. This particular statement is supported by the Sustainable Development Report on Africa (2005:7), which claimed that the "Africa Union adopted the New Partnership for Africa Development (NEPAD) in 2001 to provide a regional framework for holistic development in Africa". Looking at Agenda 2030, most of the countries in Africa could work toward NEPAD's vision. Challenges to achieving sustainable development are encountered in most of the countries on the continent. A number of these challenges will be discussed in more detail in this paper.

Numerous countries in Africa made good progress during the implementation of the MDG programs but not all the goals were achieved successfully during the fifteen-year target set by the United Nations. Sachs (2012:2206) posits that "the probable shortfall in achievement of the MDG is indeed serious, regrettable, and deeply painful for people with low income". This particular failure in Africa can be blamed on the political authorities and also on those who implement government policy. It would be wrong to share this responsibility with other stakeholders. With the application of Agenda 2030, African countries should take responsibility instead

of waiting for assistance from other stakeholders. Any development should come from within, which means that political authorities and other stakeholders in the country should take the lead.

Sustainable development goals on the continent could be considered as a move towards development, as the majority of the countries need to implement the seventeen goals. This move towards development is not going to be easy for many governments on the continent and specifically in sub-Saharan Africa. Many countries are struggling to raise a higher annual budget in response to the demands of the people. This particular observation is based on the political, economic, environmental and social realities some countries are facing. Mthembu (2017:108) holds that the achievement of Agenda 2030 in Africa could be realized by the cooperation referred to as North-South-South. This cooperation can be implemented between two countries, one from the developed world and another from among the developing countries. Through this kind of rapprochement, there is the possibility of achieving some of the SDGs on the continent. One of the key goals the African continent should strive to achieve is the reduction of poverty and hunger in various countries.

According to Biermann, Kanie and Kim (2017:1), "while past global governance efforts have relied largely on top-down regulation or market-based approaches, the SDG promise a novel type of governance that make use of non-legally binding, global goals set by the United Nations Member States". This kind of governance is legally bound by international law. It is being said that the SDGs are confined under international law, but do not have any immediate effect in any country. Every government should discuss this in their parliament and approve it. The SDG agenda can be integrated into the national development plan. Under that particular perspective, there is a possibility to access the applicability of the Agenda 2030. At least each government must take a bold decision to implement every single goal and be able to evaluate the progress every year.

3. Organised Delivery of Sustainable Development Goals in Africa

Since the launching of the 2030 Agenda on the 15 September 2015 by the United Nations, the Africa Union undertook another initiative by adopting

the Africa Agenda 2063 in January, 2015. These two agendas work concurrently for the development of the continent. The two programs have attempted to reaffirm the centrality of development across nations in Africa. Today, Africa wants a strong integration for both 2030 and 2063 agendas for progressive change on the continent. Africa as a continent requires a determined decision to achieve the 2030 agenda on sustainable development. Sachs (2012:2209) holds that "At every level, government and official agencies should be responsive to the citizenry". There is also a need for private sectors and other stakeholders to unite in working towards the accomplishment of the sustainable development goals. In addition, cooperation among governments should be tools to use for the delivery of SDGs.

Every government should have a national planning framework for the implementation of the SDGs, suggesting that the Agenda 2030 must be included in the national development plan. The national government of each country must prioritize the integration of the 2030 Agenda into the national development plan. The central government should work in collaboration with other spheres of government. The researcher's own recent experience with a local authority during a telephonic interview indicates that the local authority, (Emfuleni Local Municipality), is not aware of the 2030 Agenda. None of the 17 goals was included in the "Integrated Development Plan" for 2018 to 2019 in the municipality's budget. Based on the current truth, the government must share information, exchange ideas, encourage meetings and brainstorming with the local authorities or senior managers. The researcher acknowledges that this situation cannot be generalised but that it is a reality in at least one of the local municipalities in South Africa.

4. Implementation of Sustainable Development Goals in Africa

The progress of SDGs on the continent is very slow with numerous problems or realities being faced by various countries. The availability of data to measure the progress of each country is challenging. According to Africa's SDG report (2017:2), "the scope and depth of analysis of the report is framed by the availability of data which is weak, particularly on the indicator pertaining to environmental sustainability, and the growth on democratic and electoral governance, human rights and rule of law". There is a problem with regard to the lack of data across

many countries on the continent. That is one of the reasons that many African scholars are demanding that government consolidate the statistic system for each country. This particular situation cannot be generalised across the continent. There are countries in Africa whose statistical bureau is effective in terms of data availability. For example, the South African statistical bureau is the principal reporter on the SDG progress in the country. In other countries, the ministries of planning have the ability to report on the progress of the Agenda 2030. This study will attempt to discuss some of the goals and assess the progress made by the continent over the past years.

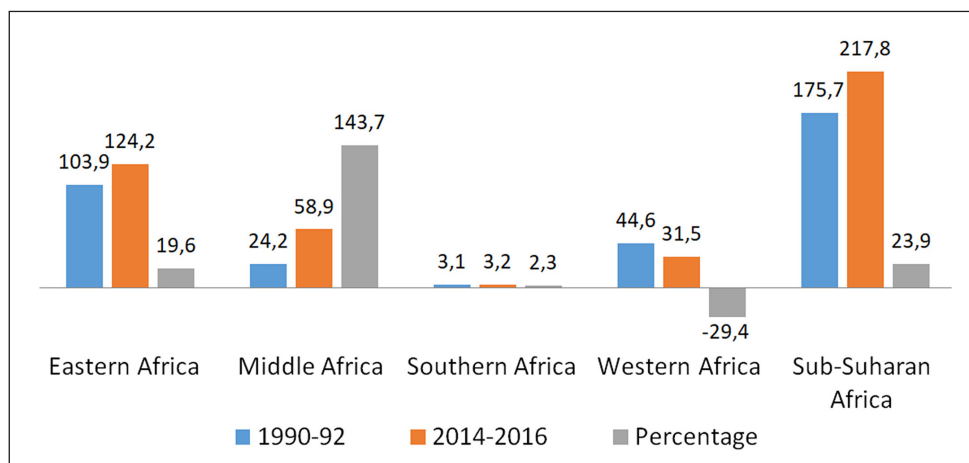
4.1 Goal 1: End Poverty

This is one of the areas where the majority of countries are still failing. The Africa Union recognized the slow progress of poverty reduction on the continent. According to the Africa SDG report (2017:4), "the rate of decline in extreme poverty (1 American dollar per day) has been slow in Africa, declining a mere 15% during the period of 1990-2013. Women and the young people bear the brunt of poverty". Job opportunities in many African countries are limited and many graduates are forced to remain at home without employment. The report cited above also holds that 60% of the jobs across the continent are vulnerable and the risk of losing one's job is high. Not many people in sub-Saharan Africa are eligible for unemployment benefits. The statistics indicate that only 1% of the population is entitled to unemployment benefits and 19% are covered by social assurance. The rate of poverty in Africa is high compared to other continents. There is hope that with the application of Agenda 2030, governments will be able to reduce the poverty on the continent. What is required in Africa today is that the governments should prioritize opportunities for new investment in various sectors of the economy. By doing so, people will have more employment opportunities and poverty on the continent will decline in the coming years.

4.2 Goal 2: Zero Hunger

The production of food on the continent needs to improve in order to satisfy the daily demands of the communities. If every country has a food security strategy the level of hunger on the continent would decrease. According to the SDG report (2017:4), almost 64% of the people in Africa are malnourished. Looking at in terms of numbers, 355 million

Figure 1: Number of Undernourished People (millions), in Sub-Saharan Africa



Source: Food Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2016)

people on the continent were moderately or severely food insecure in 2015. In some countries this could be related to political instability and also civil war, as is the case in South Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo, Somalia and others. Food insecurity on the continent impacts negatively on the large population, specifically in sub-Saharan Africa. Figure 1 represents the number of people on the continent that are undernourished.

Figure 1 illustrates that the zero-hunger goal in Africa still needs extensive work to reduce the number of undernourished people on the continent. The highest numbers of malnourished people are found in the Central Africa region, followed by eastern Africa. The west of Africa is in the third position and Southern Africa has the fewest malnourished people.

A significant challenge to achieving the second goal is finding a way to reduce the number of those who are struggling for access to food. According to the regional overview of food insecurity in Africa (2015:2), the continent is still challenged with the fast growing population, as this affects the ability of countries to assure a stable supply of, and access to food.

4.3 Goal 3: Good Health and Wellbeing

There is a decrease in child mortality on the continent. The data indicates that the rate of decline in child mortality increased in 34 African countries during the periods 1990-2000 and 2000-2010. The majority of countries in Africa have made great strides in reducing the rate of child mortality. From the perspective of Agenda 2030, governments must prioritize the wellbeing of the people. The health

sector is a priority for any government that takes the wellbeing of its people seriously.

4.4 Goal 4: Equality of Education

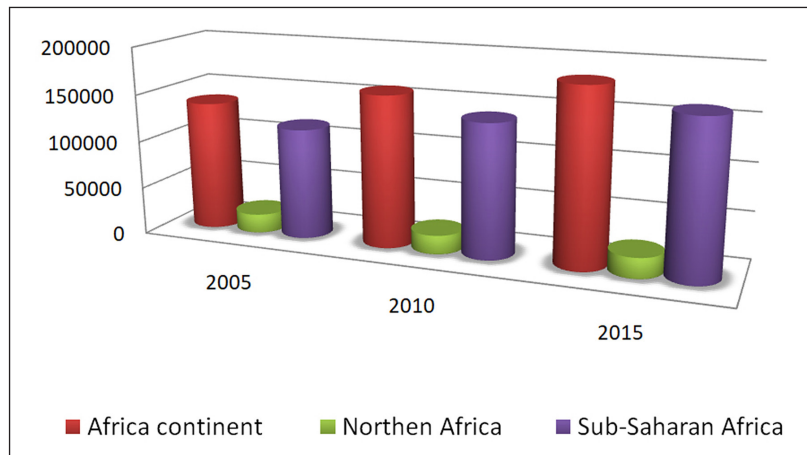
Governments should ensure that everyone has access to education. The onus should be on the government to prioritize free education for all.

There is significant progress in terms of enrollment in primary schools across the continent. Many countries are requesting that parents send their children to school. In some of the countries access to primary education is free to everyone and there is no need for any parent to pay any fees. This particular procedure cannot be generalised to all 54 countries in Africa. This is one of the goals that numerous countries have shown progress in achieving. However, more effort must be exerted to improve the quality of the education that is offered. Figure 3 on the next page indicates the number of girls and boys enrolled in primary schools in Africa from 2005 to 2015.

The enrollment of girls in primary schools in sub-Saharan Africa still lags behind that of boys. The parity between the two genders is far apart in sub-Saharan Africa and the various governments should attempt to close this gap. The evolution toward reducing the rate of illiteracy in Africa remains moderately weak. Northern Africa is the leading region in terms of the enrollment of children in primary schools.

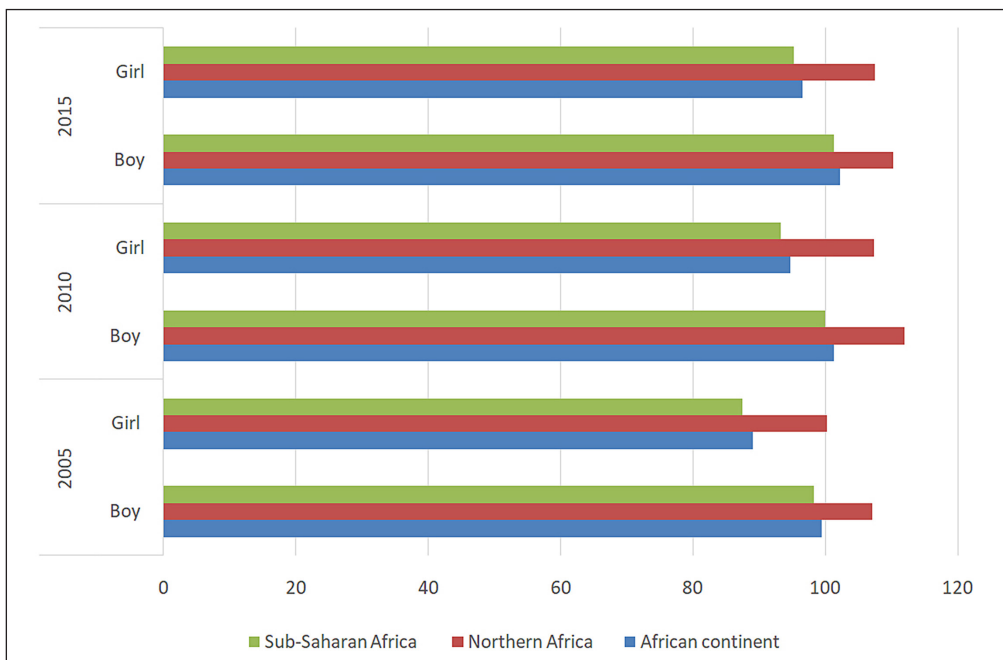
Agenda 2030 promotes the enrollment of girls in primary schools in each country. Most of the parents must encourage their female children to enrol in school. According to the Economic Commission for

Figure 2: Primary School Enrollment on the Africa Continent



Source: United Nations (2017)

Figure 3: Boys' and Girls' Primary School Enrollment from 2005-2015



Source: United Nations (2017)

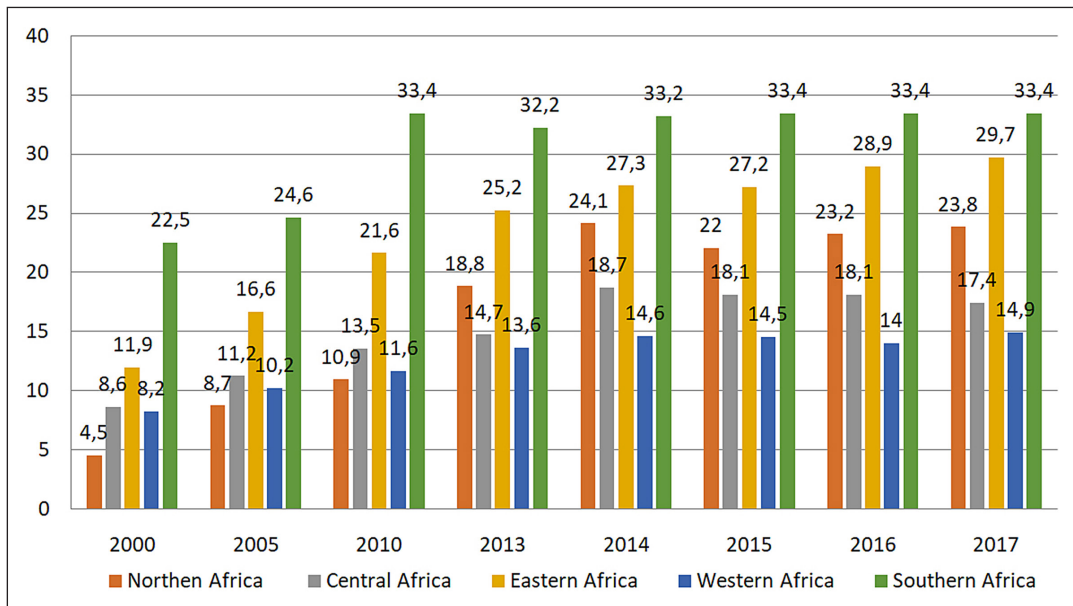
Africa (2016), "there is progress in primary school enrolment was supported by substantial public investments in primary education, the implementation of policy frameworks that promotes access to education opportunities especially for underprivileged girls and children, and the mobilization of civil society and the international community". It is a priority for each government to promote the education of children. Both genders must be empowered in terms of access to better education. In addition, the problem of political instability and civil war in Africa should be reduced to avoid instability in terms of school enrolment. This kind of instability can be found in countries such as the Democratic Republic

of Congo, South-Sudan, Central African Republic, Nigeria, Mali and Somalia. Political instability and civil war has a negative impact on school enrollment. There is a strong indication that before the end of the 2030 Agenda many countries in Africa will have reached their target in terms of school enrollment.

4.5 Goal 5: Gender Equality

Numerous countries in Africa are promoting gender equality in various sectors of society. The empowerment of women in sub-Saharan Africa is taking place in many sectors of the economy and can be seen in politics and public institutions. Ernst and Young

Figure 4: Seats Held by Women in National Parliaments in Africa



Source: United Nations Statistical Division (2017)

(2014:10) hold that South Africa's public sector workforce is made up of 30% women and 70% men but only 8% of those women are in leadership positions. LeanIn.Org and McKinsey (2015) posit that women are less likely to advance in the workplace than men. They experience an uneven playing field, with odds of advancement lower at every level. There is a persistent leadership gap in the most senior roles and gender diversity is believed to be priority. Currently, in many parliaments in Africa, women do occupy seats. Figure 4 above illustrates the percentage of women occupying seats in parliaments in Africa.

In terms of progress with regard to gender equality in Africa, many governments are attempting to close the inequality gap. The representation of women in parliament in Africa is growing, with the Southern African sub-region having women hold 33.4% of the seats in parliament from 2000 to 2017. This is closely followed by eastern Africa with 29.7%. The North African countries' representation of women in parliament is progressing at a slow pace when compared with countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The Economic Commission for Africa (2016) states that since 2015 female representation in national parliaments averaged 15%, up from 9.1% in 1990. However, the continent's progress remains well below the target of 30%. This increase occurred because of the quota some of the governments decided to implement. With the implementation of Agenda 2030 there is a possibility for additional progress before the SDGs' 2030 end date.

4.6 Goal 6: Clean Water and Sanitation

Access to clean water and sanitation in Africa remains problematic in many countries. It is a priority for each government to provide access to clean water and sanitation. Millions of people in sub-Saharan Africa are struggling to find clean water for drinking, cooking and washing every day. Some of them walk a long distance to fetch that water. There is a need for every government to implement a policy of access to clean water and sanitation by 2030.

4.7 Goal 7: Affordable and Clean Energy

Access to electricity in sub-Saharan Africa demands a commitment from the governments. Our continent lags behind when compared with other continents in terms of access to clean energy. There are 36 countries in Africa where only 2 in every 5 households have access to a reliable supply of energy. According to the World Bank (2018), "24% of the population of SSA has access to electricity versus 40% in other low income countries. Excluding South Africa, the entire installed generation capacity of SSA is only 28 Gigawatts, equivalent to that of Argentina". The affordability of energy in Africa requires attention from each government before the objectives of Agenda 2030 can be achieved. The researcher cannot address all seventeen of the Agenda 2030 goals in this chapter but the aim here was to highlight that commitment is needed from each government in Africa vis-à-vis the implementation of the

2030 Agenda. The accomplishment of sustainable development in Africa lies with every government, as each budget must be adjusted to implement the 2030 Agenda. The integration of the SDGs into the various government programs will have an impact on the development of each country. Most of these countries have planned to include the 2030 Agenda into their national development planning. This will allow them to ensure that every goal will be implemented. The office of the Premier Minister would play the role of coordinator. For example, in Uganda the office of the Premier Minister has the responsibility to oversee the implementation of the SDGs in Uganda. The same office would monitor, evaluate, report, and provide awareness on all matters pertaining to the SDGs (United Nations, 2017). In every government there are specific ministries that are responsible in terms of financing the SDGs program. The accomplishment of the SDGs in Africa must be localized into each country's programs, which will be the best approach for the achievement of the SDGs in Africa.

5. Challenges Regarding the Implementation of 2030 Agenda in Africa

There are many challenges the African continent is facing regarding the applicability of the Agenda 2030. A particular challenge is because of another program the Africa Union decided to implement almost at the same time as the SDGs. The Africa Union adopted the Africa Agenda 2063 in January 2015. This means that each country must comply with the specifications laid down by both programs. Most of the governments have decided to combine the two programs without compromising either of them.

As previously stated, each government should have a national planning framework to implement the Agenda 2030 and 2063 recommended by the Africa Union. There is a demand for coordination by each government. This will assist with reporting any progress made by a country leading up to the target year. Any progress with regard to SDGs will require statistical data to support the report by senior government officials on the Agenda 2030 achievement. That is a challenge for many countries on the continent. A statistical data report in most African countries is not well presented. Many sub-Saharan African countries struggle to produce reliable statistical data. Collaboration with other stakeholders will

be necessary to obtain the information required to report on the progress made by each country. Another challenge many countries are going to face is in implementing the Agenda 2030 successfully due to budget constraints. All seventeen goals require adequate funding to support government programs. Countries cannot expect funding from donors to implement the seventeen goals. Many are silent concerning the successful achievement of the SDGs in Africa. According to the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (2017), "the implementation of the 17 SDGs, points to an infrastructure gap of some \$1 trillion to 1.5 trillion annually in developing countries, while estimates of the global gap generally range from \$3 trillion to \$5 trillion annually." In analysing this quotation there appears to be a need for a comprehensive approach regarding the financing of Agenda 2030. There is a need for a clear understanding on the way in which the Agenda 2030 will be financed. Various mechanisms should be utilised to finance the Agenda 2030; every country must develop a model to finance the implementation of the SDGs. Multilateral cooperation is recommended by the UN to finance the SDGs but this is not going to be enough, as there is a possibility that some of the partners might not comply with their pledge. Consequently, governments should come up with their own strategy for funding the Agenda 2030 objectives.

6. Training of Civil Servants to Implement Agenda 2030

It is crucial to train public officials or civil servants to understand the importance of Agenda 2030 objectives within government programs. This particular training should be apart from other training provided by the national, provincial and local government. Training regarding SDGs must be focused and specific to the level of seniority in the administration hierarchy. Local politicians require SDG training to relate it with local municipal programs. As long as the local politicians understand the 2030 Agenda's importance, it will be easy to align with the local government programs. Training should be focused on the senior and middle management because they implement the national government policies and local municipal programs. Vertical training from the bottom up is recommended. All three spheres of government should participate and understand the implementation of the sustainable development goals in the country. Other stakeholders, such as the United Nations Development Program, can assist by providing advice where there is a lack of expertise.

7. Oversight Mechanism to Achieve Agenda 2030 in Africa

The importance of oversight is fundamental to evaluate the progress of each government concerning the Agenda 2030. Key ministries and other government agencies should be appointed to provide feedback on the progress of the SDGs within the country. The selected agency will check if governments are striving to achieve all 231 indicators in accordance with the SDG time frame. In Africa, UN agencies should work with the host country to access data regarding the implementation of the SDGs within that specific country. This is already the case in most of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The oversight mechanism will be a structure for a check and balance regarding the progress of the Agenda 2030". This indicates that any effort government makes will get support from the international partners. The best strategy would be for each country to use the parliamentary platform to check on the progress their government is making in terms of Agenda 2030. It will be better for the policy maker to evaluate the commitment of their government vis-à-vis international engagement.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

Finally, sustainable development goals in Africa have been accepted by the member states. The majority of the governments do not want to see the Agenda 2030 fail in the same way as the implementation of the MDGs, where many countries did not achieve their targets. For the past three years most of the governments have begun implementing Agenda 2030. It is difficult at this time to evaluate any progress or achievement. Many countries on the continent have chosen to align Agenda 2030 with their national development plan to facilitate the application of the seventeen goals into government programs. Under that particular initiative the various African governments will be able to implement the SDG programs.

There are challenges regarding the applicability of Agenda 2030. These challenges could be linked to several realities on the continent. The first challenge is linked to another program the Africa Union (AU) decided to embark upon at the same time as Agenda 2030. The AU adopted Africa Agenda 2063, which means that each country must ensure compliance with both programs. The majority decided to combine the two programs without compromising either of them. The second challenge that countries

could face is the compilation of data by each country concerning the progress of Agenda 2030. This will require enough effort by each government in terms of data collection. African countries will need to train civil servants on the SDGs in different spheres of government. Public officials should know about Agenda 2030 and the way in which all seventeen goals are to be implemented. Agenda 2030 should be monitored and progress assessed and reported every year.

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How the Partnership of Good Governance and Ethics Enhances Public Administration

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Abstract: The paper interrogates the questionable governance and unethical practices in public administrations. The paper is both conceptual and empirical in nature. Interviewing techniques and document analysis were used to collect data from three public administrations in Limpopo Province, South Africa. Research findings reveal that there is lack of professionalism by public administrators. Secondly, inadequate emphasis of accountability in public administrations, is costly. Thirdly, there is inability to appoint honest people in public administrations. Fourthly, there is leadership deficit in the public sector. Lastly, there is lack of clean-up attitude in public administrations. On that basis, the researcher recommends that public administrations be revolutionised to rid them of entrenched mediocrity visible through their questionable governance and unethical practices. Furthermore, the researcher recommends for accountable administrative leadership that will do the right thing and put Africa first, at all times. That would be part of deinstitutionalising the entrenched mediocrity which delays the service delivery.

Keywords: Accountability, Clean-up, Conscience, Leadership deficit, Professionalism, Revolutionise

1. Introduction

The desire for a clean and ethical governance is an aspiration of every public administration. Such a governance could create an administration characterised by institutional efficacy. That occurs where the principles of good governance like openness, transparency, consultation and participation are observed in the process of service delivery by organs of state and their institutional incumbents (Fox, 2010; Theletsane, 2014). Many public institutions continue to be mired in administrative bungle due to diverse factors one of which relates to the tradition by those public institutions of placing inadequate attention to accountable and ethical governance in administrations (Moyo, 2015:16). Masina (2015:24) narrates that where there is an ethical, healthy and responsive governance and administration, the delivery of services to the civilians is likely to be satisfactory. As long as there is a will-power by institutional incumbents to be committed to accountable and ethical governance, being guided by courageous leadership, the nature of governance structures and systems created to render a service to people are likely to be impactful (Khoza, 2015:43). Owing to colonialism, among others, some public administrations persist to operate with inherited meek governance patterns that are based on their erstwhile colonial masters (Tisdall, 2015:15). The danger of such a practice is the perpetuation of

subjugation and delivery of poor services to the civilians. This occurs in a subtle manner which makes it difficult for everyone to notice. Nkuna (2015:120) remarks that untransformed public administrations whose governances are shaky and at times unethical, do instil in incumbents, a sense of self-hate and inferiority complex. Accountable and ethical governance in public administrations are indispensable. Unethical governance in public administrations, benefit no one (Yukl, 2006, Motsepe, 2015:5). One of the underlying reasons why myriad public administrations still operate with unaccountable and unethical governances that are indescribably inefficacious after more than two decades of independence in Africa, it is because of placing little attention to issues of good and ethical governance by myriad public administrations. Siswana (2007:182) asserts that conspicuous indicators of unaccountable governances in public administrations are the dysfunctional institutional systems and structures applied. Its manifestations would be the unending protest marches for lack of service delivery by diverse communities at different times. Shejvali (2015:34) observes that, there is an amount of reluctance by myriad public administrations to reposition themselves through placing adequate attention to accountable and ethical governance in order to operate differently. In some instances, the very institutional structures and systems which are accepted to be the core of efficacious governance

and administration are non-existent. The question to pose is: what is likely to occur within a public administration whose operation is not underpinned by good and ethical governances, supported by accountable governance structures, systems, policies, processes and institutional procedures of note? Under normal circumstances, not much could be expected in terms of quality service delivery from such public administrations. Such public administrations could struggle to service its people as expected, as a result of lacking the foundation upon which its magnificent service delivery has to be based on, namely, a sound accountable and ethical governance (Khoza, 2015:43).

Hofstee (2010:107) advises that there is a distinction between the research title and the research problem and maintains that the researcher risks wasting the reader's time where she fails to distinguish between a title to read about and a research problem to solve. With a research title, the researcher gathers data under its guidance while with the research problem the researcher strives to overcome it. The prerequisite for the researcher solving a research problem is to understand it fully. No skill is more useful than the ability to articulate a problem concisely. The problem of this paper centres around explaining the opportunity missed by certain public administrations by taking their own clientele for granted through poor and unethical governance. This practice of rendering dissatisfactory service to the clientele is as old as mountains themselves. For instance, a couple of years ago, some public administrations in Limpopo Province, were placed under an administration as a confirmation that the services they were rendering to the clientele were of a mediocre nature. What is astonishing about the discussed challenge of some public administrations not being productive is that the problem appears to be more prevalent in the rural Provinces of South Africa as in other urban Provinces, like Gauteng and the Western Cape Provinces. The question to pose is why more common in rural Provinces. This is due to the suffered apartheid in South Africa. Apartheid has eroded and corroded in certain rural public servants any semblance of humanity and Ubuntu to the level where egoism in Africans is so entrenched such that public servants turn to operate without conscience with much of what they are doing in public administrations. The research questions are as follow: What are the roles and significance of ethical and good governance structures and systems that are clearly crafted in line with the resoluteness

of a public administration as an organ of state, in enhancing a vibrant civil society that enjoys above average service delivery? What are the ideas, concerns and aspirations of the civil society regarding the strengthening of the public administrative efficacy? Broad as they are, the above questions could be broken down into the following sub-questions: How are enabling governance structures and systems created? Who genuinely benefits from the ethical and the accountable public administration? How best to replace inefficacious public administrations with efficacious ones? How is a public administration stability, linked to structures and systems of an organ of state?

2. Theoretical Considerations

Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005:12) assert that a theory forms the basis for a chain of reasoning. This signifies that arguing on how the partnership of good governance and ethics enhances public administration, with a theory in place, one's argument is elevated. The critical theory underpins this paper. Its choice rests on the relevance the researcher finds in it in illuminating issues of efficacious and ethical governance in public administration. Briefly, one of the principles of the critical theory is that very often the truth serves the status quo. The other principle relates to the question of "why is it that certain groups of people are so privileged?" These fundamental principles were helpful in clarifying how lack of good and ethical governance, delay the enhancement of public administrations, and perpetuate inequality of service delivery among the citizenry (Motsepe, 2015:5). Lack of good and ethical governance could make it difficult for some public administration heads to be accountable to their superiors. The selection of the critical theory in this paper, is informed by its encouragement of reflective and analytical thoughts as regards the experienced state of affairs of lack of efficacious and ethical governance in myriad public administrations in the country and beyond. That the three chosen public administrations in this paper, namely the Department of Education, the Department of Health and the Department of Police Services in Limpopo Province are still having a shaky and unethical governance in their administrations, has to be a cause for concern (Moyo, 2015:16). The critical theory reveals that inequality in a country's public administrations could be entrenched if the masses of the clientele are docile and gullible and not standing up for their constitutionally guaranteed rights to quality service delivery. Higgs & Smith

(2010:67) advise that knowledge and how we understand truth, including scientific truth, moral truth and historical truth should not be separated from everyday life. This implies that comprehending the spread of how quality public administration services are denied to their legitimate recipients, the context of the manifestation of denial, is as essential as the denial itself. The critical theory assists in arriving at the root cause of the absence of good and ethical governance in public administrations as experienced in some of Limpopo Province's administrations (Van Niekerk & Van Niekerk, 2009:12). The other unique relevance of the critical theory for this paper can be traced back to how it stands out emphasising ethics in public administrations. In the context of this paper, that would imply the study of good and bad behaviour by human beings especially in the manner in which they interrelate and interact when rendering a public administration service to their fellow human beings. The critical theory has a potential of uncovering whether the process of inability to create structures and systems by some public administrations, in order to service their people well, is deliberate or unintentional. The researcher contends that not every theory other than the critical theory could productively illuminate a problem of this paper like the chosen theory (Allen, 2015:11). The problem of this paper centres around explaining the opportunity missed by the identified public administrations by taking their own clientele for granted through managing and leading their public administrations without good and ethical governance practices. The critical theory advocates for the critical reflection on society, in order to discover the hidden assumptions that maintain the existing power relationships between the leaders and the followers (Higgs & Smith, 2010:72). Embracing critical theory by the researcher, centres around the theory advising against separating the context of unethical governance in public administrations of Limpopo Province, South Africa and the learnt social oppression, practitioners in public administrations, have been subjected to during the era of apartheid and colonialism. Public administrations of the world require emancipation from unethical and inefficient governance within their institutions (Arden, 2013:38). How practitioners and public administrators normally think and act is the product of many years of being subjected to circumstances that either facilitate the quality service delivery to the clientele or the perpetual neglect of the service recipients despite their constitutionally guaranteed rights to those services (Tisdall, 2015:15).

3. Methodos and Materials

This paper is qualitative in nature. The problem which this paper pursues was found to be researchable along the qualitative school of thought as against the others (Dawson, 2006; Levin, 2005). The researcher found a need to create a synergy between the critical theory and the qualitative approach as the overarching research methodology (Hofstee, 2010:115). The combination of the two, helped immensely in terms of illuminating issues of how lack of efficacious governance in public administrations, deny the civil society, the basic right of quality public services, they are entitled to, and how that persists to paint Africa as a dark continent where some public administrations care more about the elites and less about members of their civil society. A good case in point for a similar state of affairs happened when 30 million was looted from the public administrations during the cash-gate between Malawi and South Africa in 2013. This occurred amongst others as a result of lack of efficacious governance in public administrations. That was manifested through the abuse of public administrations, negligence by public officers in preserving money or other property, and through open money laundering processes enabled by questionable public administrations (Masina, 2015:24). The shared example exposes the ripeness of the unethical and inefficient governance in public administrations across the globe. With the critical theory underpinning the paper, the researcher utilised it, to interrogate how the civil society normally understands lack of ethical and efficacious governance and the kind of discourses they normally engage themselves in over the matter. Furthermore, the theory was also applied to determine the common reactions by members of the civil society expected to be serviced by their disappointing public administrations which are perpetually inefficient. Partnering the qualitative research approach and the critical theory enabled the researcher to make an in-depth understanding of how despite many years since apartheid formally collapsed, its effects remain firmly in place. Such effects are still so severe such that certain public administrations find it difficult to be productive in servicing their own civil society with aplomb and distinction. To conclude this item on research methodology, there is a need to divulge that interviewing techniques and the document analysis were utilised to construct data relevant for this paper. All the documents primary and secondary that contained

information about the inefficacy and the unethical governance of public administrations were studied. To triangulate, the gleaned data, interviewing was conducted with three members in each of the identified three public administrations whose services to the civil society were disappointing. Responses were audio-taped for transcription later-on (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005).

4. Results and Discussions

Findings arrived at in this paper, are in relation to the research title whose focus is: how the partnership of good governance and ethics enhances public administration. The basis of the findings is the analysed data which were generated through the interviewing techniques and the document analysis. The three public administrations that were explored as regards how inefficacious and unethical governance in public administrations, deprive the civil society of the quality service delivery are: The Departments of Education, Health and Police Services. The researcher identified those public administrations for scrutiny in the area of inefficacious and unethical governance, not because there is anything special about them, other than perpetually delivering dissatisfactory services to the civil society where at one stage they were put under administration, in the recent past. Furthermore, paying attention to those three public administrations ought not to create an impression that they are the only ones that are worse off as regards inefficacious and unethical governance in Limpopo Province of South Africa. They were selected because down the years the researcher, familiarised himself with issues of poor and unethical governance in those public administrations. The critical theory has been sufficiently instrumental in assisting in the analysis of data to emerge with these findings. Findings and discussion for this paper are the following: lack of professionalism, less emphasis of adequate accountability and inability to appoint honest people.

4.1 Lack of Professionalism

Professionalism is of essence for public administrators. Embracing the Ubuntu philosophy and the Batho Pele Principles could enable public administrators to render services to consumers with aplomb and distinctions (Baloyi, 2019:3). The dilemma with some public administrations is attraction to governance models which have outlived their usefulness. Good and ethical governance systems

and structures, could support public administrations to reinforce the professionalism culture in their operations (Madue, 2013). Professionalism, distinguishes one public administration from the rest (Khaas, 2019:10). Limpopo as a Province does not currently pride itself of such kind of public administrations. A good case in point is that some couple of years ago, many public administrations were placed under administration because of poor service to residents. Even those that were trying to deliver brilliant services to the clientele were found to be ignoring the principles of ethics. This more or less placed them in the same category with those whose operations were devoid of professionalism. Most public administrations have inherited their governance structures, policies and systems to manage and lead their own service delivery processes, from previous regimes. That does not always work well in view of the changed circumstances of the 21st century. Developers of those structures and systems of governance and administration were being guided by their own backgrounds, culture, ethos, upbringing, fears aspirations etc. Apartheid bequeathed governance and administration which needed to be adapted to new conditions of democracy. Operating with structures and systems whose development was foreign to institutional set-ups, was a grave error. Whether current public administrations will be able to sever the historically established ties with their erstwhile apartheid regimes, it is a matter of wait and see (Tsheola, 2002). Zwane (2015:10) articulates that structurally, nothing has changed in public administrations since the collapse of apartheid. This is to signify that current public administrations and their administrative heads are by and large presiding with dignity over the mess of apartheid inherited from their former illegitimate rulers. Amongst others, current administrations inherited apartheid policies and infrastructure. The challenge of being a copycat by current public administrations and its people, keeps those public administrations always bereft of originality which is a sign of lack of being critical, independent and reflective on issues of sustainable development and progress, such as quality and decent delivery of services to the civil society (Mbeki, 2003, Mbele, 2019:10; Musyoka, 2019:4).

4.2 Less Emphasis of Adequate Accountability

Brown (2019:1) emphasises that accountability and stability in a public administration determine the level at which that administration would attract the

positive image or not. That the majority of public administrations are characterised by either instability or disharmony, has to be a cause for concern in an attempt to restore accountable and ethical public administrations (Arden, 2013:56; Bell, 2019:2). Why is accountability as one of the essential elements of good and ethical governance missing in myriad of the public administrations? Literature review answers that the enemy of accountable and ethical governance is public administrations themselves. Where accountability is compromised, a public administration could lose a positive image it has been enjoying (Omano, 2005; Gobillot, 2008; Owabe, 2013). The contribution of apartheid and colonialism to the flouting of the accountability principles cannot be ignored. It is more than 21 years since nearly all the public administrations in the continent have been functioning under the new dispensations, but accountability is not yet reigning supreme. Everything is based on the point that South Africa as the last but one country of the continent of Africa to be free, accountability in its public administrations is at its lowest ebb. Normally, public administrations of Africa find themselves faced with protesters complaining about service delivery. Low level accountability is behind poor service delivery (Mooney, 2019:7; Musyoka, 2019:4). Accountable and ethical administrations attempt to bring quality services to customers (Cunha, Filho & Goncalves, 2010). Jim (2019:3) reiterates that where accountability is being sufficiently emphasised, managed, monitored and continuously evaluated in public administrations, service delivery could show signs of enhancing.

4.3 Inability to Appoint Honest People

Allen (2014:9) advises that as long as public administrations are bereft of honest and ethical personnel, then service protests may not dwindle. Inability to appoint sufficiently dedicated and honest people as public servants remains a challenge. Furthermore, lack of alignment of skills, leadership and organisational capabilities to the services to be delivered to the civil society, also contributes to dissatisfactory services rendered by public administrations (Mbele, 2019:10). Alignment aims at never compromising the quality of services delivered to the civil society. Where alignment exists, there will never be business as usual in the form of jeopardising high performance (Musyoka, 2019:4). Institutional alignment thrives well in public administrations where ethics, accountability and good governance

are virtues. Thornhill & Van Dijk (2010) assert that bad customer service by public administrations is avoidable as long as the right basics are in place and organisational practitioners abide by them. Kouzes & Posner (2007) and Sebola (2012) reason that where there is great public administration it would result from great governance supported by ethical and ever determined personnel. Jim (2019:3) accentuates that with no ethics and accountable governance in public administrations, ineptitude and corruption could set in. To sum up, ethical and honest public servants who are accountable, could restore the ruined image of an administration (Tisdall, 2005:15). Khaas (2019:1) concludes that the civil society could be better served where good governance in a public administration is characterised by ever honest public servants who have performance-driven administrative virtues.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Public administrations in Limpopo Province, South Africa, need to deal with their challenges of inefficient and unethical governance, in the identified institutional operations. This will enable them to improve service delivery to their civil society. Whether hurdles experienced by public administrations are internally generated or externally imposed, is not an issue. The question to pose has to be: what is it that every individual public administration has to do, to implement an ethical and good governance that enhances its public administration to enable it to operate differently and in an efficacious manner? Public administrators have to put their civil society in a trajectory of forward development and movement by offering them decent service delivery. This is possible with the sound and ethical governance in their institutional operations that prioritise high level service delivery to their civil society. Such good and ethical governance has to be free from euro-centric models. The postponement of creating efficacious and ethical governance in public administrations stands to allow unemployment, diseases, poverty, starvation and other maladies to soar. There are copious examples from diverse public administrations of the continent which confirm that magnificent and brilliant governance in public administrations are possible, with ethical, accountable and honest people serving those public administrations. Failing to deliver excellent service to the civil society by public administrations has to be punished. The basis of these recommendations are the discussed findings which are as follows:

- There is a need for public administrations to emphasise professionalism at all times by the institutional incumbents, in order to render a service that is ever excellent within the ethical and efficacious governance that enhances their public administrations
- There is a need by public administrations to put more emphasis on upholding the principle of accountability to stabilise their administrations through pursuing good and ethical governance that is likely to ascertain that the delivery of service to the civil society, is of the highest quality.
- Lastly, there is a need to address leadership and management deficit, experienced in some public administrations that prevent the appointment of honest public servants with the clean-up attitude which this century so much requires to fast-track the delivery of mouth-watering service within the good and ethical governance that enhances the performance of a public administration.

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A Comparative Analysis of Trade Effects on South African and Nigerian Economies

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Abstract: The study provided a comparative analysis of trade effects on economic growth between South Africa and Nigeria. The autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) methodology was employed in the comparative analysis. Results of the ARDL bounds test showed that for both South Africa and Nigeria there is a long run relationship between economic growth, trade liberalization, foreign direct investment (FDI) and trade openness. However, in the end Nigeria's trade liberalisation had a negative effect on economic growth while South Africa had a positive effect. For FDI, Nigeria was found to have a negative and significant effect on economic growth which is contradictory to South Africa which had a positive and insignificant effect. Trade openness showed comparative results for both countries as both showed positive and significant results. It turned out that the speed of adjustment to equilibrium was higher for Nigeria (86%) than South Africa (18%) so, Nigerian economy converged to equilibrium faster than South Africa. It had been realised that Nigerian FDI could have contributed to its trade liberalization hence it could influence economic growth and export more goods. It is recommended that a country like South Africa should learn from a country like Nigeria as they both have natural resources that can be traded to improve their economies. South African policymakers should focus on policies that could promote FDI.

Keywords: Foreign direct investment, Gross domestic product, Trade liberalization, Trade openness

1. Introduction

Severe droughts in Southern and Eastern Africa, low commodity prices and escalating unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) had inspired us to evaluate the importance of trade on the economy. Although output in SSA had been growing on average by 1.6% in 2016 and 2.8% in 2017, trade had always been important in the development of economies (Negasi, 2009; IMF, 2017). Theoretically, trade liberalisation should have a positive effect on economic growth, but empirical evidence had been found not to be conclusive especially in developing and emerging markets (Brenton, Dihel, Gillson & Hoppe, 2011; Devereux & Lapham, 1994; Lucas, 1988; Onafowora & Owaye, 1998; Rivera-Batiz & Romer, 1991; Sarkar, 2005). According to Manwa (2015) and Peasah & Barnes (2016) these inconclusive results were due to out-dated methodological approaches, inappropriate proxies, lack of data availability and the inaccurate assumptions of homogenous production functions among developing countries. These findings reflect the competitive international trade environment that requires lower prices and more diversified products that some developing countries

struggle especially in sectors such as manufacturing, agriculture and textiles (Olaifa, Subair, & Biala, 2013; Weisbrot & Baker, 2003). Although country specific studies are available for South Africa and Nigeria, there is a gap for comparative studies between Africa's largest economies as the top exporting countries in SSA and thus important to the development of the region (Onafowora & Owaye, 1998; Santos-Paulino, 2005; Zenebe, 2013).

This article focused on two of Africa's largest and most developing economies in terms of output, South Africa and Nigeria (IMF, 2017). Recently, South Africa's eligibility as a benefactor for the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) was cast into doubt (Pienaar & Partridge, 2016). In addition, the Nigerian government lost around US\$18 billion in oil revenues due to increased supply of the commodity by countries that are not members of Organisation of the Petroleum Export Countries (OPEC) (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2016). These countries had to open to more trade in the hope of reaping positive effects on their economies. As much as the economies are open to trade they are also vulnerable to trade effects. This could make

developing countries suffer as they fail to compete internationally (Peasah & Barnes, 2016). This could be due to developing countries being unable to improve their methods of production and technologies in line with demand in the competitive international markets.

To pursue trade effects, there are studies that looked at the impact of trade liberalisation on economic growth in different Sub-Saharan African countries (Mwaba, 2000; Masibau, 2006; Manwa, 2015; Echeboba, Okonkwo & Adigwe, 2015; Peasah & Barnes, 2016). Most of the studies focused mainly on the effect that imports and export, as proxy for trade liberalisation, as well as foreign direct investment had on economic growth using time series data (Olusegun *et al.*, 2009). This study used the tariff rates in manufactured products as a proxy for trade liberalisation and included trade openness to estimate the overall trade effects on economic growth (Lee, 2005). Therefore, it was imperative to compare how trade in terms of trade liberalisation, trade openness and foreign direct investment can affect economic growth for Nigeria and South Africa.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Literature

Adam Smith explored that countries could trade and specialize in goods and service they have absolute advantage, and the theory was extended by David Richardo through the principle of comparative advantage (Richardo, 1963; Smith, 1937). The comparative advantage implied that it is more beneficial for a country to specialize in the production of one good even though it might have absolute advantage in production of two goods compared to the trading country. For example, looking at one-variable factor (labour), the Ricardian model indicated that trade would benefit both countries if each country were to export the goods its labour produced more efficiently and imported goods it was inefficient in producing (Krugman *et al.*, 2012). Then, trade would be liberated if the reduction or removal of trade restrictions exist, so as to promote efficient trading practises (Echeboba *et al.*, 2015).

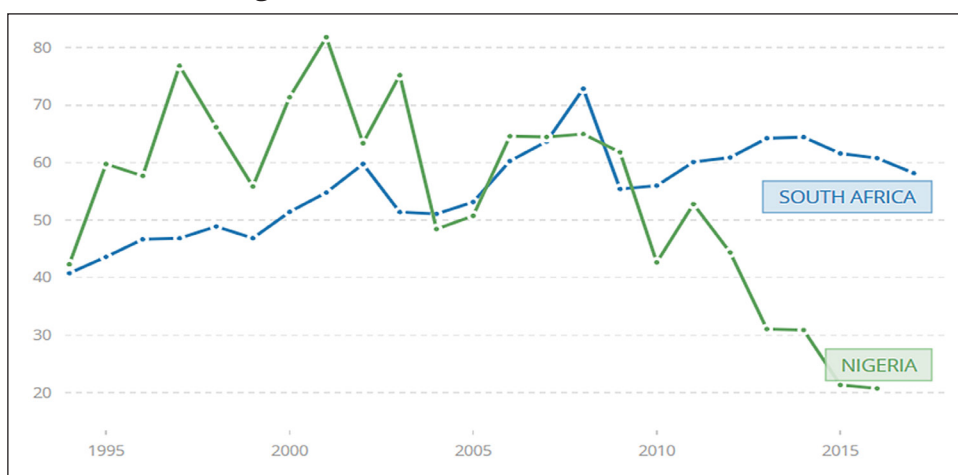
As international trade progressed in the 20th century, trade theory began to consider other factors of production such as land, capital on international specialization and mineral resources (Echeboba *et al.*, 2015; Rodrik & Rodriguez, 1999). This resulted

to the Heckscher-Ohlin theory which states that a country that is abundant in a factor will export the good whose production is intensive in that factor (Krugman *et al.*, 2012). The Heckscher-Ohlin as a neo-classical framework assumed that both countries had homothetic preferences and there were no differences in relative labour productiveness instead all the countries had access to the same technological capacity (Echeboba *et al.*, 2015; van Marrewijk *et al.*, 2012). Since countries might have the same methods of production, relative prices of goods would have a large effect on the relative earnings of resources. Owners of the abundant resource in a country would have higher gains from trade than those to scarce resources (Krugman *et al.*, 2012).

New growth theories included import substitution which required limitation of imports in some industrial goods and substituting these products with domestically produced goods (Basu, 2005). The key argument for import substitution is the protection of infant industries to be internationally competitive (Krugman *et al.*, 2012). However, according to Mukherjee (2012), the argument of protectionism for infant industries could be sufficient if initial losses by infant industries were to be compensated by future profits. But, if countries had no efficient capital markets to facilitate private investment into infant industries, rapid growth would not be achieved. As developing countries began to experience lower economic growth and higher inflation in the mid-1970, import substitution was replaced with export-led growth (Palley, 2003). Some of the reasons that led to this policy migration were economic distortions resulting inefficiencies in production caused by import substitutions as well as the exponential export-led growth observed in the Asian "tiger" economies – Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea and Taiwan. Export-led growth benefited these countries by removing constraints caused by foreign exchange and promoted higher technological innovation (Echeboba *et al.*, 2015).

2.2 Empirical Literature

Programmes aimed at the restructuring the economy are among the ways in which developing countries tried to liberalize their economies. In Nigeria, the Structured Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), established in July 1986, were a collection of policies aimed at restructuring and redirecting the economy (Central Bank of Nigeria, 1995). SAPs intended to remove price distortions and trade

Figure 1: Trade as % of GDP (1995-2015)

Source: World Bank national accounts data and OECD National Accounts data files

barriers by expanding the export base of the economy and promoted usage of local resources instead of imported material (Okoye *et al.*, 2016). However, it was seen that during the SAP era there was depreciation of domestic currency, which resulted in an increase in the cost of imports that led to bigger cost of production. This made it difficult for local markets to compete and thus impeded the economic growth in Nigeria (Ukwu, 1994). In South Africa, the post-apartheid era implemented different trade and economic growth policies with the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) from 2006 (Mabugu & Chitiga, 2007). ASGISA primarily focused on reducing fiscal deficits, maintaining exchange rate stability, decreasing barriers of trade and liberalizing capital flows. On a different note, ASGISA was complicated as it lacked clarity on trade and South Africa's involvement in number of trade agreements (Edwards & Lawrence, 2008).

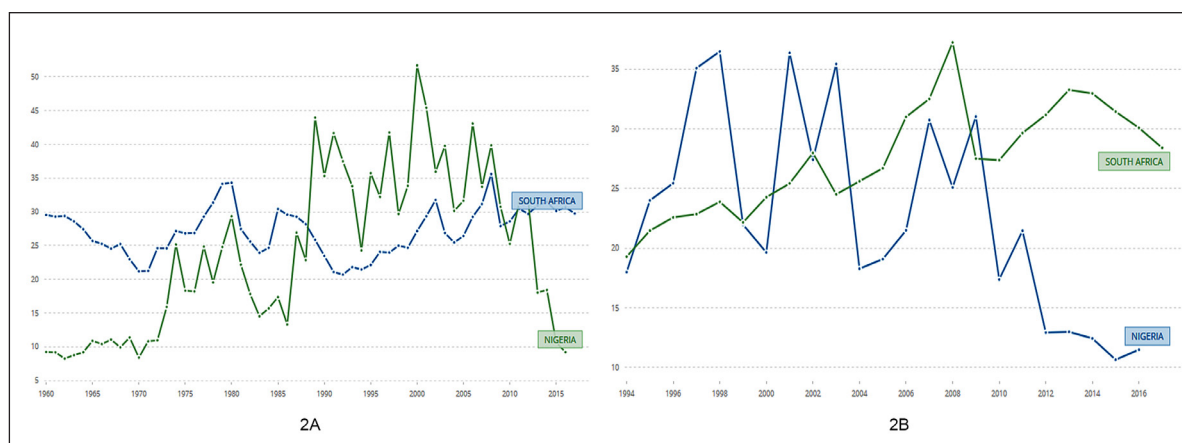
In most developing regions, trade liberalisation was largely driven by free trade agreements, but they had not always been effective in promoting trade and economic growth (Echekoba *et al.*, 2015; Gunning, 2001; Olugbenga & Oluwale, 1998; Yang & Gupta, 2005). The reasons stated were the lack of product differentiation, inadequate trade infrastructure, small market size and a lack of strong political will. However, studies conducted in South Africa found that trade liberalisation contributed to faster capital accumulation and increments of about 3% growth in the manufacturing industry during the 1990's (Jonsson & Subramanian, 2001; Teweldemedhin & van Schalkwyk, 2010). Comparable results from some studies in Nigeria displayed positive effects of trade liberalisation on agricultural output (Akanni

et al., 2005; Ugagu, 2012) Also, studies of Cho & Diaz (2011), Mabugu & Chitiga (2007) and Topalova (2004) found positive effects of trade liberalisation on production limited to private companies thus a need for more policies to promote privatisation.

Contradicting views were found in some studies especially in the short run, where there were negative effects of trade liberalisation on output (Ahmed & Tawang, 1999). Cronjé (2004) also found that for formerly protected industries such textile and automotive industries in the short run trade liberalization had a negative effect on those industries. For the textile industry, the study found that even in the long run it still struggled which resulted in a negative effect on employment and export-led economic growth. According to Manni and Afzal (2012), it turned out that with greater trade openness real export and imports increased resulting into economic growth. The study further found that for the Bangladesh economy trade liberalisation also had a positive effect on economic development. When the impact of trade liberalisation on economic growth among SACU countries was investigated, results indicated that South Africa trade openness resulted not only in economic growth but an increase in investment to the previously protected sectors (Manwa, 2015).

Figure 1 shows trends of trade as a percentage of GDP in South Africa and Nigeria with trade openness measured by the sum of exports and imports of goods and services. In the period 1995-2015, Nigeria was trading better than South Africa until 2001. After the 2008 global financial crisis, trade as a percentage of GDP in both countries sharply declined in the first year and indicated signs of

Figure 2: 2A Imports of Goods and Services (% of GDP), 2B Exports of Goods and Services (% of GDP)



Source: World Bank national accounts data and OECD National Accounts data files

recovery from 2010. However, Nigeria's recovery is not sustained as from 2011 the percentage of trade on GDP decreased sharply yearly until 2017. South Africa showed signs of recovery until 2014 where it began to slow down.

When exports and imports of goods and services were compared separately, Figures 2a and 2b indicated that the decline in Nigeria's trade were in line with large declines in exports and imports. South Africa's post- crisis improvement was largely driven by imports. Nigerian exports on average had a higher contribution to GDP than South African exports (Figure 2b). From 2000, Nigeria's exports seemed to decline gradually from 2012 to 2016. Within the same observation period, South Africa's exports have, on average, been increasing with small variations between 2012 and 2017. It can be mentioned that both these outcomes were not aligned with each of the country's trade policies, SAP and ASGISA (Central Bank of Nigeria, 1995; Edwards & Lawrence, 2008; Saibu, 2011). Hence, it was imperative to investigate if trade effects can influence economic growth and what factors contribute to those effects in these African leading economies. It can be summarised that there is limited evidence on the comparative analysis of trade effects in leading economies. Therefore, this study provides novelty especially in the indicators used to analyse trade effects such as trade liberalisation and trade openness shown by distinct proxies.

3. Methods and Materials

The study analysed how trade effects influence economic growth in South Africa and Nigeria. A

comparative analysis was employed after consideration of some literature and empirical evidence discussed in the previous section.

3.1 Area Descriptions

The study utilised annual secondary data from South Africa and Nigeria spanning the period 1981-2016. The dataset used was for the following variables: Gross Domestic Product, Trade liberalisation, trade openness and foreign direct investment obtained from the South African Reserve Bank (SARB) and Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN).

3.2 The Estimated Model

The model estimated economic growth as a function of trade liberalisation, trade openness and foreign direct investment. The trade-growth equation can be expressed as follows:

$$GDP f(TLIB, FDI, TRDOPN) \tag{1}$$

The model is specified as follows:

South Africa

$$LGDP_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TLIB_t + \beta_2 FDI_t + \beta_3 TRDOPN_t + \varepsilon_t \tag{2}$$

Priori Expectations: $\beta_1 > 0$; $\beta_2 > 0$; $\beta_3 > 0$;

Nigeria

$$LGDP_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TLIB_t + \beta_2 FDI_t + \beta_3 TRDOPN_t + \varepsilon_t \tag{3}$$

Priori Expectations: $\beta_1 > 0$; $\beta_2 > 0$; $\beta_3 > 0$;

Where, $LGDP_t$ is log GDP per capita; $TLIB_t$ is tariff rate, weighted mean, manufactured products; FDI_t is foreign direct investment; $TRDOPN_t$ is the sum of exports and imports over GDP; ε_t is the error term. Trade openness (TRDOPN) measure was adopted from Malefane & Odhiambo (2018) and trade liberalization was measured by the tariff rate (Lee, 2005).

3.3 Estimation Techniques

Time series data that usually portrayed non-stationarity over time (Gujarati & Porter, 2009; Lütkepohl, 1993). In order to be useful for econometric analysis data must be stationary, meaning it must show a constant mean and variance of the sample period. Unit root tests are thus carried out to determine stationarity and the order of integration of the variables. Although various unit root tests are available, this study used the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and confirmed the results with Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests (Gujarati & Porter, 2009; Phillips, 1986; Phillips & Perron, 1989).

After testing for stationarity, it would be necessary to find out if there is cointegration in the series to check if the model has a meaningful long run relationship (Nkoro & Uko, 2016). To identify the existence of cointegration among variables, Pesaran and Shin (1999) proposed the Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag Approach (ARDL) bounds test. Unlike its predecessors, Engle and Granger (1987) and Johansen and Juselius (1990), the bounds test can determine cointegration irrespective of whether the variables are $I(0)$, $I(1)$ or a combination and estimate the short and long run parameters simultaneously. Another key advantage of this test is its robust testing of small and large sample sizes (Davidson, 2002; Ioannides, Katrakilidis & Lake, 2005).

The ARDL model specification, in line with the model specified in Equation 1 is as follows (Pesaran *et al.*, 2001):

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LGDP = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 GDP + \beta_2 FDI_{t-1} + \beta_3 LTRDOPN_{t-1} + \\ & \beta_4 TRDLIB_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_5 i \Delta LGDP_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_6 i \Delta FDI_{t-1} + \\ & \sum_{i=1}^r \beta_7 i \Delta LTRDOPN_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^s \beta_8 i \Delta TRDLIB_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Equation 4 can include the Error Correction Model (ECM) to test for the speed of adjustment, which is how fast the system would converge towards equilibrium in the long run. Equation 5 shows the ARDL

ECM equation for our trade-growth nexus model.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LGDP = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta FDI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^n TRDOPN_{t-i} + \\ & \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta TRDLIB_{t-i} + \lambda ECT_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Diagnostic tests were carried out to check if the ARDL model yielded reliable estimates. Firstly, the Breusch-Pagan Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test was carried out to determine whether the time and individual effect are random. An autocorrelation Ljung-Box Q tested for autocorrelation between the error terms and the delayed values of the model (Mercan, Göçer, Bulut & Dam, 2012). Heteroscedasticity was tested using the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey, Glejser and Harvey test. Lastly, normal distribution was tested using the Jarque-Bera test.

4. Results and Discussion

After running the Augmented Dickey Fuller and the Phillips Perron tests for South Africa and Nigeria, it was found that variables are integrated at different orders of integration [$I(0)$ and $I(1)$]. For instance, for South Africa foreign direct investment was stationary at levels while other variables were stationary after being differenced once. For Nigeria, it was trade balance that was integrated at levels. The different orders of integration gave way to employ the ARDL (Pesaran *et al.*, 2001). To determine the existence of a long run relationship, the ARDL bounds F-test was applied using the Schwartz Bayesian criterion automatic lag selection (see Table 1). The model had 3 independent variables, therefore $k = 3$. For South Africa, the F-statistic is 8.062 which is greater than the lower and upper bounds critical values, of 3.65 and 4.66 respectively was significant at 1%. Nigeria had the F-statistic of 4.818 which is greater than both the lower bound and upper bound. The ARDL results indicated co-integration at a 1% significance level, therefore a long run relationship in the series existed for both countries.

Tables 2 and 3 presented the growth-trade model for South Africa and Nigeria respectively. In South Africa, the FDI coefficient had a positive non-significant long run relationship while in Nigeria there was a negative significant relationship. This suggests that over the observation period Nigeria was able to leverage on FDI inflows better than South Africa. These results are in line with findings of Akanegbu & Chizea (2017) and Akinlo (2004), who found that for the period 1991 to 2014 not only was the effect

Table 1: ARDL Bounds Test

Country	F-statistic	Outcome	Significance	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
South Africa	8.061586	Co-integrated	10%	2.37	3.2
Nigeria	4.817743	Co-integrated	5%	2.79	3.67
			1%	3.65	4.66

Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

Table 2: ARDL Short Run and Long Results for South Africa and Nigeria

Short run coefficients				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(FDI)	-0.000191	0.000642	-0.297750	0.7779
D(FDI(-1))	-0.000357	0.000646	-0.552714	0.6043
D(FDI(-2))	-0.001637	0.000617	-2.651738	0.0453
D(SLTRDOPN)	0.073020	0.046886	1.557395	0.1801
D(SLTRDOPN(-1))	-0.112906	0.050465	-2.237328	0.0755
D(STRDLIB)	-0.000691	0.001917	-0.360288	0.7334
D(STRDLIB(-1))	-0.003552	0.002430	-1.461962	0.2036
D(STRDLIB(-2))	0.003660	0.000951	3.846169	0.0120
ECT(-1)	-0.181562	0.079932	-2.271450	0.0723
Long Run Coefficients				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
FDI	0.004154	0.010161	0.408788	0.6996
SLTRDOPN	0.566771	0.152767	3.710023	0.0139
STRDLIB	0.053479	0.023442	2.281355	0.0714
C	-0.646334	1.070764	-0.603620	0.5724
<i>D-indicate differenced results for short run</i>				

Source: Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

of FDI on economic growth significant but the FDI-growth leakages were also positive. Contradictory studies to these findings were reported for Nigeria (Uwubanmwun & Ogiemudia, 2016; Adelegan, 2000). Furthermore, Strauss (2015) found a negative but small growth trade nexus for South Africa. This could be due to the fact that FDI during the observed period was by large limited to mining sector which had a weak linkage to the rest of the economy.

Both countries have a positive and significant relationship at 1% between trade openness and economic growth with Nigeria having a higher coefficient of 0.67 than South Africa (0.57). These results are consistent with what Sikwila *et al.* (2014) noted, that there was a positive relationship between trade openness and economic growth. These findings are in line with the theories of trade promoting that the more open trade to other countries there more exportation between trading countries. For Nigeria, Olowe and

Ibraheem (2015) found through descriptive analysis that trade openness had a positive relationship with economic growth. Trade liberalisation in Nigeria indicated a negative significant relationship with economic growth, while there was a positive significant relationship for South Africa. The significant negative effect of trade liberalization on economic growth in Nigeria is contradictory with findings by Okoye *et al.* (2016) who found a positive but insignificant relationship. For South Africa, Manwa (2015) also found a significant negative effect to economic growth.

In the short run, for South Africa only trade liberalizations had a positive and significant influence on economic growth after being lagged twice (Tables 2 and 3). This can endorse theoretical debates of import substitution and eprt-led growth need to be promoted. Contrary, in Nigeria all the trade variables indicated a negative significant relationship with trade openness lagged twice. The negative effect of trade

Table 3: ARDL Short Run and Long Results for Nigeria

Short Run coefficients				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(NFDI)	-0.012170	0.006236	-1.951537	0.0795
D(NLTRDOPN)	0.017033	0.099204	0.171698	0.8671
D(NLTRDOPN(-1))	-0.109627	0.098826	-1.109296	0.2933
D(NLTRDOPN(-2))	-0.186817	0.091990	-2.030837	0.0697
D(NTRDLIB)	-0.014186	0.004078	-3.478807	0.0059
ECT (-1)	-0.862438	0.262331	-3.287598	0.0082
Long Run Coefficients				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
NFDI	-0.014111	0.006465	-2.182748	0.0540
NLTRDOPN	0.671117	0.114180	5.877694	0.0002
NTRDLIB	-0.016449	0.002294	-7.170491	0.0000
C	-1.653587	0.912797	-1.811562	0.1001

Source: Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

balance on economic growth was confirmed by some studies (Malefane & Odhiambo, 2018). For Nigeria, these findings are in line with the findings of Olowe & Ibraheem (2015). The error correction term measured the speed at which variables converged to equilibrium. The results in Table 2 on the previous page expressed that, for South Africa about 18% of the disequilibrium in the current year would be corrected in the next year. For Nigeria, about 86% of the disequilibrium would be corrected in the next year. This outcome indicated that Nigeria's trade effects were more responsive to economic growth than South Africa.

The diagnostics test for heteroscedasticity the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey, Harvey and Glejser test were used. The null hypothesis of no heteroscedasticity is not rejected as the p-values are greater than the respective levels of significance at 5% for the tests. The residuals are normally distributed in the model as evidenced by the non-rejection of the null hypothesis using the Jarque-Bera test. The Ljung-Box Q statistic also reports that there is no auto correlation in the model, thus not rejecting the null hypothesis. The Lagrange Multiplier serial correlation test also confirms that there is no serial correlation in the model, therefore not rejecting the null hypothesis.

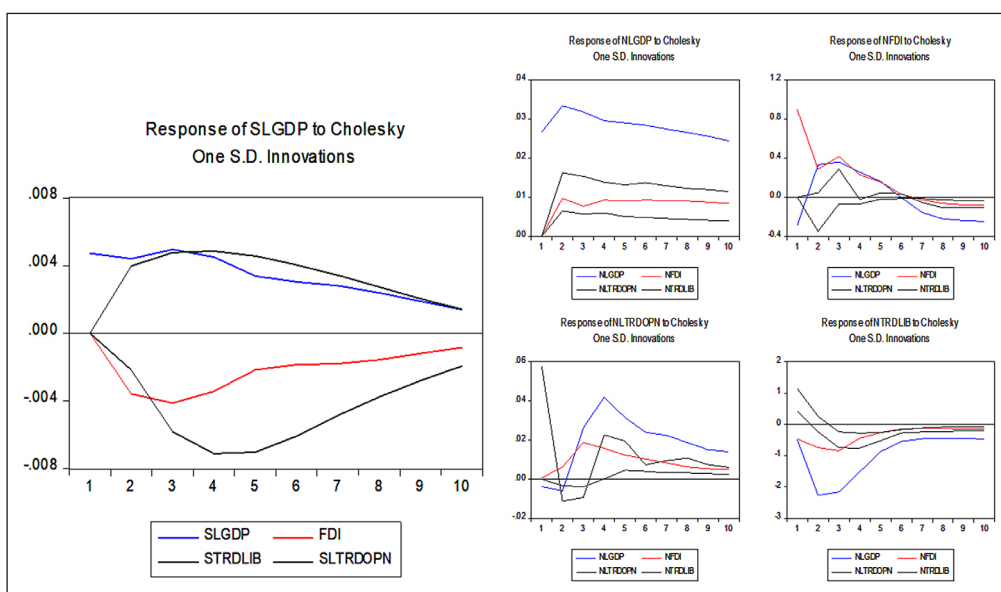
For South Africa, the response of economic growth to FDI and trade openness was negative across the observation period showing a steep decline until around the fourth period when it started to recover but remained negative (Figure 3). The response of

economic growth to trade liberalisation was positive across the period, increasing in the first few years then showing a slight decline thereafter while remaining positive. For Nigeria, the response of economic growth to all the variables were positive with an initial incline in the first two years thereafter becoming steady across the observation period.

Table 4 on the following page indicated results of variance decomposition with normalisation on economic growth for South Africa. Economic growth in the fourth year indicates that 30.9% of forecast error variance is due to its own innovation and 22.6% due to trade liberalisation, 14.9% by FDI and 31.9% by trade openness. By the ninth year, 23.6% of the one-step forecast variance in GDP is accounted for by its own innovations while variations in trade liberalisation rise to 23.3%, FDI to 10.9% and trade openness at 42.16%. These results confirmed that economic growth of South Africa was sensitive to shocks from other factors especially trade openness.

In Table 5 on the following page, Nigeria economic growth indicated that 78% of forecast error variance was due to its own innovation in the fourth period, 14.5% from trade liberalisation, 5% from FDI and 2.3% trade openness. In ninth year, the economic growth indicates that 75% of forecast error variance is accounted for by its own innovations while variations in trade liberalisation, FDI and trade openness rose to 14%, 6% and 2% respectively. It can be mentioned that shocks to Nigeria were mainly to itself than any other factor included in the model.

Figure 3: Impulse Response Functions for South Africa and Nigeria



Source: Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

Table 4: Variance Decomposition for South Africa

Period	S.E.	SLGDP	FDI	STRDLIB	SLTRDOPN
1	0.004719	100.0000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	0.008652	55.59465	17.17964	20.96498	6.260724
3	0.013145	38.23306	17.28095	22.21064	22.27534
4	0.016702	30.93901	14.94055	22.16631	31.95412
5	0.019113	26.76603	12.69129	22.61554	37.92714
6	0.020767	24.80929	11.54185	22.95271	40.69614
7	0.021859	24.04130	11.10131	23.17607	41.68132
8	0.022530	23.75050	10.93045	23.28522	42.03383
9	0.022904	23.66319	10.85080	23.31925	42.16676
10	0.023088	23.66055	10.81150	23.32709	42.20086

Source: Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

Table 5: Variance Decomposition for Nigeria

Period	S.E.	NLGDP	NFDI	NLTRDOPN	NTRDLIB
1	0.026644	100.0000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	0.047113	82.01872	4.225343	11.88397	1.871973
3	0.059599	79.63882	4.293997	13.99217	2.075006
4	0.068807	78.12929	5.018225	14.54466	2.307817
5	0.076509	77.54157	5.455060	14.70818	2.295196
6	0.083391	76.84600	5.822845	15.06610	2.265059
7	0.089288	76.42604	6.122054	15.21971	2.232200
8	0.094465	76.14329	6.381225	15.27506	2.200418
9	0.099052	75.91031	6.578846	15.33948	2.171366
10	0.103058	75.71427	6.733431	15.40169	2.150618

Source: Author compilation from SARB and CBN data (1981-2016)

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper investigated how trade effects can influence economic growth by comparing two African leading economies, South Africa and Nigeria using annual data spanning from 1981-2016. The comparative analysis employed the Auto-Regressive distributed lag (ARDL) approach and estimated economic growth as a function of trade liberalization, trade openness and foreign direct investment (FDI). The study provided insights on how these countries could better leverage trade to grow their economies and provide insights on linkages in the economy.

Results of the ARDL bounds test showed that for both South Africa and Nigeria there was a long run relationship in the series. However, in the long run Nigeria's trade liberalisation had a negative effect on economic growth while South Africa had a positive effect. For FDI, Nigeria was found to have a negative and significant effect on economic growth which is contradictory to South Africa which had a positive and insignificant effect. Trade openness showed comparative results for both countries as both showed positive and significant results. It turned out that the speed of adjustment to equilibrium was higher for Nigeria (86%) than South Africa (18%). So, Nigerian economy converged to equilibrium faster than South Africa. It had been realised that Nigerian FDI could have contributed to its trade liberalization hence it could influence economic growth and export more goods. It is recommended that a country like South Africa should learn from a country like Nigeria as they both have natural resources that can be traded to improve their economies. South African policymakers should focus on policies that could promote FDI.

It was recommended that both countries should focus on strategic trade policies better fitted for their economies. These trade policies can include models to attract foreign direct investment, improve exports of sophisticated and unique product to increase economic complexity and improve trade liberalisation. Both countries are resource rich and should have more economic policy that could allow for more trade in order to improve the economy.

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Land Reform and New Meaning of Rural Development in Zimbabwe

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Abstract: This paper reveals new meanings of rural development emerging following a dramatic land reform program and changes in the roles of capital in Zimbabwe. The economy-wide crisis wrought by capital flight in response to the fast track land reform program (FTLRP) carried out from 2000 reconfigured the financing and marketing of agricultural produce thereby created new a paradigm of rural development in Zimbabwe. The initial slowdown in agricultural production that caused de-industrialisation in urban areas is currently undergoing a reversal process. However, not much research has been carried out to reveal the emerging meanings of rural development in Zimbabwe. The FTLRP resulted in the reconfiguration of the land ownership patterns that significantly changed land utilisation patterns. In seeking to reveal the new meanings of rural development in Zimbabwe, this paper applies empirical data collected through documentary analysis, two surveys and in-depth interviews carried out in Hwedza and Mvurwi between 2016 and 2019. The article informs the debate on land and rural development in Zimbabwe. In so doing, the paper concludes that rural development has been reshaped in line with the new land use patterns in rural Zimbabwe. Private indigenous agrarian capital and the demands of the smallholder farmers undergird rural development as opposed to public investment and large-scale commercial farming capital of the past.

Keywords: Financing, Land reform, Land utilisation, Marketing rural development

1. Introduction

The importance of agriculture in rural Africa remains irrefutable as over 80 percent of its populations reside in rural areas and rely on small-scale agriculture for livelihoods. Christen and Anderson (2013,1) estimate that there are '500 million smallholder farmers in low-and-middle-income countries'. Poverty remains high in most of the rural areas, resulting in increased population vulnerability. Assessing rural development, therefore, necessitates a review of agrarian change. Arguably, at the centre of the emerging new meanings of rural development is the changed agrarian structure in Zimbabwe (Moyo & Nyoni, 2013). For instance, Moyo (2011) suggests, much of the debates has narrowly focussed on how the FTLRP has both chaotic and violent, thereby missing on the bigger picture regarding the consequences of how a broadened agrarian structure impact on rural development.

The decline in agricultural production across rural and commercial farms and loss of private property rights (Richardson, 2005) has received much emphasis. In so doing, examining rural development has eschewed efforts towards an in-depth understanding of the impact of economic sanctions placed on the country over the same period,

frequent droughts emanating from escalating effects of climate change and capital fights and the collapse of markets for high-value crops, after 2000 (RBZ, 2008). Moreover, due to this economy-wide crisis, the re-investment of the agrarian surplus is also seen as driving rural investment and development (Shonhe 2018; 2019). It is therefore opportune to ask; how has the changed agrarian structure transformed rural development in Zimbabwe, since 2000? How have the economic conditions following the land reform altered channels of financing rural development in Zimbabwe? Due to limited government capacity after 2000, budgetary allocation towards rural development has been low. Consequently, government institutions such as the Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (ARDA) and the District Development Fund (DDF) charged with, among other things, the development of rural infrastructure and provision of tillage services to farmers have generally slowed down over the years (Shonhe, 2019).

Research by Brandt *et al.* (2001), Nyberg & Rozelle (1999), Zhang *et al.* (2012), and Zhang & Loubere (2015) highlighted the importance of establishing comprehensive and accessible financial systems and allocating resources to rural areas to promote socio-economic development Zhang and

Loubere (2015) posit that financial inclusion through increasing rural income and investment in entrepreneurship, farming, off-farm and non-farm activities, rural industries, and human development are key to rural development. In countries like China, rural transformation was driven by rural finance channelled through rural industrialisation, agricultural mechanisation, and intensification (Zhou & Takeuchi, 2010). Beyond Zimbabwe's new agrarian structure, post the FTLRP, increased participation in non-farm activities by smallholder farmers bolster its capacity to finance rural infrastructural development in ways that significantly differ from the pre-2000 period. Zimbabwe's *re-financialisation* through contract farming in the rural agrarian economy after 2009 though undergirded by primitive accumulation is sculpting rural development in Zimbabwe. The rest of the paper is as follows: first, we conceptualise rural transformation in Zimbabwe, we then present the research methodology, delineate the changing agrarian structure and emerging agricultural production patterns. We then discuss the re-financialisation of the rural economy, including the diversification of the rural economy into off-farm activities. Next, the paper introduces accumulation and social development in rural Zimbabwe. The paper then offers a conclusion.

2. Conceptualising Rural Transformation in Zimbabwe

Rural development is defined as the 'general restructuring of the economy' which lead to substantial changes in the patterns of interaction agriculture and the society or 'a new developmental model for agriculture' (Van der Ploeg *et al.*, 2000:392). Simply put, 'rural development can be seen as the search for a new agricultural development model' (*ibid.*). For agriculture, rural development entails the development of new products, services and markets involving new commodity linkages, new technologies, and positive impact on the social reproduction of the agrarian community (Van der Ploeg *et al.*, 2000). How agriculture is linked to off-farm activities and the welfare of the people in a locality is therefore an important consideration for rural development approaches which are multi-level, multi-actor and multi-faceted in nature.

Agricultural transformation generally undergirds the rural economy and the broader economic reconfiguration in the developing countries. Yet, over the years, the role of agriculture in rural development

has been understated while an urban bias ensued (Bezemer & Headey, 2008). The change of agri-food systems from subsistence to commercialised, diversified, and productive system opens opportunities for broadened livelihoods for the rural populations (IFAD, 2016). Zimbabwe's FTLRP offers a completely different trajectory, given its impact on agricultural production, accumulation and therefore the prospects for agrarian surplus funded rural development. This notwithstanding Jayne *et al.*'s (2018) argument that the rural development starts with improved productivity in affluent farming areas, where technical innovation and the economics of scale shifts to higher value crops and animal products leading to higher rural incomes, urbanisation and improved market conditions, employing most of the working population. Later there will be movement from agricultural employment, particularly by less productive farmers. At the same time, the more productive farmers begin to earn high-income amounts from the sale of agricultural commodities. Agricultural sales income generates high local demands for goods and services beyond the farm, into non-farm sectors. In this sense and based on this conceptual framing labour migration from the agrarian economy to urban centres will be on the increase, leading to rural-urban movement. This shift leads to the decline in the relative share of the contribution by the agricultural sector to the economy, notwithstanding possible absolute growth of the sectoral output. This transformation envisages that labour productivity will then rise in sync with increasing industrialisation and growth of the service sectors. For Zimbabwe, the redistribution of land which democratised land ownership by a board-based mass of rural and urban dwellers coincided with de-industrialisation of the urban centres, triggering urban-rural migration.

To this extent, this linear deterministic development path does not prevail, Zimbabwe being a case in point. This notwithstanding that Marx (1973) had similarly postulated this development trajectory, suggesting that the European pathway will replicate itself in the developing countries, including in Africa. A different experience is unfolding in Africa. As Moyo and Yeros (2005) observe, primitive accumulation does not turn petty commodity production archaic, as small peasants farming does co-exist alongside extensive capitalist agriculture, even though the former is primarily exploited by capital, subsidizing the social reproduction of labour, surviving on acutely lower wages. Lenin's (1964)

study of the Russian pre-revolutionary development instead identified two paths – the Junker road of the Prussian landlords and the American road constituted of small farms which Kautsky (1988) named the 'production sites' – where the capital-labour relations are sustained. According to de Janvry (1981), the dispossession under the Junker road would lead to transforming the peasants into semi-proletarians, landless workers or rural proletarians under pauper standards of living. The broadened land ownership in Zimbabwe proposes an American path in which smallholder farmers predominate, setting in motion prospects for accumulation and development from below. Lenin (1964) and Kautsky (1988) foresaw a short American path associated with broad-based accumulation by petty commodity producers. For de Janvry (1981), the American route would result in capitalist agricultural development with far-reaching class formation in the countryside, based on hard work, resource endowment, as some farmers accumulate land, capital and hire wage-labour, while its adverse effects would convert the majority of the farmers into workers in rural and urban centres. In such a situation, a few would get wax rich while the majority become poor (de Janvry, 1981). This American path results in more people getting access to the means of production compared to the Junker path (see Lenin, 1964). In the same vein, the merchant path denotes the existence of modernised, medium-sized farms with absent management in the form of military personnel, state bureaucrats who may have accessed land through state land reform programs (Moyo & Yeros, 2005). Shonhe (2017) established that this middle-scale class of farmers is on the increase, producing cash and export crops and therefore accumulating in a significant way.

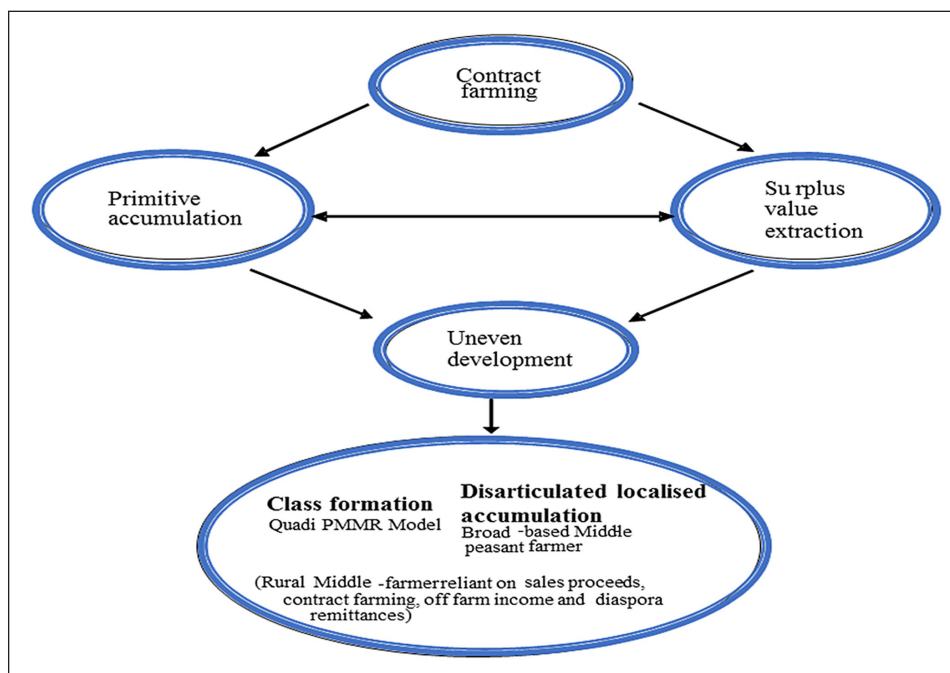
It is reliant on waged workers and fully proletarianized social relations of production, non-rural, merchant, financial and industrial capital with farmers fully integrated into exports markets and the global agro-business industry. Another path identified by de Janvry (1981) is the capitalist – also found in Latin America and reliant on contract farming involving multi-national corporations engaged in agribusiness directly linked to capitalist farmers and cutting across the peasantry in the periphery and involving cash crops. In the case of Zimbabwe, Moyo (2011b) identified the emergence of a trimodal agrarian path in which the peasantry exists alongside the middle sized farms, large scale farms and agro-estates, plantations and conservatives, with

differentiated levels of participation in the global commodity circuits. The trimodal agrarian structure hinges on differences in land sizes and social status of the landholders as well as the farmers' ability to hire labour and is dominated by small-scale farmers some of which are expanding into LSCF (Moyo, 2016). Differentiated resource endowment has not only resulted in broadened participation in agriculture and social differentiation after the land reform, it triggered accumulation from below across settlement models (Cliff *et al.*, 2011). Zimbabwe's rural development is therefore scaffolded by the investment of agrarian surplus. Many scholars (Luxemburg, 1968; Lenin 1996; Harvey 2005; Moyo *et al.*, 2012; Bond 1998; de Janvry, 1981) have identified that primitive accumulation configures capital accumulation and class formation in the periphery while resolving contradictions in the centre, as elaborated in Figure 1 on the following page.

The basic definition of capital accumulation is that it is the generation of wealth in the form of 'capital' for commodity production for exchange and profit (Bond 1998: 4). Luxemburg (1968) argues that primitive accumulation manifests in two organically linked processes; the production site (the factory, the mine, the agricultural estate) producing surplus value and the commodity market concerned with the economic process and therefore the relationship between wage labour and the capitalist. Primitive capital accumulation is also underlined by the relations between capitalism and the non-capitalist mode of production, relying on colonial policy, the international loan system, war, and monopoly capitalism. The infusion of contract farming, therefore, undergirds and deepens primitive capital accumulation. Under a reconfigured agrarian structure dominated by the peasantry, notwithstanding the market-unfriendly tenure system, contract farming has emerged as an important avenue for the *re-financialisation* of rural development in which extroverted agricultural production and marketing subsists, as shall be revealed in sections to follow.

A combination of the effects of capital flight, the new agrarian structure and the associated production and commodity circulation patterns is remodelling rural development in Zimbabwe. More-so, in circumstances where capital flight led to the withdrawal of the non-governmental actors' support and limited state capacity to finance rural development, resurgent agriculture has assumed a central role

Figure 1: Schematic Extended Theoretical Framework



Source: Shonhe (2017)

in financing and shaping rural development, as this paper reveals. Agriculture led accumulation, social differentiation and class formation trajectories all combine to define demands for infrastructural development. Conceptually, understanding Zimbabwe's rural development from agricultural financing perspective is therefore valuable.

3. Methods and Materials

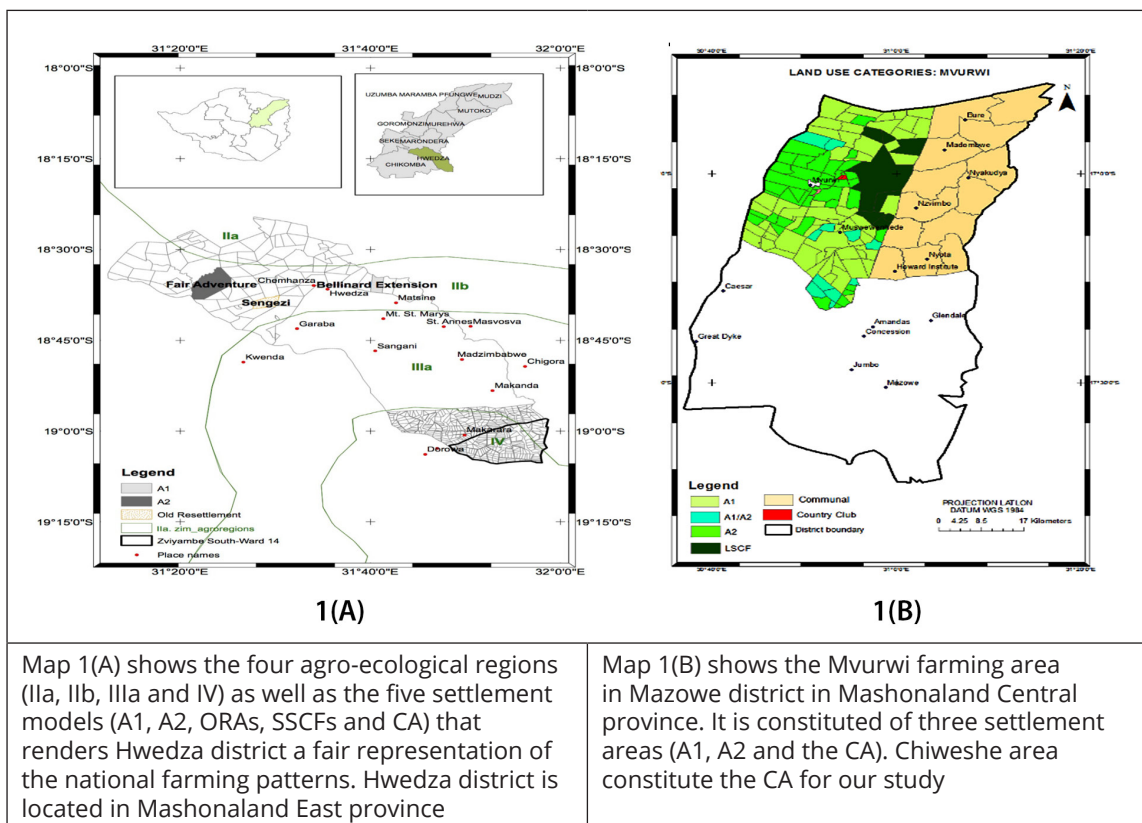
This study involved two case studies carried out in Hwedza district which is situated 127 kilometres in the southern part of Harare and Mvurwi farming area in Mazowe district, 100 north-south of Harare. The Hwedza district survey was carried out in 2016 and collected data covering the 2013-15 farming seasons. The Hwedza survey involved 230 households with whom 20 in-depth interviews from purposively selected informants complemented questionnaires administered in five wards in the different agro-ecological regions among key informants. To this end respondents were selected from Ward 13 – Zviyambe for small-scale commercial farms, Mutambirwa in Makwarimba (ward 5) for the communal area (CA), Zana farm, Tongogara farm and Sengezi farm in Ward 4 for the old resettlement areas (ORA), Mtokwe farm in Ward 3 for A1 farms and Fair adventure farm in Ward 1 for A2 farms. Even though the survey administered only 32 respondents on the A2 farms, a minimum of 46

were administered in the rest of the other sites. Hwedza District is predominantly situated in NR IIa, IIb, III, and IV as Map 1(A) shows, mostly sandy loam soils, suitable for tobacco and cereal crop farming.

The Mvurwi Agricultural Policy Research in Africa (APRA) survey was carried out from 2017-19, and the data covers the 2016-2028 farming seasons. In Mvurwi, a more extensive study was carried out involving a survey of 310 A1 (villagized smallholder) farmers, and 56 A2 (middle-scale) farmers. The A1 farmers were sub-sampled from Donje farm, Mandindindi farm, and Rua A and B. At least 40 in-depth interviews were carried out with six A1 farmers and 10 A2 farmers. Using the mixed method on the two case studies provides scope to develop tables and bar charts which are complimented by qualitative data analysis. Mvurwi is in agro-ecological region II which receives an average of between 700ml and 800ml of rainfall per annum, with predominantly heavy clay loam soils suitable for a broad range of crops, see Map 1(B) on the next page.

These include tobacco, maize, soya and sugar beans, sweet and Irish potatoes. Both areas were involved in the early tobacco production in the early 1900s (Hodder-Williams, 1983; Rubert, 1998), as much as there was extensive resettlement of under the FTLRP from 2000. Hwedza district has a broader range of agro-ecological regions 5) compared to Mvurwi (1)

Map 1: Agro-Ecological Regions and Settlement Sectors Studied for (A) Hwedza District, (B) Mvurwi Farming Area



Source: Ministry of Lands (2017)

yet both are hotspots for commercial agricultural production, driven by tobacco production

4. Changing Countryside Structure

Colonial subjugation had entailed the transfer of the means of production into the hands of the minority white settlers who maintained control of the most productive land, nearly all mines, and almost all the manufacturing industry and other businesses in the urban centres (Stoneman, 1988). However, rather than reversing, post-liberation state policies enabled the minority white farmers to improve their production capacity through financial support from state banks. This inequality in resource access notwithstanding, as Weiner (1988:69) observes, maize production rose ten-fold in the African reserves from 66,571 tonnes in 1979/80 to 772,000 tonnes in 1984/85. Even though total production and sales of maize from CAs show inter-seasonal fluctuations associated with climatic variations, total production is estimated to have more than doubled between the two three-year periods, 1977-80 and 1988-91 (see Masst, 1996). The government facilitated farmers' access to marketing boards, research, extension services, and credit in the first

seven years after independence for the peasant farmers ensuring that farming became profitable for the African smallholder farmers.

In 2000, the land ownership structure went through a major reconfiguration, with over 10 million hectares of prime land being transferred to black Zimbabweans (see Table 1 on the following page). As a result, as Moyo (2011) advises, a tri-modal agrarian structure emerged.

The structure consists of poor peasants who are less integrated into the world commodity markets except by way of provision of labour to other classes of peasants. This category, according to Moyo (2011), is constituted by peasants, whose agrarian relations are defined "by self-employment of family labour towards producing foods for auto-consumption and selling some surpluses, as well as various non-farm work and short-term wage labour." Even though the peasantry increased, as shown in Table 1, the number of farmers holding 0-5ha of arable land dropped by 38.7% to 376 households and those holding 10-20ha of arable land dropped by 84.6% from 1,125,591, there was a

Table 1: Emerging Agrarian Structure in Zimbabwe

Pre 2000					Post 2019				Average land sizes (Ha)		% growth in number of farms between initial and latest year
Category	No. Of farms	% of total	Hectarage	% of Ha	No of farms	% of farms	Hectarage	% of Ha	Pre 2000	Post 2019	
0 - 5	613	0,05	2,369	0,01	376	0,000	1374	0,004	3.9	3.7	-38,7
5 - 10	278	0,02	2,078	0,01	1,657,191	86.9	16,574,863	50,413	7.5	10	5926.3
10 - 20	1,125,591	98,30	16,400,591	50,11	173,604	9.09	2,517,255	7,656	14.6	14.5	-84.6
20 -100	6,019	0,53	406,020	1,24	61,960	3.247	3,906,141	11,881	67.5	63	929,4
>100	12,567	1,10	15,914,942	48,63	14,636	0.77	9,878,367	30,046	1266	674.9	16,5
Grand Total	1,145,068	100,00	32,726,000	100,00	1,907,767	100,00	32,878,000	100,000	28.6	17.3	4075.8

Note: The average farm size of the peasantry includes common grazing lands

Source: Shonhe and Maguranyanga, compiled from various state reports and Zimstats reports

significant rise of 5,926.3% for those holding 5-10ha of land. As a result, there is an overall decline in the peasantry class by 2.4% and an increase of middle and large-scale farms from 18,586 to 76,596 households. Notwithstanding, the number of families in the peasantry relatively increased by 61.7% to 1,831,171 families (also see Zimstats, 2012). The average size of land held by large-scale farmers and agro-estates dropped from 1,266ha to 674.9ha. The peasants have "differentiated capacities to hire limited labour, and some provide labour services to others" while they hold land through customary rights for the communal areas and state permits for the A1 in the resettled area. According to Moyo and Yeros (2005), in Zimbabwe, the "middle-to-rich" small-scale peasants - the "market-oriented" and "semi-subsistence" commodity producers emerged through government policy from the 1950s. Moyo (2011) earlier observed increased peasantry households of 1,321,000, at least 31,000 middle scale and large-scale capitalist farmers. The number of agro-industrial estates is now meager, constituting as few as 240 establishments in the hands of capital and globally integrated (ibid), hiring a significant amount of permanent and casual workers (Chambati, 2011).

5. The Re-Financialisation of the Agrarian Economy

Zimbabwe's rural development is being shaped by agricultural surplus income and therefore connected to the global capital system. Linking the agrarian transition currently ongoing in Zimbabwe to rural development provides the vital scope for revealing new meaning of economic development in developing agro-based economies. The re-financialisation of the agricultural economy from 2009

followed the liberalisation of the economy and the introduction of contract farming which increasingly involved a broad array of farming classes and gave a new impetus for agrarian change. A combination of policies and a series of changes resulted in far-reaching changes in rural Zimbabwe. For instance, the liberalisation of the agricultural economy from a commandist approach implemented under *Maguta* (food security program) enabled the importation of agricultural commodities (of foods, oilseed, and meats) from neighbouring countries (Malawi, Zambia, Mozambique and South Africa) from 2009, with some significant impact on the supply and marketing of crops. This development, therefore, culminated in complex marketing supply chains involving input suppliers, small-scale producers, small traders and small millers dotted across the country and limited the role of the GMB mainly to securing the strategic reserve of 290,000 tonnes. Moreover, the introduction of contract farming for some crops (cotton, sugar cane, and tobacco) had a positive impact on capital accumulation for rural farmers. In the beef industry, the formal market collapsed, together with the grazing lands and Cold Storage Commission (CSC), and was replaced by an informal market, creating new value and supply chains (Scoones *et al.*, 2010).

Revealing the unfolding value chains that are linked locally, nationally and globally can potentially expose the multiplier effect (Haggblade *et al.*, 2007) on capital accumulation and class formation emerging in rural Zimbabwe (Shonhe, 2017). The emerging marketing results in new income streams and accumulation patterns linked to new forms of rural development as Hwedza and Mvurwi surveys reveal. Recent studies showed that contract farming has begun to change production patterns, capital

Table 2: Prevalence of Tobacco Contract Farming

Sector	2012/3	% of growers	% of sales	2013/4	% of growers	% of sales	2015/6	% of growers	% of sales	2015/6	% of growers	% of sales	2016/7	% of growers	% of sales
Contract	24637	41	68	31502	40	77	63823	60	81	47644	65	82	70833	73	84
Non-contract	35410	59	32	47254	60	23	42549	40	19	25793	35	18	26231	27	16
Total	60047			78756			106372			97064			98927		

Source TIMB (2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017)

accumulation, and class formation in rural settings (Scoones *et al.*, 2015; Sakata, 2016; Shonhe, 2017; Scoones, 2018). The *re-financialisation* process led to increases in tobacco farming from 41% of the growers in 2012 to 73% in 2016 and from 68% to 84% of sales over the same period, as shown in Table 2. These changes were also accompanied by increases in farmers involved in tobacco production from 60047 in 2012 to 106372 in 2015.

In Hwedza district, 11.7% of the farmers accessed contract farming funding compared to 35.2% of the tobacco farmers in 2015 (Shonhe, 2017). Similarly, in Mvurwi area, 32.5% of the farmers had access to contract farming, of which 60% of these were involved in tobacco farming. After 2016, farmers have also begun to access government support through command agriculture - a unique maize production contract farming coordinated by the Ministry of lands and agriculture. The government-mediated contract farming arrangement involving national and global capital - supporting the production of food crops by medium-scale farmers. This was further extended to smallholder farmers producing food crops, animals and fish. The Central Statistical Office (CSO) (2019) Zimbabwe Smallholder Agricultural Productivity 2017 report revealed that 8 percent of A1 farms accessed command agriculture support, while 7.7 percent of the SSCF, 6.2 percent of the ORAs and 1.9 percent of the CA were also supported through the provision of farming inputs such as fertilizers, herbicides, pesticides, fuel and seeds.

As shown in Table 3 on the following page, because of the redistribution of land, liberalisation of the economy as well as the incorporation of the peasants into the global commodity circuits, contract farming shifted towards smallholders, cash and export crops. While the program targeted A2 farmers, some smallholder farmers also benefited and produced maize and soya beans delivered and marketed through the Grain Marketing Board since then. Rural agricultural finance also benefitted from joint ventures (JVs) involving some Chinese, former

white commercial farmers and some local black elites relying on urban and rural surplus value in both Hwedza and Murwi area invariably with some A2 and A1 farmers, and therefore at differentiated and variegated scales.

As our in-depth interviews revealed, the Chinese interviewed in Mvurwi area advised that they invested millions of United States dollars in farming equipment as part of the JV agreements (see also Shonhe, 2018). An A2 farmer who entered into a JV agreement explained that:

Besides the investments made on the farms, my partners also brought equipment which we use to repair public roads in and around Mvurwi farming area. This investment has gone a long way in ensuring that the general public continues to access public transport without difficult. Moreover, our investment in agriculture results in the revival of job opportunities as well as an increased ability to council fees. As a result, these workers are also buying household needs in the trading stores at Mvurwi town, boosting local business diversity. The council is also investing in roads construction as is very evident when you move around Mvurwi town. I can tell you that most of the developments you see today have links to surplus income either through re-investment or through local trade and payment of council fees. (Teerera, 2017)

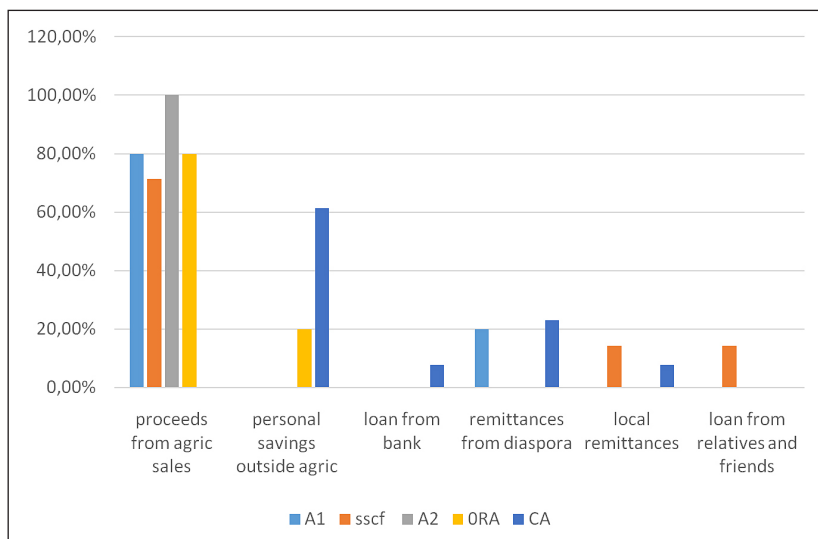
Investment in agro-fuels in some rural parts such as Chimanimani and Chiredzi has also become a source of rural development in these areas, notwithstanding that in most cases peasants end up being dispossessed of their land and often reverting to working for the multi-national corporations. The study reveals new forms of rural agricultural financing with low levels of access to credit, where as few as 1.3 percent of the farmers accessed credit through banks in 2015. Similarly, in spite of increased incidences of contract finance that stood at 11.7%, income from labour hired out, and tillage services remained low across the settlement sectors. To this end, farmers have had to rely on

Table 3: Shifts in Tobacco Growers After the FTLRP

Year	Grower Sector	No of Growers	Mass sold	USD value	USD/KG	Yield
2017	A1	37,241	51,780,583	142,937,216	2.76044	1,353
	A2	7,412	61,873,538	199,869,489	3.23029	2,392
	Communal	45,955	58,412,874	164,630,332	2.818391	1,555
	SSCF	6,458	16,853,323	51,640,316	3.064103	1,850
	Grand Total	97,066	188,920,318	559,077,353	2.959329	1,705
2016	A1	27,134	50,877,853	134,483,970	2.64000	1,396
	A2	6,564	79,274,099	262,122,732	3.31000	1,949
	Communal	34,265	52,559,259	139,755,133	2.66000	1,242
	SSCF	5,474	16,853,323	59,568,274	2.95000	1,799
	Grand Total	73,437	188,920,318	559,077,353	2.959329	1,552
2015	A1	27,282	51,283,419	135,149,635	2.64000	1,280
	A2	6,982	70,892,762	237,697,628	3.35000	2,561
	Communal	35,253	57,290,484	150,493,984	2.63000	1,137
	SSCF	5,875	19,867,426	62,756,241	3.16000	1,919
	Grand Total	75,392	198,954,849	586,444,231	2.95000	1,551
2007	Communal	3,630	2,595,446			551
	Co-ops	33	64,716			856
	Indegenous Commercial	534	4,547,038			917
	Resettlement	9,740	14,089,364			570
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	4,564	4,800,402			608
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	2,064	29,369,723			1,786
	Grand Total	20,565	55,466,689	19,527,108,198	1.9966	1,705
2006	Communal	3,630	2,595,446			551
	Co-ops	33	64,716			856
	Indegenous Commercial	534	4,547,038			917
	Resettlement	9,740	14,089,364			570
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	4,564	4,800,402			608
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	2,064	29,369,723			1,786
	Grand Total	20,565	55,466,689	19,527,108,198	1.9966	1,705
2005	Communal	7,132	5,464,348			793
	Co-ops	40	86,173			860
	Indegenous Commercial	580	9,692,279			1,141
	Resettlement	17,635	19,118,924			847
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	5,688	6,381,530			910
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	686	32,633,736			2,518
	Grand Total	31,761	73,376,990	1,666,410,523	1.6104	
2004	Communal	5,185	3,311,837			793
	Co-ops	32	60,208			860
	Resettlement	12,037	9,579,791			847
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	3,437	3,311,960			910
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	1,191	52,637,3			2,120
	Grand Total	21,882	68,901,129	593,537,303	1.9970	1,565
2003	Communal	5,654	4,350,427			872
	Co-ops	28	92,798			952
	Resettlement	11,217	10,411,907			898
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	2,464	3,252,171			950
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	1,152	63,699,111			2,201
	Grand Total	20,515	81,806,414	147,508,194	2.2539	1,673
2002	Communal	4,160	3,340,750			741
	Co-ops	18	82,533			672
	Resettlement	7,003	5,923,681			728
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	1,606	2,176,887			899
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	1,566	154,311,150			2,584
	Grand Total	14,353	165,835,001	59,576,224	2.2666	2,213
2001	Communal	2,120	2,152,393			813
	Co-ops	14	98,706			662
	Resettlement	3,611	3,657,058			892
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	579	1,466,176			1,144
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	1,613	195,160,875			2,877
	Grand Total	7,937	202,535,209	35,371,686	1.7411	2,664
2000	Communal	2,557	1,950,565			659
	Co-ops	19	124,944			789
	Resettlement	3,734	3,282,000			735
	Small Holder Comm (A1)	461	1,289,692			1,108
	Large Scale Comm (A2)	1,766	229,609,036			3,017
	Grand Total	8,537	236,256,237	19,266,709	1.6894	2,784

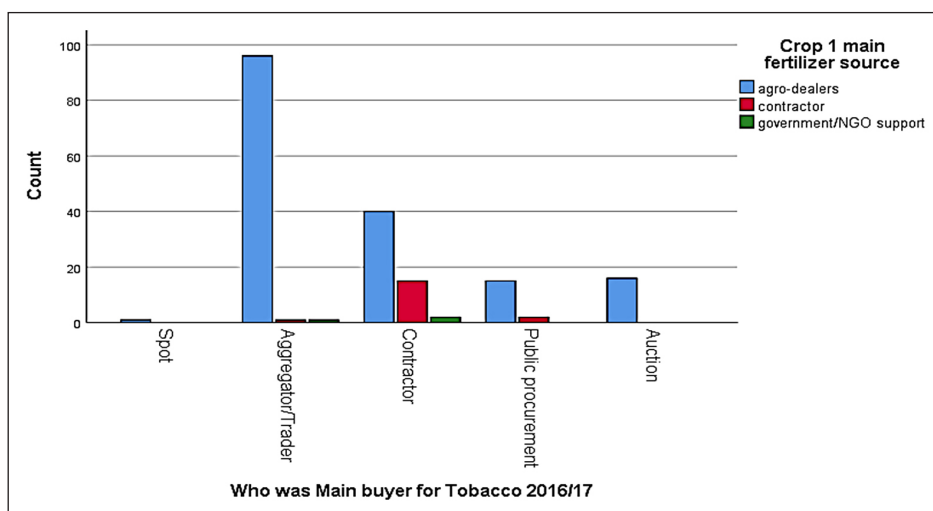
Source: TIMB (2007, 2008, 2017)

Figure 2: Sources of Funding by Settlement Models, 2015



Source: Compiled from own survey data (2016)

Figure 3: Sources of Fertilizers for Contractors and Non-Contractors for A1 Farmers



Source: Author

off-farm income to finance crop production as well as for social reproduction. As Figure 2 shows, 52.6% of the farmers across the settlement sectors relied on proceeds from agricultural commodity sales, 26.3% on personal savings outside agriculture, and 10.5% on diaspora remittances.

In the absence of bank credit and limited contract farming, the A2 farming sector is heavily reliant on its proceeds from farming. As Figure 2 shows, A2 farmers self-financed from agricultural commodity sales while 80 percent of the A1 and A2 farmers and 70 percent of the SSCF rely on the same source. The CA farmers secured 60% of their financial requirements from personal savings earned from

outside the agricultural sector (see also Moyo *et al.*, 2014), compared to 20% of the ORA. Many farmers in the CA and ORA receive some funding through remittances from the diaspora (23.1% and 20% respectively).

In Mvurwi as Figure 3 shows, A1 farmers involved in tobacco and maize production rely mainly on private purchases for inputs (88.9%) compared to 9.5% for contract farming and 1.6% for government support. Moreover, even those farmers involved in contract farming still buy 70.2% of the required fertilizers from private agro-dealers, 3.5% from the government, with a balance of 26.3% being supported directly by contracting merchants, as

shown in Figure 3. In the A2 sector, 35% accessed contract farming finance, of which 30% benefited tobacco farmers. At least 42.5% of the A2 farmers also obtained command agriculture. To the extent that off-farm income aid agricultural productivity, these farmers tend to improve on their standard of living as they tend to accumulate more. The new sources of income which involve off-farm income and diaspora remittances are driving accumulation by a much high margin compared to traditional sources of finance such as bank credit and government input schemes. For instance, the level of reliance on diaspora remittances for the purchase of capital assets stood at 23.1% for hoes and 22.2% for brick-under-thatch houses.

5.1 Shifting Commodity Production and Marketing Trends

In part, the financing of rural development as well as the identification of developmental priorities in rural areas is intended to support agricultural development, production and its inputs and output markets. Since 2009, there has been a shift towards the production of cash crops, mostly for the export market. As Shonhe (2019) asserts, agrarian surplus income has primarily been re-invested into crop and animal production programs. The involvement of small-scale farmers in both communal and resettled areas towards the production of tobacco, see Table 3, mainly widened their sources of income to include off-farm income and remittances. Tobacco farming shifted from the LSCFs (20.7%) who produced 97.2% of the crop in 2000 to the peasantry sector (85.7%) 36.2% of the total produced tobacco, compared to the A2 farmers (now including the LSCFs), 7.6% of the growers producing 32.8% of the crop. By its nature, contract farming is extroverted and promotes primitive capital accumulation in that the agricultural commodities are exported at low prices to the developed countries, in the process exporting jobs and surplus value. If, as the case is with tobacco, the auction floor system centralises sales exports development to Harare where transactions are carried out fortifies.

Under the centralised system, trade in the inputs sector is confined to the urban areas. Significantly, for Mvurwi area, contract marketing floors have been established in the small town, which means sales paid thereat are then spend within the town, mainly, increasing demand in the input market and propping up the local economy. Moreover, the

re-introduction of command agriculture from 2016 ensured that farmers begin to produce food crops again reinforcing local economies. These foods are predominantly typically for auto-consumption, and the surplus is sold through the GMB and tends to serve food sufficiency and possibilities of upstream linkages. If associated with spatial growth strategies where agro-industrial centres are established in rural areas, these have a material scope for the re-industrialisation of Zimbabwe, as the case has begun to bear in Mvurwi area. The setting up of packhouse for packaging and processing of export products in Mvurwi town, serving farmers in this area is a case in point. In this sense, the shifting agricultural production patterns are redefining priorities for rural development in the form of supportive agricultural and transport infrastructure.

5.2 Agro-Bases Asset Accumulation and Social Service Development

Rural development can be monitored by assessing poverty reduction and asset accumulation among more than 60% of the population residing in rural areas. In terms of asset accumulation, the Mvurwi area survey showed that A1 farmers in resettled areas build modern houses since 2000, as Table 4 on the following page shows.

For instance, 46.6% of the farmers own one brick-under-asbestos house, 7.5% own two, and 1.3% 0.3% have three such dwellings. While a few may have inherited these from the former white commercial farmers, most were built upon resettlement from 2000, with at least 54.4% residing in brick-under-asbestos houses. The Hwedza survey shows that of the 66.1% who own at least one brick-under-asbestos house, as shown in Table 5 on the following page, 65.2% indicated that they had not inherited the properties. At least 1.3% of the homes in Hwedza, owned by the respondents were built in 2015.

As Shonhe (2019) observed, tendencies of accumulation from below are also evidenced by the acquisition of tractors often used for own farm tillage and hiring out services to other farmers. Moreover, 4.8% of the farmers interviewed in Hwedza district confirmed now having access to irrigation, which they apply towards horticultural production as a means of diversifying from tobacco farming. Access to irrigation leads to improved timely planting and better yields for most of the crops produced. The funding of the new houses

Table 4: House Ownership (Brick + Asbestos) in Mvurwi Area

Name of Ward		House (Brick + Asbestos)				Total
		.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	
26	Count	14	23	4	1	42
	% within Name of Ward	33.3%	54.8%	9.5%	2.4%	100.0%
	% within House (Brick + Asbestos)	10.0%	16.1%	17.4%	100.0%	13.7%
	% of Total	4.6%	7.5%	1.3%	0.3%	13.7%
27	Count	77	69	17	0	163
	% within Name of Ward	47.2%	42.3%	10.4%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within House (Brick + Asbestos)	55.0%	48.3%	73.9%	0.0%	53.1%
	% of Total	25.1%	22.5%	5.5%	0.0%	53.1%
30	Count	49	51	2	0	102
	% within Name of Ward	48.0%	50.0%	2.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within House (Brick + Asbestos)	35.0%	35.7%	8.7%	0.0%	33.2%
	% of Total	16.0%	16.6%	0.7%	0.0%	33.2%
Total	Count	140	143	23	1	307
	% of Total	45.6%	46.6%	7.5%	0.3%	100.0%

Source: Author

Table 5: Houses Under Asbestos Owned in Hwedza, 2015

Settlement Model type		No. of brick under asbestos owned 2015									Total
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10	
A1	Count	21	19	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	46
	% within Model	45.7%	41.3%	10.9%	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% in 2015	26.9%	21.1%	13.5%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%
	% of Total	9.1%	8.3%	2.2%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%
SSCF	Count	18	12	8	7	2	2	3	1	0	53
	% within Model	34.0%	22.6%	15.1%	13.2%	3.8%	3.8%	5.7%	1.9%	0.0%	100.0%
	% in 2015	23.1%	13.3%	21.6%	70.0%	40.0%	50.0%	100.0%	50.0%	0.0%	23.0%
	% of Total	7.8%	5.2%	3.5%	3.0%	0.9%	0.9%	1.3%	0.4%	0.0%	23.0%
A2	Count	7	14	6	1	1	1	0	1	1	32
	% within Model	21.9%	43.8%	18.8%	3.1%	3.1%	3.1%	0.0%	3.1%	3.1%	100.0%
	% in 2015	9.0%	15.6%	16.2%	10.0%	20.0%	25.0%	0.0%	50.0%	100.0%	13.9%
	% of Total	3.0%	6.1%	2.6%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.4%	0.4%	13.9%
A1 - ORA	Count	4	31	8	1	1	1	0	0	0	46
	% within Model	8.7%	67.4%	17.4%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% in 2015	5.1%	34.4%	21.6%	10.0%	20.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%
	% of Total	1.7%	13.5%	3.5%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%
CA	Count	28	14	10	0	1	0	0	0	0	53
	% within Model	52.8%	26.4%	18.9%	0.0%	1.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% in 2015	35.9%	15.6%	27.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	23.0%
	% of Total	12.2%	6.1%	4.3%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	23.0%
Total	Count	78	90	37	10	5	4	3	2	1	230
	% in Model	33.9%	39.1%	16.1%	4.3%	2.2%	1.7%	1.3%	0.9%	0.4%	100.0%
	% in 2015	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.9%	39.1%	16.1%	4.3%	2.2%	1.7%	1.3%	0.9%	0.4%	100.0%

Source: Compiled from own survey data (2017)

was mainly from agricultural produce sales income (60%), personal savings (20%) and remittances (20%). The use of remittances was confined to the communal areas, personal savings to the small-scale commercial farms as much as sales proceeds were applied equally by these two sectors and the A2 sector.

Sales proceeds have, therefore emerged as the primary source of rural development in Zimbabwe. This income is also being used to diversify into other off-farm activities, such as the transport business, trading stores, grinding mills, among other activities. Parents are also able to send their children to better schools in urban areas where they either have accommodation rented for them or live in properties bought or being built by the family using the same income. As an example, one A1 farmer noted;

This year, I intend to build a house on the residential stand I bought at Hwedza growth point. My brother has already built a house using tobacco income and his children now attend school at Chemhanza boarding school and therefore stand to benefit from better education and thus possibly may secure a better future compared to mine who attend school at the local secondary school. (Manungira, 2016)

The general quality of life in rural Zimbabwe is therefore increasingly impacted upon by the broad-based agricultural production, with implications on urban life due to urban-rural linkages through commodity sales and the emerging investment path. Such investments, while critical for rural development also results in vernacular land sales in areas surrounding both Hwedza growth point and Mvurwi town, creating land-short peasants as planning lags behind the rural development. The provision of social services has also improved since the fast land reform programme. For instance, across the settlement sectors in Hwedza district, 84.3% and 89.6% confirmed having access to clinics and schools. As few as 4.3% of the farmers get support from NGOs for agricultural support and are therefore more or less self-reliant. The Mvurwi survey revealed that 97.4% of the resettled A1 farmer had access to toilets. However, this was variegated as 0.7% had flush toilets, 26.9% had traditional latrines with, and 70.8% had traditional latrines without roofs. Similarly, 81.1% had access to a protected well for drinking water supply.

6. Results and Discussion

Without doubt, agricultural has historically been central to rural development in Zimbabwe. However, there have been dramatic change in the financing, priorities and meanings of rural development after a major land redistribution from 2000, as the two case studies relied upon for this paper reveal. Whereas, in the pre-independence period, rural development prioritised white commercial farming area as evidence by the construction of roads, railway lines, telephone lines, the post-independence period took a radically different form. After 2000 smallholders who now own more land, producing food and cash crops and are incorporated into the global commodity circuits. Cash crops remain central to capital accumulation in rural Zimbabwe and therefore to rural development initiatives now predominate. However, as McMichael (2004, xviii), rural development is now linked to the global economy, following the 'rise of developmentism on a global scale' wherein as (Green & Zinda, 2013,8) 'tight intergration of commodity markets, the rise of financialisation and increasing dominance of large corporations'. In the case of Zimbabwe, the financialisation of agriculture is achieved through contract farming support cash crops such as tobacco, soya beans, sugar beans and cotton.

Moreover, state capacity continues to be significantly inadequate to meet the rural development needs due to the economic crisis experienced from 2000 leading to increasing reliance on private income from the farmers. Notwithstanding the adverse incorporation of smallholder farmers in the global commodity circuits through mispricing, proceeds from agricultural sales being infused in the rural economy and funding rural home development, infrastructure development and improvement in the provision of social amenities. Whereas, the pre-2000 period confined development to the white economy, under the broadened farming population, against minimal government involvement in rural development after the FTLRP, agrarian surplus income from farmers now drive broad-based rural development in the countryside. Moreover, both the input supply chain and the commodity sales chain now involve far small traders whose trading profits are inherently invested back into the communities where they operate. In many cases this includes off-farm activities for diversifying farmers and therefore shaping rural developing in Zimbabwe. There is an increasing middle-scale

farmers' class which is diversified into the transport business, tractor-hiring services and trading stores. Zimbabwe's new rural development paradigm is therefore unique and tied to the dramatic land reform programme from 2000, the subsequent capital flight and the nature of *re-financialisation* under neoliberalism, from 2009. The aforementioned is dissimilar to observations made by Jayne *et al.* (2018) in other African countries. The shift to cash crop resulted in increased inflows from agricultural commodity sales, but these shifted local trading to urban centres undermined the local economies until recently. The urban-to-rural migration occasioned by de-industrialisation has delimited the scope for remittances such that re-investment of agricultural proceeds now leads rural development, particularly given the limited state capacity in Zimbabwe. Under the ongoing reconfiguration of the rural economy, agrarian profits result in the growth of rural-industrial development as well as the rapid growth of agricultural towns and growth points such as Mvurwi and Hwedza growth point.

To this end, rural areas are now more inextricably linked to the urban centres – cities and towns. As the Dahlman (2015) observes that urban-rural linkages would be highly dependent on ties in the labour markets, access to goods, services, and new technologies, devoid of adverse incorporation of the rural population into global commodity circuits will hasten rural development. In this sense, a new rural development paradigm is accelerated through technological innovation involving the proper introduction of green revolution inputs, tractorisation, and the setting up of irrigation infrastructures in the agricultural sector. Improving agricultural productivity is pivotal for the majority of the population in the developing countries who continue to reside in rural areas relying on agriculture for their livelihoods. In circumstances where government capacity is limited, a multi-sectoral approach, including that of the non-governmental sector might aid the channelling of agrarian surplus capital into rural industrial led development for Zimbabwe. Prudent channelling of agricultural surplus might create employment and reduce poverty and inequality in the countryside.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The persistent economic crisis following the FTLRP reconfigured the possibilities for rural development in Zimbabwe. Due to limited state capacity, agrarian surplus generated by smallholders now finance rural

development, by dint of which, priorities are tilted in favour of the broadened agricultural producers. To this extent, there is scope for agrarian surplus to finance rural industrialisation with strong urban linkages. The creation of employment opportunities on and off the farms provides scope for poverty reduction within rural Zimbabwe. The investment of agrarian surplus in the construction of houses, toilets and schools impacts positively on social development in Zimbabwe's countryside. In essence, this ushers in opportunities for the emergence and consolidation of new meaning of rural development in Zimbabwe.

Interviews

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Student Nurses' Perceptions of the Nursing Profession at a Higher Institution of Learning

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Abstract: Nurses are at the forefront in the provision of primary health care services to the members of community. South Africa is regarded as one of the countries that experience high attrition rate of nurses. Some of the reasons behind the high attrition rate of nurses relate to the demanding nature of the occupation. It is however worth mentioning that regardless of the perceived demanding nature of the nursing profession, institutions continue to admit first year student nurses every year. The main objective of this study was to explore student nurses' perceptions of the nursing profession, which could share light to possible motives behind deciding to choose a career in nursing. A quantitative research design was adopted in this research and Microsoft Excel was used to analyse the results. A convenient sample of 65 student nurses enrolled at a selected higher education institution was drawn, and a questionnaire developed by Chauke, Van Der Wal and Botha (2015) was used to collect data from the sample. 22 items of the questionnaire were used to measure 4 sub-scales (the nature of nursing, perceptions about nurses, gender in nursing and working conditions) on a 4-point Likert scale. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the collected data. The results of this study revealed that majority of the nursing students perceived the nursing profession in a positive way (e.g. nursing was perceived a prestigious career, which is based on helping others (75%). The student nurses also perceived nurses positively (e.g. nurses were perceived as caring people (70%). They also perceived no difference between job performance of male nurses and that of female nurses (e.g. males are as good nurses as females (60%). However, the nursing students perceived that nurses work under unfavourably conditions (e.g. nurses work in a safe place (5%).

Keywords: Nurses, Nursing profession, Primary health care, Perceptions, Professional identity

1. Introduction

There have been fundamental changes in the South African health care sector since the conception of democracy in 1994 (Department of Health, 1996). The introduction of primary health care (PHC) system in 1996, expected nurses to play an important role in the provision of health care service delivery at the local clinics (Department of Health, 1996). The World Health Organisation (WHO, 2008) defined the concept of "primary health care" as the important health care focussing on practical, scientifically sound, and socially acceptable approaches and technology made generally accessible to individuals and families in the community, through their full involvement and at an affordable cost. In line with The White Paper for the Transformation of the Health System in South Africa, the Department of Health in South Africa committed itself to the introduction of primary health care approach in an attempt of ensuring that all South African citizens access quality health care services at their neighbouring clinics (White Paper for the Transformation of the Health System in South Africa, 1997). Sooruth, Sibiya and

Sokhela (2015) as well as the Department of Health (2001) emphasised that the notion underlying primary health care is decentralisation of services, which includes the primary health management units playing active roles in management of the provision of health services.

The main objective behind the implementation of the primary health care approach in the twenty first century is to deviate from just rendering health care services to the members of community towards advancing the quality of health care by adapting and responding to the rapidly changing nature of the complex world (WHO, 2018). The most nearest and first place to be visited by the members of community in search of health care service delivery is their local clinics. In South Africa, the local clinics are largely managed by nurses, and this implies that nurses are at the forefront in the provision of primary health care services to the members of community (Department of Health, 1996). Therefore, South Africa relies more on nurses in order to render quality health care services to its population. In order for South Africa to have

sufficient number of nurses to provide primary health care services, it is important for the country to attract and train as many potential nurses as it is required as well as to retain them. However, there seems to be a challenge when it comes to the retention of nurses in the country (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). Pillay (2009) mentioned that the most disturbing experience is observing newer candidates in the nursing profession leave. These findings may point out disappointment with nursing as a career choice and profession.

Despite the progressive measures in the South African health sector to advance the quality of health care service delivery, South African health care system is experiencing challenges of managing ever-increasing cases of various forms of endemic and communicable diseases (Bailey, Blake, Schriver, Cubaka, Thomas & Hilber, 2016). Furthermore, the South African community is becoming more informed, which intensifies their expectations relating to the rendering of health care services to the members of the community. In order to address these challenges, more resources such as health care funds, facilities, equipment, medication, and human resources, especially nurses are needed (Bailey *et al.*, 2016). According to The White Paper on the Transformation of the Health Systems in South Africa (1997), the South African health care system focuses on the six comprehensive principles, namely;

- To combine disjointed health services at all levels in an inclusive and integrated National Health System.
- To promote equality, accessibility and utilisation of health services.
- To extend the accessibility and ensure the appropriateness of health services.
- To develop and make sure adequate personnel is available to the health sector.
- To encourage community participation across the health sector.
- To advance the health sector planning and the monitoring of health status and services.

In line with the fourth principle of the White Paper on the Transformation of the Health Systems in South Africa about developing and ensuring the

health sector has suitable human resources, the Department of Health provided training for its health care workers in order to strengthen the primary health care service delivery to the community. However, Armstrong (2006:107) mentioned that in a health department that is reasonably and fully resourced, community members are disgruntled with the type of service rendered, whilst the health care workers are dissatisfied with their working conditions. Sooruth, Sibiyi and Sokhela (2015) asserted that health care workers reported shortages of skilled human resources as a challenge to the achievement of the objective of primary health care system and delivery of quality health care services to the citizens of South Africa.

South Africa is experiencing high attrition rate of nurses, with emigration cited as one of the main cause (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). Mhlambi (2002:63) observed that South Africa has a major challenge relating to "brain drain" in the health sector, and that "the flight of skills" from the public health services has now reached shocking magnitudes, which severely endanger service delivery. Kaplan and Höppli, (2017) indicated that some of the cited reasons behind this include uncompetitive low salaries, demanding nature of the occupation and poor working conditions. It is however, worth mentioning that regardless of the perceived demanding nature of the nursing profession, institutions continue to admit first year student nurses every year, and this makes it important to understand what attract nursing students to want to become part of professionals who take care of patients. Holland, Johnston and Asama (1993) suggested that understanding nursing students' perceptions of the nursing profession and what constitute a nurse is of paramount importance. The perceptions of the nursing profession serve as a foundation in the development of the "values and beliefs that guide how nurses or nurse students think, act and interact with patients" (Fagermoen, 1997 cited in Hao, Niu, Li, Yue & Liu, 2014:137). The main objective of this study was to explore nursing students' perceptions of the nursing profession, which could share light with regards to possible motives behind choosing a career in nursing.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Nursing Professional Identity

Professional identity, also referred to as occupational identity, is defined by Kielhofner (2002:126)

as "a composite sense of who one is and wishes to become as an occupational being, generated from one's history of occupational participation". Therefore, as suggested by Hao *et al.* (2014), nursing professional identity can be regarded as a professional self or the self-concept of nursing, which determines the manner in which nurses or nursing students perceive their profession. This means that nursing professional identity is largely influenced by the way in which nurses or nursing students perceive nursing profession. In support of this view, Ohlen and Segesten (1998) emphasised that the nursing professional identity consists of three dimensions, namely; personal, interpersonal, and socio-historical, while Jebiril (2008) identified four developmental stages of professional identity.

2.1.1 Dimensions of Professional Identity

2.1.1.1 Personal Dimension

Personal dimension includes the professional self-image, which is influenced by one's self-concept (Hao *et al.*, 2014). Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs and Mensele (2016:468) defined self-concept as "an individual's own views of his or her personal characteristics and abilities which change over time as social, economic and cultural factors, occupations and technology change". The individual self is regarded as a primary factor directing one's identity. Phelan and Kinsella (2009) suggested one's levels of efficacy and confidence, one's self-esteem, one's personal success and motivators, individual goals and personality characteristics play a very crucial role in shaping one's professional identity. The crystallisation of nurses' self-concept in such a way that they link their personal qualities, values, motives, interests and capabilities with their nursing profession results in positive self-image, self-knowledge and self-confidence (Coetzee *et al.*, 2016). This will definitely encourage nurses to commit to personal and professional development, which will ultimately contribute to their professional identity (Kilkus, 1993; Ohlen & Segesten, 1998).

2.1.1.2 Interpersonal Dimension

Interpersonal dimension involves the exploration behaviours of the balance between the expectations and experiences, as well as ideals and realities in the workplace (Hao *et al.*, 2014). New entrants in the nursing profession join the working environment with their own expectations, while senior experienced nurses, doctors and members of the public have their own expectations of these nurses (Hao

et al., 2014). Research showed that it is imperative to seek ways to reduce the gap between these expectations by encouraging new entrants' personal and professional growth through teamwork and mentoring programmes (Glass & Walter, 2000; MacIntosh, 2003).

2.1.1.3 Socio-Historical Dimension

The socio-historical dimension involves the autonomy of career choice and career persistence (Hao *et al.*, 2014). Research revealed that there is difference between those who choose nursing as their first career choice and those who choose a career in nursing based on circumstances. For example, those who chose nursing as their first career choice might have perceived nursing in a positive way (Breirer, Wildschut & Mgqolozana, 2009). However, there are instances whereby nursing students are influenced by teachers, parents or other members of the community in making decisions to choose nursing as a career or profession (Hao *et al.*, 2014). Research shows that in South Africa, student nurses chose to follow a career in nursing because they are offered with the opportunity to earn while studying, and not because of their passion for the nursing profession (Mkhize & Nzimande, 2007:22). The consequences of such instances in the long run could be disillusionment with nursing as a career choice (Pillay, 2009). This may have impact on nurses' professional identity, how nursing is viewed as a career and future persistence for nurses to remain in the nursing profession (Zhang & Petrini, 2008).

2.1.2 Developmental Stages of Professional Identity

2.1.2.1 Level of Preoccupation

This stage involves the preparatory and exploratory stages, which take place during childhood and adolescence (Cardoso, Batista & Graça, 2014). It is during a period when one observes, admires and mimics those who are in particular profession. This implies that children and adolescents at this stage tend to be curious and therefore interact with adults to collect and learn as much as they can about various occupations in order to develop interest and attempt to frame their self-concept (Coetzee *et al.*, 2016).

2.1.2.2 The Learning Stage

This stage involves the construction of professional identity, by taking necessary steps to become a member of a particular profession. This means

that people choose to identify themselves with a particular profession and acquire necessary qualifications, training and skills relating to the chosen profession (Cardoso *et al.*, 2014). It means that a student nurse who is at this stage will try to connect his or her self-concept to the world of work, as they become exposed partially to nursing practices, which eventually results in crystallisation of a nursing profession self-concept (Coetzee *et al.*, 2016).

2.1.2.3 Professional Stage

This stage involves closing the gap between theory and practice as it comes after acquiring necessary qualifications and skills. It includes the process of gaining experience in the field, which eventually strengthens of one's professional identity (Cardoso *et al.*, 2014). A nurse who is at the professional stage will work hard to make a place for him/herself and maintains high level of achievement in the nursing profession (Coetzee *et al.*, 2016).

2.1.2.4 Post Professional Stage

At this stage, a person feels that he or she belongs to a particular profession and shares the realities and expectations, perceive mutual emotions and have a sense of common destiny with others in the same profession (Cardoso *et al.*, 2014). A nurse who is at this stage feels established in his or her career, and therefore prefers sharing his or her professional expertise and skills with others through informal and formal mentorship (Coetzee *et al.*, 2016).

2.2 Nurses Attrition and Retention

South Africa has been experiencing challenges relating to nurses' attrition. Pillay (2009) found out that what is mostly disheartening is the fact even the newly employed nurses seemed to leave the nursing profession. Research identified job dissatisfaction with regards to several aspects of the job as one of the most reported variable influencing nurses' attrition (Stanz & Greyling, 2010). In South Africa, this notion is supported by Ijumba (2001), who mentioned that nurses reported dissatisfaction with regards the poor working conditions, remuneration, human resources shortages, inadequate facilities and work overload. A four-year study by Rispel and Bruce (2015:117) revealed that nursing profession is in peril because nurses practice their profession without adequate resources, "which in turn contribute to poor staying power, low energy levels, abuse of leave, sub-optimal nursing care, split loyalties and accountability, and erosion of professionalism".

In a study conducted by Tshitangano (2013) among nurses in Limpopo Province, it was discovered that the majority of the nurses were not satisfied with their jobs. The various aspects in their profession that contributed to their job dissatisfaction include amongst others; poor staffing practices, lack of resources needed to perform their jobs effectively, unappealing salary packages, poor working conditions, unsafe workplace, limited career development opportunities and the long hours of work (Tshitangano, 2013). A study conducted by Mmamma, Mothiba and Nancy (2015) in Limpopo added shortage of professional nurses and work overload to the list of factors contributing to nurses' job dissatisfaction. The challenges cited above seemed not to be a challenge unique to South Africa only. For example, in China Hao *et al.* (2014) mentioned that that one third of nurses with nursing professional qualifications quit their jobs or immigrate to more developed nations for good salaries and better working conditions in order to improve their social and economic status. In South Korea, Lee, Song, Cho, Lee and Daly (2003) discovered that cause of nurses' attrition included work overload and poor interpersonal relationships at work. It is however remarkable to note that not all nurses choose to leave the profession. There are many nurses who seemed to be satisfied with certain aspects of their jobs, such as the kind of relationships they have their patients/clients or communities (Ijumba, 2001:198). Furthermore, Ijumba (2001) discovered that there are nurses who are dedicated employees to such an extent that they want to remain in their profession and continue to do their best in their current working environment. A study conducted by Havens, Wood and Leeman (2006) aimed at establishing some of the reasons behind nurses' decisions to choose and remain in their profession and working environment in New Mexico. They discovered that some of the reasons included nurses' love of their work and their own satisfaction with their personal and professional responsibilities. Dewar and Nolan (2013) emphasised the importance of improving nurses' job performance and creation of safe and healthy working conditions, which are conducive for nursing practices. Sidebotham, Fenwick, Rath and Gamble (2015) conducted a study on Australian midwives and discovered that employment conditions and workplace relationships within the organisation such as good relationships between co-workers, the quality support received from each other, the support from their supervisors and employment

Table 1: Demographics Profile of Participants

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	25	38.5%
	Female	49	61.5%
Age	below 21	3	4.7%
	21-30	61	93.8%
	31-40	1	1.5%
Year of study	Level 1	28	43%
	Level 2	25	38.5%
	Level 3	12	18.5%
	Total	65	100.0%

Source: Authors

security they enjoy made them to be committed to their profession. Furthermore, Paşaoğlu and Tonus (2014:401) emphasised the importance of providing nurses with extensive training and development program, establish healthy employment relations and provide good working environments.

Meiring and van Wyk (2013) indicated that reports on nurses tend to focus on the negatives and the nursing profession seemed to be largely influenced by media reports. They indicated that media tend to focus on the negative unforeseen incidents in the nursing workplace such as patients' negligence, while the positive side of it, is usually not reported. Meiring and van Wyk (2013) further emphasised that the perceptions of nurses and nursing profession play an important role in attracting future nurses as well as retention of current and future nurses. It is considered the responsibility of nurses to modify the negative perceptions that the members of the public have on nurses and the nursing profession (Meiring & van Wyk, 2013). The first step into realising this is for nurses to create positive perceptions of themselves and their nursing profession. Therefore, the objective of the current study was to examine nursing students' perceptions of nurses and the nursing profession. It is believed that this could be in line with the student nurses' expectations and beliefs with regards to what a nursing career should be like.

3. Method and Materials

A quantitative research design, which is non-experimental and descriptive, was adopted in this study. The main objective of quantitative approach is to develop and employ mathematical models in order to analyse the collected data concerning a phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2017). This

study is quantitative in nature as numbers were assigned to code the student nurses' responses relating to their perceptions of the nursing profession. The Microsoft Excel's descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data collected. Furthermore, a cross sectional survey, aimed at collecting primary data from a sample at a specific point in time was used (Creswell, 2008).

3.1 Population and Sampling

Bryman and Bell (2015:536) regard "population as the universe of units from which a sample is drawn". The study's population included student nurses who were enrolled at a selected higher education institution. All students registered for a nursing degree at a selected institution of higher learning were targeted, irrespective of their age, gender or level of study. Convenience sampling method, as one of non-probability sampling methods was used to get a convenient sample. A total number of 65 nursing students participated in this study. Majority of 61.5% of the participants were females while 38.5% were males. Majority of the participants fall under the age group of between 21-30 years (93.8%, N=61), followed by 4%, (N=3) of those who were below the age of 21, and 1.5% (N=1), between 31-40 years. Majority of the student nurses who participated were in their first level (43%, N=28), followed by those in their second level (38.5%, N=25) and only 18.5% (N=12) (See Table 1).

3.2 Data Collection and Analysis

A structured questionnaire on nurses' perceived image was used to data collection instrument used to gather from the participants. The questionnaire consisted of three demographic questions and 22

Table 2: Nursing Students' Perceptions of the Nature of Nursing Profession

Item	Negative Perceptions			Positive Perceptions		
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Total	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %
Nursing is a respected profession	(4) 6%	(22) 34%	(26) 40%	(26) 40%	(13) 20%	(39) 60%
Nursing is based on helping others	(5) 8%	(11) 17%	(16) 25%	(10) 15%	(39) 60%	(49) 75%
Nursing is an appreciated profession	(17) 26%	(2) 3%	(19) 29%	(33) 51%	(3) 20%	(46) 71%
Nursing is an independent profession	(6) 9%	(18) 28%	(24) 37%	(32) 49%	(9) 14%	(41) 63%
Nursing is a prestigious profession	(17) 26%	(15) 23%	(16) 25%	(13) 20%	(36) 55%	(49) 75%
Nursing is an indispensable profession in any society	(22) 34%	(4) 6%	(26) 40%	(15) 23%	(24) 37%	(39) 60%
Nursing should continue to be a university programme	(11) 17%	(6) 9%	(17) 26%	(9) 14 %	(39) 60%	(48) 74%
Nursing is a good career choice for students with good grades	(15) 23%	(17) 26%	(32) 49%	(21) 32%	(12) 18%	(33) 51%

Source: Authors

items of the questionnaire developed by Chauke, Van Der Wal and Botha (2015) were used to measure 4 sub-scales, namely; the nature of nursing (8 items), perceptions about nurses (6 items), gender in nursing (4 items) and working conditions (4 items) on a 4-point Likert scale (from strongly disagree to strongly agree). The acceptable Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.77, for the whole questionnaire was reported (Chauke *et al.*, 2015). The researchers obtained ethical clearance was from the institution of higher learning and questionnaire were distributed to the participants in their respective classes. The appeal to participate included a short description of the purpose of the study, a declaration of confidentiality and explained to the participant that they may decline or opt to discontinue at any time. Participants were requested to fill out the survey privately, and submit the completed to their class representatives, and the researchers made arrangements to collect the completed questionnaire from the class representatives two weeks later after submission. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse and make meaning of the collected data in the form of tables, and percentages.

4. Results and Discussion

The discussion that follows presents the findings on nursing student' perceptions of nurses and nursing profession by focussing on the following four dimensions separately; nursing students' perceptions about the nature of nursing, perceptions about nurses, gender perceptions in nursing, and their perceptions of the nursing working conditions. For

discussion purposes, "strongly agree" and "agree" responses were joint to characterise positive perceptions while "strongly disagree" and "disagree" responses were combined to represent negative perceptions.

4.1 Perceptions About the Nature of Nursing

Eight (8) items were used to measure the nursing student' perceptions of the nature of nursing profession, and majority of student nurses perceived all eight statements in a positive manner. The results revealed that the nursing students favourably perceived nursing as a profession based on helping others (75%), a prestigious profession (75%), and universities should continue to offer nursing programme (74%). Table 2 provides a summary of their responses.

4.2 Perceptions about Nurses

Six (6) items were used to measure the student nurses' perceptions of nurses, and majority of student nurses positively perceived three aspects about nurses negatively perceived the other three aspects. The nursing students' responses are summarised in Table 3 on the next page. Majority of the student nurses were of the view that nurses are caring people (60%), who need good grades (63%) and will always have a job (68%). However, majority of the student nurses do not perceive that nurses are appreciated (55%) and respected (51%) for what they are doing. Furthermore, 71% of them think that nurses are not receiving enough recognition for their contribution.

Table 3: Nursing Students' Perceptions about Nurses

Item	Negative Perceptions			Positive Perceptions		
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Total	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %
Nurses will always have a job	(8) 12%	(13) 20%	(21) 32%	18 (28%)	26 (40%)	(44) 68%
Nurses need good grades	(18) 28%	(6) 9%	(24) 37%	(32) 49%	(9) 14%	(41) 63%
Nurses are appreciated	(17) 26%	(19) 29%	(36) 55%	(11) 17%	(18) 28%	(29) 45%
Nurses are respected	(21) 32 %	(12) 19%	(33) 51%	(15) 23%	(17) 26 %	(32) 49%
Nurses are recognised enough for their contribution	(33) 51%	(3) 20%	(46) 71%	(17) 26%	(2) 3%	(19) 29%
Nurses are caring people	(4) 6%	(22) 34%	(26) 40%	(15) 23%	(24) 37%	(39) 60%

Source: Authors

Table 4: Nursing Students' Perceptions About Gender in Nursing

Item	Negative Perceptions			Positive Perceptions		
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Total	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %
Males are as good nurses as females	(22) 34%	(4) 6%	(26) 40%	(15) 23%	(24) 37%	(39) 60%
Male nurses are more accepted by patients than female nurses	28 (43) %	(32) 49%	(60) 92%	(3) 5%	(2) 3%	(5) 8%
Doctors prefer male nurses more than female nurses	(17) 26%	(39) 60%	(56) 86%	(5) 8%	(4) 6%	(9) 14%
Male nurses are not respected by others	(52) 86%	(11) 17%	(63) 97%	(2) 3%	(0) 0%	(2) 3%

Source: Authors

4.3 Gender Perceptions in Nursing

Four (4) items were used to measure the student nurses' perceptions of gender in nursing, and majority of the student nurses perceived gender as not being influential to nursing practices in all four items. Although nursing is traditionally perceived as a feminine career, 97% of the student nurses do not think male nurses are not respected, 92% of them do not think male nurses are more acceptable than female nurses, and 86% do not think doctors prefer male nurses than female nurses. Furthermore, 60% of the student nurses perceive male nurses as being as good as female nurses. Table 4 provides a summary of their responses.

a. Perceptions of the Nursing Working Conditions

Four (4) items were used to measure the nursing students' perceptions of nursing working conditions, and majority of the student nurses perceived the nursing working conditions unfavourably in all four items. The student nurses do not perceive the nursing practice environment as a safe place

to work (95%) and the nurses' earnings are perceived as being adequate (88%). This is in line with what extensive research conducted in South Africa revealed about nurses' working conditions (Ijumba, 2001; Stanz & Greyling, 2010; Tshitangano, 2013; Mmamma *et al.*, 2015; Rispel & Bruce, 2015). Furthermore, 97% of student nurses do not perceive that nursing environment allows nurses to work with high technology in the high tech medical world. This is not surprising as majority of the students are millennials or Generation Y, and this generation is known to prefer working with high technologies (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Table 5 on the next page provides a summary of student nurses' responses relating nurses' working conditions.

5. Significance and Limitations of the Study

This study assisted in examining nursing students' perceptions of nurses and the nursing profession at a selected institution of higher learning. It is quite interesting to discover that there are numerous aspects in the nursing profession that student

Table 5: Student Nurses' Perceptions About Nursing Working Conditions

Item	Negative Perception			Positive Perception		
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Total	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %	(N) %
Nurses work in a safe place	(10) 15%	(52) 86%	(62) 95%	(3) 5%	(0) 0%	(3) 5%
Nurses work with high technology	(52) 86%	(11) 17%	(63) 97%	(2) 3%	0%	(2) 3%
Nurses make/earn a lot of money	33 (51)%	(24) 37%	(57) 88%	(2) 3%	(3) 5%	(8) 12%
Nurses are major players within the high tech medical world	(52) 86%	(11) 17%	(63) 97%	(2) 3%	0%	(2) 3%

Source: Authors

nurses perceive in a positive way. These aspects are the ones that the policy makers should take into consideration in an attempt to make the nursing profession more appealing to potential nurses, nurses and the members of the public. The study also highlighted aspects which were perceived negatively by student nurses. These negative aspects have been identified by several researchers in South Africa. Rispel and Bruce (2015) emphasised that as South Africa is facing a challenge of nurses' attrition, it is recommended that government and key stakeholders should address the negative aspects identified in an attempt to revitalise nursing profession, advance and remodel resources for a positive nursing environment. Furthermore, student nurses reported discontent with nurses' lack of exposure to working in a high technology world. As the world is in the fourth industrial revolution, new developments in nursing practice may include "tele-nursing, triple-care, by remotely connecting with clients via camera, digital and Bluetooth stethoscope, chip monitor, and other methods" (Aunguroch & Gunawan, 2019). All these require government to create a new nursing environment.

This study was limited to a convenient sample of 65 student nurses who were enrolled in a selected higher learning institution. The results of this study cannot be generalised to the entire similar population group. Therefore, it is recommended for future studies to focus on larger sample and also include nurses working in both public and private health sectors. In addition, a mixed approach could help to get a richer data set.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Nurses are the first people to interact with the members of public who need health care services, and the government relies more on them in order to ensure

that the public receives quality health care service delivery. It is therefore important to assess nurses and student nurses' perceptions of the profession on a continuous basis in order to seek methods to improve on what is perceived positively and address what is perceived negatively. This could assist in rejuvenating the image of nurses and the nursing profession.

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A Critique of Anti-Corruption Measures Implemented in the Post-1994 South African Public Sector

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Abstract: Corruption in South Africa is a cancer which has persistently eroded at, and undermined socio-economic development efforts, poverty alleviation and good governance in the country. A number of surveys conducted by different organisations on the corruption perceptions by the South African citizenry indicate that there is a growing perception that the government is failing to combat corruption and corruption is steadily increasing in the face of numerous strategies to curb it. Over the past ten years, the South African government has reacted to both domestic and international pressure to curb growing incidences of corruption within the public sector. This has led to the development of several pieces of legislation, special investigation units, committees, commissions of inquiry and task teams. Most of these are created on a case by case basis and yield no prosecutions or punishment for the guilty parties. A number of watchdog organisations and citizens have expressed fear that the blatant impunity enjoyed by high ranking civil servants undermines accountability and encourages corruption. Using literature review and the desk top approach, this paper contends that fighting public sector corruption in South Africa requires a single and encompassing institution which has autonomy, its own power and authority. Adopting the 'Rational Organizational Model' as a theoretical basis, the paper argues that a single organisation will prevent overlapping and duplication of work. The constant creation of task teams, commissions of inquiry and investigative units make it challenging to track success and effectiveness. The paper recommends that the work of a single organisation can lead to cases being investigated, monitored leading to prosecution and punishment. This affords the organisation a systematic way to determine lessons and best practices in addressing and eradicating corruption.

Keywords: Anti-corruption, corruption, Public sector, Rational organization theory

1. Introduction

This paper conducts a critical analysis by exploring key existing anti-corruption legislation and some institutions which are aimed at preventing and addressing issues of public sector corruption in the South Africa. The paper examines their powers, limitations and ultimately their efficiency and lack thereof in the fight against corruption. The researcher found that the current anti-corruption efforts are not effective as they rely on self-regulation by individuals who are in a position to act corruption. Although there are checks and balances in place, these have over time become ineffective in curbing corruption. Moreover, these individuals can at times use their political powers to interfere in their investigation and prosecution. The paper argues that the current anti-corruption measures are a toothless guard dog. The paper also argues that it is not the implementation of policies which is the main challenge in the public sector but perhaps the policies themselves are not implementation friendly. To present the findings, this paper is divided into three sections; the first section begins with an overview

of anti-corruption literature, this is followed by an overview discussion of key legislation, predominately that which draws from the Constitution of South Africa which was adopted in post 1994, the third section deals non-judicial with anti-corruption institutions in South Africa and the final section discusses the rational organization theory as a model for a new anti-corruption organisation.

South Africa is nearing 25 years of democracy, despite this achievement corruption is on a persistent upward rise, both in the public and private sectors. Since 1994, "South Africa's political transition to a non-racial democracy has been blemished by frequent incidents and allegations of government corruption, involving elected officials and public servants" (Naidoo, 2013:522). Week after week, the public is bombarded with media reports of new and old reports of corruption. Corruption in the public sector usually stems from public officials abusing public office for private gain (Naidoo, 2013). Another definition of corruption is "involving behaviour on parts of officials in the public sector whether politicians or civil servants, in which they improperly and

unlawfully enrich themselves, or those associated with them, by the misuse of the power entrusted to them" (Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002:4). The recurrent problem of public sector corruption suggests the cases of improper and unethical conduct and behaviour by politicians and public servants is a constant feature and an intrinsic risk in the public sector (Naidoo, 2013). This risk hinders sustainable development, foreign direct investment, service delivery and poverty alleviation. These are some of the reasons why corruption is a threat to the prosperity of a nation.

According to the 2018 Corruption Perception Index, South Africa is ranked as the 73rd least corruption country out of 175 countries. This ranking is the country's all time since 1996. It has previously averaged around 51.39. The Corruption Perception index ranks countries and regions around the world based on how corrupts the public sector is perceived to be (Trading economics, 2019). Corruption undermines the legitimacy of the state and democratic governance, it has a negative effect on public perception and trust of the government and most critically negatively impacts service delivery thus taking away from vulnerable members of society, furthermore it undermines the integrity and running of state institutions (Mathekga, 2017). An intricate part of the practice of public administration is to illuminate processes which are ineffective and explore the factors contributing to ineffectiveness in order to be able to formulate solutions, thus improve public sector functioning. It is thus critical to understand why anti-corruption efforts are ineffective. According to Naidoo (2013:587), the achievement of the country's objectives is possible if there is an intentional approach to improve governance and prevent corruption. There is an increasing observation that public sector corruption reinforces the unequal distribution of wealth and opportunities; and the fact that corruption is a threat to the basic premises of good governance and integrity in public administration, which are democracy and accountability. Anti-corruption measures are rooted in the classical public administration theory and practices which include ethics, management, accountability and what Max Weber referred to as "the systematic ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources" (Basu, 1998:2). Public sector officials are trained, and duty bound to cater to the needs of the public Basu (1998: 6). This duty is articulated and accepted when they take oaths and sign their contracts, thus they are aware of their duty to the public.

2. The Nature of Public Sector Corruption in South Africa

In the past ten years, there have been several commissions which have been created to investigate allegations of corruption and misconduct by government officials. Other investigative clusters have been created based on recommendations from the office of the public protector and parliament. These investigations and commissions of inquiry have uncovered corrupt dealings involving several government officials including the former president Jacob Zuma. Corruption allegations against Zuma began before he became president, during his presidency and after his term in office ended. Corruption at high levels, such as that of the president, contributes to the decline of society's moral and perceptions of corruption. The nature of corruption in the public sector is predominately among individual government officials, business owners/businesses and the ruling party. Government officials, who are also from the ruling party facilitate favours for business owners, business owners in return perform favours for the ruling party or pay the individual public official. When investigations are launched to uncover these corrupt activities, the corrupt individual public officials interfere in those investigations. A number of intricate and widely publicised corruption cases in South Africa include: the arms deal, which according to Badmus and Ajisebiyawo (2018:43), was the biggest post-apartheid corruption scandal in South Africa, although this \$5 billion arms deal contract was finalized in 1999 it only became public knowledge in 2000. Other notable cases have been that of Shabir Sheik (a Durban business man) and Jacob Zuma (former RSA president) dealings, the friendship between the late Jacky Selebi (the former police commissioner) and Glen Agliotti (a known drug dealer), Jacob Zuma and the Guptas, several government officials and the Guptas as well as public officials and the BOSASA group as being exposed in the current and ongoing Zondo commission of inquiry.

The first challenge in fighting and preventing corruption in the public sector has been a lack of consequences for those accused of being corrupt and conclusiveness in corruption cases. Corruption cases many run for years without a conclusive end. Many public officials in South Africa have simply "gotten away with it" without being prosecuted. As a result of many not being brought to task, the culture of corruption continues to grow and become acceptable. This is because anti-corruption

agencies are more watchdogs than guard dogs in nature. According to Kuris (2015), citing the analogue created by Anderson (2011), both breeds make use of their superhuman senses to detect threats. However, their response to danger differs, Watchdogs –like terriers or foxhounds will raise the alarm through loud barks, they will even go as far as to chase the intruders and track them, but they will not fight rather they will flee or hide. In contrast, guard dogs such as Rottweilers or pit bull tend to pursue and engage threats and are prepared to fight them to the death. Kuris (2015) contends that anti-corruption authorities can be divided into "watchdog" and "guard dog" agencies, based on the strength of their investigative powers.

The second challenge stems from political interference when it comes to anti-corruption institutions carrying out investigations. For example, former Scorpions employees complained that the disbandment of their critical crime investigating unit, which was then replaced by the Hawks, was done to protect powerful members of the ruling party, whom they were investigating at that time Naidoo (2013). The afore mentioned unit had been formed as a result of the decisions taken by the African National Congress (ANC) at its 52 National Conference of the ANC. Naidoo (2013) contends that they ANC called for such a unit to be created as a response to the growing problem of corruption. The power of politics is reflected in this example because a decision taken by a political party at the party conference led to the formation of a special unit.

The third challenge is the role of commissions of inquiry and the courts. Commissions of inquiry do not have binding powers over their findings and recommendations nor do they have powers to punish the guilty. Commissions of inquiry can only make recommendations to the person who requested in the commission, in most cases this person is the president. Moreover, these recommendations are based on what they were tasked to investigate. The commissions of inquiry are usually created using a Terms of Reference in terms of section 84(2)(f) of the Constitution. In terms of section 1 of the Commissions Act, 1947 (Act No 8 of 1947), the President declares the provisions of the applicable Act with reference to the Commission and creates regulations which are applicable to the Commission. The power of the commission includes: procedural discretion for the inquiry process as well as the level of privacy they want to the inquiry to have.

The South African public sector like most public sectors in developing and developed countries is susceptible to corruption; this is because public servants have access to and control of the use and management of public funds. The control aspect of their duties and functions includes drafting of their institutions budgets, selecting and contracting third parties for the delivery of certain goods and services, and signing off or approving the use of funds. The public sector is going through challenges which include the mismanagement and misuse of public funds. At the same time, the economy of the country is growing at slow pace due to poor investor confidence, this means that government is taking measures to reduce public spending and reducing the number of civil servants working in the public sector. However, with all the considered challenges in mind, corruption is persistently on the rise and service delivery is on the decline. These two challenges are cyclic and with the damaging consequences on investor confidence and inadequate service delivery. Poor management of public funds negatively impacts service delivery, poor or lack of service delivery leads to public unrest which leads to reduced investment in the country. Furthermore, lack or low investment means that economic growth declines, leading to an increment in unemployment and poverty.

According to Pope and Vogl (2000), the complexity of implementing anti-corruption measures and fighting corruption tend to be affected or made ineffective by the politicisation of anti-corruption departments, agencies and other public offices. Moreover, the politicisation of public offices is a reoccurring phenomenon in the South Africa sector which contributes to corruption. Mulghan (1998:3) cites the view of politicisation as presented by Weller (1989) begins with the postulation that "politicisation is can be said to be the opposite of political neutrality. He argues that politicisation has two tendencies which can be said to contradict two aspects of neutrality: the first one is use of the public service for party purposes (in contrast to the principle of neutrality that public servants should not be used for party purposes) and the appointment, promotion and tenure of public servants through party political influence (in contrast to the principle of neutrality that appointments, promotion and tenure should be independent of party political influence)".

In South Africa problem politicising public offices and functions begins with the appointment of senior public officials. The process is a top to bottom

approach whereby most power lies with the president, thus if the president is corrupt, he or she will hire corrupt individuals and maintain a corrupt status quo. This means that it is the president who has the final approval in the hiring individuals into strategic public offices, which can be a hindrance to fighting corruption. During President Jacob Zuma's administration, the powers and role of the president in political appointments was highlighted as a part of the problem hindering the fight against corruption. Zuma's administration had the most cabinet reshuffles and firing of ministers who did not comply with his wishes. The politicisation of public offices means that public positions can be compromised. The politicisation of public offices can also mean that those who are appointed in certain offices are geared into serving or protecting the interests of their parties or face being recalled by the party. The task on the country is to depoliticise anti-corruption measures by ensuring that their work is not hindered by political pressure and interference.

3. Legislative Framework

When anti-corruption measures are analysed in South Africa, the legislative framework must be taken into account and questioned in terms of the extent at which it successfully prevents corruption. It is easy to see that adequate legislation has been developed yet individuals either find loopholes in legislation to merely ignore it so that they can engage in corrupt activities. Legislation is an instrument used to uphold and improve integrity in government (Ekhatior, 2012). Yet despite this, public sector corruption is on the rise. Should we then reconsider the existing legislation which we have? Some critics have argued that the issue is not the lack or quality of anti-corruption legislation but it could lie in the implementation thereof. A critical question to ask is then, why is there a problem in implementing anti-corruption legislation? Is the challenge with the nature of the legislation or those tasked with implementation? Moreover, do we create legislation which we cannot implement? Legislative exists at all three spheres of the government with various aspects such as financial conduct, supply chain processes and code of ethical conduct for public servants. According to Mphendu (2013), South Africa has seven anti-corruption institutions and more than 17 pieces of legislation to prevent and combat corruption. Citing the National Development Plan (Vision 2030) Mphendu (2013) argues that South Africa does not suffer from the lack of policies or

poor policies, but rather an inability to implement these policies effectively. Echoing the challenges of legislation implementation, South Africa is one of the countries with the most progressive constitutions in the world. The South African Constitution revolves around executive accountability to parliament, an independent judiciary, and decentralised governance within the state. The constitution also provides for institutional mechanisms to combat corruption such as a Public Protector, the Constitutional Court, and the Auditor-General (Pillay, 2004). These institutions all have powers to investigate corruption allegations and provide remedial recommendations. It is perhaps here that we see the limitations of their powers. Citing Mafunisa (2000), Pillay (2004) contends that the prescriptions of the Constitution are reflective of democracy and an accountable government. Table 1 on the next page illustrates key legislation and associated institutions established post 1994 in South Africa with the aim of preventing and combating public and private sector corruption in South Africa.

According to Basu (1998), laws are there to ensure conformity to legislation and to operate within prescribed regulations. Civil servants can therefore not do anything contrary or in excess of their legal power. The beauty of the legal framework is that lack of adherence or conformity means that legal action can be taken against the official.

4. Non-Judicial Anti-Corruption Institutions in South Africa

This paper chooses to focus on two non-judicial anti-corruption institutions to highlight their strengths and weaknesses in addressing and preventing corruption. Unlike the judiciary and the National Prosecuting Authority, institutions such as the Public protector and the auditor general offer insights which are useful to the critique lens of this paper. It is also interesting to note that both the Public protector and the auditor are in office for a limited period, their appointments are done by the legislature and finalised by the executive, who is the president in this instance. According to Murray (2006:122) the first section of Chapter 9 emphasizes the independence of these two institutions in clear terms. It states that:

1. These institutions are independent, and subject only to the Constitution and the law, and they must be impartial and must exercise their powers and perform their functions without fear, favour or prejudice.

Table 1: Key Anti-Corruption Legislation in South Africa

Legislation	Institutions under the legislation	Types of corruption cases it deals with or aimed at preventing	Sphere of government in which it operates
The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)	The office of the Public Protector	To investigate government, government departments, government agencies and government officials that is alleged or suspected to be improper or to result in any impropriety or prejudice; to report on that conduct; and to take appropriate remedial action	All sphere of the government including cases reported by citizens and oppositions parties
	The Auditor general of South Africa	Conducts performance audits and produces audit reports on all government departments, public entities, municipalities and public institutions	
The Public Service Act (1994)	The South African public sector	Regulates conditions of employment and discipline within the public service	
The Executive Members Ethics' Act (1998) and Code	All National and provincial government departments	Ethical code of conduct: Conflict of interest cases, use of power for financial gain	National and provincial
The Witness Protection Act (1998)	The South African Police services	Protection of whistle-blowers who expose corrupt activities	All spheres
The Competition Act (1998)	The Competition Commission and the Competition Tribunal	the investigation of prohibited practices	
The Prevention of Organised Crime Act (1998)	All government and non-governmental institutions	combatting organised crime; money laundering; criminal gang activities and racketeering activities.	All sphere of government, all citizens and residents of South Africa
The Public Finance Management Act (1999) and Regulations	National Treasury	obligations on organs of state to investigate corruption within the sphere of public procurement	All spheres of the government
The Protected Disclosures Act (2000)	All government and private sector institutions/ organisations	Disclosure of information about criminal, irregular conduct in the workplace. Provides for protection against any employment-related reprisals as a result of such disclosures	Public and private sector employees
The Promotion of Access to Information Act (2000)	Public and private institutions	Promotes transparency in public and private sector	
The Promotion of Administrative Justice Act (2000)	All organs of the state	Prevents foul play in decision making	All spheres of government
The Municipal Finance Management Act (2003) and Regulations	Local government	Secure sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of inter alia municipalities in the local sphere of government	Local government
The Prevention and Combatting of Corrupt Activities Act (2004)	Public and private institutions	The general offence of corruption and specific offences	
The Public Audit Act, 2004 (Act No. 25 of 2004)	The Auditor-General of South Africa (AGSA)	Mandates the AGSA to perform constitutional and other functions	All spheres of government and all state institutions

Source: Information adapted from Corruption and the Law: a quick reference guide

2. Other organs of state, through legislative and other measures, must assist and protect these institutions to ensure the independence, impartiality, dignity and effectiveness of these institutions.

The main role of the Public Protector and the Auditor-General are to safeguard democracy values such as transparency and accountability. According to Murray (2006:7), chapter 9 institutions are not without some criticism. Most criticisms levelled at them are that of their work not being independent, how they choose to prioritise their work or the way in which they go about it and at times driven by a political agenda and, the other criticism is of being partisan.

4.1 The Office of the Public Protector

The establishment of the office of the Public Protector is prescribed in Chapter 9 of the Constitution. The Office of the Public Protector and its role was brought to prominence by the former President Jacob Zuma administration (2009-2017). The Zuma administration and its inherently corrupt nature brought the work of the Public Protector into the consciousness of the public as there was a lot of corruption to uncover.

4.2 The Auditor General South Africa

Table 1 indicates that the Auditor General, like the Public Protector, is an institution informed the Constitution. The role and powers of the Auditor-General are to audit, inspect and compile a report on the accounts, financial statements and management of all the provincial and national departments, local governments and any other public institution (Hlongwane, 2018). The Auditor General's role and powers lends to how effective he is in performing his duties. However, the AG does not prevent corruption but merely uncovers it after it has occurred. At the same time, the recommendations he provides can arguably prevent future corruption or perhaps close the loopholes for future corruption. Hlongwane (2018:16-20), identifies six challenges faced by government anti-corruption institutions, which include; limited powers, lack of resources, lack of knowledge on corruption, uncoordinated activities, a lack of independence, insufficient protection mechanism for whistle-blowers. It is these challenges which contribute to the weakness and inefficacy of the institutions. However, one also has to acknowledge that fixing these issues in various

institutions might not be possible or might be a costly expenditure. Limited powers mean that institutions must work with limitations which can affect access and control to their operations. Working with limited power can also influence the legality or legitimacy of their findings in the long run. Acting with power means acting without authority, this can lead to legal troubles, with financial implications on the institutions.

5. Theoretical Framework: The Rational Organisation Theory

According to Pillay (2004) to successfully eradicate corruption, the key requirements are impartial democratic institutions, open elections, and unfettered access to information. However, "institutional responses in South Africa appear to be hamstrung by intra and inter institutional manoeuvring, which deflects, as well as subverts the integrity of these efforts" (Naidoo, 2013:523). According to Lawson (2009) international organisations like the World Bank have called for structural and one normative reform. The reform agenda on the structural front has found that that discretion plus monopoly minus accountability leads to corruption, whilst normative agenda has discovered that by raising awareness of the adverse effects of corruption has been identified as the first stage in the creation and dissemination of a global anti-corruption norm. It is on the basis of the former sentiments that bring to the forefront the idea of centralising anti-corruption in South Africa. One cannot say with absolute certainty that centralisation will curb corruption especially if the established organisation is a monopoly with absolute power. At the same time, the challenge of multiple organisations has led to duplication of work and limitations.

Critiquing South Africa's multi organisational/institution anti-corruption approach is informed by the rational organisation theory. De Sousa (2009) conducts an analysis of anti-corruption agencies around the world with special focus on specialised anti-corruption units. They units are usually formed by parliamentary commissions, inquiry committees, special police branches or anti-corruption leagues (De Sousa, 2009). Many anti-corruption agencies are created to perform either a preventive or restraining role. In the making a case for the existence of multiple anti-corruption institutions De Sousa (2009), explains that some agencies in South east Asia and Europe were established either by the

declining colonial powers as an attempt to clean up the reputation of their colonial administrations or were established by the newly independent governments as a part of their endeavours, within the framework of self-determination and sovereignty to build a new public administration free from the old habits and "corrupt" practices inherited from the colonial powers. This is where the logic of anti-corruption institutions being preventive and restrictive finds expression. This is reflected in the case of South Africa, which the new democratic government which came into effect in 1994, it needed to transform loopholes created in transitional governance negotiations and a whole public administration.

South Africa has also followed the route of establishing Special Investigating Units. This was done two years after transitioning to a democratic state. These units were created under the legislations of the Special Investigating Units (SIUs) and Special Tribunals Act (74) the acts created in order to create a directive for the President to establish structures which would investigate and adjudicate civil cases involving serious malpractice or maladministration (including corruption) in state institutions. The Act, which empowered the ad hoc creation of 'SIUs' later led to the creation of a permanent entity known as the 'Heath Special Investigating Unit'. It is worthwhile to remember that the new government under a democratic South Africa needed to transform a civil service which had been morally corrupt for decades.

The new democratic government inherited a distorted system of governance which included institutions that were in direct conflict with the requirements of sustainable economic growth, social development, and reintegration into the world economy (Pillay, 2004). Moreover, there was the urgent and mountainous challenge to address a deliberately designed racial society inequality especially in terms of access to opportunities for those who were previously marginalised. The newly elected democratic government sought to create measures and procedures which could prevent corruption as well as that which would rehabilitate some inherited corruption practices left by the apartheid regime.

Anti-corruption agencies are institutions normally created by necessity and at other times as a last resort towards accountability and transparency. They are often established because of public sector

scandals and crisis and tend to be created by broad political consent to help explain why the scandal occurred, the underlying causes of the scandal and how long it has been ongoing. In most cases in South Africa, anti-corruption strategies especially those of inquiry are created as a response to evidence and whistle blowers witness accounts exposing corrupt activities. Other which have led to investigations and probing have been instances of failed service delivery, poor service delivery, the quality of services delivered, avoidable and preventable deaths because of poor or lack of service delivery and political battles. These occurrences are often found to be caused by corruption from the tendering process to the rewarding of the tenders. The problem of having multi institutions is that it can lead to the duplication of the same work, political interference disguised as institutions and the case of "too many cooks spoiling the broth". Naidoo (2013:528) citing arguments by Persson, Rothstein and Teorell (2010,5), argues that "actors including leaders, civil servants and citizens tend to use their' rational behaviour collectively towards anti-corruption control measures. When they act as a collective, their power is regulated and constrained, rather than being individually pre-determined, this also means that their collective incentives are shaped by 'interactive' and 'reciprocal' exchanges and shared expectations can impair the effectiveness of anti-corruption controls". Thus, that is the limitation of collective action. It is from here that the researcher proposes a single organisation should be created to fight corruption in South Africa modelled on the rational organisation theory.

The rational organisation theory is derived from two classical theories of the organisation. These include Frederick Taylor's (1913) "The Principles of Scientific Management" and Max Weber's (1922) "Theory of bureaucracy" in "*Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft*". According to Louis (2015) Weber's theory, which will be used in this research is primarily focused on bureaucracy and structure of the organisation. Although these theories emerged from different sectors of the economy, for example Taylor's theory came from factory production and Weber's theory was from public administration offices. However, what they have in common is that both models adhere to the standardization of work, control of quality, division of labour and a strict hierarchy (Groth, 2012:2-3). According to Leegard and Bindslev both school focus on task, performance and structure.

According to Leegard and Bindslev (2006), the schools of rational theory hold a common belief regarding expected staff behaviour in rational organizations, they are as follows:

- Transparency to enable consequences of organizational choices to be assessed.
 - Adjustability for the attainment of maximum productivity.
 - Need for flexibility in replacing parts of the organisation and avoid key staff.
 - Need to reduce infighting to maintain achieved positions.
 - Top-down management and control.
 - Professional and rational behaviour without disruptive emotional relationships.
- Continuity and systematization in standardization of work attitudes;
 - A systematic approach to training so that employees are not left with their own solutions performing their jobs;
 - Research and inspection for finding better ways of performing tasks and for identifying deterioration from planned methods;
 - Calculation of both goals and outcomes for objectivity and ease of analysis; and
 - Planning of operations and commitments for avoiding problems during the operation.

According to Groth (2012), Weber's work was interested in the role the organisation plays in politics and economics in general. Weber believed that bureaucracy of an organisation would supersede all other organization forms. According to Weber, the efficiency of bureaucracy had the potential to lock man into an "Iron Cage" of machine-like existence. The need for a rational anti-corruption organisation is more critical where the variance of multiple organisations have failed the nation. A rational anti-corruption organisational will be more formalization and with a single goal orientation. Olmeza, Sumer and Soysalc (2004) contend that open system institutions which different from the rational organisation were more focused on individual and organizational level interactions to allow and foster a considerable role for power, bargaining, negotiation, and compromise with the organization. It is these kinds of organisations which have failed to curb and prevent corruption. Thus, South Africa has moved beyond prevention to attempts of uncovering the extent of corrupt activities. The uncovering which usually involves investigations and commissions of inquiry is a new and growing expense on the already resource strung public administration. Olmez *et al.* (2004) contend that Weberian formal rationality largely means that individuals are not left to their own discretion in searching for the best way of attaining a given objective in the organisation. Olmez *et al.* (2004) argue that an organisation operating within the rational framework will eliminate the following concerns:

Despite it strengthens, the rational organisation is not without some criticisms. For example, critics of the theory contend that bureaucracy has four main irrational limitations in terms of its ideal type, its negligence of the informal aspect of the organisation, and its dehumanized view of individuals working in the organisation as well as its relationship with democracy" in particular, Weber's bureaucracy does not consider the important role of the informal relationships that exist in any human organisations" (Al-Habil, 2010). Al-Habil (2010) argues that this model is idealistic and utopian in its outlook. If the argument then is that the model is ideal, then it is what anti-corruption strategies and institutions should be striving towards. In response to the critique of the dehumanization of individuals in the institution, that critique, should examine the precision which military personnel operate, as well as the army efficiency. Bureaucracy remains the means for achieving rationally ordered social action in fighting and preventing corruption. After all, non-rational approach to anti-corruption has failed dismally.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is evident that having multiple institutions to fight against corruption leads to the scarcity of resources and duplication of tasks challenges in anti-corruption efforts. The establishment single bureaucratic and rational organization to fight corruption means that there can be no duplication of efforts. Moreover, resources can be channelled into a single organisation, power is also centred and manageable within a single organisation which has a clear hierarchy instead of multiple organisations with limited

powers. This will provide government with ways to track all cases and all anti-corruption activities systematically. The rational organisation would be adequately equipped with knowledge of corruption as research and planning would be streamlined and standardised. Weber's bureaucracy model informed us that, the normative operation of an institution lends itself to adhering to standardising of work, control of quality, division of labour and a strict observance to hierarchy, allowing for workers to be singularly focused and thus effective in their tasks.

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Land Redistribution and Poverty Alleviation in South Africa

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Abstract: Land is viewed as the main source of livelihood for the majority of rural households in developing countries. However, the majority of the rural households do not have access to productive lands as land is finite and therefore a scarce resource and its distribution is largely attributed to historical land imbalances, hence the problem of rural poverty is more prevalent among the rural households. There has been increased demand for land for livelihoods and various land policies have been implemented in developing countries to stimulate growth in the agricultural sector and alleviate rural poverty. The question that remains is how does land redistribution policies and agriculture growth affect poverty alleviation? To answer the question, this study employed a multiplier decomposition approach using the 2010 IFPRI SOCIAL accounting matrix as the data base. The multiplier decomposition approach revealed that land redistribution and agriculture growth can alleviate poverty in South Africa. However, for significant poverty alleviation, only long-term land reform policies geared toward improving agricultural productivity and growth should be implemented.

Keywords: Multiplier decomposition, Land policies, Poverty alleviation, rural household

1. Introduction

Natural resource ownership plays an important role in promoting economic growth, reducing income distribution inequalities, and alleviating poverty, especially in developing countries. Recent empirical research in both developed and developing countries have demonstrated that equality in natural resource ownership among the population can have significant impacts on poverty alleviation and income distribution among citizens (Deninger *et al.*, 2000; World Bank, 2004; Cousins, 2004; Lahiff & Cousins, 2005). With agricultural land being viewed as a key natural resource for wealth generation in many developing countries, rural land redistribution can be an important strategy for alleviating poverty and improving household welfare mainly because poor people have strong ties to agriculture. The rationale behind poverty alleviation is that poor households can now share in profits as co-owners of the land rather than only as wage workers. In light of this, several developing countries have recently started the redistribution of natural resources, especially land, to create opportunities for earning higher incomes and employment creation for resource poor households. The main focus

of these redistribution policies is the agriculture sector because the importance of this sector for growth and poverty alleviation is widely recognised (Cockburn *et al.*, 2013). Access to productive land improves the asset base and income of the poor households whom are the intended beneficiaries of the rural land redistribution programme. Thus, agriculture rural land redistribution reform is widely viewed as an effective and most important way to reduce poverty especially in developing countries where poverty and income inequalities are often a norm than an exception (Datt & Ravallion, 1996).

Numerous empirical studies have shown that equality in the land ownership can be an effective tool in fighting poverty and promoting growth (IFAD, 2001; Negrao, 2002; DFID 2003:5; Borrás, 2006; World Bank, 2006). With several developing countries now emphasising on rural land redistribution, there has been an increasing interest in the relationship between land ownership, agriculture productivity, poverty reduction and income distribution. An analysis of whether and how these redistributive policies impact on the overall economy, poverty and income distribution provides a better understanding of the long-term effects. Rural land redistribution

programmes can be potentially attractive policies for poverty reduction and improvement of income distribution; hence, an empirical demonstration of the effectiveness of these programs is of great importance. In addition, the empirical demonstration of the welfare effects will provide evidence and tools to the government to assess the relevance and effectiveness of these alternative poverty reduction policies in the country.

However, the question of whether these rural land redistribution policies are justified and can be effective as tools for reducing unemployment and poverty, by contributing towards the overall improvement of rural household welfare still remains unanswered. Therefore, this study applies a multiplier decomposition approach model in an attempt to answer this question by assessing the impact of rural land redistribution policies on poverty reduction.

2. Literature Review

In the neoclassical theory, land is treated as a marketable commodity which should be priced and allocated according to its marginal productivity. This implies that the theory is appropriate for dealing with complex practical questions for agricultural productivity and land reform. According to this theory, land reform is essential for economic growth and to improve agricultural productivity which is important for economic, greater security of title to land is essential. In developing countries, agricultural development plays a vital role in economic development as agricultural is not only a major form of employment, but the rural population depends on the sector for livelihood. Therefore, economic growth strategy should focus on distributional factor of the income generated by the growth. Thus poverty, unemployment and inequality in the economy should be taken into account in policy making. The land redistribution and the associated growth opportunities have strong implications for long-term development (World Bank, 2005). Access to land reduces vulnerability to hunger and poverty, influences capacity to invest in their productivity activities and enhance prospects for better livelihoods.

Moreover, empirical and theoretical findings indicate that there exists a variety and complementary paths that can secure access to land for the rural poor (de Janvry, 2002). However, the most common

approaches to land redistribution are the state-led and market-assisted land reform. Under the state-led reform, the government/state plays a central role in promoting land reform programs. This form of land reform consists of a central authority that dispossesses and redistributes land to selected beneficiaries. The state-led reforms are most common in countries with high land property concentration, great social and economic inequality, abject rural poverty and widespread landlessness (Ciamarra, 2003).

The market-assisted land reform affirms that, under certain conditions, markets can endogenously lead to equal and efficient land asset distribution, hence can be a substitute for state-led reform. In the market-assisted land reform, the beneficiaries receive a combination of grants and loans which they use to negotiate the purchase of the land from willing sellers. This form of land reform depends on the fact that there exists an inverse relation between farm size and output per unit of land and the land market is regressive for the resource poor.

Land redistribution is considered the 'flagship' of the land reform programme in South Africa Department of Agriculture (2005). The primary objective of the land redistribution programme was to transfer about 24 million hectares of agricultural land to black ownership by 1999. As the bulk of agricultural land in South Africa is held under commercial agriculture which is dominated by the minority White people, the expectation was that 3 million Black people would benefit from the redistribution which was based on willing buyer willing seller principle.

With about 1% of the land transferred in the first 5 years of the programme Department of Agriculture (2005), and the target redistributable land at 30%, the duration of the redistribution was extended to 15 years. The process of land redistribution was deemed to be slow and due to the lack of realism in the targeted goal. Various steps were taken which include increasing the levels of cash grants provided to prospective beneficiaries for them to acquire land and productively use it. However, farm land prices were above the R16000 per beneficiary household provided by the government. The slow process rendered the Settlement and Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) unsustainable, leading to the establishment of the on-going Land Redistribution for Agriculture Development (LRAD) in 2000. The LRAD was however, viewed

as limited to previously disadvantaged black individuals since there is no significant improvement in the pace and process of land redistribution. The programme did manage to redistribute only about 14.6% of the target with 4.8% of the target population.

The land reform process in South Africa is largely based on the willing-buyer, willing-seller arrangement where the government assists in the purchase of land (Department of Land Affairs, 1997). These arrangements were mainly based on the operations of the existing land market. The land redistribution policy has undergone a series of shifts since 1994, but the focus is mainly on agricultural purposes. Until 2000, the land redistribution was targeting the poorest of the poor. However, the act of providing access to productive land to the poor without farming skills or resources for facilitating productivity and efficiency of these farms was criticised. This led to the introduction of the LRAD that explicitly aimed to promote commercially-oriented agriculture by the black people. Under this new program, higher grants were paid to individuals with the potential to use land productively. A number of empirical studies have applied SAM multiplier framework to analyse growth and distributive impacts of different government policies (Nseera, 2014; Juana & Mabugu, 2005; Sadoulet & de Janvry, 1995). Though these input-output and social accounting matrix models have been extensively used in the early literature to analyse growth linkages between various economic sectors, especially to investigate the role of agriculture and industry as engines of economic growth (Hassan & Olbrich, 1999; Bautista *et al.*, 2002; Delgado *et al.*, 1998) however, detailed and effective analysis of land redistribution requires SAM decomposition and structural path framework which captures intersectoral effects (Sadoulet & de Janvry, 1995). This study adopted this framework to analyse the impact of an exogenous shock in the agricultural sector on the income of poor households in South Africa.

3. Method and Materials

To analyse the intersectoral impact of land redistribution on South African economy, this study adopted the IFPRI 2009 SAM which was built using official supply-use details, national accounts, state budgets and balance of payments accounts, therefore the SAM provides a detailed representation of

the South African economy. The social accounting matrix records the transactions between different economic accounts; therefore, it is an ideal data base for conducting economy wide impact assessments such as SAM based multiplier analysis and computable general equilibrium models. The IFPRI 2009 SAM consists of 49 activities, 85 commodities, 14 household types, a government sector, enterprise and the rest of the world. The SAM has 5 factors of production, namely capital, labour with primary education, labour with middle school education, labour with completed secondary school education and labour with tertiary education. Given the nature of multiplier decomposition and structural path analysis, activity and commodities accounts are aggregated into single production accounts. For the purpose of this study, the SAM was aggregated into 41 production activities (and in this case production activities are a combination of 49 activities and 85 commodities), 4 factors of production and private institutions which combine 5 household categories and the enterprise accounts. The private institutions, activities and factor accounts form the endogenous account while the exogenous account will combine the government account, saving and investment as well as the rest of the world (Pyatt & Round, 2006). This SAM framework can be quite effective in capturing the linkages between these different production accounts and institutions in the economy and as such have been widely employed to explore the impact of different exogenous shocks in the economy (Civardi *et al.*, 2006; Pansini, 2008).

Therefore, the economic model adopted for this study is as shown below:

$$S_{11}S_1 + S_{12}S_2 = Z_1 \quad (1.1)$$

$$S_{21}S_1 + S_{22}S_2 = Z_2 \quad (1.2)$$

$$a_{11}Z_1 + a_{12}Z_2 + C_1E + JD_1 = S_1 \quad (1.3)$$

$$a_{12}Z_1 + a_{22}Z_2 + C_2E + JD_2 = S_2 \quad (1.4)$$

$$v_1Z_1 + v_2Z_2 = J \quad (1.5)$$

$$hJ = Y \quad (1.6)$$

Following the methodology by Pyatt (2001) the system of equations (Equations 1.1–1.6) can be converted into a matrix. The resultant matrix is as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & s_{11} & s_{12} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_{21} & s_{22} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & c_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 & c_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & h & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ Z_2 \\ S_1 \\ S_2 \\ J \\ Y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ D_1 \\ D_2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ Z_2 \\ S_1 \\ S_2 \\ J \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix shows that gross output from the economy can be represented by the product of technical coefficient matrix and output from different sectors of the economy. On the other hand, the level of activity in the economy in real terms is determined by the vector of intermediate demand and the total final demand for inputs.

The SAM multiplier enables the quantification of the different ways in which the impact of the exogenous is distributed across the economy. This multiplier analysis also indicates the effects of an exogenous shock on the distribution of income and sectoral output (Round, 2003). However, to examine the nature of the linkages in the economic system, it is imperative to decompose the SAM multipliers. For a detailed analysis of the intersectoral linkages due to land redistribution in South Africa, the study adopted SAM multiplier decomposition as proposed by Pyatt and Round (2006).

This multiplier decomposition allows the assessment of the linkages between households and different components of the economic system affecting the distribution of income (Civardi *et al.*, 2008). The total multiplier can be decomposed into three components which are the transfer multiplier, the open-loop multiplier and the closed loop multiplier. The transfer multiplier captures the effects on the same set of account, the open-loop multiplier identifies the spill-over effects and the closed loop captures the full circular flow from the exogenous shock into the endogenous accounts. Thus, using the multiplicative decomposition proposed by Pyatt and Round (2006), the total multiplier from Equation 3.9 can be rewritten as:

$$(I - A)^{-1} = M_3 M_2 M_1 \tag{2.2}$$

where $(I - A)^{-1}$ represents the total multiplier and M_1 is the transfer multiplier, M_2 is the spill-over effects and M_3 represents the full circular flow.

To derive the multiplier matrix, we first divide elements in each column of define the T matrix by

its column total (y) to get average propensities (Round, 2003). The matrix of average propensities which is obtained by dividing each element in the transaction matrix of endogenous account by the corresponding column sum vectors can be represented as:

$$A_n = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

and the diagonal matrices of the average propensities can be represented as:

$$A_0 = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

The multiplier that will capture the transfer elements M_1 will be given by:

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} {}_1M_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & {}_1M_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

and the open loop multiplier will be given:

$$\begin{aligned} M_2 &= I + (I - A_0)^{-1}(A_n - A_0) + \\ &\quad \left[(I - A_0)^{-1}(I_n - A_0) \right]^2 + \left[(A_n - A_0)(I - A_0)^{-1} \right]^3 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} I & {}_2M_{12} & {}_2M_{13} \\ {}_2M_{21} & I & {}_2M_{23} \\ {}_2M_{31} & {}_2M_{32} & I \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The closed loop multiplier which captures the full circular flow from exogenous shock to endogenous account will be represented by:

$$M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} {}_3M_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & {}_2M_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & {}_3M_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

If we let $A^* = (I - A_0)^{-1}(A_n - A_0)$, then the multiplier will be given as $M = (I - A^{*3})^{-1}(I + A^* + A^{*2} + A^{*3})(I - A_0)^{-1}$. As in Pansini (2008), the focus of multiplier decomposition is on household income distribution. From Table 2, the equation is given by:

$$Y_4 = (M_{33} M_{32} M_{31})x \tag{2.3}$$

$$Y_4 = M_{31} x_1 M_{32} x_2 M_{33} x_3 \tag{2.4}$$

where

$$M_{31} = {}_3M_{32} M_{31} M_{11}$$

$$M_{32} = {}_3M_{33} M_{23}$$

$$M_{33} = {}_3M_{33} M_{13}$$

To disentangle the three effects namely the transfer multiplier, open loop and closed loop, we consider the single element m_{ij} of matrix of the global multipliers. The single element m_{ij} can be expressed as:

$$m_{ij} = d_i' M_3 M_2 M_1 d_j = i' (r' A s') i \quad (2.5)$$

where d_i' and d_j are vectors in the i th element and j th element which are equal to one and all others are equal to zero (Pyatt & Round, 2006; Pansini, 2008; Civardi & Targetti, 2008). The matrix A and vectors r' and s' are defined as:

$$r' = d_i M_3 \quad A = M_2 \quad s' = M_1 d_j$$

This implies that each m_{ij} must be equal to the sum of all elements of an $r'As'$ type transformation of the matrix M_2 when the vector r' is formed from the i th row of M_3 and the vector s is formed from the j th column of M_1 (Pyatt & Round, 2006). This approach of multiplier approach allows the decomposition of direct-direct effect, indirect-direct effect, direct-indirect effect effects and indirect-indirect effects (Pansini, 2008). In this study, i represent the poor rural household in South Africa and j is the agriculture sector, it follows that the element m_{ij} becomes a sub-matrix M_{HA} of M and the element m_{ij} is given by $m_{ij} = (d_i' M_{HH})_2 M_{HA} (M_{AA} d_j)$.

This approach enables the assessment and identification of microeconomic detail about the nature of the linkages in the economy. In order to capture and assess both the direct and indirect effects of land redistribution on different sectors of the economy which is the main focus of this study, the social accounting multiplier decomposition and structural path analysis were adopted as in Round (2008).

This decomposition shows clearly the way the consequences of an exogenous of in the j th activity on the i th household. Using the block matrices ${}_2M_{HA}$, ${}_2M_{HF}$ which represent the cross effects and explain how the original injection into the activities/factor accounts effects in the household account (Civardi *et al.*, 2008). An injection or a shock in an activity account of the production sector will be directly translated by the A part of the $r'As'$ transformation into the income for the endogenous institutions. The main focus of this decomposition is the block

matrix M_{HA} , where the column totals of this matrix indicate the effects of each sector of production on the household account of a shock on the agriculture sector where as the row totals indicate the total effect on each household group due to shock on the agricultural activity account. These column and row totals enable the identification of the four different effect in the single multiplier m_{ij} .

Though the multiplier decomposition enables the distribution of the global effects on the endogenous accounts of the SAM into three microscopic effects, the analysis alone does not highlight the paths/channels through which these influence is transmitted and show which path is better than other in transmitting the influences. Based on multiplier decomposition results, the structural path analysis is adopted so as to identify the transmission mechanism of the interactions among different accounts in the SAM.

4. Simulation Technique

The main purpose of this study is to investigate whether redistribution of agricultural land from large commercial farmers to small scale farmers will promote land use social equity. Social equity in this context refers to job creation and income generation and redistribution in favour of the low-income households. As the SAM entries are in millions on rand and the proposed land redistribution are in physical quantities, the land transfers are first converted into land income (revenue shares). This conversion is essential as transfer of land from commercial farmers to small scale farmers means transfer of land income. The land revenue shares are then use to shock the social accounting matrix. This SAM multiplier approach enables the tracking of among demand-driven shocks, economic growth, income generation and distribution. Furthermore, a multiplier decomposition analysis was applied to show the distributional mechanism across the economy with the focus on the household component of the global multiplier matrix which are M_{31} , M_{32} and M_{33} . The multiplier decomposition shows the capacity of an activity to stimulate household income.

5. Multiplier Analysis and Results

The study seeks to analyse and assess the direct and indirect effects of land redistribution which represent a shock in the agriculture sector on poor

Table 1: Sam Household Multiplier

Sector	Total HH multiplier	Rich	Poor
Agriculture	1,107	0,59	0,78
Manufacturing	0,204	0,515	0,15
Mining	0,24	0,450	0,125
Service	0,228	0,670	0,116
Trade	0,353	0,671	0,153
Transport	0,253	0,634	0,162
Enterprise	0,78	0,723	0,464

Source: Authors' computation from South African SAM (2010)

Table 2: Intra and Inter-Household Transfer

	Poor household	Rich household	Total
Poor household	0,13	0,125	0,255
Rich household	0,158	0,146	0,304
Total	0,288	0,271	

Source: Authors' computation from South African SAM (2010)

Table 3: Summary of M_{31} , M_{32} , M_{33}

	M_{31}	M_{32}	M_{33}
Hhd1	0.026	0,133	0,022
Hhd2	0,053	0,25	0,046
Hhd3	0,084	0,303	0,074
Hhd4	0,151	0,38	0,132
Hhd5	0,595	0,70	0,552

Note: Hhd1 represents the poorest rural household, Hhd3 represent rich rural households, Hhd4 -represents poor urban households

Source: Author's computations from (2010)

household income in South Africa and for this study we assumed a progressive 30 percent land transfer from the large.

Household multipliers measure the total effect of a unit change in income of a particular household group on the incomes of all households in the economy. Agriculture exhibits the highest aggregate multiplier signifying the important role for consumption and livelihoods for rural households. The SAM multiplier established the importance of the agricultural sector hence increase in agricultural output generate the largest increases in household incomes. The multiplier for the poor household is greater than of the rich households (0,78 compared to 0,59) signifying the dependent of poor household on agriculture for their livelihoods. Thus the multiplier analysis supports the implementation of agricultural-based policies to alleviate rural poverty.

Table 2 shows how a shock in aggregate demand translates into higher income. For both the two groups of households (rich and poor), an injection into the income of a household group yields less than the initial increase in the income of the same household. However, the overall impact is higher for rich households compared to poor households which are evidenced by higher row totals. These higher row totals mean that income distribution in South Africa is skewed towards the rich households' groups.

M_{31} represents household income and it shows the income effect on household income as a result of a unit increase in agricultural aggregate demand due to land redistribution. The income of rural households increases by a multiplier of 0,163 in total for all the rural households and 0,746 for the urban households. The factor income (M_{32}) measures the impact on household incomes from an increase in

Table 4: Decomposition of the Global Multiplier Matrix

Column j	Row i	Household group	Direct-direct effect	Indirect-direct effect	Total effect for A1	Direct-indirect effect	Indirect-indirect effect	Total effect	Multiplier
Agric	hhd1	hhd1	0.0087	-0.00587	0.002827	0.00089	-0.00083	0.00006	0.0028874
Agric	hhd1	hhd2	0.0001	-0.00008	0.000022	0.00949	-0.00662	0.00287	0.0028874
Agric	hhd1	hhd3	0.0001	-0.0006	0.000023	0.00950	-0.00664	0.00286	0.0028874
Agric	hhd1	hhd4	-0.000	0.00007	0.000022	0.00964	-0.00677	0.00286	0.0028874
Agric	hhd1	hhd5	-0.001	0.00110	-0.000001	0.0107	-0.00781	0.00289	0.0028874

Note: hhd1 represents the poorest rural household decile, hhd3 represents the richest rural household decile, and hhd4 represents the poorest urban household decile, Agric represent the agriculture sector

Source: Authors' computation from South African SAM (2010)

aggregate demand to factor account. The rural household incomes increase by a multiplier of 0.686 due to the effect of land redistribution on factors of production. The redistribution of factor incomes among households represented by M_{33} shows the effects on household income from an increase in aggregate demand into income of household groups. All the diagonal elements are less than one, meaning that an injection into the income of household group result in an increase of less than one of income of the same household group due to the multiplicative effects of income circulation in an economic system.

The results showed the different effects which are the direct-direct, indirect-direct, direct-indirect and indirect-indirect as explained in the methodology. The corresponding element of the global multiplier for a unit injection in the agriculture on poor rural households (hhd1) is 0.0028874 which is further decomposed in Table 4 above. The results show that the poor household benefits more compared to other household groups due to an exogenous shock; this is because the direct effect of an exogenous injection or shock in the agriculture sector to the poor household income represents about 98% of the total effect on the household. The direct effect of agriculture on the poor household is higher (0.0087) compared to other different categories of households indicating a strong link between agriculture and the rural poor (Thorbecke, 2000). Like in other studies, (Civardi & Targetti, 2008; Pansini, 2008), direct effects on households have been found to be higher than the indirect effect. However, the indirect-direct effect, which captures the effects from other sector on poor household welfare, is the minimum for the poor household compared to other groups. This implies that the poor households do not benefit much from the other sectors

Concerning the rich households, who are mostly urban households, the direct effect of agriculture is almost zero; it implies that these households benefit from agriculture mainly through the indirect channel (which is about 98% of the total effects). In the case of South Africa where according to Economic Research Division, SA (2010), agriculture contributes less than 4% of the total GDP we expected a minimal direct effect on rich household income from an exogenous shock in the agriculture sector. The shock in the agriculture sector generates intermediates demand for agriculture products, which in turn generates income for the rich households.

The decomposition has shown that an injection into the agricultural sector in South Africa will have different results for different households' groups. The results show that poor households received higher direct effects of agriculture when compared to richer households; however, the indirect effects are much higher for the richer households. This indicates a strong link between poor households and agriculture, but this link is weak for the richer households. The results might be attributed to the fact that poor households depend more on agriculture for livelihoods when compared to richer households (Pansini, 2008). These results imply that the stimulus to the agricultural sector will benefit the poor households when compared to the richer, which might be a good policy for rural poverty reduction.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study adopted a SAM multiplier decomposition and structural path analysis to analyse and track the channels through which an exogenous shock in agriculture will affect the income poor households. This approach enables the disentangling different effects that is, both direct and indirect effects of

an exogenous shock on the agricultural sector in South Africa. From the study different set of results emerged which have different policy implications for the government.

The results show that although the contribution of the agriculture sector to the overall economy which is only 4% of the GDP in South Africa, the sector influence household income through different paths and sectors. This can be explained by the existence of strong backwards and forwards linkages in the economy. Thus, the proposed land redistribution will significantly alter the production structure of the agriculture sector which means that the income of the households will be altered.

In addition, the results also show that land income transfer increases the income of poor households and these results also identified the different path through which income is distributed from the origin (agriculture sector) to the destination poor household income. These results can be very important in articulation of the impact of land redistribution policy of poverty and income distribution; however, more emphasis can be achieved through the relaxation of the assumption of linearity and fixed prices. This will allow for the analysis of long run and redistributive effects of land redistribution policy in South Africa. This analysis then requires the application of a dynamic computable general equilibrium micro simulation model.

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Applying the P5 Standard for Sustainability: Enriching Project Leadership

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Abstract: Modern-day project management seeks to balance the time-cost-scope triple constraint forces associated with project execution, whilst accommodating risk and optimising the value and benefits, that the milieu brings to a project's doorstep. It is here where the P5 Standard may become a handy tool for a project leader to pursue sustainability. The P5 Standard focuses on the impact of processes and impacts that projects may have on the natural environment, society, the corporate bottom line and local economy; all in the interest of *people, planet, prosperity, process and products*. This Standard seeks to align to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development by integrating all aspects relating to a project with the 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs). In this paper, the P5 Impact Analysis is described and examples from a practitioner's point of view are cited for clarification. The point is made that the P5 may be a handy tool with which to enrich project leadership. It should be considered that currently, the P5 is the product of much empirical endeavour and as such academic and strong theory is limited. This article therefore delves into sources that emanate from practice and it is hoped that the P5 may find its way into the scholarly discourse. The narrative also forms part of an extended research endeavour along the shorelines of project management sustainability leadership.

Keywords: Environmental bottom line, Leadership, Risk management, P5 Standard, Sustainability

1. Introduction

Project management doesn't require introduction and neither does leadership within projects demand any motivation. However, a disproportionate emphasis on the triple constraints of time, scope and cost in development projects has become inimical, whilst a more multifarious and accountable approach towards the natural environment and social equity is vital (Van Rooyen, 2016). The world cannot afford a continuation of old-style environmentally and socially unkind projects management; an approach which reflects a propensity for exploitation, degradation and bottom line-driven considerations (Fox & Van Rooyen eds., 2004). The risks associated with unsustainable project management need to be managed and fortunately recent project management technology allows for a methodology termed the *P5 Standard for Sustainability*, which envisages a world retreating from the precipice of a disaster. In this paper, this methodology is presented concisely. The intent is creating an awareness for sustainability. Therefore, a brief description will be forwarded to address the following: clarification of relevant concepts and terms; leadership and African development; the relationship between PRISM and the P5 tool; the P5 analysis; and the sustainability management plan. It is hoped that African scholars,

public sector officials and project officials in general will become aware of this technology and be enticed to consciously seek opportunities to apply P5 in project management endeavours on the Continent. The research conducted for this paper draws from extensive experience gained from *practical* project execution as well as from a literature survey and scrutiny of recent technologies relating to sustainable project execution practice. This research paper forms the *first* part of an extended research endeavour that is intent on identifying appropriate technologies which may assist to enhance project sustainability and enrich project leadership by presenting a practitioner's perspective of the P5 Standard and associated aspects and concepts.

2. Relevant Concepts and Terms

The following section annotates key concepts (as identified in the Abstract), which require adequate understanding in order to comprehend the P5 Standard and its application to projects. In the introduction, mention was made that the intent with this paper is to advance the 5Ps in projects management and to create and enhance an awareness of sustainability; consequently, the particular nuances enshrined in the above introductory notes warrant clarification:

Firstly, sustainable project (management) execution may be defined as:

"...the planning, monitoring and controlling of project delivery and support processes, with consideration of the environmental, economical and social aspects of the life-cycle of the project's resources, processes, deliverables and effects, aimed at realizing benefits for stakeholders, and performed in a transparent, fair and ethical way that includes proactive stakeholder participation." (What is sustainable project management? [s.a.]).

Secondly, project management for sustainability, by extension observes the principle sentiment enshrined in the aforementioned definition, yet with the additional caveat that all decisions, processes and procedures associated with the project, should actively pursue *sustainability* as a result. Therefore, seen from this perspective the two are merely (important) sides of the same coin. In addition, to emphasise the concern for *sustainability* in project management, the PMI (Project Management Institute) declares as follows:

"Since the adoption of ISO 14001, which exists to help organization minimize how their operations impact the environment and comply with applicable laws, the subject of sustainability though project management had remained nebulous at best had been a lack of continuity among organizations who desire to use project management as a mechanism to impart change." (What is sustainability? [s.a.]). Therefore, in pursuit of more clarity regarding this concept from the commentary delivered above, key elements of sustainability in projects management may be identified (Dyllick & Hockerts as quoted in Silvius, Van der Brink & Kohler, 2012):

- Sustainability integrates economic, environmental and social aspects of a project;
- Sustainability integrates short-term and long-term aspects associated with the execution of a complete project; and
- Sustainability in project management should involve taking into account the full life-cycle of a particular project.

The above cursory points serve to clarify the reason why these issues are of significance and portray

the issue under research in this paper. It should be accentuated that all projects carry risks. Irrespective of the different project management approaches that are followed, the element of risk assessment and risk mitigation are intermittent throughout the project process. According to the PMBOK (Project Management Body of Knowledge) (Project Management Institute) risk management forms the backbone of successful project management practice. Every project should have a risk management plan, which informs all the other plans and make-up of the project charter (Sustainable project management, [s.a.]). In fact, risk management forms part of the so-called PMBOK-knowledge areas (Project Management Body of Knowledge), which capture the essence of information that project managers and their associates should have in order to execute a project to closure. Project risk management directs a process concerned with identifying, analysing and responding to all forms of risk (including non-sustainable activities and impacts as a result of project execution or project legacy) (PMBOK Guide, 2017).

Thirdly, leadership is a term often used to describe the modalities associated with "guiding people to achieve common goals in a wide variety of settings" (Portny, 2007:254). In a project context, leaders and managers contribute to ensure that the triple bottom line – the project management triumvirate – (inclusive of the elements of the iron triangle – Figure 1 *Infra*) are achieved (Van Rooyen, 2016: 226) and (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:7). Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2013: 310) introduce leadership as a process where leaders direct staff behaviour towards reaching an organisation's mission and goals. In other words, leaders focus on translating a vision into a reality by encouraging project team members and associates to perform towards goals and objectives attainment. It is within this milieu that leaders and leadership are important; the P5 principles require leadership among project decision makers - who ideally should be conversant with the P5 Standard - to seek avenues to enhance sustainability of projects in the execution of project management design, project-related practices and impact mitigation processes (Sustainable project management [s.a.]) and (The GPM P5 Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, [s.a.]).

The above definitions are not necessarily different or unique to other definitions of leadership but are

Table 1: The Project Management Process

1. Project Initiation - Phase 1 - During initiation, a stakeholder brief and is done, the and the project is defined.
2. Project Planning - Phase 2 - A "baseline plan" is created. Project stakeholders will evaluate and comment.
3. Project Execution - The performance of the project team should be extensively measured during this part of the process.
4. Project Monitoring and Controlling – Ensuring that resources are well-attributed
5. Project Closure - All contracts to be concluded, all accounts need to be balanced, and the final reports and documentation need to be generated (all data and information need to be documented and recorded and properly archived in appropriate repositories). This phase will allow for future evaluation and reflection of the project modalities.

Source: Adapted from Project Management Processes, (s.a.)

specifically chosen to underscore that leaders need to exhibit leadership in such a way that practices are well-aligned to organisational mission statements, goals, objectives and strategies. Ehlers and Lazenby (2010) remark that leaders are recognised as the "drivers of strategy implementation". Therefore, from a sustainability point of view in particular, leadership is required to infuse those social and natural-environmental concerns and values, which may be enshrined into organisations' missions, goals and strategies, into any projects that may ensue under its control. Portny (2007:256) elucidates on the requirement for leadership by stating that project planning is a leadership issue because it is the act to "...explore the *why* of the project (a leadership issue) to help elicit people's buy-in and commitment...". Portny (2007:256) continues to differentiate that issues that are the remit of managers are "...the *what, when, and how* (management issues) to develop a feasible approach for successfully achieving the project's goals". Naturally, it may be opportune, if not ideal, that those responsible for management are also engaged in relative leadership positions with the requisite leadership acumen.

Fourthly, the P5 Standard should be explained:

"The GPM P5 Standard is a tool that supports the alignment of Portfolios, Programs and Projects with organizational strategy for Sustainability and focuses on the Impacts of Project Processes and Deliverables on the Environment, Society, the corporate bottom line and the local economy" and "The simplest way to explain P5 is that it is made of bonds between the triple bottom line approach, project processes and the resulting products or services. P5 expands on the triple bottom line theory to allow for optimal project management integration..."

(The GPM P5 Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, [s.a.]). The concepts of *triple bottom line* and *triple constraints* may be defined respectively, as: "...a method of assessing the performance of a business by taking account of social and environmental factors as well as its financial results" (Collins Dictionary) (Triple bottom line [s.a.]) and "The triple constraint theory in project management says every project operates within the boundaries of scope, time, and cost. A change in one factor will invariably affect the other two" (The GPM P5 Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, [s.a.]) and (Triple Constraint Project Management, [s.a.]). The triple constraint may also be referred to as the project management triangle. (Triple Constraint Project Management [s.a.]). By way of example, if new features are added to the project's scope, consequently more time and money should be budgeted to achieve the project objectives and overall goals. Concurrently, if a project's budget is impeded, an inverse adaption of the project's scope should be re-considered.

Fifthly, the *Project Management Process* may be described as a five-phase continuum – also known as the *PMBOK Project Management Process Group* (Horine, 2009:10), consisting of:

Lastly, the concept of *environmental bottom line* is of interest as well, when project management sustainability and sustainability leadership in project management are considered: "Environmental bottom line means managing, monitoring, and reporting your consumption of resources, including waste, and also any impacts from business practices including emissions, pollution and toxic waste." In other words, control should be exercised over the environmental bottom line to ensure that

sustainability is achieved in terms of environmental conservation and preservation – with limited physical impact and the necessary mitigation. Therefore, the objective is to lessen the impact a project/development endeavour has on the environment (Environmental bottom line, [s.a.]). The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (an initiative that assists businesses and governments worldwide to measure and communicate their impact on critical sustainability issues) (www.globalreporting.org) has developed guidelines to enable organisations and development agents to report and their conduct. (Environmental bottom line, [s.a.]).

3. Leadership and Development

The cultivation of leaders with exceptional character and skills is critical to development. According to Patric Awuah Jr., the founder of Ashesi University in a seminal article published in a World Economic Forum publication in 2016 (5 things Africa's future leaders should know [s.a.]), a new generation of leaders should lead by embracing new and appropriate skills, especially those of a technical nature. This implies that technology and the associated project management capacities and leadership aptitudes are crucial. Such leaders are urgently required in all sectors on the development landscape. Future leaders should develop a strong mix of skills that should capacitate them to create change. Yet, change starts with an ability to analyse problems; Leaders who can combine their concern for the greater good with excellent, in-depth analysis which may enhance understanding of how to manage and how to deploy new technology, are required. These leaders should also be able to grasp strategic imperatives and influence project modalities accordingly. The above should also be noted from the perspective of creating "authentic African leadership" where the true *Ubuntu*-concept is revisited. Here, notions like servant leadership is likened, where respect and cooperation harmony are heralded as possible catalysts for greater levels of sustainability in project management practice.

Horine (2013:233), an experienced project manager practitioner and acclaimed scholar, maintains that in a project environment, stakeholders (who may be individuals, organisations, communities or society), should be led through servant leadership practices that follow the above mentioned problem solving attitudes and aptitudes, typified by an emphasis on integrity and ethics.

The Global Goals for Sustainable Development as illustrated in Figure 2 (*Infra*), identifies 17 goals that are to be pursued to achieve reasonable sustainability in future development. All of these goals require sustainability-sensitive project management leadership to ensure that proper direction is provided to managers and other project executors. Yet, the quest of developing leadership ability in developing countries inclusive of the quest for sustainable projects management to ensure ultimate sustainability remains difficult: the reason transpires when the difference between project management according to traditional management approaches and the ideal of attaining sustainable development are compared (Sustainability project management [s.a.]). Tables indicating the apparent dichotomy between sustainability and projects are presented – refer to the Table 2 and Table 3 on the following page (Silvius, Van der Brink & Kohler, 2010).

If Table 2 is examined, and the aforementioned approach to *leadership* and *leading* are considered, it may be postulated that a new generation of leaders should establish a leadership culture which may be a mix or crafty fusion of European, Asian, American and African leadership (influences from across the world) and leading practice, in projects execution activities, is warranted (Pretorius, 2005). The essential qualities of successful leaders throughout the world may enable a successful bridging of the gap between sustainable development requirements and project management characteristics, as described in Table 2 *Supra* and as elucidated upon in Table 3 *Infra*.

Sustainability in project management is a way to cross the triple bottom line of business with the golden triangle of projects management practice. It is in this 'cavity' in which sustainability leadership finds its niche. Responsible global citizenship requires a renewed approach towards poverty, population growth, pollution, domestic abuse incidence, moral and ethical erosion, access to education, limited access to primary health and preventative health modalities and in general equitable and reasonable access to resources (again the elements depicted in Figure 1 reminds of the complexity associated with a modern-day 'responsible' approach to projects management). The aforementioned are exacerbated by the constant rising costs of energy (fossil-type and electricity in general) and aspects, which are less-often emphasised being an aging population and governments not positioned to generating sufficient

Table 2: Sustainability Requirements and Project Management Characteristics

Sustainable Development	Project Management
Long term orientation	Short term focus
Considers the interests of the current generation as well as future generations	Considers the interests of sponsors and stakeholders – immediate focus
Elongated life-cycle orientated	Immediate and current Deliverables/results orientated
Seeks to balance the interests of people, planet, profit	Seeks to satisfy scope, time, budget
Increasing complexity because of the variables	Reduced complexity – focused and narrow

Source: Adapted from Silvius, Van der Brink and Kohler (2010)

Table 3: Sustainable vs Traditional Project Approach

Sustainable Project Approach	Traditional Project Approach
Consensus approach	Top down decision-making approach
Leaps of faith - climate change	Fact-based
Systemic approach - considering the ecosystem	Linear & mathematical analysis without a sustainability bias
Social, environmental science as base	Engineering & Science base
Business and social science judgement	Engineering - clinical - judgement
Business case (benefit) justification	Risk-based justification
Design as a journey - with possible errors	Design as a deliverable - pursuing a zero defects goal
Triple bottom line considerations	Net present value orientation
Customer ownership orientation	Possibly outsourced/contracted to external service providers
Long term	Short term

Source: Adapted from Silvius, van der Brink & Kohler (2010)

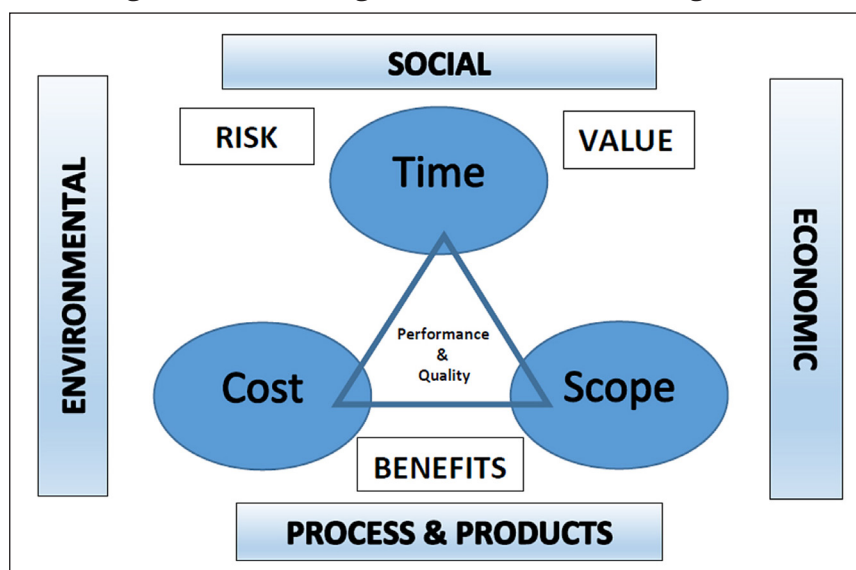
tax revenue for social support and general essential services (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:6). The question arises as to how project management practice should be revisited to ensure accountability for the sake of sustainability and environmental preservation and conservation? This question becomes even more vexed if estimates of the increase of projects management approach to business conduct, away from operations management (a rise from 30% of global GDP in 2014 to a projected 40% by 2010), is taken into account (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016: 7). Whilst risks, values and benefits already form a central thrust in project management decision making, again a similar question arises: Is this enough to ensure greater sustainability in projects management?

According to GPM, the answer may partly be found in professionalising project management. This theory dictates that a professional project manager should by default and continuously seek to harmonise the social, environmental and economic considerations, which may be external to the project

but nevertheless find association with process and products considerations, to support the triple constraints of time, cost and scope (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:7; The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:7-8).

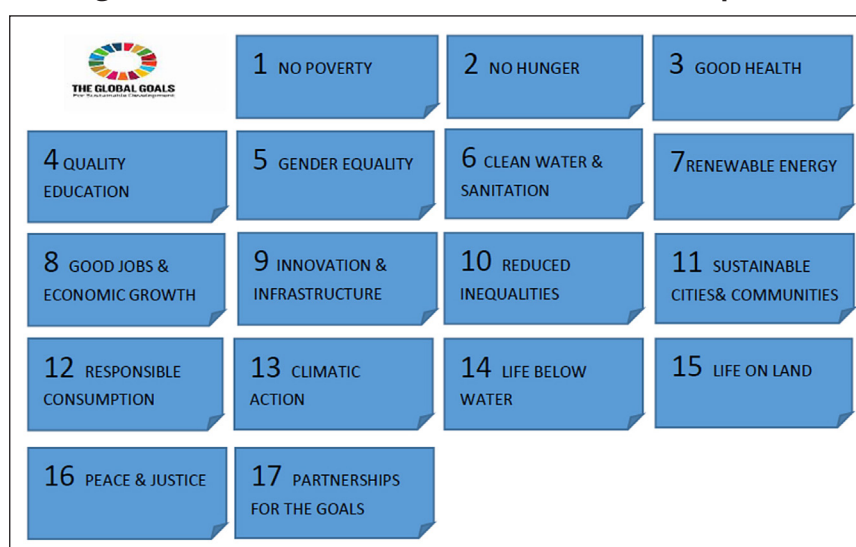
Therefore, expressed in another way the above considerations can be addressed by applying the P5 Standard to take into account *people, planet, prosperity, processes* and *products*. These five considerations are applied to the potential impact on the 17 'Global Goals for Sustainable Development' (as illustrated in Figure 2). Naturally, the P5 don't equally impact on all of the 17 Goals all the time, but is dependent on the type of project under scrutiny. In order to quantify or measure the extent of sustainability potentially engrained in a project, this exercise is executed during the beginning of a project. The objective is to earmark and prioritise sustainability risks and opportunities to enhance the project's value and the impact on the environment, society and economy, for the purposes of aligning it to an organisation's strategy.

Figure 1: Iron Triangle with P5 Standard Integrated



Source: Adapted from the GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management (2016:7)

Figure 2: The Global Goals for Sustainable Development



Source: Adapted from the GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management (2016:9)

4. PRiSM and the P5 Tool

The P5 tool is performed when a project commences (launched). This may be conducted in alignment with PRiSM methodology. PRiSM refers to *Projects integrating Sustainable Methods*. It is a project management method with the ultimate goal of achieving or promising sustainable development. PRiSM methodology uses the P5 standard for sustainable development in project management. Organisations therefore manage their projects while integrating environmental sustainability into all facets their processes, thereby reducing any potential or perceived detrimental natural-environmental and social

impact (Project management, [s.a.]). Practically, the P5 Impact Analysis assists project leaders and their associates to define and prioritise risk, that may curtail sustainability and to identify opportunities from a 360* standpoint (encapsulating to all sectors, aspects and strata of the project) to improve the project's value, the impact on its environmental, the effected and affected society/community, the economy and importantly, the organisation's strategy (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:32). It should be noted that PRiSM extends beyond the traditional lifecycle of a project with a 5-step approach that integrates pre-project planning, adoption and integration of

Table 4: Sustainability Management Plan P5 Matrix

P5 Category	P5 Sub-Category	Issue	Jurisdiction	Rating	Statutory Requirement	Action
Social	Project Health & Safety	Hazardous materials	Staff not provided safety outfits/ gear	+3	Health & Safety Regulation	Issue Gear

Source: Author

Table 5: Sustainability Management Plan P5 Mitigation Matrix

P5 Category	P5 Sub -Category	Issue	Previous Rating	New Rating	Justification	Comments
Social	Project Health & Safety	Hazardous materials	-1	+3	Safety Code issues resolved	Follow-up on application/use of gear on a weekly basis

Source: Author

the service or product and realization of the benefits product or service (Project management, [s.a.]). Therefore, the result of the analysis serves the purpose of providing decision makers in different functional domains actionable information to influence project scope to involve social and environmentally responsible actions (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:32); P5 is the link between sustainable development and projects. It enables an improved understanding of the impact of projects in a greater whole, and thus may assist to contribute positively to the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (*Supra*).

5. Performing the P5 Analysis

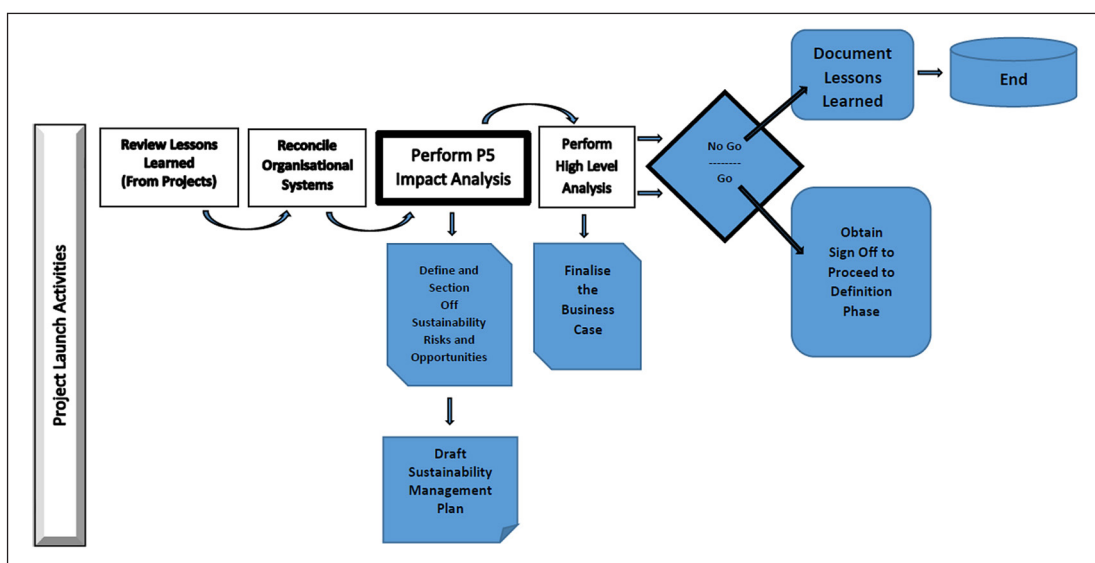
This section will provide a synoptic explanation of the mechanics of the P5 impact analysis process. It should be noted that project leaders and their associates need to thoroughly understand the business case to apply the process. Attendant hereto, a thorough grasp of the details of the project charter, relevant project requirements and importantly, the organisational goals and strategies is imperative. The narrative of all documentation relating to the GPM P5™ emphasises that "While the business case and project charter are the responsibility of the project owner to produce, process steps to gather, document and gain agreement on requirements based on the understanding of the document's organisational strategy are responsibility of the project manager..." (The GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management, 2016:32). An important activity when performing a P5 impact analysis is to develop a risk register. Depending on the preferred project management methodology, the design (layout) of the risk register may differ but

essentially it should contain essential information relating to different forms of risk associated with the project. As an example of a project risk ledger may be presented by referring to the PMBOK project management knowledge areas management process, which as part of its requirement should contain a Risk Management Plan, which identifies, analyses and proposes solutions or mitigations for perceived and potential project risk (Van Rooyen, 2016:230). Burke (2013) defines a risk management plan as an outline of how to complete the project within an *acceptable* level of risk – as outlined in an organisation's value statement. Therefore, it may be inferred that if an organisation entrenches a quest for sustainability as a value, a risk management plan should be in harmony therewith.

6. The Sustainability Management Plan

This crucial document transforms sustainability and related objectives into the essential project objectives which are needed to execute the project and against which project reporting should be done. According to this method the sustainability management plan is categorised in accordance with the P5 practices of people, planet, prosperity, processes and products. It continues to indicate the reason(s) for the inclusion, a relative scoring – in accordance with an appropriate table e.g. neutral (0) or high (+ or -3), medium (+ or -2) or low (+ or -1). Note that the lowest value is equal to the lowest impact e.g. -3 (+3 is the best possible score). Ultimately, a matrix is drawn that indicates the risk credentials, where after another matrix is drawn, which indicates the proposed mitigation modalities. These matrixes may for example appear in Tables 4 and 5.

Figure 3: The GPM PRiSM Method Launch Phase



Source: Adapted from the GPM P5™ Standard for Sustainability in Project Management (2016:32)

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

In the preceding discussion the P5 Standard was presented as a tool with which sustainability may be furthered in projects management. Logically, the P5 Standard methodology requires proper in-depth scrutiny to ensure applicability in different settings in organisational and project management contexts. Concomitant thereto, proper training should be afforded to current leaders and managers, as well as burgeoning leaders and prospective managers, to ensure that they comprehend and effectively apply this technology. Therefore, it is anticipated that this initial incursion into the P5 arena will incite interest among scholars, practitioners and other interested parties and that this tool may contribute to the quest for sustainable development.

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The Impact of Migration on Providing Adequate Housing in South Africa

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Abstract: The paper aims to argue that South Africa needs to tighten its border control in order to curb uncontrolled immigration to afford service delivery of its own people. Migration dominates South Africa's history in many ways. The diversity of the country's languages, cultures and religions is the testimony of its migration history. The influx of migrants into the country puts a huge burden on the Department of Human Settlements to provide adequate housing for the citizens who are unable to provide housing for themselves. Currently, residents of foreign countries are being attacked due to lack of service delivery particularly in housing arena. In 2018, the Department of Human Settlements had a housing backlog of estimated 2.1 million houses. The informal settlements are mushrooming with shacks belonging to non-South Africans. Shack dwellers often burn houses adjacent to them during protests. Such acts put more budgetary burden to the Department of Human Settlements. However, creating sustainable human settlements and improving the quality of life for the citizens is the main focus of Outcome 8 of the National Development Plan (hereafter referred to as NDP) vision. The democratic government of South Africa is mandated by section 26 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 to provide access to adequate housing for citizens. This is a conceptual paper and it argues that migration hampers housing service delivery. It is recommended that the democratic government tighten borders or develop migration control measures in order to alleviate the escalating housing demand on the democratic government.

Keywords: Adequate housing, Democracy, Human settlements, Migration, Migrant labour

1. Introduction

Access to an adequate house is a basic right for every South African citizen as provided by section 26(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Adequate houses have been demanded since the down of democracy in 1994 and whenever citizens protest against service delivery, the outcry for the provision of adequate houses dominates (Davis, 2019:1). This outcry for the provision of adequate housing results from the failure of the Department of Human Settlements to execute its Constitutional housing mandate. Some causes of the failure are migration, influx of illegal migrants, selling of public houses to illegal migrants, the apartheid hostel system, weaker border controls and the migrant labour workers system. Currently, residents of foreign countries are being attacked due to lack of service delivery and adequate housing has no exception. For example, in Alexandra township where foreign nationals are accused of occupying public houses widely known as RDP houses illegal and are evicted (illegally) and some even killed (Clark, 2019:1). It should be noted that migrants in this paper include South African citizens who migrate from their original places in search

for jobs more special in urban areas, permanent residents who migrate from their legal provided places to other places within the country, legal and illegal migrants.

2. Definition and Types of Migration

Migration is the movement of people from one place to another with the intention of coming back to their original places (Skeldon, 2017:7). There are different types of migrations. Some of these types are step (when one moves from a small settlement to a larger one in urban areas), chain (if one moves at different stages from one location to the next and subsequently bring people from their home places to his/her new place), voluntary (if a person on the basis of his/her free will moves to a better place in order to improve his/her living conditions), internal/ urban-rural (when people live their original places and live in another place within the country), circular (when one has original place, visits other places but return to the original place), seasonal (this type of migration is commonly practised in the agricultural sector where people go and seek employment during harvest seasons in most instances and return back to their original places

when the harvest seasons end) and involuntary/forced/imposed/reluctant (when a person is put in a situation that encourages relocation outside his/her birth or original place or forced out of the country) (World Economic Forum, 2017:14).

3. Causes of Migration

People migrate for different reasons. Some of the causes of migration include push factors (e.g. rural poverty, lack of employment opportunities), pull factors (e.g. job opportunities, better incomes), economic factors (e.g. higher wages, prospects for wealth creation), socio-political factors (e.g. warfare, threats of conflict) (World Economic Forum, 2017:17). These factors are not discussed in this paper due to the fact that many scholars from different disciplines had published articles, conference papers and books. However, according to Dubey & Mallah (2015:230-231), many of the social, economic and political factors also lead to migration. These authors are of the view that political instability, red-tapeism, poverty, economic depression, political chaos, rising crime, crises and conflicts, corruption, family reasons, economic depression, low educational standards and inadequate infrastructure are some of the factors which create insecurity amongst the population that makes them leave their places of origin and migrate to better places. These movements produce migration effects such as brain drain, talent shortage, financial resources and cross flow of knowledge and information. Böhme & Kups (2017:21-22) regard these effects as human capital ones but have impact on public services, and housing as a public resource has no exception.

4. Interpretation of Section 26 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, in Relation to the Case of the Government of the Republic of South Africa and Others vs Irene Grootboom and Others, Case CCT 11/00

Section 26(1) of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, states that everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing. The democratic government should provide adequate housing to the poor citizens including the urban poor (Strauss, 2017:246). This is because section 26(2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 states that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources

to achieve the progressive realisation of the right provided by section 26(1). The Constitutional Court (hereafter referred to as CC) asserted this in 2000. In the case of the Government of the Republic of South Africa and Others vs Irene Grootboom and Others which was decided on 4 October 2000, one of the judgments passed by the CC was that the state is constitutional obliged to provide adequate housing and the CC recognizes that housing entails more than bricks and mortar but requires availability of land and appropriate services such water, finances, removal of sewage among other services according to section 26(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. In addition, the state must create the conditions for access to adequate housing for people at all economic levels. Furthermore, for the state to realize section 26(2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, the three government spheres, must determine coordinated state housing programmes as required by Chapter 3 of this constitution. According to CC, national sphere of government must assume responsibility for ensuring laws, policies, programmes and strategies that are adequate to meet the state's section 26 obligations. In this context, the national sphere is represented by the Department of Human Settlements. It should be noted that the CC is the highest court in South Africa and its decisions are final.

As stated previously, one of the demands of service delivery protesters and demonstrators is adequate housing. In some of the service delivery protests and demonstrations, majority of the protesters are non-South Africans who also demand adequate houses from the democratic government. Does the word "everyone" in this section includes even illegal migrants and immigrants? Is the Constitution for everyone in the country or it is for bonafide citizens of the country? The vision of the African National Congress when it came into power in 1994 was to transform South Africa into non-racial and non-sexist democratic country in which all citizens live together. It should be noted that one of the founding principles of the Republic of South Africa is to make the country a non-racialism and non-sexism one as provided by section 1(b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. According to Chennells (2015:4-43), the Constitution gives many rights to 'everyone', but keeps certain rights for citizens only. If you are a citizen of South Africa you have the right to vote, stand as a candidate in elections, live in any area in South Africa,

be given a South African passport to travel to other countries, come into South Africa even if you have lived somewhere else for a long time, choose your trade, occupation or profession. In addition, this author states that democracy means that everyone has a say about how the country is run because in a democratic country, the government is put into power by its citizens, the adult citizens elect their government by choosing people to represent them in a parliament. A permanent resident is someone who does not have citizen status but provided legal rights to remain in a country indefinitely. In view of this, the CC in its ruling clearly stated that housing developments seek to provide citizens and permanent residents with access to permanent residential structures. Furthermore, section 3 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, provides for citizenship.

5. Housing Challenges Faced by the Department of Human Settlements

A house is more than a home because it has an address which indicates one's social position (Malpass & Murie, 1999:1). This is asserted by the Department of Human Settlements (2014:17) by defining a home as an asset that offers entry point to social, commercial and work opportunities so that people can regard themselves as full citizens. Housing protesters and demonstrators state that they have been in housing waiting lists for many years (Osman, 2017:1). According to Geszler (2017:53), the housing sector of South Africa is faced with many housing challenges. One of these challenges is to meet the ever growing housing demands for the poor. Although the government sets aside R3 billion for building houses each year, it needs partnership from non-government government (NGOs), community based organisations (CBOs), religious and private sectors. Osman (2017:1) suggests that: (a) a shift from ownership and more focus on rental options (b) support for housing developers (c) moving away from government's role as the sole housing funder to diverse funding streams (d) involvement of a range of stakeholders would allow cost and affordable housing to be on an integral part of all city developments in well located, mixed income, mixed function, mixed community settings.

The Department of Human Settlements planned to improve the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by 2020 (Department of Human Settlements, 2017:2)

but South Africa is estimated to receive 1.02 million people in 2020 as stated previously. The housing backlog is almost two (2) million units (Muller, 2017:1). Housing protesters and demonstrators state that they have been in housing waiting lists for many years (Osman, 2017:1). Houses provided to households must meet all their housing needs. Creation of range of housing types, prices and rents should be promoted by housing providers. People whose housing needs change must find housing that meets their needs within their existing communities. The government must weigh housing needs against available resources. The demographic trends in population, household numbers, age structures and income should be considered in housing needs (Bramely, Pawson, White & Watkins, 2010:29-31). Elements which are needed to support provision of adequate housing include: (a) strong employment base (b) sufficient land supply (c) public services (d) nearby amenities (e) property amenities (f) public financial support (g) efficient development process (h) regulatory framework. It is expected that by 2050, the world urban population will be doubled (United Nations, 2016:1) and South Africa has no exception due to high rate of migration. However, access to adequate housing is one of the global housing challenges (United Nations, 2015:2).

According to Gallagher & Leckie (2006:292), access to an adequate house is a right that applies to everyone who is a citizen of any country. These authors are of the view that an adequate house means adequate privacy, space, security, lighting and ventilation, basic infrastructure and location with regard to work and basic facilities which are all provided at a reasonable cost. This is asserted by United Nations High Commissions for Human Rights (2009:4); Cheserek & Opata (2011:320) by stating that the minimum standard of an adequate house includes: (a) security of tenure so that occupants have legal protection against forced evictions, harassment and other threats, (b) availability of services, materials, facilities and infrastructures so that occupants have safe drinking water, adequate sanitation and electricity in addition to other basic housing services, (c) affordability so that occupants are able to meet their other basic needs after their rental payments, if any, (d) habitability in the sense that the house provides adequate space as well as protection against cold, damp, wind, heat and rain, (e) ensuring the occupants' needs are met, (f) a location near to employment opportunities, health care services, schools, parks and other social needs and (g) cultural adequacy

in respect of cultural identity but this is particularly relevant in rural areas where the land belongs to the chiefs.

On 22 November 2017, the United Nations estimated that the population of South Africa was 56 717 156 and the urban population is 35, 633 585. It is also estimated that by 2030, the population of South Africa will be 64 465 553 and urban population will be 41,449,818 (Wordometers population, 2017:1). According to United Nations (2016:1), the world urban population is expected to double by 2050. South Africa has no exception due to high rate of migration. It is further estimated that 100 000 people move (migrate) to Johannesburg each year (Osman, 2017:1). This number might be triggered by the irregular migrants who enter the country in search for jobs. Irregular immigrants are those people who enter the country in search of income-generating activities without the necessary documents, or permits or stay beyond permitted period or acquire fraudulent documents (Department of Home Affairs, 2016:4). Majority of irregular migrants come from the neighbouring African countries and they put a huge strain on government expenditure more special for deportation and provision of public services including housing services (Department of Home Affairs 2017:29; Hiropoulos, 2017:1). In most instances, these irregular migrants built shacks in informal settlements. Some of them successfully acquire fraudulent documents (Department of Home Affairs, 2016:4). This catalyses the housing demand for the poor and financial burden to the Department of Human Settlements. It is alleged that immigrants with fraudulent papers buy public houses from corrupt ward councillors while majority of housing applicants are on waiting lists. These housing applicants are often on the waiting lists for several years and when they are finally approved for a house, they no longer qualify because they have either built their own houses, their income levels have changed or their approved houses were sold through corrupt processes (Ubisi, 2017:216). As stated in the abstract section, informal settlements dwellers commonly known as shack dwellers have a tendency of burning houses adjacent to their areas during housing service delivery protests and demonstrations. For example, the housing protesters from Emhlangeni informal settlement vented their anger by burning nearby houses. (Seleka, 2019:1). Houses in Globler Park, Witpoortjie and Lindhaven were also burnt during service delivery protests according to this author. Majority of immigrants and migrants live in informal

settlements and no one can account for every undocumented migrant (Makou, 2018:1). Statistics South Africa in its Mid-Year Population Estimates Report of 2018, states that South Africa is estimated to receive a net immigration of 1.02 million people between 2016 and 2021. In view of this, will all the objectives of outcome 8 of the NDP be achieved by 2030? During apartheid era, migrants were accommodated in hostels because they were recruited through the migrant labour system. The CC in the decision of the CCT 11/00 case stated that the acute housing shortage lies in the apartheid as a result of its influx control system. One of the migrant movement control mechanisms used by the apartheid government was the hostel system. This system catalysed the housing challenges currently faced by the Department of Human Settlements because migrants were temporarily accommodated in hostels. It should be noted that migrants were recruited through labour system.

6. The Hostel System as a Catalyst to Shortage of Adequate Housing

The hostel system was regarded as the cornerstone of apartheid economy (Josephy, 2014:444). Economic migration dominates the migration types because people migrate to other places in search for better paying jobs in order to improve their living conditions in urban areas in most instances. These migrants (economic ones) also need adequate houses wherever they are. Originally, hostels were known as compounds. According to Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell (2002:194), hostel dwellers are part of the migrant labour system who voluntarily came to urban areas to look for jobs. Nieftagoden in Deliurs, Phillips & Rankin-Smith (2014:225) is of the view that hostels were designed to minimise capital's labour costs, control and surveillance over black workers. The apartheid government adopted the migrant labour system from the British capitalists. The adopted migrant system was also used to establish Bantustans and used them (Bantustans) to prevent black urbanisation. However, it is important that the democratic government provides adequate housing to the poor citizens more specially the urban poor (Strauss, 2017:246). The migrant labour system was one hundred and fifty (150) years old in 2017 (Wilson 2017:7; Posel 2017:6). However, to migrate is associated with multiplicity of development and human rights issues. One of these issues is unemployment (Reitzes 1997:23). Münz and Reiterer (2007:126,134) attest to this by stating that humans are always spatially mobile

and most migrants are motivated by economic reasons. This is further affirmed by Statistics South Africa (2018:1) by stating that people migrate for a number of reasons which include economic, social, political, cultural and environmental. However, the Gauteng Province receives the highest number of immigrants due to better economic opportunities, jobs and the promise of a better life. This makes the province to be the most attractive destination. The migrant labour system laid a foundation of racial discrimination for the apartheid government which resulted in migrant labour workers being denied urban resources. One of such urban resources was a permanent residential space or accommodation (Ramphele, 1993:15). This is affirmed by Humby (2016:657) who states that the legacy of the migrant labour system is one of the key causes of the Marikana massacre in 2012. This author opines that mine companies provide migrants with living out allowance instead of dealing with the unresolved legacy of the migrant labour system such as overcrowding of mine hostel rooms. Overcrowding is one of the hostel problems experienced by public hostel dwellers. Other hostel problems include: (a) poor water and sanitation (b) filthiness (c) dilapidated walls in most rooms (d) leaking pipes and toilets (Sowetan Live, 2017:1).

The living out allowance adds pressure on wages because male migrants in most instances have secondary homes by renting rooms for girlfriends, second or third wives while they have primary homes in their rural areas as stated above. For example, thousands of Marikana mineworkers were originally from the Eastern Cape Province. Majority of them (Marikana mineworkers) were from Mpondoland. Historically, Mpondoland had been one of the labour-sending areas through The Employment Bureau of South Africa (TEBA); (Naicker, 2015:101). In the same vein, Hartford (2014:32) states that the strike committee that commenced the Marikana industrial action was composed of Amapondo, who were elected by the mineworkers. Against this background, the democratic government needs to seriously review the legacy of the migrant labour system. This should be done in order to fulfil the provision of section 26(1) of the Constitution of South Africa and the provision of the 1955 Freedom Charter. However, it should be noted that upgrading of informal settlements in mining towns remains a critical focus of the Department of Human Settlements according to Kota-Fredericks (2017:14).

7. Historical Background of Hostels and Migrant Labour System in South Africa

Hostels are the products of the compound labour system and they (hostels) were widely known as compounds or barracks before the transformation of the labour compound system (Cloete, Marais & Venter, 2009:31). According to Cloete & Pienaar (2005:44), hostels are infrastructures which were built with the intention of accommodating migrant labour workers in cities and mines. This is affirmed by Nieftagodien in Deliurs, Phillips & Rankin-Smith (2014:225) who states that hostels were designed to minimise capital's labour costs and control and surveillance over black workers. Black people migrated from homelands and rural regions to white urban areas to find employment (Marx & Posel, 2013:820). Hostels were declared Bantu areas for housing single men and women who worked for more than one employer in urban areas. They (hostels) were originally developed by private companies, mine owners and state to house migrant labour workers and were built specifically as single sex institutions used to accommodate migrant labour workers in urban areas (Mothotoana, 2011:1). The discovery of copper in the 1850s in Namaqualand, diamond in Kimberly in 1867, gold in Witwatersrand in 1886, the change in underground extraction into open cast mining methods in the 1880s, the provision of state subsidies to white farmers resulted in high demand of migrant labour workers. Black people poured in the Witwatersrand in their thousands in 1886 after the discovery of gold (Ubisi, 2014:1). These workers were accommodated in huts clustered around the mine shafts without any management or control. When the Chinese migrant labourers arrived in the Witwatersrand in 1904, the architectural construction standards for closed compounds were established. One room of a compound accommodated forty (40) to sixty men (60) (Moodie & Ndatshe, 1994:76-77). Historically, migrant labour workers were recruited in labour-sending areas through The Employment Bureau of South Africa (hereafter referred to as TEBA) to work in the mines (Naicker, 2015:101). TEBA acted as the labour recruitment arm of mine owners such as Anglo American and the Chamber of Mines.

The labour migrant workers were also recruited from homeland villages and the neighbouring countries such as Lesotho and Mozambique to work in the mines and returned to their homes when their

contracts expired (Jooma, 1991:23). There were three types of hostels in South Africa during apartheid. The first type comprised the public hostels which were used to accommodate workers from different industries while the second type included the grey sector hostels which were owned by private companies although the land on which they were built was owned by the municipalities and the third type comprised the private hostels which were attached to the places of work and owned by the employers (Thurman, 1997:43). In 1986, the apartheid government repealed the segregative laws (influx control laws or regulations) by promulgating the Abolition of Influx Control Act (68 of 1986). This Act removed all restrictions on movement of black people in urban areas. The Influx control regulations prevented black people from migrating with their families or settling permanently at their employment's places. One of the consequences of the abolition of the influx control regulations in 1986 was the total disregard of public hostels which resulted in overcrowding and lack of municipal basic services (Xulu, 2014:142). The promulgation of the Abolition of Influx Control Act (68 of 1986) also provided public hostel dwellers with a golden opportunity of illegally bringing their wives and children into the hostels which resulted in non-registration of new hostel dwellers, poor management of the hostel blocks and overcrowding (Jooma, 1991:105). The announcement of unbanning of all political parties and liberation movements by the former president Mr FW de Klerk in 1990 escalated the hostel problems.

According to Setswe (2010:10), one of the objectives of the African National Congress (ANC) when it came into power in 1994 was to improve housing development. The democratic government introduced the Hostel Redevelopment Programme in 1991 and the Community Residential Units (hereafter referred to as CRU) programme in 2004. These programmes were aimed at providing adequate housing for hostel dwellers. Unfortunately, majority of hostel dwellers build shacks next to the hostels due to overcrowded rooms and unaffordability of paying monthly rentals. Mushrooming of shacks or informal settlements is one of the challenges that hamper provision of adequate housing. It should be noted that majority of shacks dwellers are migrants.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

Migration in South Africa hampers the delivery of adequate housing. The Department of Human

Settlements is faced with challenges in provision of adequate housing. Hostel dwellers who move out of hostels and build shacks in their hostels' surrounding areas also catalyses the housing challenges faced by the Department of Human Settlements. The influx of migrants which seems to be uncontrollable, escalates the housing challenges. During apartheid era, migrants were accommodated in hostels. Due to overcrowding of hostel rooms, some hostel dwellers move out of hostels and build shacks adjacent to the hostels. During service delivery protests and demonstrations, shack dwellers have a tendency of burning nearby houses. This also escalates the financial burden faced by the Department of Human Settlements. The Study recommends the following:

- The Department of Home Affairs needs to tighten the migration policies and borders in order to reduce the number of illegal migrants entering the country.
- The Department of Human Settlements needs to use waiting lists when allocating houses.
- Houses must be provided to South African citizens not sold to illegal migrants through corrupt activities.
- Corrupt ward councillors who sell public houses to illegal migrants should be arrested, and
- Shack dwellers who burn houses adjacent to their areas during service delivery protests and demonstrations should also be arrested.

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The Impact of Financial Malpractice on Service Delivery: A Conceptual Examination of Literature

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Abstract: This paper argues that financial malpractice has not always been remedied in the public sector. Legislation that governs financial administration in the public sector is, thus, being disregarded. Officials continuously engage in unwanted expenditure (i.e. unauthorised, irregular, fruitless and wasteful expenditure) and no action is taken against them. The purpose of this paper was to probe the impact of financial malpractice by public officials as an impediment to service delivery. The methodological approach of this paper was the conceptual examination of literature which ultimately leads to proposed strategy measures towards financial malpractice and service delivery. This paper finds that officials unethically pursue their self-interest in enriching themselves by looting the government funds and neglecting the focus of enhancing service delivery. Consequently, this has relegated the impoverished citizens to a crisis situation. The lack of proper planning and the embezzlement of public funds have both been identified as factors that impede service delivery. This paper suggests that the government should tighten its internal control measures and reinforce compliance with the applicable laws and regulations. Further, it suggests that officials should be held liable for any financial malpractice and, therefore, penalties for financial misconduct should be instituted against them. Lastly, government should provide comprehensive training and awareness programmes on financial malpractice and financial misconduct.

Keywords: Financial malpractice, Financial misconduct, Irregular expenditure, Unauthorised expenditure, Service delivery

1. Introduction

The global leaders adopted the 2030 agenda for sustainable development to eradicate poverty and ensure that all citizens live in harmony (UNDP, 2016). The view was to accelerate service delivery the lack of which is a serious crisis around the globe. This predicament arises on the account of lack of proper financial management expertise and engagement in fraudulent and corrupt activities by public officials (UNDP, 2016). Hence, the effective and efficient management of public finances should lead to good financial governance and reduction of financial malpractice. This research paper intended to examine the impact of financial malpractice by public officials as an impediment to service delivery.

There are laws that govern public finances and administration; and public officials are obliged to adhere to them. However, in some instances these are disregarded. In most cases, the examples of financial malpractice emanate from unethical procurement practices and non-compliance by public officials. According to Mazibuko and Fourie (2017:109) the unethical supply chain practices arise from "uncompetitive or unfair procurement processes, inadequate

contract management, awards to close family members of employees, lack of documentation to the awards and awards to employees of government institutions". This situation has been declared a major contributor to adverse audit outcomes in the public sector (AGSA, 2017). Furthermore, it has accelerated the incurring of irregular expenditure, unauthorised expenditure, corruption, fraud and bribery activities.

Accordingly, the research enquiry that is fundamental to this paper is: How does financial malpractice impact service delivery? Given this research enquiry, the objective of this research paper was to examine the impact of financial malpractice on service delivery. The paper suggests that officials should be held liable for any financial malpractice and, therefore, penalties for financial misconduct should be instituted against them. Further, leadership in the public sector should foster the compliance with applicable policies and procedures. Hence, improved service delivery and sound financial management are both the cornerstone of the public service.

This research paper is significant in the public administration environment, in that it suggests the strategies that public officials could apply to eliminate

the occurrence of financial malpractice and thus enhance service delivery to the citizens. Further, the policy makers in government could employ the suggestions of this paper to develop the prescripts that would provide more oversight into the persistent financial malpractice which has an adverse impact on service delivery. This research paper is motivated by the significant practical challenges (e.g. shortage of water, shelter and sanitation), that are encountered on a daily basis by society at large. For example, the pervasive service delivery protests are evident in most of the countries around the globe, including the Republic of South Africa.

Consequently, politics plays a pivotal role in the public service. Public officials continuously engage in political activities. This often leads to service delivery being compromised. Kasum (2009:11) advocates that "the rate at which public office holder in developing economies perpetrate financial malpractice is dangerously alarming". It is evident that there is a consistent failure in the ability of public service to comply with and implement public service policies effectively and efficiently (DPSA, 2017-18). Therefore, given the current situation, a rapid intervention and remedy by public service is required. Although, several studies have focused on service delivery, this research paper embarks on a conceptual examination of the literature relating to financial malpractice and its potential references to service delivery. Succinctly, it intended to examine how financial malpractice might impact service delivery, with the view of alleviating poverty and social distress among citizens. For the purpose of this paper, the concepts of public sector and public service are used interchangeably.

This research paper is structured as follows: the next section illustrates the research methods. It is followed by a discussion of the nature of financial malpractice and service delivery. The next section is the examination of the factors that are associated with financial malpractice and service delivery. Techniques for enhancing service delivery and inhibiting financial malpractice are also discussed; and lastly, the research paper culminates with conclusions.

2. Methods and Materials

The methodological approach employed in this paper was the conceptual examination of existing literature that ends with proposed strategies that could be implemented to reduce financial

malpractice in the public sector, and thus, enhance service delivery. Different approaches and methods were utilised to probe the impact of service delivery on society. Several studies focused on the empirical researches where in-depth interviews and self-administered researches were done by various scholars to investigate service delivery. In addition, conceptual studies were conducted to probe the subject of service delivery and accountability (e.g. Jashari & Pepaj, 2018; Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017); service delivery and financial accountability (e.g. Sibanda, 2017; Ngwakwe, 2012). As highlighted above, different approaches and methods were used to investigate the impact on service delivery. Some of these approaches are outlined in Table 1 on the following page.

3. The Nature of Financial Malpractice and Service Delivery

There is an emerging trend of government departments failing to manage their finances properly (AGSA, 2017). Financial malpractice is rooted in the manifestations of fraud, corruption and bribery activities in the public sector which are universally rampant (Kasum, 2009). In addition, it focuses on the phenomenon of fruitless and wasteful, irregular and unauthorised expenditure proliferating on a daily basis. In the context of this paper, financial malpractice refers to reckless financial activities committed by public officials that obstruct the enhancement of service delivery to the citizens. Financial malpractice is viewed as being a fundamental impediment to service delivery. Therefore, this research paper has intended to examine the impact of financial malpractice by those public officials as factor which is crucial to the provision of enhanced service delivery.

According to Naidoo (2012:661) service delivery refers to "the implementation of public policies aimed at providing services to the citizens". Akpan (2019) defines service delivery as the "provision of goods which are tangible, and services which are intangible to the public". Therefore, in this paper, service delivery refers to the provision of integrated and better services to the citizens of the country. The concepts of financial malpractice and service delivery are irreconcilable because the manifestation of financial malpractice in the public sector impedes the delivery of services to the citizens. In other words, the two concepts are pointing in different directions, that is, they are two variables which oppose each other. However, public officials persist

Table 1: Different Approaches and Methods Used to Probe the Impact of Service Delivery

Author	Approach	Findings
Akpan (2019)	A quantitative using survey design was utilised to investigate the harnessing of e-governance for enhanced public service delivery in Nigeria	The implementation of e-governance would ensure enhanced efficiency in performing the administration in the public sector
Mfuru, Sarwatt and Kanire (2018)	A mixed methods approach was used to explore the impact of political interference in public administration	The major findings of this study reveals that public officials are unable to carry their mandates effectively due to political interferences
Dzomira (2017)	A qualitative approach using interpretative approach was applied to probe financial accountability and governance in an emerging economy	The results suggests that South African public financial governance should put measures to erode the occurrence of irregular, fruitless and wasteful and unauthorised expenditure
Sibanda (2017)	A conceptual examination of literature was employed to investigate the control, ethics and accountability in the financial management performance of municipalities in the Eastern Cape	The results proposed that public finance should be conceptualised to embrace ethics and accountability in the public sector

Source: Authors

in committing financial malpractice, incurring irregular, fruitless and wasteful expenditure (Dzomira, 2016). This persistent irregular conduct has been escalating as a result of failure by management to take effective and appropriate disciplinary steps against officials who made or permitted unauthorised, irregular or fruitless and wasteful expenditure.

Sustainable service delivery has been a hurdle in the world at large (UNDP, 2016). The lack of financial accountability in the public sector has impeded the success of service delivery (Mutuma, Iravo, Waiganjo & Kihoro, 2017). Mazibuko and Fourie (2017:112) also state that "the public sector needs to improve the efficiency of managing public finances". This can enable the governments to speed up the service delivery process and achieve the long-term goals.

4. Factors Affecting Financial Malpractice and Service Delivery

Various challenges in the society (including protests, the malicious damage of State goods; political unrest and so forth) have emerged due to lack of service delivery. These irregularities have emanated from a lack of devotion and commitment by the public officials in serving their communities. However, solutions could be devised to mend the *status quo* within the public sector. In the main, service delivery depends on good financial governance,

and effective allocation and distribution of scarce resources. In this paper, the researchers identify the number of factors that affects financial malpractice and service delivery, whether negative or positive such as lack of financial capacity, unfair public procurement and supply chain management, inappropriate planning, improper delegation of authority, embezzlement of public funds, lack of internal control systems, corruption, fraud and political interference.

These factors are actually interlinked in such a way that one factor could well influence the other. These are discussed below.

4.1 Lack of Financial Capacity

The origin of financial malpractice lies in the absence of expertise required to administer public finances. Lack of appropriate expertise has been reported as an obstacle to effective administration of public finances (Sibanda, 2017; Saka, 2016; Phago, 2015; Dzomira, 2015; Ngwakwe, 2012). Public officials are appointed to higher positions based on their political affiliation and interference (Mfuru *et al.*, 2018). In essence, their political status is paramount in pursuing their self-interest and neglecting the needs of the society (Thomas, 2016). The Independent (2016) states that the selection panels should contain an independent element to increase objectivity and

public credibility. Furthermore, this independent element should embark on constant standard setting and observations that would enhance and sustain public confidence in the appointments process.

Consequently, due to incompetence, public officials are unable to take informed decisions. Furthermore, Dzomira (2016) posits that the lack of financial management skills among public officials significantly impedes efficient service delivery which leads to maladministration in the public service. In addition, a study by Edoun (2015:10) asserts that "public enterprises are the channel by which political leaders redistribute wealth by giving employment to comrades who lack the necessary skills and knowledge to manage". Insufficient accounting skills among politicians results in intensification of corruption and fraud, and thus unclean audit findings (Sibanda, 2017; Masiloane & Dintwe, 2014; Naidoo, 2012). Therefore, politicians end up embezzling the State funds.

4.2 Unfair Public Procurement and Supply Chain Management

Supply chain management entails the process of acquiring products and services at the most affordable costs. It includes, amongst others, units such as procurement, assets, transport and logistics. Public procurement has been identified as being pivotal to improved service delivery as huge budgets are allocated to it. Ngwakwe (2012) argues that the non-existence of openness and transparency in public procurement has led to the misuse of funds on the African Continent. Hence, non-compliance with the applicable policies governing public supply chain and procurement processes has triggered a great deal of irregular and fruitless expenditure in the public service (Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017; Dzomira, 2017; Naidoo, 2012). Again, these unethical procurement practices include employees who are doing business with government without the necessary declarations (AGSA, 2017; Masiloane & Dintwe, 2014). This happens as a result of insufficient internal control systems in the public sector.

4.3 Inappropriate Planning

Planning is the first portion of management functions; which is followed by organising, leading and controlling (Mfuru *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the executives and management need to pay careful attention to planning. In the context of the public

sector, planning is in the form of strategic planning sessions in which the budgeting allocations of scarce resources to various programmes are contemplated (Sibanda, 2017; Saka, 2016). This activity is undertaken by the executives of the department. In the main, the participants are likely to be politicians and this has an adverse influence on the processes. The process requires knowledgeable officials who understand the financial perspectives of the public service. The significance of financial planning in the public service cannot be overlooked as service delivery depends on sound financial management.

The Service Delivery Improvement Planning (SDIP) becomes crucial during the planning stage. Essentially, SDIP facilitates the commitment of government institutions to continuous service delivery improvement mechanisms that intend to enhance the quality of actual service provided (DPSA, 2017-18). In order to ensure continuous improvement, government institutions should establish SDIP and ensure its successful implementation. The SDIP should be aligned with the long-term objectives as highlighted in the strategic plan of the government institution.

4.4 Improper Delegation of Authority

According to Edoun (2015:12), delegation of authority entails "the shifting of management responsibilities from the center to the lower level, but the center retaining the overall control of powers". Public officials on the higher authority tend to abuse these powers for their own personal interests and gain, and to neglect the needs of the vulnerable citizens (Thomas, 2016). Although there are legislative frameworks and policies that govern public financial management including delegation of authority in the public service, they are neglected. Thus, the accounting officer of the government department should establish an explicit system of delegation of authority to improve operational standards and "provide adequate checks and balances" (Sibanda, 2017:320).

4.5 Embezzlement of Public Funds

The lack of good financial governance and continuous incurring of unwanted expenditure both remain as challenge that obstruct service delivery (Dzomira, 2017). This resulted in the mismanagement of public funds and thus, maladministration in different government departments. The lack of accountability in public finances has been accompanied by

Table 2: Corruption Related Statistics

Type	Description	Examples
Administrative statistics	Characteristics of government or its performance relevant to corruption or anticorruption outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number or percentage of procurements conducted under specific rules or systems • Percentage of civil servants who meet certain position qualifications • Number of negative audit findings per agency
Criminal or legal statistics	Data on corruption complaints, investigations, prosecutions, convictions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of corruption arrests, investigations by a specific agency • Number of corruption convictions • Ratio of arrests to convictions
Population surveys and user surveys	Survey data on corruption perceptions or experience (also called victimisation surveys)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional barometer surveys • Global Corruption Barometer (experience survey) • Surveys of population sub-groups (e.g., enterprise surveys, ad hoc user surveys)

Source: The Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (2019:5)

irregular procurement of goods and services and unaccounted public funds (AGSA, 2017; Dzomira, 2017; Sibanda, 2017; Saka, 2016; Naidoo, 2012). In addition, public officials have exploited their ranks by utilising public funds for personal benefit (Edoun, 2015). As a result, poor compliance with applicable rules and regulations has been evident in the inability to manage public funds (AGSA, 2017). This has relegated service delivery and left vulnerable citizens in a dire situation.

4.6 Lack of Internal Control Systems

Ample internal control measures should be in place to direct the functions on the daily basis. The research findings by Dzomira (2017) reveal that inadequate financial governance in the Republic of South Africa is continuing to ensure the incurring of unauthorised expenditure, irregular expenditure and, fruitless and wasteful expenditure. For example, it has been noted that Limpopo Province, amongst other provinces, has contributed significantly to the rise of irregular expenditure (AGSA, 2017).

The leaders in the public service tend to act based on their best interest and ignore compliance with applicable legislation. They engage in fraudulent activities by manipulating the systems for their personal gain and at the expense of the public; and no remedial actions are being taken against them. Hence service delivery suffers and the protests continue to happen in the society. Dzomira (2017) argues that various public agencies still experience challenges in relation to the evaluation of governance structures and agreements.

4.7 Corruption

Ngwakwe (2012:315) states that corruption is a "cancer that appears to be endemic in African public service". According to Mazibuko and Fourie (2017), public service institutions are still experiencing challenges of insufficient control over contract performance and assessment. This lack of control creates a loophole and possibility for escalating corruption. Thomas (2016:40) argues that corruption is a "consequence of the nexus between bureaucracy, politics and criminals". Furthermore, corruption creates economic obstacles in the public service in that public officials redirect public funds for their own personal gains and fail to render services to the communities (Thomas, 2016). This has placed impoverished citizens in a crisis situation. Therefore, good governance is an essential factor in combating corruption in the public sector (Jashari & Pepaj, 2018; Dzomira, 2017).

According to Sibanda (2017:323), corruption leads to "public funds being misused, applied to benefit a select individual or entity, or results in potential public funds being diverted from government revenue to private income". The Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (2019) undertook the study to measure corruption in the public sector. The study was based on the Global Corruption Barometer which includes Latin America and Africa geographical areas. The Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (2019:5) conducted a research on corruption statistics and the measurement of corruption as set out in Table 2 above.

4.8 Fraud

Dzomira (2015) posits that government departments should ensure sound governance of risks and fraud, and also the fraud prevention plan needs to be regularly updated. Generally, fraud relates to unethical procurement processes which include amongst others, unjust procurement practices, insufficient contract administration and the awarding of tenders to relatives and friends (Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017; Masiloane & Dintwe, 2014; Naidoo, 2012). In addition, fraud practices should be avoided at all cost and the public sector should develop and implement coercing policy that deals with risks associated with fraudulent activities (UNDP, 2016). Mazibuko and Fourie postulate that the manifestation of fraud in the public sector has an adverse effect on the citizens and lead to service delivery being compromised. However, the lack of skills intensifies the manifestation of risks relating to procurement processes and thus, fraud. Furthermore, the lack of fraud prevention strategies and policies in the government departments disrupts the process of enhancing better service delivery (Sibanda, 2017; Phago, 2015; Naidoo, 2012).

4.9 Political Interference

The appointments of public office bearers in the public sector should be subject to the overriding principle of merit, so an independent body should set standards and monitor compliance (The Independent, 2016). The public service functions under bureaucratic mode of operation. Therefore, the accounting officers have power and control over budgets, supply chain management and other activities. However, financial capacity has always been a hurdle in the public sector. The lack of financial capacity and political interference makes it difficult for public officials to administer public finance (Mfuru *et al.*, 2018; Naidoo, 2012). To support this, Mfuru *et al.* (2018) assert that political interference in the public service has resulted in illegitimate decision-making processes, fruitless budget allocations and ignorance of applicable laws and regulations.

The Chief Financial Officer (CFO) of the government departments has to ensure effective and efficient systems of financial and internal control are in place. However, in some instances, the CFOs are dismissed from their duties even before the end of their tenure due to political interferences. This statement is supported by Phago (2015:621) that

"the high vacancy and turnover rates of accounting and chief financial officers remain a cause for concern from the Auditor General's Office".

5. Techniques for Enhancing Service Delivery and Inhibiting Financial Malpractice

This paper provides a discussion of the suggested techniques that could be applied to enhance service delivery and inhibit financial malpractice. These are discussed below.

5.1 Transparent Supply Chain Management Systems

Challenges with supply chain management have remained one of the key contributors to poor audit outcomes (AGSA, 2017). Supply chain management is the heart of service delivery and it is essential to recognise that it is imperative. The high rate of irregular expenditure in the public sector stems from the governance challenges emanating from the poor supply chain activities (Dzomira, 2017; Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017; AGSA, 2017). A sound procurement system in the public sector is characterised by aspects such as responsiveness, openness and accountability (Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017; Sibanda, 2017, Naidoo, 2012), which are currently not effective. The UNDP (2016:4) provides for the continuous vigilance in respect to procurement practices in the public sector. These include the following:

- reinforcing ethical behaviour as pointed out by applicable prescripts;
- ensuring ample procurement planning including evaluation of risks;
- operating in a transparent way such as openly sharing procurement plans;
- ensuring supervision, including regular spot checks of procurement transactions; and
- reporting instances of fraud and corruption emanating from procurement activities.

5.2 Transparency and Accountability in Public Administration

Masiloane and Dintwe (2014) argue that the reduction of the bureaucratic *modus operandi* enables the

public sector to enhance openness and accountability. Openness and transparency in the public service play a huge role in the way in which the public service operates and supports the level of approachability, efficiency and effectiveness to various stakeholders (Jashari & Pepaj, 2018; Naidoo, 2012). Transparency refers to "unfettered access by the public to timely and reliable information on decisions and performance in the public sector" (Jashari & Pepaj, 2018:65). Transparency in the public service is maintained by means of implementing modernised systems of Information Communication and Technology (ICT). Therefore, citizens should know where to get information about the services, and how those services are rendered by the public sector.

Transparency is at the heart of honesty and trustworthiness in the public sector and it improves public confidence and support (Sibanda, 2017; Ngwakwe, 2012). To support this statement, the implementation of binding ethics in public supply chain practices is crucial for the enhancement of transparency and accountability in the public sector (Mazibuko & Fourie, 2017). However, in order to promote ethical conduct in the public sector and tackle the issues and allegations of accountability, the following should be contemplated (UNDP, 2008:12):

- Institute a restricted hotline for reporting illegal behaviour, including the abuse of authority.
- Reinforce compliance with the applicable legal frameworks by ensuring standards of conduct.
- Convey information concerning disciplinary cases.
- Develop grievance procedures outside formal channels through the Office of the Joint Ombuds-person.
- Formalise an obligatory code of conduct/ethics capacity for all staff.

5.3 Effective Internal Control and Audit Systems

Internal audit systems are paramount to the achievement of long-term objectives of the public service institutions. The internal audit and audit committees play a pivotal role in ensuring that they recognise any contravention with applicable laws and regulations (Sibanda, 2017). Tight internal control systems enable the public sector to ensure reliability, and this inspires public officials to report any arising irregularities

resulting from corrupt activities (Masiloane & Dintwe, 2014). Internal audits pave the way for the external audit and help earmark the areas of administration that require urgent attention. It should thus be taken seriously in the public sector as it provides a preliminary audit just before the external audit commences. As a part of strengthening internal control, leadership in the public sector needs to develop and effectively implement the anti-corruption policy and strategy to diminish the spreading of corruption and fraud (Masiloane & Dintwe, 2014).

5.4 Effective Information Communication and Technology

Information Communication and Technology (ICT) is the "science and activity of moving data digitally" (Lucas, 2016:15). Information technology systems should be enhanced and customised to specific areas of service delivery, including financial management and its delegation of authority (Jashari & Pepaj, 2018). Further, it is crucial for the public sector to deliver its mandates efficiently by constantly strengthening its systems and processes. Ngwakwe (2012) asserts that the efficient use of Information Communication and Technology (ICT) necessitates the provision of comprehensive training and the development of all staff, including finance staff, in the public service to ensure effective public administration. For example, ICT systems can be enhanced in such a way that they track and trace the records of service delivery. The business process re-engineering was applied by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development of the Republic of South Africa to enhance efficiency and responsiveness to service delivery pertaining to court administration (Lucas, 2016). In addition, the implementation of e-governance tool could help accelerate the process of delivery of services to the citizens (Akplan, 2019; Salam, 2017). Akplan (2019:1118) defines e-governance as "the application of ICT to improve the delivery of services in the public service to attain transparency, accountability, timeliness, and efficiency".

5.5 Implement Corrective Measures Against Perpetrators

Financial misconduct should be instituted against the public officials who incur irregular, fruitless and unauthorised expenditure. Furthermore, public officials should be held liable and accountable for committing corruption, fraud and bribery-related

activities (UNDP, 2016). The financial skills in the public sector have been perceived as being scarce, thus the public sector should implement comprehensive training and development programmes to equip their staff. These include, but are not limited to the provision of in-house training, mentoring and outsourcing of training initiatives. Staff rotation to different sections could also help to curb the acts of financial malpractice in the public sector. In their study, Masiloane and Dintwe (2014:182) contend that "if there are sufficient internal controls and sufficient number of perpetrators are apprehended for corruption and punished adequately, there is a likelihood that the prospective perpetrators will stop immediately". In addition, public awareness with regard to corrupt activities can help diminish its occurrence.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper has examined the impact of financial malpractice on service delivery. It has emphasised that financial malpractice is an obstruction to enhanced service delivery. It has uncovered various factors associated with financial malpractice and service delivery. These include the lack of financial capacity, unfair public procurement and supply chain management, inappropriate planning, improper delegation of authority, the embezzlement of public funds, the lack of internal control systems, corruption, fraud and political interference. Furthermore, this paper has proposed the techniques for enhancing service delivery and inhibiting financial malpractice. These include, amongst others, transparent supply chain management systems, transparency and accountability in public administration, effective internal control and audit systems and effective information communication and technology. This paper finds that officials unethically pursue their self-interest in enriching themselves by looting government funds and neglecting the focus of enhancing service delivery. Such activities have relegated the impoverished citizens to a crisis situation. The lack of proper planning and the mismanagement of finances have both been identified as factors that impede service delivery.

This paper suggests that the government should tighten its internal control measures and reinforce compliance with the applicable laws and regulations. Furthermore, the fruitful allocation and disbursement of the scarce resources is still a challenge in the public sector and hampers the provision of service delivery. It also suggests that officials should

be held liable for any financial malpractice and thus, penalties for financial misconduct should be instituted against them. Lastly, government should provide comprehensive training and awareness programmes focused on financial malpractice and financial misconduct.

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Is Access to Adequate Human Settlements Still a 'Wicked' Problem for Africa? Revisiting South Africa's Policy and Strategy Landscape

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Abstract: This paper unpacks the multi-faceted angles to the human settlements challenges affecting the Africa in general and South Africa in particular. Despite the massive milestones that have been made towards realising the universal right to adequate human settlements globally, many African countries are far from making this right a reality for all their populace. The paper argues that migration in its various forms, the question of land and ownership where a skewed ownership promotes inequalities contribute immensely to lack of access to adequate housing by many in the country. Inequalities accompanied by slow economic growth, increase in population growth which entails ever increasing demand for housing and accompanying services makes it extremely difficult for government to achieve human settlements goals. An evaluation of the government's efforts to address human settlements through such strategies as building low-cost houses for the poor have had mixed successes. The criticism levelled at such approaches lies more on how they were rolled out more than on the correctness of the decision. While there are a number of positives from the strategies that have been employed so far the sustainability and efficacy of such are brought into scrutiny. The paper endeavors to explore possible ways by which the many-headed challenge of Human settlements could be tackled for better results. Using the lenses of participatory development, the paper reviews literature to draw some insights on what could possibly explain the setbacks that have been experienced by South Africa despite some strides that have been made to date. The paper acknowledges the massive success in giving the poor a roof over their heads; however, it laments the overemphasis on the quantifiable outcomes at the expense of social and quality considerations.

Keywords: Amenities, Informal settlements, Livable habitats, Poverty, Sustainable development

1. Introduction

The compound challenges associated with human development in general and human settlement in particular demand constant assessment to determine whether it could still be regarded as 'wicked'. This is particularly significant in the developing context of the Africa in general and South Africa in particular. This paper revisits the Problematiques associated with human settlements and assesses progress made to address the main challenges faced by countries in Africa in the provision and development of human settlements. It further endeavors to explore South Africa's policy and strategy landscape with the aim of underlining positive initiatives and to flag areas of concern. Cases of other African countries are considered to pinpoint potential best practice that could serve as a reference point for South Africa. Key components of human settlements are utilised to develop an assessment tool to assess South Africa's progress in providing access to

adequate human settlements. Utilising participatory development lenses the article employs the review of literature and analysis of official documents to arrive at its conclusions and recommendations.

2. Complexity of Human Settlements Provision and Development in Africa

A starting point in the human settlements discourse is to appreciate the complexities around the challenges associated with it. The concept of human Settlements entails a collective of facilities and amenities that make for habitable environment. As postulated by Eberhard (1977) human settlements entail:

- Shelter of various kinds in which to live, work, learn, worship, and play. Important about any system of shelter is the fact that it has to be safe, provide for the common good, and supports a healthy environment.

- Paths and means of movement are required between shelters.
- Information-communication systems are needed for members of the settlement to know what is going on, beware of danger, manage their joint endeavors, control the flow of traffic or people etc.
- A system for managing the 'metabolism' of the settlement is required. Food, water, and raw materials of many kinds need to be brought into the settlement; processed into things to eat, to wear, to use in building, or into forms of energy for heat, light, and work; and eventually the by-products or waste need to be disposed of.

These are also seen as the hardware of human settlements while the software includes among others health care, education, recreation, political processes, worship, entertainment and security measures (Eberhard, 1977:11). Underlining the importance of human settlements for diverse and inclusive cities, Wachter, Smit and Kim (2018) point out that shelter is a necessity of life and an anchor of economic activities by households. The human settlements predicaments that some countries find themselves in relate to the ever-shifting targets. South Africa is a good example where statistics shows that since 1994 to date 4.5 million houses have been built yet the number of people in the waiting list for social housing programme keeps increasing (Department of Human Settlement, 2019). The former minister of Human Settlements, Ms Lindiwe N Sisulu acknowledged the enormous challenge faced by government in meeting the demand on the backdrop of growing heightened expectation and anger (Department of Human Settlement, 2019). In her speech to the National Council of Provinces, the minister highlighted some of the fundamental challenges the government is faced with in its attempt to ensure the right of access to adequate housing becomes a reality. One of these challenges is urbanization of which South Africa is urbanizing at a rate of 2.4%. The challenge is exacerbated by the growing influx of immigrants from neighboring countries who come mainly in search for better economic opportunities making the competition for space stiffer and more expensive. The question of approaches in making the right of access to adequate housing a reality for the country is at the Centre of some of the challenges being experienced currently. South Africa is one of the countries if not the only country where

government provides free housing to the less privileged. It is tempting for some writers to criticize this social policy for promoting dependency. However, a closer look at the circumstances surrounding the targeted beneficiaries justifies the move, although the beneficiaries can be better screened to ensure that the intended indigent are actually the beneficiaries of these necessary policies.

3. Urbanisation and Inequality

The stable growth that followed attainment of democratic governance and the attendant efforts to address poverty have not reduced the number of people living in inadequate human settlements. Perhaps the South African challenge is no surprise since it falls within the Southern African region, which has the highest levels of inequalities according to (Manirakiza, 2014). The negative side of urbanization in this region and in other parts of the world is that it is often accompanied by high levels of inequality. While there is flourishing housing market in formally designated places the affordability relegates a huge population of the urban dwellers into illegal settlements like Khayelitsha in Cape Town or Diepsloot in Johannesburg. Urbanisation has seen a lot of people move from rural areas to cities for search of opportunities. The urban areas present a wide array of industries, which attract the rural dwellers. Unfortunately, most of the immigrants into urban areas do not always find viable means of livelihood to afford adequate housing and other services and facilities that make for sufficient human settlements. As observed by Manirakiza (2014) "urban development policies tend to focus on the creation and improvement of infrastructures which facilitate business, with little emphasis being laid on social issues and housing problems, or the promotion of full access to the opportunities of urban life for different socio-economic categories of urban residents".

It is a fact that economic growth has not been high enough to grow the economy to cater for the growing population. However, more important than the economic growth is the high level of inequality bedeviling many communities in the developing world. It is the challenges of distribution of the said economic growth. South Africa had the notorious distinction of being the most unequal society in the world in 2010 (Hendricks, 2010). The unfortunate reality of this inequality is that it is historical and has race and gender connotations as well. The history of separate development entrenched poverty

among the blacks and granted privilege to the white populace. While the country has undergone change following the demise of apartheid rule in 1994 the economic realities are stubborn to be eradicated as their impact is generational. The apartheid policies particularly relating to land and access to the city are still relevant in explaining the challenges faced by the succeeding governments in tackling the question of access to adequate housing. This is true in many angles however, the glaring one relates to the access to land. The reality of land ownership is such that the bulk of the land is in private hands and the state has to follow a long process to acquire and avail land for infrastructure development necessary to ensure access to adequate housing. While there is a flourishing housing market, the economic conditions of those without access to adequate housing makes it impossible for them to benefit from the new housing developments. The challenge of unequal developments and fewer opportunities in rural areas have seen high influx of young people into the urban centres in search for employment and better opportunities. The high rentals in the cities force these immigrants into the city to find alternative shelter in informal settlements with no legal services. Most of these settlements are nearer to heavy manufacturing industries where the dwellers can easily access places of work. Staying far from workplace means transport costs will eat into their meagre wages. Despite the labourers in the manufacturing industry there is a segment of the populace that has stable sources of income but cannot qualify for loans to buy houses.

4. Human Settlement Policy Development and Implementation in South Africa

Despite several international conventions that have been ratified achieving adequate and sustainable human settlements has been a challenge internationally. Some of the international policy pronouncements like the Vancouver Declaration on Human Settlements 1976, note that the condition of human settlements largely determines the quality of life, the improvement of which is a prerequisite for the full satisfaction of basic needs like employment, housing, health services, education and recreation. South Africa through the department of Human Settlement has enacted a number of policies including the 2004 Breaking the New ground framework. The policy framework is rooted on the country's constitution, which holds that access to adequate housing is a right for all citizens. The initial

economic policy of the ruling ANC government prioritised housing, it channelled a lot of funding towards the provision of social housing for the poor, and the programme came to be called RDP houses after the Reconstruction and Development Policy (1996). The housing programme have been very instrumental in providing housing to the poor among the poor to access housing. The programme has been lauded for the access to housing it has granted to many of the South African poor populace. This however, has not been without its challenges and criticisms. The question of intended beneficiaries, sustainability, the corruption around the recipients of the finished units and the problem of creating a dependency syndrome have been some of the common negatives levelled against the programme.

The sustainability of meeting the human settlements needs to many that are in need of social housing poses questions whether the RDP approach has been effective in providing access to adequate housing to the less privileged. However, it has been fraught by many ills mainly the lack of coordination from the various spheres of governments and between entities that should work together to ensure that the newly built housing units are serviced with basics like water and electricity. Perhaps the disjointed manner of the early years of the RDP also contributed to the move to look at Human settlements rather than simply housing. Criticism around the failure to coordinate work between sectors of government saw some units go without power a good while after being completed.

Reports on the management of recipients of this social housing programme indicate challenges on the management of those who are eligible to receive housing unit with reports of corruption in some cases resulting in protests. Some of the companies involved in the construction of the RDP houses were accused of doing shoddy work calling for more concerted effort to ensure compliance with the agreed upon standards. A lot of money has been wasted on the reconstruction of faulty structures a development which should not be an occurrence. The government has engaged made effort to build partnership with relevant players to improve the quality of social housing. One such partnership is with Cuban Government where technicians from Cuba have been involved in the social housing construction working together with local construction in the spirit of sharing expertise. One of the challenges of RDP housing programme has been the location

where due to limitation in terms of state owned land these houses are located in areas far from the place of economic activity for many of the recipients. Due to high levels of poverty some of the beneficiaries are alleged to have sold out their units to illegible occupants and moved back to informal settlements closer to opportunities of work or informal business customers. This is partly the reason why despite huge numbers of housing units built informal settlements have persisted. Given the governments' mega housing projects where RDP houses are built on a space of land to form a new neighbourhood, the non-participation in those who receive them creates an absence of sense of ownership. In line with the thinking in participatory development management the participation of those whom development is targeted should be consciously and clearly crafted at every stage of the process from planning to evaluation of outcomes. It is however, important to hasten in pointing that those within the communities who can participate only at a passive level like the aged and physically incapacitated. However, for the majority of the beneficiaries' development has to be done with the people and for the people.

5. The Dynamics of Planning, Increase in Informal Settlements

The challenge facing many countries in the developing world with regards to human settlements relate to the inadequate or outdated planning most of which is borrowed from the colonial regimes. The inadequacy of the colonial template lies in it being not accommodative of the changed realities of most countries. The exclusionary nature of cities is no longer or should no longer be a reality in the transformed realities of Africa's Populace. Manikariza (2014:2) a growing "body of evidence suggests that uncontrolled urban growth, land use and housing availability as well as affordability remain topical issues impinging for example on Kigali's sustainable development." The high rate of spontaneous settlements in Kigali highlights the need to tailor urban planning policies and related implementation strategies according to urban households' financial means, so as to transform Kigali into an inclusive city. An inclusive city promotes access to the opportunities of urban life for all, a place where everyone, regardless of their economic means is enabled and empowered to fully participate in the social, economic and political opportunities that cities have to offer' (UNHABITAT,2012). Manirakiza

(2014:5) argues that 'there is urbanization without improving of economies and the expansion of urban middle classes, and African urban livelihoods tend to remain insecure and highly in formalised'. Urban development tends to be accompanied by urban inequality.

6. Tackling the Human Settlements in South Africa

As alluded to in the preceding passages, human settlements entail liveable habitats, safe, resource efficient, connected to places of worship, schooling, health and leisure. In order to assess the gains that South Africa has made in this regard and the failures a working tool of key aspects of human settlements is presented in Table 1 on the following page.

The highlighted challenges with policy and strategies will require a re-think on the current strategies and pave for a well thought out way forward, which takes into consideration the views of various stakeholders. The multi-faceted challenges of Human Settlements in South Africa, which qualifies it as a 'wicked problem' status requires a multi-pronged response. A differentiated intervention that targets different people groups and programmes targeting the not so poor who cannot access credit lines have to be encouraged. The People's Housing Process presents that opportunity to allow those in need to collaborate with the government in realising the reality of accessing adequate housing. See Table 2.

7. Quality Assurance and Coordination of Partnerships

The cooperative governance model currently in place has to be strengthened to ensure that all efforts are well coordinated for all encompassing interventions (Bradlow, Bolnick & Shearing, 2011). The strengthening of intergovernmental forum like the Portfolio-committee on Human Settlements should be empowered to ensure concerted effort in the implementation of Human Settlements programmes. The participation of the targeted beneficiaries has to be prioritised at the conception of the interventions to the evaluation of the outcomes.

8. Creating an Enabling Environment

Bradlow *et al.* (2011) contend that within the human settlements terrain real people's participation remained a hope rather than a reality.

Table 1: Key Aspects of Human Settlements

Item	Acceptable standards as per international conventions	South Africa's Performance	Areas of improvement (what could be done to fare better)
Policy: Ratification of Internationally recognised Human Rights provisions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Protection from homelessness and ensuring access to adequate housing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Constitutionalised the right of access to adequate housing. Ratified the 1976 Vancouver Declaration and related policies The government statistics shows that there has been an increase of people who received houses from 5.6% in 2002 to 13,6% in 2017 (Republic of South Africa 2018). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The policy on Human Settlements in the country is very comprehensive. Much effort is needed in ensuring that policy intentions are turned into reality. A move towards increasing funding especially for PHPs is very urgent The challenge with this intervention is that there has been challenges on the quality of the structures with some residents pointing that the walls were weak and the roofs were faulty The other criticism levelled against this type of intervention is that the number of those in the waiting list has increased making this an unsustainable strategy. Wachter etal (2018) argue that policy solutions that simply focus on building affordable housing wherever it can be done at low cost will not be effective without taking into account the interlinked triangle of land use, transit and housing.
Handling informal Settlements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eradicating and or Informal settlements Upgrade 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Embarked on regularisation of informal settlements by way of upgrading them and in some cases where upgrade is not appropriate relocating dwellers to new low-cost houses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More dialogue is needed with informal settlements dwellers to appreciate the governments' efforts especially in cases where upgrading is not feasible. The challenge with cases of having to relocate dwellers from informal settlements is that it disrupts the social networks and economic linkages, which have served as social capital and a support system for the inhabitants. This has tended in informal settlements resisting government's efforts. With the coming of BNG 2004 policy the government committed to working on upgrading the informal settlements except in case prone to hazards such as floods. While this is a good step it is important that control mechanisms be put in place to avoid developments of new informal settlements in areas not cut out for residential purposes.
Participation of intended beneficiaries in finding Human Settlements solutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensuring that various stakeholder participate especially the intended beneficiaries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stakeholders are given space to make their contribution towards achieving human Settlements goals. The People's Housing Programme is one such platform that allows people to participate in the design and construction of their own houses. Some level of Social cohesion has been achieved in some areas such as Cosmo city where housing caters for high, middle and low-income dwellers within a mixed development. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More financial injection towards PHPs as it empowers beneficiaries and give them a sense of pride and achievement This intervention has not been as massive in terms of increasing the number of people with access to housing due to individual preferences and the participation processes unlike the subsidised housing that is uniform. Capacity has been a challenge and the government has had to collaborate with Cuba for technical support in this area. The Engineers from Cuba have been involved in working with beneficiaries on the technicalities of People's Housing Process.
Institutional Framework	Well defined institutional framework that has specific focus areas to give a holistic approach to Human settlements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The three spheres of Government are involved in Human Settlements delivery A whole government department is assigned the development of Human Settlements-Funding, Quality Assurance, etc Inter-ministerial Framework bringing related ministries into dialogue and cooperation in delivering Human Settlements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Empowering more municipalities to manage Human Settlements Improve coordination-Intergovernmental framework to be oiled to ensure shared priorities There is an urgent need to bolster a coordinated approach in the working together of government institutions involved in Human Settlements. The 31 May 2019 Alexandra demolition of informal settlements (ENCA online news) where the city leadership and provincial department of human settlements were finger pointing at each other on who to blame for the demolitions attest to the fact that the intergovernmental relations still need to be improved. The bringing together of human Settlements and water and sanitation into one ministry in the 2019 cabinet reconfigurations stands to help cut cost and synergise key sectors involved in the development of human settlements.

Source: Author

Table 2: Policy and Strategies

Strategies	Brief Description (DHS 2019 online)	Current challenges	Possible improvements
Social Housing: BNG	The programme provides for grant funding to establish, capacitate and capitalize social housing institutions which may develop, hold and administer affordable rental units within identified restructuring zones. It provides good quality social housing for the upper end of the low income market (R1500-R7500), with the primary objective of urban restructuring and creating sustainable human settlements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inadequate resources to meet demand Focus on the quantifiable outcomes at the expense of strategies for community involvement despite a strong rhetoric of participation and partnership (Isandla 2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A comprehensive measure to harness private sector resources to beef government efforts
People's Housing Processes	The Enhanced People's Housing Process aims to support household who wish to enhance their housing subsidies by building their own homes. This can be accessed through the Integrated Residential Development Programme, Project Linked Consolidation, Institutional or Rural Subsidies as well as technical and other forms of assistance in the house building process. This subsidy is given to people who want to build or manage the building of their own homes. The people or beneficiaries are in charge of their own house construction process and are supported by a support organization. Additional support is made available for support functions. This is different from Project linked Subsidy where a constructor builds houses for many people.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Given the room available for beneficiaries to exercise choice this tend to take a longer period to cater for a big number of beneficiaries than social housing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More investment on this people driven development including mobilising private sector participation. The strategy involves a more stakeholders as compared to provision of low cost housing, which is mainly executed by the state. This makes it difficult for the government to exhibit progress since the focus of this approach is more on quality than quantity.
Integrated Residential Development Programme (IRDP)	The programme entails planning and development of comprehensive housing projects. The programme follows a phased process. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. First Phase: land, Services and Township Proclamation - planning, acquisition of land, township establishment and the provision of serviced residential and other land use stands to ensure an integrated sustainable community 2. 2nd Phase: Housing Construction - this phase involves house construction for qualifying housing subsidy beneficiaries and the sale of stands to non-qualifying beneficiaries and to commercial interests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited resources to meet the demands through this strategy. The strategy involves investment by the private sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for skilled people to engage and manage the process as it involves a number of stakeholders some who are profit driven.
Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme (FLISP)	This subsidy can be used to: Buy new or old residential stand, a vacant serviced residential stand, linked to an NHBRC registered home builder contract or to build property on a self-owned serviced residential stand, through an NHBRC registered home builder. It is a subsidy targeted at the low to middle income households with access to adequate housing. To qualify a household has to be in the gap market i.e those that do not for a fully subsidised house at the same time they do not qualify for a mortgage bond. It is applicable to persons who have never received state assistance and have income of between R3501 and R15000. It is disbursed as a once off subsidy towards the repayment of the bond.	<p>Funding remains a challenge given the slow growth experienced by the country. This has seen budgets cuts like in the 2017/2018 financial year where the department's budget was cut by R3,5 billion.</p> <p>Financing institutions tend to charge high percentages on the loans they offer which tends to affect would be beneficiaries (Ntshangana 2010)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Government to continue to engage the banking sector on fair lending.
Community Residential Units	The programme supports the upgrading of government owned communal rental accommodation also known as hostels. It aims to facilitate the provision of secure, stable rental tenure for lower income persons/households. This housing stock remains in public ownership and cannot be sold or transferred to individual residents.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Difficulties in upgrading the hostels to cater for families. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consider ownership possibilities for occupants.
Informal Settlements Upgrading	This entails the structured upgrade of informal settlements. It encapsulates in situ upgrade of informal settlements as well as where communities are relocated for a variety of reasons. It involves extensive community consultation and participation, emergency basic services, permanent services and security of tenure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Undoing the service delivery and challenges faced by informal dwellers remains difficult despite the government efforts to date. High risk associated with location of informal settlements i.e low lying areas that pose risk of flooding during adverse weather conditions (e.g the 2016 floods that swept away a child in Alexandra). Lack of space between units which saw Khayelista informal settlements dwellers losing their shacks to fire in 2018. In March 2019 an electrical power line fault resulted in 100 shacks destroyed by fire iStjwetla, Alexandra in Johannesburg (Pijoos 2019). Another fire which started in one shack spread to destroy 600 shacks in December 2018 <p>These and many others serve to show that informal settlements are prone to disasters.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need to maintain the upgraded areas to ensure they do not degenerate into sites of risks.

Source: Author

There is a need to ensure that urban planning reflects the new realities and that room is created for all to be able to access adequate housing. This enabling environment can be created by ensuring that access to residential spaces well located to socio-economic opportunities is made a reality. There is a need to re-think urban planning to ensure that while allowing business to thrive ordinary people are also able to thrive along with it. A re-think of the city as both a space for trade and residency has to be reflected in the manner land is used in urban areas. Re-alignment of land use and planning to the prevailing circumstances of the populace should be done. What was previously an exclusionary right has become a national right hence a new thinking has to go into land use management in cities. When an enabling environment is created for example in re-zoning some informal settlements and partner with the occupants in formalising them in the long run people will improve the structures and if proper services like water and electricity are provided the inhabitants will be motivated to participate in the improvement of their dwellings. The upgrading of informal settlements will be a great success if the environment is made conducive for the dwellers to take part in the enhancement of their living space.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

South African government like most African countries grapple with the challenge of creating an enabling environment in which human settlements access is made possible to all. The efforts towards ensuring adequate housing for all remains a complex exercise given the multi-facets of human settlements. The paper acknowledges the achievements that have been made policy wise and practically. It however, underlines the areas that require revisiting to realise the full potential of policies in place and the sharpening of current strategies such as increasing investment towards a people driven housing process, land use management and well-coordinated interventions. The paper also emboldens the need to embark on alternative innovative building technology in tackling the huge demand for access to adequate human settlements. The paper endeavoured to give a balanced evaluation on the state of human settlements in South Africa.

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The Effect of Land Restitution on Sustainable Livelihood: The Case of Tale Ga-Morudu Communal Property Association

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of land restitution on sustainable livelihood with reference to Tale Ga-Morudu CPA. Communal Property Associations (CPAs) were introduced as a legal entities and custodian of the restituted land in South Africa to improve the living conditions of beneficiary households of the land restitution. This study employed survey design and data was collected from 45 randomly selected respondents using a semi-structured questionnaire. The study found that the CPA has adopted and implemented land use and development plan with various types of land use management composed of agricultural activities and other alternative land uses, namely, game farming, contract livestock grazing, contract crop cultivation, rental and strategic partnership. However, food gardens, resettlement and poultry enterprises of direct land use management were planned and yet not implemented by the CPA. The CPA has made some progress in terms of creating access to land, cultural wellness, employment opportunities and skills development. However, the CPA has underutilised its communal resources such as arable land, recreational facilities and game farming. It should minimise dependency on contract farming by developing and adopting other land use plans such as food gardens, strategic partnership and resettlement. It should also emphasise on income generation and distribution, education, integration of women and youth in the CPA and food security.

Keywords: Communal property association, Land restitution, Land use plan, Rural livelihood

1. Introduction

During the colonial and apartheid era, a number of legislative measures were introduced to halt the ownership of land by black majority, especially the agricultural land in South Africa (Barry, 2011; Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014; Sjaastad, Derman, & Manenzhe, 2013). The implementation of atrocious measures during colonial and apartheid era has resulted in extremely skewed land ownership and land use patterns in South Africa. One of such policy measure was The *Native Land Act* 27 of 1913 which was executed to prohibit the native black South Africans from occupying and acquiring land in their own country. Another legislative was The *Native Trust and Land Act* 18 of 1936 which was also introduced to enforce racial segregation by stripping the right of non-white South Africans to own land or to live outside demarcated areas. Furthermore, The *Group Area Act* 41 of 1950 was a horrendous legal instrument used to remove black, coloured and Indian people by force from designated White areas. Consequently, the majority of South Africans were systematically marginalised and discriminated

from accessing the means of production, particularly agricultural land.

After 1994 when the democratic government came into power, it adopted a comprehensive land reform program to redress past imbalances. The reform was a lawful process which was guided by relevant policies and legislations (Department of Land Affairs, 1997). The Constitution of Republic of South Africa of 1996, section 25 (7) grants the right for individual or community dispossessed of property after June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices and entitles to restitution of that property or to equitable redress. The Land reform is focused on three core measures such as land redistribution, land restitution and tenure right. The land redistribution aimed at redressing inequality by providing black people with access to land for either productive or residential purposes; while land restitution is intended to return land to the original owners who were forcibly removed from their land. The land tenure provides labour tenures with secure tenure meaning ownership or occupancy rights of land (DLA, 1997).

The emphasis of this study is on one of the land restitution initiatives called the Communal Property Association (CPA). This model was established as landholding institution (Cousins & Hornby, 2002) on behalf of groups within a community who mobilize and organize themselves as legitimate groups to obtain title deeds to land under the restitution scheme (Republic of South Africa, 1996). *The Communal Property Act* of 1996 provides for the registration of CPAs; guideline for CPA constitution; outlines minimum oversight procedures required of the government in respect of CPA (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). The primary purpose of CPAs is to improve the life of its beneficiary community. Hence, it is imperative for CPAs to adopt and implement a diversified land use strategy with a view to achieve sustainable livelihood. The diversification of land use strategies could have an impact on wellness of the beneficiaries through changes in production or return investment (Hall, 2007; Lahiff, Maluleke, Manenzhe, & Wegerif, 2008). Studies have been done regarding the impact of land reform programs, more specifically the effectiveness of land restitution related CPAs. Previous research focused much on the governance of CPAs, the impact on poverty alleviation, and factors contribute to its effectiveness. It has been noted that inadequate research has been done on land restitution related CPAs and sustainable livelihood in rural areas of South Africa. Therefore, this study addressed the question, "what is the effect of land restitution related CPAs on sustainable livelihood?" to broaden the current knowledge on land reform in South Africa.

In light of the above context, the overall objective of this study was to examine the effect of restitution related CPAs on rural livelihood with reference to Tale Ga- Morudu CPA in Blouberg municipality, Limpopo province. In particular, this study investigates the various types of livelihood benefits derived including, income generation, cultural wellbeing, food production, skills development, employment creation and access to natural resources by beneficiaries. The Tale Ga-Morudu CPA was established in 2004 for the purpose of acquiring, controlling and managing 17 progressively settled and awarded farms, which were restored back to the original owners of the land.

2. Literature Review

The concept livelihood entails the means of survival or making a living, which suggests that people can

use various means such as employment, income, land, natural resources, skills, finances and produced food to make a living (Shackleton & Hebinck, 2011). CPAs as land holding entities should develop and implement strategies on how the land will be utilised and by whom. Hall (2007) suggests that CPAs have to make decision on the following issues: develop appropriate land use plan by engaging relevant experts; consider direct use of land resource for food production and income generation than depending on joint ventures and partnerships; Keep record of a baseline data of its members to monitor changes on livelihoods derived from land use; and develop a comprehensive business plan that considers the needs and priorities of its members. Manenzhe and Lahiff (2007) advise CPAs to plan for different types of land use to enhance sustainable livelihood such as residential settlement, crop cultivation, grazing for livestock, harvesting of natural resources, game farming, tourism, leasing out of land, strategic partnerships, accessing financial resources such as credit and savings, recreational facilities and other agriculturally related activities.

2.1 Conceptualising Restitution and Sustainable Livelihood

Restitution is described as a right-based program, conceived as a form of restorative justice that is ingrained within a community-based natural resource management system (Fourie cited in Fourie & Schoeman, 2010). Sustainable livelihood refers to various types of assets or capitals within a community such as: human capital (education and skills); social capital (infrastructure and assets); physical capital (money and loans); natural capital (land, water and vegetation) (Fourie & Schoeman, 2010). It is evident that CPAs have potential impact on sustainable livelihood which could be determined by the extent of adoption of diverse land use strategies on restituted land.

2.2 The Implementation of Land Restitution and CPA's

Obeng-Odoom (2012) argues that land reform in South Africa have not been as effective as promised. On the other hand, Ayuk (2007) pointed out that land reform has resulted in change in access to land, but not much in economic development such as in income, employment, nutrition and education. On the other hand, Cousins, & Dubb (2013) argue that many land reform projects have improved the

incomes and livelihoods of those who received land despite inadequate government support for planning and production, and in face of severe resource constraints. Regarding CPAs, there are about 14 success cases recorded in different part of the country in terms of CPAs level of compliance and whether its members derive benefits from their ownership of land (DRDLR, 2017/2018). The reasons for success include: Compliance with governance; Maintaining production on their farms; Income generation activities; Employment creation; Paying out dividend annually to its members; Engaging strategic partnership.

There is a widespread agreement that the communal resource model as part of land restitution was not effective enough to achieve the purpose of land reform, which is increasing production towards local economic development and overall improvement of the livelihood of beneficiary households. (Sjaastad *et al.*, 2011; Bary, 2011). To support this view, Dikgang & Muchapondwa (2013) found that restituted land by claimants has no positive effect on poverty alleviation. However, a positive link to greater access to nature is established. The reasons for failures include: lack of functioning of the governing committee, conflicts within the committee, lack of skills, poor leadership are major causes for the failure (Dikgang & Muchapondwa, 2013; Bary, 2013).

According to Aliber & Cousins (2013), in South Africa at present, there is near consensus that land reform has been unsuccessful; broadly land reform is criticized for its slow pace and its performance regarding the livelihoods and production outcomes. Overall the impacts of land reform on the livelihood of beneficiaries have been mixed ranging from failed, modest to substantial improvements (Aliber & Cousins, 2013). It can be argued that there are mixed views over the achievement of land restitution related CPAs on the livelihood of its beneficiary members. Some researchers acknowledge the contributions of CPAs to improve household livelihoods (Andrew, Ainslie, & Shackleton, 2003; Shackleton & Hebinck, 2011). On the other hand, many CPAs have successfully claimed and restored their land but some were dysfunctional or failed to achieve their intended objectives. A study done by the Department of Land Affairs covering 179 restitution projects in South Africa revealed that of the 128 projects with agricultural developmental aims, 83% (106) did not achieve their objectives (Aliber, Maluleka, Manenzhe, Paradza, & Cousins, 2013). A study done by Barry (2011) illustrates the case

of dysfunctional CPA, the Elandskloof. The case of Elandskloof shows that commercial agricultural operations was ceased, harvestable resources and land itself was grabbed by community members, the management committees collapsed, and accounts were not paid.

Fourie & Schoeman (2010) explored the progress made with the implementation of the Nkumbuleni Land Claim in KwaZulu-Natal and concluded that the attainment of sustainable outcomes in post-settlement restitution support continues to be a challenge to policy-makers, as claims remain unsustainable. Poor communication between stakeholders, the narrow role municipalities play in restitution and conflicting governance structures between "traditional councils versus municipal councils" are seen as the main drivers of program failure. The most prominent challenges faced by land restituted CPAs is infighting and financial management (DRDLR, 2014/2015). For instance, Rama CPA was formed by claimants who acquired land in the North West just outside Ga-Rankuwa. When the land was restored there was a quarry operating on it. Problems started after the second executive committee was elected. A few months after the elections the committee had to co-opt a member because one committee member had resigned. Tension and infighting intensified when the co-opted member systematically got rid of the elected committees and co-opted his own committee members.

The Barolong community successfully claimed land just outside Potchefstroom area in North West. They opted for a CPA as their preferred type of land holding entity. After a year of operating the CPA collapsed because of widespread mismanagement. The members of the executive committee and the ordinary members used and sold the assets of the CPA for their personal gain. The Department intervened without success and applied for an Administration Order (DRDLR, 2014/2015). According to Lahiff *et al.* (2008) the failure of land reform is that planning for land use does not allow for diverse land use which encourages indirect land uses such as contract farming, rentals and partnership rather than more direct use of restituted land. Furthermore, land use should also offer beneficiaries the opportunity to harvest natural resources. Emphasis also falls here on the need to consider the direct use value of agriculturally related resources if rural livelihoods have to be properly measured. For example, members can produce maize, vegetables and groundnuts for consumption

and fetch firewood, collect thatch, medicinal plants and sand to build houses. The importance of direct use value is stressed by Dovie (2001) who assessed all incomes and direct use values and found that land based activities (livestock, cropping and natural resources) accounted about 57% of the total annual value per household.

As mentioned above, several challenges have been encountered by CPAs in South Africa. These include: poor implementation of CPA due lack of managerial and technical capacity. Another challenges faced by CPA are related to poor post-settlement support which resulted in lack of human, financial, material and information resources. It was equally important to mention limited support and oversight from the relevant government department and bodies. Other challenges included: lack of communication between officials and CPAs; the influence from traditional authorities trying to undermine the functions of CPAs. According to Centre for Law and Society (2015), the following are key constraints affecting CPAs performance:

- Long delays in transfer of title to a CPA undermine the authority of a CPA committee, and the uncertainty that ensues allows opportunists to challenge or take control of the CPA.
- In some CPAs there is abuse of power by the committee and powerful CPA members and neglect or abuse of ordinary members. Committees are sometimes unaccountable. But it is not clear who CPA members can appeal to when conflict or abuse occurs.
- Substantive rights of CPA members are often not clearly specified. Women's land rights are often particularly vulnerable and insecure.
- The processes by which CPAs are set up and offered assistance pay little attention to land tenure realities and dynamics on the ground. Many CPAs have constitutions that have been 'cut-and-pasted' from other CPAs, and are therefore out of sync with local land tenure practices. They establish rules that are impossible for people to comply with.

3. Methods and Materials

The case study, Tale Ga-Morudu CPA, was established in 2004 in terms of the *CPA Act No 28 of 1996*

for the purpose of acquiring, controlling and managing 17 progressively settled and awarded farms. The population of this study include all 235 beneficiary members of Tale Ga-Morudu CPA households who are distributed among five settlements, namely Langlaagte/Vergelegen, Matekereng, Ga-Mankodi, Letswatla, and Mamoleka. This study adopted a survey research design and 45 respondents out of 235 were selected using a random sampling technique. A structured questionnaire was to collect data from the sample unit of 45 households. The questionnaire was administered in person by the researcher and respondents who cannot read and write were assisted in filling the questions. It was composed of variables and related questions as identified in the conceptual framework. The data collected were coded and categorised for simple descriptive analysis using statistical software SPSS. The results were cross-examining in the light of relevant theories and literature review.

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents results from the survey under the following subheadings: biographical profiles of respondents, income generated, cultural wellness, employment opportunities, skills transfer and other livelihood benefits derived from natural resources and game hunting.

4.1 Biographical Details of Respondents

The demographic profiles of households reveal that 73% (33) of the respondents were males whereas 27% (12) were females respectively. The average age of respondents was 45 years. And 56% (25) were within the age category of 51 years and above. The finding highlights the fact that rural women and youth were marginalised and inadequately represented in the CPA. A total of 56% (25) of the respondents were found to have no formal education; while 31% (14) of the head of household have some primary education and only 13% (6) of the heads of the households possess some secondary education. In rural areas, the level of education is very low attributable to inadequate access and higher level of poverty.

On average each household has nine dependents. This entails that traditional rural household has large family size owing to illiteracy, lack of knowledge and cultural influences. A total of 67% of respondents reported that they had opportunities

to generate additional income from off-farm means, including social grants (old age pension and child support grants), wages and spaza shops. Rural households support themselves with diversified livelihood mechanisms in order to minimize risks associated with farming.

4.2 Income Generated from Different Types of Land Use Management

The finding indicates 49% (22) of respondents reported that the income they generate from both farming and off-farm activities cannot sustain their family in terms of their various household expenses such as medication, food and utensils. The finding from the survey showed that 73% households knew that the CPA has made income from various types of land use even though they did not know how much was generated by the CPA from the restituted land. The CPA generates income from contract farming, rentals and strategic partnership. All the beneficiary households 100% (45) indicated that the dividends from indirect types of land use were not distributed to beneficiaries hence they did not benefit.

4.3 Cultural Wellness of Beneficiaries Derived from Restituted Land

This question was meant to assess contribution on the cultural wellness of the households as well as their sense of satisfaction that they had because of access and ownership of their forefathers' land. According to the finding 60% (27) of households indicated that they had access to perform rituals on the restored farms. About 22.2% (10) of households strongly disagreed, meaning they did not agree to ritual practices on the restituted farms. Some of rituals involved calling on ancestors that had passed away and was commonly practised to dispel bad luck, for protection, praying for good health for family members, asking for good rain and wealth. These rituals often involved slaughtering of goats, sheep or cattle.

4.4 Livelihood Benefits Derived from Natural Resources and Game Hunting

Almost 89% (40) of the respondents indicated that they were allowed to collect firewood all the time; whereas 47% (21) have access to medicinal plants all the time. These include natural resources roof tiles, sand, stones and fence materials from the restituted farms. Respondents were also asked to indicate if

they hunted game animals (kudus, impalas, springboks, zebras and rabbits) for their own consumption. According to the findings, 98% (44) of beneficiary households did not benefit from these animals as well as game in Wonderkop Game Reserve because the CPA Constitution did not protect and enforce the households' right to freely hunt game for meat consumption. Respondents were also asked to determine whether they had access or to what extent they fished in Glen Alpine dam. According to the finding, 80% (36) of beneficiary households did not have access to fish from Glen-Alpine dam.

4.5 Employment Opportunities and Skills Transfer by Contract Farming

Contract farming was practised by two commercial farmers who leased some 135 hectares from the CPA in order to cultivate crops such as tomatoes; potatoes; pumpkins and maize. The finding shows 38% (17) of the respondents were fully employed by the contract farmers; while 29% (13) were seasonally employed. The seasonal employment opportunities included harvesting of seasonal crops while full time workers engaged in preparing the soil for cultivation, maintenance work on machinery irrigation system and fence, supervision of workers, operation of tractors and transporting goods. This was a meaningful contribution because 235 people had taken advantage of employment opportunities created contract crop farming for additional income. In addition, Saltlake guesthouse employed 4 domestic workers while livestock grazing created jobs for 54 herders. Additionally, 48% (22) of the respondents claimed that they had received crop cultivation skills from contract farming. It shows that contract farming is an important strategy in terms of building capacity of beneficiary community.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The CPA land use and development plan 2007 proposed eight different types of land use management composed of agricultural activities and other alternative land uses, namely, food gardens and resettlement; game farming, poultry enterprises; contract livestock grazing; contract crop cultivation; rental and strategic partnership. The study, however, highlighted that food gardens, resettlement and poultry enterprises of direct land use management were not practised by the households. The failure to implement all of them was due to a lack of post settlement support programme in the form

of capital input, technical skills, mentoring as well as an omission from the CPA Constitution to protect and enforce use rights for households.

Despite inadequate post-settlement support, the CPA had substantially improved cultural wellbeing and access to natural resources by the beneficiary households by developing their sense of ownership and exercising their right to perform rituals at graves on farms. Other types of indirect land use managed to generate income which the CPA committee said all revenues were saved in the CPA account, but households did not benefit from accrued dividends or lease of land where their rights were not protected in the CPA Constitution at all. It was also found that income generation and food production failed to meet the expectation of beneficiary households. However, the CPA had achieved moderate impact on employment creation and skills development regarding crop production. It can be concluded that the CPA was underutilizing and inadequately managing most of its arable and irrigable fields. It initially planned to allocate land for contract crop farming and food gardens. Livestock grazing contributed very little to the wellness of the households.

This study recommends that the CPA should compile a socio-economic profile of all households in order to enable the CPA to know the needs of their households. It needs to promote inclusive approaches to involve groups, women and youth, within the beneficiary community that have been excluded from making decisions by providing them with opportunities, resources and support they need to be empowered.

For the households of this CPA to systematically implement resettlement and food gardens and other agricultural activities, it is of cardinal importance that complimentary support services be sought from Rural Development and Land Reform together with Limpopo Department of Agriculture and the Local Municipality to develop a comprehensive strategy for a pilot project on one of the arable and irrigable farms.

The CPA and Limpopo Department of Economic Development, Environment and Tourism should review their co-management agreement with a purpose to develop short, medium and long term objectives in a five-year development plan. Those should address the sustainable use of the resources biased towards households' livelihoods

of employment, skills development, progressive shares and investment; increased hunting packages and empowerment of households through small groups' ownership of game.

The CPA should together with the local municipality, Department of Water Affairs and Sanitation and Limpopo Department of Economic Development, Environment and Tourism initiate a consultative forum that will among others, consider a co-management agreement over Glen Alpine dam and its natural resources.

The current underutilised farm houses should be allocated to stakeholders and eligible households for pilot food gardens and resettlement.

The majority of households do not have cattle, it is therefore recommended that the CPA develops a programme to distribute pregnant heifers, weaners and bulls to small groups of households starting with those who do not have cattle in order to encourage them to become livestock farmers who will use their own farms for grazing rather than leasing them out to non-owners.

The CPA should develop transparent and accountable leadership to enable fair distribution of dividends and to maintain the benefits derived from restituted land such as cultural wellness, livelihood, employment and skills transfer through promotion of direct land use strategies on its farms.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform should strengthen post-settlement support in terms of training, extension services, management capacity, skills development and adequate resources.

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Line Managers as Catalysts of the Effectiveness of the Performance Management Systems: A Case of a Public Higher Education Institution

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Abstract: This paper analyses the perceptions of the employees on the role played by their line manager in ensuring the success of the performance management system. This paper builds on earlier studies, which found that most performance management systems fail irrespective of how good the systems appear to have been designed. Since line managers are regarded as the gatekeepers of the performance management systems in most organisations, it is therefore, essential to analyse employees' perceptions with regard to the role of their line managers in ensuring that the performance management systems become effective. The study followed a quantitative methodology. Data was collected through a self-administered quantitative survey questionnaire, which was distributed online. Census sampling method was used in which the whole target population were sent a questionnaire to a total of 1775 academic staff in the case university. Approximately 313 questionnaires were returned and analysed. A one-sample t-test was conducted to analyse data. The results revealed that the academic staff members were satisfied with their performance management system because they trusted their line managers in respect of performance management matters. Employees perceive their managers to be knowledgeable about performance management process. Moreover, the results indicate that employees tend to accept the performance management systems that embrace trust, fairness, as well as a guaranteed confidentiality from their line manager. In addition, the results further shed some light that a good line manager-employee relationship that is based on trust or a two-way approach in the performance management process result in highly satisfied employees in terms of their performance ratings, which ultimately translate into successful performance management systems. This paper concludes that a performance management system should be designed in such a way that it is applied consistently to all employees and must take into consideration employees' inputs.

Keywords: Distributive justice, Interactional justice, Line managers, Performance management system, Procedural justice

1. Introduction

One of the biggest challenges put on business leaders by the influx of globalisation is their ability to promote sustainable human resource policies that can heighten the performance of the organisation (Imran, Arif, Cheema & Azeem, 2014). Such policies include a policy on attracting, developing, retaining, empowering, managing performance and rewarding a diverse array of appropriately skilled people with an endeavour to improve organisational performance. This approach calls for a strong observation of the daily activities of their processes through a performance management system (PMS) simply because organisations rely on its employees for survival. In other words, the development of a PMS at the individual level supports performance management (PM) at the organisational level (Decramer, Christiaens and Vanderstaenten (2008). Idemobi and Onyeizugbe (2011) further suggest that PM is an

instrument that focusses on managing the individual and the work environment in such a manner that an individual or team can achieve set organisational goals. This extends to the educational sector since excellence is not just for goods produced in the factory but excellence in education is also mandatory. Excellence in general terms means the quality, value or the worth placed on a particular thing. Debates about excellence in university teaching have been gaining prominence since the late 1990s (Little, Locke, Parker & Richardson, 2007, MacGregor, 2016).

The monitoring of work of the academics was neglected in higher education institutions (HEIs) in the past. This led to HEIs to operate on "high trust" mode that allowed more freedom given to the academic staff without any monitoring system (Molefe, 2012). Unfortunately, the self-directed nature of such institutions together with the idea of academic autonomy raises some challenges for university management

in their endeavour to promote an effective performance assessment and management system (Broad & Goddard, 2010). As a result, the introduction of PMS of some sort in HEIs to monitor and manage the performance of their academic staff to ensure that the investment is justified. This means that the HEIs institutions are managed applying the same ideologies used in the private sector, which may be counterattacked by the academics who appreciated the academic freedom and self-directness over a long time (Mapesela, 2004).

The literature recommends that line managers are in the right position to monitor employee performance (Hutchinson & Purcell, 2008; Ngcamu, 2012; Aguinis, 2014; Armstrong, 2014). Aguinis and Pierce (2007) argue that if employees believe that their line manager has the ability to influence vital tangible and intangible rewards such as financial rewards, recognition, then the PMS is likely to be more meaningful and stands a chance to prosper. Since the success of any PMS depends on the opinions of employees, it becomes crucial to analyse and examine how employees perceive the way their line managers manage their performance. Accordingly, this study aims to analyse the perceptions of the academic staff at the case university on the part played by their line managers in safeguarding that the institution's PMS is bear fruits it is expected to bear.

2. Performance Management System

Performance management is not performance appraisal. Nayab (2011) describes performance appraisal as a limited and responsive function of assessing past performance, undertaken once or twice a year. Similarly, Aguinis, Joo and Gottfredson (2011) also view performance appraisal as the illustration of the strengths and weaknesses of employees in a non-continuous manner, usually just once a year. It must be noted that performance appraisal is a key element of performance management (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Performance management is much more than just assessing performance (Aguinis, 2014; Wörnich, Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield, 2018). Aguinis (2014:3) defines PM as "a continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with strategic goals of the organisation". In this context, the concept of PM is constructed on the supposition that clarifying measureable and rewardable work program leads to organisational success (Bussin, 2017).

Doubts about the success of PMS systems have long-persuaded scholars and specialists to find out ways of gauging it (Sharma, Sharma & Agarwal, 2016; Bussin, 2017). In fact, the PMS has not always helped achieving the desired results as expected (Naji, Mansour & Leclerc, 2015). Additionally, the history of PMS at the South African universities is not a success story as the academic staff perceives it as a management tool intended at harsher and close supervision (Ngcamu, 2012); which is in conflicting with the unique academic freedom academics enjoyed for a long time (Decramer *et al.*, 2008; Molefe, 2012). Therefore, a good relationship between evaluators (line managers) must be established in order to achieve a buy-in from employees and eventually, positive perception concerning the PMS, and acceptance of the system thereof.

3. Line Managers

A line manager is someone who has direct supervisory accountability, normally for non-managerial employees, and are located at the lower levels of management ladder, often the first-line level (Hutchinson & Purcell, 2003). Other words used interchangeably with this concept in the literature are supervisor, team leader and front-line manager. Line managers are considered as gate-keepers of the PMS. This is because they are well-informed about strategic issues of the organisation, understand performance and are generally in charge of managing performance on a daily basis (Aguinis, 2014; Armstrong, 2014). This therefore makes them appropriate source of performance information, only if they have the required skills (Bussin, 2017). However, the PMS of any organisation depends mainly on whether the line managers respects and maintains confidentiality in all dealings, including PM matters (Aguinis, 2014). In spite of the line managers been seen as the appropriate people to assess employee performance, Armstrong (2014) and Lauritsen (2018:21) argue that they are not doing this very well. This is due to the subjective and multifaceted nature of the PM process and less training in this process; which results in line managers to be unwilling and lack commitment in its application (Hutchinson & Purcell, 2008; Hirsh, Brown, Chubb & Reilly, 2011; Armstrong, 2014). Therefore, since the line managers are considered to be the main role-players in the successful execution of the PMS it is crucial to scrutinise how their subordinates perceive the way they implement this system.

4. Performance Management in Higher Education

The utmost important roles of the higher education (HE) institution system in any community apart from teaching and learning (T&L) are construction of new knowledge, research work and community services. Consequently, South African HE received extraordinary attention from the larger society, and it is still facing extraordinary challenges (Council of Higher Education, [CHE] 2010). In essence, 'higher education' means all learning programmes which must be registered in accordance with the provisions of the National Qualifications Framework Act, 2008 (Act No. 67 of 2008), as a qualification or part-qualification on the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQSF), irrespective of whether such programmes are in fact registered or not on the sub-framework" (Higher Education Amendment Bill, 2015:1). Since 1994, government's support for HE has been noteworthy. The funding of universities has been on an upward movement, from R11 billion in 2006 to R16.3 billion in 2013, 2016 and 2019 respectively (Higher Education South Africa [HESA], 2014, Budget Speech SA, 2016, Budget Speech SA, 2019). This is the highest rates of public investment in education in the world (SAinfo reporter, 2013). Accordingly, universities are increasingly expected to become responsible for their own input and process conditions, which resulted in top management in HEIs to embark on monitoring and managing the performance of their staff in general, including academic staff. This is done with a view to encourage quality in T&L and increased research outputs. In other words, HEIs became more 'entrepreneurial', and research in these institutions has been 'commercialised' (CHE, 2010; Sawyerr, 2004). One of the systems designed to monitor the work of academics in the HEIs is the PMS, which is not well accepted by academics (Mapesela, 2004; Ndambakuwa, 2006; Molefe, 2012, Nzuve & Monica, 2012). The main challenge is that PMS are comparatively new to education, having its origins from industry and the commercial environment, and they are therefore commonly seen with a high degree of mistrust by academics particularly (Barret & Barret, 2008; Parsons & Slabbert, 2001).

5. Employee Perceptions

"The success or failure of every organisation relies on how well its employees perceive fairness in its policy application" (Dartey-Baah, 2014:1). Ahmed, Ramzan, Khushi and Islam, (2011) define a perception as a

process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. However, it should be noted that perceptions can be diverse from the reality objective because different people have different behaviours and thoughts, therefore they will be disagreement among people view (Kaleem, Jabeen & Twana, 2013). According to these scholars, a person's perception is influenced by their personal characteristics, which include a person insolences, persona, intentions, interests, past experiences and anticipations. The perception of fairness towards the PMS is a vital for realising employee's satisfaction (Naji, Mansour & Leclerc, 2015, Vveinhardt & Papšiene, 2013, Luthra & Jain, 2012). For employees to counter the PM practices in their organisation, they should first perceive these practices as unbiased and reasonable. For instance, if employees perceive the PMS as subjective, partial and lacking rigour, it is unlikely that they will accept the finales of the system.

In other words, a good perception about PMS will create a affirmative working environment in the organisation while a negative perception will create a lot of harms to the organisation and finally will affect the company performance (Kaleem *et al.*, 2013). However, a good line manager-employee relationship can reduce negative perception by applying reasonable and impartial PM practices, which is referred to as organisational justice (Greenbeg, 1990). According to Greenberg (1990), justice or fairness refers to the idea that an action or decision is morally correct, which may be defined according to ethics, religion, fairness, equity or law. Greenberg (1990) further identified three types of justices that if applied in the organisation can enhance commitment among employees which are distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Distributive justice is built on the principles of Adams' (1963) equity theory. According to this theory, people compare their own perceived work outcomes (rewards) in relation to their own perceived work inputs (contributions) with the corresponding ratios of a co-worker (Adams, 1963). In other words, employees compare themselves with other employees to find out whether they are being treated fairly. On the other hand, procedural justice is concerned with justice of procedures, that is, how a specific decision was reached. For instance, if an employee is rated negatively by the line manager during a performance review, chances are that such an employee may question either the reliability, ethicality or accurateness of the procedure followed to

arrive at the final decision (negative rating). Lastly, interactional fairness reflects the quality of relations with the decision maker, that is, in terms of whether the decision maker acts with respect and dignity and provides suitable and rational reasoning to the workers. In brief, in order to create positive perceptions in employees regarding the organisation's PMS, the all three types of justices discussed must be perceived to be present by employees.

6. Methods and Materials

This was study case study in nature, a census survey methodology was deemed more suitable. Descriptive statistics were applied to process and analyse biographic information, while inferential statistics were employed using the one-way t-test to test for the means and significant level of the respondents' answers to the questionnaire items. 1 775 academic staff members of the open distance learning (ODL) institution were surveyed. Data was collected from the primary participants through a self-structured, self-constructed questionnaire consisting of four sections. Each of these sections was measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (anchored on 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 5 = strongly agree'). Out of the targeted sample of 1 775, only 492 questionnaires were received back from the respondents, out of which only 313 questionnaires (which constitute 18% of the target population) were entirely and properly completed; therefore, usable for statistical analysis.

A five-point Likert scale (anchored on 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) were used for each of the 11 items. The eleven items were intended to establish the extent to which academics perceive their line manager to be playing any role to ensure that the PMS is effectively implemented. The assumption was that there is a relationship between how academics perceive the way their line managers implement the PMS and the success of the system. The aim of the researcher therefore was to see if this was correct and to further establish to what extent.

7. Results and Discussion

To analyse data, a one-sample t-test was used, which tests whether a population mean is considerably different from some theorised value. One-sample t-test is more suitable when the research involves only one measurement variable, and the researcher intends to match the mean value of the measurement variable with some hypothetical anticipations. The current

study measured the perceptions of all academic staff (regardless of their positions) in the case university regarding the role of their line managers in the implementation of the PMS, which suggests a variable with only one-measurement. The following section presents the statistical results and discussion of results. The results from the one-sample t-test statistics are depicted in Table 1 on the following page.

From the results the most of the respondents agree that the line managers play a vital role in safeguarding that the PMS become effective. The respondents further showed that they are content with their managers evaluating their performance. Managers' role in the application of PMS cannot be over-emphasised as they provide verdict in evaluating how employees perform. For managers to successfully pass such a decision, they need more information regarding what needs to be considered when providing performance scores, and further essentially, must be able to correctly rationalise the evaluation scores to employees, in case they require such. The following section presents the respondents views on the 11 items asked.

7.1 My Line Manager is in a Good Position to Review My Performance

The results of this question showed that most of the respondents do not perceive their reporting line managers to be properly positioned to evaluate their individual performances (\bar{x} 3.42 & σ 1.248). These results deviate however from the recommendations of Aguinis (2014) who claims that managers are commonly in a better location to monitor and assess the performance of their employees relative to strategic organisational goals. This is because managers have the accountability to operationalise strategic goals which they in turn use as a principle in reviewing the performance of individual employees who work directly under their supervision.

7.2 My Line Manager is Knowledgeable in Implementing the Performance Management System

Whether of managers had adequate knowledge of implementing the PMS was not in doubt with statistical results of \bar{x} 3.45 and σ 1.168 respectively. This is concurring with the study by CIPD (2005) which found that 57% of organisations that took part agree that they train those involved in performance appraisal. Oddly however, this result could not be

Table 1: Results of One-Sample t-Test Statistics

One-sample statistics				
The Role of Managers in Ensuring the Effectiveness of the Performance Management System				
	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Q.1 My manager is in a good position to review my performance.	313	3.42	1.248	0.071
Q.2 My manager is knowledgeable in implementing the performance management system.	313	3.45	1.168	0.066
Q.3 My manager applies the performance management system in accordance with the institutional policy.	313	3.49	1.115	0.063
Q.4 It is possible to provide evidence of my performance to my manager in order to justify my ratings.	313	3.74	1.115	0.063
Q.5 My manager gives me the rating that I have earned even if it might upset me.	313	3.40	1.139	0.064
Q.6 My manager gives me the rating that I have earned even if it might upset the manager.	313	3.23	1.149	0.065
Q.7 My rating is the result of my manager trying to avoid bad feelings among employees.	313	2.20	1.089	0.062
Q.8 My manager provides me with clear explanations that justify the ratings I get for my work.	313	3.29	1.164	0.066
Q.9 My manager judges the work I perform, not me as an individual.	313	3.47	1.138	0.064
Q.10 My manager rates employee performance consistently across all employees.	313	3.03	1.167	0.066
Q.11 I have an opportunity to ask my manager to clarify my ratings.	313	3.77	1.028	0.058

Source: Author

maintained by Flaniken (2009) who found that many organisations fail to provide managers with adequate performance management training, which make managers less knowledgeable to evaluate employee performance. Another study further indicated that line managers lack adequate capability to apply human resource management (HRM) policies, and that they are not interested in implementing HRM yet preparedness is essential for someone to perform effectively (Terhalle, 2009). The instant result could maybe be due to insufficient training by management of the case institution resulting from lack of consultation and participation of all interested parties in the design and execution of the PMS as revealed in the earlier findings of this paper. Haines and St-Onge (2012) reiterated that organisations that provide more PM training have PMS that bring more esteemed results.

7.3 My Line Manager Applies the Performance Management System in Accordance with the Institutional Policy

The PMS implementation should be directed by the appropriate institutional policy. To this end

the respondents were asked if this was the case. Although a most of the respondents concurred with this statement (\bar{x} 3.49), this result could not be regarded as precisely illustrative of the respondents with a σ 1.115. Even though data concerning the PMS is accessible on the institution's Intranet, a sensible number of respondents could not establish whether managers implemented the system in according to what the policy of the institution prescribes. This perhaps could be the cause for the conflicting degree of standard deviation documented (σ 1.115). The result in this study thus replicates a commendation by Aguinis (2014) that PM policy must be established and applied in such a way that it directs managers and employees on how to handle PMS issues.

7.4 It is Possible to Provide Evidence of My Performance to My Line Manager in Order to Justify My Ratings

This question was asked in order to determine whether it is possible for the respondents to make available to their line managers evidence of their performance in order to validate their performance ratings. The statistical evidence (\bar{x} = 3.74) indicated

that the respondents are keen to provide evidence of their performance for the purpose of performance rating by their managers. Again, this could not be said to accurately represent the perception of the respondents given the discrepancy of the standard deviation ($\sigma = 1.115$) from the mean. This perception could be responsible for the contrast in this study to that of Flaniken (2009), who argued that most work outcomes in organisations are realised due to team-work rather than individual effort, thus making reviewing individual performance inappropriate to assess employees' performance in such organisations. In the surveyed institution, however, most of the respondents agreed that it is possible for them to provide evidence to their line managers to validate their performance ratings.

7.5 My Line Manager Gives Me the Rating that I Have Earned Even if it Might Upset Me

The respondents were asked whether they believe that their line managers give them the rating they have earned even if it might upset them. The respondents did not agree on this question in general, given the mean statistic of ($\bar{x} = 3.4$) and the standard deviation of $\sigma = 1.139$. However, it could be concluded that there was evidence that managers do provide academic staff members with ratings proportionate with their work performance. This result also found support in the work of Flaniken (2009) and Aguinis (2014), who argue that raters should focus on the work standards and goals set in the beginning of the PM cycle when evaluating employees and give them feedback on whether they were achieved or not.

7.6 My Line Manager Gives Me the Rating that I Have Earned Even if it Might Upset the Manager

The responses attained to this question almost relate to those in the previous question. Most of the respondents were not totally sure whether their managers get disappointed with the ratings that have been given to them (academic staff). The statistical evidence showed a mean of $\bar{x} = 3.74$ and a standard deviation of $\sigma = 1.149$. This result coincided with results by Aguinis (2014), who emphasises that managers must at all cost avoid stick to constructive criticism when evaluating employee performance, regardless of how disappointed they are with their performance. This will help to reduce negative feeling and chances for conflict.

7.7 My Rating is the Result of My Line Manager Trying to Avoid Bad Feelings Among Employees

Findings of the previous research, for instance Flaniken (2009) emphasised that managers should rate employees in based on predetermined goals and standards, no matter how employees feel. Likewise, Aguinis (2014) cautions that managers should always be positive when providing employees with their performance feedback in order to minimise negative feelings and conflict. The result of the present study showed $\bar{x} = 3.4$ and $\sigma = 1.139$, proposing that the most of the respondents disagreed that they are given ratings by their managers in order to avoid bad feelings. The respondents believed that their ratings are impartial and that their ratings are without any prejudice by their managers.

7.8 My Line Manager Provides Me with Clear Explanations that Justify the Ratings I Get for My Work

Most of the respondents indicated that they were not sure whether they get validations from their managers to defend the ratings they get. The results obtained showed a little above average ($\bar{x} = 3.29$) with $\sigma = 1.164$. These findings are in contrast with the findings of Karuhanga (2010), who found that a major problem with PMS was inadequate feedback to employees about their performance, and in some cases, it was discovered that there was no performance assessment at all.

7.9 My Line Manager Judges the Work I Perform, Not Me as an Individual

The results obtained from the respondents indicated that most of the respondents agreed that the ratings they get are in line with their work performance, rather than personality. These results, $\bar{x} = 3.47$ with $\sigma = 1.138$, provided further endorsement of the results attained in questions 12 and 13 respectively on the issues of impartiality and personality of their managers in carrying out the PM review.

7.10 My manager Rates Employee Performance Consistently Across All

The results showed in Table 1 indicated $\bar{x} = 3.03$ with $\sigma = 1.167$, suggesting that the respondents were neutral regarding the consistency in the way their managers handle the PMS. This finding could

be due to the fact that the PMS is conducted on a one-to-one basis between employees and their managers. Therefore, a comparison among individual performance ratings was not possible. The confidentiality nature of the PMS is promoted by the claim by Aguinis (2014), who stresses that managers should always reassure employees about the discretion of personal information composed from each of them.

7.11 I Have an Opportunity to Ask My Manager to Clarify My Ratings

Any open PMS should make it possible for employees to probe raters for clarification and possibly rationalisation of their performance rating. (Aguinis, 2014). Most of the respondents showed that they are given an opportunity to request explanations about their performance ratings from their managers. This results, $\bar{x} = 3.77$ and $\sigma = 1.028$, somewhat strengthened the findings obtained in Question 4, to the effect that employees received some kind of rationalisation concerning their ratings; and got clarity on how to improve their performance (if necessary) in the future. This finding was in agreement with earlier research results by Aguinis *et al.* (2011), who state that a PMS works as a vital communication tool that is two-way, as it make clear the types of activities and outcomes that are required and remunerated by the organisation; and at the same time provides a platform for employees to give inputs in relation to their work.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study aimed to determine how the respondents view the role their managers play to ensure that the PMS become effective. To adequately get into the bottom of this question and address this objective, several questions were developed and tested. Most of the respondents indicated that they are satisfied with their managers assessing their performance. They showed that their managers have satisfactory knowledge about vital features of their occupations and are therefore the most appropriate people to assess their performance. The respondents further indicated that they do not perceive any biasness from their managers when providing them with the ratings they allocate and that they receive enough feedback concerning their performance.

The majority of the respondents in this study, however, showed that they are not sure whether their

managers rate performance consistently across all employees. This could be since performance-review meetings are confidential; therefore, it is difficult for individual employees to access details about other individuals' performance ratings. Accordingly, employees are unable to relate the performance ratings they get to what other co-workers received.

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Recruitment and Retention of Healthcare Professionals in the Public Health Sector: Focus at the Limpopo Department of Health

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Abstract: Recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals particularly, clinicians such as medical specialists and medical doctors is seen as a major challenge in the developing countries such South Africa. High vacancy rate of medical specialists and medical doctors at Regional and Tertiary hospitals presents an evidence of inability to attract and retain these categories of healthcare professionals in the health sector. This paper undertakes to reflect key recruitment and retention strategies of medical specialists and medical doctors for service delivery improvement specifically, the provision of quality health care services in the health sector. This paper sought to analyse recruitment and retention strategies that may be considered for the provision of quality health care services. In the process of analysing these recruitment and retention strategies, literature review was considered to determine various recruitment and retention strategies in the public health sector. It is observed that there are various key recruitment and retention strategies for scarce skills of clinicians such as medical specialists and medical doctors that may be considered to enhance the health system for the provision of quality health care services in the health sector. These recruitment and retention strategies among others include, monetary incentives, promoting work autonomy, career development, flexible working time and shift work, safety in the workplace and leadership and management.

Keywords: Health sector, Health system, Recruitment, Retention strategies, clinicians

1. Introduction

The health care system is established with mandate of ensuring that health care services are provided to citizens. For the health sector to meet its obligations, among others, requires adequate number of healthcare professionals. According to Alam (2009), the healthcare profession is regarded as one of the noblest professions across the globe. It is only natural that this profession is expected to demonstrate the highest standard of professionalism and quality health care services even under unfavourable conditions. This notion is supported by Alam and Haque (2010), who indicate that health care professionals are expected to adhere to the required standard even in the face of such adversity as unfavourable job environment, poor working conditions and low salaries. These factors are seen as impediment towards attracting and retaining healthcare professionals, particularly, critical scarce skills of clinicians, for instance medical specialists and medical officers.

Shortage of healthcare professionals is a global phenomenon that has gained increasing attention in the developed countries. This has been seen from European Union (EU) policymakers in recent years,

with major research projects, council conclusions and the start of Joint Action on Workforce Planning early in 2013 (Rose & Janse van Rensburg, 2015). For instance, the pronunciation of the debate on professional mobility at European level has often been on the streams of healthcare professionals from one country to another at the macro-level. However, as the debate regarding recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals gained momentum, the discussion has extended to include the role of local organisations. This has also been reflected in the growing body of EU-funded researches on the healthcare professionals and expanded to the public health organisations in the developing countries. It is worth noting that the health care system in public health sector is faced with a major challenge to meet the needs of citizens, particularly, in the developing countries such as South Africa due to shortage of healthcare professionals, specifically, clinicians such as medical specialists and medical doctors. The inability to recruit and retain the right staff is likely to have some adverse effects on the delivery of health care services, particularly on quality of care and costs. For example, in Zimbabwe, high vacancy rates resulted in the closure of some health care facilities and reduced access to quality health care services (Stilwell, 2001).

In South Africa, the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) introduced measures in an attempt to attract and retain critical scarce skills of professionals in the public service. For instance, the Public Service Bargaining Council, Resolution 1 of 2007, provide several incentive benefits such as occupation specific dispensation (OSD), rural allowances, commuted overtime and pay progressions. Despite, these measures being implemented, the South African public service is still experiencing high turnover of various categories of professionals. In the Limpopo Department of Health, for the period 2015/16 to 2018/19 financial years, the vacancy rate of medical specialists remains high at 72% while of medical officers revolving around 68% (Limpopo Department of Health Annual performance reports for 2015-2019). This high vacancy rate of healthcare professionals is usually having a negative impact on the provision of quality health care services.

This notion is also supported by the Auditor General of South Africa's (AGSA) reports for the same period (2015/16-2018/19 financial years). The AGS's reports revealed that a number of rules and regulations that apply to financial management and reporting matters were not observed as required in terms of policies, procedures and legislations. It is further noted in the AGSA's report (2015/16-18/19 financial years) that there were many instances of reporting on supply chain management (SCM) and service delivery that have been found to be inappropriate. It is further observed that poor performance, among others, is due to shortage of healthcare professionals (Auditor General of South Africa's reports for 2015-2019). This state of affairs could be an indication that the health system is experiencing some difficulties in attracting and retaining healthcare professionals, specifically scarce skills clinicians such as medical specialists and medical doctors in public health sector, specifically, in the Limpopo Department of Health. This is could be attributed to a lack of effective recruitment and retention strategies in the public health sector and highlight a need for exploring measures to recruit and retain healthcare professionals. In this regard, it became necessary that analysis of recruitment and retention strategies for healthcare professionals in the context of public health care sector be undertaken.

2. Recruitment and Retention Strategies

Health care facilities, particularly in the rural communities often face challenges in maintaining an

adequate healthcare professional, making it difficult to provide health care services and to meet staffing requirements for their healthcare facilities. Therefore, rural healthcare facilities should be proactive and strategic about recruiting and retaining healthcare professionals. (Rural Information Hub, 2019). Rose and Janse van Rensburg (2015) confirm that there is a global struggle to attract and retain healthcare professionals, especially scarce skills of clinicians such as medical specialist and medical doctors to rural areas. These authors further provide an understanding of recruitment and retention concepts that: recruitment focuses on attracting current healthcare professionals and medical students to open positions or to future positions, while retention focuses on keeping healthcare professionals employed in the healthcare facilities and communities.

Rose and Janse van Rensburg (2015) maintain that successful recruitment and retention practices can minimise the number and duration of staff vacancies, which can, in turn, save money, improve quality of care, and ensure that services are provided in the community. It is further observed that the scarcity of healthcare professionals contributes to a reduction in the quality and type of health services that are offered to the communities and a crippled health system is further weakened by a lack of healthcare professionals (Rose & Janse van Rensburg, 2015). It is important to note that in order to provide equitable care in underserved areas, like rural locations, it is necessary to ensure that healthcare professionals are attracted to and retained in the under-served areas. Anand and Barnighausen (2007) assert that "under-served areas" can be interpreted in the broadest sense as geographic areas where relatively poorer populations that have limited access to qualified healthcare providers and health services of adequate quality. It may include, for example, remote rural areas; remote islands; urban slum areas; areas that are in conflict or post-conflict; refugee camps; and areas inhabited by ethnic minorities or indigenous groups. Anand and Barnighausen (2007) further indicate that healthcare professionals are reluctant to serve at these areas.

Dolea, Stormont and Braichet (2010) argue that staffing-mix, which comprising all types of healthcare professionals are necessary for the provision of adequate services in rural areas. However, De Villiers and de Villiers (2004) point out several factors that are contributing to the shortage of healthcare

professionals in rural areas. These include inadequate supervision, poor referral and support structures, lack of appropriate equipment and drugs, and poor management structures. These authors further describe how factors such as remoteness, poor job satisfaction, job frustration, and occupational stress and community issues are negatively affecting healthcare professionals in rural areas. It is further observed that these factors are discouraging health care professionals to serve at remote and rural areas (De Villiers & de Villiers, 2004). Jelfs, Knapp, Giepmans and Wijga (2012:345) postulate that staff turnover is a natural and necessary process in the public health care facilities. However, when turnover becomes high and unacceptable it can have a detrimental effect such as burnout on the remaining health care professionals and resulting to poor health care services (Gray & Phillips, 1996; Tai, Bame & Robinson, 1998; Shields & Ward, 2001; Buchan, 2010; Simon, Müller & Hasselhorn, 2010). Bland & Jones, 2004; Waldman, Kelly, Arora & Smith, 2004; O'Brien-Pallas & Griffith; Shamian, 2006, are emphatic on the cost of healthcare professionals regarding high turnover, especially on the payment of overtime and recruitment of new employees.

It is worth noting that recruitment and retention strategies are required as intervention mechanisms to attract and retain healthcare professionals, particularly, in the rural areas. Hayes, O'Brien-Pallas, Duffield & Shamian (2006) in Jelfs, Knapp, Giepmans & Wijga (2012) highlight three factors that are usually considered as interventions on recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals. These factors include external factors such as general economic and labour market; individual factors such as educational level, length of service and non-professional commitments and organisational factors relating to the way in which health care facilities are managed. In this regard, Wiskow, Albrecht and Pietro (2010) provide a framework that can serve as an approach to effectively recruit and retain healthcare professionals in the health sector. This framework is based on three dimensions that are focusing on quality, for instance, employment quality, work quality and organisational quality. Jelfs, Knapp, Giepmans and Wijga (2012) differentiate these dimensions that: Employment quality refers to the contractual relationships between employer and employee; work quality refers to the material characteristics of the tasks that employees carry-out and the work environment in which they perform their work, and organisational quality relates to the

measure wherein the organisation is able to adapt to changes in the outside world.

Rabinowitz, Diamond, Markham and Paynter (2001) in their study conducted in Israel on critical factors for designing programs to increase the supply and retention of rural primary physicians, observed strategies that may assist in the recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals in the rural areas. For instance, a systematic review of financial incentives found that incentives targeting medical students who are struggling with tuition fees were somewhat successful in drawing medical specialists and medical doctors to rural areas. However, this was less effective when unenforced or a buy-out option is made available. Creating medical schools in rural areas is another strategy, which was tried in high, low and middle income areas in the Middle East (Rabinowitz *et al.*, 2001). Strategies to address the determinants of practice, such as increasing medical school and medical equipment may create confidence of healthcare professionals to remain employed in the rural areas. Successful policies and interventions are likely to address multiple dimensions of the problem. For example, programmes need to focus on retention and motivation of health workers in underserved areas as well as recruitment (Rabinowitz *et al.*, 2001).

Recent innovations in the 21st century mean that there are multiple avenues through which the problem relating to recruitment and retention of health care professionals can be addressed. For instance, the growing sophistication and capability of information technology (IT) holds some promise. Telemedicine programs in Australia have been used to increase referrals to medical specialists, but could also be used to enhance the supervision and support provided to healthcare professionals located in remote areas. Specialist outreach program, which aim to increase coverage by bringing specialist care out of the hospital, also create hope for the healthcare professionals in the rural areas. In addition to these strategies outlined in Rabinowitz *et al.* (2001), Aliyu, Mathew, Paul, Shinaba and Olusanya (2014) suggest various approaches that need to be taken into consideration to attract and retain healthcare professionals in the health sector. These approaches are briefly discussed below.

2.1 Policies on Personal Characteristics of Healthcare Professionals

Analysis of personal characteristics relating to age, gender and education can provide factors that need

to be taken into consideration when developing policies on recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals. For instance, Gray, Philipps and Normand (1996) and Murray (1999) point out that turnover rates are higher among younger workers due to flexibility and ambitions on their careers. Murray (1999) further indicates that more than 70% of those who are leaving health profession were aged between 26 and 35 years. However, the turnover rates may also be related to length of service (Aliyu *et al.*, 2014).

Some studies (Krausz, Koslowski, Shalom & Elaykim, 1995; Kirshenbaum & Mano-Negrin, 1999) suggest that nurses who are more educated would tend to consider other employment more than those who are less educated. Aliyu *et al.* (2014) maintain that this relationship could be explained by the fact that it is easier for better-educated people to consider other employment possibilities. Aliyu *et al.* (2014) further state that a lack of empirical data and the ethics of a policy on some specific personal characteristics explain why such a policy has not been systematically implemented. However, there could be some considerable benefits in recognising that younger, well-educated healthcare professionals are likely to develop their careers. This may result in healthcare professionals moving from one employer to another, or even changing professions. Offering good professional development opportunities, reflected in career structure and pay enhancement, may serve as a strategy to attract and recruit healthcare professionals. It is worth mentioning that older healthcare professionals are likely to be a more stable workforce. Therefore, policies to attract them back to work (for example, retraining, flexible shifts or child care facilities) should be considered (Aliyu *et al.*, 2014).

2.2 Monetary Incentives

Remuneration and financial incentives are usually seen as the most common approaches used to improve recruitment, retention, motivation and performance. Financial incentives include direct or indirect payment such as wages or salary, bonuses, pension, insurance, allowances, fellowships, loans and tuition reimbursement. Providing adequate and timely remuneration is important to guarantee the recruitment of motivated and qualified staff (Martinez & Martineau, 1998). Rabinowitz *et al.* (2001:108) accede that financial incentives focusing at healthcare professionals may need to be packaged together with interventions that address some of the structural barriers

to location in rural areas such as adjusting resource allocation mechanisms to enhance the resources available within the health system in under-served areas, or policies that specifically address career development for healthcare professionals in under-served areas.

However, the impact of monetary incentives seems to be unrealistic to attract and retain healthcare professionals, particularly in the developing countries as compared to developed countries. In their literature review of monetary incentives in the health professional's labour supply, Chiha & Link (2002) and Antonazzo, Scott, Skatun & Elliot (2003) found that there is poor positive relationship between monetary incentives and labour supply. For instance, wage and salary differentials between developed and developing countries, between the public and private sectors as well as the long delays in salary payment in the public sector are often likely to have an influence on recruitment and retention of the healthcare professionals in developing countries.

2.3 Promoting Work Autonomy

Work autonomy can be viewed as control over one's own work, and is among the key variables explaining job satisfaction of employees in the organisation (Aliyu *et al.*, 2014). Autonomy was reported to be significant in explaining health professional's job satisfaction in a study of reviewing nursing in hospitals (Gleason-Scott, Sochalski & Aiken, 1999). It has also been revealed that hospitals with supportive managers and favouring greater latitude in decision-making by staff experience lower turnover rates (Mason, 2000; Aiken, Havens, & Sloan, 2000). Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton (2001); Sousa-Pouza & Sousa-Pouza (2000); Vroom (1964) in Myung and Young Lee (2012) acceded that job satisfaction has been mostly used as a performance indicator in terms of reducing absenteeism and turnover and in terms of increasing productivity in the workplace.

2.4 Career Development

The possibility of career development for healthcare professionals is central in attracting and retaining healthcare professionals, especially in an environment characterised by a phenomenal growth in knowledge related to health sciences and technological advancement. It is observed that career development opportunities encourage the retention of healthcare professionals and provide the positive effects of

professional development opportunities. In addition, the provision of internal promotion opportunities has been shown as a means to reduce turnover of healthcare professionals in health facilities (Rambur, Palumbo, McIntosh & Mongeon, 2001; Kingma, 2003).

2.5 Adapting Flexible Working Time and Shift Work

Limitations on working hours and the provision of rest periods have a direct impact on the quality of services, particularly to healthcare professionals who are already over-burdened. The increased use of overtime and absenteeism is frequently cited as a key area of job dissatisfaction among healthcare professionals (Aliyu *et al.*, 2014) and flexible working time is often considered as a means of improving recruitment and retention of healthcare professionals. Although, problems of recruitment and retention of nurses in the developed countries such as United Kingdom (UK) and France persist, there are some indications of successful application of flexible working time and shift work (Arrow-Smith & Sisson, 1999; Frijters, Shields & Price, 2003).

2.6 Strengthen Safety of Healthcare Professionals in the Workplace

Unlawful attacks against healthcare professionals seem to be a serious concern and pose a threat to attract and retain healthcare professionals, particularly in the rural areas (Dalphon, Gessner, Giblin, Hijazi & Love, 2000). Violent acts against healthcare professionals arise mainly from patients, criminals and communities who are protesting against service delivery. It is observed that the most frequent violent acts often are described as bullying, physical violence and assaults (Jackson, Clare & Mannix, 2002). Some findings suggest that there is a direct relationship between aggression and increases in sick leave, burnout and staff turnover (O'Connell, Young, Brooks, Hutchings, & Lofthouse, 2000). Therefore, to strengthen safety of healthcare professionals in the workplace is likely to reduce turnover rate. The costs of improving nursing protection in the workplace should be balanced against the costs associated with the lost hours and turnover resulting from violence against healthcare professionals.

2.7 Healthy Leadership and Management

Leadership is defined as the process whereby individual influences group of people to achieve a

common goal, while management is described as the process of managing systems to realise such a common goal (Northouse, 1997). In the public health care sector, studies have found that leadership and management are positively correlated with healthcare professional's job satisfaction and commitment towards institutional goals (Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001). Boyle, Hansen, Woods & Taunton (1999) observed that manager's positional power and influence over work coordination had a direct relationship with attracting and retaining healthcare professionals in the health care facilities and also regarded as a source of job satisfaction of healthcare professionals. The study concluded that managers with leadership styles that seek and value contributions from staff and sound management systems, promote a climate in which information is shared effectively, involved decision-making, and influence coordination of work to provide a milieu that maintains a stable cadre of healthcare professionals.

In addition to these strategies, Rose and Janse van Rensburg (2015) suggest some of the recommendations as mechanisms to attract and retain healthcare professional, particularly, in the rural areas. These include, a focus on health professionals with a passion to serve rural areas should be identified, and their move to these areas well facilitated, establishment and strengthening of collaboration between the community and the health team needs to be promoted, establishment of health teams, rather than the employment of individuals, would facilitate a better work environment and encourage the retention of healthcare personnel in rural areas, good referral systems and strong management would encourage health professionals to remain in rural areas and distribution of medicine in the rural areas should be developed as an independent discipline.

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

The literature as discussed in this article has clearly analysed recruitment and retention strategies for healthcare professionals, particularly measures to attract and retain healthcare professionals in the rural areas. However, it is important to note that to identify and analyse such strategies is considered as one aspect while, implementation is another (Aliyu, Mathew, Paul, Shinaba, & Olusanya, 2014; Rose & Janse van Rensburg, 2015). Most suggested strategies usually fail at the implementation phase and therefore, it is necessary that effective

implementation measures be adapted in order to ensure that healthcare professionals are attracted and retained in the health care facilities.

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The Impact of Exchange Rate on Clothing Exports in South Africa

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Abstract: The exchange rate is an important macroeconomic variable used as a parameter for determining international competitiveness. It is regarded as an indicator of competitiveness of any currency of any country and an inverse relationship between this competitiveness exists. The study empirically examines the impact of the exchange rate on clothing exports in South Africa, for the period 1994Q1 to 2017Q4 by using the time series data from Quantec Easy Data and the South African Reserve Bank. The study uses a three-step estimation approach in the form of a unit root testing, cointegration analysis and the Vector Error Correction Model to determine the long-run and the short run relationships and to determine the level of impact of exchange rate on clothing exports. The results revealed the presence of a long-run and a negative relationship between the two variables under study. The findings and conclusions are valuable for the clothing sector and the government. The government should make South Africa's exchange rate to be a fixed exchange rate, so that South Africa exports more than it imports having a competitive advantage and more employment.

Keywords: Clothing exports, Clothing imports, Gross Domestic Product, Exchange rates

1. Introduction

The exchange rate is an important macroeconomic variable used as a parameter for determining international competitiveness. It is regarded as an indicator of competitiveness of any currency of any country and an inverse relationship between this competitiveness exists. To this end, the lower the value of the indicator in any country, the higher the competitiveness of the currency of that country will be. Exchange rate is the price of a nation's currency in terms of another currency. An exchange rate thus has two components, the domestic currency and a foreign currency, and can be quoted either directly or indirectly. In a direct quotation, the price of a unit of foreign currency is expressed in terms of the domestic currency. In an indirect quotation, the price of a unit of domestic currency is expressed in terms of the foreign currency (Arize, Malindretos & Kasibhatla, 2003).

An exchange rate that does not have the domestic currency as one of the two currency components is known as a cross currency, or cross rate. Exchange rate system includes set of rules, and arrangements

and institutions under which nations effect payments among themselves. Traditionally, gold exchange standard was used by the Bretton Woods for example the flexible rating system is currently being used in Nigeria. The flexible exchange rates are largely determined by market mechanism uses the forces of demand and supply. For 25 years after WWII, the international monetary system known as the Bretton Woods system was based on stable and adjustment exchange rates. Exchange rate was not permanently fixed, but occasional devaluations of individual currencies were accepted to correct fundamental disequilibria in the balance of payments (BOP). The ever rising attack on the dollar in the 1960's ended in the collapse of the Bretton Woods system in 1971, and it was unwillingly replaced with a regime of floating exchange rates (Obstfeld & Rogoff, 1995).

After the collapse of the Bretton Woods system, where countries were indulged to adopt monetary policies that maintained the exchange rates within a fixed value, many countries around the world started to undertake flexible exchange rate regimes. As this type of exchange rate system increased in

popularity, countries liberalised their economies and at the same time the effect of globalisation intensified resulting in economic cooperation and trade between countries. Because transactions between countries are priced in foreign exchange, the level and the speed of variability of the exchange rate became an important tool to determine countries' competitiveness in foreign markets and to estimate how much profit or loss the exporters could make from trading with foreign countries within a given time (Obstfeld & Rogoff, 1995).

The South African textile and clothing industry has a strong vision, aiming to use all the natural, human and technological resources at its disposal to make South Africa the favoured domestic and international supplier. Since 1994, about US\$900 million has been spent on updating and upgrading the industry, making it efficient, internationally competitive, and ready to become a major force in the world market. Exports account for R1,4 billion for apparel and R2,5 billion for textiles, mostly to the US and European markets. Exports to the US increased by a dramatic 62% in 2001, driven primarily by the benefits offered under the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) which provides for duty-free imports of apparel produced in South Africa (Morris & Barnes, 2014).

South Africa will find it increasingly difficult to compete with Far Eastern countries in low-cost low-value clothing production; the principal opportunities in textiles and clothing lie in the development of niche markets for products with strong local and international demand and in the move to higher-value production Owsley (2013). When the exchange rate increases, there will be a decrease in clothing exports. If a country's exports exceed imports, the demand for its currency rises and therefore, it has a positive impact on the exchange rate. On the other hand, if imports exceed exports, the desire for foreign currency rises and hence, exchange rate for such country moves up. Undoubtedly, any measure that tends to increase the volume of exports more than the rate of importation will definitely raise the value of the domestic currency. In the case of South Africa, the exchange rate is relatively low, however South Africa exports less than it imports. That has become a concern.

In 2009, China became South Africa's largest export market, ahead of the United States (US), and its largest supplier of imports, ahead of Germany.

These imports are overwhelmingly of manufactured goods, while South Africa's exports are mostly natural resources. The growth and composition of bilateral trade flows with China have fed concerns about deindustrialisation and become an issue in South Africa's engagement with China (Mail and Guardian, 2012). The common perception in South Africa is that the effects of the growth of trade with China has been negative for manufacturing, with several industries, most notably textiles and clothing, demanding increased protection from imports from China (Morris & Einhorn, 2008). The Free Trade Agreement between the South African Customs Union (SACU) and China first mooted in 2004 faced considerable opposition by business associations (Lennox, 2008) and unions (Mde, 2005) within South Africa. The current position of the ministry of trade and industry is that a conventional free trade agreement with China is not in the interest of the country (Langeni, 2012).

From the late 1980s onwards, the South African clothing and textile industry was increasingly exposed to international competition, a process that was accelerated when South Africa joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO) 's Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (ATC) in 1994 (van der Westhuizen, 2006). The South African government then introduced and implemented an economic policy that was aimed at promoting international openness, with the purpose of partially addressing the profitability and productivity problems in the manufacturing industry (Gelb, 2005). The tariffs were relaxed more quickly than was required by the ATC, which may have resulted in the industry being unprepared for rising imports, most of them coming from China. This also resulted in the industry being unable to compete with China in the clothing markets of the European Union (EU) and the US after the Multi-Fiber Arrangement (MFA) was abolished in 2004 (Biacuana, 2009). As a result, the exports potential has remained generally low, and is mainly concentrated in the EU and the US markets.

These exports consist mainly of basic product items that are possible in the preferential trade agreements that are duty and tariff-free. However, this has not improved the industry competitiveness, as the country's high cost structure makes it difficult to compete with low-cost competitors such as China, India, Turkey and Pakistan (Barnes, 2005). The clothing and textile industry was planned during a period of political isolation, when domestic production dominated the market (Barnes, 2005). As a

result, the industry was unable to obtain economies of scale, and, moreover, the industry is characterised by import substitution protection and it is finding it difficult to compete internationally due to a lack of investment capital and an inadequate technology base. Barnes (2005) further observed that during the 1990s, the adoption of trade liberalisation and the restructuring of the industry led to a rise in unemployment in the sector, whereas productivity increased purely due to cost minimisation and downsizing, rather than production growth. Therefore, foreign direct investment will be lower when there is higher exchange rate than when the exchange rate is steady. Decreased foreign investment may result in low aggregate output and reduced export volumes. Thus, reducing their exposure to countries with high exchange rate volatility as this will have a negative effect on their expected profits (Brodsky, 1984).

Between January 2002 and July 2005, the South African exchange rate has appreciated by more than 30 per cent. At the same time, there has been widespread news coverage of the decline in several manufacturing sectors, notably clothing and textiles. The Clothing and textile industry plays a significant role in the manufacturing sector of the South African economy in the logic that it is labour-intensive and makes job opportunities available to unskilled labour. The clothing and textile industry accounts for close to a fifth of the total manufacturing employment in the South African economy (IDC, 2014). However, its vulnerability to the world markets the clothing and textile industry faced with stagnating competitiveness and the loss of jobs. According to the IDC (2014), the textile industry employment trend has declined by 7.5%, while clothing and textile imports grew by 21.3% (higher than South African clothing and textile exports, which grew by only 6.9%) during the same period. There is also evidence of a decline in the production volumes and utilisation in the industry.

The current study investigates the impact of exchange rate on clothing export in South Africa. It is envisaged to assist policymakers and other industry stakeholders to promote development and towards a greater understanding of the current level of the international competitiveness of the clothing and textile industry in relation to the exchange rate. The literature review has revealed that not a lot has been written in this area, more especially in relation to the econometric analysis of

such a relationship, to our knowledge. The paper proceeds as follows; Section 2: details the literature review; Section 3: provides extended model and data analysis, interpretation, review of the existing literature, and Section 4: is the conclusion and future research.

2. Literature Review

The balance of payments theory of exchange rate is also named as "General equilibrium theory of exchange rate. According to this theory, the exchange rate of the currency of a country depends upon the demand for and supply of foreign exchange. If the demand of foreign exchange is higher than its supply, the price of foreign currency will go up. In case, the demand of foreign exchange is lesser than its supply, the price of foreign exchange will decline (Kanamori & Zhao, 2006). The demand for foreign exchange and supply of foreign exchange arises from the debit and credit items respectively in the balance of payments. The demand for foreign exchange comes from the debit side of balance of payments. The debit items in. The balance of payments is import of goods and services, loans and investments made abroad (Kanamori & Zhao, 2006).

The supply of foreign exchange arises from the credit side of the balance of payments. It is made up of the exports of goods and services and capital receipts. If the balance of payments of a country is unfavourable, the rate of foreign exchange declines. On the other hand, if the balance of payments is favourable, the rate of exchange will go up. The domestic currency can purchase more amounts of foreign currencies (Kanamori & Zhao, 2006). When the exchange rate of a country falls below the equilibrium exchange rate, it is a case of adverse balance of payments. The exports increase and eventually the adverse balance of payment is eliminated. The equilibrium rate is restored. When the balance of payments of a country is favourable, the exchange rate rises above the equilibrium exchange rate resulting in the decline of exports (Kanamori & Zhao, 2006).

Nordas (2004) investigated that many clothing workers in developing countries would not have an income in the formal sector were it not for the clothing industry. Some trade theorists suggest that workers retrenched from uncompetitive industries will experience a short period of frictional unemployment before undergoing training and accessing

new employment opportunities. However, developing countries frequently suffer low investment levels which result in sub-optimal job creation, as has been seen in South Africa with its capital formation level of only 16 percent of GDP. Hence, restructuring has been associated with growing unemployment, and re-employment levels in the clothing industry have been low, as can be seen in the table below (ESSET, 2003).

Kipling, Baard and Jan Henk Boer (2005) found that the clothing imports into the South African market increased rapidly. China being the most competitive exporter of clothing in the world market, the vast bulk of clothing imports came from the Asian giant, with the value of clothing imports surpassing that of exports for the first time in 1998. In the wake of a significantly stronger South African currency, import growth showed the most dramatic increase between 2002 and 2005. Units from China jumped from 85 million in 2001 to 123 million in 2002 (45 percent); to 215 million in 2003 (75 percent); to 335 million in 2004 (56 percent) (SARS Customs figures quoted in Clothing Trade Council of South Africa 2005). Manufacturers contend that China's success in the South African clothing market can at least partially be ascribed to an 'unequal [international] playing field'.

Clo-Trade (2005) and Lande (2005) explored the benefits that accrue to Chinese producers are a fixed exchange rate undervaluing the Chinese currency by up to 40 percent (only changed in the second half of 2005); lower labour costs in the absence of a human rights regime; non-performing loans at a 1,5 percent interest rate; export incentives; state-subsidised infrastructure; production by state-owned enterprises which sometimes run at a loss; and possible input subsidisation in the Chinese textile industry. Chinese officials have, however denied these claims and insist that China's competitiveness is the result of its 'market economy'.

Theron (2005) examined the South African clothing industry as comparatively unusual, as it supplies both the domestic and foreign markets. In the wake of South Africa's policy decision to join the global regime on clothing and thereby exposing the local market to foreign competition, some manufacturers sought to reorient themselves to produce for the export market. In the clothing and textile sectors combined, 30 percent were supplying foreign markets in 2005, compared with 10 percent in 1994 (Business Report, 2/2/05). The clothing industry

on its own had less exporters by the second half of 2005, at a figure of about 150 out of a total of 2000 clothing manufacturers registered with the Sector Training Authority (SETA). A number of clothing manufacturers had been exporting apparel to the US and EU markets for a substantial period of time. On the back of a weaker rand, some large KwaZulu-Natal CMTs (with around 300 workers) exported jeans to the US, ceasing when the rand turned (Govender, 2005).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Estimation Methods

The econometric analysis is completed by using a quarterly time series data from 1994Q1-2017Q4. Data for clothing exports and clothing imports were collected from Quantec Easy Data whilst data on exchange rate and GDP were obtained from South African Reserve Bank. The study uses a three steps estimation method made up unit root testing to determine the order of integration of the variables; co-integration analyses and test and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) to determine the long-run and the short run analyses of the system.

Moreover, the study adopted the Durbin Watson auto correlation test, to test whether the residuals that form a linear regression or multiple regressions are independent.

Therefore, the paper adopts the following model:

$$CLEXP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EXR + \beta_2 CLIMP + \beta_3 GDP + \mu \quad (1)$$

Where: *CLEXP* = Clothing export; *EXR* = Exchange rate; *CLIMP* = Clothing import and *GDP* = Gross Domestic Product. β_0 = intercept of relationship in the model / constant, β_1 , β_2 and β_3 = Coefficients of each of the independent variables and μ = stochastic/ Error terms.

$$\text{Log}(CLEXP) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Log}(EXR) + \beta_2 \text{Log}(CLIMP) + \beta_3 \text{Log}(GDP) + \mu \quad (2)$$

Where: Log = Natural log

From Equation 2, a model can further be derived in a form of a time series as:

$$\text{Log}(CLEXP) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Log}(EXR) + \beta_2 \text{Log}(CLIMP) + \beta_3 \text{Log}(GDP) + \mu \quad (3)$$

Table 1: Unit Root Test at Levels

Variables	Model	ADF Lags	ADF (t-Statistics) $\tau_{\tau} \tau_{\mu} \tau$	Critical value at 5%	Conclusion
Log(CLEXP)	Trend and intercept	3	-2.806654	-3.458856	Unit root
	Intercept	3	-2.748984	-2.892879	Unit root
	None	3	-2.707766	-1.944324	No unit root
Log(EXR)	Trend and intercept	3	-8.928822	-3.457808	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-8.964363	-2.892200	No unit root
	None	3	-9.001419	-1.944248	No unit root
Log(CLIMP)	Trend and intercept	3	-8.610946	-3.457808	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-7.634757	-2.892200	No unit root
	None	3	-2.806283	-1.944324	No unit root
Log(GDP)	Trend and intercept	3	-1.815520	-3.458326	Unit root
	Intercept	3	-0.363659	-2.892536	Unit root
	None	3	3.868514	-1.944286	No unit root

Source: Authors

$$\Delta \text{Log}(\text{CLEXP}) = \beta_0 + \Sigma \beta_1 \text{Log}(\text{EXR})_{t-1} + \Sigma \beta_2 \text{Log}(\text{CLIMP})_{t-1} + \Sigma \beta_3 \text{Log}(\text{GDP})_{t-1} + \beta_0 + \Sigma(\text{VECM})_{t-1} + \beta_0 + \Sigma_t \quad (4)$$

comparing their t-statistics with their critical values:

If $t^* > \text{ADF critical values}$: accept the null hypothesis (there is unit root)

In Equation 5, the Error Correction Model appears. Since it appears, its model then is as follows:

If $t^* > \text{ADF critical values}$: reject the null hypothesis (no unit root)

Where: $\Sigma_{i=0}^n (\text{VECM})_{t-1} \quad (5)$

Table 1 above presents the results of running ADF test on all variables at levels in logarithm form with trend and intercept, intercept, and none. The result from above shows that log of clothing exports and GDP shows the existence of unit root, which is non-stationary in levels. While all variables (exchange rate and clothing imports) are stationary (no unit root), therefore, the results from the above Table 1 indicate that the null hypothesis of non-stationarity is rejected (unit root does not exist).

Vector Error Correction term $t-1$ meaning the variables were lagged by one period Σ_t White Noise Residual.

The study used the following methods for stationarity (Augmented Dickey Fuller) unit-root tests, and for cointegration the study uses Johansen cointegration tests and diagnostic and stability tests.

At this stage the formal testing procedures currently available are used to examine each of the variables. To determine the integrating order of time series variables, the Augmented Dickey Fuller (1981) is used to test each variable for unit root in levels, and then in the first difference form. These tests are based on the following assumptions:

The results from Table 2 on the following page shows that when the ADF test is applied to variables in first differences with the trend and intercept, intercept and none, all of the variables are stationary in first difference. Therefore, the null hypothesis of non-stationarity is rejected (no unit root) and the variables are integrated of order one $I(1)$.

H_0 : unit root exists

H_1 : unit root does not exist

Interpretation of unit root results is based on

Table 3 on the next page gives the results from Johansen cointegration test. The first column of the table gives tests for hypothesized number of cointegrated equation where the null hypothesis, pr , ranging from no of cointegration relationship

Table 2: Unit Root Test at First Difference

Variables	Model	ADF	ADF (Critical value	Conclusion
		Lags	t-Statistics)		
			$\tau_{\tau} \tau_{\mu} \tau$		
<i>dLog(CLEXP)</i>	Trend and intercept	3	-9.214509	-3.459397	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-9.255357	-2.893230	No unit root
	None	3	-9.306225	-1.944364	No unit root
<i>dLog(EXR)</i>	Trend and intercept	3	-12.12190	-3.462912	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-12.18594	-2.892879	No unit root
	None	3	-12.25342	-1.944324	No unit root
<i>dLog(CLIMP)</i>	Trend and intercept	3	-8.951262	-3.459397	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-8.999205	-2.893230	No unit root
	None	3	-9.037613	-1.944364	No unit root
<i>dLog(GDP)</i>	Trend and intercept	3	-5.528643	-3.458326	No unit root
	Intercept	3	-5.558294	-2.892536	No unit root
	None	3	-2.439510	-1.944324	No unit root

Source: Authors

Table 3: Johansen Cointegration Test

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigen values	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical value	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical value
None	0.320813	73.66068*	47.85613	35.97783*	27.58434
At most 1	0.272505	37.68285*	29.79707	29.58772*	21.13162
At most 2	0.079892	8.095135	15.49471	7.743554	14.26460
At most 3	0.003773	0.351581	3.841466	0.351581	3.841466

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating equation(s) at the 0.05 level
 Max-eigenvalue test indicates 2 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
 *denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

Source: Authors

($r = p$) up to most two cointegration vectors. The second column gives the eigenvalues in descending order, while the third and fifth column reports the corresponding trace statistics and max-eigen statistics generated. The fourth and sixth column reports the critical values at the five per cent levels.

The results of the trace test statistic show two cointegrating equations at 5% level, having the rejection of the null hypothesis of no cointegration of the series. On the other hand, the maximum eigenvalue statistic indicates the presence of two cointegrating equations at 5% level. The trace test shows that there is 5 per cent significance co-integration equation. This is shown by comparing the trace statistics as it shows that 73.66068 is greater than critical value 47.85613 and 37.68285 is also greater than the critical value 29.79707. The max-eigen statistic that indicates that there is 5 percent significance cointegration. This is realised by comparing the max-eigen

statistics as it shows that 35.97783 is greater than the critical value 27.58434 and 29.58772 is also greater than the critical value 21.13162.

The results show that both the Trace and Maximum Eigen value test are significant at 5 percent level. These results prove that the variables are tied together in a single way in the long run; there is no unique long run equilibrium relationship. Thus, there is one cointegration relationship in the trace static model and two cointegration relationships in the maximum Eigen model. Therefore, the existence of a long run relationship of the model can be seen within a Vector Error Correction Model (VECM).

3.2 Vector Error Correction Model

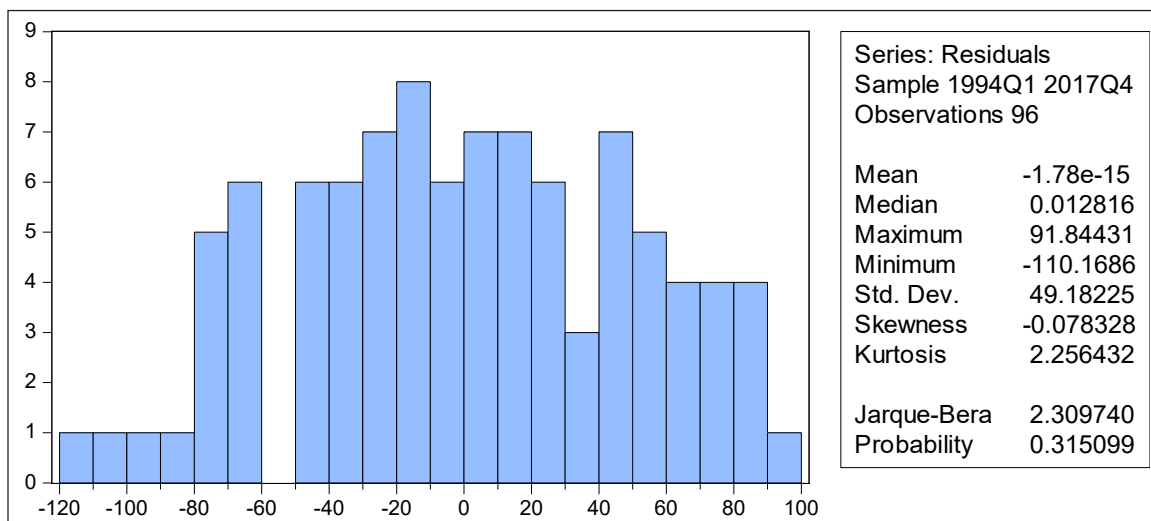
The VECM results indicate that there is correlation between GDP and the four independent variables. The implication is that there is an existence of a short

Table 4: Summary of the VECM Estimation

Variables	Coefficients	Standard error	t - statistic
D(CLEXP (-1))	-22.64119	37.6995	-0.60057
D(EXR (-1))	351.1287	708.622	0.49551
D(CIMP (-1))	52.20218	42.4344	1.23019
D(GDP (-1))	0.487471	0.12062	4.04138
Constant	7240.091	2739.46	2.64289
R-squared	0.414584	Log likelihood	-965.1757
Adj. R-squared	0.233794	Akaike AIC	21.93724
Sum sq. Resids	1.09E+10	Schwarz SC	22.54830
S.E. equation	12649.67	Mean dependent	16189.40
F-statistic	2.293180	S.D. dependent	14451.28

Source: Author

Figure 1: Normality Test on the Residuals



Source: Authors

run economic relationship. The Adjusted R-squared of 0.579 (58%) indicates that 0.58 of the model is perfectly fit meaning that the regression is not spurious and the F-statistic revealed the absence of serial autocorrelation. Table 4 has a priori (negative) sign that is an indication of the fact that any short-term fluctuations between the independent variables and the dependent variables will give an increase to a steady long run relationship between variables. The estimated coefficient indicates that about 0.5% of this disequilibrium is corrected within one quarter.

Finally, the results estimated on VECM at lag 1, shows that there is a positive relationship between exchange rate, clothing exports, clothing imports and GDP. However, clothing exports is negatively correlated to the independent variables (Exchange

rate, clothing imports and GDP). Therefore, the model is good with 42% and the R-squared 23% can be explained by the independent variables.

Diagnostic Testing

The *Jarque-Bera* test statistics tests whether the residuals are normally distributed. The null hypothesis for the above Figure 1 is that the residuals are not normally distributed. The decision rule for the rest is that if $P < 0.05$ level of significance then the null hypothesis should be rejected. The result for the probability is 0.315099 that is greater than the 0.05 level of signification, therefore the study accepted the null hypothesis. This means that the residuals are normally distributed for the current study.

Table 5: Serial Correlation Test on the Residuals

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:			
F-statistic	12.57852	Prob.F(2,90)	0.0000
Obs R-squared	20.97202	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.0000

Source: Authors

Table 6: Heteroscedasticity Test: ARCH

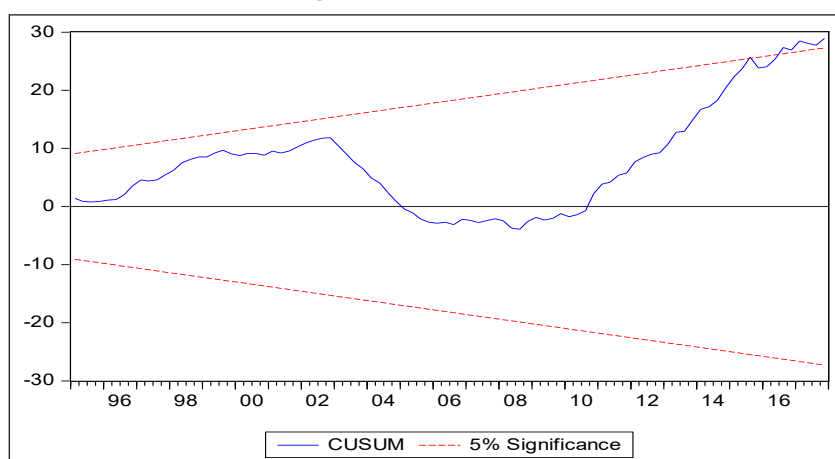
Heteroscedasticity Test: ARCH			
F-statistic	2.388312	Prob.F(1,93)	0.0000
Obs R-squared	2.378589	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.0000

Source: Authors

Table 7: Ramsey Reset Test on Residuals

	Value	Df	Probability
F-Statistic	0.693009	(1,91)	0.4073
Likelihood ratio	0.728316	1	0.3934

Source: Authors

Figure 2: Cusum Test

Source: Authors

Table 5 above gives the results for the serial correlation on the residuals, from the output of *Breusch-Godfrey*. The null hypothesis of the study is that there is no serial correlation in the residuals. The probability value from the result is 0.0000; in the case the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is serial correlation in the residuals.

Table 6 gives the result of heteroscedasticity on the residuals, from the output of heteroscedasticity test: ARCH the study test the null hypothesis that there is no heteroscedasticity up to order q in the residual. The probability value from the result is 0.0000; the study rejects the null hypothesis. This means that for the current study there is heteroscedasticity up to order q in the residual.

Stability Test

The stability CUSUM test is applied to evaluate the stability of the long run coefficient together with the short run dynamics. The CUSUM test points that the null hypothesis (i.e. that the regression equation is correctly stated) cannot be rejected if the plot of these statistics remains within the critical bound of the 5 percent significant level.

Figure 2 shows the CUSUM test from 1992 Q1 to 2017 Q4 the stability of the parameters remains within the critical bounds of parameter stability, until some point whereby it does not remain inside the critical bond.

The Ramsey reset test shown in Table 7, also known

as the regression specification error test is applied. The p-value from the results is 0.4073 and 0.3934 which are more than the critical p-value=0,05, therefore, the null hypothesis of the mis-specification in the model is accepted. This means that the model is statistically well specified and that the residual is normally distributed.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The aim of this study is to find the impact of exchange rate on clothing exports in South Africa. Clo-Trade (2005) and Lande (2005) explored the benefits that accrue to Chinese producers are a fixed exchange rate undervaluing the Chinese currency by up to 40 percent (only changed in the second half of 2005); lower labour costs in the absence of a human rights regime; non-performing loans at a 1,5 percent interest rate; export incentives; state-subsidised infrastructure; production by state-owned enterprises which sometimes run at a loss; and possible input subsidisation in the Chinese textile industry. Chinese officials have, however denied these claims and insist that China's competitiveness is the result of its 'market economy'.

Cointegration test determines that there is a long-run relationship between changes in exchange rate and clothing exports. The result suggests that the variable under consideration are co-integrated and hence, share a common linear common trend, that is, they move together in the long-run.

The VECM result revealed that the speed of adjustment towards the long run equilibrium is significant, meaning that the dependent variables have a long run relationship with the dependent variables. The study examined the impact of Exchange rate on clothing exports in South Africa. The results show that the independent variables such as exchange rate, clothing imports and GDP are negatively correlated to Clothing exports, while dependant variable is negative to the independents (Exchange rate, clothing imports and GDP). Therefore, the model is fairly good and the R-squared can be explained by the independent variables.

Lastly, the results of the diagnostic test and stability test employed in the study presented heteroskedasticity, a problem of serial correlation is found in the residuals, and the residuals are normally distributed. South Africa has floating exchange rates where it is determined by the private market through demand

and supply. If the demand for a currency is low, its value will decline, therefore making imported goods more expensive and increasing the demand for local goods and services. Thus, generate more jobs, causing an auto-correction in the market; floating exchange rate is constantly fluctuating, where imports and exports can have a positive relationship. Where individuals will have more money to spend which will benefit the population. Competitive advantage of floating exchange rate is that policy makers are free to diminish to achieve certain objectives, such as job creation, economic growth and decreasing inflationary pressure.

The government should make South Africa's exchange rate to be a fixed exchange rate, so that South Africa exports more than it imports having a competitive advantage and more employment.

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Towards Conceptualising Business and Public Administration Research Augmented by Analysing the Physical Research Context, the Research Problem, and the Research Knowledge Gap

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Abstract: Before anything else, a sound research report or dissertation or thesis is its conceptualisation in which we spell out 'what' research we want to do and 'why'. Other than interrogation of the fundamentals – that is, the research title, research problem statement, research purpose statement, and research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or research propositions- research conceptualisation requires a structured interrogation of literature to strengthen its case and the research focus. This literature interrogation should provide for a thorough analysis of the research physical context or setting, the research problem, and the research knowledge gap. There are several guides on research conceptualisation and literature interrogation meant to assist research students and novices. But guides do not work in all cases and situations because of different contexts and, therefore, leaving room for improvement and additional guides such as this paper. Using information compiled from examiners' reports of our research students and discussions with research students and colleagues, we propose a structured approach to research conceptualisation that is augmented by a thorough analysis of the research physical context or setting, the research problem, and the research knowledge gap. Though research conceptualisation resides in the 'introduction to the research' component of a research, ideally its interrogation is part of the 'conceptual framework' component - which we narrowly call the literature review. Therefore, as part of literature review, we should explicitly interrogate academic and non-academic literature on (i.) the physical context or setting where the research will take place and (ii.) the research problem. A thorough research problem analysis requires systems thinking and the theory of constraint to guide the interrogation of literature. These tools provide for going beyond the 'he said, she said' literature review write-ups that are evident in most student write-ups. Further, research conceptualisation is incomplete unless we explicitly interrogate empirical or primary research literature to expose the (iii.) research knowledge gap. When undertaking a research knowledge gap analysis, we should not only focus on the empirical research results and research findings. Instead, we should also interrogate research strategies, designs, procedure and methods that such studies applied so that we also start reflecting on which research procedure and methods we will apply to our research.

Keywords: Conceptual framework, Literature review, Research conceptualisation, Research knowledge gap analysis, Research problem analysis, Research physical context, Setting analysis

1. Introduction

Business and public administration research reports exhibit, among others, three shortcomings vis-à-vis research conceptualisation. First, literature on the physical research context or setting where the research will actually take place is insufficiently interrogated. Therefore, the pertaining research problems are inadequately contextualised within their physical research setting. Second, there is no explicit approach to interrogating literature on the research problem. This implies the discussion of the research problem hardly goes beyond 'she said, he said'. Third, the approach to interrogating past and

current literature on the research under study to identify the research knowledge gap is limited to findings and conclusions. As a result, we fail to use these studies to establish methodological options that we can employ for our respective research. Wotela (2017a) has argued that these shortcomings arise because as most learning institutions do not offer an explicit module on reviewing literature or conceptualising conceptual frameworks nor do they offer a full module on research writing. Further, in research and research writing, reading a lot (Mouton, 2001), summarising, and rewriting perspectives of others is necessary but insufficient. Therefore, research students and novices default to 'he-said, she-said'

write-ups. This frustrates supervisors and examiners who expect readable write-ups with a prescribed purpose as well as well organised and synthesised information.

Not all is lost. The debate on how not to conduct and write-up a literature review is conclusive (Mouton, 2001). However, the debate on how to conduct and write-up a literature review is still alive and, therefore, allowing us some space to contribute to this debate (Ravitch & Riggan, 2012). This paper proposes an explicit approach to conceptualising a business and public administration research – that is, the research title, research problem statement, research purpose statement, and research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or research propositions. Further, it provides for an explicit and alternative approach to interrogating literature on (i.) the physical context or setting where the research will actually take place and (ii.) the research problem, and (iii.) the research knowledge gap to augment the initial research conceptualisation so that it is engraved in literature. More specifically, we propose that interrogating literature on the research problem requires one to apply systems thinking (Gharajedaghi, 2006) and the theory of constraint (Youngman, 2009) so that the product is structured, comprehensive, and critical. Further, when decoding or identifying the theoretical research knowledge gap after comprehending the research problem, one should also be cannibalising the research strategies, designs, procedure and methods that similar past and current research studies applied.

We hope the paper can guide research students and novices to go beyond 'he-said, she-said' kind of write-ups that have no head or tail. Though we emphasise the structured process, we are aware that eventually the product is subject to constructivism (Driscoll, 2000; Gredler, 2001; Siemens, 2005) that should intellectually dictate how the researcher should eventually pursue the research. Once again, we are targeting business administration and management research as well as public administration and management research. However, the proposed procedure can apply to research in the social sciences and humanities.

We begin with pointing out the six components of a research report and the seven elements of a conceptual framework (Section 2) before detailing the first three elements which are the focus of this paper.

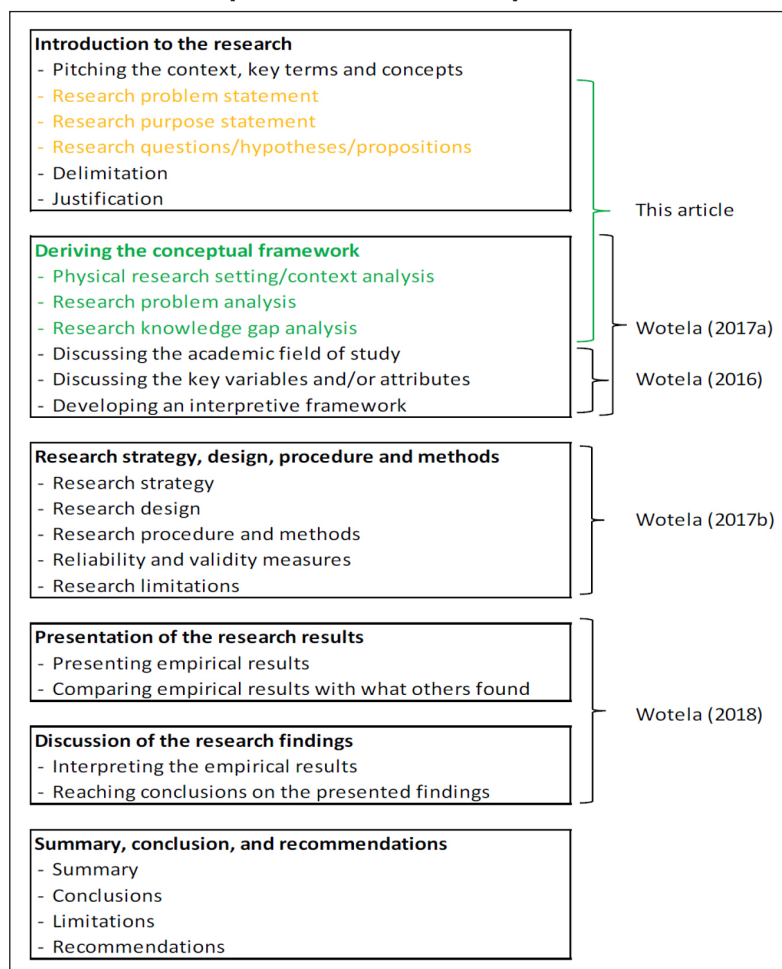
We devote Section 3 to the key considerations of conceptualising 'what' research one intends to do and 'why'. In Section 4, we point out the importance of interrogating literature on the physical research context or setting as well as how to approach such an interrogation. Section 5 summons systems thinking (Gharajedaghi, 2006) and the theory of constraint (Youngman, 2009) to propose a process of interrogating literature on the research problem. Lastly, in Section 6 we propose how one should identify and present the research knowledge gap of the research problem under study.

2. Main Components of a Research Report and Key Elements of the Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 on the following page shows six independent but interlinked components of a business and public administration research report - proposed by Wotela (2016, 2017a) - that is, (i.) the introduction to the research; (ii.) the conceptual framework; (iii.) the research strategy, design, procedure and methods; (iv.) the presentation of the research results; (v.) the discussion of the research findings; and (vi.) the summary, conclusion, and recommendations. Building on Ravitch and Riggan (2012), Maxwell (2013) as well as Kumar (2014); Wotela (2017a) has argued that we review literature (the process) to derive a conceptual framework (the product). Further, based on Badenhorst's (2007) work, Wotela (2016, 2017a) has proposed six subcomponents of the conceptual framework outlined in Figure 1. These are the physical research setting or context analysis, research problem analysis, research knowledge gap analysis, identifying and discussing the academic field of study, identifying and discussing the key attributes and or variables, identifying and discussing the interpretive framework.

In sum, Wotela (2017a) has argued that the main outcome of a literature review process is the 'conceptual framework' component that should ideally achieve three outcomes – namely; (i.) to understand the research problem within its physical context or setting, (ii.) to establish the research knowledge gap, and (iii.) to determine the interpretive framework. To augment Wotela's (2017a) paper on conceptualising conceptual frameworks in business and public administration research, Wotela (2016) has a paper solely focusing on the third outcome covering the fourth, fifth, and sixth subcomponents of the conceptual framework. Our paper focuses on the

Figure 1: Showing the Six Components of a Research Report and Subcomponents of the Conceptual Framework



Source: Author

first and second outcomes covering the first three subcomponents (of the six subcomponents) of a conceptual framework - that is, 'physical research setting or context analysis', 'research problem analysis', and 'research knowledge gap analysis'. The objective is to ensure that these subcomponents explicitly contribute to conceptualisation of research in business and public administration as well as discussions in the other subcomponents of the conceptual framework and other components of the research report. However, we need to initially conceptualise the intended research before we undertake these three subcomponents of the conceptual framework which in turn strengthens conceptualisation of the intended research.

3. Research Conceptualisation - 'What' Research to Pursue and 'Why'

Research conceptualisation resides in the 'introduction to the research' component. Overall, this

introductory component provides for articulating the 'what' research we intend to pursue and 'why'. Research conceptualisation comprises turning a research idea into a researchable process that should in turn end up in a research report, it be a thesis or a dissertation. Rather than a laborious activity, it is an intense reflection process that should allow us to clearly articulate what the intended research should focus on. Even though the research is applied or practical as is the case with most post-graduate business and public administration, research conceptualisation should be an academic process. Therefore, we propose and articulate three concurrent step to initially conceptualise a research - that is, (i.) thinking through the research we intend to pursue, (ii.) drafting and reflecting on the draft working research title, and (iii) drafting the working research problem statement, research purpose statement, and the research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or research propositions. Recall that

Table 1: Showing the Seven Questions We Can Use To Reflect for Five Days or More on the Research We Intend To Pursue

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Consensus
What is my research problem, opportunity, or question about?						
How do I know this research problem, opportunity, or question actually exists?						
Why is this research problem, opportunity, or question worth pursuing?						
What do I intend to account for the extent or the reasons underlying the research problem, opportunity, or question?						
What research procedure and methods do I intend to use for my research and why?						
What research results do I anticipate?						
How and to whom will my research results be of use?						

Source: Author

these are working drafts that we should continuously update as we interrogate literature meant to attend to the six subcomponents of a conceptual framework.

First of all, we should, intensely so, think through the research we want to pursue so that we do not waste time doing a research for weeks if not months or years only to realise that this is not the research we want to do. The first column of Table 1 shows the seven questions that we should answer for five days or more without the aid of any reference material (blue sky thinking) other than our brain, paper, and pen. Further, we should exercise honesty by not referring to our previous answers. At the end of the five days or more, we should then enter our responses onto the Microsoft Excel template of Table 1. Thereafter, we should compare the responses of each question over the five days or more. If the answers are the same on each of the five days or more then we can take that as a given and we should enter the answer as is in the column labelled 'consensus'. However, if the answers to a question differ over the five days or more, then we need to reflect further before reaching consensus on such a question. This simple but repetitive process helps us to intensely reflect on the research we intend to pursue. Reaching consensus with inner self is not definite but at the end of this exercise we should be one notch clearer about the research we intend to pursue at least on what it is about and what it might achieve.

The second step should be drafting and reflecting on the working research title. Again here we are of the view that the draft research title, no matter how

crude, should come early in the research process to pave the way and allow us to focus. However, it should be revised as we make progress with our research. Writing experts, such as Nancy Halligan, recommend that a title should have strong and active verbs as well as specific nouns - for example, 'evaluating post-apartheid corrective labour policies in South African tertiary institutions' or 'deriving traditional reproductive regimes to explain subnational fertility differentials in Zambia' or 'the leadership paradigm describing the South African Police Service: a case study of Gauteng'. Further, a research title should include the research issue - for example, '... post-apartheid corrective labour policies ...' or '... subnational fertility differentials ...' or 'the leadership paradigm ...'. It should also have the physical research setting or context - for example, '... South African tertiary institutions' or '... in Zambia' or '... the South African Police Service: a case of Gauteng'. Other editorial parameters include limiting the number of words to between 13 and 16 words. In all, the title should be succinct enough not to describe the topic but flag it. In some cases, it should not include the procedure and method as we have done in our first two examples.

In most cases, we draft our initial research title from literal definitions. Unfortunately, most literal definitions are different from academic meaning. For example, an English dictionary defines the word *emergent* as 'starting to exist or to become known' and yet in academia we also use this word to mean uncertainty. Therefore, we need to reconcile each word in the draft working research title to reflect its literal and academic meaning. Table 2 is a template that we can use to reflect on the draft working

Table 2: Showing a Template One Can Use To Reflect on the Research Title First Using an English Dictionary and then Academic Articles

First draft	Evaluating post-apartheid corrective labour policies in South African tertiary institutions	
Word in title	Meaning using English Dictionary	Meaning according to academic articles
Evaluating		
Post-apartheid		
Corrective		
Labour		
Policies		
South African		
Tertiary		
Institutions		
Second draft		
Final draft		

Source: Author

research title. The first row is reserved for the first draft (as illustrated). We should deposit each word in the draft research title into the first column of the table (as illustrated). We should then proceed to define each word in the first column using an English Dictionary. This exercise is literally a common sense way of comprehending the research we want to pursue. Regardless, there is a likelihood that we will edit our draft working research title after this interrogation which we should deposit in the second last row of the table labelled 'second draft'.

We move onto the third column of the table. Rather than using the English Dictionary, we scan latest academic literature that has described these words to grasp the 'implied' academic meaning. This is actually the beginning of reviewing academic literature preferably on the research we intend to pursue and, therefore, quite useful. Sourcing, selecting, and summarising such literature is involving and introduces the work that lies ahead. Specific to this exercise is that various academic authors coin various operational definitions of these words to suit their pursuit and, therefore, these words will be implicit. This implies fishing out the definitions of these words is not as easy. Further, this exercise identifies debatable academic words in our draft working research title that need further reflection. For example, the word 'impact' might imply a quantitative research strategy. Similarly, the word 'explore' might imply applying grounded theory. After populating the second and third columns, for each word we should review the English definition (second column) and then the academic description (third column) and ask, 'is this what I want to do

literally (second column) and academically (third column)?' Such reflection, if effective, provides for refining or even redrafting the working research title substantially. We should then write out the refined draft working research title in the slot labelled 'final draft'. We can repeat the exercise from any stage if in doubt or not happy with the final draft.

Lastly, we can now draft the working research problem statement, the research purpose statement, and the research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or research propositions. Once again the words 'draft' and 'working' are explicit to imply that these research conceptualisation elements will change fundamentally as we progressively review literature to derive the conceptual framework of the intended research. In most cases, research conceptualisation is only finalised after deriving its conceptual framework or even after we conclude the research. For business and public administration and management research, the research problem should emanate from everyday observation and interaction with society. Intuitively, "research is always conceptualised around a problem" (Badenhorst, 2007:19) and, therefore, a research problem statement is an expression of this problem. As such it is a clear, well-thought out, and well-presented 400 word statement (or a page) of a problematic area worth pursuing through research.

Badenhorst (2007) recommends that the research problem statement should comprise a 'narration' of the research problem and all the six elements of a conceptual framework. As implied by Belcher

(2009), a narration of the research problem should comprise two parts - that is, the 'general' statement and the 'thesis' statement. A general statement is factual and hardly debatable. A cynical example is that 'the sun will rise tomorrow'. A more practical example is that 'the government has spent billions in an effort to create employment for the uneducated, unskilled, and unemployed citizens'. Regardless, we have to support such a statement with literature, academic or otherwise. Therefore, our example should read, 'according the 2014 Treasury Report, the Government has spent almost 28 billion in an effort to create employment for the uneducated, unskilled, and unemployed citizens'.

On the other hand, a thesis statement problematizes the situation by making it debatable (Belcher, 2009). Similarly, we need to support such a statement with literature, academic or otherwise. Therefore, our example might read as follows, 'according to the 2018 Treasury Report, the Government has spent almost 28 billion in an effort to create employment for the uneducated, unskilled, and unemployed citizens' - that is, the general statement. The thesis statement may then be, 'however, numerous evaluation reports, for example *Fictitious (2016)*, show that this effort is fruitless because the interventions have hardly made a dent in unemployment levels since 1994'. Clearly, the thesis statement will have supporters and antagonists. Therefore, a researcher's mission is to collect, collate, process, and analyse primary evidence to prove whether the thesis statement is true or not. We may also want to consider Leedy and Ormrod's (2010) valuable guidelines and checklist for developing a problem statement 'narration'.

Apart from the 'narration', the research problem statement should include summarised key aspects of the six subcomponents of a conceptual framework. This implies that developing a research problem statement is a process that involves intensive and extensive literature review and may take time to ground. Critical ingredients of the research problem statement include a highly summarised 'research problem analysis' and 'research knowledge gap analysis'. The former is a subcomponent of the conceptual framework that provides for interrogating literature, academic or otherwise, so that we fully comprehend the research problem under study. The latter provides for interrogating past and current studies to identify the theoretical knowledge gap on the research under study.

After drafting the working 'research problem 'narrative' statement', we should move onto articulating the 'research purpose statement'. This statement spells out the overall aim of the research by stating what we will do to address the research problem - that is, "the [main] goal for the research effort" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:56). Some institutions opt to present the 'research purpose statement' as the main objective and sub-objectives of the research. A 'research purpose statement' should explicitly state 'what' we intend to pursue, 'how' we intend to pursue it (Badenhorst, 2007), and the 'line-of-inquiry'. The 'how' part specifies the tool or model or framework that we employ to tackle the 'what' part of the research. For example, 'this research employs the leadership paradigm [*how*] to interrogate why the South African Police Service is ineffective [*what*]'. While the first requirement is present and common in most research write-ups, the 'how' part and the 'line-of-inquiry' is either missing or implicit if present. Sometimes we even mistake the research strategy, design, procedure and method to be the how part and yet this is not the requirement. The 'line-of-inquiry' - which most dated research methodology text capture as research design - is equally important and comprises five categories, namely, narration, description, explanation, interpretation, and exploration.

In addition, researchers should continuously ask, 'what is the purpose of my research? What is the purpose of each section and chapter in pursuing this research purpose? Inherently, the purpose statement should also capture the 'anticipated outcomes' (Badenhorst, 2007) and the delimitation of the research. The former is highly debatable because it implies we have determined the outcome before undertaking the empirical part of the research. The latter refers to what the research will cover and will not cover academically - and not methodologically. Lastly, we could consider using Leedy and Ormrod's (2010) approach that they provide on Pages 52 through 55 to refine our draft research purpose statement.

After drafting the research problem statement as well as the research purpose statement, we should then proceed to conceptualise the research questions. We should recall that the research title, the research problem statement, the research purpose statement, and the research questions are highly interlinked and we should present them as such. Research questions provide for manageable and

well-defined focused segments that we should answer to realise the research purpose and, therefore, address the research problem (Moon, 2007). The research questions determine, and benefit from, the empirical research data collection, collation, processing, and analysis. Therefore, "after collecting and analysing data, the researcher should ask: how do the data answer my research questions?" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:56). Whilst, the research purpose statement points out the outcomes of a research - that is, how a research will contribute to enhancing our knowledge - the research questions specify the outputs of a research, that is, what a research actually delivers.

We should not confuse these research questions (articulated in the 'introduction to the research' component as part of research conceptualisation) to those in the research data or information collection instrument (articulated in the 'research strategy, design, procedure and methods' component). The research questions, should technically live to the definition of a 'question', that is they should solicit a discussion and not monotonic answers, such as yes or no. Further, we should phrase research questions 'literary' in a logical sequence to provide a coherent outline for the entire research report in general and more specifically the empirical results section or chapter of the report. This means that research questions should provide an organising framework for, and correspond to, specific sections or chapters when we present the research results and discuss the research findings (Badenhorst, 2007). Actually, Badenhorst (2007) has provided a guide on Page 26 that we can use to evaluate draft research questions.

In addition to research questions, if we are pursuing a quantitative research strategy or a mixed research strategy then we should also formulate research hypotheses or research propositions as well. While "research questions [do not] offer any speculative answers..., intelligent [research hypotheses] are tentative..." answers to research questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:56). Salkind (2013) provides a good description and examples of constructing research hypotheses, that is, 'null' (H0) hypotheses versus 'alternative or research' (H1) hypotheses as well as 'non-directional' hypotheses versus 'directional' hypotheses. Put simply, Research propositions are speculated scenarios of usually a non-existent reality. For example, an ideal research question would be, 'what factors hinder people from saving their income?' A tentative answer (directional hypothesis)

to this question would be, 'compared with low income earners, higher income earners save a larger proportion of their income'. The non-directional hypothesis would suggest that 'there is a difference in the proportion of income saved by lower income earners and higher income earners' while the null hypothesis would suggest that 'there is no difference in the proportion of income saved by higher income earners and lower income earners'. A proposition would be 'if low income earners had high incomes, they would save larger proportions of their income'.

We also propose that rather than replacing the research questions with the research hypotheses or research propositions, we should present them alongside the research questions. Therefore, in a quantitative or mixed research strategy, we should present (i.) the research questions, (ii.) the null hypotheses, and (iii.) the research or alternative hypotheses which could be either directional or non-directional. Similarly, in some mixed research strategy, we should present (i.) the research question and (ii.) the research proposition. In such cases, we are expected to answer the research questions by testing the research hypotheses or proving/disproving the research propositions. Sometimes undertaking the empirical research part, that is, research data or information collection, collation, processing, analysis, and interpretation might not afford us a chance to test all the hypotheses or prove/disapprove all the research propositions due to data or information or other methodological limitations. However, this does not mean we should not answer all the research questions even if it means using the qualitative research strategy.

Further, a research employing a qualitative research strategy can use basic descriptive statistics but this does not make such a research a mixed research strategy or a quantitative research strategy. A research is a mixed research strategy or a quantitative research strategy if, and only if, it poses and answers research questions alongside proposing and testing research hypotheses. Similarly, a researcher employing a quantitative research strategy can apply some thematic and content analysis when presenting the research results or discussing the findings but this does not make the research a mixed research strategy.

In sum, research conceptualisation – that is, the research title, research problem statement, and research purpose statement as well as research

questions and where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses and propositions – pointing out 'what' research we intend to pursue and 'why' sets the outputs through research questions and where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses and propositions. It also sets the outcomes or objectives of the research through the research purpose statement and to a certain extent the research problem statement. More importantly, we should use research conceptualisation to locate the relevant and important literature that we should be interrogating to augment research conceptualisation. Such a structured approach allows us to remain focused on the research aim, outcomes, and outputs. The next sections attend to the first three, of six, literature interrogation that we require to strengthen research conceptualisation and contribute towards deriving the conceptual framework of the research under study.

4. Physical Research Context or Setting Analysis

Kelly (2007) has argued that the African continent should learn to swim with sharks in the globalisation ocean. However, before then, the continent should learn how to swim in the first place. Invariably, we should learn to contextualise our development interventions and, therefore, our research and development. Unless we can understand business and public administration and management research in the context of its physical setting or context, our academic narratives will not be locally relevant no matter how solid. This means that we should understand the physical research setting or context (first subcomponent of the conceptual framework) with a view to contextualise the interrogation of the research problem (second subcomponent of the conceptual framework). We can also use this understanding to contextualise the remaining subcomponents of the conceptual framework as well as the other components of the research report. A detailed understanding of the physical research setting or context provides for decision-making in a research process such as what literature, arguments, and narratives are applicable to our research. It also provides information that is crucial when undertaking the empirical part of the research such as deciding on the target population. Similarly, this interrogation helps us focus on what is important to our research.

In common English usage, the term context has two perspectives. The first perspective refers to

the non-tangible ideological space in which something is or should be understood. For example, one can understand human fertility from a biological perspective or a sociological perspective or an anthropological perspective. We refer to this as the academic context (fourth subcomponent of the conceptual framework). The second perspective refers to the physical space or environment where something resides or happens. We refer to this as the physical context. By extension, the physical research context or setting is where the research will take place. For example, we can study financial markets in Africa meaning that the physical research setting or context is the African continent and, therefore, we should understand the African continent before anything else. Further, we can extend this research to all developing countries or restrict it to one country. Regardless, this means understanding developing countries or that single country before anything else. This is important because the same research problem we want to study manifests differently in different physical environments. Put differently, different environments have different problems. Therefore, to fully appreciate a research problem we have to appreciate the physical research context or setting.

Interrogating this subcomponent entails sourcing, summarising, and synthesising literature to write-up on important aspects of the physical research context and those aspects that connects it to the research problem. Therefore, we should interrogate academic and non-academic literature on (i.) the history of the physical research context, (ii.) the description of the physical research context, and (iii.) the attributes of the physical research context relevant, or connecting it, to the research problem under study. For example, if we are studying subnational fertility differentials in Zambia then we should interrogate literature on (i.) the history of Zambia pointing out key aspects of its development trajectory, (ii.) the description of Zambia preferably using a map to point out its notable or distinguishing features, and (iii.) subnational regions within Zambia since the research is on subnational fertility differentials. Similarly, if we want to study performance management in the South African Reserve Bank then we should interrogate literature on the history of the South African Reserve Bank, its description (using an organogram) as well as its mandate, and management arrangements. Interrogation of the physical research context should be sufficient enough to provide a foundation on which we

interrogate literature to understand the research problem under study as well as the other sub-components of the conceptual framework and other components of the research report.

5. Research Problem Analysis

With detailed knowledge on the physical research setting or context, we can now proceed to undertake a research problem analysis (second subcomponent of the conceptual framework). A research problem analysis implies using literature academic or otherwise to show that a research problem of interest exists and then pointing out its dynamics. However, rather than just putting literature together (he-said, she-said), we need to (i.) point out the key factors of the problem under study. Thereafter, (ii.) categorise the factors into symptoms, root-causes, and consequences. We can then (iii.) undertake a trend analysis of symptoms to establish, over time, how the problem under study manifests itself. Eventually, we can (iv.) use the problem tree and the theory-of-constraints to link and plot the factors so that we show their cause-effect relationship. Though logic is a key ingredient at the beginning of this exercise, the final trend and the cause-effect plot should have support from academic and non-academic literature.

The comment, 'this research is too broad ...' notable in most business and public administration research reports is certain when we pitch a research at symptomatic level or try to pursue several root causes of the research problem under study in one research undertaking. Therefore, we propose that we should anchor our respective research on the root causes of the problem under study rather than on its symptoms and certainly not on its consequences. Further, we should strive to narrow down our research to utmost two root causes because a good research is one that is not too broad to be comprehensive, detailed, and critical. Therefore, a research problem analysis is important because it allows us to document root causes of the problem under study before we decide on which one(s) we should pursue in our research. Further, an interrogation of consequences of the research problem under study provides justification for undertaking the research especially if such a status quo might lead to an undesirable outcome.

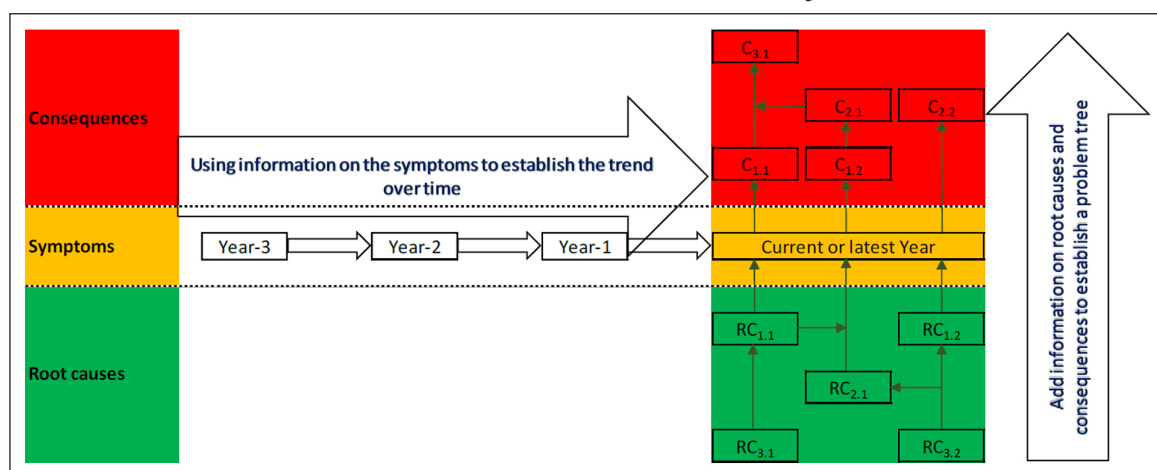
If the research is an evaluation of an intervention, then we should document the intervention

including its programmes, projects, and business lines. For example, if we are evaluating the post-apartheid corrective labour policy in South African tertiary institutions, then we need to detail its history including why such a policy was necessary, its programmes and projects, as well as its implementation. We may also tabulate its results-chain (impact, outcomes, outputs, activities, and inputs) as well as its results-framework (indicators, baseline values, target-values, assumptions, and risks).

We need to review systems methodology (Gharajedaghi, 2006), trend analysis, the problem tree (Norad, 1999), and the theory of constraint (Youngman, 2009) before undertaking a research problem analysis. These tools and soft skills allow us to grasp problem symptoms, root causes, neutral effects, and consequences as well as how these factors interlink as realistically as possible so that we do not over simplify reality. Ideally, we appreciate problems including research problems, if we interrogate them within their totality or the whole. Therefore, apart from understanding the context that defines the unique environment in which the research problem is situated, we should also appreciate the structure or components of the research problem and how these are interlinked (Gharajedaghi, 2006). After identifying these components or factors, we can use the simple steps provided in Norad (1999) to develop a problem tree that links the symptoms, the root causes, and the consequences. To integrate complexity inherent in reality, we should use Youngman's (2009) theory of constraint to include and link neutral effects to the problem tree. If need be, we can also apply trend analysis. In the context of research, we can describe trend analysis as examining how symptoms of a research problem have manifested "... over time, and how [they are] ... likely to develop in the future" (The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, ND). In sum, these tools and skills allow us to interrogate key questions including but not limited to – 'what is the problem?', 'how widespread is the problem?', 'how acute is the problem?', and 'what causes this problem?' – in our research problem analysis.

Figure 2 on the following page shows a generic template we can use to undertake a research problem analysis. The first step is systems thinking (brainstorming) to identify factors affecting, and affected by, the problem under study. At this point, rather than literature, it is the experience we have in business

Figure 2: Showing a Generic Template We Can Use to Undertake a Research Problem Analysis



Source: Author

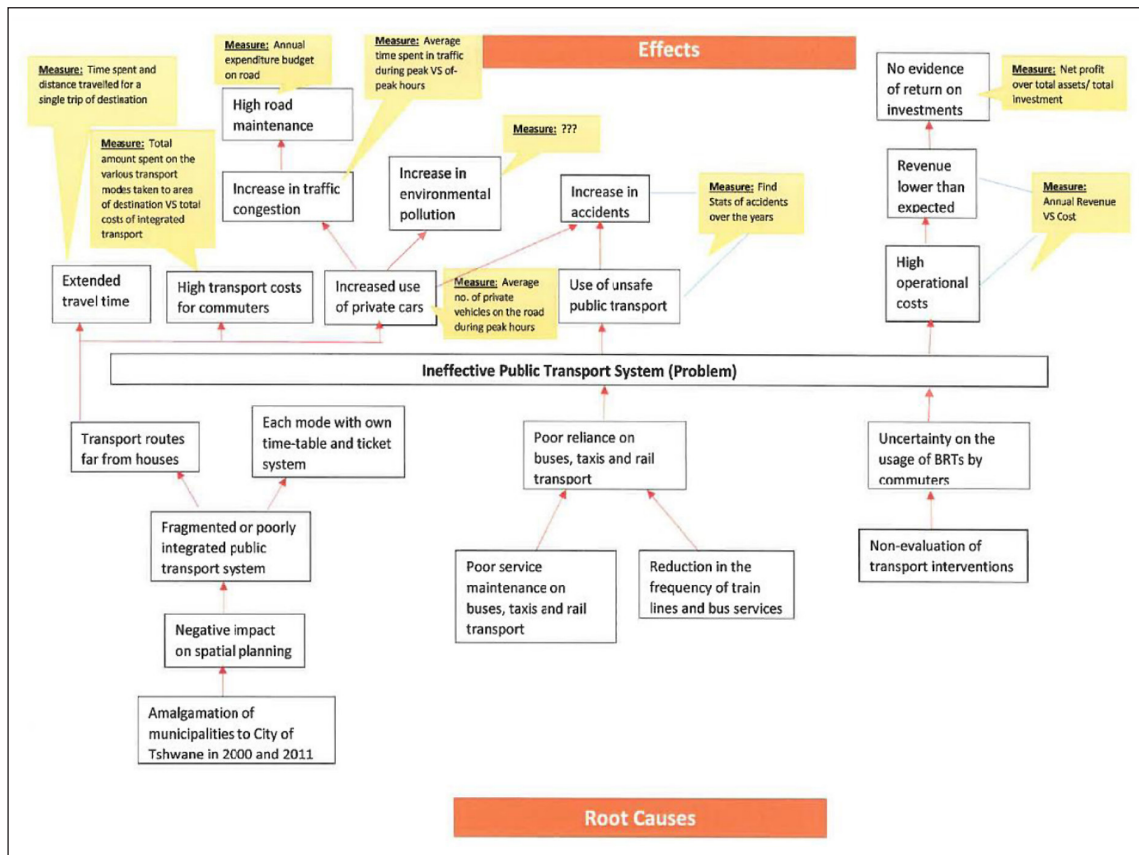
and public administration that counts. Ideally, we should separate the factors into symptoms, root causes, neutral effects, and consequences. Second, we should then apply trend analysis to determine symptomatically how the problem has evolved over time and how it manifests itself. This should focus on the symptoms rather than the root causes or the consequences. Literature allowing, we should pick up the trends of the symptoms of the problem under study as far back as possible. Third, after determining that the problem under study does exist, we should then apply the problem tree and the theory-of-constraints to construct a problem tree – that is, logically linking the root causes including the neutral effects and the consequences to the symptoms (right hand side of Figure 2).

Fourth, one should then use the constructed trend and problem tree to source, summarise, and synthesise literature to discuss the trend over time and the cause-effect of the research problem under study. The discussion should distinctively point out, with support from literature, the symptoms, the root-causes, and the consequences. We should emphasise beginning with a brainstorming session before sourcing literature to support our brainstorming product (trend and problem tree) as well as reconfigure it should the literature suggest so. A 'Figure 3 type' illustration should accompany the discussion so that it is focused, comprehensive, and critical. Further, we should also detail the literature sources including the data, information, and frameworks they employed as well as the limitations. Where possible, we should suggest how our research will overcome the possible limitations.

On concluding the research problem analysis, we need to take a stand on what is plausible to pursue and yet contribute to the research knowledge gap (next section). This is easier said than done because in business and public administration and management literature concludes differently. Some literature points to the problem actually existing while other literature will state otherwise.

In sum, it is important to undertake a thorough research problem analysis because it informs the remaining subcomponents of the conceptual framework and the other components of the entire research. More notably, a research problem interrogation helps us to refine our research conceptualisation – that is, the research problem statement, the research purpose statement, and the research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or propositions. Therefore, a research problem analysis as well as a thorough understanding of the physical research context or setting determines what we should potentially pursue as well as focus on in our incumbent research. This also implies constraining the number of root causes that we should pursue. A thorough research problem analysis, in context of its physical research setting, will expose several factors affecting or affected by the problem under study. Regardless, we should only select, justify, and pursue utmost two root causes in a single research undertaking. Over and above, we should always contextualise the research problem analysis within its physical research setting. First of all, it is pointless to pursue a research problem that does not exist in our physical research setting or

Figure 3: Showing a Preliminary Product of Undertaking a Research Problem Analysis Before Sourcing Literature to Support or Reconfigure the Identified Factors and their Relationship



Source: Author

context even though it exists elsewhere. Second, it is our duty to show, with support from literature, that a researchable problem does indeed exist in the physical research setting or context. Lastly, contextualising the research problem within its physical research setting allows for distinguishing factors as well as literature that applies to our research from that which does not.

6. Research Knowledge Gap Analysis

It is a must that researchers should pursue a research that advances existing knowledge (Levy & Ellis, 2006; Rocco & Plakhotnik 2009). Ideally, the research knowledge gap is the difference between the research problem and what others have already pursued or uncovered on this research problem. Therefore, after reviewing literature to understand the research problem (second subcomponent of the conceptual framework) preferably in its physical research context or setting (first subcomponent of the conceptual framework), we should then proceed to undertake a research knowledge gap analysis (third subcomponent of a conceptual

framework). By decoding what others have not yet pursued, this interrogation provides justification why a research is worth pursuing and, if so, which of the strands among those we identified during the research problem analysis should we pursue to effectively contribute to the body of knowledge. As discussed in Section 3, we should differentiate between theoretical research knowledge gap and empirical knowledge gap. The former is the one we have just described above while the latter is the one we identify after undertaking the empirical part of the research under study. It differentiates the research results and findings of other studies from the results and findings of the research we are currently pursuing. This might extend to testing the ability of existing established frameworks to interpret research findings (Wotela, 2018).

To identify the theoretical research knowledge gap, we should review past and current empirical or primary research articles on the research topic under study so that we point out what others have pursued. In doing so, we can infer what has not been pursued - that is, the theoretical research

knowledge gap. Further, when doing so, we should also familiarise ourselves with the research strategy, research design, research procedure and methods that these similar studies employed. This includes the data or information they collected and analysed, their empirical research results, their research findings and the frameworks they used to interpret the research findings, the conclusions they draw as well as their documented research limitations and recommendations. Finally, we should also critically assess these articles and point out their strengths and limitations.

The starting point to a theoretical knowledge gap analysis is a detailed search and sourcing of empirical research studies on the subject under study. We should attempt to source ALL similar past and current empirical research studies done within our physical research setting or context and at least SOME done elsewhere. However, we should limit our search to empirical or primary studies. This means published studies that actually collected, collated, processed, and analysed research data or information before presenting the research results and discussing the research findings. Put differently, unless otherwise we should avoid theoretical studies without an empirical component. Once we have sourced the empirical studies, we should reflect on their content individually and as a collective. Sourcing past and current empirical and primary research studies is a defining moment because we should hope to find similar but not identical studies. If we find a research study that is identical to ours, it probably means we have no research knowledge gap to uncover and, therefore, our incumbent research cannot advance the existing knowledge. In this case, it is certainly fruitless to pursue such a research because we will not contribute anything to the known body of knowledge.

After sourcing the required and relevant literature, we can use Figure 4 - which is a customised thematic analysis grid template - to undertake a research knowledge gap analysis. See Anderson, Lees, and Avery (2015) for a discussion on thematic analysis grids. If used correctly, the research knowledge gap thematic analysis grid can provide for a structured, comprehensive, and critical approach to reviewing literature. The first column of the analysis grid template provides for the required information or themes on or from the sourced empirical or primary research article. We should use the top part of the grid - that is, above the grey shade - to capture

'administrative' information on the sourced articles. The bottom part is for capturing the 'content' from the sourced articles. The 12 themes are meant to guide what we should focus on when undertaking a theoretical research knowledge gap analysis. If need arises, we can add more or even subtract themes. Therefore, the second to fourth columns of Figure 4 provides for information on each article (top part) and information from each article on each of the 12 themes (bottom part). Similarly, we can extend the number of columns depending on the number of articles that we have sourced.

When fragmenting or abstracting information on each of the 12 themes, we should not paraphrase as yet but rather enter it into the spreadsheet as it is in the source articles accompanied by the page number (hence the "... pxx to provide for this) where the respective information is coming from. It should be more like we are highlighting text using a highlighter pen only we are actually transferring this text onto the analysis grid template. Further, the information fragment should not be more than 100 words or five sentences in each cell. Limiting the number of words provides for abstracting important material only. Not all articles will have information on all the 12 themes. Regardless, we suggest that each theme should have information from at least three articles.

Lastly, in the last row, we should point out what we think are the limitations of each article that we have sourced and fragmented. Therefore, apart from the limitations that each article documents, we should also assess and state what we think are the limitations of each article. The last three columns provide for us to interrogate similarities (third last column) and differences (second last column) of various authors - of the abstracted information - on each of the 12 themes. The last column (own reconciliation) provides for our final thought on what we think the articles are collectively communicating on each theme.

When writing up, we should introduce these studies as a collective and then briefly describe them individually starting with the earliest until the latest. We can also group them by area of focus especially if such areas resonate with our incumbent research. We propose concluding the research knowledge gap analysis with a write-up on the material in the last three columns of Figure 4 (similarities, differences, and reconciliation). These columns allow for us to

Figure 4: Showing a Research Knowledge Gap Analysis Template

Author and year:						
Title of the article:						
Start and end page:						
Country of publication:						
Record of where it is located:						
Type of the article (<i>book/journal/report</i>):						
Academic discipline:						
Topic:						
A brief description of the author:						
A brief description of the article (<i>i.e. central idea and argument</i>):						
				Similarities	Differences	Own reconciliation
Aim and objectives of the research	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Interpretive/theoretical frameworks considered	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Research strategy (qualitative or quantitative)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Research design	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Data/information collection instrument used	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Target population and sampling technique applied	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Data/information collection process	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Data/information processing	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Data/information analysis	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Key empirical results presented	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Key research findings	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Limitations the study has documented	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)	"... " (pxx)			
Your own assessed limitations of the study						

Source: Author

start with what we want to say about these studies as a collective before drawing in selected literature to support our argument. This is the hallmark of good writing, research or otherwise. Further, we should highlight the limitations of these empirical studies (last row) as well as suggest how we intend to mitigate these in our incumbent research. Lastly, we should attribute all our arguments (idea or direct) and reference them correctly.

In sum, the theoretical research knowledge gap analysis serves three purposes. First, to point out the aims, objectives, research strategies, designs, procedures and methods as well as interpretive frameworks that similar research studies have applied. Second and an extension of the first, the research knowledge gap analysis should provide us with some research methodological options that we should consider employing when we undertake the empirical part of the incumbent research. Lastly and more importantly, to point out the research results, findings and conclusions of similar research studies and in doing so we should identify the theoretical research knowledge gap. Our potential theoretical research knowledge gap is the difference between our incumbent research problem and what other similar research studies have pursued and resolved. Procedurally, having detailed the research problem of the incumbent research, all we need to do is compare it with what other similar research studies have pursued and resolved. However, we should not be tempted to pursue ALL the unpursued or unresolved facets or root causes of a research problem in a single research because it might be too broad and, therefore, compromised on its criticality.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

Within the context of the six components of a research report, Wotela (2017a) has discussed the second component of a research report - that is, the conceptual framework which he describes as a summarised outline that proposes how we should undertake the empirical part of our respective research based on an articulated theoretical interrogation of key literature. Further, he points out and details the six subcomponents of a conceptual framework. This paper is a contribution on how we can conceptualise a business and public administration research as part of the 'introduction to the research' (first component of a research report) and then explicitly interrogate literature on the first three (of six) subcomponents of a conceptual framework

(second component of a research report) to in turn augment the initial research conceptualisation. These three (of six) subcomponents of a conceptual framework are the physical research setting or context analysis, research problem analysis, and the research knowledge gap analysis. Therefore, apart from being key building blocks of a conceptual framework, the first three (of six) subcomponents of a conceptual framework are key ingredients of a solid research conceptualisation.

The paper has highlighted that research conceptualisation - that is, the research title, the research problem statement, the research purpose statement, and the research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses and propositions - is the nerve centre of a research undertaking. More importantly, we should idealistically initialise research conceptualisation and then augment it after interrogating key literature. This implies that we can only consider research conceptualisation as finalised after we have interrogated key literature and conceptualised its conceptual framework (second component of a research report). Second, the paper has emphasised the importance of contextualising a business and public administration research within its physical setting. Invariably, this implies that a research problem analysis should be contextualised within its physical research setting. Therefore, before interrogating literature on the research problem, we should interrogate literature on the key features of the physical research setting or context as well as those that relate the physical research setting or context to the research problem under study.

Third, for the research problem analysis, we should logically link the key factors and attributes of the research problem under study rather than presenting it as 'he said, she-said' that is typical in most business and public administration research. Therefore, we have proposed the use of systems methodology (Gharajedaghi, 2006) to identify and possibly link the key factors and attributes key to the research problem under study. Further, we have proposed using the problem tree and the theory of constraint also known as the current reality tree (Youngman, 2009) to (i.) categorise the key factors and attributes key to the research problem under study into symptoms, root causes, neutral effects, and consequences as well as (ii.) linking them into a logical tree-like structure. It is only after this reflective exercise that we should then summon

academic and non-academic literature to support or help us readjust our categorisation and linkages. The final product of this exercise is neither wrong nor right but it should be anchored in literature.

Fourth, after interrogating the research problem under study we should then undertake a theoretical research knowledge gap analysis. This interrogation points out what similar past and current research studies have pursued and resolved so that we know what we should pursue and aim to resolve in our incumbent research. We should explicitly opt to pursue what others have not resolved so that our incumbent research can potentially contribute to the body of knowledge. Further, we should pursue only one or utmost two root causes so that our research is focused and, hence, detailed and critical. A well done theoretical research knowledge gap analysis does provide for research strategies, design, procedure and methods we should consider for our incumbent research. We have emphasised that conceptualisation of our respective incumbent research is incomplete unless it incorporates the theoretical research knowledge gap.

In sum, this paper is answering the question, 'how can we conceptualise a solid business and public administration research?' There should be an explicit and purposive interrogation of the research problem under study in the context of its physical research setting as well as an informed research knowledge gap at the core of the research title, the research problem statement, the research purpose statement, and the research questions as well as where applicable the accompanying research hypotheses or propositions. The process and products of analysing the research physical context or setting, the research problem, and the research knowledge gap should be detailed enough to sufficiently contribute and determine the other subcomponents of the conceptual framework as well as the other components of the research including research conceptualisation.

We should treat this paper as an alternative guide that helps us navigate through a purposive literature review process. It is start-up capital that provides an initial structure as well as a process with the hope that our thought process would take over as we increasingly understand what we need to do. Therefore, it is not about merely following these steps but rather as Wotela (2016) has argued, the emphasis is a reflective process guided

by continuously asking and answering the questions 'what' should I do, 'why' should I do it, and 'how' should I do it? The product of a literature review and a solid research conceptualisation should be a well-defined output beyond the 'he-said, she-said' common in business and public administration research. Further, the outcome should be the innovative approach to how we should undertake the empirical part of our incumbent research. This means continuously asking 'why am I doing this?', 'what am I learning from this?', 'how is this relevant to my research?', and 'how do I adapt and integrate this knowledge into my research?' Whilst our target is business and public administration and management students we are confident that the principles we have discussed and proposed do apply to other social sciences and humanities.

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Factors Inhibiting the Reduction of Policeable Crime in Gauteng Province

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Abstract: Zinn (2010) points out that despite emphasis and police effort to deal with and contain business robberies, house robberies and car hijacking, these crimes increased nationally by 22 per cent in the 2008/09 financial year. Between 2015/16 and 2016/17 financial years, aggravated robberies went up by 8 per cent (SAPS Annual Report, 2016/17). The question is, 'what inhibits the reduction of policeable crime in Gauteng?' To answer this question, we developed an interpretive and conceptual framework to be published in a peer reviewed journal, but whose summary we share in this paper. Based on this proposed research framework, this paper shares some empirical evidence on factors that inhibit the reduction of policeable crime in Gauteng Province. The research results and findings show that South African Police Service (SAPS) leadership in Gauteng Province still rely on traditional forms of policing that have failed to adapt to strategies crime perpetrators are using. Hough and others (2008) have argued that for an organisation to be successful, its strategy should be aligned with its environment. Further, the inability to adapt explains why the South African Police Service in Gauteng Province lacks a credible strategy, leading to management inefficiency save for a few police clusters whose commanders have introduced credible strategies limited to their clusters only. Such a status quo is attributable to a lacking Provincial leadership, if not national. As Newham (2015, p.43) sums it up, there is a "serial crisis of top management in the police, which has started to take its toll on the effectiveness and public credibility of the South African Police Service".

Keywords: Crime, Leadership, Policeable, Policing, Reduction

1. Introduction

Policing is a dynamic environment, where criminals employ different and sophisticated strategies in order to commit crime. Leadership in the South African Police Service (SAPS) in the Gauteng province has a role of implementing the national policing policy, the latter which should be implemented through strategies and programmes. For this to happen there is a need for an overarching strategy, as well as efficient organisational arrangements. The police should be able to study the mode of operation of criminals and counteract their acts through effective strategies. In this paper, we outline factors that inhibit the police leadership in Gauteng to reduce policeable crime. Policeable crime is crime whose decrease is dependent on police action for reduction (De Cock, Krieglner & Shaw, 2015). These authors point out that with crime such as robbery, burglary and carjacking, there is a large scope for policing tools to be used to reduce them, which make them more policeable than other crimes such as assault, commercial crime and sexual offences. The write-up begins with a discussion on the challenge of leadership within the police service, within the context of the South African Police Service as

an organisation. Thereafter, we review methods of data collection for the study carried out, as well as the findings. The findings are discussed within the theoretical frameworks that have facilitated the interpretation of empirical findings. In particular, these are the strategic leadership theory, in as far as it explains the importance of vision casting, as well as the contingency theory of organisations, which explains the importance of adapting to the external situation by leaders through developing strategies and aligning systems.

2. The South African Police Service as an Organisation

In this section, we undertake a research setting or context analysis to understand the South African Police Service as an organisation. To do this, we outline the mandate, structure and certain systems that are found in the South African Police Service. The SAPS, established in terms of sections 199 and 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, is structured to function in the national, provincial and local spheres of government. It is managed administratively by a National Commissioner, and also has provincial leadership in the form of Provincial

Commissioners, who could develop province-specific strategies (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). The next layer of leadership is that of cluster commanders, who are at an executive management level, known as Major Generals, a level that comes after that of a provincial commissioner. Cluster commanders are also able to come up with strategies to deal with crime, where there is a capability to do so. Finally, there are station commanders, most of which are at a senior management level, referred to as Brigadiers, which is equivalent to the level of a director in government. The station commanders report to the cluster commanders, and the cluster commanders in turn report to the Provincial Commissioner. However, the instruction to implement a certain policing policy normally comes from the National Commissioner, and this gets filtered straight to the stations. Sometimes the Provincial Commissioner also issues out a blanket instruction to cluster commanders in dealing with crime, especially in areas that are ridden with high criminal incidents.

The constitutional responsibility of the SAPS is to combat, prevent and investigate crime (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). In fulfilling this mandate, the police can either embark on activities geared towards preventing criminal behaviour by addressing some of the causes and through securing convictions – where a judge in a court of law decides that someone is guilty of an offence. The programmes or business units that make the fulfilling of this mandate possible are Visible Policing, Detective Services and Crime Intelligence. Of interest to this study are the visible policing component, which is responsible for proactive and reactive policing, detective services which should detect crime, effect arrest and facilitate successful convictions; as well as the crime intelligence component which gathers intelligence on organised crime in particular (Freeman & McDonald, 2015). Crucial to note is that aggravated robberies form part of organised crime.

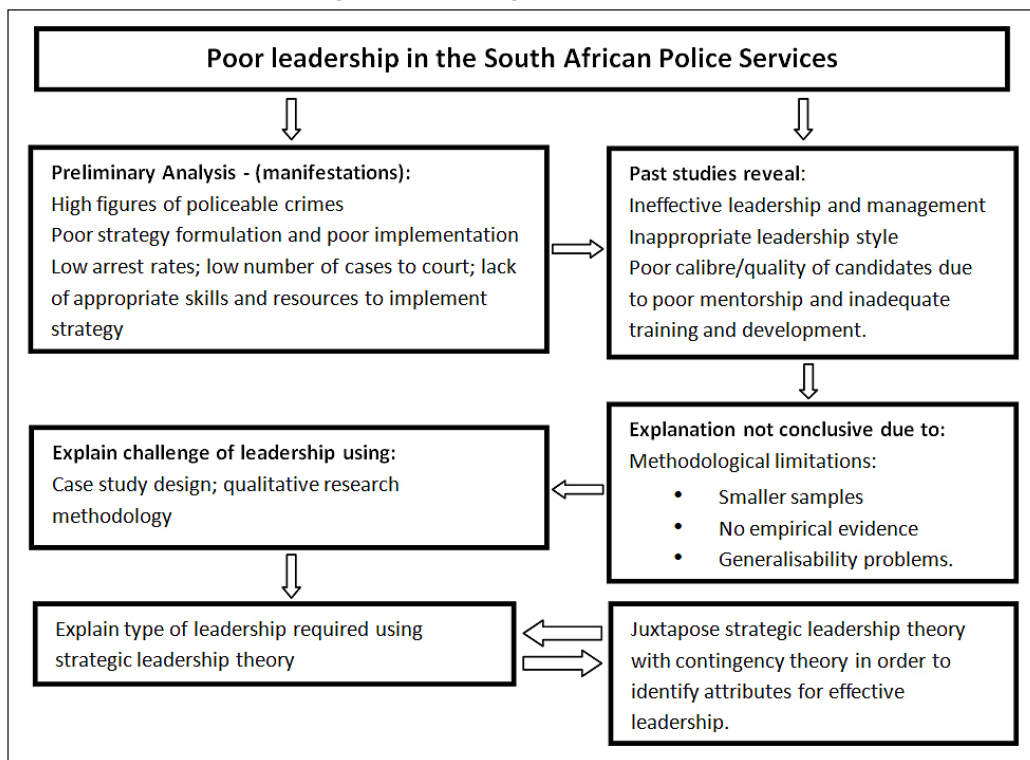
3. The Challenge of Leadership in the South African Police Service

Gauteng has the highest level of these crimes when compared with other provinces (SAPS Annual Report, 2017/18). However, the leadership in the South African Police Service in Gauteng seems to be finding it difficult to significantly reduce policeable crime and in this case, aggravated robbery. This is

true even after the police have increased their personnel numbers and budget, with the belief that an increase in personnel, especially in visible policing, would boost their ability to deal with crime. Zinn (2010) points out that despite the special emphasis to deal with business robberies, house robberies and car hijacking in the 2008/09 financial year, as well as police efforts to contain them, these crimes increased nationally by 22 per cent then. Between 2015/16 and 2016/17 financial years, aggravated robberies went up by 8 per cent. Robbery at residential premises as well as car-jacking increased significantly from 2012/13 until 2016/17 in Gauteng. Whereas carjacking went up by 16.9 percent in the same period, robbery at residential premises also increased by 10.6 percent (SAPS Annual Report, 2016/17). Important to note is that Gauteng contributes 50 per cent of the national crime figures (Ngantweni, 2014). Although we acknowledge the existence of a myriad of reasons why crime is not decreasing significantly, including socio-economic reasons, lack of proper leadership seems to be the main reason for an increase in policeable crime in Gauteng. Police leadership tend to instruct officers on the ground to conduct patrols and road blocks to reduce crime, even though these strategies proved not bear fruit (Gould, Burger & Newham, 2010). Leaders are responsible for developing strategies and systems to ensure organisational efficiency, but this has been a challenge in SAPS in Gauteng for quite some time (Altbekker, 2007; Burger, 2007; Cachalia, 2007).

The crime prevention and combatting function can also be attained through detection, which would facilitate that a number of suspects are arrested and have their cases finalised. However, this seems to be a challenge as well. There have been a few arrests for aggravated robberies when compared to other crimes, as well as a low detection rate on aggravated robberies nationally. The detection rate went down from 22.23 per cent in 2012/13 to 17.87 per cent in 2016/2017 financial year (Institute for Security Studies, 2018). In terms of arrests, there is a stark difference between total arrests for other crimes and arrests for aggravated robberies. Arrests for other crimes were above the 500 000 mark in 2016/17, whereas those for aggravated robberies were only above the 60 000 mark in the same financial year. This is against the backdrop of more than 140 000 recorded figures for aggravated robberies in the entire country in 2017 (Institute for Security Studies, 2018). The focus is on aggravated robberies

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Authors

because these crimes can be solved through a strategy that the police can develop, looking at multiple factors that lead to their increase.

This paper seeks to answer the question as to what are the strategic, implementation and management issues that explain the inability to arrest policeable crime in Gauteng? The paper could go on to ask other research questions, but the scope of the paper is to look at the factors that inhibit the reduction of policeable crime in the Gauteng Province. The section that follows illustrates a conceptual framework for this study, which was actually a roadmap which was followed to ultimately get to the findings.

4. Towards Assessing the Challenge of Leadership in the South African Police Service

The area of focus for this paper is leadership, as leaders should be able to both formulate and implement strategy so as to achieve organisational goals (Grant, 1991; Cronje, 2004). We started this paper by outlining briefly, the structure and mandate of the South African Police Service, as an organisation in which the research problem has been identified. The police service is a national competency, whose

strategies and operations are normally initiated at the national level and cascaded to the nine provinces. The core mandate of the SAPS is to ensure that the inhabitants of South Africa are safe from crime (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Among others, the responsibilities of the police have been documented in section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, as being to prevent, combat and investigate crime (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). However, the research problem as identified in this section is that leadership in the SAPS seems to find it difficult to significantly reduce the incidences of policeable crime. Studies have been undertaken to address the challenge of ineffective police leadership, but little is known about the ability of the South African Police Service leadership in Gauteng to adapt to challenges and fluidity of crime by developing strategies to deal with crime, as well as adjusting its systems.

In part, the SAPS did not significantly reduce crime due to the fact that funding was not really allocated strategically, that is, to units that would play a more meaningful role in addressing crime than others. Other reasons are that strategies were poorly developed and implemented. Strategies formulated to reduce crime were not based on a

thorough analysis of the external environment, thus implying that SAPS could not adequately deal with contingencies in the external environment since the same were not comprehensively identified. This would also create a misalignment of the said challenges with the capabilities and resources of the SAPS as an organisation. Strategy implementation was plagued with systemic challenges and lack of skills (Altbekker, 2007; Burger, 2007). Inability or incompetence in strategic management on the part of the leadership could be cited as a root factor to SAPS' challenge in not being able to arrest policeable crime. In this study, we do not refer to the political economy of the country, which may be one of the contributing factors to this problem. This study therefore seeks to resolve this national police problem, as also highlighted in other studies, (Policy Advisory Council, 2007; O'Regan and Pikoli, 2014) with a specific focus on Gauteng Province as it has more policing resources than other provinces (Estimates of National Expenditure, 2012).

Studies to address the problem of leadership not only in the police across the world but also in the public sector have pointed to similar problems of ineffective leadership and management (Adams, 2010; Chetty, 2011). The police style of leadership was also regarded as contributing to poor leadership in general. Absence of candidates of adequate quality and caliber was also found to be a problem (Doby *et al.*, 2004; Schafer, 2009). The root cause of this problem was poor mentorship and well as inadequate training and development of leaders (Veitch, nd; Booyens, 2005; Naidoo, 2005; Siswana, 2007; Chavalala, 2010). Most of these studies resolved that development of police leaders would resolve the said problem (Schafer, 2009; Veitch, n.d). The public sector was also inundated with problems of poor policy implementation, poor communication of the vision as well as lack of skills and resources in implementing policies, which are problems that have been identified in the police as well (Naidoo, 2005; Siswana, 2007). These studies embarked on both quantitative and qualitative methods. The limitations of the said studies were methodological in nature, where some major conclusions could not be reached in some instances either because only few individuals were interviewed, or there was no empirical evidence to reach some conclusions, while others could not be generalised to a broader population. In order to resolve the problems identified by the researchers in these studies, the bulk of them (Doby *et al.*, 2004; Booyens, 2005, Naidoo,

2005; Chetty, 2011; Masufi, 2012; Veitch, nd) utilised elements of transformational leadership theory.

Leadership has been identified as a field within which this study could be situated. We define leadership as "process of ensuring organisational effectiveness, by articulating a vision, setting goals and providing direction, and not as a position" (Grint, 2005; Hough *et al.*, 2008; Carsten *et al.*, 2010; Pierce & Newstrom, 2011). The leader is able to provide direction by creating a conducive environment for followers, through some attributes. Leadership is also a process that changes with situations (Pierce & Newstrom, 2011).

Although a series of leadership paradigms and theories were identified and studied, the study selected a strategic leadership theory as a primary and suitable theory for analyzing the findings of the study, as it is based on vision as a major determinant of leadership. The selected theory also has the attribute of competence, which has as its sub-components, communication of a vision as well as innovation and decisiveness, and other contextual attributes such as empowerment and organisational capability (Daft, 2005/2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Some of the attributes that were identified were flexibility and adaptability, which entail the ability of a leader to adapt with changes in the external environment through developing a new strategy (Achua & Lussier, 2012). Strategic leadership is also about motivation and inspiration of followers to achieve organisational goals, as well as leading change (Daft, 2005/2008; Rafferty & Griffin, 2011). The attributes in this study are inter-linked and interdependent and when taken together, they complete the leadership process. In addition, we selected the contingency theory of organisations as another theory which would be used to collect and analyse data for this study. Thus, a leader that adapts to contingencies in the external environment is flexible, competent and able to communicate a vision. The external environment here is the meso and micro environment wherein the SAPS operates. These frameworks have assisted in interpreting the research findings.

5. Methodology and Data Collection Procedure

In order to understand issues of organisational arrangements and how they enable or disable strategy implementation in the SAPS in Gauteng,

our research took the form of qualitative research, with a focus on semi structured interviews and focus group interviews. The research design was a case study – that of Gauteng – which would provide detailed and extensive data on the issue being studied. Gauteng was selected as it has a high rate of aggravated robberies when compared with other provinces, and has also been provided with the bulk of resources to deal with the said crime. However, the police in Gauteng have not been able to significantly reduce those crimes. In order to collect data, semi-structured interviews were held with various respondents. With the semi structured interviews, were able to ask further questions that were not on the interview schedule, based on the replies of the participant. The benefit with focus groups in turn is that "participants are able to build on one another's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view that is not obtainable from individual or group interviews" (Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012:135).

For the research sample, we embarked on non-probability sampling, with both purposive and snowball sampling used. Snowball sampling was used to get additional respondents among academics in particular. The entire sample consisted of respondents both within and outside the police service. From the police side, interviews were held with two former provincial commissioners of Gauteng, ten cluster commanders, each of whom had up to 42 years of experience in the SAPS, nine station commanders, with between 28 and 30 years' experience in policing as well as former senior police managers. Interviews were also held with academics and researchers in the area of policing, some members of the national and Gauteng Secretariat of police at both junior and senior management levels, one business expert in policing, and a leader in the South African Police Union. In total, 35 respondents were interviewed, apart from the focus group interviews. Finally, we also conducted five focus groups with police officers on the ground between the ranks of a constable and lieutenant colonel. Interviews were transcribed and a thematic data analysis carried out.

In terms of ethical considerations, we obtained approval for the study through the University of the Witwatersrand's Human Research Ethics Committee. Ethical issues such as voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity were pointed out in the application for ethical clearance. Permission to interview police officers was also obtained from the South African

Police Service office in Gauteng. Respondents were assured of the confidentiality of the responses that they gave, in that the information they gave was not ascribed to them.

One of the main limitations of the study was that we were unable to interview the Provincial Commissioner of SAPS in Gauteng in 2017, as well as the Acting National Police Commissioner of SAPS in 2016 and 2017, including the former National Police Commissioners of Police from 2009 to 2015. However, these would not have affected the findings of the study as officers from both the national office and provincial offices were interviewed. Another administrative limitation is that some of the low ranking officers were afraid of being put on record, with the fear that what they would have said would be revealed to their managers. This was despite having explained the purpose of the study and having assured them of confidentiality of the information and that they would remain anonymous. This limitation was addressed through a triangulation of data sources in the main, as well as data collection techniques (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2011; Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2012). The methodology for the study was however, strong in terms of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Bryman, 2012).

6. Results and Discussion

6.1 Traditional Policing Versus Intelligence Led Policing

The findings reveal that instead of adapting to the mode of operation of criminals by developing strategies, station commanders and some cluster commanders tend to rely on traditional methods of policing to deal with policeable crime. Most station commanders revealed that visible policing approach, road blocks and crime prevention operations were used as tactics to prevent aggravated robberies. These kind of operations do not bear fruit because they either displace crime to another area, or lead to a situation where criminals wait for the police to finish their operations and then go and carry out their activities. This explains why one of the senior police managers said the following, "the police are known to make fire out of cardboard and paper, meaning quick approach in terms of operations, flooding the area with police." In other words, these operations are not sustainable. Those who advocate for police visibility as a

mechanism of addressing crime have mentioned that aggravated robberies have gone up because of poor police visibility. One downside of visibility is that due to stop and searches, suspects that are supposed to be arrested get to escape and relocate to other areas in order to evade arrests. The study gathered that visibility is only useful if it is informed by a crime pattern analysis, rather than it being haphazard. Intelligence led policing enables the police to focus on identified problematic areas. The challenge with this is that there are those police managers at station level that underestimate the importance of intelligence in dealing with crime. Therefore, visible policing can only serve as a deterrence where it is strategic, that is, directed by intelligence. Use of intelligence would mean that the police position themselves strategically in order to deal with crime by following the patterns provided by the information at the disposal of the police and developing a strategy.

The challenge with crime intelligence however, is that there is a fund, also known as "paggeld", which is supposed to be used by the police in recruiting and paying informers, but is not used adequately. There is therefore a challenge with the recruitment of informers, which explains why there is weak intelligence capability at SAPS. There is also not enough personnel in crime intelligence as the police service has lost these to the private sector due to the lucrative salaries that are offered in the private sector. Notwithstanding this grim situation, there are few stations that deploy police vehicles and personnel to hotspots, as informed by crime threat analysis and the modus operandi of criminals.

6.2 Absence of a Contemporary Strategy to Deal with Crime

The findings reveal that SAPS in Gauteng has no strategy to deal with aggravated robberies. Several respondents believe that the problem of aggravated robberies in Gauteng is not a problem of police officers on the ground, but rather a strategy issue. When the police in Gauteng implemented an Aggravated Robbery Strategy in 2008, there was a decline in some of the crimes that fall under the aggravated robbery category. For instance, house robberies were reduced by 20 per cent, business robberies by 19 per cent and hijackings by 32 per cent between 2009 and 2011 (Newham, 2017). To the lack of strategy in the province, one respondent remarked as follows, "so at the moment what

we are doing with aggravated robbery is hit and miss." Another respondent referred to the manner in which SAPS in Gauteng is dealing with aggravated robberies as fire brigade policing, which amounts to crisis management. The police do not have a strategy which puts together crime prevention or visible policing, detective services, crime intelligence, supply chain management and human resources management unit so that they all work in tandem. One of the contributory factors to lack of strategy is the fact that SAPS is a national competency and therefore, provinces tend to wait for a strategy from the national office, rather than developing their own. The province should be able to define its own problems, but this is not the case. This is a structural and legislative problem, which has compromised policing. Some senior managers in the police in Gauteng mentioned the fact that they did not develop strategies because it is not expected of them to do so.

This finding is not unique to Gauteng but Khayelitsha in the Western Cape, where there was no strategy to deal with high levels of crime (O'Regan & Pikoli, 2014). This system has weakened the effectiveness of the SAPS as an institution that is mandated to see to the safety and security of the inhabitants of the country. A lack of strategy leads to the police adopting reactive approaches to crime prevention, rather than dealing with the causes. The reactive approaches displace crime rather than rooting it out. Instead of having a strategy in place and monitoring its implementation, SAPS in the Gauteng province and nationally use a performance chart system to determine police stations that are performing badly as well as those performing well. The performance chart partly relies on information recorded on the Crime Administration System, which could easily be manipulated by stations, as revealed by respondents. Between 2008 and 2010, as pointed out by Bruce (2011), there have been concerns over allegations of manipulation of crime statistics by some police stations in Gauteng and the Western Cape. What the police leaders fail to recognise with this approach is that crime figures do not say anything about the dynamics of crime, and can therefore not be used to determine if stations are performing well or not (Kriegler & Shaw, 2016).

6.3 Management Inefficiencies

Management inefficiencies or poor supervision at station level can also explain why the police are not

effective in addressing policeable crime. One of the manifestations of the inefficiencies is the inability of station commanders to use the information provided by the Crime Information and Analysis Centre to develop strategies or interventions to curb crime. What also came out was that there is no good quality management at station level, where officers are not made to account on patrols they claim to have conducted. Some of the station commanders do not use the Automatic Vehicle Location System (AVL) to ascertain if officers have indeed conducted patrols. When the cluster commanders try to verify the officers' reports about patrols through the AVL, they realise that the report coming from the officers and the one generated by the AVL are sometimes in conflict with each other, meaning that there were no patrols taken. Incidents which indicated ill-discipline, such as those of officers coming to work whilst intoxicated, were reported by respondents. This lack of command and control was also identified in a study conducted by the Policy Advisory Council as appointed by the former Police National Commissioner Jackie Selebi.

In terms of detective performance, there is no urgency on the part of the detectives to arrest a suspect that has been identified by a victim. Some of the dockets end up being closed as undetected, meaning that a suspect could not be found or there was not enough evidence at the crime scene to secure an arrest. Research conducted by the Department of Community Safety between 2011 and 2012 reveals that in some of the cases that were closed as undetected, thorough detective work was not carried out. For example, physical evidence was not collected, 24 hour inspections were not conducted, stolen goods list was not circulated, informers were not tasked to assist with the investigations and the investigating officers did not comply with instructions of prosecutors. The quality of the statements was also a concern, especially in relation to the description of the suspects and objects used in the commission of crime (Department of Community Safety 2012). Even in our study, the quality of statements was raised as a concern. This is an indication that the shift commanders, detective team leader, detective commander and station commander are not playing their part. With these challenges, the work of the detectives cannot serve as a deterrent for further crimes as there are few arrests and therefore few convictions. Respondents actually mentioned that there were more cases closed as undetected than those that ended with a guilty conviction.

6.4 Some Exceptions to the Gloomy Picture

Against all odds, there are few pockets of excellence in the SAPS, where some senior managers at cluster level and a few at station level adjust to the external environment through development of strategies and systems to deal with policeable crime. This has been identified from some cluster commanders who either use intelligence to bring about systems to address aggravated robberies, or develop strategies. Some of these have developed partnerships with several role players in the field of safety and security in order to address crime challenges, whilst others used both intelligence and members of the community to deal with crime. These are but few cluster commanders who have been innovative enough to come up with solutions for crime in their own clusters. These cluster commanders have been in the South African Police Service for more than 30 years and had been in senior management either at cluster or station level for 10 years and more. Involvement of other stakeholders in crime prevention included the sharing of resources that certain communities have, such as cellular phones and vehicles.

This study has revealed that despite high levels of crime, especially aggravated robberies, SAPS in Gauteng does not adapt to strategies that criminals employ through developing a counter-strategy. This has been proven by the manner in which a lot of managers at station level prefer to embark upon police visibility in order to deal with aggravated robberies. This problem is neither new nor unique to Gauteng. The Policy Advisory Council, as appointed by the then National Commissioner of Police Jackie Selebi between 2006 and 2007, found that despite the challenges of aggravated robbery and commercial crime at the time, there was no structured plan at national level to empower stations to manage and reduce crime. Rather, crime combatting interventions from the national office were irregular and not sustainable (SAPS, 2007). Stations were tasked by provinces to conduct operations and roadblocks with no consideration to specific needs of the station, and some of these were not intelligence based. At most of the stations visited, crime intelligence was not provided, for purposes of crime combatting.

On the detective services, the findings revealed a poor quality of investigations and low conviction rate. The poor quality of investigations was partly as a result of lack of proper command and control.

Another study by O'Regan and Pikoli (2014) in Khayelitsha, also illustrated inefficiencies in policing in three police stations in Khayelitsha. The study was requested by the Premier of the Western Cape at the time, partly to investigate complaints of allegations of inefficiency at the three Khayelitsha police stations. This study found that many crimes were not investigated properly as cases were often withdrawn or struck off the roll due to incomplete investigations. In terms of investigations, detectives did not comply with instructions of prosecutors, there was poor statement taking where elements of crime were not included in the statements. The main reason for these inefficiencies was poor management at station level, the cluster and provincial level. SAPS in Khayelitsha did not have any strategy in place to deal with vigilante attacks and youth gangs.

In line with the contingency theory of organisations, the police are expected to scan the environment through the use of information made available by crime intelligence and determine what the trends are, and develop strategies to counteract the acts of the criminals. As argued by Zhao, Lovrich and Robinson (2001, p.367), "individual organisations must adapt themselves to their external environment when their goal /goals are affected by change in their operating conditions." This action is expected of a strategic leader, upon noticing a change in the external environment. At the core of the contingency theory is that "the performance of an organisation is contingent on how well it fits the context within which it is embedded" (Zhao, Lovrich & Robinson, 2001, p.367; Kuhns III, Maguire & Cox, 2007, p429). The police can therefore not stick to traditional methods of policing even though they have proven not to work. The police managers and leaders in Gauteng have instead focused on visible policing, which amounted to a disjuncture or misalignment between operations and external conditions.

Traditional forms of crime control became increasingly ineffective in the late 1960s and 1970s, as they illustrated a poor fit between the societal environment and the strategic organisation of policing (Zhao, Lovrich & Robinson, 2001). Embarking on road blocks implies that police managers and leaders tend to put more emphasis on outputs than outcomes, resulting in officers becoming pre-occupied with the number of road blocks they must carry out rather than the results of the crime prevention efforts (Bruce, 2011). Ultimately, a misfit

between the organisation and its environment leads to the worsening of organisational performance (Zhao, Lovrich & Robinson, 2001). This has been evident in this study, which revealed that there was an increase in rates of aggravated robbery between 2012/13 and 2016/17 financial years.

Some of the attributes of effective police leadership which emanate from the contingency theory of organisations as well as the strategic leadership theory are vision, adaptability, flexibility and decisiveness, which illustrate the ability of a leader to adapt to the external environment by developing a strategy. Strategic leaders craft a strategy in order to bring about effectiveness as they are "responsible for the relationship of the external environment to choices about vision, mission, strategy and their implementation" (Daft, 2005/2008, p.288). Strategic leadership theory postulates that a strategic leader's principal task is setting a vision for an organization and providing a conducive environment for its implementation (Hitt, Keats & DeMarie, 1998; Ireland & Hitt, 2005; Hitt, Haynes & Serpa, 2010). In the absence of leaders with such calibre, an organisation will remain ineffective. The research reveals that at the time of the research, there were only few cluster commanders in the SAPS in Gauteng who were able to develop a strategy. This explains why most stations relied on traditional forms of policing to deal with aggravated robbery, which did not yield fruit.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

What the findings highlight is that whereas there may be leadership in the SAPS in Gauteng, the leadership is not of a strategic nature. The fact that the police leadership, in the main, does not adapt their strategies to the external environment signals that they are not effective in dealing with crime, let alone policeable crime. Contingency theory purports that organisations will only be effective if they remain dynamic through adapting to changes in technology and the environment (Donaldson, 2001; Gibling, 2005; Maguire & Uchida, 2007). It therefore remains a futile exercise to utilise the same old methods of policing to deal with aggravated robberies, even though they have proven not to yield results. This is said in light of the fact that strategies that criminals employ when committing crime change overtime, and the police need to be able to adjust to strategies that criminals utilise by developing counter strategies. Inability to adapt to strategies used by criminals in addressing

crime therefore indicates poor leadership, which is not able to cast a vision. Therefore, SAPS needs to develop a strategy that will be all-encompassing, that is, factoring in issues of crime prevention, investigations, crime intelligence and resource management. The strategy should be informed by the information that the police have in dockets, through crime intelligence and through incarcerated offenders. Detectives should also be trained to specialise in investigations whilst still at college in order to facilitate good investigation skills. Policing should also be decentralized in order to allow provinces to be creative in developing their own strategies, rather than rely on the national office to issue instructions on how to combat crime or to develop a strategy.

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Open Distance Learning (ODL): A "Shock" to Learners in South Africa

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to analyse challenges encountered by registered students at an open distance learning (ODL) institution in South Africa. Before 1994 racial segregation posed obstructions in terms of equitable access and success in higher education (HE). Learners from deprived homes, especially those resided in townships or rural areas were denied access to high-quality school education. Interestingly, there was a shocking growth in enrolments in HE post 1994. However, it seems the higher education institutions (HEI) have been largely unprepared for this astonishing growth. As a matter of fact, a lack of capacity in the HE system has been a perennial problem in South Africa. Research indicates that approximately 18%–19% of new matriculants can be accommodated by HEIs. Moreover, different HE institutions receive thousands of applications of qualifying students who cannot be all accommodated, especially for first year study. The problem of capacity at HE was worsened by the introduction of fee-free HE in 2017. Subsequent to this, the National Financial Aid (NFSAS) was placed under administration in 2018, which resulted in more students' application attention and funding was ultimately allocated in 2019 academic year. This paper argues that South Africa is faced with a dilemma of insufficient capacity at HEIs to accommodate matriculants since the pronouncement of fee-free education. Moreover, prospective learners have only one alternative left, thus, an enrolment at Open Distance Learning Institution (ODL). Since most matriculants have been exposed to only face-to-face teaching for twelve years of schooling, this ODL mode of learning comes as a shock to these prospective learners. Research indicates that this shock could be attributed to lack of prior preparation at basic education phase. Eventually, these prospective learners are bound to struggle and drop out. In light of these problems, this paper recommends an intervention through an introduction of ODL pilot initiative at school level. This initiative should encourage scholars to communicate via online with their teachers and submit their assessments online.

Keywords: Fee-free education, Higher education, National student financial aid scheme, Open distance learning

1. Introduction

Nelson Mandela once argued that: *"Education is the great engine of personal development. It is through education that the daughter of a farmer can become a doctor, that the son of a mine worker can become the head of the mine, that a child of a farm worker can become the president of a great nation. It is what we make out of what we have, not what we are given, that separates one person from another"*. This sentiment is resonated by states and nations across the globe. In simple terms, the above quote emphasises the indispensability of education to the country, communities and individual. This view is supported by the Human Capital Theory, which argues that a causal link exists between expansion of educational partaking and economic growth (Case, Marshall, McKenna & Mogashana, 2018). Likewise, Banerjee (2018) posits that HE has the probability to disrupt poverty that is intergenerational by bringing through the provision of social mobility.

Accordingly, if investment in education can be taken seriously, it can help in changing the lives of many individuals and community at large. However, before 1994, racial segregation posed impediments in terms of equitable access and success in higher education. Students from deprived homes; residing in townships or rural areas were denied access to high-quality school education (Mdepa & Tshiwula, 2012:20; Leibowitz, Bozalek, 2014; Reddy, 2018). The segregation made equality impossible amongst South Africans, but that is something of the past. Post 1994 South African higher education institution (HEI) experienced a growth in enrolments from 799,490 in 2008 to 1,041,000 in 2018, with projections to reach 1.1 million in 2020/21 (Jansen, 2018; Matsolo, Ningpuanyeh & Susuman, 2018). According to the South African Development Plan, a target of 1.6 million enrolments is expected in 2030 (Council on Higher Education, 2016). The increase in enrolments is partially the result of the pressure the government applied to HEI with the

aim to redress the racial and gender disparities in admission and partaking (Letseka & Karel, 2015). This paper argues that, while the racial segregation is being regarded as something of the past, a new problem has surfaced due to an increase in HE enrolments. Universities have been largely unprepared for this bewildering growth, hence they cannot cope with the influx of matriculants every year. There is a huge capacity problem at institutions of higher learning (Ojo & Olakulehin, 2006; Ramrathan, 2016; Tshayana, 2018).

2. Evidence of Capacity Problem at Contact HEI

The South Africa's pass rate has been recording an increase from 2016-2018 (Writer, 2019). This implies that in the past three years the number of students succeeding in matric, and eligible to enrol at HEI has also increased. Unfortunately this came with no adequate increase in the capacity at HEIs to accommodate this increased pass rate (Ramrathan, 2016). The HEIs cannot cope with the increasing numbers (Letseka & Karel, 2015). This seems to be a problem in the whole Sub-Saharan Africa (Dahir, 2017). The study conducted by Quartz Africa among the top 10 countries with high population in Africa shows that just over 740 universities service more than 660 million of Africa's 1 billion people. But when comparing that figure with countries like the United States, which has some 5,300 universities and colleges serving a population of over 323 million people; and China with over 4000 universities (Centre for Chinese Studies, 2019), it becomes clearer that Africa has a long way to go in solving capacity problem at the institutions of Higher Learning. Sadly, South Africa has 136 HEIs with a population of over 54 million, hence its current serious capacity problems in absorbing all qualifying students to enter their first year of study. In actual fact, only 18%-19% of SA's new matriculants can be accommodated by HEIs in South Africa (Ramrathan, 2016). Although SA has a large number of Technical and Vocational Education and Training colleges (50 public TVET colleges with 250 registered campuses) (SA Department of Higher Education and Training, 2018), it is a well-known fact that these colleges are not effective (SA Presidency, 2017). As a result, TVET colleges cannot be seen as the solution to the capacity experienced at HEIs. The following statistics highlights just a few examples of the trouble in paradise that prospective students in SA are actually facing:

- The University of the Witwatersrand (WITS) received 70349 applications from first-time first-year students, and the enrolment target for first-years in 2019 was only 5 200 (WITS, 2019).
- Tshwane University of Technology received in excess of 100 000 applications from prospective first time-entering students, but had the capacity to accommodate only 15 000 first-year students (TUT, 2019).
- The University of Limpopo (UL) received over 60 000 applications for first-year of study, and had only the capacity of 478 for 2019 academic year (UL, 2019).
- Around 4 200 new first-years are accepted to study at University of Cape Town (UCT) every year. Interestingly, this is the only institution that experienced a decline in applications from prospective first year students. According to the Director of Admissions at UCT, this decline was primarily due to factors such as the drought that struck Cape Town recently, student unrest (#FeesMustFall and other related students movements), limited student residents within the institution, leading to inflated prices for residence outside the institution; as well as prospective inclination to consider other sources of HE.

In actual fact, the capacity problem was further worsened by former President Jacob Zuma's announcement about free education in 2017 as it opened doors to all previous years' matriculants who qualified and wished to further their studies but had financial constraints (Tshayana, 2018). Faced with a lack of capacity at HEIs, and the high cost of HE (for those falling outside the specified threshold to qualify for free education which is between R000 00 – 350 000 of the combined household income), prospective students find enrolment at an ODL institution as the only alternative they have. The hope to get access to the ODL institution is high because of mainly three reasons, namely: less cost, the admission capacity that such institution has and lenient admission point scores (APS) at these institutions. However research has revealed that students struggle to cope with the ODL pedagogy, hence a high dropout rate or late completion of qualification at these HEIs (Musingafi, Mapuranga, Chiwanza & Zebron, 2015:59; Aboo, 2017:105).

3. Open Distance Learning

The ODL system seems to be on the rise. It is becoming more and more a vital part of the university sub-system, contributing 40% of headcount students and approximately 30% of FET students (SA Department of Higher Education & Training, 2014) because face-to-face institutions are also increasingly making use of blended learning options (Heydenrych & Prinsloo, 2010; Biney & Worlanyo, 2015; SA Presidency, 2017). ODL is defined as the mode of tuition whereby there is no daily contact between the learner and the lecturer and yet there is equally effective exchange of knowledge (Dodo, 2013:30). This is the mode of education that SA embraced in an attempt to close the country's knowledge and skills gap in the country (Mpofu & Maphalala, 2019). According to Letseka & Karel (2015:3) and Badu-Nyarko & Amponsah, (2016:88) ODL institutions offer educational prospects to mature non-traditional, working students who find it difficult to get entrance into HE in full-time, residential, and campus-based institutions. This view is shared by Ghosh, Nath, Agarwal & Nath (2012:53) as they put it "distance education system focuses on open access to education and training to make the learners free from the constraints of time and place, and offering flexible learning opportunities to individuals and groups of learners."

Further, Kimotho (2018) & Zimbabwe Open University (2018) also uttered that ODL focuses on removing barriers to access learning, flexibility of learning provision and student centeredness. It becomes clear from these authors that learners studying through ODL do not have daily lectures, and that such learners are responsible for planning their studies and managing their time effectively (UNISA, 2019). In his address, at the opening of the Open Learning Conference held at Unisa from 5-7 September 2018, South Africa's Deputy Minister of Higher Education and Training Mr. Buti Manamela, made it clear that his department does not associate open learning with any particular mode of delivery but considers it to be an approach based on principles that include learner-centeredness, lifelong learning, flexibility of learning provision, student support, rigorous quality assurance and the construction of programmes in the expectation that the student will succeed.

As an advancement to the ODL mode, some ODL institutions are shifting from ODL to ODeL pedagogy. The ODeL pedagogy is characterised by the shift from print-based to online delivery using virtual learning

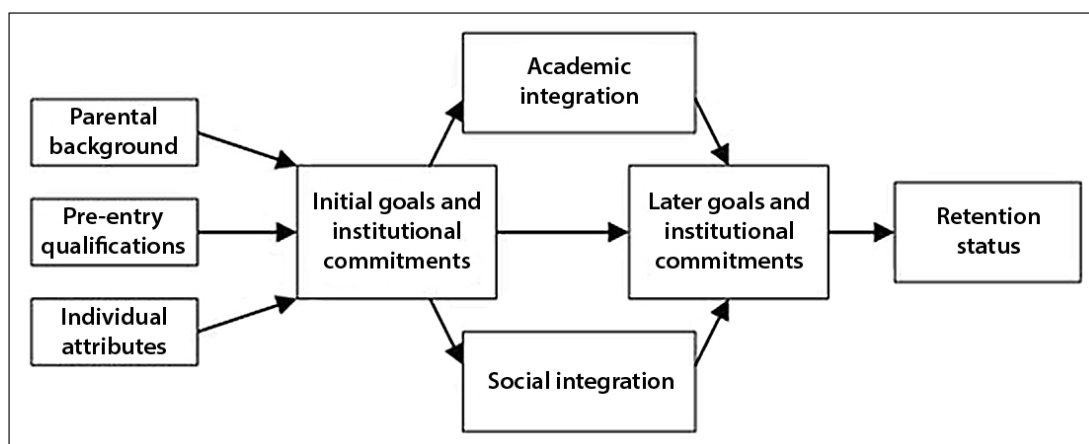
environments (VLEs) and various Web technologies (Arinto, 2016). This is very worrying taking SA history into consideration. The ODeL agenda is premised on the postulation that every student learning can be supported by modern electronic tools and other arithmetical facilities (Ngubane-Mokiwa, 2017:4). Another assumption made is that students are self-regulatory and adequately motivated to study independently in their own time; and that face to face learning could be replicated in online education (Cloete, 2017:2). Nevertheless, these assumptions reflect naivety on the side of these institutions, especially in SA where inequality is still rife. Likewise, Chau, (2010:186) and Cloete, (2017:4) warn that too much reliance on technology, such as online education where the use of technology is emphasised, disguises the truth that access to technology may not be easy to some; or that not everyone has the skills to use it, and would therefore not benefit from it.

4. The Theoretical Framework

This paper is guided by Tinto's (1993) Student Integration Theory which is depicted in Figure 1.

Tinto's (1993) hypothesises that the student's social background should be integrated into their academic environment for them to perform academically. This theory further argues that on their first entry into the university, students combine a set of background features. These features involve individual attitudes, pre-entry attributes, and family background. Individual attitudes include gender, race, age and aptitude. Family background features include the education level of the family, expectations from the family and the family social status. According to Tinto, such set of features affect students' initial goals and institutional commitments directly (Schreiber, Luescher-Mamashela & Moja, 2014). This theory believes that students are likely to achieve their academic goals at the HEI only if their parental backgrounds, individual attributes or pre-entry qualification are integrated within such an institution. For instance, if a student's parents obtained their qualifications through a face-to-face institution, they will not be positive about their child obtaining his or hers through an ODL institution. Similarly, if a student's pre-entry qualification was obtained through face-to-face, (matric certificate), such a student is likely to expect the same mode of tuition to be followed at the HEI he or she enrolled at, thereby making ODL unpopular. The findings of Arinto (2016) and Aboo (2017) are consistent with Tinto's (1993), warning

Figure 1: Tinto's 1993 Student Integration Theory



Source: Tinto 1993 in Connolly (2016)

that the ODeL pedagogy will only be successful if we know the context and background of each learner, and acknowledge learners' diversity as this is key to how they learn.

5. Why ODL Fail?

The evolution from high school to university can be overwhelming regardless of whether one comes from a small public school or a superior one in a fancy suburb. Murangi (2017) and UKEssays (2018) attribute the difficulty in transition to the fact that students are required to adapt into new environments learning styles; which they find different from their previous years of schooling. This equally affects students starting at a contact university or ODL institution. Unfortunately, for students enrolling at the ODL the situation is even worse as they are used to face to face contact classes which is not the case with ODL institutions. Students face two sets of challenges when they enrol at the HEI for the first time, namely, individual and institutional factors. Considerable literature documented the following individual and institutional factors as the most common causes of problems students face when they enter the HEIs, particularly ODL institutions (Musingafi, Mapuranga, Chiwanza & Zebron, 2015; The Higher Education Academy, 2015, Arinto, 2016; Murangi, 2017; Kebritchi, Lipschuetz & Santiago, 2017; Kimotho, 2018; Roodt, 2018).

6. Individual Factors

6.1 Substandard Basic Education

This factor is peculiar to SA due to the colonisation and apartheid the country suffered over many years.

Therefore, in order to address this challenge, the SA government made education its first priority. In his Budget Speech, SA Minister of Finance Tito Mboweni indicated that government is set to split out R5,8 trillion over the next three years for the running of the county; of which R1,2 trillion, (which is the biggest chunk) will go towards education (Budget Review, 2019). But still, notwithstanding a vast growth in the number of people in education today, the question remains: are learners receiving a good quality education? (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2018). Although SA managed to eradicate racial exclusion in the past 25 years, schools that seem to be efficient are those that served predominantly white learners, while those that served black learners remain dysfunctional (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Chetty & Pather 2015; Spaul, 2015:34; South African Institute of Race Relations, 2018). It is therefore a fact that matriculants from schools offering quality education will be more prepared for HE than those from schools in rural communities where the education offered is of a poor quality (Fishman, Ludgate & Tutak, 2017). As a result, having been exposed to only one mode of teaching (attending classes) for twelve years, it is clear that learners are not prepared for ODL teaching mode. Chetty and Pather (2015) further argue that the biggest challenge SA faces is the interdependence of HE, secondary and primary education, whereby a failure in one area affects the other areas. Therefore, SA should address the quality of education at school level in an attempt to prepare learners for HE.

6.2 Unpreparedness for the ODL Pedagogy

In South Africa basic education takes about twelve years to complete (from Grade 1 to 12). During this period, learners sit in the classroom and expect the

teacher to feed them with knowledge. The study of Chetty and Pather (2015) and Hassel and Ridout (2018:1) revealed that first-year students expected that teaching at HE would be the same (classroom setup) as it had been at school level. This resulted in significant distress, poor academic performance and increased drop-out rates when they realised that there is a huge difference. This puts pressure on schools to create an awareness about ODL HEIs to equip them with skills and knowledge to cope and perform well in such institutions.

6.3 Unique Situational Factors

The Higher Education Academy (2015) and Kimotho (2018) explain situational challenges as factors such as a job or home responsibilities that reduce time for study. The individual attributes such as how long one was out of school before enrolling at the ODL also contribute to their academic performance and their goal achievement thereof (The Higher Education Academy, 2015). Aboo's (2017) study further revealed factors such as family responsibilities and commitment as some unique factors that affected some ODL students more than others.

6.4 Access to and Skills in Technology

In order to keep abreast with technology, ODL students should be equipped with skills needed to operate both the hardware and the software of Information Communication Technology strategies (Croft, Dalton & Grant, 2010; Chau, 2010:186; Cloete, 2017:2; Kimotho, 2018). Considering the history of SA, the majority of South Africans are poor, residing in the rural areas where the Internet access is problematic and are generally illiterate as far as the internet is concerned (Mahlangu, 2018). Unfortunately difficulty in accessing technology negatively affect it acceptance (Pulker, 2016).

7. Institutional Factors

7.1 Student Support

Considerable literature recorded lack of student support as the main challenge students at ODL HEIs experience (Croft, Dalton & Grant, (2010:47; van Niekerk & Schmidt, 2016; Aboo, 2017; Maboee, 2017; Leontyeva, 2018; Sánchez-Elvira Paniagua & Simpson, 2018). This is because ODL institutions have a tendency to generalise their students within the large group that participate in HE (The Higher

Education Academy, 2015); forgetting that this is a different group of students that is expected to learn differently from their peers at a contact HEIs. In addition, Simpson (2013) argues that ODL institutions focus too much on the delivery of teaching materials, particularly online, and too little on motivating students to learn. It should be taken into account that ODL institutions accommodate students who could not get entry into a contact institution due to a lack of capacity, costly tuition fees or simply because they did not get enough admission point score (APS) (Pulker, 2016). As a result, such students may require a different approach to effective learning. Additionally, there seems to be also be a lack of support from the relevant stakeholders, other than lecturers and administrators (Mahlangu, 2018:23), namely the government and the Department of HE. Considering the demographics of students studying through ODL in South African, some students may not afford the use of technology if the governing bodies cannot support students by providing subsidy to educational technologies or make them free (Mahlangu, 2018:23). The study of Queiros and De Villiers (2016:176-177) revealed that the majority of students still believe that their learning can be effectively accelerated by an increase of quality time for them and their lecturers, which implies that they still want more facilitation of learning to come from their lecturers than themselves.

7.2 Offering 100% Online (A shift to ODeL)

It is a fact that Internet service provider services in Africa are expensive (Kimotho, 2018); therefore given the history of SA, too much reliance on technology might create further exclusions in education (Chau, 2010:186).

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

There is substantial evidence that the world is shifting from a contact or classroom mode of tuition to ODL. However, HEIs should take it easy because not everyone is ready or well prepared for ODL mode. Given the SA history, learners come from diverse backgrounds, with unequal access to technology. Therefore, the government should help with the development of a sound foundation of ODL pedagogy at school level by introducing an ODL curriculum. HEIs offering ODL should also strengthen their learner support strategies to embrace different learning styles among learners. The study recommends the following:

- Governing bodies should improve quality of education at school level by providing resources.
- HEIs involved in ODL should spread learner support by adding more regional offices at rural and farm towns, as well as strengthening face-to-face and e-tutoring to be able to cater for learners in rural areas.
- Instead of going 100% online, a blended learning approach of tuition is recommended.
- Embrace diversity among learners. Provide free technology training and resources at regional offices.
- Teacher training at HEIs should introduce ODL pedagogy to be able to impart it their future learners.
- Prepare learners at school level. Instil self-directed and independent learning at school level, even if it is on one subject, just to introduce learners to ODL at an early stage to avoid a "shock" in the future.

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Managing Higher Education in the Post Fees Must Fall: Is the Centre Still Holding?

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Abstract: The advent of #Feesmustfall has brought an era of the new dawn in the management of Higher Education in South Africa. This new dawn shifts power and authority from the universities' Senior Managements, which necessitates a radical shift in the manner in which Higher Education institutions are managed. It is arguable that the student activism has brought a new regime that is characterised by student revolutionary struggle in the current trajectory. The most fundamental question is the demarcation of roles between the student organisations, Student Representative Councils (SRC's), and Senior Management of the universities, as to whether the centre is still holding. The relationship of managing the universities requires a collegial relationship between Senior Management and SRC's, and it is the intention of this paper to assess the existence of this important relationship in daily management. The paper presents the observation and praxis in the management of institutions of higher learning, with literature review that forms part of the desk top analysis. It remains the qualitative in nature and repositioning the scientific nature of the art of management in a dynamic environment such as the university. Concepts such as; student politics and governance; protest and anarchy culture; good governance; management and administration; policy implications and the role of SRCs; leadership and democratic role of universities are amongst the areas of focus of this paper. The line of enquiry remains the diagnostic factor and remedies that aims at normalising higher education institutions as centres of excellence that provide hope. The paper is expected to produce a conclusion and recommendations that reflect steps to be taken in managing the current higher education in the midst of the growing activism that is persistently shifting powers and authority of Senior Management.

Keywords: Good Governance, Leadership policy, Implications, Political management and administration, Student politics

1. Introduction

The management of any institution of higher learning requires skills that are relevant to reaffirm a multi-stakeholder' institution that is dynamic in nature. Freeman (1984, as cited in Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013) states that the old management approaches failed to take account of a wide range of groups who can affect or are affected by an organisation, namely the 'stakeholders'. The paper notes the multi-stakeholder nature of the universities as an important analysis that position universities as high concentrated conflict of ideas managed by the Senior Management that forms part of the complex nature of higher education. Wood (2000) suggests that management is an attainment of organisational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organising, leading, and controlling organisational resources. Having noted the fundamentals of management, the author believes that material conditions makes it more complex to manage, hence universities have become politicised, particularly after #Feesmustfall episode, which made management to

be a mountain to climb. The predicament is the highly politicised environment that has broken the system of management controls from one party being Senior Management of the university to the students.

The radical influence of student politics in the management of universities has created a new normal situation, where decisiveness is no longer the order of the day, but management of universities are "*dancing on eggs*", negotiating how to manage. This new phenomenon necessitated by the student politics, which Burawoy (1985:253, as cited in Badat, 2016) defines politics as "struggles over or within relations of structured domination, struggles that take as their objective the quantitative or qualitative change of those relations". The struggles defined above are about access and observed not being anything to also do with the success, and bolster around competition for power through the mass struggles. The antics of the situation reaffirms a new approach to manage Higher Education from what students have viewed as a "dictatorship by the minority" referring to senior management of

the university. However, the management approach of the modern Higher Education embraces the students, which in the context of this paper, student centered universities defines new approaches to management. This blends what Luescher and Klemencic (2016) suggest that universities would not exist without students. Students are at the heart of the academic enterprise. The argument blends the era of neo-managerialism, Luescher and Klemencic (2016) posit that there is a need to carefully examine the appropriate role for students in universities, which is necessary in a period of dramatic and often traumatic change for Higher Education, but is not an easy task. At the centre of the paper, the most important element is to determine precisely how SRC's and student movements feed into the architect of management of Higher Education with more focus on evidence based to argue the existence of the literature. The paper contributes to the scientific knowledge in the management discourse of Higher Education in difficult times.

2. Student Politics and Institutional Governance

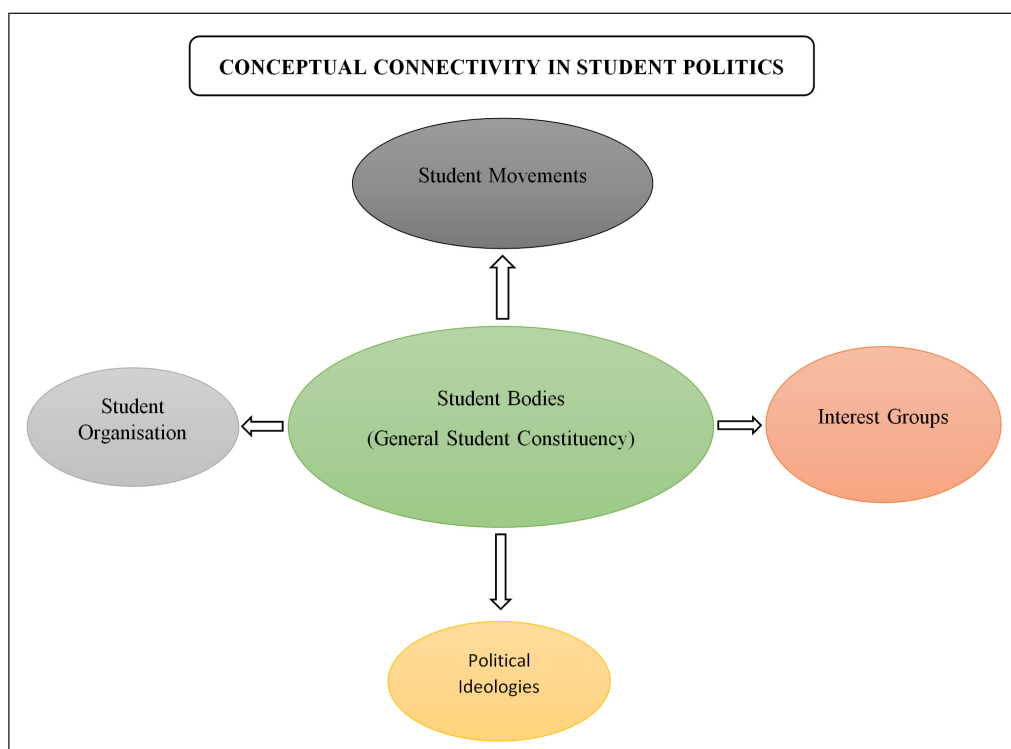
Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 as amended, reaffirms that in the democratic Higher Education institution there shall be an SRC, with an intention to represent the views of the student in the institutional governance. These SRCs are a manifestation of student movements and activism in nature of which this section of the paper intends to make an introspection of its historic evolutions and the current trajectory of neo-managerialism of Higher Education in the post #Feesmustfall era. It is difficult to reflect on historic evolution of student movements without engaging on the historic transition from the South African Students' Organisation (SASO) to South African National Students' Congress (SANSCO) guided by the oppressed politics of the South Africa that had connectivity with the apartheid regime in the period 1968-1990. In the review of literature, Badat (2016) note that in both scholarly and popular literature, black students in South Africa have tended to be treated in two ways. In accounts of educational conditions, they have frequently been characterised simply as victims of apartheid. It is therefore in affirmation that connectivity of the key student movement of the time was about liberation of an Africa child in the educational struggle that is about class contradictions in the broader society. During apartheid, higher education was 'designed to entrench the power and privilege

of the ruling white minority' (Bunting 2004:52, as cited by Heleta, 2016).

It is paramount that concepts be defined, which connect where the SRC emerge out of. According to Badat (2016) frequently, key concepts such as "student organisation", "student movement" and "student body" are not defined and are conflated, even though they are conceptually distinct. The similarities can be drawn between the student movement through ideological context, which a student organisation is a group that drives the movement. The paper notes the connectivity of the two concepts, but also underscores that student bodies are the embodiment of the constituencies which student organisation draws its membership from. In support of the distinct assertion of the paper as Jenson (2018) argues that the movement covers an extremely wide range of ideologies and concrete activities. There are political interest and pressure groups. The pressure groups identified manifest from the student bodies, and swell the ranks of student organisation with an effort to influence the direction of the movement, which evolves overtime from generations to generations. It is also important to note that these concepts, the evolvement is not complete without political ideology. This paper assumes that the distinct nature of these concepts connect into the new generations of struggles in universities that always look into Higher Education as a systemic phenomenon. Figure 1 demonstrates the connectivity of the concepts.

In the narrative presented above, it is difficult to conclusively have student politics without the existence of the student bodies, and interest groups. Student bodies constitute a diverse alternative view to advance democratic space. Petracca (2018) states that during the past decade, political scientists have rediscovered interest groups as a suitable subject for study resulting in an avalanche of new empirical data on various aspects of the interest group system. The author note social interest groups as socially constructed engines of democratic horizon opening, which provide a space for inclusive ideologically cohesive set-up of student movements that has changing patterns and addresses politics of recent audience. Zald (2017) explains that where social movement participation was commonly analysed as spontaneous and enthusiastic, and, by some analysts, out of the ordinary, it is now mostly analysed as a form of rational, normal behaviour, subject to the decision-making constraints of all behaviour,

Figure 1: Connectivity of Student Governance and Politics



Source: Author

which this paper posits that student movements in the recent student governance preoccupy student interests. The interest of these generations is beyond party political ideology as an important tenant of focus that note student governance that is more than its connectivity with mainstream politics. Therefore, ideology in this new normal student governance constitutes only an ideological debate that does not find the expression in the student movements as they are actions generation. The students' movements are integral part of efforts to attack any liberal policy stands that focuses on the maintenance agenda of a neoliberal Higher Education system, and therefore, it is difficult to address conceptual overview of student movements without unpacking liberal systemic rot of neoliberal policy system. Cabalin (2012) underscores that students were transformed into political actors. Their opinions and discourses are part of the educational public discussion. Neoliberal 'common sense' is no longer the only paradigm. This paper observes that these student movements gather students from various ideological points of view to more specifics. In the midst of understanding the magnitude of student movements, the student organisation is a sub-group of student politics that is more ideological and at some points its influence to the mainstream politics weakens their ability to attack the status quo. The

new normal era of student governance is characterised by movements that transcend from student organisation, which is more of solidarity towards a pervasive radical specific dismantling of maintenance agenda. This allows a question of the power of solidarity than single handed student organisation that has more issues to tackle without success over a period of time.

In the midst of this important argument, where does this put institutional governance? Institutional governance is a strategic stakeholder's management, which Kettunen (2015) argues that stakeholder maps are essential in quality assurance, because higher education institutions must identify the most important stakeholders to collect feedback from the stakeholder relationships and improve their processes. The observation of student movements undermines existing protocols of institutional governance and subjects all consultations to mass mobilisation, which often brought stand-off, and anarchy in universities than constructive stakeholders' engagements.

3. Protest Culture and Anarchy in Higher Education

The protest culture goes long way in higher education based on the historic narrative of apartheid

system in South Africa. However, the beginning of democracy provides an era where student movements were about intellectualising the student struggles. The study of protest is an embodiment of social movements, which Juris (2015) argues that protest cultural approaches to the study of social movements are by now well ensconced in the pantheon of social movement theory as the field has moved beyond the overly rationalist, materialist, and institutional biases of resource mobilisation and early political process traditions. In the interest of literature review, social movements represent the political atmosphere that adds pressure to the pressing issue of the time. Zald (2017:11) posits that where social movement participation was commonly analysed as spontaneous and enthusiastic, and, by some analysts, out of the ordinary, it is now mostly analysed as a form of rational, normal behaviour, subject to the decision-making constraints of all behaviour. The paper underscores that the pervasive of student movements is perceived negative, while lack of transformative decisions that are prolonged serves as agitation to students' activists to mobilise across political lines. This phenomenon is not new, but happens everywhere the society is tired of the waiting game of the ruling class. Badat (2016) note that human rights exist for every one's protection against people who might want to dehumanise other people. Accordingly, human rights exist to help people get along with each other peacefully in society or within an institution. The student protest culture has been part of the system in the apartheid, and post 1994 era made it formal through the right to protest. The interest of the paper ultimately assesses the culture of the impact of these protests. The student movements moved from the protest culture to anarchy as Ward (2017:III) argues that anarchism is a political or social ideology, which has two separate origins. It can be seen as an ultimate derivative of liberalism or as a final end of socialism. The paper notes the prolonged socialist perspective policy position that transform higher education to the advantage of the working class and the peasants as a governmental source of anarchy, which encourages social movement to persist in the interest of putting pressure to the ruling class.

The phenomenon of anarchy is a manifestation of an extreme radical political discourse that militancy, which if unguided always becomes the order of the day. In support, the literature posits as Williams (2017) states that what would happen if a college instructor asks students to design their

own syllabus, figure out what to learn, and run a class on their own? In another words, how would a classroom work if established on anarchist principle? These fundamental questions paint picture that is not rosy as observed in student protests in the context of the fallists' movements. The actions of these fallists' movements have been observed as a total takeover of governance and management of universities to the masses (students), and collapse for institutional governance, which intimidation and target to the authorities has been the character of the movements and student protests post Feesmustfall times. In essence, the question remains, if governing and managing the universities, is the principles of management and governance holding.

4. Shift in Management of Higher Education

It is important to determine the application of management tools by the Senior Executive of universities to determine the thesis of the paper, which is centred on whether the centre is holding. Cini (2016) argues that competitive within the market of higher education, are generally more concerned about neutralising potential challengers, who might damage the reputation and functioning of the university. In dealing with student mobilisations, then, academic managers are more likely to be confrontational and repressive than academics. The paper underscores confrontation as the methodology of traditional and authoritative way of managing higher education. However, the fundamental question is whether post Feesmustfall era, the university management still have boldness to confront students as a tool of management? The phenomenon of managing universities becomes a conflict space, which Putnam (2006:1) views conflict as it culminates by explicating the role of communication in conflict as a variable, a process, an interpretation or meaning, and a dialectical relationship. The paper note the pressure that university management are confronted with, having to negotiate their work with students because of fear of intimidation and decision by chaos. The diagnosis of the situation is that management of the universities are shifting from being managers to negotiators. Golann and Folberg (2016) state that each have their own approach to how they negotiate, rooted in their values, assumptions, experiences, goals, and the nature of the situation, which competitive and cooperative categories of negotiation styles are identified. In summary, the first approach uses a bargaining

methodology and the later applies problem solving methodology. The question is which category the university management uses posts Feesmustfall? The paper argues that it is often that management are negotiators and often applies competitive approach. This is mainly because they are no longer firm, but "dancing on eggs" because they fear intimidation by student movements. Value chain of management and governance has lost value as power relations are shifting. Foucault (1982) argues that in order to understand what power relations are about, perhaps we should investigate the forms of resistance and attempts made to dissociate these relations. It is the view of the paper that the resistance is about the mimic of socialist education without implementation and policy reforms. However, the student movements identify management of the universities as immediate enemies and the government as "chief enemy". Foucault (1982) further argues that they do not look for the "chief enemy" but for the immediate enemy. Nor do they expect to find a solution to their problem at a future date (that is, liberations, revolutions, and end of class struggle).

It is also important to put a different picture of shift of strategies of management of the universities, not only about one class against the other. It is for so many years that universities have been mimic about being "student centred". Lea, Stephenson and Troy (2003) underscore that if education is to be truly student-centred, students should be consulted about the process of learning and teaching. Moreover, within the current higher education climate, it is imperative that institutions move from an 'inside out' approach, where those on the inside 'know' what is best, to an 'outside in' approach where customers' expectations are researched and serviced. The paper assumes a definition of universities as centres of excellence, which must take into consideration the socio-economic conditions and backgrounds where the students comes from in assuming negotiation as a methodology of managing universities and a posture of showing compassion to challenges within which students are facing. While recognising that education is a public asset, the students assume their ownership and argue against conventional methods of teaching, learning and support. Stefani, Clarke and Littlejohn (2000) reaffirm that one of the goals of higher education is to enable students to become autonomous independent learners. To achieve this goal, it is necessary to shift our emphasis from teaching to facilitating effective learning and to promote the

concepts of ownership and 'reflection on learning'. The daily activities in the institution are a driving force of the student movements settling to bully the system to transform urgently to realise the ultimate needs of the poor students in campuses.

5. Leadership and Democratic Role of Universities

Higher Education requires strong and dynamic leadership to implement the decisions of governing structures, which often meet resistance of student movements. According to Anderson and Sun (2017), a central topic in leadership research concerns the impact of leadership style – the pattern of attitudes that leaders hold and behaviours they exhibit. Since the year 2000, several new leadership styles have been proposed to capture important missing aspects beyond the dominant charismatic/transformational and transactional framework. In the context of the leadership required in higher education, the management becomes fragile of the tension that always exists between managing for institutional sustainability and popularity among student movements. University authorities understand the historic narrative of the higher education, which Hammack and Pilecki (2015) argue by these fundamental questions that "can history, however, serve as a tool for social and political change, rather than simply reproduce the status quo? Can certain forms of historical dialogue promote peace and social justice for groups in conflict?" All these questions require that a new approach to leadership in managing universities be identified to address the current trajectory in higher education. The paper note "*Agility*" as the advance leadership skill that is required recently by Senior Management in higher education, which constitutes a foregrounded leadership that projects dynamics and manage them before they become risk and anarchy. Beck and Lengenick-Hall (2016) posit that an organisation's resilience capacity captures its ability to take situation-specific, robust, and transformative actions when confronted with unexpected and powerful events that have the potential to jeopardise an organisation's long-term survival. Strategic agility is a complex, varied construct that can take multiple forms but captures an organisation's ability to develop and quickly apply flexible, nimble, and dynamic capabilities. The paper notes "*adaptability*" as another method that may have effect to management of universities in the post Feesmustfall era.

"I felt discouraged at work, too. I wanted to be productive, but my personal struggles and the typical challenges of starting graduate school got in the way. I now realise that I was trying to rush things, but at the time, my lack of research progress made me feel even more discouraged about my decision to go to grad school abroad. Several times I felt like giving up and flying home". Kumar (2016).

The experience of Kumar paints a picture of a fragile situation at work and in life that university senior management are confronted with on the daily basis of managing universities. Sense of worthlessness and lack of fulfilment is always surrounding them in the post Feesmustfall era. The art of leading the university requires problem solving etiquettes, since solving problems and crisis is the *modus operandi* in the current trajectory in higher education. Megheirkouni (2016) argues that organisational leadership requires decision making and problem solving to ensure completing objectives, rather than decline, which are what leaders do for their companies in the business world. The paper notes the pervasiveness of crisis mode of higher education and reposition agility and adaptability as key to resolve the crisis mode of higher education and universities in particular.

One other key aspect of the enquiry is whether universities are democratic spaces and their role in deepening democracy. Hoffman, Domagal-Goldman, King and Robinson (2018) state that in recent decades, higher education's civic learning and democratic engagement efforts have encouraged students to view themselves as having a significant stake in government, politics, and the welfare of people beyond their immediate social circles. The paper asserts that students are primary stakeholders of the universities and social agents that have the role to play in the societal transformation. Indicators of democracy is argued by the paper as decolonisation project and curriculum transformation, which Heleta (2016) proclaims that since the end of the oppressive and racist apartheid system in 1994, epistemologies and knowledge systems at most South African universities have not considerably changed; they remain rooted in colonial, apartheid and Western worldviews and epistemological traditions. The curriculum remains largely Eurocentric and continues to reinforce white and Western dominance and privilege. It is therefore that promotion of African scholarship and indigenous education represent curriculum transformation, which at the

centre reposition universities as spaces that promotes democracy.

6. Co-Operative Governance and Policy Implication

Democratic Higher Education systems of governance are based on inclusive governance as a result of Higher Education act 101, of 1997 as amended. However, managing Higher Education is an implementation arm of governance to eliminate governance risk. Neary and Winn (2016) under false dichotomy argue that the relationship between the University and the State, is highly significant, which the paper underscores that the Higher Education act as stated above emerge from epistemological orientation that recognises that Higher Education governance manifest from various constituencies. From the construct, Sebola (2017) states that governance today seem to have achieved much as a model of management where good interaction with stakeholders, whether being internal or external, has been achieved with accountability and transparency being at the fore. The model of cooperative governance in the context of this paper creates an environment of co-existence of stakeholders with a clear intention of opening and encouraging engagements on principle and matters of common interest. The recognition of shift in the post Feesmustfall era proclaims a takeover necessitated by no rationale due to the socio-economic conditions of the society that constitute the external environment within which the universities operates. The shift from liberal policies that govern higher education to the democratic dispensation is a symbolic of recognition of the previously the excluded groups and to stay focus with the paper, the student component that was never taken into confidence in the governing of the universities. It is against this background that Alshaerb, Al-Hila, Al Shobaki and Abu Naser (2017) argue that governance is an essential platform for increasing the level of partnership between universities and civil society organisations so that through governance, it is possible to benefit from the strengths of some universities in the development of university education and to reduce the weaknesses of some universities. Alshaerb *et al.* (2017) posit that implementing the principles of governance is a tool to improve the environment of transparency and to produce high-quality reports, so that these reports are comprehensive, accurate and provide timely information in order to make good decisions. The paper note that co-operative governance is a result

of policy shift that ushered democratic ethos into the higher education system. However, the empirical evidence in the Feesmustfall era presents a picture of power struggle to management the institution, with element of cooperativeness are always "hitting the snack".

7. New-Normal Higher Education

Higher Education governance and management is confronted by the disruptive patterns that are pervasive and undermines the relationship of co-existence between student leadership and management of the university, which the paper characterises it as an era of new-normal. The paper notes that the day to day activities of managing higher education requires the knowledge of the theory underpinning its existence. Raisio and Lundström (2017) proclaim that, at times, the administrative sciences have boldly stepped into the unknown, taking lessons from popular culture, which the paper notes the new normal experience marked by chaos and disruption which undermines the essence and value of stability in managing universities. In review of the literature, the paper note chaos theory orientation as a narrative orientation of this new normal higher education. Chaos theory has been used to explain the problematic nature of classical administrative theories (Morgan, 2006, as cited in Raisio and Lundström, 2017). The paper assumes that managing universities is a transformation task in the current era of democracy, which should resemble principles and aspirations of an organised environment conducive for learning. Simard, Aubry and Laberge (2018) posit that images of utopia of order and chaos can serve to depict paradoxes observed in projects by illustrating the ongoing challenges presented by formal organisation and informal social structure at the interface of temporary/permanent organising. It is therefore that the analysis of the new normal higher education serves as a reflection of growth of democracy and social class reflection of the society. The most difficult question is whether Higher education as a social transformation project was ever prepared to adapt to this new transition, particularly having taken long to realign with the transformation trajectory of democracy particularly eroded from the funding model and curriculum that is anti the era of time? In essence, students are change agents in the new normal higher education to speed-up transformation of higher education. Collins, Hawkins and Flowers (2018) underscore that student interventionists have been utilised as change agents in a

variety of contexts to improve the academic, social, and communicative behaviours of target students. A new normal higher education give rise to the emergence of new character of student activism, which in essence, Jacoby (2017) argues that the "new student activism," as it is often called, is a hot topic in higher education as well as in the popular press and social media. At the centre, new normal higher education has created generic platforms of comparison throughout the system, which made student activists to position campus issues at national level to collapse the sector. This interconnectivity of university student activism culture has never been experienced before than now. It is conclusive that the new normal higher education is a ticking bomb that needs to be handled with care for forging peace and stability on university campuses.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

#Feesmustfall is tabled in this paper to demonstrate the dynamics of managing higher education specially shifting of power from management of the universities to the student activists. The slow transformation of higher education necessitated students finding new opportunities to embrace their day to day experiences through mobilising beyond political lines to reposition their long standing demands. The methodological protest culture of the student movements has been identified as the new normal era that is dramatic marked by continuing anarchy to push the oppressive system in higher education. The situation is presented as being stressful and position management as negotiators than that of managers who are experienced with running academia. #Feesmustfall is presented as a student movement with no fear of reprisal by any forces that seek to undermine the call they are making. The paper demonstrated that the long standing call for socialist education was continuously a rhetoric and caused the delay to progress, however, the student movement brought a realisation of student centred universities and deepen democracy in higher education. It is recommended that the "new normal" higher education requires "agility" and "adaptability" as new set of leadership style to manage universities. Kong, Wang, Ma, and Lu (2019) argue that "Soft set theory" is a good tool to deal with uncertain problems. The paper adopts the two leadership styles because they are both requiring application of soft power to manage the universities and dismantle aggressiveness, anarchy, and stand-off.

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No Political Strings Attached? The Allure of Chinese Money in Africa

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Abstract: Usually when foreign countries invest in Africa, quite often it is expected that lucrative returns would be gained or purported practice of good governance would be used as a condition attached to the loans. Powerful and wealthy countries such as China usually loans billions of dollars to developing and weaker economies in Africa with the intention that it would influence the foreign policy of recipient countries. This could be attributed to many factors such as developing countries desperately seeking foreign direct investments to upgrade its infrastructure such as railway, roads and energy. Based on the dependency theory, this paper argues that powerful economies dictate the foreign policy of developing African economies, which they grant loans to. This paper further contends that there is no such a thing as no political strings attached. For instance, the argument is that recognising the one China policy on Taiwan is a condition. China is a newcomer in Africa and it comes with a new stand and not following the usual norm used by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund on how it grants loans to African countries for infrastructure development. This approach is somewhat painful to other role players in the international community such as Europe; in particular Germany, United States and United Kingdom. As a result, China is moving forward towards a wiser model. This paper opted for an exploratory study using the review of literature and followed the qualitative research approach. The study found that China is alluring its money in Africa by granting huge loans to African countries for development. The study also found that China has a different culture from the one of Africa and operates different from traditional democracies in Africa. The study recommends that Africa either compete or cooperate with the Chinese economic model. It also recommends that African countries consider getting financial assistance not only from China but also from countries from Middle East such as Qatar or Saudi Arabia.

Keywords: African economies, Foreign, Infrastructure development, International Monetary Fund

1. Introduction

For many years China and Africa shared remarkable similarities including colonialism and the burden of poverty. Lately, commentators have ignored this historical similarity. In 2009, China overtook the United States as Africa's biggest trading partner and China's foreign direct investments grew exponentially. The trade partnership marked the beginning of China infrastructure development across the African continent, from Cape to Cairo rail, ports and bridges. A paradigm shift started to re-engineer Africa and turn around its fortunes, this is because China adopted a different engagement model with Africa from that which the West has pursued since 1885. However, there are emerging debt challenges which appear to be spiralling. Which begs the question: Have you ever borrowed money and struggled to pay it back to your lender? And you say okay give me whatever you own for the next 99 years. This is the condition which is given to countries that borrow money from China. It is called debt diplomacy.

The same condition was given to Sri Lanka, a small island off-the coast of India, in 2010 the island received a small 1.5 billion Chinese loan to build a giant shipping port, but the construction was never completed. This was due to Sri Lanka missing a few payments on its debt owed to China. The country had to sign the entire port to China with a 99 years lease. Clearly, African countries have not learned a lesson from Sri Lanka and as a result several countries from Africa loaned money from China. For example, in September 2018, China pledged to invest another \$60 billion in Africa. This paper illustrates the African countries which have the most debt owed to China and how China attaches political strings to its debt diplomacy in Africa. This paper begins by providing an overview background on the Chinese state, then followed by a discussion on the building blocks to understanding the rise of China, the rise of China and African countries that have fallen into debt trap with China. Conclusion and recommendation are provided as a last narration in this paper.

2. Background Overview of the Chinese State

The world is changing with a remarkable speed. For instance, the projection by the Golden Sachs on the size of the national economies in the world in 2025, the Chinese economy would be twice the size of the American economy. It should be borne in mind that these projections were drawn up after the 2008 financial crisis. China is changing the world in two fundamental respects, first of all, it is a huge developing country with a population of 1,4 billion (Worldometers, 2019), which has been growing over 35 years, at around 10 percent per year and within 20 years China would be the largest economy in the world.

Never before, has been in the modern world that the largest economy in the world has been a developing country. For the first in the modern era, the dominant country in the world, which one thinks is what China will become, will not be from the West or Africa but from very different civilization roots. China is not like the West or Africa and it will not become like the West or Africa, it will remain in very fundamental respect, a very different country. The big question is how do we make sense or understand China? The problem we have is that by and large the conventional approach, that we understand China in western world western ideas. There are three building blocks of understanding China:

- The first, China is not really a nation state, but it calls itself a nation state for the last 100 years (Jacques, 2012).
- What gives China a sense of being China, comes not from last 100 years, not from the nation state, which what happened in the West but from the period of civilization state. Unlike the Western state China is shaped by its culture of civilization state rather than as a nation state.
- The relationship between society and state is very different from the one from the West and Africa (Jacques, 2012).

3. The Building Blocks to Understanding China

Of course, we know that China is a huge country geographically with a population of 1.4 billion people. What we often extremely unaware of is the fact that

China is extremely diverse and very pluralistic and, in many ways, very centralised. One cannot run a place like this simple from Beijing even though we think this to be the case and has never been the case. So, this is China a civilization state rather than a nation state. What does it mean? I will give you two profound reasons; the most important political value for the Chinese is unity, is the maintenance of the Chinese civilization. 2000 years ago, Europe broke down the fragmentation of the Roman empire and divided it and it remains divided ever since. China in the exact time period went to the opposite direction and painfully holding this civilization state together (Jacques, 2012).

The second is maybe for more precache, which is Hong Kong, remember the handover of Hong Kong by Britain to China in 1997, one may remember what the Chinese constitutional proposition was; one country two systems and when China gets its hands on Hong Kong that will not be case, 21 years on the political and legal system in Hong Kong is different as it were in 1997. The international community was wrong, why so? We were wrong because actually enough in nation state ways. Think of Germany unification in 1980, what happened? Basically, the East was swallowed by the West; one nation, one system that is nation state mentality. Therefore, one cannot run a country like China, a civilization state on the basis of one civilization, one system does not work. Actually, the response of China on the question of Hong Kong as it would be to the question of Taiwan was a natural response; one civilization many systems (Jacques, 2012).

Let me offer you another building block to try and understand China; the Chinese have a very different conception of race to most other countries, of the 1.4 billion Chinese people over 90 per cent of them think that they belong to the same race "the hen". This is very different from other world most populace countries; India, the United States, Indonesia and Brazil, all of them are multi-racial, the Chinese do not feel like that. The advantage of non-multi-racial society is that "the hen" identity has been what held China together. The great disadvantage is that "the hen" have a very weak conception of cultural identity and that they really believe in their very own superiority and they are very disrespectful to those who are not "hen" for example to the Wigos and Tibetans (Jacques, 2012).

The third building block to the Chinese state, the relationship between society and state in China is

very different from that of the West and Africa. Many countries from the West and Africa believe that the legitimacy and authority of the state lies in the state and is a function of democracy. The problem with this proposition is that the Chinese state enjoys more legitimacy and more authority amongst the Chinese than is true with any Western or African state. The reason for this, in fact there are two reasons which has nothing to do with democracy, because in our terms the Chinese certainly do not have democracy. The reason for this is firstly, because the state in China enjoys a very special significance, as the representative, the embodiment and the guardian of the Chinese civilisation of the civilization state, this is where it gets to the spiritual role. The second reason; whereas in African, European and North America the state power is continuously challenged.

For 1000 years, the power as the Chinese state has not been challenged or had no serious rivals. The way in which power has been constructed in China is very different from our experience in Africa or Western history. The argument is that the Chinese have a very different view of the state, whereas we tend to view it as an intruder, a stranger, certainly an organ where its power needs to be limited, or defined and constrained, the Chinese do not see the state like that at all (Moyo, 2013).

The Chinese view the state as a member of the family, not just a member of the family but as the head of the family. This is the Chinese view of the state, very different from African or Western view, is embedded in society in a very different way towards the case in the West and Africa. What we are dealing with here is a different kind of paradigm, which is different from what we ought to think of in the past nor the Chinese believe in the market and the state (Jacques, 2012). The state is everywhere in China, many firms in China depends on state patronage. For example, Huawei and its suspected links to spying for the Chinese government in its construction of 5G network in Europe and United States of America. Moreover, this is a very old state tradition.

4. The Rise of China

Kristof (1993) predicated in 1993, that China would be the most important trend with the world for the next century. This is so now in 2019 that China and its significance to the market world economy is showing signs to be rattling the United States and the United Kingdom. For instance, in 2018 the

British Prime Minister Theresa May at her official visit to Kenya, warned African countries against the rise of China. The aim of the British visit to one of the African countries was to petition African governments for more trade (The Conversation, 2018). The Chinese had an idea to make inroads in Africa since 1977. The West's current attempt to counter the Chinese infiltration in Africa appears to be a desperate act.

The rise of China was led after the Mao Zedong era, Den Xiaopin set out his four modernisations, a policy framework which has been designed to build a huge Chinese economy led by trade with the outside world (The Conversation, 2018). This proposition is supported by the assertion that China has laid some groundwork by offering investment loans to countries in Africa and supplemented by huge volumes of trade. The rise of China and its influence in Africa is to develop its economies by a way of huge infrastructure (The Conversation, 2018). Moyo (2013) once posed a question; "Is China the new idol for emerging economies?" – perhaps the answer to this question is too philosophical. However, Moyo (2013) argues that the reason for the rise of China, especially economically for the past 30 years, is because of China's ability to move its citizens out of poverty. To be more exact, putting a dent on poverty and putting the citizens meaningfully out of poverty (about 300 million people). One could make an inference that perhaps African countries could learn from China's approach to poverty reduction by meaningfully and drastically putting its citizens out of poverty. Moyo (2013) further argues that China's rise as an economic superpower is only in economics. In particular, China in the 1970s about 28 percent of its citizens had secondary school attendance and by 2012 the secondary school attendance has risen to 82 percent. Therefore, overall, the economic improvement has been quite significant.

Another point which demonstrates the rise of China is the fact that China has meaningfully decreased its income inequality without changing the political construct. In 2019, the United States and China were the leading economies in the world. Both countries have vastly different political and economic systems; one private capitalism and another with broadly state capitalism. It is worth noting that both China and United States have contrast income inequalities. For instance, China's income inequality has been increasing lately, while that of the United States has been declining (Moyo, 2013). Another reason

for the remarkable rise of China economically, is that countries from the emerging market look at China's legendary infrastructure roll-out as amazing. The argument is that is not about China building roads, railways in its own country. China has been able to build 85 000 kilometres of road network in China and surpass that of the United States. Notable and worth mentioning is the observation made by Davies, Edinger, Tay and Naidu (2009) that in African countries where it has granted loans for development, China showed high commercial interests. This proposition seems to make sense because economically, it would not be ideal that a country invest in another country without expecting any commercial returns. Furthermore, Angola is a classical example where China has granted loans to an African country and ultimately became one of the largest trading partners of China in Africa (Schmitz, 2018).

Power and Alves (2012) explains that despite outcry from the international community on China's interests and activities in Africa, the terms and implications of the China-Angola partnerships remains unclear. He (2009) posit that instead of the West criticising China's intentions in Africa, the West should acknowledge that a lesson could be learned from China in terms of the results achieved in such a short time. Cork (2013) agrees with Davies *et al.* (2009) observations and further posit that the Angola model to debt financing of infrastructure has been criticised for not implementing contracts. The criticism was around the notion that Export-Import Bank of China has no regard for commercial risk, bulldozing its way, into Africa for political purposes.

However, on the other hand, Stähle (2008) puts forward an argument that a strategy which the Western countries could adopt to neutralise China's approach to development in Africa as far as loans are concerned is to push China to a come by cajole the country into "playing by the rules of the game". Fang (2009) disagrees and points out that China's approach to aid development in Africa is an attempt to increase its "soft power" by exploring aid options outside the aid regime spearhead by international organisations. Economy (2010) notes that China is transforming the world as it transforms itself.

Peason (2006) points out that China is a "status quo" power, implying that it poses no threat to the current international political structure. However, one should note that China is unlikely to compromise on such issues as "non-interference". From such view, it

could be argued that China is likely to interfere in the political affairs of the countries it grants loans to if such countries are unable to pay-back the loans. The most striking example to illustrate this point is the stance on One-China policy, which is a pre-condition that all African countries receiving loans from China have to recognise that Taiwan is part of China.

5. African Countries that Have Fallen into China's Debt Trap

The problem with debt which China gives to Africa countries is that, if these countries are not careful, the debt will be become so huge that the countries will not be able to pay it back. There are several African countries which the debt owed to China has reached disproportionate stage. For instance, Sudan was the first country in the Southern Africa to recognise the People's Republic of China as far back as in 1959. Sudan is war thorn country, which holds the longest running war in Africa including the death of 2 million people. The war which led to the break-up of Sudan to South Sudan. It was reported in September 2018 that Sudan would get the largest share of the \$60 billion loan from China (China Uncensored, 2019).

China's investment in Sudan has given China control of around 70 percent of Sudan's oil industry under the supervision of the China National Petroleum Corporation. Some of the money loaned to Sudan was used to upgrade the oil refinery in Khartoum and most of the oil goes to China. Sudan's estimated debt owed China is \$6.4 billion and with China pledged to provide more financing, the debt could balloon further. According to the United Nations Report (2018) Sudan's debt assessed to be unsustainable (China Uncensored, 2019). The other country which is falling into debt trap with China is the Republic of the Congo, not to be confused with the Democratic Republic of Congo. The country is reported to be owing China \$7.3 billion dollars. China and Congo are working on a number of projects, including a motorway in Brazzaville, the construction of a Brazzaville stadium and upgrading of the country's airport. The Republic of Congo is one of the three countries alongside Zambia and Djibouti that make up the most significant contributor to high risk of actual debt distress (Mail & Guardian, 2018).

So, what does the Chinese debt mean? Other commentators suggest that it is a growing amount and some conditions are not known and these countries are going to be increasingly leveraged to repay that

when they are unable, China will make additional demands and these countries will have less money to spend on social security and other programmes. Some of the gestures which China gave to Congo include construction of the country's new \$50 million parliament for free. The Chinese intention in Africa appears to resemble that of luring money. For instance, it was reported in 2018 that China bugged the African Union headquarters building allegedly for state secrets. The interesting part is that China helped build the building and allegedly paid and built the computer network (African news, 2017).

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Congo is officially in debt distress and requires a bail out. When the IMF found out that the Republic of Congo maybe hiding some of its debt, the country claimed that its GDP ratio was 77 percent, but the IMF calculated that ratio to be 117 per cent. They accused the government of lying and called for the anti-corruption watchdog to be set up before they could agree to release any funds. It is worth noting that Congo is major oil producer. Maybe China would agree to take oil as collateral for more money, such move would be a win, win for China (African news, 2017). The next country which China is alluring money in Africa, is Kenya which its debt to China is nearly \$8 billion. In Kenya, it has been reported that China has built a high-speed railway. The 291 km Mombasa railway is the biggest infrastructure project since the country gained independence in 1964. After the completion of the phase 1 of the project Kenya secured another \$6.3 billion loan from China to extend the railway line by 155 km. The opposition parties in Kenya criticised the government's decision and indicating that the project is too expensive and will not generate enough revenue and that it was a ticking financial time bomb, because after a 10 year grace period Kenya has to start paying back the loan.

The other country which has fallen into debt trap with China is Ethiopia. The county owes China an estimated \$13.5 billion. The Chinese ambassador to Ethiopia has reportedly said that by lending money China is helping not only Ethiopia but the entire world. Lastly, Angola, is the African country which has the most debt owed to China, it is estimated to be around \$25 billion. In Angola, Chinese companies are building cities like the city of Zongo on the outskirts of the capital, Luanda. The project is built by China limited and the company has links to the Chinese regime. Chinese companies are also using debt to finance the new Luanda airport. It has been

reported that the project had cost \$4 billion and was behind schedule. The modus operandi of the project is that it has created jobs which are exclusively done by the Chinese people and the local people are not happy (African news, 2017).

Chinese scholar, Brautigam (2009) stresses that China's approach to aid or loans in African countries needs to be assessed on a country-to-country basis. She explains that China cannot be expected to merely adopt a multilateral model. As argued above in this paper that China has a new model to aid, therefore it is worth noting that China has never considered itself a 'donor' in economic cooperation, so can never integrate into multilateral framework. One could argue that the criticism which is levelled at China's approach to aid to Africa is because it is bilateral and countries from the West regard the approach as not transparent enough.

On the other hand, Park (2013) posit that China is generally regarded as a good ally who further development in Africa and furthermore an acknowledgement is also made that the Chinese in Africa are perceived more negatively. The Western media is said to be blamed for driving such perceptions about China. Sautman and Hairong (2009) conducted a survey on Southern African countries' perceptions of China in Africa and Botswana had the highest number of respondents which thought China was just in continent for the natural resources.

Zhou (2009) and Zhao (2010) admit that China was still learning and could also learn a lot from the Western countries in terms of standards and norms of loans. Considering that China is still learning, it could be deduced that it is likely to commit mistakes and recklessly lend money to African countries which could in the future not afford to pay back the debt. Again, some Chinese scholars and policy makers are of the view that despite distinguishing China from other Western "great powers" China will one day rightfully take its place amongst the "great powers" of the world (Dong 2009). Although, French (2014) is of the view that China's role in Africa resembles the traditional interpretations of imperialism.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper argued that China is alluring its money in Africa by granting huge loans to African countries for infrastructure development. The paper contended that China has developed a new economic

model which arguably shall surpass the private capital system of the United States and becoming the largest world economy by 2030. The paper also illustrated how countries such as Sudan, Ethiopia, Angola, Kenya and Republic of Congo have fallen into debt trap with China. It is also the contention of this paper that the debt accumulated due to Chinese loans could comprise the political independency of these African countries. The paper also argued that the Chinese culture is very different from the one of Africa or the West and the Chinese state operate somewhat different from traditional democracies found in Africa or the West. The study recommends that Africa has an option to ensure that China does not take over its political sovereignty and amongst the options include that:

- Africa either compete or cooperate with the Chinese economic model and if Africa chooses to compete with the Chinese model and attempt to convince countries around the world with an agenda to promote private capitalism as it is implemented by the West and this shall be against the headwinds and it is purported that this would be a natural stance to take.
- African countries should be given the flexibility to figure out in an organic way what political and economic system works best for them.
- African countries should focus on economic outcomes by creating more middle class to holds its government accountable.
- African countries consider getting financial assistance not only from China but also from countries from the Middle East such as Qatar or Saudi Arabia.

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Training and Development Needs in Local Government: Challenges and Lessons Drawn from Malawi's Councillors

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Abstract: This paper examines training and development needs for Councillors and the challenges facing skills development in Malawi's local government. This study adopted a qualitative approach. The existing literature on local government, training and development was systematically reviewed. It contends that the quality, applicability and relevance of training and development in local government is complicated by the lack of well-coordinated training and development programmes, as well as inadequate institutional and individual capacities. The study concludes that local government transformation through Councillors' training and development is critical and therefore, attention must be paid to the role of education and training institutions and on-going capacity development. There is need for regular assessment of training needs in local government, as well as the mobilisation of resources in terms of human resources and finances for efficient training and development and effective public service delivery.

Keywords: Councillors, Development, Local government, Public service, Training

1. Introduction

This paper analyses the training and development needs and the challenges facing skills development in Malawi's local government with reference to Councillors. As political leaders in local government, Councillors are required to serve their wards, deliver quality services and promote democratic governance (Hughes, 2003). However, the deterioration in local governments is attributed to the lack of effective training and development among Councillors in matters of policy analysis, development management and administration (Ojagbohumni, 1990; Chunga, 2014). According to Ojagbohumni (1990), there is rampant paucity of skills particularly in local government and among Councillors despite the numerous training and development initiatives in the various countries. In the context of Malawi, Chunga (2014) observes that training and development initiatives for Councillors are ad hoc, haphazard, poorly coordinated and unsystematic. Furthermore, there is duplication of training programmes due to lack of coordination among training providers. Thus, the improvement of public service delivery in local government through effective training and development of Councillors is a major concern for both government and development partners. This raises a number of questions including: how can training and development programmes for Councillors be better designed and implemented in local government to achieve the desired goals? What are the skills gaps

among Councillors? Which priority areas need to be addressed in order to enhance knowledge and skills for effective performance and public service delivery? What are the challenges facing training and development in local government?

This paper is organised into parts as follows: theoretical underpinnings relating to training and development, an overview of the legal and institutional framework of Malawi's local government system. In part four the methodological approach adopted for this study is outlined. Part five which is the crux of this analysis presents the findings of the study which include the training needs for Councillors and challenges facing training and development function. Finally, in part six, concluding remarks and recommendations are presented.

2. Concepts and Theoretical Underpinnings

From the outset it is important to clarify the key concepts that underpin this analysis, namely, training, development and local government, in view of the wide variation in their usage and interpretation in relation to the public sector.

2.1 Training and Development

The concept of the training and development in the public sector has changed over the recent decades.

Traditionally, training is defined as job-focused process, limited to the technical skills and abilities needed to perform specific tasks. For example, training is defined by scholars as 'equipping people with knowledge and skills relevant to the job performance' (Coetzee, 1992:300); 'a systematic and planned process associated with imparting to employees job related skills knowledge and behaviour needed to complete their assigned tasks' (Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2004:427); and 'the acquisition technically oriented skills by non-management personnel' (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2016:301). As such, training is differentiated from development which is considered to be broader in scope, more oriented toward a range of future jobs and generally provided by institutions of higher learning. However, the distinction between training and development has become blurred. For example, DeSario, Sue, Faerman & Slack (1994), defines training as the learning experiences designed to enhance the short-term and/or long-term job performance of individual employees. This is similar to the definition of development which is defined as 'a systematic process by which individuals in training and development positions acquire skills, knowledge and abilities to lead and manage organisations successfully' (Cohen, 1995:40); a 'general enhancement and growth of self-awareness, skills and abilities' (Grobler *et al.*, 2016:301) and the learning experiences encompassing education, training, and career development, performance management, coaching and mentoring (Andries, 2016). Thus, the terms training and development are used interchangeably to represent processes that improve the performance of individuals and groups within the organisation.

The literature suggests a number of theories of training and development. The nature of this article does not allow going into more details. The following are highlights of the interrelated approaches and theories underpinning this analysis. According to Chang, Chiang & Kunyi (2012), McGehee & Thayer's three-fold approach is the earliest model which determines the types of training and development experiences that should be implemented, including organisational analyses, task analyses, and person analyses which should be undertaken for effective training and development. Accordingly, organisational analyses focus on the organisation's ability to support training. Task analyses focus on the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other personal characteristics

required to perform the agency's task. Person analyses focus on the needs of the individual, identifying personal characteristics possessed by the particular individual.

The adult learning theory (Andragogy) by Knowles & Vella (1994) provides a set of ideas about how adults such as Councillors can effectively learn new skills or information. Among others aspects, the theory emphasises conducting a learning needs and resources assessment (LNRA) before designing the lesson/training; identifying the learning styles of the learners; setting objectives that focus on what the learners will do with the content in order to learn it; designing the learning so that learners are involved in various interactive activities; and establishing a learning environment that is emotionally and physically comfortable for all learners.

Similarly, the strategic training and development process model which is similar to the systems training and development model underline that before implementing any training programme, there is need for assessment of the needs of the training (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:300-305). The models comprises three interrelated phases, namely, needs assessment; design and delivery; and evaluation. The needs assessment phase is critical because it links training initiatives with the overall goals of the organisation. It also helps evaluate whether training is a viable option for the organisation based on its resources and strategy. In summary, this analysis is concerned with the training needs assessment because it is one the most important phase in the entire training cycle which provides necessary data for the formulation of training objectives to be achieved for efficient and effective performance.

2.2 Local Government

Local government refers to that part of government which deals with matters that concern the inhabitants of a particular district or place that is administered by a government or local authorities (also called Council) which is subordinate to the central government (Geldenhuys, 1996). In the Western liberal political perspective, local government is linked to democratic governance in the sense that governing and administration is based on local community organs, which are composed of people elected by the community's population (Leemans, 1970). The local authorities are the key institutions in the local government system, with defined powers, responsibilities and

an area of jurisdiction and citizens (Cloete, 1993). These institutions have corporate powers including substantial fiscal powers. They have the right to determine their own budget, prescribe taxes to be levied, collect fees and charges for services provided, and to incur debt. In addition, local authorities have administrative independence in a defined area, and public responsibilities and functions to be discharged by office holders and elected officials called Councillors. Public responsibilities and functions are discharged by office holders and elected officials called Councillors. The Councillors, who are closer to the public physically, socially and psychologically, are 'a fountainhead for democracy since they provide opportunities for representation, accountability, participation and political education to the citizens' (Ola, 1984:7).

3. Overview of the Legal and Institutional Framework of Malawi's Local Government System

The legal and institutional basis and issues relating to procedures, components, composition, functions, role and status of the local government are articulated in the Constitution, the Local Government Act No. 42 of 1998, and the National Decentralisation Policy of 1998. For example, section 146 of the constitution provides that the local sphere of government consists of local government authorities, which are also called Councils. These include 28 district (rural), 1 town, 2 municipal and 4 city councils according to section 2 and 5 (2) of the Local Government Act of 1998. Sections 5 to 11 of the Act provides council structure which comprises elected Councillors as voting members and of late Members of Parliament (MPs). The councillors are elected from each ward and they hold office for a period of five years. The non-voting members of the Council include traditional leaders and five persons appointed by the Council to represent special interest groups (Local Government Act of 1998, section 5). Thus, the Council's political structure is under the leadership of the chairperson or mayor elected among the Councillors during the first meeting of the council held within 14 days after local government elections (Local Government Act of 1998, section 7). The legal framework confers substantial powers on Councillors. They are required to ensure efficient and effective public service delivery but also sustainable infrastructure and economic development by formulating and implementing local development plans. The areas of concern include health and environment

services, education, sports and culture, clinical and health services, environmental protection, provision of public amenities like markets, postal agencies, water, highways, buildings and structures, licensing of business, censorship and control of entertainment, and development projects and promotion of tourism (Local Government Act of 1998, third schedule, section 1-18). However, as observed by Chunga (2019), most Councillors have inadequate skills and formal education to undertake the numerous tasks required of them. This contributes to the crisis in the administration and financial management in local authorities. According to LAPA (2018) most of the Councillors do not really know their roles and responsibilities. They do not fully grasp the operations of the Council, and are not able to understand and articulate issues in the English Language. The skill challenges have a bearing on the potential of Councillors to play oversight roles, influence the outcomes of decision-making processes in the Service Committees, and play a substantive role in deciding on local government priorities and the allocation of public funds that reflect the needs and aspirations of their Wards.

4. Methods and Materials

This study adopted a qualitative approach. The existing literature on local government, training and development was systematically reviewed. This involved a review of journal papers, conference papers, books, official reports and internet sources. A systematic review of literature attempts to collate all empirical evidence to answer a specific research question and uses explicit methods that minimise bias. This provides more reliable findings from which conclusion can be drawn and decisions made (Cochrane, 2003). According to Mulrow (1994) a systematic review of literature is appropriate in identifying, appraising and synthesising research based evidence and presenting it in accessible format. This methodology was the most appropriate since the research area required a review of a broad range of training and development approaches.

5. Results and Discussion

The section below presents the major findings of the study. The focus is on the policy and legal framework for local government and training and development in Malawi. The major areas critical for Councillors' training and development; and the challenges facing skills development.

5.1 The Policy and Legal Framework for Local Government and Training and Development in Malawi

The Malawi Government through the National Training Policy (NTP) of 1996 recognises that the delivery of quality public services depends on the availability of well-trained managers and leaders. The training and development function is undertaken by a network of institutions which include the Department of Human resource Management and Development (DHRMD) in collaboration with the Office of the President and Cabinet (OPC) and other Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) and education and training institutions. The OPC provides overall leadership on the implementation of the Malawi Government National Training Policy as well as the Training Guidelines and Procedures for the Public Service. It also ensures that there is a sustainable training financing strategy in place. In order to improve the delivery of public services. The MDAs are responsible for ensuring effective leadership and management development in their institutions. They are required to secure funds either from Government or from development partners to pay for short term and long term specialised and professional training in their respective Common Services. The development partners provide training support by funding scholarships through DHRMD to address human resource capacity gaps. Local authorities are also responsible for the training of their personnel including Councillors. The Malawi Local Government Association (MALGA) has borne the responsibility of coordinating the training for Councillors (Chunga, 2019).

There are several education and training institutions for provision of training and development. The Staff Development Institute (SDI), is the earliest government institution which was first established in 1962 as a civil service institution to train public servants as part of the Africanisation of the civil service (Dzimbiri, 2008). The Malawi Institute of Management (MIM) which was established by Malawi Institute of Management Act No. 7 of 1989 has the primary responsibility to provide to provide high quality training and development programmes. The flagship training programmes which include aspects of local government conducted over the years include Executive Leadership Programme (ELP) and the Public Sector Administration (PSA). The Department of Political and Administrative Studies, (PAS) which was born out of the Institute of Public Administration

at SDI and became part of the University of Malawi offers a wide range of courses for training and development. Currently, the curriculum includes local government courses which lead to specialist training and awards of diplomas, bachelor and post graduate degrees (Dzimbiri, 2008).

5.2 The Major Areas Critical for Councillors' Training and Development

5.2.1 Representation

The study established that the major function of Councillors is to represent and articulate the interests of the people. The Councillors are elected to represent the people in their electoral ward. Section 146 of the constitution provides that local government authorities shall be responsible for the representation of the people. The mandate of ward Councillors is to represent the views of local people or residents in the council. The representation role requires the Councillors to confirm the development needs and justified expectations of the citizens. They must ensure that the wishes of the public are incorporated into council policies. Therefore in order to solicit input from the public, Councillors must be accessible.

To be able to establish the wishes of the local residents, Councillors should keep in contact with such local residents by, for example, holding meetings and allowing them to participate. In addition, Councillors should acquire the appropriate ability argues that Councillors need to be equipped with political capabilities (Simukonda, 1999) – the ability of the Councillors to govern and execute policy with the performance level that demonstrates high degree of political maturity. Therefore they need leadership skills such as advocacy, and ability to speak on behalf of the people and represent the interests of the stakeholders in the council. Furthermore, they should learn to approach representations and expectations objectively and to make rational recommendations to council during council meetings (Hussein, 2013; Chunga, 2019).

5.2.2 Developmental and Public Service Delivery Role

The study also established that Councillors play a developmental and public service delivery role at the local level. Section 14 (2&3) of the Local Government Act of 1998 provides for the creation of committees at area, ward and village levels in order to facilitate councillors and citizen participation in development activities. The developmental

role involves passing appropriate policies, initiating development projects and mobilizing resources and ensuring effective implementation of those development project and motivating voters to participate in local government affairs such as attending public meetings and implementation of self-help projects. However, a substantial number of Councillors are experiencing difficulties in understanding budgeting and a leadership role as they are involved in educating and mobilising the public regarding civic roles and specific development activities (Hussein, 2013; Chunga, 2019). The councillors need familiarity with council procedure and the necessary tools for policy formulation and skills in administration, management and financial mobilisation. They are also required to work within the development planning system, namely, Area Development committees and Village development committees (Dzimbiri, 2008).

To play a meaningful role in development and public service delivery, Councillors must have a thorough understanding of the operations of the council. Among other things, the Councillors must have a clear understanding of the financial processes of the Council, ability to identify the development priorities of Council in conjunction with the communities and utilisation of the budget in the most effective way. The Councillors need to be aware of effective measures for personnel recruitment, appointment and deployment. In summary, the Councillor is expected to serve the community in the ward by performing various functions as a developer, educator and mediator; defender of rights for the community, and motivator. Therefore, the key areas for Councillors' training include leadership, financial management for non-financial managers, budget tracking and resource mobilisation.

5.2.3 Participation

Another major role of Councillors is the participation in the proceedings of Council and standing committee meetings (Hussein, 2013; Chunga, 2019). According to Rallings & Thrasher (1999) political participation in the local political system by Councillors is the essence of local democracy. It is a means through which democratic character and political processes such as elections, accountability and transparency between citizens and decision-makers are facilitated. The Councillors are required to give an account of their stewardship, including both representational accountability and financial accountability. Normanton, (1972:311) argues that the key demands

in terms of a political accountability system are the publication of facts and the submission of reports to the public and higher levels of government. The local people must have the authority and control over decisions and resources to ensure the effective mobilisation and use of limited public resources, and incorporation of local knowledge and priorities into the policy formulation process and the implementation of local development programmes. Committee meetings provide forums for information sharing, problems solving, and where needs and wishes of the community are dealt with in detail and alternative policies and decisions are formulated (Hussein, 2013; Chunga, 2019). For example, the meetings are used for civic education and enlightening residents on local government affairs, resolving and mediating in conflicting demands or responding to complaints of people in the ward. To effectively participate, Councillors should have basic skills in communication, negotiation, mediation and problem solving.

5.3 Challenges

5.3.1 Administrative Inefficiencies

The administrative inefficiencies are evident in the failure by the bureaucratic leadership to strategically plan and project human resource requirements which in turn undermine the implementation of training and development programmes. In Malawi, the Public Sector Management Reforms and Capacity Development Programme Document (PSMRCDPD) (2016) notes that both mandatory induction courses and training and development courses were neglected by government for over 15 years leading to serious leadership and management gaps in the public service and inefficient public service delivery. The focus of the institutions is shifted from that of training and development and transformation of public service delivery to tools of gaining political mileage by the existing regime. The education and training institutions are reactive rather than proactive towards training and development. The rampant corruption in bureaucratic circles has resulted in diverting public resources and capital for investment necessary for effective training and development for private gains (Matonga, 2013). The massive plunder of over MK14.5 billion (US\$20 million) by public servants within six months through payments to non-existing suppliers, deletion of transactions, dubbed 'Capital Hill Cashgate scandal' has been a reference point of grand corruption for the past six years (Gwede, 2016:3). In short, effective implementation of training

and development programmes cannot be attained in the face of high-level corruption.

5.3.2 Lack of Skills and Expertise in the Design and Implementation

There is a lack of skills and expertise in the design and implementation of systematic training and development programme. As observed by Kutengule, Watson, Kampanje, Chibwana, Chiteyeye, Matenje, Chunga & Stanley (2004) the shortage of skills and expertise in the design and implementation is pronounced in local authorities. This is attributed to the non-responsive human resource policies towards training and development which have resulted in serious competency gaps and the inability to attract and retain quality personnel in the public service due to poor conditions of service (LAPA, 2018). The effects of the pandemic are manifested in reduced capacities of officers involved in training and development. Furthermore, public universities are unable to design new postgraduate courses in local government. The pace at which new courses are introduced does not tally with what Government expectations due to lapses in needs assessment (Chunga, 2019).

5.3.3 Inadequate Resource-Personnel and Finances

The training activities are beset by inadequate finances for training and development for Councillors. According to the PSMRCDPD (2016), the demand for training and development programmes exceeds capacity and resources available. This is compounded by rapid expansion of the local government operations as well as increase in the number of reforms and activities (LAPA, 2018). The situation has resulted in haphazard design and delivery of training and development programmes for councillors. The financial resource constraints translate into the inability to sponsor public officials for training and development courses (LAPA, 2018). As argued by Kamanga, Banda, Chunga & Phiri (2000), the chronic problems of local authorities since independence has been acute shortage of trained personnel and Councillors, and inadequate funds which hamper Council operations. According to the circular CS.S/001 of 19th June 2016, MDAs have failed to dedicate 70% of their internal training budget towards training of public officials at MIM and SDI as required. Furthermore, although DHRMD has lobbied for increased funding for training and development, the level of funding is far less than 2% of the GDP which is a statutory requirement provided in the Malawi Government National

Training Policy. The limited availability of finances makes it difficult for sectors and training and education institutions to offer short and long term training programmes in priority areas including training and development for Councillors. The reliance on external training for some of the short term training and postgraduate training depletes the much needed foreign exchange. According to PSMRCDPD (2016), the lack of finances and competence culminate into the glaring lack of commitment to quality training and development not only for Councillors but also employees in the local government sector.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

To conclude, the quality, applicability and relevance of training and development in Malawi's local government is complicated by the lack of systematic and well-coordinated programmes, vested interests of public officials and inadequate and elusive quality and quantity of human resources. However, local government transformation through Councillors' training and development is critical and therefore, attention must be paid to the role of education and training institutions and on-going capacity development. The political and bureaucratic leadership's must have clear vision and commitment towards implementing relevant and well-structured training and development programmes. The coordination of Councillors' training and development must be enhanced through the establishment of the National local government education and training board. The mandate of the board should include the development of curriculum covering relevant subjects to Councillors and resource mobilisation. In short, there is need for regular needs assessment for Councillors' training and development and the mobilisation of resources both human in terms of quality and quantity for efficient and effective training and service delivery.

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An E-Government Opportunity: Implications for the African Poor and Vulnerable Groups

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Abstract: Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is viewed as an enabler for efficient and effective government processes, operations, interactions, service, and for accountable and transparent government i.e. a phenomenon well known as e-government. E-government is believed to present an enormous potential in innovating and transforming the manner in which government services are delivered. The potential of e-government is however challenged in the developing countries particularly in Africa due to a mist of challenges encountered in implementation. One of the prevailing arguments is that instead of expanding access to the poor and marginalized groups in the society, e-government tends to expand the gap that already exist between the rich and the poor. This paper aims to solicit African governments to prioritise e-government services targeted to the most vulnerable, marginalised, disadvantaged groups, the poor and those in the remote rural areas of the society for inclusive service delivery. The paper adopts a conceptual approach and analyses existing literature aided by scientifically published documents and reports on the subject. This methodological approach let to the determination of a variety of ICT channels which the researcher believes present a necessary potential for the poor, vulnerable groups and people in the rural areas to benefit from e-government services within the realistic context of socio-economic and material conditions encountered in the African continent. If such channels are identified, carefully managed and equipped with services that are relevant to the needs of these groups, the e-government potential can be realised to benefit the poor and vulnerable in Africa.

Keywords: Developing countries, E-government, Rural areas, Vulnerable groups

1. Introduction

Electronic-government (E-government) involves the use of ICTs to facilitate interaction between government institutions and the citizens or the business community in various activities for the delivery of government services. This delivery approach presents an opportunity for equal public service delivery (Lips, 2010). For the full realisation of this opportunity, it is important that e-government services are made accessible to remote rural areas, townships, poor urban areas and vulnerable groups in the society. This is mainly because these groups of citizens are usually excluded from the full benefits of public services for various reasons. Yet equal access to government services is a vital guiding principle to almost if not all democratic governments worldwide (Mphidi, 2011). Equal access implies everyone in the society including people with disability, the vulnerable and the poor. It is fair to expect a government to direct efforts that promotes e-government services designed to cater for these groups, making e-government services a norm in their societal settings and not a privilege. In relation to issues of the digital divide, Maumbe (2007) asserts that some of the questions that government and civil society

should ask are issues of how to promote equitable e-government service delivery to citizens and generating long-term trust and loyalty to this mode of delivery.

Drawing from the literature (Kitaw, 2006; Posfai & Fejer, 2008; Abuali, Alawneh & Mohammad, 2010; Hassan, Shehab & Peppard, 2010; Brynard, Cloete & de Coning, 2011; Mphidi, 2011; UN, 2016; UN, 2018), it is a serious concern that ICTs are not appropriately introduced, adopted and utilised in African countries. There is lack of support for appropriate and relevant technologies and delivery channels that consider the user in mind to promote access and usage. Close attention is not given to e-government implementation dynamics between the developed and developing countries, particularly to highlight the challenges that Africa as a developing continent encounters in the implementation of e-government. A significant missing ingredient that would necessitate pursuit of measures and policy strategies to provide real e-government benefits for the poor. Mobile-government as a promising and fast growing channel of delivery that can potentially ensure the inclusion of the poor in the digital age is not effectively incorporated in the delivery stream

and governance processes. Africa has also not adequately taken special lessons when adopting e-government of constantly re-visiting its priorities and evaluating its unique characteristics and circumstances as a developing continent. All these aspects seem to be reasons for delay and implementation or disconnection by Africa from the inevitable and necessary changes or transformation to benefit the most vulnerable and the poor to enjoy the benefits of e-government. This paper aims to solicit African governments to also prioritise e-government services targeted to the most vulnerable, marginalised, disadvantaged groups, the poor and those in the remote rural areas of the society for inclusive service delivery, bearing in mind a host of challenges and implementation gaps aforementioned.

2. E-Government in the Developed vs Developing Countries

When studying world e-government rankings, it is common for the developed countries to be positioned top on the list, whereas the developing and under-developed countries usually appear at the bottom. According to UN (2018), the top 10 e-government world leaders are; Denmark, Australia, Republic of Korea, United Kingdom, Sweden, Finland, Singapore, New Zealand, France and Japan respectively. The African continent which generally constitutes developing nations continues to lag behind in global e-government rankings. The average of Africa in 2016 was as low as 0.2882 compared to the global average of 0.4492 as well as the leading Europe's average at a high of 0.7241 e-government development index (EGDI) (UN, 2016). According to the 2018 UN e-government survey (2018), the majority of countries ranking within the Low-EGDI grouping continue to be African countries, constituting 14 countries out of 16. Some of these countries include; Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Mali, Niger, Somalia amongst others. This is a reflection of the continued digital divide between Africa as a developing continent and the developed continents such as Europe.

Chatfield and Alhujran (2009) indicate that e-government leaders have a national e-government portal as one of the identifying success factors compared to the laggards. This means that they have a single-entry point (commonly known as whole-of-government approach or one-stop shop) that covers the scope of a country's e-government with links to specific government departments, agencies and institutions.

These governments present their citizens with the opportunity to enjoy advanced e-government services such as electronic payment transactions, e-democracy including e-consultation, e-decision making, and e-information. Developed countries are able to adopt a one-stop shop due to the interconnected, synchronised and coordinated nature of their e-government programmes. However, this is a requirement that the developing nations highly lack and battle with. Although countries like South Africa have shown initiative in this regard, through its official one-stop-website called the Batho Pele Gateway (Department of Telecommunications and Postal Services –DTPS, 2017) which is accessible on <http://www.gov.za>, e-government services in this country still lack the required level of interconnect-edness i.e. coordination of such related activities for seamless delivery (Cloete, 2012). On this note, developing countries should seriously take into account their unique circumstances, prioritise the key issues and address them in order to realise success in e-government implementation.

Alshawi & Alalwany (2009) indicate that e-government strategy development, implementation and operation in the developing countries differs with that in the developed countries. Nengomasha, Mchombu & Ngulube (2010) affirm that developed nations employ sophisticated and integrated e-government programmes as opposed to most developing countries which according to Bhatnagar (2002) still make use of a mixture of automated and manual models for service delivery. However, moving away from a combination of e-service delivery designs to a complete automated self-service approach might not be beneficial for the developing countries due to the state of ICT infrastructure, legal frameworks and literacy levels. The developed countries generally achieve very high-EGDI as opposed to low-EGDI in the developing countries (UN, 2016) that also face problems of systems incompatibility. Abuali, Alawneh & Mohammad (2010) state that the developing countries are often faced with the problem of systems incompatibility between currently employed and future developed e-government systems. These issues clearly highlight the gap between planning for the current and future e-government implementation, lack of a long-term vision for e-government implementation and exposure to the reality that the developing countries should not simply adopt e-government applications from developed nations, but rather adopt it to cater for their unique circumstances.

3. E-Government Challenges in Africa

Despite the growth over years that indicates an increasing awareness and willingness to support and adopt e-government by the African governments, Africa as a developing continent faces a number of challenges in the implementation of e-government. UN (2016) indicates that countries with low E-government Development Index (low-EGDI) are largely African countries. A total of 14 African countries are classified within the low-EGDI as compared to 0 (zero) in Europe, 0 in the Americas, 2 in Asia and 0 in Oceania. Most African countries rank within the lower EGDI or middle-EGDI, with a limited, but gradually increasing number ranking within the High-EGDI. None of the African countries ranks within the Very-High EGDI category (UN, 2018). UN (2016) records indicate that African countries are extremely affected by global challenges of food security and climate change including extreme harsh environments which have negatively impeded progress and priorities on e-government. A number of challenges facing Africa, which to a large extent explain the low-middle EGDI among African countries are discussed. These challenges are very common among poor, remote rural and marginalised groups within the African countries.

3.1 Literacy

According to Kitaw (2006), some African governments including Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger and Senegal face various challenges that prevent them to adequately adopt and adapt to e-government applications. Literacy is continuously identified as the biggest obstacle to e-government development in most African countries. Women are ranked on the ratio of approximately two-thirds of illiterate people in Africa and this figure had not yielded positive growth by 2015 as was expected in the millennium development goals. UNICEF (2018) affirms that the literacy rate in 2016 among youth was increasing but women continued to lag behind. This situation does not help this already vulnerable and marginalised group within affected societies. UNICEF (2018) also reports that the West and Central Africa regions rank lowest (53) in both adult and general literacy rates worldwide, with women at a low of 43% (world average 81%) compared to men (63%). Therefore, illiteracy is an obstacle to the adoption of e-government. Almarabeh & AbuAli (2010) add that the uneducated population faces serious challenges of

e-government access and adoption, a situation that further makes e-government potential extremely difficult to be realised for this group. However, increasing opportunities presented by ICTs through e-learning programmes can possibly improve the state of affairs and further transform and advance the education system. This may also possibly explain the current improvement trend in literacy rates as reported within the youth grouping.

Mphidi (2011) highlights that internet usage is more prevalent among educated individuals, ultimately translating to low internet usage by the illiterate groups. On the other hand, UN (2016) reported that mobile technologies such as smart phones can help broaden access to both education and internet access among poor groups of people. Moreover, support offered by employees in conveniently located community centres is another important and feasible option to secure access and usage for illiterate individuals who are unable to make use of ICTs, thus ultimately transferring e-skills to the e-illiterates (Posfai & Fejer, 2008). This has critical triple effects because citizens' ability to demand services electronically (e-skills sets) has an influence on e-government adoption rate (Bhatnagar, 2002). As a long term goal, education systems in Africa need to incorporate ICTs at the grass-roots level whilst promoting and producing qualified ICT specialists through relevant tertiary institutions (Kitaw, 2006). These are some of the basic measures that need to be incorporated in the developing countries' implementation strategies in order to address the current state of illiteracy and e-illiteracy.

3.2 Telecommunication Infrastructure

In the 2016 UN survey (2016), it can be interpreted that a country like Republic of Korea is far more advanced in terms of its Telecommunication Infrastructure Index (TII) compared to the previous top two African leaders' (Mauritius and Tunisia) infrastructure combined. Although there is currently a slight improvement - Mauritius (0.543) and South Africa (0.4231) compared to the Republic of Korea's 0.8496 TII (UN, 2018) this is a sad reality that demonstrates the magnitude of incapacity with regard to ICT infrastructure in Africa. According to Kitaw (2006), ICT infrastructure is a central developmental factor in the knowledge society or information age. However, Africa was never capacitated with this kind of infrastructure in the previous decades, and continues to lag behind. Underdeveloped

infrastructure is one of the most critical factors which delays e-government progress in Africa. It is important for the continent to realise this as an opportunity and invest heavily in ICT infrastructure. This is critical if the continent is to position itself to enjoy the benefits presented by ICT and simultaneously be incorporated into global connectivity and development. This is also crucial for its fast growing future generation and its labour force, bearing in mind that a country with no access to ICT's neither participates nor benefits from e-government opportunities (Mphidi, 2011). The same applies to lower class societies where lack of infrastructure is most prominent.

Contrary to its potential, if not properly planned, adopted and managed in cognisance of the socio-economic imbalances, ICT can have a negative impact on impoverished societies by exacerbating inequality. Developing nations can however address these concerns, particularly issues of ICT infrastructure in lower class communities by taking decisive actions. This is due to the reality that ICTs cannot be side-lined when determining government priorities any longer due to their inevitable impact on people's lives. de Coning, Cloete & Burger (2018) also acknowledge that developing countries "might have no choice but to migrate to electronic means of service delivery if they are serious in their attempt to achieve sustainable developmental outcomes". Almarabeh & AbuAli (2010) implore governments in this regard to build projects comparable to the country's telecommunication infrastructure; consider using conveniently located service centres or mobile centres to provide access to marginalised and disadvantaged groups; assess the government's present use of technology and build on it; utilise the Small Medium Enterprises – SMEs model to connect to poor areas and allow sustainability and initiate telecommunication competitions to promote the use of SMEs; lift regulations against wireless and other digital technologies; and a considerable amount of budget must be allocated for ICT investment and infrastructure development.

3.3 Digital Divide

The digital divide is a serious challenge in the digital age preventing poor communities from reaping the full benefits of e-government. According to UN (2016), the digital divide comprises inequality in physical access to ICTs and in resources and skills required to successfully use such ICTs. Almarabeh

& AbuAli (2010) define the digital divide as the gap between those with access to the internet or other ICTs and those without i.e. the ICT 'haves' and 'have-nots'. The digital divide according to Rambowan, Lubbe & Kopper (2005) manifest itself in the context of the class structure (rich vs poor) and most importantly, in how minority groups (in this case, the disabled, the young, women and elderly persons and indigenous groups) are treated. If change is orchestrated in how these marginalised groups are treated, and if distribution of resources between the poor and rich is balanced i.e. paying more attention to their needs, digital inequalities can be greatly reduced. Instead of constantly capacitating and advancing the lives of the ICT 'haves', governments should start to pay more attention on how to create an inclusive knowledge society. This requires dedicated efforts towards digital capacitation of these groups by establishing means for the poor to benefit from all-round digital e-government activities. Mphidi (2011) acknowledges this disparity as one of the biggest challenges to governments which have adopted e-government. The digital divide is problematic as those with no access will not have the privilege to access information that provides economic opportunities such as government vacancies, educational bursaries, business opportunities including tenders available through government websites. Therefore, a digital inclusion strategy is of paramount importance for the ICT 'have nots' groups in the society. UN (2016) maintains that digital inclusion measures require fulfilment of four key areas (1) improvement of access to high-speed internet connection to every citizen; (2) provision of reliable and high quality ICT infrastructure; (3) adoption of a holistic approach on social, economic and environmental factors to spread digital inclusion; and (4) promotion of ICT usage and development of necessary ICT skills.

With particular reference to the poor, vulnerable groups, rural areas and townships, governments must ensure that they provide these groups with an added advantage to ensure better access to e-government services so that they can enjoy the same privileges as their urban counterparts. Almarabeh & AbuAli (2010) state that government can in this regard, provide multi-purpose community centres or public kiosks provided with hand-in-hand training for use; incorporate local language and local content in e-government services to promote access, usage and value. Bhatnagar (2002) believes that multi-purpose community centres are beneficial in areas

with low access to the internet i.e. remote rural and underserved townships. This facility is conveniently positioned in public areas and provides different e-government services in one place such as payments, issuing of licenses and certificates. Moreover, supportive policy actions that African countries can consider include among others: improved measurements for ICT usage, efficient use of digital technologies and constant experimentation, strategic collaborations, comprehensive citizens' engagement strategy and improved e-government services targeted at vulnerable groups with user friendly features (UN, 2016).

3.4 Policy and Legislative Framework

The general characteristics and unique circumstances of developing countries make it difficult for policy processes and implementation in particular to take place smoothly. According to Brynard, Cloete & de Coning (2011), circumstances common in the developing nations include: severe lack of policy-related information, information management systems and electronic systems which result in policy paralysis and uncertainties in policy decisions; lack of knowledge, skills and expertise in policy related decision-making leading to poor policy decisions; poor policy implementation and weak service delivery capabilities. Policy then fails as a result of these conditions. As far as e-government is concerned, Kitaw (2006) insists that African countries need to develop relevant policies and satisfactory legislative frameworks to successfully adopt and implement e-government which can assist to eliminate some of their service delivery problems. Developing ICT policies and formulating appropriate ICT legislative frameworks that cater for the needs of all individual beneficiaries is a challenging task (Hassan, Shehab & Peppard, 2010), even more difficult to most African governments eager to adopt e-government.

The challenges to develop appropriate ICT policies is characterised by political and legal elements. Amongst political elements is lack of political leadership and support for e-government (Mphidi, 2011). Firstly, successful e-government applications and implementation requires top officials to be champions and great supporters of ICTs (Abuali, Alawneh & Mohammad, 2010). Contrary to this, there is shortage of skilled high ranking IT public officials in most African governments (Kitaw, 2006). This gap should nonetheless be viewed as an opportunity to promote ICT as a field of study in both basic education

level and higher education. Onyancha (2007) states that officials require proper training to ensure the effective use of e-government applications. Training is also significant to build and strengthen e-government culture in public institutions. Secondly, the need for transformation from traditional and bureaucratic systems to citizen-centred governance is a political element that pose a serious challenge to formulation of relevant ICT polices and legislation (Alfano, 2011).

In light of the above, African governments need to commit completely to citizens' needs, incorporate citizens in their systems and communication channels, consult and encourage citizen participation for quality public service delivery. However, Kitaw (2006) states that not all African countries share the same ideology of a citizen-centred governance. Lastly, to fully adopt e-government in Africa, governments need to establish appropriate legislation to support digital signatures and to fight cybercrime. Thus, legislation and policies governing e-government adoption must not only be strengthened, but also be competent to fight crime that develops through the use of the internet, particularly to support the growing demand for e-commerce and e-transitions. Government websites and any e-government application need effective protection and security against any possible digital/internet and online crimes (Bhatnagar, 2002). Subsequently, legislation on both e-government adoption and protection against cybercrimes is critical for e-government success. Apart from a strategic direction that Africa needs to take to address its e-government adoption challenges, it is significant that e-government is implemented and designed with user needs in mind and it's perceived value, with particular attention to the poor and vulnerable groups.

4. E-Government Designed for the Poor and Vulnerable Groups

Almarabeh & AbuAli (2010) argue that e-government may pose a major challenge as some ICT tools may not be user friendly to the disabled groups. Better equipped ICTs which cater for the disabled individuals such as voice prompts options for the blind, and graphic displays for the illiterate and deaf, should be employed to promote equal access to e-government services (Posfai & Fejer, 2008). Assistive technologies such as narrators and enlargements screens can be incorporated in government websites to promote accessibility to e-government services by

citizens with special needs (Kaisara & Pather, 2011). This may be a challenge for developing countries with very basic ICT facilities and even worse, from whom a majority of the poor depends for basic services. These are some of the issues that need to be incorporated in the developing countries' long-term e-government investments strategies. It is important that governments worldwide, especially developing countries put considerable effort in increasing e-government service accessibility and adoption by disabled groups. According to Almarabeh & AbuAli (2010), efforts that may be considered to promote inclusive access to e-government services involve; (1) establishing laws that require institutions and agencies to adopt technology that facilitates usage by disabled groups; (2) design e-government applications that cater for the needs of the disabled groups during the initiation phase, e.g. audio option devices for the blind; (3) and most essentially, governments need to establish performance criteria to measure progress on initiatives and activities aimed at improving accessibility and usage of ICTs by the poor and vulnerable communities. Another fast growing ICT trend that is highly feasible to poor communities is adequate use of mobile technologies, particularly mobile phones or smart-phones in the delivery stream.

5. Mobile-Government

The use of mobile technologies or devices to deliver government services is called mobile-government (m-government). The Department of Public Service and Administration – DPSA (2013) defines m-government as the use of wireless and mobile technologies such as cell phone, tablet and laptop applications to deliver offline information services, online interactive and transactional services between the government and its citizens. M-government is not a separate, additional, replacement or an advanced stage of e-government, but it is simply an important part of e-government (United Nations - UN, 2014). Some countries (e.g. Singapore, South Africa) are increasingly using mobile technologies to provide e-government services to citizens to ensure that services are accessible to them anywhere and at any time – 24/7 access notion. Most significantly, government may use these mobile technological and social media applications to become more accessible and provide up-to-date information services to remote rural areas and to vulnerable groups in the society. In the remote rural areas, the role of field-workers can be amplified since the government is

able to empower them through the use of mobile technologies to allow them flexible or smart working conditions (UN, 2016), to adequately and timely capture critical societal information and issues as they arise. A move from fixed to mobile technologies has presented governments with endless and new ways of delivering government services to these recipients who are usually isolated and in real need of government services (Nokia Siemens Networks, Nokia Corporation & Commonwealth Telecommunications Organisation, 2008; Interchange of Data between Administrations - IDA, 2004).

5.1 Mobile Government for Social Services

The use of mobile service applications such as SMSs in the social service sector is increasingly playing a vital role in the developing countries in bridging the access divide in the remote rural areas characterised by vulnerable groups where these services are most needed. A good example of an m-government service is the Singapore SMS text service called SMS70999 designed for emergency services. This mobile service was introduced as a social inclusion initiative targeting vulnerable groups in the society such as the deaf, speech-impaired and hard-of-hearing to easily access emergency services (UN, 2014). Electronic delivery of social services has the potential to drastically influence availability and affordability of mobile devices which will not only help to bridge the digital divide but also to pave the way towards sustainable development (UN, 2016). Government institutions with high and regular customer contact (education, health, employment and social welfare services) tend to sit at higher stages of e-government maturity as a result of high public demand for these services as compared to institutions with low and irregular customer contacts (Kachwamba & Hussein, 2009). This makes social services ideal for online delivery, particularly in the developing countries since these services are critical in paving a way for social and economic empowerment for the poor and encouraging digital inclusion.

The UN (2016) noted that mobile technologies can improve the living conditions of underprivileged communities because as more and more people from impoverished areas own a mobile device, the gap in provision and access to services and learning becomes bridged. This ensures that an environment conducive for education and learning, and access to government health services is consequently created. de Coning *et al.* (2018) affirms that ICTs

encourage people to become literate in order to enjoy e-government benefits since people are compelled to equip themselves with necessary ICT skills. ICTs can then be interpreted both as a push and pull factor for socio-economic development with mobile technologies accelerating the process. Health services are no longer geographically bound as health practitioners are empowered to make use of mobile devices to access test results for patients. Ramharuk (2005) acknowledges that the application of ICTs in the health sector including use of technologies such as Telemedicine - for remote diagnosis, Health Information Systems, Decision Support Systems and Electronic Patient Records has transformed health care services. This serves as a demonstration that geographical barriers to health, education and other government services in the poor communities can be addressed through ICTs. These technologies can help expand government's focus from improving government services to creating citizen-centered public services, thus putting the needs of the poor and vulnerable people first.

Mobile technologies are increasingly promoting equal access to government information as another important government service which is no longer dependent on fixed devices such as a computer. UN (2016) reported that mobile technology is increasingly becoming accessible even in poor and remote rural areas where there is shortage of basic ICT infrastructure and facilities. Developing countries have recorded a large number of mobile users with continued penetration. South Africa is one of the developing countries which demonstrates increased ownership of technologically advanced cell phones (smart-phones) that allow access to e-government services and also offer a great deal of interactivity between government and its citizens (Nokia Siemens Networks *et al.* 2008). However, its internet-based services are considered to be among the most expensive globally (Thakur & Singh, 2013) with the poor being the most affected. This is another element that requires close consideration if the poor and the disadvantaged were to benefit from all-round e-government services and not just offline-services to ensure realisation of an inclusive digital and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030.

5.2 Mobile Technologies for Internet Access

de Coning *et al.* (2018) acknowledges that technology is increasingly becoming more affordable in the developing countries. UN member states are

therefore expected to increase access to ICTs and promote affordable access to the internet, especially the developing nations, in efforts towards the realisation of SDGs (UN, 2016). According to the UN (2016), mobile smartphones are used as the main source of internet access (4G networks) in the developing countries. The UN (2014) also reported that Kenya's 99% of internet users (almost all internet users) gain access to the internet through mobile devices. DOC (2014) states that although mobile internet connection is a fast growing trend and arguably an affordable means of accessing the internet, the problems of slow connection due to mobile speed can frustrate users, especially the poor who may heavily depend on this platform for connection. Nonetheless, this trend should serve as an indication of an opportunity to encourage the developing nations to expand beyond offline services such as SMSs to delivering a variety of public services (including interactive and transactional services) empowered through this platform as the cheapest channel to access the internet.

5.3 Mobile Technology and E-Commerce

Mobile payment or mobile money is a fast growing commercial trend in Africa which has the potential to reduce poverty by providing flexible financial services (e-banking and e-commerce) most significantly to the majority of the rural population where access to financial services and roads and ICT infrastructure is still a big challenge. M-government presents disadvantaged and vulnerable groups in the society with an opportunity to access financial services much easier than it was before the cell phone took over the key facilitation role in sending and receiving money. This mobile money initiative is commonly known as M-pesa in Africa and currently facilitates significant services such as salary payments, international money transfers and air-time-top-up amongst others (UN, 2014). DOC (2014) highlights that 'mobile money' may also empower lower income households to contract micro-loans (services that are otherwise widely inaccessible to them) for socio-economic upliftment. Also importantly, mobile financial services are accessible to recipients at free of charge (costs are normally incurred by the sender), or at minimal charges if there are any financial charges as compared to formal monthly bank account charges. Thakar & Singh (2013) argue that electronic banking facilities (e.g. ATMs) may economically and geographically disadvantage the poor as they tend to make regular

low value withdrawals (informal sources of income) in remotely accessible ATMs. This implies that these facilities need to be increasingly made accessible to remote rural areas and urban townships in order for these underprivileged communities to see the value of ICTs in improving their lives. However, the banking sector has begun to make efforts to improve their visibility in villages and townships. Entrepreneurial activities can also be supported through this initiative to incorporate informal business activities in the rural areas and expose them to national and global e-commerce. This calls for a more advanced interconnected delivery approach whereby government partnership with the business sector (Public Private Partnerships) needs to come forth in these sectors and strengthen such PPPs for the benefit of society.

5.4 Social Media for Participative and Inclusive Digital Society

Social media application is another significant tool that is used by both the government and communities to communicate and provide information services to one another and also initiate dialogue, including raising awareness on issues that need urgent attention. 'Lungisa' is an example of a social media initiative in Cape Town which facilitates reporting of service delivery problems including problems with electricity, water and other public services (UN, 2014). Van Jaarsveldt & Naidoo (2013) affirm that social media is actively used in South Africa to discuss pressing societal issues, provide information on governmental activities, governance processes and also encourage public participation in such activities and processes. The UN (2014) encourages governments to take advantage of this fairly affordable channel to reach disadvantaged and vulnerable constituencies in order to discuss and address issues affecting their communities. Social media can play a vital role of social inclusion of groups previously disadvantaged in important governance processes through e-participation, e-consultation, e-decision-making and e-information. Government therefore has a task to create a conducive environment through policies that create awareness and teach citizens in disadvantaged and marginalised communities how to access and use e-government services using technological devices at their disposal (UN, 2016). According to Asian Development Bank Institute – ADBI and UN: Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific –ESCAP (2005), e-government initiatives that

are aimed for poor communities should be driven by e-government strategies and policy frameworks that support empowerment of underprivileged communities and should focus on bridging the digital divide.

6. E-Government Adopted Through an African Lens

What is most important for Africa is that, e-government should be seen as an enabler and not a solution to country-wide socio-economic problems. This is simply because *"e-government is not primarily about technology. Technology is as important as the length of the letter 'E' in the word e-government"* (Kitaw, 2006:55). It is important to bear in mind that ICT is not an objective or an end itself, rather a tool to realise government objectives, thus, a means to an end (Thakar & Singh, 2013:43). Meaning that, African governments still have a big role to play to show their true commitment and willingness not only to transform patterns of delivery, but to also show commitment in national strategies and priorities of which their achievement according to the World Bank (2002), can be facilitated through e-government. Kitaw (2006:54) further emphasises that if e-government is *"driven and adopted by Africans themselves, it should figure high among the key areas of action in national e-government strategies not because development partners have recommended it for good governance, but because it inherently contributes to socio-economic dynamisms and overall livelihood of African societies"*. This implies that developing countries need to guard against simply adopting e-government applications from the developed countries with no vision for implementation and worse, outside the context of a particular country. The result will be epic failure which will have the most negative impact on the poor. Therefore, it is important that in the forefront of ICT, adequate and careful consideration is given to interaction of the wider economic, social and political factors that exist within the developing countries and in the poor communities (Thakar & Singh, 2013). By so doing, an informed decision on the determination of how ICTs can be deployed to facilitate this interaction for improvement of the lives of the poor and vulnerable individuals in the society will be sought.

de Coning *et al.* (2018) believes that "technology has already proven its potential to empower the poor". This statement provides a response to the question about what an e-government potential means to the African poor by drawing from the benefits already experienced and success cases

reported on in various settings. What is more important now is for the developing countries in Africa to ensure continued support and capacity building and strengthening as well as to ensure continuous development in e-government with heavy emphasis on uplifting the lives of the poor, the vulnerable and marginalised communities. Society is continuously in a state of constant change and is never static and in light of this, developing countries cannot adequately achieve their developmental milestones in the absence of ICTs, especially with the 4th industrial revolution underway. What is key for these countries is to adopt, use and manage e-government appropriately to prevent programme failure and issues of misguided efforts and resources, while preparing and encouraging the poor and vulnerable groups to embrace and explore ICT opportunities fully. Keeping up with new technological developments with active involvement in such processes in the international level by African countries, governments are then placed in the centre of decision making whereby the countries' individual circumstances can be adequately catered for. As a result, Africans will no longer be a passive consumer of technology, but a key role player as one of the drivers and inventors of the ICT era, appropriately designed for African needs.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The digital divide presents a challenge within the poor segment of the population to benefit from e-government services, but mobile technologies with broadband access can play a game-changing role in bridging the digital divide. Countries such as Singapore and South Africa are continuously making use of mobile technologies to deliver government services, with social services receiving considerable attention in this regard. M-government platform is beneficial in incorporating disadvantaged communities and vulnerable groups in societies to also benefit from e-government programmes. Social media as another element of m-government encourages access and participation in important e-governance processes. Despite gaps in e-government between the developed and developing countries, if properly planned and managed, e-government has the potential to bring a multitude of benefits to the developing countries. It is clear that Africa has ample prospects through its current state of e-government affairs provided it circumvents its e-government maturity levels and challenges thereof. As such, it is important for the developing countries, and Africa

in particular, to place marginalised communities and vulnerable groups in the forefront of e-government service delivery endeavours and e-governance processes. This may be made possible through dedicated legislative frameworks and policies supportive of e-government programmes with governments playing the champion role to promote digital inclusion of the poor and marginalised communities. Africa needs to re-shape its thinking and view the current challenges as its most precious future opportunities to be acknowledged as urgent investment priorities. As lessons for the developing countries, it is important for them to identify measures and practices that take into cognisance each country's priorities, capabilities and developmental needs and adopt such practices to best suit their respective and unique socio-economic circumstances. Special attention should always be placed towards the needs of the poor and the marginalised so that they are rightfully placed in the forefront of e-government endeavours for the full realisation of its value to society. Furthermore, Africa needs to be an active participant and developer in the international ICT development community and not be a mere passive consumer of ICT goods and services.

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Managing the South African Public Administration: A Complex Systems Approach

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Abstract: This paper aims to discuss the use of the complex systems theory in public administration. The researcher has seen in South Africa how public institutions fail to understand their role and influence in other public institutions. It is important to note that public administration is very diverse and has various stake holders and therefore, this makes it a complex environment. These stakeholders are interrelated and are part of a bigger system and with the application of systems theory the complexity will be managed. This paper is qualitative in nature and reflects elements of description. The concept of systems theory and its relationship to public administration and management practice is explored. Regarding the research methods, a literature study of appropriate primary and secondary sources containing authoritative publications, books, journals, the internet and official documents, such as departmental policies, was conducted to gather information. Towards the end of the study the researcher reflects systems theory within the South African public administration. Public Administration can be regarded as an open system, which is influenced by the environment within which it operates. The understanding of the disciplines of complexity can progress people's understanding of the complexities of public administration.

Keywords: Complexity theory, Public administration, Reductionism systems theory, Systems thinking

1. Introduction

Complex systems theory of organisation was first established for physics in the structure of a molecule where it was discovered that atoms of an element are combined together systematically or similar to a system to build a molecule of that element (Newell & Meek, 1997). This concept was later used in the social sciences such as public administration, political science, and management among others as a modern method to understand administration. This theory was introduced by David Easton and Chester Barnard in the social sciences. They analysed administrative and political systems thoroughly and how they are organised and function.

The sciences of complexity are grounded heavily on the systems thinking approach, which is a theoretical framework employed in the social and the natural science. Public administration also uses systems theories. One can think of public administration as a closed or open system and this will be explained later in the paper. This means that public administration is not self-sufficient or self-contained. It exchanges resources with and it is dependent upon the external environment in which it operates. Until public servants understand the complexity of public administration, they will not be able to manage it effectively.

This complexity is brought by a number of interrelated elements and having to manage a variety of stakeholders. There have been a number of studies of the applicability of the complex systems theory in the field of social sciences and of most interest to the public administration. As a point of departure, public administration will be defined. Many government departments and spheres in South Africa seem to work independently. There is lack of interaction network of institutions at national, provincial and local levels. It appears that even employees do not understand the concept of intergovernmental relations and this principle is closely related to systems theory. It is a constitutional requirement that departments work together to achieve governmental objectives.

2. Defining Public Administration

In this paper, public administration will be defined as a practice. Schoeman and Fourie (2008) defined public administration as an expression of governmental power that has profound implications for the effectiveness and efficiency of government as it defines the conduct of democracy and shapes the relationship between government and its citizens. Public administration functions in the political environment and legal parameters. Therefore, public

administration cannot exist outside of its political context. It is this context that makes it public - that makes it different from private and business administration (Shafrit, Russel & Borick, 2009). Public administration is what government does. It is the president's chefs preparing a meal for the visiting head of state, the Department of Agriculture's inspector examining beef in the butchery, police officers responding to a public unrest, and fire-fighter rescuing a child from fire in Knysna among others. Many public administration definitions, relates to the state and government and that public administration takes place within government institutions. For the purpose of this paper, public administration as a practice is defined as public servants implementing a specified policy within the confines of a government executive framework. Public administration facilitates the proper utilisation of resources for public good and towards achieving public value. From the systems perspective public administration is a system of interacting elements each having a special function or relation to each other and work together in coordination and as a whole to achieve their intended objective (Newell & Meek, 1997). Public administration is a system that operates in a specific environment and it is influence by the environment.

3. Systems Defined

A system can be defined as a set of interrelated elements (sub-system) functioning as a whole (Wilson, 1984). The key features of systems thinking is focus on the whole system or organism rather than just the part (Nicholas & Steyn, 2012). It means being able to perceive the system in a situation, to take a seemingly confused, chaotic situation and perceive some degree of order or harmony in it. As such, it is a useful way of dealing with complex phenomena, especially human created systems (Nicholas & Steyn, 2012).

Individuals, depending on their environment will define system differently. For someone in the information technology industry a system means a computer, for the mechanic it means an engine or a car and for a government employee a system means bureaucracy. In terms of public administration, system is comprised of structure, subsystem, people, action and interaction that enable it to function in a certain way. System influences the sub-systems and the subsystem influence the system. The system approach to public administration rejects

the closed system approach or the Classical theory of organisation which states the independence or organisations from the environment and it is not connected to it. In the early 20th century, reductionism took a centre stage.

4. Systems Thinking vs Reductionism

The literature proves that reductionism became the dominant mode in the scientific thinking in the early 20th century. According to Bar-Yam (2000) reductionism is an approach to building descriptions of systems out of the descriptions of the subsystems that a system is composed of, and ignoring the relationships between them. Systems thinking view the world as systemic and emergence and interrelatedness are major properties of systems thinking. In the 1920s the research into the living things encountered challenges and as a result systems thinking became an alternative. An Australian biologist, Ludwig Von Bertalanffy proved that the notion of reductionism could not appreciate organisational dynamics (McDermott, and O'Connor 1997). Flood (2007) reasons that the existence of an organism cannot be merely understood in terms of the behaviour of some basic parts. It is in this instance where Von Bertalanffy came up with the open system theory.

When explaining the systems theory and presenting the public administration as an independent system, four basic concepts will be used: an open system, closed system, sub-system and entropy. According to Smit, Cronje, Brevis & Vrba (2014) a system is closed when it is self-supporting and can exist independently of a particular environment. The system is open if, it is dependent on the environment in which it operates, the environment is dependent on the system, and there is a specific interaction between the system the environment.

An open system theory uses functional and relational criteria to study the whole, rather that the reductionism principle to study the simple element (Jackson, 2000). The different parts of the public administration system exist together as a whole and they coexist in relation to the environment. Systems thinking can help avoid the silo effect, where a lack of organisational communication can cause a change in one area of a system to adversely affect another area of the system. An example of this is the President's removal of both the Minister and deputy Minister of Finance. This move affected other departments and the Country negatively.

As alluded to earlier that the theory of open system was developed by von Bertalanffy (1950). Open-system theory employs functional and relational criteria to study the whole, rather than principles of reductionism to study simple element. Public administration as a whole co-exists in relation to an environment. Open systems take inputs from their environments, transform them and then return them as some sort of product back to the environment (Jackson, 2003). In order for them to exist they depend on the environment and adapt to the environmental change. Synergy is another concept of system theory that can be applied to public administration. It means that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, or the individual subsystems are simultaneously applied in such a way that the results of their simultaneous application are greater than the sum of their individual effort (Smit *et al.*, 2014). One last concept of the system is called entropy which is the process of systems disintegration and is the opposite of synergy. When the system does not make the necessary adjustments to enable it to continue its existence in a particular environment, it is doomed to disintegrate and fail (Jackson, 2005). The South African Public Administration is influenced by many external factors and in order for it to survive it needs to make the necessary adjustment to cope with the changing environment.

If one follows a recipe of baking cakes in a step-by-step manner, then one is being systematic. The student of public administration in class take a systematic approach to their study and same with the mechanics' students - but at the end of their study they may have very little understanding of the organisation as a whole because the whole is different to the sum of the parts, i.e. the whole has emergent properties. Many people either implicitly or explicitly refer to things that are interconnected when they use the word 'system'. A common example is the use of 'transport system' or 'computer system' in everyday speech. As well as a set of interconnected 'things' (elements), a 'system' can also be seen as a way of thinking about the connections (relationships) between things – hence a process (Ison, 2008). In view of the above one can say that the machinery of government is a systems and it must be managed as such. It seems as if systems theory turned into something very strange and exciting than can bring together various specialists, being physicists, meteorologists and mathematicians among others. It is appropriate

to ask how public administration will benefit from these academic developments, called complex systems theory, to the human behaviour and human institution behaviour.

Various authors highlighted a considerable difference about the relationship between chaos and complexity. For most authors such as Chambel, (1993) chaos focus of attention with complexity as one of its characteristics (though they would acknowledge that a number of complex systems display chaos within narrow defined parameters). Public administration is best served by focusing its attention on complex systems and considering chaos as one probable characteristic.

5. The Machinery of Government in South Africa: A Complex System

The machinery of government in South Africa consists of all structural arrangements adopted by the national, provincial and local government to deliver their legally mandated service (Shafrit, Russel & Borick, 2009). The South African machinery of government is a very complex system. There are three levels (machinery) of government in South Africa. Section 40 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereafter the Constitution) states that the government of the Republic of South Africa is constituted as national, provincial and local sphere of government which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. These spheres of government must observe and adhere to the principles of cooperative government; ensure the wellbeing of the people of the Republic; provide effective, transparent, accountable and coherent government; and must not assume any power or function except those conferred on them in terms of the Constitution. The first level is the National Government.

5.1 The National Government

In terms of separation of powers principle, the cabinet and its public servants are charged with the responsibility of executing the decisions (laws) of parliament. There are 35 government departments, 35 ministers, 38 deputy ministers and 130 state owned enterprises in South Africa (South Africa Government, n.d.). It is always customary to define complexity according to the number of elements comprising a system and numbers of interacting elements; the more the number of elements the greater the complexity (Gell-Man, 1995). The

number of departments and parastatals indicates the complexity of the South African public administration within one sphere of government. The complexity is brought by various role players in the system. The role players and stakeholders include among others the public, the public service, the cabinet, government departments, and statutory commissions as well as the Constitution (Venter, 2011). There are numerous dynamic relationships between the role players. The importance of the relationships between role players can be seen in the nature and quality of service rendered. The complexity here is for government departments to understand their interrelationship and how their work impacts each other. By understanding systems theory, a Home Affairs employee will understand the implications of selling a birth certificate on the Departments of Social Development, Police Services, Defence, Treasury, and Education among others. The Home Affairs Department must understand how its decision on visas will impact the Department of Tourism. Having 35 government departments and 130 State Owned Enterprises to work together in delivering services to the people requires a thorough understanding of systems theory and complexity theory. The Constitution states that South Africa is a constitutional democracy. It protects the right of citizens; protect the democratic principles; and set out the systems of government. There are other machinery of government such as the legislative, the executive and the judiciary.

5.2 The Legislative Machinery

The Legislature occupies an important position in the machinery of government. The Legislature approves public policies, authorise laws and monitors the work of the departments and other organs of State (Mphaisha, 2014). The Legislative machinery is divided into two houses, the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces. The two houses differ in duties, powers and the methods used for the selection of members (Mphaisha, 2014). The two houses function autonomously and cooperatively within the Constitutional framework. They are invested with formal law-making powers and also act as national debating chambers, i.e. public forums in which government policies and the major issues of the day can be discussed and analysed (Heywood, 2007). This provides them with a significant capacity to shape and influence the public policy process.

5.3 The Executive Machinery

The Executive machinery is responsible to develop and implement State policies. The head of the Executive is the President - deputy President and Ministers, jointly form the Cabinet. The responsibility of Cabinet is to decide how to allocate funds between various State departments, and is accountable to Parliament for the implementation of the national budget approved by Parliament (Hicks, Daniel, Buccus & Venter, 2011). Ministers are political heads of their departments and they must provide political leadership. Cabinet is the link between the public interests of the country at large, the public service and parliament, where policy and administration are coordinated to improve the living condition of the people (Hicks, Daniel, Buccus & Venter, 2011). The Executive implement laws and the Judiciary interpret laws.

5.4 The Judicial Machinery

There will always be a dispute in the interpretation of the law and this is where the third branch of the *trias politica*, the Judiciary, commonly called the courts come into play. The Judiciary therefore resolve these disputes by determining what the law is and how it should be applied to disputes (Shetreet, 1988). The courts are responsible to determine which rule of law applied to dispute, interpret it and applied it to resolve a dispute. According to Shapiro, (1975) Judiciary is the official referee of society. Section 165(1) of the Constitution provides that the judicial authority of the Republic is vested in the courts.

5.5 The Provincial Government

The Constitution changed the political setting of South Africa by integrating the former homelands and created the nine provinces (Van der Waldt & du Toit, 2007). According to section C of the White Paper on Local Government (2000) provincial governments must play various roles such as:

- Developing a vision and framework for integrated social and economic development.
- Ensure that municipal planning and budgetary processes give priority to the basic needs.
- National and provincial government have the legislative and executive authority to see to the effective performance of municipalities (Section 155(7) of the Constitution).

- Promote the development of local government capacity (Section 155(7) of the Constitution).
- Monitoring the financial status of municipalities.
- Ensure that municipalities provide an acceptable standard of public service and good governance are maintained.
- Public administration as organisms.
- Public administration as brains.
- Public administration as cultures.
- Public administration as political systems.
- Public administration as psychic prisons.
- Public administration as flux and transformation.
- Public administration as instruments of domination.

The provincial government's role is very complex and requires a good working relationship with other spheres of government.

5.6 The Local Government

The Constitution divides municipalities in three categories. There are 278 municipalities in South Africa, comprising eight metropolitans, 44 district and 226 local municipalities (SALGA, n.d.). Local government is the only sphere of government closer to the people. Section 152 of the Constitution set out the object of local government as:

- Providing democratic and accountable government for local communities.
- Ensuring the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner.
- Promoting social and economic development.
- Promoting a safe and healthy environment.
- Encouraging the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.
- Achieving objectives within financial and administrative capacity.

6. Conceptualising Public Administration Through Metaphor

A number of definitions of public administration have emerged through the perceptions and interests of different authors. For the purpose of this paper, public administration and organisation will be used interchangeably. According to Morgan (1986), there are eight types of images of public administration, which are:

- Public administration as machines.

The foundation of public administration as machines' is found in Pepper's arguments on the metaphor of machines. The foundation of public administration as flux and transformation, public administration as organism and as brains are found in the organicism metaphor. In contrast, public administration as cultures, political systems, instrument of domination and psychic prisons resemble the metaphor of social system (Ackoff, 1994).

6.1 Public Administration as Machines: The Theory of Bureaucracy

This metaphor of the machine can be attributed to the German sociologist, Max Weber theory of bureaucracy. Max Weber was concerned about how organisations are structured to deal with a number of employees. Webber developed the theory of bureaucratic management that brought the need for a strict defined hierarchy, governed by clearly defined rules (Smit, Botha & Vrba, 2016). The ideal of bureaucracy is based on legal authority which stems from rules and other controls that govern an organisation. The delineation on bureaucracy indicates that standard operating procedure, impersonal relationship and hierarchical structure are the basic elements of bureaucratic organisation (Smit, Botha & Vrba, 2016). The decision making and policy making are centralised in a bureaucratic organisation. In this type of organisations the power is centralised and the real power is in the hands of the owner of the machine.

The mechanism theory is also revealed in the scientific management approach of F.W. Taylor. Taylor was interested in improving the productivity of workers and studied the work of individual workers to discover how they perform their work (Sheldrake,

1996). He analysed each aspect of each task and measure everything measurable.

The work of Frank Gilbreth on motion study is also imbedded in the mechanistic concept. Gilbreth studied the movement of bricklayers and found that many of their movements (bending, reaching, and stooping among others) could be eliminated or combined. He changed 18 steps process to five step process and increased productivity by 200 per cent (Sheldrake, 1996). The five steps manifest the imprint of mechanistic standardisation and reduction.

Since the industrial revolution, the mechanistic approach dominated organisation design. The mechanistic organisation functions very well in an invariant circumstance. However, it is clear that the environment in which public administration operates is becoming more and more complex and dynamic. This unstable environment makes the conventional theory vulnerable. This tendency entails the germinating of organic ideas.

6.2 Public Administration as Organism

Public administration as organism is conceived as an open system which utilises resources. The different parts of the system (e.g. spheres of government, government departments and state owned enterprises among others) are interrelated. Change in one part of the system may directly or indirectly influence the other part of the system. For example, failure for the Department of Defence to protect the borders will influence the Departments of Health, Home Affairs, Social Development and Treasury among others. Moreover, the system adapts to the changing environment.

6.3 The Social System Metaphor of Public Administration

The previous sections dealt with the two metaphorical conceptualisation of public administration – mechanistic and organic. Both metaphorical are concerned with the structural aspect of public administration. Public administration is constituted and controlled by people rather than organisms. Although human and other organisms possess similar structural characteristics, there is a difference between them. Human has perception, norms, values, and ethics, all which have a role to play in purposeful behaviour while organisms or animals have only self-awareness which is purposefulness (Tuan, 2002).

6.4 Public Administration as Political Systems

Public administration has its roots in Political Science. The literature revealed that Public Administration gradually developed from Political Science into a discipline in its own right (Cloete, 1988). Realising the contributions of political scientists, such as Woodrow Wilson, to Public Administration, the relationship between the two disciplines becomes very clear. Since there are close relations between these two fields of study, a knowledge of Political Science can only contribute positively towards a better understanding of Public Administration and the practice of public administration. Therefore, the literature agrees that public administration operates and function in a political environment. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:156) state that a clear distinction between "pure politics" and "pure administration" is nearly impossible. The interaction between political office bearers and appointed public officials has become intertwined.

Public administration cannot be separated from politics. Politics consists of a game which has many players and these players influence organisation through their interests, conceptions and perceptions. In South Africa one has seen the change in political landscape in 1994 and the changes it brought in the public administration arena. Another example is the Africa National Congress conference in Polokwane in 2007 which led to the recall of the former President Thabo Mbeki.

The mechanism and organicism focus on organisational structure. Mechanisms' emphasis is on hierarchical order while the organicism focus on interrelationship cybernetics. In the social system, the parts of the organisation (human) are regarded as purposeful system.

7. Complex Systems Theory in Public Administration

Systems theory has a role to play in public administration in South Africa. This is due to the fact that public administration in South Africa is already complex and public servants are charged with responsibility to interact with the complex environment. Therefore, public servants must find ways to be more responsive to this complex environment. The South African public administration will benefit by transforming more public institutions into more open systems with permeable boundaries. Public administration scholars have identified external and internal patterns

of government adaptation. The external relationship in South Africa is the contracting out of government services to the private sector. This contracting of government service has evolved to the extent where government administration and citizen interface have been significantly changed. Some literature discusses how public leaders can improve and embrace these forms of participation. Thomas (1995) argued that in order for public managers to engage in a strategic approach to the involvement of the public, as to shape forms of coproduction of services of government where citizen groups and citizens (network) start to behave as receivers of government services but have significant program responsibilities in government.

Public servants must form networks of shared power in order to solve complex problems across their department. The implication for the public servants is the development of skills in managing a shared environment, understanding other government departments and how they influence one another. The resulting feedback loop, taken as a whole, will push the agency towards the direction of a complex organisation. The public servants' role in the situation of this nature is to remove obstacles. Complexity in the external environment requires new forms of governmental adaptation.

Sabatier, (1999) recognises the complexity of public administration. In the literature, public administration like public policy is described as linear process with inputs, throughputs and outputs. What complexity theory suggests is that public administration is a system that coevolves with its social systemic environment and it engages in a nonlinear relationship with other systems. Frederickson (1996) identified a number of goals and practices for public administration that may be best understood achieved through the complex system theory application. Surely, empowered public servants can arrange for empowered citizens to make choice bureaucracies that are bankrupt becomes more open system. Mission driven rather than rule driven public administration is promoted by eliminating some of the equilibrium conditions on which rules are based. Systems of public private partnership are correctly controlled by ensuring that boundaries between public and private are more permeable.

8. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to discuss the use of the complex systems theory in public administration in

South Africa. The paper discussed the complexity theory and its application and relevance to public administration in South Africa. Public administration in South Africa is very diverse and has a spectrum of stakeholders. For the success of public administration, stakeholders must be managed accordingly and their interests must be satisfied. Some of these stakeholders are interrelated and this makes it difficult for the public servants to manage them. Complex systems theory can be utilised to manage these stakeholders in public administration. The systems approach might not be a panacea for all problems but surely it could generate awareness of the shortcomings and weaknesses of formal administrative structure. Systems approach is utilised as a disapproval towards the closed system model of Max Weber's Ideal bureaucratic theory.

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Strengthening Ethical Behaviour in Public Administration: The Case of Malawi's Public Service

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Abstract: Malawi's political transition from single party rule to multi-party dispensation in 1994 gave hope for effective public service delivery. However, the public service is marred by unethical practices with corruption as a major impediment to efficient and effective public service delivery. This paper which is based on documentary research examines the status of ethics in Malawi's Public service, the initiative undertaken to strengthen ethical behaviour and the obstacles facing the enhancement of public ethics. The paper contends that despite legal, and policy reforms, the institutional and individual weaknesses which include ineffective leadership, patronage, and shortage of resources undermine the enhancement of ethical behaviour in the public service. The paper concludes that effective leadership which places premium on enforcement of a code of conduct, public ethics education and capacity development for accountable, transparent and hospitable organisational environment are required to effectively strengthen ethics in Malawi's Public service. Any violation of the rules should be met by appropriate sanctions and punishment. In short, there is a need for pragmatic approaches to strengthen ethics in the broader context of enhancing good governance in the public service.

Keywords: Ethics, Professionalism, Public administration, Public service

1. Introduction

This paper examines the status of ethics in Malawi's Public service, the initiatives undertaken to strengthen ethical behaviour and the obstacles facing the enhancement of public ethics. To undertake an analysis on public ethics in Africa is like opening a Pandora box of trouble. This is due to the widespread of scandals and various forms of corruption associated with public servants. These include graft, illegal patronage, kickbacks, fraud and bribes which grabbed national, regional and international headlines (Kernaghan & Langford, 1990). Uneke (2010), observes that corruption has spread worldwide, and no country or region of the continent has been spared. In this regard, Ashhour (2004) points out that a consensus has developed the world over on the importance public sector reform in order to strengthen public ethics, prevent and combat corruption, protect public resources and enhance performance and public service delivery. Similarly, Pratchett (1999) argues that establishing the ground rules, values and ethical standards for public servants and ensuring conformity have become perennial themes in public administration. As observed by Kuye and Mafunisa (2003), there is growing demand for the provision of social services requires the possession of acceptable working standards by public servants. Thus, public ethics is recognised internationally by both the public officials and political

office bearers as a beneficial and prominent part of public administration. According to Aye (1998) the notion of public ethics is important in public administration because of the institutional failings which is attributed to weak public ethics. As observed by Ssanko (2010) the public service is entrusted with guarding public resources and executing decisions on behalf of the executive arm of government. Since it plays an indispensable role in governance of the nation it must have in place a system of measures to create an environment of enhancing public ethics.

In Malawi, the political transition from single party rule to multi-party dispensation in 1994 gave hope for enhancement of public ethics in the Public service. However, the public service is marred by unethical practices with corruption as a major impediment to efficient and effective public service delivery. For example, for the past six years, the massive plunder of public finances by high profile public officials and private business owners through fraudulent transactions in the first quarter of the 2013/14 financial year dubbed the 'Capital Hill Cash Gate Scandal' has been the reference point for unethical behaviour in Malawi Public service (Matonga, 2013; Gwede, 2016). The situation stimulates an examination of the status of public ethics, the strategies put in place to enhance public ethics and the challenges facing

the strengthening of ethical behaviour in Malawi's Public service. The paper is divided into the following parts, the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings, the context of ethics in the Malawi's public service, the qualitative methodological approach, the challenges facing the strengthening ethical behaviour in the public service and conclusion and recommendations for effective promotion of ethics and professionalism are presented in part six.

2. Theoretical and Conceptual Underpinnings

From the outset, it is important to clarify the concept of ethics which underpins this analysis since it is accorded different meanings and interpretations especially among social scientists.

2.1 Defining Ethics

As argued by Cooper (2012:1) the term ethics has various definitions, some more technical and precise than others. Similarly, Ayee (1998) points out that there is no universally agreed definition of the term ethics. For example, Article 22 of the Charter of Public Service in Africa defines ethics more comprehensively as 'the standards which guide behaviours and actions of personnel in public institutions and a sound culture based on values and principles such efficiency, professional discipline, dignity, equity, impartiality, fairness, public spiritedness, accountability, transparency, and courtesy in the discharge of the public duties'. According to Preston (1996:16) ethics refers to 'the collection of moral principles, norms, values and obligations that serve as conduct rules and what is right, fair, just or good; about what we ought to do not just about what is the case or what is most acceptable or expedient'. Chapman (1993) defines ethics as the basic principles of the right action and rules of conduct which can be in writing such as legislation, circulars, standing orders or merely an interpretation by an individual of what is acceptable and what is not. Cloete (1995:29) provides a comprehensive definition of ethics in public administration as 'the collection of moral principles, norms, values and obligations that serve as conduct rules to be observed by political office bearers and officials to ensure that their actions remain focuses on the promotion of the general welfare of the population; moral principles and norms are honest, accountability, openness, courtesy, responsiveness, respect for the law, excellence, efficiency and economy.'

Despite the differences in the definitions of ethics, in the context of the public service, ethics is essentially about principles, standards and rules of moral conduct for public servants outlined in official documents derived from legislation, official documents, public service regulations and a code of ethical conduct. The principles and values are derived from several sources but largely the Weberian Principles, democratic standards, human rights conventions and the administrative law (Lawton, Rayner & Lasthuizen, 2013). The values include honesty, accountability, openness, courtesy, responsiveness, and respect of rule of law, excellence, efficiency and economy, equality, neutrality, continuity, integrity, skillfulness in the exercise of one's duty. (Bauer, 2002; Yoder & Cooper, 2013:293).

2.2 Types of Ethics

The theory of ethics can be traced to Ancient Greeks through middle Ages to modern times. Broadly, ethics can be categorised into normative and descriptive ethics. Cooper (2012) argues that normative ethics is concerned with standards for the rightness and wrongness of acts; and 'attempts to construct viable and defensible arguments or particular courses of conduct as being better than others in specific situations. Descriptively, ethics is concerned with empirical investigation of people's moral beliefs. It attempts to reveal underlying assumptions and how they are connected to conduct. The major theories that have informed discussion of ethics of public administration include virtue ethics, consequentialism, deontological ethics and rights ethics (Lawton, Rayner & Lasthuizen, 2013:12). Virtues are character-based theories which focus on person or the agent rather than on the formal rules or object of moral evaluation. They are inclinations or dispositions to act or exhibit qualities of goodness, uprightness and morality. Example of virtues include benevolence, rationality, fair mindedness, prudence, respect of law, honesty, civility, self-discipline trustworthiness, courage, temperance, and justice.

According to Cooper (2012), deontological and teleological approaches represent the two major ethics theories. The deontological approach focuses on one's "duty" or "obligation" to certain ethical principles. A specific strand of deontological ethics is based on the work of the German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), who argued that truly ethical acts are not based on self-interested reasons or the greatest utility, but on a sense of duty and

a sense of what is right and fair on a wider level (Lawton, Rayner & Lasthuizen, 2013). 'The perspective is that the right action to pursue is independent of the consequences of that action. On the contrary, teleological ethics also called consequentialist theories focus on the ends or consequences of one's conduct. The theories hold that the consequences of a particular action form the basis of any valid moral judgment about that action. Utilitarianism is a specific strand of consequential theory where the action is said to be morally justifiable if it leads to the greater happiness of the greatest numbers (Lawton, Rayner & Lasthuizen, 2013:18). This paper assumes that conduct and decision-making by public servants incorporate virtues, deontological and teleological orientations.

It is important to note that a detailed analysis of the sources, causes and consequences of unethical behaviour in the public service is beyond the scope this paper. Suffice to state that there is lack of consensus on the factors that cause unethical behaviour including corruption due to the differences in the contexts in which they occur. However, Syed-Hussein (1990) categorises the factors which trigger unethical behaviour among public officials into individual and institutional factors. The individual factors relate to individual personalities, greed and motivations to behave and act unethically or abuse the government and institutional factors which relate to the organisational bottlenecks in the administration systems, such as extensive patronage networks, unclear and contradictory laws and regulations; inconsistency and laxity by senior leadership to enforce laws and regulations. As argued by Kernaghan and Langford (1990), the task of promoting ethical principles and values is complex and challenging because there is no single strategy capable of eliminating unethical behaviour in the public service. The general approach adopted by countries include formulation of a legal and policy and framework which includes laws, policies and rules/regulation and adoption of the code of conduct; and institutional and administrative reforms to provide hospitable organizational environment.

3. The Context of Ethics in the Malawi's Public Service

Although there is lack of consensus on status public ethics during the single party, most scholars argue that Public servants were highly ethical and competent until the 1980s. For example, Phiri and Ross

(1998) attributed compliance to ethical codes by Public servants during the 1964-1993 Banda regime to strong political and bureaucratic leadership and a hospitable organisational environment. The leadership strictly and consistently enforced the Malawi Public Service Regulations (MPSR) which was referred to as 'the Bible' of a public servants included a chapter 'acts of misconduct', and the Treasury Instructions and Instruction for Stores which outlined the do's and do not's in finance. It dealt with any deviations severely. Similarly, Poeschke and Chirwa (1998:8-11) observe that a favourable environment for commitment to public ethics albeit under Banda's authoritarian regime by the clear regulations, intensive induction and training of new entrants into the Public Service, and a reward system that provided emoluments and benefits including transport, housing allowance created. However, Ambert (1997:48) argues the Public service was characterised by unethical behavior including abuses of the system, falsified payrolls, misappropriation of funds and ghost-workers from 1964 to 1993.

The political transition from single party rule to multi-party dispensation in 1994 gave hope to the strengthening of ethical behaviour public service. However, the UNDP (2014) shows a sordid picture of unethical behaviour in the Public service which includes poor work ethics, absenteeism, late reporting for work, bribery, fraud, embezzlement, unfair dismissal of staff, favouritism in recruitment, issuing of procurement and offering of contracts and tenders, lack of transparency in conducting business; avoidance of fees and taxes, falsification of documents and demanding gifts for rendering services. As observed by the National Audit Office Report (2014:viii), the Capital Hill Cash Gate Scandal exposed 'the moral decay in the integrity and moral standards of the public service' amidst initiatives to strengthen ethical behaviour. Similarly, the 2016 Public sector Capacity programme report (PSMRCDPD) notes that 'camaraderie, buddy-buddy relationships' and 'leadership and management paralysis' characterise the Public service. This is attributed unethical supervisors who tolerate omissions of Junior Staff including violation of set rules and procedures relating to performance and time management. The prevalence of unethical behavior is taking place amidst efforts such as establishment of legal, policy and institutional mechanisms to strengthen ethics in public administration (Dzimhiri, 2009). Thus, the increase in the incidents of unethical practices, high profile

cases of bribery, fraud, embezzlement of public resources raises many questions including the challenges facing the strengthening ethical behaviour in Malawi's public service.

4. Methods and Materials

The research methodology which was adopted for this study was qualitative. The existing literature on public service ethics initiatives was systematically reviewed and synthesised. This involved a review of journal papers, conference papers, books, official reports and internet sources. A systematic review of literature attempts to collate all empirical evidence to answer a specific research question. It uses explicit, systematic methods that are selected with a view to minimise bias and thus, providing more reliable findings from which conclusion can be drawn and decisions made (Cochrane, 2003). According to Mulrow (1994) a systematic review of literature is appropriate in identifying, appraising and synthesising research based evidence and presenting it in accessible format. This methodology was the most appropriate since the research area required a review of various approaches to enhancing ethics in a broad range of countries.

5. Results and Discussions

The study established that in the multi-party dispensation, Malawi adopted the establishment of a legal and policy and institutional framework as well as administrative mechanisms and reforms as part of the efforts to strengthen ethical behavior in the public service. These efforts are discussed below.

5.1 Legal and Regulatory Framework

The formulation of a legal and policy framework which includes laws, policies and rules/regulation and the code of conduct is the major approach adopted to strengthen ethical behaviour in Malawi's public service. According to the 2013 Malawi National Integrity System Assessment Report (MNIAR) several legal instruments and policy documents contain portions of government's fundamental ethical principles and values. These include the new Republic of Malawi Constitution; Acts of Parliament; the Malawi Public Service Regulation (MPSR); the Code of Conduct and Ethics for the Malawi Public Service and the Malawi Public Service Charters. For example, Section 12(iii) of the Constitution requires the authority to maintain public trust through 'open,

accountable and transparent government'. Section 13(o) of the Constitution requires the state to establish measures to guarantee accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity to strengthen public trust and good governance.

Similarly, Section 3-14 of the Public Service Act of 1994 enjoins efficiency, effectiveness, impartiality, independence, integrity; and advancement within the public service solely on the basis of merit. Section 3-14 ; the Corrupt Practices Act No. 18 of 1995 which criminalises various corrupt practices, including attempted corruption, extortion, active and passive bribery, bribing a foreign official, and abuse of office (Section 90 of the Malawi's Penal Code also criminalises active and passive bribery). Other relevant Act with portions of ethical principles and values are the Public Service Act No. 19 of 1994, Ombudsman Act No. 10 of 1996, Public Procurement Act No. 8 of 2003, Public Audit Act No. 6 of 2003, Public Finance and Management Act No. 7 of 2003, Money Laundering, Proceeds of Serious Crime and Terrorist Financing Act No. VII of 2010, and Declaration of Assets, Liabilities and Business Interests Act No. 21 of 2013.

The Code of Conduct and Ethics for the Malawi Public Service which was launched in 2003 is the centerpiece which comprehensively highlights the ethical principles and values derived from the Constitution and other existing legislation and regulations. The core values include accountability; excellence; honesty; impartiality; integrity; selflessness and transparency, courtesy, fairness, equity, efficiency and effectiveness. As argued by Bauer (2002:180) the legal and policy framework fulfil a primary function in the fight against unethical behaviour on the part of public officials and they are ideal measures used control and minimise indiscretion and corruptive behaviour. The importance of political and management leadership in the implementation and enforcement laws, rules and regulations including the code of conduct and ethics has been highlighted (Hope, 1996). However, as noted by MNIAR (2013:27), unethical behaviour persist in Malawi's public service despite the existence of the legal and policy framework due to weak enforcement by the political and bureaucratic leadership. Kainja (2016:3), most senior public officials are political appointees and their deployment is influenced by 'political connections and networks based on political affiliation, gender and ethnicity, religion and family ties rather than merit'. Thus, the public bureaucracy environment is not sufficiently

conducive to the enhancement of ethical behaviour due to neopatrimonialism and politicisation of the Public service.

5.2 Institutional Framework

The institutional and administrative mechanisms are the major mechanisms for promoting ethical behavior. The study established the efforts to strengthen public ethics have included the introduction of watchdog bodies including constitutional bodies, the media and education and training institutions. These are critically discussed in the section below.

5.2.1 Watchdog Bodies

The watchdog bodies established to strengthen ethics in Malawi's public service are many and include Constitutional bodies, Public society organisations, non-government organisations, and the media. However, this analysis focuses on the major institutions. These include the Anti-corruption Bureau (ACB) which was established by the Corrupt Practices Act, of 1995 to prevent, investigate and prosecute corrupt practices; the Office of Ombudsman established by Section 120-128 of the Constitution to investigate any suspected practice of maladministration and make the findings known to the public. The National Audit Office (NAO) was established by Section 184 of the Constitution and in line with section 4 of the Public Audit Act to carry out surprise audits, and investigate into any matter, including the performance, efficiency and effectiveness of internal control and management measures as well as expenditure and revenue at the various levels of government. The Judiciary has the authority in the courts and therefore they adjudicate on the cases of corruption according to Sections 9, and 184 of the Constitution while the media acts as critical watchdog in exposing and publicising acts of corruption and scandals, mismanagement and corruption in government. In short, Malawi has a strong legal and institutional framework for the promotion of ethical behavior in the public service.

However, the key institutions are predominantly controlled by politicians who ultimately wield enormous influence. The enormous presidential powers which include appointment and dismissal of the chief executives of the institutions erode their independence (Matonga, 2016). The ACB is constrained by political influence to effectively deal with high level corruption cases as it lacks full independence with the President

as the appointing authority. The Act also gives too much power to the Director of Public Prosecution (DPP), without whose consent corruption cases cannot be taken to court. Several cases have been dropped after the ACB had completed investigations while others await DPP's consent which was never given. Most institutions are characterised by inadequate human, technical and financial resources. For instance, inadequate financial resources in institutions such as the ACB, the National Audit Office and the media translate into weak human resource capacity, high staff turnover and lack of career development opportunities for staff (Katundu, 2014). Similarly, the Ombudsman does not possess adequate capacity to fulfill its mandate due declining funding over the years barely adequate not only for the operations but also for public officers' remuneration (UNDP, 2016:16).

5.2.2 Education and Training Institutions

Education and training are critical for behaviour modification and instilling values of ethical behaviour. Malawi recognises the role of education and training institutions in the promotion of ethical behavior in the public service. There are several institutions both public and private which offer programmes relating to elements of public ethics. However, the major public institutions are the Staff Development Institute (SDI), the Malawi Institute of Management (MIM), and the University of Malawi's Department of Political and Administrative Studies (PAS). The Staff Development Institute (SDI) provides induction courses to public servants on basic theory and practice of public administration, ethical behavior among others. However, as observed in then PSMRCDPD (2016), training institutions in Malawi make limited contribution since the mandatory induction courses for Public servants have been neglected by government of Malawi for over 15 years. The situation has led low levels of skills, knowledge and awareness of the existing ethical standards. Furthermore, due to financial and human resources constraints training and development institutions do not effectively coordinate and prepare Public servants in public ethics.

5.3 Administrative Measures and Reforms

The study established that the major administrative measures and reforms adopted to strengthen ethics in Malawi's public service include nurturing supportive political leadership and management in the enforcement and sanctions, and introduction of

performance rated contracts and reward system. These are critically analysed in the section below.

5.3.1 Performance Rated Contracts

The performance rated contracts system involves senior public officials signing contracts with an attractive remuneration package. The three components of the performance contract are the 'model of performance' - an agreement between the controlling officers with the president which forms the basis of performance assessment; the 'performance matrix' - an outline expected performance results and areas for assessment which include corruption eradication and service delivery; and the 'client service charter' - a stipulation of minimum standards of performance expected from the institutions. The contracts are evaluated periodically and renewed based on successful performance. The expectation is that by entering into a written contract with clearly stipulated performance requirements, the public officials will be committed to ethical and professional conduct to achieve improved performance. However, according to Katundu (2014), the intrusion of politics into the performance rate contract system has led to perception that the system is used for punishing public officers who are not sympathetic to the ruling political party agenda. The absence of specific elements of adherence to the code of ethics in the contract renders the system ineffective in strengthening ethical behaviour.

5.3.2 Reward System

According to Agere (1992:52), there is a correlation between adequate remuneration and retention of personnel and on reduction of the incidence of unethical practices particularly corruption and seeking extra sources of complementary income. He also argues that adequate remuneration of public employees contributes significantly to motivation, the raising of morale and improved performance. The aphorism is that it is hard for an empty sack to stand upright. As observed by Hope (1996) African public officials are among those experiencing effects associated with retrogressive economic policies. In Malawi, the real value of salaries and real living standards has fallen. According to Sabola (2019), the Malawi government has been unable to give realistic remuneration package to civil servants and salary gaps between the lowest grade and upper grade has been widening. The implication is that poor reward system provide fertile ground for public officers to obtain extra income to supplement their earnings through extra jobs.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion, despite the existence of robust legal, policy and institutional frameworks, unethical behaviour persists in the public service. This is attributed to several factors including institutional and individual weaknesses which include ineffective leadership, patronage, and shortage of resources. Thus, to strengthen ethical behaviour there must be a moral will and commitment among public officials and watchdog bodies. There is a need for pragmatic approaches to strengthen ethics in the broader context of enhancing good governance in the public service. The code of ethics and conduct must be strictly enforced and any violation should be met by appropriate sanctions and punishment. There is need for regular appraisals, monitoring and evaluation of public resource use and institutionalisation of compulsory ethics training. The reward system should be based on merit to limit patronage and manipulation and to prevent Public servant supplement their salaries through unethical means. In short, effective leadership which places premium on enforcement of the legal and policy framework, public ethics education and a hospitable organisational environment with the right ethical climate should be nurtured to effectively strengthen ethics in Malawi's Public service.

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Entrepreneurial Action as an Antecedent to New Venture Creation Among Business Students in South Africa

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Abstract: The objectives of this study were (1) to assess the level of entrepreneurial action (EA) among business students, (2) to determine the obstacles towards entrepreneurial action among the business students (3) to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial action and new venture creation. The study utilized a quantitative research design. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data in a survey. Ninety university business students were conveniently sought to participate in the study. The Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure reliability. Data analysis included descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The results showed that the level of new venture creation among the participants was unsatisfactorily low which explains that their entrepreneurial action is also low. Factors such as lack of capital, lack of mentorship and incubation facilities from the university, fear of failure, lack of experience and lack of self-confidence were identified as key obstacles hindering the entrepreneurial action of the students. The regression analysis established a significant and positive relationship between entrepreneurial action and new venture creation. Recommendations were made for the students to take bold steps and launch their businesses and attain their entrepreneurial aspirations. The ministry of small business development was recommended to offer entrepreneurship bursaries to young entrepreneurs who have brilliant business ideas that can easily be commercialised.

Keywords: Business students, Entrepreneurial action, New venture, Youth

1. Introduction

Unemployment remains one of the worst challenges South Africa is facing (Businesstech, 2015). Unemployment in South Africa is currently at 27.3% as reported by Statistics South Africa (2016). Employing both narrow and broad definitions, South African's unemployment rate among youths rose significantly over the past six years and was regarded as one of the worst in the world at 57.4% (Statistics South Africa, 2018). On that note, Lings (2015) is of the view that youth unemployment in South Africa requires immediate attention lest it becomes an uncontrollable crisis. The high unemployment weakens youth's potential to contribute effectively to national development (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The inability of the labour market to absorb the soaring youth unemployment in South Africa causes unrest among individuals, communities and societies (Statistics South Africa, 2015). Consequently, youths have lost their dignity since most of them are marginalised and poverty stricken (Mahadea *et al.*, 2011). Finding a panacea to this phenomenon has been a primary objective in post-apartheid South Africa.

Entrepreneurship can be a sustainable panacea to youth unemployment in South Africa. Entrepreneurship has been identified as an engine for

economic growth and development (Meyer & De Jongh, 2018). In most countries, policy makers have already begun incorporating entrepreneurship in their policies. Entrepreneurship is credited for its employment generation capacity globally (Koveos, 2016). A study by Fritsch and Wyrwich (2017) concur and remark that entrepreneurship results in employment growth. This basis is supported by Okumu, Bbaale, Guloba (2019) who argue that innovation is associated with employment creation. According to Fatoki (2014), the creation and sustainability of new businesses are vital to the economic prosperity of South Africa. Fatoki (2014) further remarks that the creation of new businesses creates vast long-term benefits to the communities concerned.

Despite the momentous benefits that can be brought by entrepreneurship, South Africa lags in new venture development compared to other developing countries (Manyaka, 2015). Turton and Herrington (2013) concur by ranking South Africa as one of the lowest in the world when considering Total Early-Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA). A significant number of youths in South Africa have brilliant ideas that have potential to become profitable and sustainable businesses. However, entrepreneurial inertia seems to be the notorious factor holding the youth back. Jones (2016) argues that entrepreneurial

intention alone is not enough for one to create their own business. Hence, the authors of this article believe that, to achieve the desired level of new businesses in South Africa, youths need to move from just entrepreneurial intention (desire to become an entrepreneur) to real entrepreneurial action (EA) where one takes bold steps to create their own new businesses. Despite the conundrum identified above, there is a paucity of studies about entrepreneurship action in South Africa. A plethora of studies have investigated entrepreneurial intentions among university students instead (Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Fatoki, 2014; Malebana, 2014). According to Corbett and Katz (2012), this hinders progress in terms of theory development in the entrepreneurship field. If new ventures are to be created, there is need for studies that depart from investigating entrepreneurial intentions towards focusing more on entrepreneurial action. This line of thought is supported by McMullen (2015) who asserts that without taking bold entrepreneurial action, one cannot be an entrepreneur. There is need for more studies on entrepreneurial action in developing countries so as to increase Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) (Frese, 2009). It is against this backdrop that this study is conducted. This study aimed to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial action and new venture creation. Additionally, it endeavored to assess the level of entrepreneurial action as well as obstacles faced by business students. This study's findings will contribute immensely to the existing debate about finding sustainable strategies to boost entrepreneurship and cut unemployment in South Africa. The study is organized in the following manner: the first section will outline the objectives and hypothesized relationships, literature review, methodology then presentation and discussion of results, conclusion and recommendations.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Framework

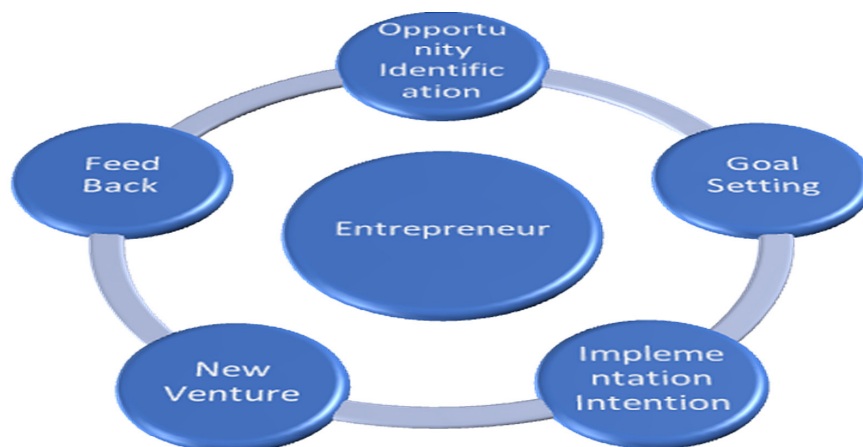
This paper is grounded on the theory of economic growth and development propounded by Schumpeter (1934). Schumpeter (1934) advocates the need for new venture creation through the genesis of new entrepreneurially driven firms. According to Schumpeter (1934), the innovative ability of entrepreneurially driven firms creates a catalytic mechanism which breaks the equilibrium principle in the labour market, hence, creating more employment. Schumpeter believes

that entrepreneurs are engines for innovation and drivers of economic growth and development. Schumpeter (1934) links entrepreneurial activities to economic growth. However, Schumpeter (1934) argues that entrepreneurs must overcome risks associated with technological and economic failure to realise profits in their entrepreneurial endeavours. On Schumpeter's (1934) view, entrepreneurs are responsible for creating new combinations in the production process, come up with new products and actively strive to source new markets for their products. As a result, entrepreneurs are rewarded with profits which results in the improvement on their social class. However, Schumpeter (1934), remark that the entrepreneurship career requires one to take bold actions, be courageous, determined, risk taking and goal oriented. Entrepreneurs need to be opportunity oriented to take advantage of windows of opportunities in the business environment (Oyelola, Ajiboshin, Raimi, Raheem & Igwe, 2013). However more importantly is a positive entrepreneurial mindset and taking action (Jones, 2016; Emami, 2018). The theory of economic growth and development discussed above sets a platform to understand the gains brought about by pursuing an entrepreneurship career to youth and the economy at large. On that note the authors of this paper believe that an entrepreneurship career improves both the economic and social inclusion of South African youth through self-employment.

2.2 Entrepreneurial Action

Frese (2009) defines action as achievement oriented behaviour. Entrepreneurial action is defined as a process of engaging into activities that leads one to create their own business (Piispanen & Paloniemi, 2015). Another study by McMullen (2015) defines entrepreneurial action as a series of events such as starting your own business, investing in high risk/high investment and involved in marketing products among other things. Without entrepreneurial action, the desire to have new businesses is quashed (Jones, 2016). A study by Frese and Fay (2001) define an action oriented person as someone who is, self-starting, proactive and resilient. Frese (2011) explains that new venture creation is an epitome of entrepreneurial action. Other studies such as Frese and Fay (2001) argue that new venture creation is driven by self-initiatives by entrepreneurs, which is one of the characteristic which sets them apart from the rest of the people. "Action can determine the essential attributes of

Figure 1: Sequence of Actions Taken by an Entrepreneur to Finally Launch a New Business



Source: Authors

desirability, feasibility, and viability of an opportunity long before the establishment of the pertinent venture" (Emami, 2018:2).

Entrepreneurial action also suffices to mean that an entrepreneur has to take a series of steps before launching a venture to critically evaluate the opportunity and the probability of making profits if one is to establish the new business. Frese (2009) used Action Theory to explain that entrepreneurial action is a sequence of steps one takes to finally launch their business. The sequence of steps includes: opportunity identification, goal setting, implementation, new venture and feedback. Each is discussed in detail below.

2.2.1 Sequence of Entrepreneurial Action

Figure 1 above shows the sequence of actions taken by an entrepreneur to finally launch a new business. As alluded to by Frese (2009), action is the key factor in new venture creation. The sequence of actions starts the very first time when an entrepreneur develops an idea. When convinced by the idea, the entrepreneur takes some actions to convert the idea into an opportunity which they can tape and be profitable. Emami (2018) buttresses this point and remarks that the major crucial part of being a successful entrepreneur is being able to identify opportunities and then take a series of actions to exploit that opportunity before a window of opportunity closes. On that account, an entrepreneur should embrace that an opportunity is personal, hence, if they perceive that the idea can be converted into a sustainable business, then it is worth pursuing (Emami, 2018). The same study

recommends entrepreneurs to use tools such as the Business Model Canvas (BMC) to help them present their idea and command a unique value proposition in the market. However, an opportunity need to be critically evaluated putting into consideration the resources available to exploit it.

When the opportunity evaluation is complete, the entrepreneur then sets some goals for their intended business. Frese (2009) argues that for effective action to take place, an entrepreneur should have a specific goal they aim to achieve at the end. This should be self-made and allows the entrepreneur to start something of their own. Accordingly, self-starting behaviour enables an entrepreneur to enjoy first mover advantage before competitors flood the market (Frese & Fay, 2001).

Implementation intention kicks in when the entrepreneur has a strong convention of what exactly they wish to achieve (Frese, 2009). It is within this context that the entrepreneur initiates a series of actions such as testing the prototype in the market to get customer's reactions about the product/service, pitching the idea to investors to attract funding, presenting the business plan to banks. The new venture stage is a point where the entrepreneur launches their idea. Until this point it shows that the entrepreneur is resilient enough to confront challenges and hold on to their idea. Frese (2009) asserts that at the point of launching one's venture, an entrepreneur has to continuously take actions such as dealing with customer demand, dealing with new challenges that arise and positioning the venture as the best in the market.

The above step leads feedback stage. At this point the entrepreneur ought to be an active listener. The entrepreneur should also brace for negative feedback. This is crucial as it helps the entrepreneur to continuously improve the product/service to enhance its acceptability and longevity in the market.

2.3 Relationship between Entrepreneurship Action and New Venture Creation

Entrepreneurship literature exhibits that new venture creation is a product of action. All established businesses are a practical example that action is required to have a complete entrepreneurial process. Countries such as America, China and blocks such as the European Union all have successful new businesses every year because entrepreneurial action is high. This is supported by existing empirical literature. Entrepreneurial action is directly linked to new venture creation (Piispanen & Paloniemi, 2015). Similarly, Emami (2018) argues that entrepreneurial action is better inclined towards new venture creation than just having an idle strong idea or opportunity per se. Frese (2009) is of the view that action is a key determinant for new venture creation. Entrepreneurial action directly affects new venture creation (Rasmussen, 2005). The authors of this paper are of the view that, without entrepreneurial action, the desire to have more jobs from new business becomes but wishful thinking. Based on the above discussion of empirical literature, the following hypothesis is stated.

H₁: There is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial action and new venture creation.

3. Method and Materials

This study adopted a quantitative research design. The study area was University of Limpopo. The sample consisted of ninety business students in their 2nd and 3rd year of study. The convenience sampling technique was used to gather the respondents. The convenience sampling technique was used because the participants were readily available and willing to participate in the survey. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire consisted of closed ended questions in form of a 5-point Likert scale. The Likert scale questions ranged from 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree and 5. Strongly agree.

The questionnaire was divided into 3 sections. These included: section A which contained the biographical information of the respondents, section B which contained questions about entrepreneurial action, section C consisted of questions related to new venture creation and section D consisted of questions related to challenges faced by the university business students in converting their business ideas into new ventures. The Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure reliability. Data analysis included descriptive statistics and regression analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Demographic Information of Respondents

Gender and level of education were the only demographic characteristics considered in the study. Considering the gender of respondents, 51(57%) of the respondents were males while 39(43%) were females. In terms of level of education, 56(62%) were 3rd years while 34(38%) were 2nd years.

4.2 Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis was crucial to determine the consistency of the data collection tool used in this study. Reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 and above is recommended in existing literature (Taber, 2018). A Cronbach's alpha of 0.78 was established in this study showing that the data collection instrument was reliable.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Entrepreneurial Action and New Venture Creation

Table 1 on the next page shows the descriptive statistics for entrepreneurial action and new venture creation. Entrepreneurial action was measured using questions 1-9 while questions 10-15 measured new venture creation. Likert scale questions ranging from 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree and 5. Strongly agree were used. As indicated by the scores, there is low entrepreneurial action among university business students who participated in the study. The results show that the students' responses revolved around disagree and neutral as indicated by means ranging between (mean, 2.34, SD, 0.74, 2. I have researched more about my idea to determine its feasibility) being the lowest to (mean, 3.26, SD, 0.98, 15. I have partnered with my friends to start a business) being the highest.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Entrepreneurial Action and New Venture Creation

Statement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I have taken a series of actions towards establishing my own business.	90	2.60	1.12
2. I have researched more about my idea to determine its feasibility.	90	2.34	0.74
3. I have conducted environmental scanning to determine possible opportunities and threats I might likely encounter in the business environment.	90	2.57	0.95
4. I Have taken bold steps to quantify the business opportunity that exist for my business to exploit at a profit.	90	2.57	0.79
5. I have attended workshops to polish my idea.	90	2.56	1.02
6. I have already designed a business plan for my business to guide me execute my idea.	90	2.39	1.00
7. I have entered the business plan competition as an action to get funding and feedback for my business.	90	2.61	1.05
8. I have presented my business offering to my potential clients to obtain feedback about my products/services.	90	2.57	0.95
9. I have pitched my idea to investors to source out funding for my business.	90	2.62	1.10
10. I have registered my business with the Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC).	90	2.98	0.81
11. I have recently launched my own business.	90	2.70	1.02
12. I have recently invested my money in high risk/high return initiatives e.g forex trading.	90	3.02	0.87
13. I have recently joined network marketing as another creative way to raise money for my business.	90	2.83	0.92
14. My business is in its second year of operating.	90	2.94	0.90
15. I have partnered with my friends to start a business.	90	3.26	0.98

Source: Authors

Our findings are consistent with similar findings which report that entrepreneurial activity is relatively slow in South Africa (Turton & Herrington, 2013; Manyaka, 2015). This has widened unemployment among the youth in South Africa (Lings, 2015). Even though entrepreneurial intention has recently improved in South Africa, entrepreneurial inertia seems to be the notorious factor holding the youth back. Alas, entrepreneurial intention alone is not enough for one to create their own business (Jones, 2016), but entrepreneurial action is (Frese, 2009; McMullen, 2015; Emami, 2018). Hence, the authors of this article believe that, to achieve the desired level of new businesses in South Africa, youths need to move from just entrepreneurial intention (desire to become an entrepreneur) to real entrepreneurial action (EA) where one takes bold steps to create their own new businesses.

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics for Challenges Faced by Young Entrepreneurs

Table 2 on the following page presents descriptive statistics for challenges faced by young entrepreneurs on the surveyed sample at a South African university. In tracking the entrepreneurial action and new venture creation among university business students, it was crucial to investigate some of the factors which inhibit them from taking bold steps towards creating their own businesses. As indicated by the findings on Table 2, young entrepreneurs surveyed face challenges such as lack of confidence (mean, 3.53, SD, 1.10), lack of in depth knowledge (mean, 3.60, SD, 0.85), lack of practical entrepreneurial experience (mean, 4.11, SD, 0.92), fear of failure (mean, 3.73, SD, 1.07), perceived risk (mean, 4.05, SD, 1.10), lack of finance (mean, 4.52, SD, 0.88) and lack of mentorship (mean, 3.24, SD, 0.83). Lack of finance (mean, 4.52, SD, 0.88) was identified as the major challenge

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Challenges Faced by Young Entrepreneurs

Statement	N	Mean	Standard deviation
1. I regard lack of confidence as a factor stopping me from launching my own business.	90	3.53	1.10
2. I lack in depth knowledge on how to launch a business.	90	3.60	0.85
3. I perceive lack of practical experience as another hindering factor towards starting my own business.	90	4.11	0.92
4. I am hesitant to start my own business because I fear failing.	90	3.73	1.07
5. I believe entrepreneurship is too risky for me.	90	4.05	1.10
6. Lack of finance is a serious challenge holding me back from finally starting my own business.	90	4.52	0.88
7. Lack of mentorship is another factor holding me back from launching my own venture.	90	3.24	0.83

Source: Authors

Table 3: Regression Analysis

Independent variables	Beta	T	Sig
Entrepreneurial action	0.235	45.63	0.01
Sig. > 0.05			

Source: Data Analysis. Dependent variable, new venture creation.

followed by lack of practical entrepreneurial experience (mean, 4.11, SD, 0.92). This is consistent with existing literature which identify lack of fiancé as the major barrier towards new venture creation in South Africa and Africa in general (Gwija, Chuks & Iwu, 2014; Katrodia & Sibanda, 2018; Startup Magazine, 2019).

4.4 Regression Analysis

4.4.1 Relationship between Entrepreneurship Action and New Venture Creation

Table 3 presents regression results on the relationship between entrepreneurship action and new venture creation. The results support the alternative hypothesis (H_1) that there is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurship action and new venture creation. In this case, the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected. The findings are supported by existing literature. For instance, Emami (2018) argues that entrepreneurial action is better inclined towards new venture creation than just having an idle strong idea or opportunity per se. Entrepreneurial action is a key determinant for new venture creation (Rasmussen, 2005; Frese, 2009).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Entrepreneurs are engines for innovation and drivers of economic growth and development. New ventures

are a product of entrepreneurial action. This study was driven by three major objectives. Firstly, it was crucial to assess the level of entrepreneurial action and new venture creation among the university business students. Additionally, the study also aimed to establish the challenges faced by young entrepreneurs in establishing their own businesses. Lastly, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial action and new venture creation among university business students. The results showed that the surveyed university students exhibit unsatisfactorily low levels of entrepreneurial action and they haven't done much in creating their own businesses. We established factors such as as lack of confidence, lack of in-depth knowledge, lack of practical entrepreneurial experience, fear of failure, perceived risk, lack of finance and lack of mentorship as the major challenges inhibiting young entrepreneurs to start their own businesses. Lack of finance was identified as the most outstanding challenge faced by young entrepreneurs in starting their own businesses. Considering the regression analysis, a positive relationship was established between entrepreneurship action and new venture creation. Thus, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) which states that there is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurship action and new venture creation was accepted. The study therefore recommend as follows:

- The students to take bold steps and launch their businesses and attain their entrepreneurial aspirations.
- Universities are to play an active role towards grooming young entrepreneurs in South Africa. Some of the sustainable interventions include, partnering with companies to voluntarily train and mentor students with business aspirations and building an innovation hub where entrepreneurial ideas and prototypes are tested, developed and commercialized.
- Furthermore, the university should expose the business students to real practical world of entrepreneurship where they encourage them to launch their businesses to test the market whilst still studying. These can be projects which can be considered as part of the qualifying criteria to right the final entrepreneurship exams.
- The ministry of small business development is recommended to offer entrepreneurship bursaries to young entrepreneurs who have brilliant business ideas that can easily be commercialized. This can go a long way in removing access to finance as the major challenge blocking young entrepreneurs to launch their new businesses.

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Critical Analysis of Principle One and Two of King IV Report on Corporate Governance: Leadership and Ethics

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Abstract: Principle one and two of King IV Report on Corporate Governance which came into effect on the 1 April 2017 indicates that governing body should lead ethically and effectively, while principle two demonstrates that the governing board should guide the ethics of organisations in a way that supports the establishment of ethical culture. According to King IV report, principle one indicates that it is the responsibility of the governing body to cultivate collectively or individually, the six ethical characteristics, which are: Integrity; Competence; Responsibility; Accountability; Fairness; and Transparency. The six characteristics should also assist the governing body in setting the tone at the top to lead the organisation ethically and effectively, and the governing body should also be held accountable for them. Principle two indicates that the governing board should govern the ethics of the organisation in a way that support the establishment of the ethical culture in the organisation. Research methodology adopted for this study is qualitative. The existing literature and practices of organisations were systematically reviewed and synthesised. The process involved the review of journal papers, books, Commissions reports, and internet sources. The systematic review of the literature was an attempt to answer the research question aimed at drawing a more reliable finding from which conclusion could be drawn. The governing body should, therefore, take the responsibility of ensuring that there is the governance of ethics in the organisation. This is a conceptual paper, and critically analyses assess and discuss the envisaged ethics as per King IV report on corporate governance. Ethical leadership in the organisation remain an evasive commodity; hence, the many failures experienced in the different organisations.

Keywords: Accountability, Ethical culture, Ethics, Governance, Governing body, Integrity

1. Introduction

The concept of good corporate governance is principally about effective, ethical leadership (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:60; Naidoo, 2012:25). With the release of the King IV report on November 2016, it has raised South African status to one of the world leaders on issues of corporate governance (Ernst & Young, 2016). According to King IV, when compared to the previous King reports, particularly King IV, the issue of ethical leadership has been elevated to an unprecedented level of prominence (Chauke & Sebola, 2018:294). According to Naidoo (2002:1), how companies are managed and controlled that constitute governance.

Companies must clearly and visibly set their ethical framework that guides their activities and against which their performance may be measured (BR, 2016:7; Ernst & Young, 2016:9). A robust ethics framework revolves around codifying ethical values, continuously developing value frameworks within how the organisation operate and within leaders, managers and employees and monitoring the extent

to which ethics are implemented throughout the company (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; Tuan, Ernst & Young, 2016:8; 2017:136-137). To be successful, a company's ethical construct must permeate all aspect of activities (Chauke & Sebola, 2018:294; Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:56-58). It is not sufficient to only have an ethical code, there must also be existing standard practice, and such should be reviewed annually in order to take the lead from the ethical framework perspective (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; BR, 2016:7).

The strengthening ethical leadership in organisations by mainstreaming the ethical behaviour throughout the culture of the organisations has become vital to good governance (Naidoo, 2012:25; Othman & Rahman, 2014:360; BR, 2016:13). Principle one and two of King IV Report on Corporate Governance which was published on the 1 November 2016 and coming into effect on the 1 April 2017 indicates that governing board should lead ethically and effectively, while principle two indicates that the governing board should govern the ethics of organisations in a way that supports the establishment of ethical culture

(Chauke & Sebola, 2018:294; Webley & Werner, 2008:411; Ernst & Young, 2016:8)

This is a conceptual paper, and it seeks to critically analyse, assess and discuss the envisaged ethics as per King IV report on corporate governance and will be contrasted with the prevailing practice in organisations in South Africa, mainly the State-Owned Enterprises. Ethical leadership in the organisation remain an evasive commodity; hence the many failures experienced in the different companies and the country at large (Chauke & Sebola, 2018:260; Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:56-58; Othman & Rahman, 2014:360; BR, 2016:13). In essence the paper will investigate the impact of ethical leadership on organisations, evaluate the influence of ethical leadership on organisational ethical culture and determine the role of organisational ethical culture on the staff

2. Principle Framework

This paper is premised on principle one and two of King IV Report on corporate governance which indicates that governing board should lead ethically and effectively, while principle two indicates that the governing board should govern the ethics of organisations in a way that supports the establishment of ethical culture. According to King IV report, principle one indicates that it is the responsibility of the governing body to cultivate collectively or individually, the six ethical characteristics, which are: Integrity, Competence, Responsibility, Accountability, Fairness and Transparency.

King IV report on corporate governance recommends that the governing body should drive the six ethical characteristics in ensuring that they will be able to offer effective leadership that will assist the organisation to achieve strategic objectives and positive outcomes. The six characteristics should also assist the governing body in setting the tone to lead the organisation ethically and effectively, and the governing body should also be held accountable for them. The first principle makes it clear that the ethical tone of the organisation should be set at the top and specifically in the governing body (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; Kimber & Lipton, 2011:202). The governing body has the responsibility to lead to ethically and effectively and ensure that there is ethical leadership (Naidoo, 2012:25). This principle encompasses the characteristics the governing body should possess, both individually and collectively

and should, therefore, exhibit such (Ernst & Young, 2016; Netcare, 2017). The King IV Report focuses on the character of the people that are involved with governance. Good governance principle starts with the character of those with the responsibility to promote governance and not with rules and procedures. This is a timely reminder in South Africa as there are myriad of governance failures that have been experienced by organisations both in the public and private sector. Principle two indicates that the governing board should govern the ethics of the organisation in a way that support the establishment of the ethical culture in the organisation. The role of the principle two is to establish an ethical culture in the organisation (Ernst & Young, 2016:8). The governing body should, therefore, take the responsibility of ensuring that there is the governance of ethics in the organisation (Tuan, 2017:136-137).

3. Literature Review

According to the King III Report, a reference was made to the cardinal values that were to underpin and inform good governance and referred explicitly to the values include responsibility, accountability, fairness and transparency. King IV has retained the values that were in King III but has added two more values, which are integrity and competence. The adding of integrity and competence is essential, as these two characteristics make the most significant difference in the way how governance is carried out in South Africa (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:58-64). It is precisely the absence of these two characteristics among leaders that causes organisations to underperform, and even fail in their ethical responsibilities (Kimber & Lipton, 2011:192). The second principle of King IV indicates that the governing body should govern the ethics of the organisation in a way that encourages the establishment of an ethical culture. The governing bodies are given the mandate to ensure the maintenance and development of ethical culture in the organisation. King III also contained a principle that dealt with organisational ethics; however, its focus was on the management of ethics. According to King IV, unlike its predecessor report, indicates that the management of ethics in an organisation is not sufficient until it results in the establishment of ethical culture (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61.64). The emphasis of ethical culture in the King IV report, compared to management of ethics as was the case in King III does not reduce the importance of ethics management. To support this view, the second

principle of King IV discusses several aspects that pertain to managing ethics in organisations (Sanlam, 2017). The aspects that are discussed with regard to managing ethics, includes setting of ethics strategy for the organisation, and ensuring that there are ethical standards that will guide internal and external stakeholders in their interactions, and ensuring that they are familiar with, and adhere to these ethical standards (Webley & Werner, 2008:412-413; Kimber & Lipton, 2011:202). The process of dealing with aspects of ethics management can be done through the implementation of the principles of King IV which integrates the aspirations of good corporate governance and succours the governing board in realising its specific governance outcomes as set out in King IV.

3.1 Corporate Governance

According to King IV, corporate governance is defined as the exercise of ethical and effective leadership by the governing body to achieve the governance outcomes of ethical culture; good performance; effective control and legitimacy (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004; Ernst & Young, 2016). The concept of ethical leadership is displayed by integrity, competence, responsibility, accountability, fairness and transparency and is applied to prevent any negative consequences in the organisation (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; Naidoo, 2012:25; Othman & Rahman, 2014:360). The area of effective leadership entails being results-driven, wherein the strategic objectives could be achieved with consideration of the overall impact that goes beyond the internal focus (Ernst & Young, 2016:8). It is therefore expected that the ethical and effective leadership should complement each other (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; BR, 2016:13). Corporate governance is, therefore, the application of effective leadership that is performed by the governing body (BR, 2016:13; Ernst & Young, 2016:8).

Good governance includes, amongst other things, participation, transparency, accountability and the rule of law. Good governance also involves effectiveness and equity in governance activities (Kimber & Lipton, 2011:202). Good governance ensures that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus in the society and that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision-making over the allocation of development resources. In the South African context, King IV introduced 17 principles. The principles on

which this paper will focus are principle one and two, which deals with ethical leadership and ethics in the organisations.

3.2 The Ethical Leadership

The concept of good corporate governance is principally about effective, ethical leadership (Othman & Rahman, 2014:360; IoDSA, 2016:11). The matters of leadership start in the board with the responsibility embedded on each director and find its expression through the board or the governing body. The board set the tone, which is referred to as ethical governance (Kimber & Lipton, 2011:202). According to King IV, governance of ethics as the role of the governing body is to ensure that there is an ethical culture within the organisation which is aligned to the tone that is set by the governing body (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64; Kimber & Lipton, 2011:202). The tone of ethical leadership should be implemented through appropriate policies and practices (Fulmer, 2004:307-308; Naidoo, 2012:25).

With the advent of the release of the King IV report, in November 2016, South Africa has been positioned as being one of the world leaders on matters of corporate governance. When King IV, is compared and contrasted with the predecessor King Reports, King IV's emphases of ethical leadership has been elevated to an unprecedented level of prominence. The King IV report focuses on ethical leadership rather than ethics management, and sets the tone from the top, particularly the board of directors or governing bodies. Emanating from the recent scandals from both private and public sector in South Africa, there is a growing need for governing bodies and boards to act ethically and effectively and for the organisations have to because being responsible citizens of the societies in which they operate is no longer sufficient.

The King IV report on Corporate Governance is not different from the King III Code in some aspects that also have similar chapters consisting of three principles (Woolworth, 2018; PSG, 2018). When King IV and King III are compared and contrasted, their difference in terms of prominence is that King III consisted of 65 governance principles, while King IV consists of 16 principles, which can, therefore, be deduced that three out of the 16 principles is now specifically focused on ethics (PWC, 2016; Sanlam, 2016). The three ethical principles as contained in King IV deal respectively with ethical leadership,

ethical culture in the organisation, and the ethical responsibilities of organisations to the environment and society in which they operate (Kimber & Lipton, 2011:192-202; Othman & Rahman, 2014:360). In this regard, King IV Report focuses on the character of the people that are involved in governance (PSG, 2018). Good governance, therefore, does not start with principles, rules and procedures, but with the character of those tasked with governance. This is a timely reminder at a time when governance failures have become rampant in South Africa.

Another critical change in King IV is that it exceeds its predecessor report King III, by indicating that management of ethics in organisations is not sufficient until it results in the establishment of an ethical culture (PWC, 2016). Organisational ethical culture is widely understood as to how things are done and thus suggests that ethics should become a regular part of 'how things are being done in the organisation' (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64). Steinhoff is an appropriate example of the failure of ethical leadership and ultimately, lack of organisational ethics (Naude, Hamilton, Ungerer, Malan & de Klerk, 2018:15-21). Steinhoff was once a jewel and an example of South African success on the global stage, but its failure in upholding ethics has resulted in its share price plummeting and only remaining with 10% of its initial value (Tuan, 2017:136-137, Naude, *et al.*, 2018:15-21). It is very evident from the outcome of the investigation that poor ethical perception of a company has a direct impact on peoples' willingness to make use of the services and to invest in such entities and this will hold the same even if it were a public sector entity. When the ethics of an organisation falters, unethical behaviour creates problems related to employees as well as employee productivity. An unethical organisation will find struggle to keep honest employees, as the employees will battle to work in an unethical business environment, and that could result in increased absenteeism and therefore the lack of productivity becoming inevitable.

When ethics fail in an organisation, honest employees end up leaving such employ and that resulting in a high employee turnover with having many capable and skilful employees parting (Tuan, 2017:136-137). The loss of critical skills will ultimately affect productivity, and those that remain will be promoting unethical behaviours and as such tending to exercise bias towards their other income-generating activities that they perform during working hours and

abusing organisation's resources (Fulmer, 2004:306-307). Leadership sets the tone, the only successful counter to unethical conduct as manifested in acts of bribery, fraud, theft, deceit, financial crimes, extortion and similar acts (Fulmer, 2004:312).

It is the responsibility of leaders to build a workplace that is based on integrity and honesty, and there be the higher performance from their employees, greater loyalty and retention, and lower levels of employee fraud and misdemeanours. On a national level, the citizen copies what the elected political officials do, and if citizens see corruption being committed, they will emulate the same corrupt behaviours (Naidoo, 2012:25). Citizens are always observant, and when they see ethical behaviour, they will act ethically (Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490). Poor behaviour is costly that the real costs of poor behaviour do not depend on corrupt leaders getting caught. The issue of ethics in leadership boils down to the practice of instilling ethical behaviour revelations by former Finance Minister Nhlanhla Nene on his meetings with the controversial Gupta family sparked outrage among South Africans and was met with calls for his axing. In his testimony to the Zondo Commission on State Capture, the former Minister was faced with the stark outcome of his ethical decisions. The leadership of an organisation sets the direction on how things should be done.

Reign of investment opportunities. Taking a look purely at a corporate level, if the business has a positive reputation, people will want to work for and buy service or product.

4. The Character of Board Room Ethical Leadership

In ethical leadership model, the substantive engagement and oversight are required, and a mere process focus will not be good enough (Naidoo, 2012:25; Othman & Rahman, 2014:360). Despite that fact that leadership of an organisation starts with each director and the fiduciary responsibility that comes with the role, the expression of the ethics comes through the board or the governing body as a collective, setting the appropriate example and tone which is referred to as ethical governance (Fulmer, 2004:312). When an ethical culture is understood correctly, and well embedded in the organisation, the desired corporate values and conduct results and getting reflected in the daily habits and practices of the executives and the

employees on how they are evaluated, work, and decision on who is hired, promoted, rewarded. It also shows how employees act in the absence of the managers and when they are expected to use personal judgement on issues as well as the business partners (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64; Othman & Rahman, 2014:369).

Corporate governance as an internal system encompasses the policies, the processes and the people who serve the needs of the stakeholders and shareholders by directing and controlling management activities with shrewdness, objectivity and integrity leadership, and ethical leadership (Naidoo, 2012:25; Othman & Rahman, 2014:366). When ethical leaders are at the core, there are likely to be good policies that will drive economic growth, investment and jobs are the natural outcomes. Social cohesion cannot happen in any country without ethical leadership (Agbin, 2018:23). The matters of ethical leadership are not the preserve and responsibility of boards and executives only, and ethical leadership should flow throughout the society and organisations as a whole. This is because ethical leadership should be a reflection of societal values (Naidoo, 2012:25; Agbin, 2018:23).

The emphasis on ethical culture in King IV, and not ethics management as in King III, does not mean that ethics management has become less critical. However, in the discussion of the second principle in King IV, several aspects of managing ethics in organisations are especially relevant. This includes setting an ethics strategy that is required for the organisation, ethical standards to guide internal and external stakeholders in interacting, and ensuring that they are familiar with, and adhere to these ethical standards (Webley & Werner, 2008:412-413). There is also explicit provision being made for providing safe reporting, in the form of whistle-blowing, which is a mechanism for persons who wish to report unethical conduct confidentially. Ethics management is a goal in itself, or a mere tick-box exercise, but rather, ethics management must be adopted, approached and applied in a way that will result in the inculcation and maintenance of the ethical organisational culture over time (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:65-68; Deloitte, 2016:14-21).

The fourth King Report on corporate governance goes beyond mere recognition of the existence of social and ethics committees, and, has made many important recommendations that have the potential

of improving the impact and effectiveness of these committees. King IV report recommends that all organisations should have a governance structure that takes responsibility for governing the social and ethical performance of the organisations. The Companies Regulations only require listed companies, state-owned companies, and companies with the public interest to have mandatory social and ethics committees (Sea Harvest, 2017:89). King IV, recognises that the social and ethical performance of all types of organisations has an impact on the success, and ultimately, on their sustainability. It, therefore, recommends that the governing bodies of all organisations or one of their existing sub-committees should take responsibility for governing their social and ethical performance.

King IV recommended that the mandate that is linked to social and ethics committee should also be broadened to include oversight of some areas that are not part of what is mentioned in the mandate of the committee in terms of the Companies Regulations. These include areas of fair remuneration and responsible and transparent tax practices and ensuring that there is a transparent practice (Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490). What is essential in this case is that the governance of ethics is also included in the mandate about the social and ethics committee. This represents a necessary correction of the oversight in the Companies Regulations. The latter, ethics only appears in the committees, but never in its mandate.

King IV further recommends that the composition of the social and ethics committee, which is one of the newly introduced committees, should be such that there is a majority of non-executive members of the governing body on the committee. This, once more, is an essential correction that pertains to Companies Regulations that will allow for a composition of the committee in wherein the majority of prescribed officers and executive directors are on the committee. The most conventional structure is the latter, as this is the ideal governance arrangement because it puts executive directors in a position to oversee their own social and ethical performance. Moreover, as we all know, one tends to be not very objective when marking their homework." In the decade since the advent of state capture in South Africa, there have been painful lessons about corporate governance in both the private and public. These lessons and learnings are not unique to South Africa or state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in developing countries generally as this is

also prevalent in other countries as was the case in Enron case (Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490).

The failure of Enron in late 2001 which filed for bankruptcy apart from signalling the largest corporate bankruptcy in the US, threw up multiple questions about the effectiveness of contemporary accounting, auditing and corporate governance practices (Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490; Agbin, 2018:20-21). In order to sustain corporate performance, there should be a rule-based application of business ethics developed as a response to the growth rate and the level failures in this space and corporate wrongdoing (Laczniak & Murphy, 2003:3-25; Agbin, 2018:20-21) when it comes to the application of these measures that have not yielded any desired results. The practice has been to cut back the power of boards or governing body and to turn over some functions that have been improperly used by corporate and government executive leadership.

In recent years' ethical scandals that have manifested themselves, it has become commonplace, followed by the number of top management executives of corporate giants like Arthur Anderson, Lehman Brothers and WorldCom in the US, Satyam Computer Services of India amongst others. Steinhoff in South Africa, for instance, grew throughout five decades to become one of the largest companies in the country (Agbin, 2018:20-21; Naude *et al.*, 2018:15-21). The stakeholders never expected that top executives' management could be embroiled in unethical practices because the company had a code of ethics (Tuan, 2017:136-137; Agbin, 2018:25). Emanating from the collapse of these respected Corporates, it was found that profits that were declared by Steinhoff were false which pointed towards the lack of ethics and some of the company executives saw wrongdoing and decided to ignore it, and as such it could be inferred that the top executive's management ignored the code of ethics (Webley & Werner, 2008:406; Naude *et al.*, 2018:15-21). Put differently, the code of ethics that was about protecting Steinhoff's interest rather than inculcating ethical values, virtues and norms in the organisation (Webley & Werner, 2008:410; Tuan, 2017:136-137; Naude *et al.*, 2018:15-21). It can in the same vein be indicated that some executives in multinational auditing firm KPMG fell into trap and greed and decided to flout corporate governance and corporate social responsibility practices in South Africa in their involvement with Gupta aligned companies and Venda Building Society ('VBS') (Motau, 2018).

Organisations formed with noble intentions and premised on ethics and righteousness have not escaped the pervasive malignancy and greed of corruption (Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490; Naidoo, 2012:25). The continuing of illegal and unethical business activities by top executive managers in SOEs and the private sectors is a pointer that a code of ethics is not enough for an organisation to be ethical it also needs to be implemented (Webley & Werner, 2008:406). Emanating on the post-state capture period in South Africa, the leading governance challenges for government and corporate South Africa will not be on how to enforce rules but how to ensure we cut back dependence on their enforcement. The Institutional compliance is weak, and the rise of transactional leadership has led to the emergence of the public sector and corporate corruption (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:65-68; Mostovicz *et al.*, 2011:490; Naidoo, 2012:25). The failure in ethics has posed threats and challenges posed by the post-Enron governance debacle in order because they are the pose grave abuses and have become potential breeding grounds for abuse (Laczniak & Murphy, 2003:2-5; Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64).

South Africa is faced with critical issues, and as for the world, that blocks the possibilities for economic development and shared growth is at an inadequate level of ethical consciousness and ethics management in the business domain (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64). The State-Owned Enterprises and the private sector do not require overwhelming rules; but they need strong and effective values within their limited scope of corporate governance functions in the world (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:65-68).

The regulators around the world are carefully considering the limited effectiveness of rules and regulations to address governance matters. In South Africa, the King IV report recognises this. Although the terms of requirement vary only slightly between King III and King IV, the notion of the outcomes when contrasted with the ruled-based application of the code of ethics should significantly improve the efficiency of the increased focus on an ethical culture (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:61-64).

The strengthening ethical leadership by mainstreaming ethical behaviour throughout the culture of organisations is a task that has become key to good governance, but it is one that few SOEs and corporates have mastered (Naidoo, 2012:25; Agbin,

2018:26). Despite the business being inherently transactional, the shifting the governance paradigm to ethical leadership is contained in the integrity, competence, responsibility, accountability, fairness and transparency drove by virtuosity rather than self-interest is central to good governance (Othman & Rahman, 2014:366; Agbin, 2018:23).

It is designed to anticipate and prevent, or ameliorate, the negative consequences of such activities and outputs on the society, economy, and the environment. A link between governance and ethical leadership should be practically established (Naidoo, 2012:25). Governing bodies are expected to embed ethical cultures in an organisation, this is despite the difficulty that comes with the implementation of such, as this is hardest to implement due to the absence box to tick to conclude that an end goal has been reached (Schermerhorn Jr & Dienhard, 2004:65-68; Webley & Werner, 2008:408; BR, 2016:7). From literature perspective it is clear that:

- Ethical leadership have an impact on organisational culture because the leaders who are ethical will have the courage to give tone from the top as seen at PRASA, PIC and TRANSNET.
- People follow after the leader, NUGENT COMMISSION, indicated that based on the leader, the organisation was in a state of fear.
- Ethical leaders will ensure that the governing bodies promote and encourage ethical behaviour in the organisation.
- The ethical leadership behaviour has an influence on how the staff operate in an organisation.
- In the case of PIC, it became evident that everyone in the level of operation started to behave in ways that depicted a lack of ethics.
- In an environment where there is no ethical culture, fear is used as a means to coerce obedience from staff.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The King IV report on corporate governance has elevated the prominence and importance of ethics to unprecedented heights in South Africa. It is, therefore, up to organisations to turn the words in King IV into practice and ensure that they lead ethically

and ensure that they also inculcate the ethical culture in the organisation that they serve. It is evident from this article that South Africa requires governing bodies to act and lead ethically and effectively, and that the organisations with deeply embedded ethical cultures and the organisations with a conscious are responsible citizens of the societies in which they operate they are in all likelihood going to be accepted and respected by the communities in which they operate.

In the absence of effective leadership and good governance at all levels in private, public and civic organisations, it is arguably and virtually impossible to achieve and to sustain effective administration as has been experienced in both the private and public sectors in South Africa. For the organisation to achieve goals, to sustain quality and deliver first-rate services, there is a need lead ethically in the organisation that have embedded with ethical culture, because if not they could be multiple misdemeanours that could be catastrophic for the country. It is evident from this article that due to the increasing complexities in this area and the requirements arising from the constant change in society, coupled with the constant push for higher levels of productivity, there is requirement effective and ethical leadership. It must be acknowledged that King IV is not the panacea for all the ills; however, the good governance and effective-ethical leadership are the essential requirements for an organisation that can be regarded as being successful before all stakeholders in the 21st century.

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Wetlands and Sustainable Livelihoods: Alternative Means of Water Security in the Drought Season Within the Rural Communities in Limpopo Province of South Africa

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Abstract: This paper argues that wetlands conservation is a viable tool to sustain livelihoods and secure water. South Africa climate is characterised by periods of La Nina and El Nina, unfortunately, the country is experiencing the El Nina season (period of dry spells) and the communities at the peripheries are affected mostly by these phenomena. As the drought continues to devastate most of the country as recurrent characteristics of the climate change, livelihoods of ordinary South Africans are threatened. Therefore, with highly constrained freshwater resources, weather extremes such as drought imposed by climate variability and change affect the limited water. The conservation of wetlands in South Africa can be a tool for sustainable livelihoods and ensure water security if they are well maintained and preserved. Evidently, since the drought, the agricultural sector growth has realised a decline of 12,6%, with most of the rural communities relying on the agricultural sector for food, farming and as a source of employment. Groundwater is much slower to be affected by drought than surface water and worldwide groundwater has proved to be a good buffer against drought, despite these enormous benefits wetlands continue to be lost and degraded at an alarming rate due to the problems of pollution, agricultural expansion, and urbanisation and is vulnerable to development. This paper concludes that the loss and degradation of wetlands undermine the sustainability of the development that is often responsible for their demise.

Keywords: Conservation, Drought, El Nina, La Nina, Livelihoods, Sustainable, Wetland

1. Introduction

Wetlands are at the centre of livelihood around the globe. They have proven to be essential for human health, prosperity and provide enormous economic and social benefits that add value to the society. Wetland conservation can yield significant benefits to local communities in South Africa. Ensuring the conservation and sustainable use of this resource can lead to maximised benefits for the future. In their role of natural infrastructure wetlands underpin the availability of clean water for drinking, protects us from extremes of drought and flooding and plays a significant role in recycling nutrients and chemicals thereby allowing us to sustainably manage waste. The long-term effects of these benefits of wetlands enable our communities and economies to continue to function and sustain system-wide livelihoods for both the poor and the elite.

South Africa has a known water scarcity problem that is increasing by the advent of worldwide climate

change (Sershen, Rodda, Stenström, Schmidt, Dent, Bux, Hanke, Buckley & Fennemore, 2016; Fairall, 2018), with a rainfall of 500 mm, placing it well below the global average of 800 mm, it is a water-stressed country (Kohlers, 2016). Due to the prolonged El Nina period in South Africa since 2015, drought conditions have been experienced across the country. The majority of Africa's continue to live in rural areas where a life of smallholder subsistence agriculture, lack of access to basic needs such as food and water entrenched many people in poverty (Wood, Dixon & McCartney, 2013; Mashamaite, 2014). Many areas in South Africa, people are directly dependant on wetlands for subsistence use, therefore there is a great need to assess and predict the sustainability of different land-use options in wetlands (Adams, 1993). McCartney, Morardet, Rebelo, Finlayson and Masiyandima (2011) notes that the conservation of wetlands is critical as wetland has the capacity to provide a diverse range of functions and services that have supported people, ecological systems and the physical environment. The drought season has

Figure 1: Polluted Wetlands

Source: Wetlands & Rivers Sustain Us, Chadwick (2015)

highlighted existing vulnerabilities in South Africa's water system, and properly frames the magnitude of the challenge of ensuring water security for the country. South Africa's water security depends on the sustained supply from our water resources, these are the natural capital on which all our investments into the water sector depend. Many rural communities are solely dependent on groundwater for their water supply; rivers, wetlands, estuaries, springs and aquifers are all water resources from the natural environment, replenished by rainfall (WWF, 2016). Wetlands have a critical role to play in supporting and developing people's livelihoods, reducing poverty, improving food security and in the wider context contributing towards sustainability. As in many African rural areas, many researchers such as Tapela (2015) and the WRC report (2016) highlighted that natural resources are generally managed according to locally derived rules and norms, or a blend of local and statutory systems. However, whilst this has been well recognised and documented in terrestrial systems, the discourse on freshwater systems such as wetlands, lakes, and estuaries is surprisingly inadequate. Water is a limited natural resource and a public good fundamental for life and health. The human right to water is indispensable for leading a life in human dignity. In the Limpopo basin, it is estimated that 3% of the total land area is under wetlands (World Resources Institute, 2003). Swamps and floodplains are the most widespread type of wetlands in the region. The relationship between communities and wetland continues today as provisioning services are increasingly developed and as wetlands play ever more important roles in livelihoods diversification in the face of

challenges to traditional livelihoods emerging from population growth and climate change.

Drought is one such extreme physical process and is often characterised as a slow-onset natural hazard whose impacts are complex and reverberate through many sectors of the economy such as water resources, agriculture, and natural ecosystem (Botai, Botai, Dlamini, Zwane & Phaduli, 2016). Wetlands can play a great role in mitigating hazards, especially those associated with drought, floods and veld fire (Belle, Collins & Jordaan, 2018). Despite their values, wetlands are very fragile ecosystems threatened by human interventions (Jogo & Hassen, 2009). Wetlands are constantly adjusting to disturbances occurring within them and within the surrounding landscape caused by the growth of urban and peri-urban areas, and results in declining water quality (Cullis, Rossouw, Du Toit, Petrie, Wolfaardt, De Clercq & Horn, 2018). Cullis *et al.* (2018:464) stated that "As populations continue to grow the water quality risk increases rapidly, not only because of an increasing pollution load, but also because of the associated increasing demands for water, which reduces the potential for dilution as well as the degradation of critical ecological infrastructure such as wetlands, riparian vegetation and buffer strips". Poor maintenance of existing water and wastewater treatment infrastructure, particularly in the poorer, rural and peri-urban areas, aggravates the situation. The most significant impact factors are pollution (54%), biological resources use (53%), natural system modification (53%), and agriculture and aquaculture (42%). The below picture depicts the threat that pollution poses to our wetlands. See Figure 1 above.

2. Conceptualisation of Wetlands, Livelihoods and Water Security

The nexus between water, food and energy is one of the most fundamental relationships and challenges for society (TEEB, 2013). Wetlands are indispensable for the countless benefits or "ecosystem services" that they provide humanity, ranging from freshwater supply, food and building materials, and biodiversity, to flood control, groundwater recharge, and climate change mitigation. The South Africa National Water Act (1998) defines a wetland as Land, which is transitional between terrestrial and aquatic systems where the water table is usually at or near the surface, or land that is periodically covered by shallow water and which in normal circumstances support or would support vegetation that is typically adapted to saturated soils. Wetlands are areas of marsh, fen, peatland or water, whether natural or artificial, permanent or temporary, with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish or salt, including areas of marine water, the depth of which at low tide does not exceed six meters (Ramsar, 1971). Wetland is a generic term for all different kinds of habitats where the land is wet for some period of each year but not necessarily permanently wet (Nacelle, 2005); therefore, the term wetland refers to the aquatic systems that can be permanently saturated as well as areas that occur at other extreme. The ecosystem services that they provide include flood and storm surge protection, groundwater recharge, and drought mitigation.

Wetlands play a significant role in the livelihoods of rural communities in southern Africa (Jogo & Hassan, 2010). A livelihood comprises the assets (natural, physical, human, financial and social capital), the activities, and the access to these (mediated by institutions and social relations) that together determine the living gained by the individual or household (Ellis, 2000). Therefore, this paper defines livelihoods as systems people use to sustain themselves. Livelihoods may include the economic value of the main provisioning services provided by the wetland collection of edible plants, crop production, livestock grazing, fishing, hunting, fuel-wood, reeds, and sedge collection. Most of the materials harvested from the wetland are used for household subsistence and are rarely sold. In addition to their economic and livelihood value, the wetland services are also essential to sustain the social and cultural responsibilities in gift giving to neighbours and relatives. Water security is defined as "the reliable availability of an acceptable quantity and quality of

water for health, livelihoods and production, coupled with an acceptable level of water-related risks" (Grey & Sadoff, 2007).

Water security is concerned with the ability to provide an appropriate quality and quantity of water reliably and affordably for human activity to the ability to cope with water related hazards, prevent harm to ecosystems and assure equity of access and minimize conflict (Lall *et al.*, 2017). Due to increasing human population, the exposure to water-related climatic hazards and the degree of pollution of water increases. According to Bakker and Morinville (2013), water security is an acceptable level of water-related risks to humans and ecosystems, coupled with the availability of water of sufficient quantity and quality to support livelihoods, national security, and human health and ecosystem services.

3. Wetlands Typologies and Contributions to Rural Livelihoods in the Limpopo Province

Wetlands cover a wide range of habitats from freshwater marshes and wet meadows to estuarine mangroves and swamps (Kotze, 2008). Baleni Spring is an intermittently hot spring and wetland that lies near the Letaba River under the authority of Chief Muhaumani. The 'Baleni Spring' site actually consists of two components: the hot spring, which lies in a wetland, and the salt making activities next to the Klein Letaba River. Salt is produced by filtering soil that has bathed in the spring overflow. Fresh river water is used to filter out the salt, and then evaporated over a fire to produce salt in compacted lumps. Baleni is a sacred place used in pursuit of the affirmation of cultural identity, as an inspirational point for healing, creativity, and religious worship. It has been used for a long time, apparently, its use can be traced back to 300 AD (promotional museum material). Only Tsonga women can produce the salt, and use it for barter and trading. It is highly sought after by traditional healers.

Mutale Valley wetlands have affected the rural livelihoods and natural resources of people living in the Mutale Valley. The wetland is recognised as the main access to key resources of land and water, although the user focus is on access to water for irrigation purposes. The Mutale River rises in the Soutpansberg range, close to Lake Fundudzi, and flows into the Luvuvhu River just inside the Kruger National Park. The Mutale River valley lies almost entirely within the former 'homeland' of Venda.

Some 8600 people live in the area. The principle of natural resource use in irrigated agriculture and livestock grazing. The most recent change has been the intensification of irrigated agriculture with water sourced from the Mutale River.

The Ga Mampa wetland, a palustrine wetland, comprises less than 1% of the catchment but is widely believed to make a significant contribution to dry-season river flows in the Mohlalapsi River, a tributary of the Olifants River, in South Africa (McCartney *et al.*, 2011). It is approximately 1km with a catchment of approximately 40,000 hectares (Kotze, 2005). There are two main villages in the valley: Ga-Mampa and Mantlhane. Each main village has a headman (Induna, the traditional head of the people), who is responsible for allocation of communal land among the community members and gives authorization for harvesting natural resources within the wetland. The valley is surrounded by nature reserves of which the local population uses natural resources for their livelihoods (fuelwood, grazing lands, hunting area, wild plant collection), although it is not legally authorized. Three small-scale irrigation schemes built-in 1959 by the former homeland government used to contribute to a large part of the local food production. After the withdrawal of government support in the mid-nineties and the 1995 and 2000 floods, the infrastructure has deteriorated and large parts of the schemes are no longer in use. Following the collapse of irrigation schemes, and attracted by wetland wetness and rich soils, farmers have converted half of its area to agriculture over the last decade.

4. Wetlands Benefits in the Rural Livelihoods

Wetlands are the basis of food security and nutrition, provide the resources for drinking water and sanitation, and are essential in controlling water-borne diseases. Good management of wetland resources provides opportunities for improving economic activity and human health, thereby making a lasting contribution to poverty reduction. The significance of the diversity of activity in wetland livelihoods and the cultural importance that this represents has largely been overlooked in national development strategies. Diversity allows people to minimise risks to their livelihoods and maximise the benefits the environment offers. Communities in these areas are often repositories of natural resource knowledge that will be lost if their ways of life are irreversibly damaged.

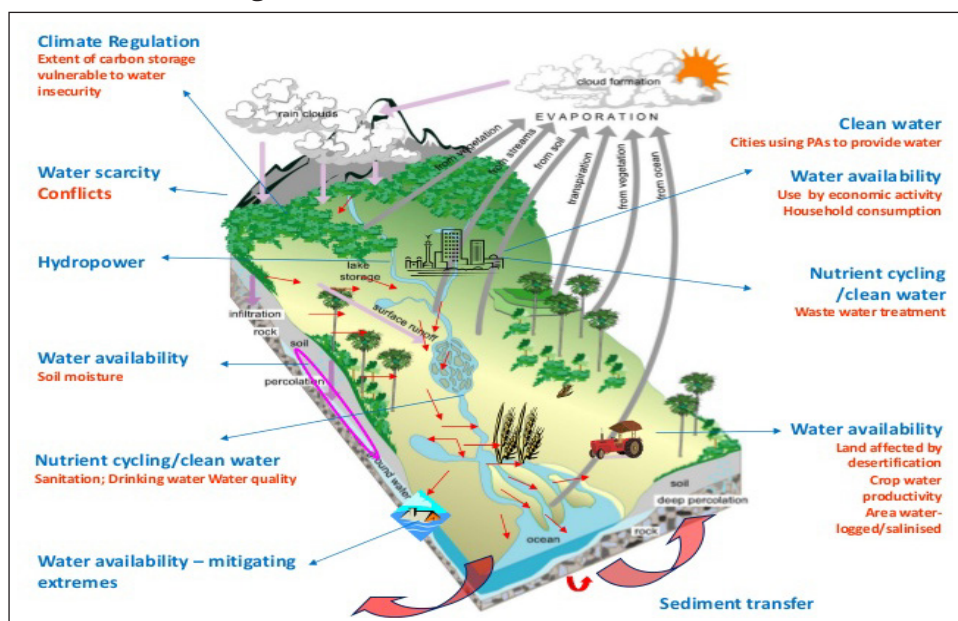
Freshwater is a vital resource for human health, prosperity, security, crucial for sustainable development, including poverty eradication, gender equality, food security and the preservation of ecosystems, among other critical issues. Wetlands provide a variety and valuable ecological services to the local communities and these services are normally grouped into provisioning, regulating, cultural and supporting services (Belle, Collins & Jordaan, 2018). The 'goods and services' supplied by these aquatic ecosystems range from flood control, to water quality amelioration, to provision of fish and building materials (Maltby *et al.*, 1994; Kotze *et al.*, 2008a). The CBD Brief (2015) summarised the benefits as follows:

- In addition to direct benefits, rural communities also obtain indirect benefits from wetlands that is depicted in Figure 2 on the following page, amongst the indirect benefits are water purification, sediment retention and flood attenuation (Owethu-Pantshwa & Buschke, 2019).

5. Water Security and Wetlands in Limpopo Province

Water security means addressing environmental protection and the negative effects of poor management, which will become more challenging as climatic variability increases. A water-secure world reduces poverty, advances education, and increases living standards. It is a world where there is an improved quality of life for all, especially for the most vulnerable usually women and children who benefit most from good water governance. The UN Millennium Declaration and the World Summit on Sustainable Development pledged to halve the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water by 2015 (United Nations, n.d). All this, however, has largely focused on water supply for personal and domestic use. At the international level, much less attention has been paid to access to water for agriculture – broadly defined here as including crop production (farming), livestock rearing and other activities to produce food with natural resources. Access by the poor to natural resources: land, forests, water, fisheries, pastures, and wetlands, is essential for sustainable poverty reduction. The livelihoods of rural people without access, or with very limited access to natural resources are vulnerable because they have difficulty in obtaining food, accumulating other assets, and recuperating after natural or market shocks or misfortunes (Oguduvwe, 2013; Baumann, 2002). South

Figure 2: Indirect Benefits of Wetlands



Source: The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity for Water and Wetlands (2013)

Table 1: SPI in June 2015 for Each Province

Provinces	12-month SPI	Description
Eastern Cape	-0.30	Dry conditions
Free state	-0.6	Dry conditions
Gauteng	-1.2	Moderate dry conditions
KwaZulu-Natal	-2.45	Exceptional drought conditions
Limpopo	-1.34	Severe drought conditions
Mpumalanga	-1.45	Severe drought conditions
Northern Cape	-0.60	Dry conditions
North west	-1.4	Severe drought conditions
Western cape	-1.4	Severe drought conditions

Source: Report on Drought Conditions across the Country (2015)

Africa is a water-scarce country; it ranks as one of the 30 driest countries in the world with an average rainfall of 40% less than annual world average rainfall. This situation has led to water shortages in a number of public water supply schemes and dams. By the middle of November 2015, disaster drought was declared in the KwaZulu-Natal, Free state, North-west and Limpopo. A severe drought, related to El Niño, is ongoing across the Southern Africa region. This drought has limited crop production and exacerbated the current lean season. Due to prolonged lower-than-normal rainfall, since the year started, drought conditions are being experienced across the country. This has led to water shortages in a number of public water supply schemes or dams. Limpopo province is one of them that are experiencing severe drought conditions.

Table 1 above shows the 12-month SPI values for the different provinces and illustrates the SPI values for June 2015 for each of the provinces. As per the drought indicators in Table 1, an SPI of -0.5 to -0.7 results in dry conditions and an SPI of less than -2 could result in exceptional drought conditions. The table indicates the exceptional drought conditions being experienced in KwaZulu-Natal, the severe drought conditions experienced in the Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North West and Western Cape provinces, the moderate drought condition in Gauteng, and the dry conditions in the remaining provinces. Wetlands are of strategic importance; they typically constitute the basis for the livelihoods of multiple resource users. In seasonally flooded plains, fishers and farmers may use the same area of land/water in different seasons. Herders may come to the area

Box 1: Key Aspects of Water Security

- Access to safe and sufficient drinking water at an affordable cost in order to meet basic needs, which includes sanitation and hygiene (cf. United Nations General Assembly, 2010), and the safeguarding of health and well-being;
- Protection of livelihoods, human rights, and cultural and recreational values;
- Preservation and protection of ecosystems in water allocation and management systems in order to maintain their ability to deliver and sustain the functioning of essential ecosystem services;
- Water supplies for socio-economic development and activities (such as energy, transport, industry, tourism);
- Collection and treatment of used water to protect human life and the environment from pollution;
- Collaborative approaches to transboundary water resources management within and between countries to promote freshwater sustainability and cooperation;
- The ability to cope with uncertainties and risks of water-related hazards, such as floods, droughts and pollution, among others; and,
- Good governance and accountability, and the due consideration of the interests of all stakeholders through: appropriate and effective legal regimes; transparent, participatory and accountable institutions; properly planned, operated and maintained infrastructure; and capacity development.

Source: Ministerial Declaration of The Hague on Water Security in the 21st Century (2000)

during the dry season, in search for green pastures for their herds. The complexity of competing livelihoods strategies and overlapping use rights matches the complexity of the ecosystem. Groundwater is much slower to be affected by drought than surface water, and worldwide groundwater has proved to be a good buffer against drought. Tackling South Africa water security will require addressing the technical deficiencies, governance gaps and social inequality that are currently having a dangerous and environmentally devastating impact. The discourse on water security in recent years contains a number of common, key elements to water security. Box 1 above is a summary of the core elements necessary to achieving and maintaining water security, as found in a broad range of published definitions?

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

South Africa has low levels of rainfall relative to the world average, with high variability and high levels of evaporation due to the hot climate, and increasing challenges from water pollution (Schreiner, Mungatana & Baleta, 2018). Wetlands are essential in providing water-related ecosystem services, such as clean water for drinking, water for agriculture, cooling water for the energy sector and regulating water quantity (TEEB, 2013). All life in the water is dependent on the interaction within the river itself and in the surrounding catchment. It is clear that a failure to maintain acceptable water quality standards in our wetlands it will have a significant negative

impact on the local economy. Healthy streams, wetlands and rivers support a great variety of water life.

- Restoring our wetlands area with natural vegetation, limiting agricultural activities and developing a comprehensive wetland management plan;
- To explore the diversification of food production towards more drought-resistant crops and varieties;
- To invest in climate resilience and early actions with more appropriate infrastructures and information systems.

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The Insufficiency of Entrepreneurship Education to Businesses that Exist in Rural Areas in South Africa

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Abstract: The studies have shown that the existence of enterprises play a positive role in reducing unemployment and providing people with access to income to improve their standard of living. The challenge lies in the assumption that most enterprises that exist in rural areas do not grow as fast as compared to those in urban areas. Most entrepreneurs establish an enterprise due to unemployment, poverty, low income from their current jobs. Some enterprises tend to be successful, while others remain stagnant and others collapse within a short period of time due to their lack of sustainability. Entrepreneurship education plays a positive role in terms of enhancing entrepreneurs' innovative and creative abilities towards identifying problems and developing plans to solve them through businesses. There is a high rate of rural-urban migration due to pull factors such as employment opportunities whereby people are looking for either permanent or part-time employment within major existing businesses. This indicates that enterprises in rural areas need assistance for improvement and limit the shift of migration of labour to the urban areas. The main aim of this paper is to investigate the insufficiency of entrepreneurship education in businesses that exist in rural areas. The secondary data will be of paramount importance in sourcing information through academic books, articles, government documents from national, provincial and local level. The government has established small-enterprise agencies that promote entrepreneurship education, but do they consider all enterprises including the ones located in the rural areas? The assumption is that enterprises in rural areas also have the potential to rise and create employment for the local people and reduce household poverty. Furthermore, businesses require entrepreneurship education on a continual basis in empowering them with knowledge and skills that will be crucial for their daily operation.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship education, Businesses, Employment, Rural areas

1. Introduction

Investigating certain challenges that rural communities face can contribute towards exposing the ineffectiveness and lack of success of entrepreneurship and business practices in the areas. The specific objectives aided the aim of the study by addressing a detailed description of some of the challenges that rural businesses face. These objectives include highlighting the significance of entrepreneurship education and understanding the whole concept with the assumption that it can help uplift entrepreneurship in rural areas (Packard, 2017). According to Malebana & Swanepoel (2015), South Africa as a developing country needs to embark in entrepreneurial education to help rural businesses. There is a need to assess rural entrepreneurship in order to come up with effective measures that demonstrate improvement and growth that can lead to sustainability (Malshe & Agarwal, 2015). This can help shape the type of entrepreneurship education that will match the context of rural entrepreneurship and businesses. There are similar studies conducted by

Audretsch (2018); Bello (2018); Chimucheka (2014); Malshe & Agarwal (2015), to which their contributions formed part of the theoretical framework of the study. Their argument vested on the idea that the lack of entrepreneurship education affects the success of businesses more especially in those located in disadvantaged areas.

2. Rural Entrepreneurship

"Rural entrepreneurship can be defined as all forms of entrepreneurship that take place in areas characterized by large open spaces and small population settlements relative to the national context" (Korsgaard, Müller & Tanvig, 2015:6b). Entrepreneurship is regarded as a mechanism that can help those who are unemployed through starting new ventures that could grow to create even more employment opportunities. According to Lee and Phan (2008), rural entrepreneurship emphasises on the establishment of businesses in the rural sectors. It is of outmost significance to encourage people mostly the youth to participate in entrepreneurship. According

to Boohene and Agyapong (2017), entrepreneurship in rural areas is considered as a strategy for development in developing countries such as South Africa, to uplift the communities and for sustainability. "Entrepreneurship is a vital mechanism in creating economic activity and growth in rural settings" (Korsgaard, Ferguson & Gaddefors, 2015:574a). There are many ways to promote entrepreneurship in rural areas and that requires involvement of different actors to engage with the communities to ensure that entrepreneurship education is transferred to help capacitate and improve the welfare of people within communities.

The rural areas in most cases are characterised by agricultural practices which include farming due to its vast open land and the fact that most communities in rural settings engage in agricultural activities. In that regard, it should be noted that rural entrepreneurship goes beyond just agricultural activities but rather focuses also on non-agricultural activities such as sewing, tourism, blacksmithing, bakery, catering, and carpentry, cleaning services, mechanics and artisans (Gamede & Uleanya, 2018). These form of business ventures shows innovative and entrepreneurship capabilities by the rural people whereby they diversify their livelihoods in order to sustain themselves. To a certain extent rural communities are increasingly engaging in entrepreneurial activities (Korsgaard *et al.*, 2015a). These entrepreneurial activities tend to play a vital role towards creating employment opportunities, rural development as well as rural local economic development (Gamede & Uleanya, 2018; Müller & Korsgaard, 2018). The aim of rural development is to improve the standard of living of the communities and to ensure their sustainability free from dependency from the government (Uleanya & Gamede, 2017b; Gamede & Uleanya, 2018).

An increase in infrastructure investment, research and development, and technological development is necessary for rural entrepreneurs. This will create willing and effective entrepreneurs that will be able to grow their businesses and will decrease the rate of rural-urban migration (Dedehouanou, Araar, Ousseini, Harouna & Jabir, 2018). It is important for entrepreneurs to have the ability to take advantage of any form of capital at their disposal (Pato & Teixeira, 2016). This includes capital such as physical, human, social, environmental and financial. Pato and Teixeira (2016) emphasises that with all these types of capital a bricolage, as well as successful

and efficient businesses will be created. To be an effective entrepreneur you need to have knowledge of your surroundings and have background knowledge of the area in which you are to practice your business, that way one can easily identify gaps and opportunities in the area and take advantage of them (Lee & Phan, 2008).

3. What is Entrepreneurship Education?

There has been an increase of entrepreneurs in South Africa; however, lack of entrepreneurship education in rural areas remains a challenge (Malebana & Swanepoel, 2015). Due to the high rate of unemployment amongst the graduates from institutions of higher learning such as universities, colleges and Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET), lack of unemployment has pushed the youth of South Africa to be entrepreneurs. However, that becomes an advantage and disadvantage because other people start an enterprise with no entrepreneurship background or education and that can contribute to the collapse of the emerging enterprises (Nabi, Liñán, Fayolle, Krueger & Walmsley, 2017). When people become nascent entrepreneurs the aim is to make profit and be independent. Most entrepreneurs in South Africa have little experience in home enterprises; however, with proper management skills such as marketing, finance and customer care (Malshe & Agarwal, 2015). Entrepreneurship education is crucial in South Africa not only for individuals but also for the country as a whole through its impact on employment creation. When people are employed they have the purchasing power and afford a certain standard of living. When ideas are commercialized that will lead to maximum employment, wealth created, and that technology has to be combined with the markets and create innovative products (Audretsch, 2018). Entrepreneurship education can strengthen and transfer management skills to the owners of enterprises. The entrepreneurial education can also awaken the entrepreneurs or expose them to new business ideas that they can commercialise (Malebana & Swanepoel, 2015).

The government of South Africa must target entrepreneurs living in both rural and urban areas. Rural areas in this regarded are areas outside of the towns and cities often characterized by agricultural settings and underdevelopment, while on the other hand urban areas are human settlements that are developed such as cities, towns and suburbs and characterized by high population density and

infrastructure of the built environment (Boohene & Agyapong, 2017). Rural areas are affected by illiteracy, unemployment, poverty and crime (Bello, 2018). Moreover, that should also shift the government's focus on ensuring that enterprises in rural areas receive entrepreneurship education and that will stimulate the economic growth in that area. According to Packard (2017), entrepreneurship is a process that causes changes in the economic system through innovations of individuals who respond to opportunities in the market. Entrepreneurship education is a tool to unlock new employment opportunities for job seekers (Burton, Geishecker, Hostmann, Friedman & Newman, 2006). Moreover, entrepreneurship education will be improving the quality of the business sphere and promoting intellectual attitudes, innovative business ideas to reduce socio-economic issues in the long term (Nabi *et al.*, 2017). Most entrepreneurs in rural areas face competition because they sell the same products at the same prices and that affect their progress. Such business can be trundlers, meaning the enterprises that do not add value to employment creation but people engage in them for survival (Ertek, Tokdemir, Sevinç & Tunç, 2017). The promotion of entrepreneurship education will create value for entrepreneurs and the society as a whole through employment creation (Esterhuizen, Du Toit & Schutte, 2012).

4. Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

Education in general is a fundamental aspect for growth that requires the ability to learn and understand the topics that are essential for one's development (Grecu & Denes, 2017). Everything that needs to be done requires skill and knowledge in order to be effectively executed. The lack of certain skills and knowledge to a certain practice creates challenges and might also lead to failure. In the context of businesses, most of them tend to fail due to the lack of specific skills and knowledge about how businesses operate (Chimucheka, 2014). Therefore, it is essential that if an entrepreneur is to start a business, adequate information, knowledge and skills need to be acquired (Grecu & Denes, 2017).

The significance of entrepreneurship education lies in the fact that it helps build and capacitate individuals by developing their entrepreneurship skills for them to be able to be innovative and visionary (Audretsch, 2018). On the other hand, it also helps in moulding and changing the attitude of the individuals such as

encouraging positive thinking towards situations and lastly to help individuals to identify opportunities and to be open-minded for the awareness of the different career paths through entrepreneurship that are available beyond what they already know (Schoof, 2006; Carey & Matlay, 2010). The world is progressing and there is a shift towards a knowledge-based economy, the assumption is that many people are going to school and becoming educated. This emphasises on the idea that the graduate output is increasing, and a high rate of people is acquiring an academic qualification and they need to be employed (Grecu & Denes, 2017). Therefore, this creates a situation of high unemployment rates due to the fact that the economy is unable to accommodate everyone since there are limited jobs or open posts. In this sense, that is why entrepreneurship education should be encouraged to create more employment opportunities (Kritikos, 2014).

Businesses are complex endeavors and have different contexts depending on their size, location, the type of business and other factors (Galvão, Ferreira & Marques, 2018). These factors create the need for entrepreneurs to learn about what they are getting themselves into and how to properly manage their businesses based on those factors involved that define their business (Chimucheka, 2014). This is when the role of entrepreneurship education comes into play for businesses to learn and acquire knowledge and information. The problem with this approach lies in the fact that not all entrepreneurs have access to entrepreneurship education, especially those businesses in the rural areas (Galvão *et al.*, 2018). The assumption put forward is that there is a need for entrepreneurship education in rural areas.

5. The Challenges of Enterprises in Rural Areas

Enterprises in South Africa, as much as they create employment they also face various challenges on day-to-day operations. The following section will discuss the challenges faced by enterprises that exist in rural areas:

5.1 High Crime

Prinsloo, Matzopoulos, Laubscher, Myers and Bradshaw, (2016) state that in rural areas there is high crime rate which can affect the enterprises negatively and delay its progress. Medium and

small enterprises are formal and registered enterprises with a greater turnover. Therefore, they can mitigate crime by hiring security companies to guard their premises. However, other enterprises depend on security guards for security and due to low wages for the guards; they end up becoming the orchestrators of crime activities (Singh, 2016). There are limited professional security companies in rural areas, most enterprises for security depend on individuals which mostly do not hold registered fire arms but they hold batons meaning their lives are at risk. Micro-enterprises are informal enterprises and their turnover is up to R100 000 (Fatoki, 2012). Micro-enterprises do not make a lot of profits based on their operation and few number of people they employ (Beck, 2013). Some entrepreneurs in rural areas when closing the shop, they take their stock home with them for safety and that means the transportation money should be included in the business budgets (Koyana & Mason, 2017). Most robbers target micro-enterprises, based on poor security because they do not make enough profits to hire security companies to guard the shop premises (Burton *et al.*, 2006). That discourages many entrepreneurs in rural areas from establishing an enterprise due to high crime rate and lack of police patrol at night.

5.2 Lack of Infrastructural Facilities

Lack of infrastructural facilities such as water, road network, incessant electricity, waste disposal facilities and sewers is a problem in rural areas (Dedehouanou *et al.*, 2018). Lack of infrastructure can limit enterprises to operate effectively, therefore developed countries have infrastructure facilities that to enable enterprises to perform well (Fatoki, 2012). Lack of infrastructural facilities in rural areas, delay the progress of enterprises. The dominance of unemployment, poverty and illiteracy exist in rural areas and a business is regarded as a solution to solve socio-economic issues (Makgamatha & Meso, 2018). Lack of infrastructural facilities in rural areas makes it difficult for consumers to access the enterprises to purchase products and services. A lack of road infrastructure also demotivates investors to start enterprises in rural areas. The road plays a crucial role in location for enterprises because the business cannot operate at a place whereby the customers will not be able to access the goods and services (Perkins, Fedderke & Luiz, 2005). Lack of proper roads makes the transport expensive and that force the enterprises to reduce their prices and

that affect the profits of a business. The power cuts also affect enterprises such as supermarkets, internet cafes, restaurants and retail stores. Enterprises that provide perishable products are mostly affected by power cuts, loss of stock and there is no compensation for that loss (Dedehouanou *et al.*, 2018). The interrupted electricity in rural areas affect the operation of enterprises and that discourage entrepreneurs to expand their enterprises with the fear of risking money and resources (Dedehouanou *et al.*, 2018).

5.3 Financial Sustainability

Lack of access to finance is a challenge that faces many enterprises because other enterprises have the potential to expand but due to lack of finances they become limited (Fatoki, 2012). In South Africa, there are financial agencies such as National Youth Development Agency, Small Enterprise Development Agency and Small Enterprise Finance Agency (Abor & Quartey, 2010). The financial institutions in South Africa are criticised for the long process and complicated documents. Lack of financial institutions in rural areas is a stumbling block for the progress of enterprises. Most of the government financial institutions exist in urban areas and townships; while rural areas are affected by poverty and unemployment (Abor & Quartey, 2010). An enterprise, require funding in order to operate smoothly and employ the local people which will increase their purchasing power to afford basic needs and wants (Singh, 2016).

6. The Contribution of Entrepreneurship Education in Empowering Enterprises in Rural Areas

Entrepreneurship education has grown over the past years in a sense that is now accommodating every individual who want to start a business or already has a business despite the complexity or the size of the business (Gamede & Uleanya, 2018). History shows that entrepreneurship education was only focusing on entrepreneurs who owned and managed small businesses and had little or no formal education. People with higher levels of education and even those at the developing regions begin to value entrepreneurship education (Galvão *et al.*, 2018). In promoting the entrepreneurship education, the idea that the form of entrepreneurial education needed by individuals or organisations will differ based on their context (Chimucheka,

2014; Galvão *et al.*, 2018). This shows the level of significance in acquiring entrepreneurship education for the sake of creating a solid business that will be economically competitive (Kritikos, 2014; Grecu & Denes, 2017). South Africa, despite being a developing country, it has one of the highest economic statuses in Africa and compared to a few other countries across the globe (Kritikos, 2014; Gamede & Uleanya, 2018). It is unfortunate to notice a slow economic growth due to certain constraints faced by small businesses, especially in rural areas where their businesses are faced with multiple challenges. Those challenges include lack sufficient managerial skills to effectively manage new ventures and also the lack of sufficient entrepreneurial practices that can help improve the economic status in the communities.

The entrepreneurship education enlightens the entrepreneurs to be innovative and move with the current trends. The entrepreneurship educations can transfer skills such as marketing, technical, planning and management, financial, communication and other skills (Packard, 2017). The marketing skills can assist the entrepreneurs to know the interests of their target and provide the expected goods and services to satisfy the customers. Most enterprises in rural areas, due to lack of market research, they tend not to know what the customers want and the businesses end up performing poor. Technical skills are crucial for enterprises such as commercial farming (Méndez-Barrimentos, Kemerink, Wester & Molle, 2018). People in rural areas depend mostly on agriculture for employment and if employers have technical, skills can transfer the skills to employees to increase the production of goods and services (Glover & Jones, 2019). The aim of a business is to make profit and the entrepreneurs need to know on how to plan and manage the business. The entrepreneurship education can assist the employers with the management skills to ensure that they identify the needs of the business, draft objectives, identify constraints, and draft competitive strategies and plan on how to mobilise the resources (Malebana & Swanepoel, 2015).

A lack of financial and accounting skills in the enterprises is a major contributor to their poor performance (Burton *et al.*, 2006). Enterprises should have records of the money that comes in and that comes out of the business. In some incident, the managers tend to use the business money for personal use without even recording it in the account

ledger of which will means the money that is supposed to expand the business is used for personal use (Packard, 2017). In terms of communication, the employers should have the literacy skills such as writing, reading and computer literacy. The level of education amongst entrepreneurs are not the same, others have tertiary qualifications, colleges, secondary and primary education. The entrepreneurial education can impact skills such as computers training to ensure that entrepreneurs are able to communicate with other entrepreneurs (Nabi, 2017). The employers also need to communicate with suppliers through emails for formalities instead of using the telephone. Entrepreneurship education can contribute to the employers by ensuring that they employ management marketing skills (Packard, 2017).

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study used qualitative research design to collect data from journals, government documents and the results has shown that; there is a need for entrepreneurship education in rural areas for the emerging entrepreneurs as well as for the businesses that already exist despite their size or level of complexity. This endeavour will assist in helping the new and existing ventures to grow efficiently and become sustainable. Individuals need to acquire certain skills that are necessary for managing and sustaining a business. These skills should focus on cognitive skills, social and relational skills, technical skills and management skills. The promotion of entrepreneurship education in rural areas should be promoted not only for learners or students in schools but also for community members who are entrepreneurs or those who desire to be entrepreneurs. This will require different influential actors to be involved to ensure that entrepreneurship skills are transferred to the rural people. The actors should include the government that will play a role in initiating and influencing policies that encourage and support entrepreneurship; big companies should be able to transfer skills and empowering others by providing support and allowing subordinates the opportunity to be creative and innovative.

These companies should not only be limited to assist their subordinates but also engage in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives to boost the struggling rural communities. The other actor that will play a significant role is educational institutions (schools and universities) that should start

introducing programmes that includes learning about entrepreneurship and developing the skills of students on how to start and manage a successful business. Such a program should be supported by the policy makers in writing and the local government such as municipalities and other government departments should be involved to ensure that the programme is funded. All these actors should engage in a collaborative effort and introduce campaigns that invite the rural entrepreneurs to come forward to learn more about entrepreneurship. Those in government can help enlighten the people about the opportunities and companies can show how they can assist, and educational institutions can invite the people to come learn about entrepreneurship. The local government can use local economic development coordinators to ensure that they monitor entrepreneurship education program to ensure it is effective.

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Equal Access to Health Information in Africa: A Dream or Reality?

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Abstract: Many governments in Africa are committed to equal access to health. This requires well-resourced health systems. People need health information even though many factors mar the attainment of the right to information as set out in various constitutions. People need information on prevention, care and treatment of various diseases and illnesses. With advances in information and communications technology access to health information has improved even though it is not for all. It has been noted that certain diseases affect the rich and the poor differently and that both do not access same health facilities. This divide indicates that there is poor quality health information due to the nature of health system. The rich have access to quality health information while the poor have no access or when it is available it is of poor quality. What is essential is for governments to provide equal access to the right health information, at the right time and in the right formats irrespective of social, economic and geographical status. People should be able to reach clinics and hospitals when they need information and alternatively access libraries. The conceptual framework for the study is based on Buckland's six aspects of access which serves as a barometer in terms of guaranteeing that all people are equally served. The paper used document analysis by referring to health sources such as books, magazines, journals and health reports emanating from various health stakeholders. The results of this paper show that poor people in rural areas do not have equal access to health information due to social and economic factors. The study also revealed that many governments are struggling to provide equal access to health information for all citizens. The paper concludes by suggesting how equal access to health information may be improved.

Keywords: Access, Health facilities, Health information, Unequal health facilities, Health systems

1. Introduction

The need for health information can be traced back from ancient information societies. History shows how ancient nomadic people needed health information for prevention, care and cure of diseases. Information is used everywhere on daily basis (Savolainen, 2000). Information use may be considered as the effects which information has on individuals and what it does to the person and his/her problem or situation (Kari, 2007). Information which a user has to access has to address physical and psychological ailments. Denial of access to information marginalizes people's participation in the modern information era (Lor & Britz, 2007). Miescher & Henrichsen (2004:163) traces African history of health provision by relating how among the activities of the Christian missionary societies since 19th century a high value was also placed on 'health and 'hygiene'. The European missionary societies were pioneers in introducing modern medicines to Africa, and played an essential role in the establishment of health systems. After independence, many African countries gave high political priority to the setting up of fair national health systems (Miescher

& Henrichsen, 2004:163). Various UN institutions as well as private relief organisations and charities played an important role of this process and continue to do so. In the midst of that attempts were made to suppress use of traditional medicines; however, there are still a lot of people who are continuing to consult traditional healers (Chavunduka, 1999).

Health systems in various countries comprise hospitals, clinics where health information is accessed through channels such as radio, television and social media.

It is essential that African health centres make accessible quality health information irrespective of their social status. The South African government (2000) passed the Promotion of Access to Information Act ("PAIA"), No 2 of 2000 gives effect to the constitutional right of access to any information held by the State and any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights. Information is an essential resource for personal development but spread of the information revolution has moved slowly in some African countries. Stakeholders such

as government, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), research bodies, institutions of higher learning recognise health information as an important resource or asset and for it to be useful, it must be available, accessible, usable, and absorbed by the recipients of the information (Wagacha, 2007). While there has been a great deal of research on health systems in Africa, the literature still suffers gaps of addressing marginalised groups who fail to access health information. If health information is not accessible it equates to a failure of an individual to efficiently and effectively improve his quality of life. The objectives of this paper are to explain what equal access to health information encompasses in order to be beneficial even to the marginalised groups, outline the marginalised groups and conditions which makes it impossible for them to access health information, identify ICT tools that may be used to enhance access to access to health information beyond physically visiting the library, recognise best practices to ensure equitable access to health information and to show how libraries play an alternative role to enhance access to health information.

2. Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

From the reviewed health literature, it is clear that health information needs to be accessible to all people living in a particular country. There are many definitions of what access to health information means. Accessibility of health care comprises the following factors, namely availability, financial accessibility, geographic accessibility and acceptability (Peters, Garg, Bloom, Walker, Brieger & Rahman, 2008:161).

Since people have to access health information it is imperative for this paper to adopt the concept of access as used by Buckland (1991:78) who identified the following six aspects of access to information. These six aspects were used by Dikotla (2008) in his research study on "Assessment of information delivery systems used for dissemination of HIV/AIDS information by selected clinics as Ga-Molepo, Capricorn district in the Limpopo Province".

The six aspects are as follows:

- **Identification:** This means that users should identify a suitable source. Identification of a source includes two-stage process. The first stage

includes deciding where to look for a source while the second stage involves identifying a specific source.

- **Availability:** The identified source should be physically accessible to the user. Technology may be used to enhance accessibility of the source. If the identified source cannot be located and made physically available, then another source needs to be identified again and made available.
- **Price to the User:** Price refers to costs that the user must incur for using the service. The costs may be in a form of money, time, effort and discomfort of acquiring the source. Effort relates to a client-patient who struggles to locate information. Discomfort relates to the health worker helping the client-patient to ask a well phrased question. The health worker has to make sure that the information given to the client-patient matches the client-patient's query.
- **Cost to the Provider:** The term cost refers to costs incurred by the providers of service. This involves money and effort borne by public health facility as health service providers.
- **Cognitive Access:** After physical access to a relevant source has been achieved, subsequent condition for successful access is the user's expertise to understand it. In case the user does not understand the source, explanation and education will be required.
- **Acceptability:** There are two related issues involved in acceptability. The first issue is that the user may be reluctant to accept the identified source as credible and reliable. The second issue, the users may not accept the evidence of the source because it is unwelcome in what it signifies and conflicts with other beliefs, a matter of cognitive. For example, a user may understand a source but not accept its validity; such user can hardly be informed by that source. This suggests that credibility as a criterion for becoming informed can be questioned.

Latest definition of access to information by Lor and Britz (2007:390) is that information that is available should also be affordable, accessible, timely, relevant, readily assimilated, and in languages and contexts users can relate to and understand. But this paper focuses on Buckland's definition of access.

2.1 Health Information Sources

One cannot doubt that the first prerequisite is well-established health systems to provide health information sources needed by patients and general public. Health practitioners are key sources for packaging health information hence many health clinics hold free health talks. They are also expected to match the query by information seeker with relevant, accurate, comprehensive and complete information. If a user needs information on listeriosis, the health practitioner should not give information on stomach cramps.

Another challenge with sharing health information in many African countries is shortage of health professionals despite having the highest burden of disease. A clear example is that within sub-Saharan African countries, it is widely known that rural communities are the most socio-economically deprived, have the greatest health needs and the poorest access to healthcare (In On AFRICA IOA, 2012). Issue of not having enough health practitioners could be caused by brain drain, health professionals not willing to work in rural areas and challenges to war-torn regions where there is threat to their lives. In terms of addressing brain drain in sub-Saharan Africa, many governments have agreements with Cuba to recruit their doctors. Ghana, for example, employs over 200 Cuban doctors on two-year contracts and these doctors serve some of the most remote areas in the country. In case of remote areas the Senegalese Government is currently developing policy to encourage health professionals to remain in areas defined as 'difficult' (Honda, Krucien, Ryan, Diouf, Salla, Nagai & Fujita, 2019). South Africa has introduced Rural Allowance in 2004 and nurses of salaries in Ghana are already high by regional standards, however dissatisfaction by certain sectors were recorded (Kulansa, Dzodzomenyo, Mutumba, Asabir, Koomson, Gyakobo, Agyei-Baffour, Kruk & Snow, 2012; Dithopo, Blaauw, Bidwell & Thomas, 2011).

2.1.1 Health Practitioners as Sources of Health Information

The existing health care problems in many parts of African countries are exacerbated by the attitudes of healthcare workers. As a result many patients are faced with unwelcoming healthcare workers who do very little to make patients feel welcome, fuelling levels of patient dissatisfaction (Williams, Baker, Honig, Lee & Nowlan, 1998). A study by Dikotla (2008:80) established that nurses working

at Limpopo clinics, in South Africa are not satisfied about the number of people who visit the clinics on a daily basis to access HIV/AIDS information. Failure to visit clinics was based on patients' attitude towards their health status not being protected. In a study conducted in Uganda, it was discovered that patients had a negative attitude towards seeking healthcare in public facilities because health workers tend to turn away poor women who cannot afford soap, clothes and simple gloves (Kiguli, Ekirap-Kiracho, Okui, Mutebi, Macgregor & Pariyo, 2007). This form of discrimination prevails in spite of constitutions of many African countries (such as South Africa, 1996, Angola; 2010; Kenya, 2010; Morocco, 2011; Zimbabwe, 2013 and Egypt, 2014) making provisions to protect the rights of its patients and discourage any form of discrimination (Shyllon, 2016:76).

2.1.2 Alternative Health Information Sources

From the literature reviewed how little has been the about the role of the public libraries in packaging and providing health information at no-cost and in multiple languages. But, in most African countries public libraries are not easily accessible and where they are accessible they are underutilized due to poor reading culture among the communities. In South Africa many public libraries through community engagement projects, visits the local clinics to provide patients with health information which includes information on diabetes and how to manage it. They also target learners in various schools to raise awareness about issues such as HIV/AIDS, TB, Malaria teenage pregnancy, etc. They also target children and teenagers health information is disseminated through story telling. Lastly, the libraries provide health information through what is called "Do It Yourself" (DIY) programme whereby the marginalized groups such as the unemployed, home based care patients and orphans are loaned some books, watch videos and other sources of information that empower them to manage their health conditions on their own.

In an attempt to match the health information needs of those who rely on traditional health information system, South Africa signed the Traditional Health Practitioner's Act (THPA) of 2007 into law in February 2008 (Nxumalo, Alaba, Harris, Chersich & Gouche, 2011:124). The aim of the act is to "serve and protect the interests of members of the public who visit traditional health practitioners," thus suggesting that South Africa use two parallel health-care systems.

2.1.3 Credibility of Information Sources

Generally, information sources should always be credible. This includes health information. So, it is important for end users to know or have the ability to determine whether information source is credible or not. There are criteria that may be used to determine the credibility of health information. According to Anderson, (2019) such criteria include the following:

Authority - this criterion determines whether or not the author or agency that created the information has the credentials, academic background or experience to write authoritatively about the topic. Essentially this criterion evaluates if author have a degree related to the topic they addressing. In terms of the agencies, the criterion checks if the agency has a good reputation in the field they are addressing.

Bias - this criterion checks if there is a reason to believe that the information provided by the author or agency is slanted or designed to persuade the reader by presenting part of the whole story. Therefore, health information sources should provide objective information.

Currency - In terms of currency, the information provided by the source should be current. The date matter because information in some areas and disciplines changes all the time or needs to be up-to-date.

Indicators of quality - This criterion looks whether or not the claims made by the source are backed up with documented and cited sources. Most importantly, the cited sources should be of high quality and really cover what they are supposed to.

2.2 Technological Divide Impact Access to Health Information

In rich countries with advanced telecommunication systems, telehealth is reported to have gained acceptance as a quick, easy method of offering timely healthcare, "particularly for preventive, public health, and chronic care (Peters & Gupta, n.d.; Janz, Champion & Strecher, 2006). In cases where people cannot physically visit the health ICT is an answer. Some of the standard e-health systems include e-prescribing and tele-healthcare systems, whereby patients can manage their own healthcare from the home environment and order repeat prescriptions online. The use of technology

improves HIV test turnaround time and speed transfer of test results to health facilities (Glanz, Lewis & Rime, 2006). In Lesotho, for instance the Elizabeth Glaser Paediatric Aids Foundation (EGPAF) cut down the average HIV test result turnaround time from 12 weeks to 4 weeks (In On Africa IOA, 2012). Similarly, the South African National Department of Health (2014) initiated MomConnect system to support maternal health. The objectives of this initiative are the following:

- To introduce a mechanism for registering electronically all pregnancies in the public health system as early as possible,
- To send targeted health promotion messages to pregnant women to improve their health and that of their infants,
- To provide pregnant women with an interactive mechanism to feedback on the service they have received.

Momconnect use cell phone based technologies integrated into maternal and child health services. Its use is voluntary and free of charge. The messages are available in all 11 official languages. According to Department of Health - South Africa (2019), MomConnect use social media for interaction and information sharing without geographical boundaries and with little or no limitation (Mgudlwa & Iyamu, 2017).

Many social media tools are available for health care professionals (HCPs), including social networking platforms, blogs, microblogs, wikis, media-sharing sites, and virtual reality and gaming environments (Peck, 2014) These tools can be used to improve or enhance professional networking and education, organizational promotion, patient care, patient education, and public health programmes. However, they also present potential risks to patients and HCPs regarding the distribution of poor-quality information, damage to professional image, breaches of patient privacy, violation of personal-professional boundaries, and licensing or legal issues (Chretien & Kind, 2013 as cited in Ventola, 2014).

Although electronic gadgets such as radios also use batteries and are used widely even in remote villages for information, the electricity is a factor which indirectly impacts access to health information. According to Lloyd, Cowan & Mohlakoana, (2004) the vast majority of African households do function

with electricity. Therefore, a simple task of charging a cell phone is no simple matter in rural farming villages far from an electric grid. People walk miles to the nearest town with electricity, drop off their cell phone at a store that recharges phones at a fee and may wait up to three days since demand is so high. Charging a cell phone is costly for most Africans living in rural villages considering that people have to walk long distances and pay for recharging their cell phones (Chic African Culture, 2016).

2.3 Notable Factors for Accessing Health Information

There are factors which should exist in order to access information as indicated by Buckland and others. First factor is the price which is not in monetary terms. Smith (1976) as cited in Buckland (1991) refers to the price as the toil and trouble of acquiring a source. Culnan (1985) also cited in Buckland (1991) considers price to include the effort of learning how to use difficult or user-unfriendly systems. The price, as, must be acceptable to the inquirer. If, the price is not acceptable to a user it becomes a barrier to access to health information.

When considering effort and discomfort expectation are that when soliciting sensitive health information which could be sensitive health practitioners should be accommodating. Some cultural factors may prohibit access to health information. According to Schoeps, Gabrysch, Niamba, Sié and Becher (2011:492), women, may consider male health professionals to be unacceptable for certain issues, and vice versa. Obermeyer (1999:153) adds that within certain cultures, the use of biological or factual names for reproductive organs is sometimes prohibited or regarded as a taboo.

2.4 Health Providers Bearing Costs

Many public health providers provide free services to the poor, of which it may not be a case in some of the poorest countries. In such cases unequal health information is realised. In this case, in the dissemination of pamphlets about cholera, malaria, etc., the government use state resources. The pamphlets would be written in various languages which are spoken and understood by people living in those regions.

2.4.1 Distance from the Health Facilities

Costs cannot be removed from travel distance to access health information. According to Kofi and

Ashanti (2017), travel cost is measured in units of Euclidean or straight line or walking distance along a road or transportation medium. This measure is a suitable accessibility measure for rural areas since the choice of service providers are limited and the one very close to the user is the most likely to be used and not ideal for urban areas. This measure considers all the potential options available to the patient making this measure a bad indicator of availability. Travel impedance combines all the effects of travel and availability (Kofi and Ashanti, 2017). So long as a person pays transport, spends more time travelling a long distance to access health information, this health information is inaccessible.

Like in many rural areas in Africa, for example in Zimbabwe there is no transportation, no roads leading to the nearest health facility. In areas where roads are available, they are impassable (Agere, 1990:33). In Ghana, on average, a patient in the district travels a minimum of 6.62km and a maximum of 21.20km to access health care. And the majority of the roads in Niger are non-paved (90%) (Blandford, Kumar, Luo & MacEachren, 2012). Also 26.39% of the district population were residing beyond the 8km service area criteria. This shows how travel distance to access health care in sub-Saharan Africa need to improve health-care access in order to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. In South Africa the norms and standards of primary health service outline that citizens should not travel more than five (5) km before accessing a health services (Mahlo, 2007 cited in Dikotla, 2008).

In South Africa a household survey combined with a geographic information system analysis in the Hlabisa sub-district of KwaZulu-Natal found that households within 30 minutes of a clinic were 10 times more likely to make use of a clinic than households having to travel for 90-120 minutes to a clinic. Categories of marginalised people who due to geographic location, type of work or physical ability have more serious challenges of accessing health information. They are described in the following ways:

- People with disability who live in the rural areas are also victims of long distances to healthcare. Restricted movement coupled with slow, erratic or non-existent public transportation systems complicates access for many disabled people. Hardware and software are available to all groups with different disabilities.

- » Visually impaired groups who cannot access information due to the format used. According to Adetoro (2010) information can only become usable to persons with visual when they are transcribed into alternative formats. This means that information could be available but not accessible because of the manner in which it has been packaged.
- Herd boys who spend long time tending animals away from home, with the nearest hospital or health centre being a minimum of 50 kilometres away - on foot or on horseback (In on Africa IOA, 2012). Similarly at risk are long distance truck drivers who spend much of their time on the road and hardly have time for regular medical check-ups (Solomon, Doucette, Garland & McGinn, 2004).
- Lesbian, Gays, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer (LGBTQ) also have health information needs but many countries still discriminate them due to laws relating to their sexual orientation. News24 (2019) reported that more than half of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa have anti-homosexuality laws, although others have moved toward legal tolerance. Twenty-eight out of 49 countries have laws penalising same-sex relationships. Many countries such as Angola, Chad, Gabon, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria and Tanzania are not accepting lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBTQ) and in varying ways impose penal codes such as jailing, fining, criminalising sodomy, conservative groups campaigning against sexual education maintaining it promotes homosexuality and refusal to employ or provide services to someone on the grounds of their sexual orientation. Countries such as Botswana, Lesotho are making little headway in addressing LGBTQ status. In 2006, South Africa became the sole African nation to allow gay marriages and this brought some challenges to the country. For instance, the country has become a haven for African homosexuals who flee persecutions from their country of origin.

Muller (2017), conducted a qualitative study whereby some homosexuals were interviewed on access to health care none of the participants had received health information targeted at people identifying as LGBT at a public health facility. One Coloured gay man from South Africa, Cape Town was quoted as saying:

"When I discovered that I was gay it's difficult to get information; because even at the clinics you find pamphlets about TB, about HIV and AIDS and even in the pamphlets themselves, because I remember - I had all of them - for me it was the curiosity that if there is anything mentioned about male to male sex? Nothing at all."

- Many unauthorised immigrants all over Africa, who in some countries are taken to be burdens to host countries and probably having no access to health information.
- To many street kids, mental patients roaming the streets, drug addicts due to use of various substances all so oblivious to their need of health information and bettering their lives.

2.5 Understanding Health Information

Many people in Africa speak a language other than those of former colonisers at home whereas medical officers utilise foreign languages and medical vocabulary which had no correlate in several of the vernaculars spoken in the communities. In a situation where, for instance, an uneducated patient requests health information, communication becomes difficult because patients do not like admitting that they do not understand a certain word (Treas & Wilkinson, 2014:328).

Another issue is "information dumping" on patients and families when they visit clinicians for a follow-up or something more serious (Viable Synergy, 2018). The information is not packaged in such a way that it is easy to understand and manage.

For patients who cannot read, their ability to listen and understand health information is important. According to Ventura and Piña (2018), "the degree to which individuals can obtain, process, and understand the basic health information and services they need to make appropriate health decisions is called health literacy." On the other hand health illiteracy hinders effective patient engagement with health practitioners.

Halperin, Mugurungi and Hallett (2011) agree that low-literacy patients ask fewer questions about their medical care, and this may affect their ability to learn about their medical conditions and treatments.

The results of the study conducted by Menendez, van Hoorn, Mackert, Donovan, Chen and Ring (2016),

produced several noteworthy findings. The study found that low-literacy patients' bids for repetition frequently take the form of short questions which indicate lack of understanding, such as, "My what?" or "Who?" These types of questions do not appear to facilitate the communication of new or meaningful information. Additionally, the questions asked by low-literacy patients often concern basic procedural issues rather than an attempt to seek new medical information, for example, "Where do I get my blood drawn at?" or "Could I come back tomorrow and give the urine test?" Furthermore, the study established that, Patients with higher literacy levels raised other concerns related to self-management of medical conditions, specifically questions related to lifestyle issues (e.g., "You can eat them when you're a diabetic?" or "At this point, what would be more important, the diet or the exercise?" or "If I'm not sexually active, I still have to take it?")(Katz, Jacobson, Veledar & Kripalani, 2007).

The other group involves those with hidden illiteracy. According to Applied Scholastics international, (2019) the illiterate can be very dangerous and destructive because of his or her type of illiteracy, i.e. hidden illiteracy. The hidden illiterates are ignorant of their own illiteracy. This is because their illiteracy is hidden from themselves. And, because it has never been identified, it is hidden from others as well. In essence, hidden illiterates are ignorant of their ignorance; they do not know that they do not know. As Applied Scholastics international, (2019) put it they do not fully comprehend the information and ideas being received, studied, or applied and are not aware they do not understand. In most cases, their actions, feelings and beliefs are founded on their unknown wrong suppositions, ideas and understandings. The problems and results of being a hidden illiterate can range from humorous to disastrous (Applied Scholastics international, 2019).

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is clear from the results that, in many rural areas, access to health information is affected by many factors as presented in this study. Failure to provide access to health information is regarded as denying people a basic right to health. The findings of this desktop study suggest a need for learning best practices from each other may help to bridge the unequal access to health information. Governments need to deal with the issue of electricity and access to telecommunications because they indirectly

affect access to health information. In spite of many countries having constitutions that promote access to information, there are marginalised groups that still do not have adequate and equal access to health information. The marginalised groups include homosexuals, street kids, mental patients roaming the streets, drug addicts and poor rural dwellers. Therefore, laws and practices discriminating against others need to be addressed.

Due to low-literacy levels, it is advisable that instead of healthcare professionals assuming that patients understand what they are told, they may take "universal precautions" by assuming that patients do not understand unless proved otherwise (Menendez, van Hoorn, Mackert, Donovan, Chen & Ring, 2016). In this modern era, it is imperative to vigorously involve patients with limited health literacy in the decision-making process by encouraging them to ask questions mainly in practice settings where most sensitive decisions are taken. According to Gathoni (2012), it is important to ensure that information is packaged in a right format. Therefore, it is recommended that health workers should ensure that information is packaged in such a way that it is easy to understand and manage, thus ensuring accessibility of health information to the target audience.

Owing to the underdevelopment of indigenous languages and translating or writing medical books face a serious shortage of words in the vernacular languages, government should assist in training health workers to learn vernacular languages. Health workers who know vernacular languages will be in a better position to package and disseminate health information to the target audience, thus enhancing an equal access of health information for everyone.

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Enhancing Local Economic Development Through Effective Leadership and Service Delivery in South African Municipalities

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Abstract: This paper focuses on how effective leadership and service delivery could be utilised to enhance Local Economic Development (LED) in municipalities. LED is considered as a panacea to the triple challenges (unemployment, poverty and inequality) in South African municipalities. As the primary purpose of LED is to build and strengthen the economic capacity of local communities in order to improve the economic future and the quality of life of all citizens. Municipalities are mandated to provide municipal services in order to create conducive environments for economic and social development of its citizens. A lack of effective leadership within municipalities has been a notable challenge for LED. However, this paper concludes that effective leadership of ward councillors and service delivery would be a key to the success of LED. This paper is exploratory and descriptive in design and relied on extensive literature review.

Keywords: Local economic development, Leadership, Service delivery, State-business relation

1. Introduction

South Africa is celebrating 25 years of democracy in 2019. However, there are still many socio-economic development problems to be tackled in municipalities (Kanyane, 2008:698). According to Abraham (2003:185), municipalities are confronted with the challenge of developing sustainable settlements that will better meet the basic needs of local communities and its residents. The South African government has, over the years, sought to reduce racial and spatial inequalities by giving priority to the development of the previously marginalised areas, which are considered to be residential areas to the majority of rural communities (Zulu & Mubangizi, 2014:424). In response to the socio-economic challenges faced by communities, the South African government has introduced Local Economic Development (LED). Globally, Strydom (2016:73) argues that LED has increasingly emerged as a crucial policy imperative for local communities. Hofisi, Mbeba, Maredza and Choga (2013:591) noted that the emergence of LED is explained by various government policies. However, the implementation and success of LED has also not been championed by rural municipalities. This is reflected by the ever-increasing unemployment and poverty rates as well as low economic development in rural areas. The paper seeks to explore the integration of effective leadership and service delivery to harness LED in

rural municipalities. As argued by Tsheola and Mokgokong (2012:379), public service provision is commonly viewed as a requirement for the success of LED, while Moyo (2007:226) added that "the central problem behind the unsuccessful impact of LED is essentially a problem of leadership". This paper, which is based on a review of the relevant literature, is organised as follows: the definition of LED, legislation governing LED in South Africa, service delivery and LED and the effective leadership and LED.

2. Defining Local Economic Development

It is of utmost importance to conceptualize and contextualize concepts as Paw (1999:11) avers that concepts are tools for thinking. International experience advocates that LED is a slippery concept and one, which is sometimes difficult to precisely define (D'Arcy & Guissani, 1996). In South Africa, LED has been interpreted in different ways resulting often in a considerable degree of policy confusion (Rogerson, 1997). LED has been defined in various ways by practitioners and scholars. Zaaijer and Sara (1993:129), Blakely (1994) and World Bank (2003) define LED as a process by which local communities and government or community-based organisations (CSOs) engage and work together to stimulate or maintain business activity. While from the Applied Fiscal Research Center in Koma (2012:128) perspective,

LED is a multi-dimensional and multi-sectoral process through which the skills, resources and ideas of local stakeholders are combined to stimulate local economies. The combination of skills, resources and ideas of local stakeholders aims to respond innovatively to changes in the national and global economic environment to attain as an end result, job creation, poverty alleviation and the redistribution of wealth. It worth nothing that LED is not a once off process as Patterson (2008) and Ruecker and Trah (2007:3) maintain that LED is continuous and an on-going process by which key stakeholders and institutions from all spheres of society work jointly to create a unique advantage for the locality and its firms, tackle market failures, remove bureaucratic obstacles for local businesses and strengthen the competitiveness of local firms.

Moreover, LED as an ongoing and continuous process requires resources that are services provided the municipality and leadership skills provided by LED agents to stimulate local economies in a quest to create employment opportunities and eradicate poverty. Kanyane (2008:700) concludes that the broader aim of the LED is to create employment opportunities for local communities while alleviating poverty and redistribute resources and opportunities to the benefit of all residents. It can, therefore, be deduced that LED is a partnership based process that requires the involvement of communities, municipalities and the private sector. In this partnership, communities are required to provide labour, skills and be consumers, on the other hand, businesses are required to provide employment opportunities while the municipalities play their facilitating, coordinating, developing, stimulating and enabling roles.

3. Legislative Framework Governing LED in the South African Context

Local municipalities in South Africa are guided through a number of policy frameworks to organise their administration and planning processes in order to provide basic services to improve the well-being of members of communities as well as local economies in an integrated, efficient, effective and sustainable manner (Maloka, Mashamaite & Ledwaba, 2014:218). The policy confusion issue noted by Rogerson (1997) is further supported by Mokoena (2017:468) when indicating that LED in South Africa lacks a piece of legislation dedicated to it which also caters for the environment which LED is performed in. However, Mokoena (2017:468)

posits that LED in South Africa is contained in, influenced by and derives its legitimacy from a number of legislative documents and policies. Moreover, the obligatory mandate for elevating LED by local municipalities was initially recognised by the 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, respectively. The White Paper on Local Government, 1998, introduced the notion of developmental local government (Rogerson, 2010), which is surmised as a local government committed to working with its citizens. For the purpose of this article, the following pieces of legislation are briefly described below:

3.1 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), 1994

As an integrated and coherent socio-economic policy, Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) attempts to mobilise the country's resources towards the final eradication of apartheid by building a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future for all South Africans (Phutiagae, 2007:135; Malefane & Mashakoe, 2008:476; Malefane, 2009:159; Maloka, 2013:45).

The RDP, in Section 4.3.5, denotes that in order to foster the growth of local economies, broadly representative institutions must be established to address local economic development needs. The central purpose of the institutions would be to formulate strategies to address job creation and community development. If necessary, the government must provide some subsidies as a catalyst for job creation programmes controlled by communities and workers, and target appropriate job creation and development programmes in the most neglected and impoverished areas of the country.

3.2 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

According to Malefane *et al.* (2008:5), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 is the most vital piece of legislation that guides various laws, policy papers and regulatory frameworks. It serves as a foundation for reference to the institutionalization of LED as a strategic function of municipalities. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 recognises the significance of local government in economic development through section 153 as it stipulates that:

"A municipality must structure and manage its administration, and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community."

While the Constitution (1996) places a great responsibility on municipalities to facilitate LED, the schedule in the Constitution that lists the functions of municipalities does not include LED. This has contributed to an interpretation that sees LED as an un-funded mandate for municipalities. Rather, there is a clear implication given the juxtaposition of the constitution and its schedule that municipalities have a key role in creating conducive environment for investment through provision of infrastructure and quality services, rather than by developing programmes and attempting to create jobs directly (Department Provincial and Local Government, 2006:9).

3.3 Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000)

Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 requires municipalities to comprehend that the idea of developmental local government, through the formulation and adoption of a single and inclusive Integrated Development Plan, contains local economic development objectives (Maloka, 2013:48; Kanyane, 2008:701). However, Phutiagae (2007:135); Malefane *et al.* (2008:477) and Malefane (2009:159) argue that the Act assigns municipalities the task of creating and promoting economic development and ushers in participatory mechanisms that allow for informal municipal decisions and strategies. Malefane *et al.* (2008:477) and Malefane (2009:159) further denote that the Act champions LED as a vehicle for addressing spatial inequalities that have been created by apartheid planning. The Act considers municipalities as part of the developmental mission linked to the overall approach to planning and public investment. The aim of the Act is:

"To provide for the core principles, mechanisms and processes which are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of local communities."

3.4 The White Paper on Local Government (1998)

The new developmental role of local government was further expressed in the White Paper on Local Government (1998) which indicates that the

responsibility of municipalities is to work together with local communities to find sustainable ways to meet their needs and improve their standard of living. In order for this to be realised, local authorities are expected to maximise social development and economic growth and ensure that local economic and social conditions are favourable for the creation of employment opportunities (Nel & Binns, 2003). In addition, local government is required to take a leadership role, involving citizens and stakeholders in the development process to build social capital and to generate a sense of common purpose in finding local solutions for sustainability. The White Paper further indicates that it is the responsibility of the private sector to create jobs and that government has the role to provide an enabling environment (Triegaardt, 2007:3).

3.5 National Framework for Local Economic Development (2006)

The National Framework for Local Economic Development provides a vision for creating "robust and inclusive local economies, exploiting local opportunities, real potential and competitive advantages, addressing local needs and contributing to national development objectives" (DPLG, 2006:17). The policy framework also identifies the characteristics of robust and inclusive economies. That is, the people; their leaders; the workforce; the assets; high quality of life experience; natural and built environment; functional partnerships; and income.

4. Local Economic Development and Service Delivery

Section 152 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, states that local government is the engine of basic service delivery. Local government is charged, among other things, with ensuring the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner, promoting social and economic development, and promoting a safe and healthy environment (RSA, 1996). Meanwhile, Section 73 of the Local Government: Municipal System's Act (No.32 of 2000) defines a basic municipal service as a municipal service that is necessary to ensure an acceptable and reasonable quality of life and, if not provided, would endanger public health, safety, or the environment. Municipal services include water supply, sewage collection, electricity supply, municipal health services, road and storm water drainage, street lighting and municipal parks and recreation. Although there is a lack of other services in rural communities.

Owusu-Ampomah and Hemson (2004) cited in Nkomo (2017:2) describe service delivery as playing a greater role in local government in South Africa and other developing countries than in developed countries. As a result of constitutional provisions and high poverty levels, they argue, service delivery in South Africa is seen as an instrument and social contract to create social inclusion and raise living standards of the poor majority previously excluded by the apartheid government. Municipalities are at the centre stage of service delivery and are being challenged to demonstrate their ability to execute both basic as well as enabling services crucial for social and economic growth and development (Thobejane, 2011:68). According to Tsheola *et al.* (2012:379), that public service provision is commonly viewed as a requirement for the success of LED.

Proper service delivery plays a pivotal role in improving the economic and social status of communities. Tsheola *et al.* (2012:381) indicate that for an LED to be a success, local development environment requires availability, functionality, access and utility of public services. Well maintained infrastructure, electricity and water can be the key to unlock the economic growth backlog in rural communities. As Abrahams (2003:192) argues that, the provision of infrastructural services (as other municipal services) is perceived as pivotal to promoting LED and is a crucial step for poverty eradication, since access to municipal services expands the asset base of the poor. It is worth noting that infrastructure development is a pillar for economic development, Ntonzima and Binza (2011:660) opine that improving the standard of services and maintaining of service excellence affords municipalities with the opportunity to be global competitive and their operations meet international service standards. This will in return attract global and local investments in rural municipalities. In order for LED to be a success, LED requires to be performed in conducive environments that allow for smooth production, employment, technology transfer and education.

Improved service delivery contributes to the effectiveness and sustainability of local businesses operated by local people under a particular municipality. Service delivery further enhance the local business environment, Alternburg and Stamm (2008) cited in Rogerson and Rogerson (2011:995) add that the enhancement of local business environment is a new focal point for LED activities and

centred on the provision of more favourable conditions for doing business by the local private sector. The provision of quality municipal services will strengthen the emerging local small medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) as Mokoena (2017:467) stresses that the SMME sector can be also recognised for attending to the triple challenges facing local communities. This then requires municipalities to provide services that will allow local residents to set up sustainable businesses which then will operate at lower cost to create employment and eradicate poverty.

5. Effective Leadership on Local Economic Development

Local development projects driven by local businesses and local people have more chance to succeed than those attempted by government without proper consultation with the locality (Meyer, 2014:631; Kamara, 2017:104). The success of local driven development project requires effective and development-oriented leadership. Walder (1999) cited in Khambule (2018:295) introduces the concept of political leadership which is required to be development-oriented. Development-oriented leadership is at the heart of rapid and sustainable development to further play a leading role in driving economic development opportunities and reforming institutions to be development-oriented. Moreover, these institutions are developmental local governments as highlighted in the White Paper on Local Government, 1998. Khambule (2018:295) further adds that development-oriented political leadership is entrusted with the task to create a positive interface between all the involved development role players. Of paramount importance is the effectiveness of these development-oriented leaders.

A lack of development-oriented and effective leadership has been fundamental challenge behind the inadequate success and impact of LED. There has been a need for another approach to address the underlying challenge of effective leadership for LED. As a result, Colton (1985:33) cited in Dhammika (2016:1) introduces the concept of visionary leadership which is defined as established goals and objectives for individual and group action, which define not what an organisation is but rather what an organisation seek to be or do. Visionary leadership is considered to have positive impact on follower outcomes, resulting in high trust in the leader, high

commitment to the leader, high levels of performance among followers, and high overall organizational performance (DuBrin, 1998). Moyo (2007:226) add that visionary leadership is responsible to the real needs of the local communities and ensures that local communities participate in designing of solutions of their own future. Visionary leadership in the context of this article is ward councillors.

According to Mfene and Taylor (2015:18) and Joseph (2002:25) cited in Mbandlwa (2018:23), ward councillors are tasked to play a leadership role in their communities and a duty to abide by the Municipal Code of Conduct for Councillors. Mfene *et al.* (2015:17) further add that ward councillors are political leaders whose duties include being involved in local governance, which, in the context of this study, is service delivery and LED. Raga and Taylor (2005:139) stress that municipal councillors now require a particular level of expertise and knowledge to enable them to perform their functions in the best interest of the communities they were elected to serve. It is significantly important for ward councillors to possess a particular level of skills and knowledge in order to drive a successful implementation LED.

As a partnership based process, LED requires ward councillors to be strategic when forming partnerships. This means that ward councillors must be able gather information regarding the economic opportunities of communities and that of the business sector. This is because Moyo (2007:226) denotes that part of the problem in the poor performance of LED is a lack of understanding of the concept of sustainable development and the notion of a local economy. Ward councillors as local leaders are expected to play a vital role in stimulating local economies. Local leaders through frequent engagement with communities, business sector and the municipality can drive successful LED projects. Herzburg and Wright (2005) cited in Rogerson *et al.* (2011:997) argue that improved state-business relations are anticipated to contribute to a bigger understanding of private sector needs by the government and correspondingly to a more efficient allocation of resources in the economy. However, this relation should not exclude the communities, as communities provide labour and consumers to local businesses and industries. For this relationship to be efficient, local leadership must be effective in a manner that they ensure a high level of cooperation between all involved role players.

Herzburg and Wright (2005) cited in Rogerson *et al.* (2011:998) identify two advantages of the stakeholder cooperation in LED: firstly, governments that listen to the private sector are more likely to design credible and workable reforms. Secondly, entrepreneurs who understand what a government is trying to do with a programme of reform are likely to be constructive and supportive. This then requires local ward councillors to understand the local environment needs, opportunities and competitive advantages so that the services provided can allow for the success of LED. Ingle (2014:482) concludes that to stimulate local economies, local authorities need not to do anything more purposive than simply to remove impediments to vigorous private sector economic activity within their jurisdictions.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The success of LED is vested on effective leadership as fundamental prerequisite for partnerships. On the other hand, service delivery plays an important role in improving the standard of living of all communities. It is for this background that the purpose of this article was to discuss the impact of effective leadership and service delivery on LED. As discussed in this article, effective leadership on a community level plays a crucial role in assessing economic advantages of local areas and provide the municipality with necessary recommendations in relations to what, how and where certain services should be channelled. Ward councillors as community leaders and municipal representatives are entrusted with the responsibility to organise communities in a manner that will allow for the success of economic development initiatives. However, the role of service delivery in this matter is also of utmost importance. However, limited provision of services limits the economic opportunities of a community. As this article, argues that proper provision of services such as infrastructure stimulates and improve the economic advantages of communities.

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Land Redistribution in Limpopo Province: A Case of Greater Letaba Municipality

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to show the challenges that the land redistribution programme in Limpopo Province is faced with. Furthermore, the paper tries to show whether the policy of land redistribution can be effective or not. In addition, it will be established whether the land redistribution might benefit the Previously Disadvantaged Individuals (PDIs) as the department's mandate. Blacks were dispossessed of land which disadvantaged them to access land for residential and agriculture. The paper used the qualitative approach with primary and secondary data together with literature. The data for this paper was collected through questionnaires and interviews. The sample for this paper was collected from land beneficiaries of Greater Letaba Municipal area, members of traditional councils, members of municipal council and government department officials for both Department of Agriculture and Department of Rural Development and Land Reform in the area. The paper revealed the need for coordination amongst the state departments to ensure maximum support of the land redistribution beneficiaries. The Department of Agriculture should support the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform with extension services. The paper concludes that the level of organisation within the land redistribution projects needed to be improved with some constantly experience conflicts amongst beneficiaries. This reflects the lack of organisational skills amongst project beneficiaries.

Keywords: Historical imbalances, Land redistribution, Land reform, Land dispossession, Landless, Previously disadvantaged communities

1. Introduction

South Africa has land ownership disparity that exists between Blacks and Whites. The disparity results from the dispossession of land from black South Africans by the Dutch and British settlers. This land was dispossessed at a large scale in South Africa than in African countries. The South African government, noting this disparity, initiated the redistribution of the land in an attempt to afford the people in need with agricultural land and confirmation of ownership, that is, tenure security (Van Der Walldt & Helmbold, 1995:179). The new democratic government in South Africa found it suitable to redistribute portions of land to the landless masses as necessary in redressing the inequalities of the past. It is argued by Land Bank that the thought for land redistribution and create a category of black smallholders assisted in avoiding both social and political instability and encourage rural development (Hall, 1998 cited in SA Labour Bulletin, 2004:36). When the government enacted the land laws, its intention was to redistribute land in order to benefit the PDIs. There is a need to investigate the government's progress on land redistribution. The number of hectares distributed to the PDIs and the number of beneficiaries assist to establish the progress. Land redistribution is a

part of the land reform programmes that the South African Government has come up with.

Land redistribution is defined as the land reform component that is meant to better the quality of live for previously disadvantaged individuals (PDIs) and communities by receiving both residential and commercial land for farming purposes. The mechanism for acquiring the land was to be market assisted with state subsidy through grants by the state to beneficiaries and demand-led, that is, applicants do initiate the projects and not the state. In addition, the community-based in groups would pool their efforts and resources to acquire the farms collectively (High Level Panel, Parliament of South Africa, 2017). In state of affair, there seems to be a problem on acquiring land. This paper investigates the challenges or obstacles the government is facing to acquire enough land for the PDIs. As a result of the challenges, the land redistribution programme could not significantly benefit the poor, either in qualitative or quantitative terms. It was noted that after 25 years of the democracy in South Africa, only a small quantity of land got transferred to the land redistribution beneficiaries. To this effect, Lahiff (2008:1) notes that the land redistribution programme has since its commencement, went through challenges. These challenges affected the

programme not to achieve its objectives of dealing with the historical imbalances, wealth redistribution and opportunities for communities.

Noting that the land redistribution programme has to date not delivered as expected since its inception 25 years ago, the government of the day intends to expropriate land without compensation. The intention was preceded by political parties' discussion before the 6th national parliament. The public participation consultative process was extensively conducted in 2018 to establish whether South Africans were for land expropriation without compensation or not. The report was tabled before the portfolio committee on land in parliament and it got a thumbs up. The report was further tabled in both Houses of Parliament during 2018 and they both resolved that the Constitution should be amended to allow for expropriation without compensation. Following the approval by the Houses of Parliament, the Draft Expropriation Bill of 2019 has been passed for further inputs and comments by the public (Government Gazette, 21 December 2018).

The problem is that blacks were dispossessed of land which disadvantaged them to access land for both residential and agriculture purposes. There has been debates and resolutions by the National Land Summit held in 2005 on the slow pace of the land reform programme and its inability to achieve the numerous objectives stated in the White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997). The land redistribution programme in South Africa and Limpopo Province, in particular, has come across many challenges, which Cousins (2009: 421) refers to having failed to overcome. This failure relates to the implementation of the land redistribution programme (Greenberg, 2010:4). The Black Land Act 27 of 1913 was introduced by the apartheid government to regulate land access by South African Blacks. This prohibition for Blacks to access land ensured that they could not participate in any form of agriculture and livestock for their own livelihood. Van Der Waldt and Helmboldt (1996:179) maintain that people of colour were the victims as they were left without land and poor without land for farming and residential purposes. In a way to address this issue, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform got mandate to provide the disadvantaged rural individuals in rural communities and the poverty stricken persons with land acquisition and land redistribution (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Annual Report, 2016:17). The research question to be

answered in this study are: How has the land redistribution benefited the Previously Disadvantaged Individuals (PDI's) in Greater Letaba Municipality (GLM), Is the policy effective about land redistribution and What are the challenges facing the land redistribution to the PDIs in GLM?

2. Literature Review

Market-Led Agrarian Reform (MLAR) also referred to as the willing-seller willing-buyer approach as opposed to redistributive land reform was adopted by the South African government (Fraser, 2006:301). The approach's success hinges on the market's willingness or property owners availing their land at a given price. In South Africa, land redistribution is viewed as a mechanism that can alter the patterns of holding land (Lahiff, 2002:44). This came out as a thought by the policy makers and its intention was to benefit the PDIs in the country. The new democratic government in South Africa introduced legislative measures to deliver the land reform programmes' important components. The Provision of Certain Land for Settlement Act, 126 of 1993 and the Development Facilitation Act, 67 of 1995 where the adopted Acts to deliver land redistribution programme. The Acts applied measures to accelerate development of land and assist the previously disadvantaged individuals and communities to acquire land for both residential and agricultural purposes (Cliffe, 2000:274).

South African land reform programme faced numerous issues to address, as Cousins (2009:421) maintains could not be overcome. The perceived failure was in accordance to the implementation of the land redistribution programme and the maximum support by the new owners to productively utilise the acquired land for enhancing their livelihoods (Greenberg, 2010:4). By 2014, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, has already distributed 24.6 million hectares of agricultural land to the previously disadvantaged individuals and communities (PDIs). The assertion means that the government should have distributed the average of 1.23 million hectares per annum in 20 years (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Strategic Plan, 2009-2012, 2009:16). In addition, Ghyoot (2008:180) asserts that in April 2006, Black people have acquired 4 million hectares, which was made of 3 million in redistribution and 1 million land restitution, respectively. This was perceived as a slow pace in view of the high cost of land that the willing-seller and the state had to accept (Greenberg, 2010:4). Other

**Table 1: Land Redistribution Output Between (2003-2010)
Land Redistribution to Various Beneficiaries**

Time frame	Envisaged Ha	Exact Output	% Output Against Year Target
2008-2009	660 000	240 000	<40
2007-2008	2.5m Later reduced to 608, 060	450 000	<70
2006-2007	2.5m	350 000	<20
2005-2006	2.5m 500 000	260 000	<20
2004-2005	110 000	200 000	<140
2003-2004	772 000	130 000	<20

Source: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Annual Reports (2005-2010)

challenges that were noted included the opposition that the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform encountered especially when valuable land for agriculture was available to be considered for land redistribution programme. The oppositions amongst others, AgriSA would delay the transfer process to the Previously Disadvantaged Individuals (PDIs). The challenges of land reform in South Africa were seen even by institutions of international stature such as The International Crisis Group (ICG) in (Department of Land Affairs, Land News, 2004) that warned of tensions over land issues. The institution called for speedy address to the question of unequal ownership of land to avoid the invasion of land and grabbing of land as was the case in Zimbabwe. The institution further raised argument that government, farmers and donors have capacity to address landlessness and mitigate the poverty by accelerating the land reform programme in the country (Department of Land Affairs, Land News, 2004:7). There were numerous observations reported of the challenges that land reform projects face. In some instances, 90% of the land reform programme projects suffered financial challenges which called for drastic recapitalisation. Other challenges identified by the then Minister of Land Affairs included:

- that the willing-seller willing-buyer principle should be changed as it resembles the inability of a purely market-driven model for acquisition land.
- that restrictions on managing land subdivision were complex, especially when dealing with large groups of beneficiaries.
- that rural areas be neglected there be an exclusive focus on urban areas which further impoverish the rural and agrarian economy (Report of the National Land Summit, 2005:34).

In the process of these constraints, the land reform beneficiaries experienced frustration. Lahiff (2005:3) notes the landless' frustration as a result of the willing-seller willing-buyer model. The model required the landless to identify the available land for sale and enter into negotiations with the land owner. That came as an identified weakness of the policy with its regulatory framework that called for it to be reassessed. Similar observations were made by Hall (2004 in May & Lahiff, 2007:286) who opined that less than 45 white-owned farms were being transferred to Black people. There was observation which resulted in great dissatisfaction and an outburst of popular anger.

Table 1 shows a bit of struggle from 2005 to 2010 of the Department's actual performance. In 2005 the Department achieved land transfer target of 120 128 ha when it was given the annual target of 72 687 ha of land which was better. However, in 2010, an achievement of 239 990 ha of land when it was given the targeted of 659 000 ha cannot be accepted. This achievement gave the department 37% performance against the annual target. These figures are an indication of the programme that has challenges to meet its objectives. Would this be capable of benefiting the PDIs who are in desperate need for land?

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform allocated the Land Reform Programme R2.7 million for the 2016/17 financial year. In addition, it planned to increase the amount to R4.6 billion during the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) for use to acquire 1.14 million hectares of strategically located land and create 1 107 profitable and productive farms. These were budgeted under Land Reform's sub-programme called Agricultural Land Holding Account. As of 2014/15

Table 2: Programme 5: Land Reform

Strategic Objective Indicator	Departmental target plan	Performance (Audited/Actual)			Performance Estimation
		2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015	2015-2016
Figure showing Ha obtained through equal redistribution of land	Approximately 1.8m	Approximately 160 000	Approximately 160 000	Approximately 360 000	Approximately 76 000
Number of support interventions provided to farmers through Recapitalisation and development Programme	8 624	621	1 704	657	1 325

Source: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Annual Performance Plan (2016/17)

Table 3: Land Reform: 5th Program

Purpose	KPI	Baseline 2015	Output versus Estimate		Why Variation?
			Estimate (2016)	Exact (2016)	
Promote equitable Land redistribution and agricultural development by acquiring located land by 2020	Required Ha	354 802ha	370 000ha	242 556 ha	Reorganisation of budget to Strengthening the Relative Rights (SRR)
	Total Ha for emerging farmers	Measure	185 000ha	247 385ha	Much funds provided for emerging farmers
	No. of Ha reserved for labourers and farm tenants	Measure	37 000ha	3 910ha	Small Hectares got reserved for land redistribution beneficiaries

Source: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Annual Report (2016:31)

the Agricultural Land Holding Account acquired 665 944 hectares of land with 895 farms under Recapitalisation and Development Programme and this cost the department R1.9 billion (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Annual Performance Plan, 2016/17:36)

The figures displayed in Table 2 show how difficult it is for the department to acquire as much land as possible. When one looks at the target of 1.8 million hectares which is the strategic plan target versus 76 000 hectares estimated for achievement in 2016/17, it become challenges that are faced by department to ensure land redistribution beneficiaries get land.

Table 3 above shows how the department battles in reaching its estimates. This is evidenced when the department sets a target of 37 000 ha to allocate to farm dwellers and labour tenants but only managed

to allocate 3 910. This is a huge difference that suggests the challenges that the department faces. It should also be noted that these figures account for the whole of South Africa as a country that suffered the injustices of the apartheid government through the Black Land Act 27 of 1913. The targets achievement remains a challenge when one looks at the table, except for the hectares that were allocated to small household farmers which exceeded the set target i.e. 185 000 ha (set target) to 247 385 ha (actual achievement) in 2016. However, even when the 2016 target was exceeded, there was a decline from what the department actually achieved in 2014/15 (354 802 ha actual output). This raises the question as to whether land redistribution really benefits the PDIs at this pace. The land issue is currently taking the centre stage in South Africa when the economic transformation subcommittee in government took time to look inward at the reasons

for the African National Congress's poor performance on land reform. The Committee's Chair Mr Godongwana, argued against the land expropriation with no compensation saying this shows lack of political will and not the Constitution which stand as a barrier or obstacle to effective land reform (Mail & Guardian, 17 to 23 March 2017:12). This came when some people started to call for radical economic transformation (RET) and contemplating that this could best be achieved through the expropriation of land without compensation. These are indeed reflections of whether the current policy remains effective to achieve land redistribution objectives as set by the responsible department.

Land redistribution projects indeed experienced challenges as reflected in the report by the High Level Panel. Some of the Panel's findings were that 1/3 of projects in the North West Province account for many project members who are no longer participating in the projects and had in principle left the projects. In some instances, 55% of projects had no implement for production. There are some projects about a quarter that had not produced anything since awarded. The report found issues pertaining to the relevancy of business plans that were used to approve the project. It is maintained that these business plans were widely ignored after the projects were approved and handed to the beneficiaries (High Level Panel, Parliament of South Africa, 2017).

3. Methods and Materials

This paper adopted a qualitative research and considered both primary and secondary data. In addition, books, journals, reports, policies, legislation from government, and articles obtained from newspapers got consideration. Examination of literature helped to establish the land redistribution programme that succeeded at the international level. Questionnaires and interviews helped in collecting data to ensure the paper becomes intensive and comprehensive to ensure credibility and trustworthiness of the results. Questionnaires were used to measure how land redistribution impacted on the livelihoods of the beneficiaries. Interviews were also used to help the researcher to get the truth (Alvesson & Karreman, 2011:99) because it was easier for the respondents to state their challenges to the researcher. The sample size was divided into four (4) categories and 30% was selected from each of the categories. Those categories were Council members of the municipality who deal with Land

issues, Traditional Authorities, Land Reform beneficiaries from four (4) Land Reform projects in the GLM and officials of government working in the Agriculture Department as personnel that deals with agricultural issues including those in District offices of Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

4. Results and Discussion

The study probed the PDI's benefit from land redistribution, effectiveness of land redistribution, role of legislative frameworks, improving people's livelihood, support by agricultural extension officers, motivation by community members to participate as well as access to information regarding land. Results are presented as follow:

4.1 PDIs Benefit from Land Redistribution

2/3 claimed to have acquired farming skills. 59% argue that land redistribution reduced unemployment, though still a challenge. 3/4 could not receive income from land redistribution projects. When beneficiaries were asked whether they received any income from the land redistribution projects, 27% said they got money enough to meet their needs from the land redistribution projects, while 73% reported that it was not the case. This 27% of the land redistribution beneficiaries that receive income from the projects indicates that the land redistribution projects are incapable to uplift the people's standard of living. The results could be because of the beneficiaries withdrawing from the projects which results in projects collapsing.

4.2 Effectiveness of Land Redistribution

The respondents showed that land redistribution has failed due to lack of necessary resources, lack of access to farming machinery, no up to date production training afforded to beneficiaries and acquisition of funding impeded by lack of collateral security.

4.3 Role of Legislative and Regulatory Framework to Fast Track Land Redistribution

The legislative frameworks are there to ensure that land is fast tracked. More often, the legislative framework seems to prohibit land reform. Respondents were of the opinion that legislative framework needs to be reviewed to fast track land

reform. 75% of respondents were in favour of fast-tracking land redistribution which permits the Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform to get land with no assistance from the Land Claims Court. This 75% percent of people confirm that the legal frameworks that are in place should be reviewed in order for them to become effective. When the respondents were asked whether the legislation formulated to address land reform programme were effective in the GLM, majority (51%) thought the legislation and regulations were appropriate, while 43% disagreed. This suggests that the challenge could be with the lack of dissemination or implementation of legislation on the part of the officials and not the legislation or regulations *per se*.

4.4 Improving People's Livelihood

Land reform is meant to improve the livelihood of the community. To most of the respondents the land reform Program does not sufficiently improve people's livelihood.

4.5 Support by Agricultural Extension Officers

Land beneficiaries are to be supported by allocated Agricultural Extension Officers. The function of the Agricultural Extension Officers is to support land beneficiaries so that they can use land profitably. Thus far respondents showed that 51% confirmed that extension officers visited land redistribution projects. This shows that the Department of Agriculture gave attention to the land redistribution projects. The figure suggested that minimum resources were allocated as some projects could not be visited. In a similar situation, the Zimbabwe Ministry of Land and Agriculture stepped up the extension services as well as availed resources to build capacity for personnel in land reform issues during the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (African Renaissance, 2006:51). Such Extension Officers' were stretched as they could not visit all projects.

4.6 Motivation of Other Community Members to Participate in Land Reform Projects

Not many are motivated or convinced about the success of land reform. Many see it as a process with little chance to succeed or benefit the targeted beneficiaries. Responses show that 81% could motivate others to consider land redistribution. The land reform beneficiaries maintain that they would

encourage other people to take part in the projects. Furthermore, 19% responded positively that they might recruit others to partake in the land redistribution projects. The 81% which is a high percent considered these projects as beneficial.

4.7 Access to Information Regarding Land Redistribution Information to People in Greater Letaba Municipality

Access to information about land reform is critical. Virtually, not all South African are aware of their rights to ownership of land through restitution. The information though widely publicised but not all can claim to be informed. It is however that 70% of the respondents in the study area maintained that people knew about land reform programme. Therefore, it can be concluded that Government land reform communication reached people in Greater Letaba Municipality. More than 70% of the respondents maintained that in the GLM, people were informed about the land reform programmes of restitution and land redistribution, while 30% dissented the view. The 70% showed a significant proportion which makes one to conclude that government communication was adequate in GLM.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion it should be noted that most authors regarded obtaining land as an appropriate way to deal with the land redistribution challenges in South Africa. Thus, this study concludes that the shortcomings in addressing the land reform have affected the achievement of the purpose in land redistribution. In view of the discussed research findings, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

- That the government needs to provide capacity building, particularly project management and financial management for land redistribution beneficiaries.
- There is need for financial support for land redistribution projects. This will ensure that the land redistribution makes a contribution to the local economy.
- That land redistribution programme needs to be incorporated into Municipal Integrated Development Plans. This approach will ensure that Municipalities ensure commitment to the redistribution projects.

- There is a need for aftercare service to ensure land redistribution projects become sustainable. This service will ensure that requisite skills such as operational and financial management are taken care of to avoid the projects' collapse.
- Land redistribution beneficiaries need to be afforded training in agricultural production. This will ensure their continuous exposure to in-service training in crop and livestock farming.
- There is a need for extension officers in the Department of Agriculture to be increased, because the redistribution projects are handed over to them upon project approval. This will help the current staff not to be overstretched.

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Elite Circulation: The Case of Botswana and Zimbabwe

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Abstract: Topical newspaper headlines in Zimbabwe and Botswana respectively in 2017 were "*I am not going anywhere and will stand in for election in 2018 ... there is no vacancy*" and "*Khama bids farewell to SADC*" and "*Khama bids farewell to BDP*". These catchy headlines also show the propensity to which the two countries are adept or lack thereof to circulate their elites. This paper is a reflection of the on-going changes and prospects for successful transition in these two neighbouring countries. The paper makes a comparative analysis of these two countries as they have fairly similar geo-physical and historical ties. Botswana and Zimbabwe present interesting parallels in terms of how they responded to leadership development and succession in their political development. Until 24 November 2017, Mugabe had been at the helm of Zimbabwe since 1980, whilst Botswana has had four Presidents since independence in 1966. Using the cases of Zimbabwe and Botswana, this paper argues that elite circulation is critical in regime change and stability and that failure to circulate the elites breeds crises of sorts.

Keywords: Botswana, Elite circulation, Political crisis, Zimbabwe

1. Introduction

Elite circulation is critical in regime change and stability and that failure to circulate the elites breeds crises of sorts. The paper uses cases of Botswana and Zimbabwe to demonstrate the point that elite circulation facilitates democracy and development. Botswana has, since its independence (1966) progressed yet Zimbabwe regressed a few years into independence in 1980. While Botswana has sustained its democracy and has been effective in its management of resources, Zimbabwe has been authoritarian and ineffective. Zimbabwe even won the African prize for repression (Rotberg, 2007). The paper seeks to establish why this has been the case in the two countries using the elite circulation theory.

Botswana and Zimbabwe present a puzzle in terms of the way they responded to democracy and approached the issue of elite circulation in the office of the President, *ipso facto*, the cabinet and general leadership development and succession. Until 24 November 2017, Mugabe had been at the helm of Zimbabwe since 1980 whilst Botswana has had four Presidents since independence in 1966. This paper argues that Botswana has been a responsive democracy while Zimbabwe was a responsive democracy from independence up to the mid-1990s and thereafter regressed to a non-responsive democracy. The paper identifies some elements that support such observations. The author concludes that elite

circulation in Botswana has enabled the massive developmental gains although there are challenges that dent the quality of its democracy. On the other hand, Zimbabwe thus far has exhibited elite circulatory failure (derived from 'circulatory failure' in medical terms) as evidenced by the recidivistic socio-politico economic crises.

This paper is a reflection prompted by the 2017 catchy headline stories that were quite indicative of the different scenarios in Botswana and Zimbabwe. "Mugabe: 'I am going nowhere... My docs have told me my organs are still very strong'". The Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic front (Zanu-PF) youth wing insisted that President Robert Mugabe is "switched on" and able to lead the country to 2023, when he would have turned 99 (Robert Mugabe died on 6 September 2019 aged 95). Then Youth secretary Kudzanayi Chipanga, organised country-wide rallies for the then 93-year-old president, and said that the youths will not "stampede" Mugabe into naming a successor. "He is still fit to execute his duties," Chipanga said in comments carried by the state-run Herald. "Mentally and physically ... Our president is still strong" (News24 Correspondent, 2017). On the other hand, Botswana's former President Ian Khama was preparing to step down and pave way for Mogkwetsi Masisi as the next president. Alfred Masokola (2017) wrote "Khama bids BDP farewell". President Lt Gen Ian Khama delivered his valedictory remarks to Botswana

Democratic Party (BDP) faithfuls, marking the beginning of an end of era of his presidency. The change in guard was anticipated and certain as captured by the sentiments "Masisi will be sworn in as president on the 1st of April 2018, becoming the fifth person to assume the office." *Weekend Post* (10 July 2017). It was even known and planned that "Khama to occupy Masire's retirement home in Extension 5 in Gaborone" Mmegi Staff writer (2017). This paper thus also aims to show the extent and the open or closed character of the respective countries' elite circulation. As in the case of Botswana, a ruling elite brings in fresh blood and talent and this tends to revitalise the elite.

The paper is a desktop study based on secondary material such as books, scientific articles and published newspaper articles. It would be a useful tool and starting point for future in-depth studies. The paper uses the elite circulation theory. The elite circulation paradigm was pioneered by Gaetano Mosca and refined by sociologists Mattei Dogan and John Higley (Meyers, 2014). The paradigm argues that when elites have relative autonomy, their decision making is of the highest importance and we should focus on elite activities when describing and explaining political change (Meyers, 2014). In the same breadth, elite circulation helps to placate public discontent.

2. The Early Foundations of Elite Circulation

Whilst elite circulation has its origins in the works of western writers, we also believe that political processes in Africa are driven by the same logic as politics elsewhere. Therefore, general theories which aim to explain the persistence of democratic regimes are equally applicable to Africa (Svanikier, 2007). Rotberg (2003) asks a litany of questions - Why should sub-Saharan Africa show such an extensive disparity between the many nation-states that have been and are poorly led and those few that consistently have been led well? Are the distinctions particularly African? Are they a product of colonial misrule? Do they reflect a common problem of transition from dependency to independence? Do they emanate from deep-rooted poverty and a lack of economic growth? Is sub-Saharan Africa's lamentable leadership record, in other words, attributable to exogenous variables beyond its control, or does Africa respond less favourably to a leadership challenge of the same order as every other region's?

Higley and Pakulski (nd: 950) argue that Pareto conceived of a ruling/governing elite or "governing class" - as a complex aggregation of powerful political, economic, and social groups, the inner leadership of which is located in a government and legislature. They further argue that ruling elites differ according to which of two underlying psychosocial propensities predominates in them: (1) a propensity to combine things in innovative ways, which renders an elite "fox-like" in its actions; (2) a propensity to restore things to traditional forms, which renders an elite "lion-like" in its actions. Under these circumstances, a vulpine elite acts in cunning, inventive and manipulative ways; a leonine elite acts with belligerence, courage and the use of force (Higley & Pakulski, nd).

Put differently, political elites are defined as those: who exercise a disproportionately large amount of influence within the political system; who exercise both authority and power [force]; who ... have actual or potential influence on decision-making and the distribution of spoils and patronage; who exercised and possessed political power to a greater degree than other members of ... society (Zartman, 1974:466). Higley (2011) argues that political elites comprise a somewhat elastic category that includes a society's most senior politicians and most politically influential leaders of state administrative, business, labour, military, professional, media, religious, and other important sectors and movements. Members of political elites are distinguished by their proximity to political decision-making and their ability to influence political outcomes regularly and substantially, whilst political elites may be viewed as a cohort. In this paper we discuss the term in the context of the president as the head of state/government and his/her idiosyncrasies.

There is need to distinguish between "surface" turnovers among newcomers who fail to gain re-election or are booted out by their parties after a single term, and "deep" turnovers among long-serving incumbents (Higley, 2011). Zimbabwe needs a deep turn over in elite circulation. Higley (2011) identifies two types of elites - Parliamentary and Ministerial Elites. He argues that Parliaments are the core components of most democracies. They support or withdraw support for governments headed by prime ministers and constituted by the parties or party coalitions that claim a majority or plurality among members of parliament (MPs). As for the Ministerial Elites, Higley (2011) noted that the formal

and informal features of ministerial elites and the cabinets they comprise vary widely among representative democracies. In the context of the British and other Westminster political systems and some other countries, ministers are always elected MPs selected by the prime minister who heads the party or party coalition commanding a majority or plurality of seats in the lower house of parliament or in a unicameral parliament. It is important to note that ministerial elites have both administrative and representative functions.

3. Elite Circulation in Zimbabwe and Botswana

We subscribe to the notion that political stability is grounded in institutional development: weak institutions produce a political system in constant flux, as leaders use extra-legal means to secure and maintain power. On the other hand, strong institutions characterized by functional differentiation and term limits lead to a system in which political ascent is gradual and the political system is stable. Political stability reinforces regime legitimacy, so by regulating elite change and setting the foundation for inner-Party democracy (Meyer, Ram & Wilke, 2016:149).

Higley and Pakulski (nd:7) posit that failing to circulate elites or even a long cycle is the result of a governing elite's gradual but inexorable degeneration and the dire situation it eventually creates. They noted that degeneration occurs in three principal and interrelated ways. First, routine circulation slows so that a governing elite becomes increasingly closed, with able persons who do not fit the elite's preferred psychosocial and stylistic profile more and more excluded from its ranks (for example Zimbabwe's notable purges of Joyce Mujuru, Didymus Mutasa, Dzikamai Mavhaire and six other ministers in December 2014 and ultimately Emmerson Mnangagwa – now President of Zimbabwe, among others). This does not only unbalance the elite's composition and denudes the elite of talent, it breeds frustration among aspirants, who, on finding their careers blocked, foment mass opposition. Second, a governing elite's intellectual and political qualities deteriorate, with key positions held increasingly by mediocrities who have risen to power through family inheritance, cronyism, and sycophancy, and who lack the vigour and wisdom necessary for decisive and effective actions. This was evidenced by Mugabe's appointment to senior

government positions of his siblings and close relatives Sabina Mugabe, Patrick Zhuwawo and Innocent Matibili among others.

Many writers acknowledge that the Zimbabwe that Mugabe inherited in 1980 was highly industrialised, with a highly productive industrial sector that assembled cars and made the finest clothes along with all manner of consumer goods for the rest of the world (Malunga, 2019). Sean O'Grady (2019) contends that "When Robert Mugabe was elected president of the newly liberated, independent Zimbabwe in 1980, his friend and long-term supporter - President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania congratulated him, but added this advice: "You have inherited a jewel. Keep it that way." However, with the passage of time and aggressive policies, Zimbabwe's economy declined rapidly to a point where the country ranks among the poorest economic performers in the region.

Over the years, Zimbabwe slid into a political-economic crisis. The Zimbabwe crisis has come to be an albatross. There has been a cataclysmic socio-political and economic crisis that gripped Zimbabwe. In 2008 the economic crisis reached unprecedented levels to be termed a mega-disaster. Musekiwa and Mandiyanike (2017) argue that Zimbabwe is recovering from a long spell economic crisis that witnessed inflation reaching 230 million per cent. The crisis also caused shortages of goods and services and also resulted in severe food insecurity especially among the urban poor who rely on purchased food. The proportion of people in Zimbabwe living below the Food Poverty Line increased from 29% in 1995 to 58% in 2003 and there is a general increase in malnutrition levels among children under five years (Musekiwa & Mandiyanike, 2017, citing the UNDP 2015 Report). The political situation was equally charged and factional fights within Zanu-PF reached a boiling point forcing the army to intervene 'to restore normalcy to government operations' in November 2017.

During Mugabe's last days as President, Emmerson Mnangagwa then Mugabe's vice was the last victim to be purged. It is instructive to note his parting shot. Mnangagwa (2017) on being dismissed from the party intimated that "this is not the Zanu-PF we established with the late Dr. J.M. Nkomo and other luminaries who have passed on. This is now a party controlled by undisciplined, egotistical and self-serving minnows who derive their power not

from the people and party but from only two individuals in the form of the First Family who have now privatized and commercialized our beloved institution. ... We must reject this insane and idiotic habit of expelling and suspending members of the party merely because we differ in opinion or have brighter and more progressive ideas of improving the lives of our people.

Declaratively, Mnangagwa (2017) concluded "I will go nowhere. I will fight tooth and nail against those making a mockery against Zanu-PF founding principles, ethos and values. You and your cohorts will instead leave Zanu-PF by the will of the people and this we will do in the coming few weeks as Zimbabweans in general now require new and progressive leadership that is not resident in the past and refuses to accept change".

For Rotberg (2007), the single-minded, often narcissistic leaders are many and share common characteristics: they are focused on power itself, not on the uses of power for good; they are indifferent to the well-being of their citizens but anxious to receive their adulation. He also acknowledges that the positive examples of African leadership stand out because of their clear-minded strength of character, their adherence to participatory democratic principles, and their rarity. We argue that elite circulation has a bearing to the turn-over in leadership and how the developmental gains can be maximised. It is customarily assumed that a steady flow of persons from mass to elite positions, and vice versa, is essential for political representation (Higley, 2011).

It is notable that good governments deliver high security for the state and the person; a functioning rule of law; education; health; and a framework conducive to economic growth. They ensure effective arteries of commerce and enshrine personal and human freedoms. They empower civil society and protect the environmental commons (Rotberg, 2003). In the case of Botswana, it has been hailed as having achieved remarkable socio-economic progress since its attainment of independence in 1966 (World Bank, 2014). It moved from the ranks of being one of the poorest countries in the world to upper middle income status (World Bank, 2017). The Millennium Development Goals confirm Botswana as a success story in many ways (UNDP, 2015; Lekalake, 2016). The changes in leadership have cumulatively resulted in positive outcomes

as each incumbent brought a different slant in his administration. In the context of elite circulation, Botswana has routinised the leadership terms and that the incumbent leaves office at the end of their term without unduly attempting to tinker with the processes and extending their term.

Up to his retirement on 31 March 2018, (now former President) Ian Khama conducted farewell meetings with communities across the length and breadth of Botswana. These meetings were celebratory and characterised with gifts. This is in total contrast to Mugabe's dishonourable exit from power in November 2017. The Zimbabwean populace celebrated Mugabe's fall from grace. There is no doubt that even Zimbabwe responded fairly well to democracy (at the beginning) but regressed with Mugabe's continued hold on power and failure to handle his succession and indeed the emergence of a strong opposition.

Rotberg (2003:29) contends that despicable leadership is exemplified by Mugabe's Zimbabwe, a rich country reduced to the edge of starvation, penury, and fear. The opening of a long repressed society, with attention to education and a removal of barriers to economic entrepreneurship, as in post-dictatorship Kenya, is another sign of progressive leadership. Most people are trying to make sense of Mugabe's legacy upon his demise. The litany of obituaries has been punctuated with the titles like "Robert Mugabe: Zimbabwe liberator turned ruthless despot"; the President once hailed as beacon of African liberation whose rule bankrupted country". The Zimbabwe African Union (Zanu-PF) spokesperson in South Africa, Kennedy Mandaza said that there were a lot of good things Mugabe did for the Zimbabwean people. He said that his only fault was to hold on to power for a long time (Interview with Dan Moyane, 6 September 2019; www.eNCA.com - Published on 6 Sep 2019). Even, Mugabe's former spin doctor, Jonathan Moyo concedes that his iconic image was blighted by dark spots (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9w815uqTzQI>). This shows a mixed legacy.

On the other hand, Rotberg (ibid) argues that Botswana is the paragon of leadership excellence in Africa. Long before diamonds were discovered, the dirt-poor, long-neglected desert protectorate demonstrated an affinity for participation, integrity, tolerance of difference and dissent, entrepreneurial initiative, and the rule of law. The relative linguistic homogeneity of Botswana may have helped. So

would the tradition of chieftainship and the chiefly search for consensus after discussion among a *kgotla*, or assembly of elders. Rotberg (2011) admires Botswana's century-old, deeply ingrained teachings of the congregational London Missionary Society and how these infected the country's dominant political culture. As Khama finished his second term and handed over the baton to Masisi, Botswana stood out in sub-Saharan Africa as the foremost country to have remained democratic in form and spirit continuously since its independence (in 1966). As Botswana prepares for yet another general election on 23 October 2019, the political landscape has since shifted. Former President Ian Khama broke ranks with his successor (President Eric Masisi) and the ruling Botswana Democratic Party. He is now founder and patron of a new political outfit – Botswana Patriotic Front (BPF). With all the incessant experiences and hardened attitudes, what is the source of Khama/Masisi political bickering? Gabathuse (2019) interviews University of Botswana (UB) senior lecturer in politics, Dr. Kebapetse Lotshwao who argued that although Masisi and his predecessor Khama had not disclosed the source of their differences, "I think the main factor behind their differences is the control of the State. In Africa, as in some other developing countries where the private sector is weak, the State is the source of power". Gabathuse (2019) further alludes that the control of the state allows one to keep political and business opponents at bay, and that "for over 10 years, if not more, Khama controlled the Botswana state and his family and their associates accumulated wealth through the control of the State." Thus in this case, the elite circulation was antithetical as the new president introduced some reforms, for instance, the President wants to open the tourism industry to locals. These reforms are threatening Khama's interests and those of his family and associates (Gabathuse, 2019). It would thus be prudent and indeed natural for Khama to try and fight back, hoping to defeat Masisi, impose a more compliant leader in his place and thus preserve his interests (ibid). This neatly fits with Rotberg's (2007) view that the single-minded, often narcissistic leaders are many and share common characteristics: they are focused on power itself, not on the uses of power for good; they are indifferent to the well-being of their citizens but anxious to receive their adulation.

As the Zimbabwe situation unfolds, we take Higley's (2011) counsel to look for signs of elite degeneration during the several decades preceding crises

and argue that political changes (2017 military intervention, Mugabe's attempted impeachment and subsequent resignation) triggered by crises can plausibly be interpreted as marking the start of new elite cycles.

4. Zenith of Elite Circulation Crisis in Zimbabwe

Higley (2011:838) argues that Pareto theorised that, any ruling elite eventually becomes captive to a psychosocial propensity more and more inappropriate for dealing with changing circumstances and economic-political challenges. As this psychosocial fixation increases, the elite gradually becomes closed to persons with the contrary propensity, elite policies and actions become more doctrinaire and inflexible, intellectual mediocrities ascend to key elite positions, and the elite undergoes moral decline. For example, in the case of Zimbabwe, when Emmerson Mnangagwa was fired from his vice president position, he challenged Mugabe "Your Excellency and First Secretary of Zanu-PF, it is sad and deplorable that you have allowed our Party to be hijacked by novices and external forces as well as individuals who have a proven record of treachery. This Party is NOT PERSONAL PROPERTY for you and your wife to do as you please" (Mnangagwa, 2017). This degenerative process leads eventually to a profound economic-political crisis in which persons possessing the alternative psychosocial propensity take power through violent revolution or a peaceful but sweeping elite circulation.

Higleys and Pakulski (nd) Pareto theorised that over time a distinct psychosocial propensity - manifested by personality traits, mentalities, beliefs and actions - becomes predominant in governing elites. This renders them, especially their leaders, prone to bias, closure, rigidity and cumulating blunders. A gradual process of decline - degeneration is a more pointed term - takes hold and leads eventually to a profound crisis during which groups and persons disposed toward the opposite propensity ascend, only to have a lengthy process of decline or degeneration begin anew.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The author concludes that elite circulation in Botswana has enabled the massive developmental gains although there are challenges that dent the quality of its democracy. The recrudescence of

former President Ian Khama confirms the strength of circulating elites, with the attendant risk of re-appearance of those prematurely recycled. On the other hand, Zimbabwe thus far has exhibited elite circulatory failure (derived from 'circulatory failure' in medical terms) as evidenced by the recidivistic socio-political economic crises. Mugabe's failure to handle the succession debate inevitably degenerated to the elite circulation crisis that led to his unceremonious and embarrassing exit from office and the party. This even became more pronounced as he died in a foreign country (Singapore).

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The Effect of Industrial Action by Municipal Employees on Service Delivery: A Case of Greater Letaba Municipality, Limpopo Province

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Abstract: Employees all over the world engage in the industrial action to demonstrate dissatisfaction with organisations, mostly on disagreements about basic conditions of employment. Section 23 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa guarantees workers the right to petition, strike or demonstrate provided that it is within the confines of the law. A qualitative research study conducted in Greater Letaba Municipality (GLM) exposes paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect. Analysis and interpretation of both literature and interview collected data revealed the paradigm has multiple consequential effects. The findings show these consequential effects moving from industrial actions and along gradual effects of service delivery lag, unsustainable spending-underspending split over, unrecoverable service delivery gap, leading into continuous community protests, social unrest and potential fully-fledged social revolt. In summary and conclusion, the study proclaims paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect placing GLM as a threatened public entity against its constitutional existence rights. Implicit and explicit study significance unravels potential service delivery extinction; constitutional entity existence idealism, and academic research scope limits extension within public service delivery field. The study recommends for organisational strategies and management principles of adhocracy, special capacity building, restructuring and rationalisation, mitigation and contingency special budgetary allowances, culturing adherence to policy based operations and stakeholder management principles.

Keywords: Industrial action, Service delivery effect, Stakeholder policy decision making

1. Introduction

Since 1994, the South African government has shown a sustained commitment to provide its employees and those of the private sector with universally accepted basic conditions of employment in order to redress the workplace inequalities of the past. The government acknowledged post 1994 that whenever employee and employer relations exist, there should be a contract of employment. To effect such a contract, the breakthrough came in 1995 when parliament passed the Labour Relations Act 67 of 1995 in an attempt to address the inequalities of the apartheid government.

Furthermore, in 1997 parliament passed Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997. This Act regulates issues such as work hours, remuneration and job description to further minimise employment relations problems. Yet despite the passing of the two Acts, industrial actions still persisted around the country and are mostly about the basic conditions of employment. This has resulted in minimal or no

service delivery at all in affected municipalities. The Department of Labour's Annual Industrial Action report of 2015 stated that the municipal workers countrywide went on a strike because of a labour dispute in relation to salary increment and wage gap as their main disagreement. The report further expressed that service delivery across South Africa, in particular municipalities including metros, were affected.

On the 13th January 2016, the Democratic Alliance (DA) wrote to the Member of Executive Council (MEC) responsible for Local Government in Limpopo seeking her intervention on non-payment of overtime to Greater Letaba employees, also indicating how the then "go slow" strike was affecting services such as water and electricity supply. The community of Greater Letaba heavily relies on the municipality for the provision of services such as water and electricity supply. This study, as such, investigated the effect of industrial action by municipal employees on service delivery in Greater Letaba Municipality (GLM). The effects are conceptualised as the paradigm of

industrial action-service delivery lag. The paradigm forms basis of the major significances of the study to prevent violence; encourage peaceful protests; highlight industrial action-service delivery lag effect; caution municipality constitutional existence idealism and mostly academically extend the limits to scientific research scope within public service delivery field. This study therefore introduces stakeholder policy decision making engagement principles (StaPolDeMEP) as leadership and management model that would curb off industrial action-service delivery lag effect within municipalities. The study had a conclusive idealism that sequential effects of the paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag are consequentially placing on threat to GLM constitutional right to exist.

2. Literature Review

Industrial action is caused by a clash between employees and employers mainly on wage demands, working conditions, management of policies, political goals, and other social issues (Salamon, 2000:46). Lockouts, pickets and strikes are the overt forms of industrial actions. Fashoyin (2010:17) defines industrial action as enduring power struggle between workers and employers. When workers get disenchanted about their service and the organisation can longer assert the quality of workers' performance, then there is the existence of emotional hazards in their interests. This situation flames industrial crises because each party may tend to work to undo the other as against the traditional work relation of mutual benefits. An industrial crisis could be internal between an organisation and its unions or external between the association of employers and the national bodies of the unions (Otobo, 2000:46). Manamela and Budeli (2013:308) allude that employees' right to industrial action is an essential component of their right to freedom of association, and one of the weapons used by trade unions when collective bargaining fails. They further assert that strike action is the most visible form of collective action during labour disputes, and is often seen as the last resort of workers' organisations in pursuit of their demands.

According to Barker and Holtzhausen (1997:47), the term "industrial action" means action by unions, employees or employers to pressurise the other party in the furtherance of an industrial dispute. They go on to state that "industrial action usually refers to strikes and lock-outs but could also include picketing, product boycotts, sit-ins, go-slow strikes

and other actions which disrupt the productive process". The different types of industrial actions will be explained in detail below and the focus will be given to the mentioned types:

2.1 Strikes

A strike is precisely defined in Section 213 of South Africa's Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 as "the partial or complete concerted refusal to work, or the retardation or obstruction of work, by persons who are or have been employed by the same employer or by different employers, for the purpose of remedying a grievance or resolving a dispute in respect of any matter of mutual interest between employer and employee, and every reference to 'work' in this definition includes overtime work, whether it is voluntary or compulsory".

2.2 Go-Slow

The term "go-slow" refers to a case where workers collectively work slowly in order to put pressure on their employer to agree to their demands (Barker & Holtzhausen, 2001:95). This kind of industrial action has a negative influence on service delivery or production in the context of the private sector. Employees use this method to bring their grievances to the attention of the employer.

2.3 Picketing

Picketing is a procession organised by trade unions where employees demonstrate about grievances in a peaceful manner. Picketing is not defined in the South African Labour Act. However, Barker and Holtzhausen (2001:98) describe picketing as "action by employees or other persons to publicise the existence of a labour dispute by patrolling or standing outside or near the location where the dispute is taking place, usually with placards indicating the nature of the dispute".

2.4 Lock-Out

A lock-out is defined in Section 213 of South Africa's Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 as "the exclusion by an employer of employees, from the employer's workplace for compelling the employees to accept a demand in respect of any matter of mutual interest between employer and employee, whether the employer breaches those employees' contracts of employment during or for exclusion".

3. Global Perspective on Industrial Actions

Industrial action is accepted worldwide as an integral part of collective bargaining (Hardy & Howe, 2009:36). In many countries, the right to industrial action is provided for in statutory law while in some others it is even entrenched in their Constitutions. In those countries where such rights to industrial actions are provided for, it is usually accepted that such rights may be exercised subject to certain procedural restrictions.

Many scholars across the world have attempted to determine the factors as noted by Beardwell and Claydon (2004:15) that give rise to a high number of industrial actions, the causes of industrial actions and its effects on economic, political and social developments. The current studies of industrial actions are dominated by attempts of scholars to explain the prevalence of industrial conflicts in sectors and countries (Blyton & Turnbull, 1998:28). In the United States America (USA) workers are not penalised for engaging in industrial actions, while the employers are given the right to maintain production during a strike and may hire permanent replacement workers (Clawson & Clawson, 1999:99). The USA's legal system is uniquely unfavourable for organisation and industrial actions and thus has an impact on the level of industrial actions activities.

Industrial action in the United Kingdom is more circumscribed by legislation than in any other country in the Western world. A raft of restrictions has been enacted which makes it easy to fall foul of the law and employers are often only too willing to take government to court. There is no legal right to strike in the United Kingdom, but there is limited protection for individuals, from unfair dismissal and the right to associate, in the European Convention on Human Rights (Gall, 2012:668).

Several approaches have been developed to account for differences in industrial actions activities across countries, some studies have focused on industrial relation systems of concerned countries, while others looked at the economic, social and technological achievements in which such systems are operating, and attempted to explain the observed variations in the level of industrial actions. Blyton and Turnbull (1998:62) have counted numbers of factors involved in different levels of industrial actions in different geographical areas. Factors

include, unions and its density, collective bargaining and its nature and structure, working environment of the workforce and the most important one is the state and the government, all these factors are playing important role in various strikes activities across the countries.

4. The Context of Industrial Actions in South Africa

South Africa is described as an upper-middle income developing country struggling to emerge from the institutional and socio-economic shadows cast by apartheid (Coetzee & Woolfrey, 2012:1). Along with the rapid expansion of the economy and workforce, the country experienced numerous challenges relating to industrial actions. Some of the challenges that have continued long after the apartheid era are income inequalities, poor living conditions experienced by people in rural areas, people living with labour-related problems, elevated levels of poverty, and unemployment. Historically public servants could not engage in industrial action in South Africa, until the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (LRA) was passed. However, unlike in other constitutional jurisdictions in the world, the right to strike in South Africa has numerous limitations. These include the existence of a binding collective agreement or arbitration award that prohibits a strike in respect of the issue in dispute, and a prohibition on striking for conflicts of rights, as distinct from conflicts of interests. The legal effect of collective agreement is set out in Section 23 of the Government Gazette (1995:20) which states that a collective agreement binds for the whole period of the collective agreement, every person, employer, whether or not that person continues to be a member of the registered trade union or registered employer's organization for the duration of the collective agreement.

The following are some of the legal prescripts governing industrial actions in South Africa:

4.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) promotes the right of workers to strike, though it does not explicitly use the industrial action wording. The right to strike is not only recognised in the domestic or national laws of countries, but also by international law, as fundamental to the protection

of workers' rights and interests. Chapter 2 of the Constitution (1996) contains several provisions of relevance to employment and labour laws. These include protection against servitude, forced labour and discrimination, the right to pursue a livelihood, and protection for children against exploitative labour practices and work that is hazardous to workers' health and wellbeing.

4.2 Labour Relations Act 67 of 1995 (LRA)

The Labour Relations Act (LRA) was enacted with intention to bring labour law into conformity with the Constitution and with international law. It recognises and regulates the rights of workers to organise and join trade unions, and the right to strike. It guarantees trade union representatives access to the workplace and regulates the right of employers to lock workers out in certain situations. It also facilitates collective bargaining and makes provision for bargaining councils.

In terms of sec 64(1) of the LRA, a strike is deemed to be protected if the issue in dispute has been referred to a council or the Commission for Conciliation mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and a certificate stating that the dispute remains unresolved for a period of 30 days or any extension of that period agreed upon between the parties has lapsed since the matter was so referred. Thereafter, at least 48 hours' notice of the intention to commence strike action must be given to the employer in writing – unless the State is the employer, in which case at least 7 days' notice of the intention to commence strike action must be given. In *BAWU and Others v Prestige Hotels CC t/a Blue Waters Hotel* (1993) 14 ILJ 963 (LAC), it was held that by definition a lawful strike is functional to collective bargaining. The parties are forced to take negotiations seriously by the fear that if settlement is not reached either of the parties might exercise their right to inflict economic harm on the other.

Section 213 of the LRA defines a strike as "the partial or complete concerted refusal to work, or the retardation or obstruction of work by persons who are or who have been employed by the same employer or by different employers, for the purpose of remedying a grievance or resolving a dispute in respect of any matter of mutual interest between the employer and the employee. Section 64(1) of the LRA provides that every employee has the right to strike and every employer has the right to lock-out.

Olivier (Managing Employment Relations in South Africa, 2005) submits that were the right to bargain collectively not so well protected, the right to freedom of association would be fruitless.

4.3 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 was passed in 1997 to give effect to the right to fair labour practice referred to in section 23(1) of the Constitution. The objective and aim of this Act is to regulate basic conditions of employment and thereby making South Africa to comply with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) as a member state.

According to the website of South Africa's Department of Labour, the act regulates working hours, sets laws on overtime and working on holidays, leaves and employment contract terminations. The Act further regulates labour practices and sets out the rights and duties of employees and employers thereby ensuring social justice through basic standards for employment about conditions of employment.

5. Approach of the Courts on Industrial Actions

In at least two cases of the Constitutional Court of South Africa, namely *Re Certification of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* and *National Union of Metal Workers of South Africa v Bader BOP (Pty) Ltd and Minister of Labour* (2002), the importance of the right to industrial actions was particularly emphasised. In both cases the Constitutional Court held that it is through industrial action that workers can assert their bargaining power in employment relationship (Manamela & Budeli, 2013:46).

In *re Certification of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* the Constitutional Court understood the right to industrial action to be an essential component of collective bargaining. It described collective bargaining as including a right on the part of those who engage in collective bargaining to exercise economic power against their adversaries (Manamela & Budeli, 2013:46).

6. The Causes of Industrial Action in South Africa

The reasons for industrial action vary from sector to sector. Salaries and other forms of compensation

Table 1: Causes of Industrial Action in South Africa and Number of Days Lost

Causes of Industrial Action	Number of Days Lost
Wages, bonus and other compensation	777 874
Disciplinary matters	4 748
Grievances	50 882
Refusal to bargain	21 351
Working conditions	60 747
Trade union recognition	16 462
Socio-economic and political conditions	38 280

Source: Annual Industrial Action report (2017)

were the main reasons (Table 1 above) behind approximately 82 percent of the industrial action in 2017. Other reasons for industrial action during 2017 included protests against poor working conditions, inadequate staff, shift work, lack of consultation on decisions which affect employees made by management of organisations, and employee grading. Industrial action causes ripple effects across other sectors. Industrial action impacted on the Post Office, universities, automobile industry, airports, hospitals and municipalities to name a few, where services and deliveries were either disrupted or halted. Table 1 provides the top seven causes of industrial action identified through the Annual Industrial Action Report (2017), and the resultant number of days lost.

Brand (2013:418) lists several issues which, in his view, contributed to the cause of industrial actions, as they had not been addressed for an extended period. These were, working conditions that were not improving, living conditions which were deteriorating, and perceptions that union leadership was corrupt. Brand (2013:430) identifies several aggravating factors which amongst others include the wage gap and increases, working conditions and politicised unions in South Africa. The unions represent workers at a bargaining point where wages and basic conditions of employment are negotiated. There is a substantial amount of diversity in the SA bargaining system across industries and across firms. Wage bargaining takes place at two levels in SA. At the centralised level, wages are set in bargaining council agreements, which cover specific industries, occupations and areas (either the whole country, or a province or city) (Azam & Rospabe, 2007:54). Therefore, intuitively, failure of the bargaining process at centralised level will have a devastating effect on service delivery and ultimately affect the citizens.

7. The Prevalence of Industrial Actions in South African Local Municipalities

From 1994 when the South African new political dispensation came into being, the government of the day has shown success in its attempt to deliver services by providing more services to more people, thereby ensuring equity in service delivery. In spite of the above, however, there are areas where government lacks capacity to deliver and sustain quality services. Many weaknesses within certain service delivery institutions, sector departments and across geographical areas have been witnessed. Whilst all of the support programmes have assisted in specific ways, it is still clear that a number of stubborn service deliveries and governance problems have been identified in municipalities over a number of years, including the industrial.

Local government is the sphere of government situated at the grassroots mainly entrusted with provision of municipal service delivery. Local government is situated at the make or break point where municipal service delivery protests are prevalent. It therefore should be noted that the welfare of the society is made better or worse at local government sphere (Botes, Brynard, Fourie & Roux, 1992:223). The achievement of the goals of the government of the day depends mostly on the capacity Local Government has to carry out its functions (Botes *et al.*, 1992:224). It is on this basis that mechanisms to ensure that municipalities perform their duties have been clearly outlined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996).

Conflicts in the municipalities in South Africa mainly stem from recruitment, appointment and organograms. Political interference has been reported, councillors in recruitment and the poor relations between labour and management have been cited

as resulting in the flouting of procedures and policies for sound human resource practices e.g. in Mpumalanga. Unions at Mngquma in the Eastern Cape also raised the recruitment of the majority of the work force by councillors. Claims were made that the organised labour has nepotism and favouritism resulting in erratic appointments and promotions. Cases have been cited where posts are filled without being advertised; people are appointed in posts that they don't qualify. The Public Service Commission proposed in their submission on the Policy Review on Provincial and Local Government that the employment contracts of senior managers including the municipal manager should be longer than 5 years to ensure security of tenure.

The National Treasury in its report in 2008 indicated that 28% of municipal employees are appointed to non-existent positions, which is not reflected on the municipality's organisational structure. The sizes of municipalities, as noted by the National Treasury Budget Employee salaries and benefits are not standardised in some cases. While disparities in salaries are due to amalgamations of municipalities in some cases, salary disparities amongst employees of similar ranks are reported to be common in many municipalities. The wide variations in the salary scales of employees in similar review are hard to justify. The non-implementation of the wage curve and the grading of municipalities which are overrated and results in raising expectations of salaries, have been identified as critical issues informing labour action in some municipalities.

Other labour force issues identified in many municipalities include what is perceived by organised labour as unilateral outsourcing, the use of outside lawyers in disciplinary cases, the prolonged contracts of temporary workers and the inflation of the labour force of municipalities with general workers, which are neither properly qualified nor properly utilised in the municipality.

8. The Effect of Industrial Actions on the Local Municipalities

While the causes of the industrial strikes are understood, the problem is that the impact of these strikes on service delivery and on the economy at large is neither known nor understood. The research has been carried out in Canada and the USA by Nelson, Amoaka-Adu & Smith (1994:155) to assess

the impact of strikes on various macroeconomic factors, there is also abundance of study conducted in SA. Three measures are used to measure the intensity of a strike:

- The number of industrial disputes;
- The number of workers involved; and
- The proportion of working days lost due to strikes.

SA strikes are generally of short duration, approximately six days on average (Department of Labour Annual reports). Nelson *et al.* (1994:158) find that shorter duration and longer duration strikes have differential impacts on organisations. Strikes that last a few days tend to affect service delivery on a small scale, whereas the prolonged strike affects the capacity of the organisation to function. Organisations involved in longer strikes are probably in a better position to reject union demands and prolong the period of impasse, whereas management may help resolve the labour dispute when it is expected that the effect of the strike on the organisation may be too severe.

Industrial actions by public institutions or government affect business within the vicinity of the area and causes production losses. It is a common cause that if municipal workers cut water and electricity, the surrounding shopping complexes will not be able to operate. Nevertheless, the aftermath of strikes is often long lasting and involves personal and relational costs that may have profound long-term effects on production on commercial businesses and service delivery on households (Krueger, Alan & Mas, 2002:55). Economic research on the consequences of strikes focuses on the volume and quality of production (Krueger *et al.*, 2002:55). Strike actions can be associated with investor sentiments as they present uncertainty and anxiety for risk-averse investors according to the study.

Bendix (2000:248) notes that strike action is never undertaken without a loss to both sides. From a business perspective, the shutting down of a business no doubt spells disaster for everyone concerned. While highlighting the importance of the right to strike in the labour relations context, it is also important to point out that the inconsiderate exercise of the right has remained the major cause of strained employment relationships in South Africa (Koboro, 2014:121).

Workers have, over the past five years from 2013, attempted to heighten the impact of their strikes by using various tactics during industrial action, tactics which have a negative impact on the lives and property of other people. These include the trashing of cities, vandalising property, forming picket lines at supermarkets, and preventing shoppers from doing business with their chosen businesses.

9. The Current Strategies to Curb Industrial Actions at Municipal Level

The task of managing the workplace is made more difficult by the hostility of employers to the institutions of collective bargaining, persisting divisions within the labour movement, and the growing involvement of Congress of South African Trade Union (COSATU) in national politics (Webster, 2013:81) and the formation of South African Federation of Trade Union (SAFTU) in 2017.

Good Labour Relations in Local Government is a legislative imperative that municipalities have to nurture and sustain at all costs. Failure to maintain good labour relations could have a direct impact on the levels and quality of service delivery. If municipal employees embark on endless strikes, this would obviously translate into no delivery of basic services to the communities that so desperately need them. The 2017 State of Local Government Report that was published by the Department of Corporative Government and Traditional Affairs (DCoG) indicates a breakdown of functional labour relationships in many municipalities. Related to this is the poor functionality of Local Labour Forums (LLFs) and the lack of trust between management and organized labour due to the latter's role in reporting cases of alleged corruption and nepotism.

The Local Labour Forums are not functional and in some cases not effectively utilised due to lack of cooperation between organised labour, councillors and senior management. This exacerbates the instability in administration and has a serious impact on service delivery. Due to this non-functionality many labour demands are not addressed and contribute to the mobilisation of labour against management.

The Organisational Rights Collective Agreement which had been agreed in the South African Local Government Bargaining Council (SALGBC) in 2015 which governs the establishment of Local Labour Forums (LLF) is also not consistently implemented

in municipalities. This has led to non-functionality of LLFs in many municipalities across provinces, for example Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality in Limpopo, Alfred Nzo District Municipality in the Eastern Cape, Mafikeng Local Municipality in North West, and Hantam Local Municipality in the Northern Cape.

10. Methods and Materials

This study followed a qualitative research approach. The researcher chose the qualitative method, because the study seeks to interpret human actions, institutions and events in order to construct or portray what is being studied in sufficient depth and detail. This approach is appropriate for an investigation into municipal service delivery issues, including community participation, councillor's roles and responsibilities and the municipal capacity to deliver services.

Other researchers often go for the mix of two methods, resulting in the so called mixed method approach. Both qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined and applied together in one research study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:52). Cooper and Schindler (2001:82) describe these as triangulation; which is a situation whereby the researcher combines both the qualitative and quantitative methods of research to better the quality of the research and to best answer research questions.

Greater Letaba municipality is made up of 183 villages, of which the vast majority of the villages are scattered throughout the central part of the municipality. The northern part of the municipality that forms part of the Capital City/Headquarters in Modjadjiskloof is predominantly urban. The majority of the villages are far apart from each other and thus present a huge challenge and high cost in providing and maintaining service delivery. The villages are too small to attain economic thresholds required to provide social amenities in a cost effective manner (Greater Letaba Municipality Draft IDP, 2008).

11. Results and Discussions

The author held discussion with carefully selected individuals who have a variety of experiences in the Municipality and in the community in order to answer most questions of service delivery challenges facing residents of Greater Letaba Municipality and to ascertain as to what are the causes of industrial

actions in the Greater Letaba Local Municipality. All twenty interviewees were all given consent letters to sign, and filled in a biographical form. The study used semi-structured interviews.

11.1 Biographical Information

The biographical information probed gender, age, educational level, period of stay.

Gender

Out of the eight participants four were females while four were males. This kind of situation may mean one thing that the issues of service delivery affect both men and women and both have very keen interests in the affairs of the municipality.

Age Grouping

Out of the eight people who have been interviewed, four people were aged thirty years and below, two were aged between thirty to forty, one was between forty to fifty while the other one was fifty to sixty.

Education Level

Five people out of the eight participants have formal education and professional qualifications beyond matric. Out of the five, two have degrees, one has a diploma and two have college certificates. Two other participants have only grade 12 (matric) while the remaining one did not go beyond grade 7, two (2) passed matric with no professional qualifications and the last one did not go beyond grade 7.

Period of Stay

All of the eight participants have been staying in Greater Letaba municipal area for the past twenty years and more. They are all permanent residents of Greater Letaba. Six of the participants are residents from various villages of the municipality, Madumeleng, Sekgosese, Phaphadi, Matshwi, Sekgopo and Matipane while the other two are residents of Kgapanne Township and Modjisdjiskloof town respectively. They come from various directions of the municipality.

11.2 Profile of All Officials Who Participated

The researcher managed to interview seven municipal officials of whom three were not part of management, two were part of management and two union leaders each leading a different union. Out of employees not part of management, they were stationed at finance, technical services, office

of the municipal Speaker and communications. Of the two employees who form part of management, one is from corporate services while the other is director for technical services. Of all eight officials, five are between the ages of forty and fifty, two are between thirty and forty while only one is under thirty years of age. Of eight only 5 employees are unionised and 3 are those not forming part of management and 2 are union leaders while the rest of management are not unionised. They are all responsible for implementation of council resolutions and to implement legal prescripts governing employer/employee relations.

The two union members are from NEHAWU and IMATU respectively. They are both shop stewards. They both possess professional qualifications beyond grade 12.

11.3 Profile of Councillors in the Municipality

The researcher managed to interview two councillors. Both councillors are males and were both elected in 2016 local elections. Is the first time both of them are councillors though the one is a ward councillor and the other Proportional Representation. The one has only grade 12 while the other is a former teacher and has a diploma in teaching. One is between ages of 30 to forty while the other is between 50 and 60.

12. Discussion

The conducted interviews clearly indicate that the community of Greater Letaba for their day-to-day living relies heavily on the services delivered by GLM. Interview data evidence exposes municipality is already under stress in terms of coping with the service delivery demands by the community. The appearance of community protests following GLM employee industrial action and spending failure indicate the dissatisfaction in terms of the level of services that the municipality is providing to the community. The study deduces that when municipal employees use to embark on industrial actions they pioneer the paradigm of industrial-service delivery lag effect, making it deteriorates to worsened situation towards social revolt, as per literature (Bekink, 2006:3; Burger, 2009:1; Dassah, 2012:3; Mankabidi, 2018). According to both interviews and literature undertaken, the social unrest movements that may lead to fully fledged social strikes are caused by factors such as:

According to both literature and participants, the effect of industrial action by municipal employees is far reaching and it impacts economy, labour peace in the municipality and social life of ordinary people in the community. The view is that the premises of the municipality are closed during industrial actions and that is where the municipality is rendering licencing services to the public and business entities around the municipality. The implication is that for that period the municipality is losing an income and spending time which they seriously need because that is the biggest contributor of municipal revenue and responsibilities. Businesses that use transport who wanted to renew their vehicle licences are then jeopardised and that affects their business very badly.

According to both theorists and participants, the municipality relies on water tankers to augment the already stressed and drought-ridden boreholes and dams. They also rely on the municipality for graders during their funerals. According to the responses of the participants, all these services come to a standstill and the community becomes distressed, especially when the industrial action is prolonged.

One other area is the collection of waste. Both theory and interview participants indicate that a health hazard is posed by non-collection of waste. It has been exposed during the interviews that the municipal workers deliberately, as a way of protests, empty the waste bins and scatter the wastes around the street. This poses a very serious health hazard to everyone in the affected environment.

The study thus finds the industrial action putting strain on the employer and employee relations. Findings from the interviews show that employees have an attitude towards the employer management. In fact, the study found that both employer and employees play a blame game against each other. They view each other as enemies and not as colleagues. The management blames the union leaders and the union leaders blame management, showing no mutual and collaborative thinking and decision making. None of both employer and employees wants to take accountability and responsibility, deteriorating the situation to worsened prolonged conflicts.

There was also mention of intimidation and snitching where unions' leaders intimidate other workers who don't want to join the industrial action. The

deductive finding point is that the industrial action causes bad and unhealthy working relationship, leaving the organisation to less accountability, responsibility and value creation in favour of its founding and establishment expectations. It is from such relationship that this study deduced the need to design and execute strategies around policy and stakeholders' decision making.

The strategies are thought to be stakeholder collaborative effort in order to avoid industrial actions and therefore prevent maladministration towards paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect. This qualitative study thus found a conceptual model that, as municipal employees use to embark on industrial actions they pioneer the paradigm of industrial-service delivery lag effect, making organisational performance deteriorates to worsened situation towards social revolt (Bekink, 2006:3; Burger, 2009:1; Dassah, 2012:3; Mankabidi, 2018).

The highlighting finding is, according to both interviews and literature undertaken, that the social unrest movements remain credible to potentially fully fledged social revolt. Thus without an effective strategic intervention the organisation, the GLM in particular will relinquish its founding and establishment responsibility, leading to its closure as per constitutional idealism. The study findings conclude that stakeholder engaging strategies to run GLM towards industrial action free operation and high service delivery performance should be crafted and maintained to execution. Hence the study places forward the following recommendations.

13. Conclusion and Recommendations

This qualitative study was undertaken to investigate the effect of employees' industrial action within GLM. Undertaking of literature review and interviews found that prolonged industrial actions pioneer and lead to service delivery lag that has an effect to sparking fully-fledged social revolt. The findings indicated that without strategic interventions GLM as constitutionally established organisation may lose existence powers as a result of failing to deliver mandated responsibilities and expected services.

The study added academic impact in introducing paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect in the field of public entity management. The paradigm detected strategic management model of engaging stakeholders in policy decision making

as stakeholders' policy decision making engagement principles (StaPolDeMEP). This management model is thought to curb the paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect.

With the study's conclusion view that sequential effects of the paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag are consequentially placing on threat GLM constitutional right to exist (Bekink, 2006:3), the following are recommendations placed forth:

- Organisational leadership and management to craft and execute strategies such as adhocracy, special capacity building, restructuring and rationalisation, mitigation and contingency special budgetary allowances, culturing adherence to policy based operations and stakeholder management principles.
- There has to be application of Stakeholder Policy Decision Making Engagement Principles (StaPolDeMEP) as leadership and management model within service delivery field.
- The StaPolDeMEP model to be taken relevant to prevent, avoid, alleviate and curb off GLM and any other employers' facing industrial action-service delivery lag effect.
- The GLM municipality to resuscitate or re-establish the Local Labour Forums.
- The Municipality has to improve on the adherence to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act.
- Further research to investigate effect of implementing StaPolDeMEP in curbing the paradigm of industrial action-service delivery lag effect.

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Do African Leaders Deliver on their Election Promises? A Case of Fetakgomo-Tubatse Municipality, Limpopo Province

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Abstract: The study focused on the failure of the local municipality under the leadership of the ANC as the ruling party, to provide clean water to the households. Provision of clean water has remained a key element in the manifesto of the ANC over the years, and also in the current 2019 election campaigns, however, this aspect has been eluding the party over the years. This is in contrast to the legislation which states that Provincial and Local Government Municipalities should provide un-interrupted quality water services to citizens. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, in particular, chapter two (Bill of Rights) sections 27(1) (b) enshrines the basic right of access to sufficient water, as well as a safe and healthy environment. Furthermore, the constitution obliges government, in particular Municipalities as water service providers to meet their constitutional responsibility of providing healthy drinking water services to the communities. The other major piece of current legislation is the National Water Act, 36 of 1998, chapter 2, water management strategies that delineates how water resources need to be protected, used, developed, conserved, managed and controlled. Chapter 3, part 3, further deals with water reserve which consist of two parts and they are, the basic human need reserve and the ecological reserve. The basic human need reserve provides for the essential needs of individuals served by water resource in question and includes water for drinking, for food preparation and for personal hygiene. The ecological reserve relates to the water required to protect aquatic ecosystems of the water resource. This has to be primarily within the guiding principles of sustainable development and for the benefit of everyone in South Africa.

Keywords: Bulk water supply, Framework, Service delivery, Water quality, Water resources

1. Introduction

Leaders across the globe are good in making election promises, which prove to be difficult to deliver once such leaders are in office. This is because campaigning is easy, and fulfilling election promises calls for availability of various resources. More often than not, election promises are based on the dire needs of the communities; politicians know how to 'scratch where it itches the most'. However, they tend to ignore calculating the resources that will be needed when implementing their manifestos. It is therefore not surprising to find that electorates are forgotten immediately after the elections, and will only be remembered when the other elections are due. Hence, most African leaders focus on how they will benefit once they get into power, instead of focusing on uplifting communities. South African politics are riddled with a number of empty promises to the voters. Moeng (2019) observed that politicians make numerous promises to the voters during the

election period with the hope of getting more votes, however, such promises are not fulfilled. Thus, this article focuses on water promises that were made to Fetakgomo-Tubatse local municipality. The municipality experiences huge water shortages, despite election promises and legislation that stipulates that all South Africans will have access to clean water.

Water is the major source of life and it plays a pivotal role in peoples' lives. Kingsbury and Remenyi (2004) state that water has a direct impact on the everyday livelihoods of communities. The Republic of South Africa's Constitution Act, 108 of 1996, in particular, its Bill of Rights enshrines the basic right of access to sufficient water, as well as a safe and healthy environment (RSA, 1996). Furthermore, the constitution obliges water service providers to meet their constitutional responsibility of providing healthy drinking water services to the communities. If ever this right of access to clean water services is compromised it will mean that the rights of the people are being infringed.

The Water Services Act, 108 of 1997, outlines the responsibility of the government departments even more. The Act provides an outlined regulatory framework within which water-related services should be provided. It provides the basic guidelines for the management of the country's water resources 36 of 1998. This has to be primarily within the guiding principles of sustainable development and for the benefit of everyone in South Africa.

Nevertheless, the effective provision of clean drinking water is the major challenge confronting South Africa's public service sector since the democratic governance in 1994 (Kido, 2008). In recent years many communities, in all parts of the country, have resorted to protest activities to express their dissatisfaction with the state of municipal service delivery. Protest actions have progressively increased in intensity since 2004. Damage to private and public property and threats to human safety have been part and parcel of the protest actions. One leading cause of the dissatisfaction, in respect of the water sector, has been the government's unfulfilled promise as indicated above of a sustainable supply of proper drinking water as contained in the Municipal Infrastructure Grant booklet (2004-2007:04).

Despite the formalised legislative measures and comprehensive policy strategies, not much has come out of the commitment made of proper water services for all. This is true especially in the rural areas of the poorer provinces of South Africa, such as Limpopo, the Eastern Cape and parts of KwaZulu-Natal, where there are clear discrepancies (Nzimakwe, 2009:62). The above statements confirm that there is a serious problem in implementing plans for an effective framework to ensure that the country's water resources are protected, developed and well managed (Thompson, 2006). Thus in the village of Mohlaletse, under the jurisdiction of the Fetakgomo Greater Tubatse local municipality, water shortage has reached a level of being a crisis. The study intends to investigate the election promises made to the community of Fetakgomo-Tubatse local municipality and to determine if the political leaders delivered on their election promises.

2. Election Promises Made to Fetakgomo-Tubatse Local Municipality in Relation to Water Provision

South African citizens were promised clean water provision through the following legislation in

addition to election promises made by the governing party.

2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, Chapter two: Bill of Rights, in particular, enshrines the principles of access to sufficient and clean drinking water as a basic human right. It also operates as a framework within which South Africa's water legislation must operate and for the division of legislative and administrative responsibilities between the different spheres of government. Section 27 of the Constitution stipulates that every person has a constitutional right to have access to sufficient water. The state must take reasonable legislative and other measures to achieve the progressive realisation of this right.

2.2 Water Services Act, 108 of 1997

The Water Service Act, 108 of 1997, created a regulatory framework within which water services should be provided, which basically involves regulating the use of water resources and issues affecting the water resources. Section 3 stipulates that:

- Everyone has a right of access to a basic water supply and basic sanitation;
- Every water service institution must take reasonable measures to realise these rights.

The Act makes provision for the right of access to a basic water supply necessary to secure sufficient water and an environment not harmful to human health or wellbeing. The Act also places all water institutions under an obligation to give preference to the provision of a basic water supply and basic sanitation to the communities.

2.3 Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

Bekink (2006:315) says that the provision of water and more specifically drinking water to the residents is generally considered to be one of the basic services that a municipality must render. Without water and basic sanitation infrastructure and services, it becomes difficult to imagine how a settlement can be sustainable and survive. Accordingly, water and sanitation services seem to tie in strongly with the development duties and objectives of municipalities

that have been entrenched in the Constitution. There is a clear role for the local municipality to address all challenges relating to the water supply in the local community. This includes priorities outlined in their 2016/2017 Integrated Development Planning (IDP). The local municipality is ideally positioned to provide citizens with a full range of municipal services and enable them to exercise their basic civil, socioeconomic and political rights. It is critical that the wellness of every citizen is given recognition so that growth and development become a reality. In fact, service delivery practices and a focused commitment by municipal officials can influence growth and sustainable development.

3. Challenges Relating to Water Delivery

The following are identified constraints facing water service delivery and management:

3.1 Natural Factors and Water Delivery Challenges

The limited rainfall received by the country is a major constraint which makes the storage of surface water very difficult. The limited rainfall in seven provinces of South Africa (except KZN and Western Cape) rendered most of the rivers dry throughout the season. Most water dams get dry before the beginning of the new rainy season. According to Statistic South Africa (2015), 67 762 households in South Africa receive water from a rainwater tank while in Limpopo, 3 236 households receive water from a rainwater tank. It is also further indicated by the Statistics South Africa of 2015 that 735 119 households in South Africa used rivers and streams and wells as their main source of water. This evidence means that the provision of water to these households depends on the mercy of enough rainfall (Lehohla, 2015:75).

As a result of this natural factor of receiving limited rainfall in some other parts of the country, it will be logical for South Africa to ensure that water is drawn from those provinces that receive more rainfall to those that are receiving little rainfall. The Department of Water and Sanitation as the custodian of water resources should ensure that Provincial water dams are interconnected. This would ensure that provinces such as Limpopo and the Eastern Cape are not left behind in terms of households that have access to piped water. The DWS can also enter into agreement with other

countries that have an abundance of water to address these natural factors, Lesotho in particular; the country is reported to receive an annual rainfall of 100 mm from October to April (LHWP, 2014). These are the opportunities that DWS can make use of to address the problems of the drought stricken provinces. It has been indicated at the beginning of this chapter that water is development. Without water, provinces such as Eastern Cape and Limpopo will always remain at the bottom of the ladder in terms of the human development index. Despite the annual rainfall that is received by South Africa, the country also depends largely on ground water. It is a known fact that most of the rural areas of South Africa use the onsite sanitation system such as pit toilets and this can cause the ground water to be contaminated (Muller, 1989:30). According to the South Africa Year Book, 2014, provinces such as Limpopo, Northern Cape, North West and Eastern Cape receive most of their bulk water from the ground water resources. It is estimated that about 52% and 82% of community water supply schemes are from ground water resources (Burger, 2006/7:608). This would mean that more people in those provinces are at risk of drinking contaminated water from the ground. It is therefore imperative that water treatment and testing be done on a regular basis by the Water Service Providers to ensure that consumers are not infected by contaminated water drawn from the ground.

3.2 Theft and Corruption in Local Municipalities

According to Myburgh (2008:15-17), theft of generators and water pumps and vandalism of water pump valves regularly result into most rural areas going without water for weeks in Limpopo. One incident of this nature happened in Mankweng Township, an area that is under the jurisdiction of Polokwane Local Municipality. In a similar incident, in Louis Trichardt, Makhado Municipality, residents had no water for the entire day after cables at the pump station at the Albasini dam were stolen (Myburg, 2008:3). Cable theft continues to grow rampant in Limpopo Province. Diesel generators used to draw the underground water are the targets of criminals. The majority of rural areas in Limpopo Province still use diesel generators to draw water from the boreholes to the reservoirs. This is in line with the Free Basic Water Supply to ensure that poor communities do receive water. It is however, the responsibility of the municipalities to ensure that

security measures are put in place to prevent further theft. The Local Polokwane Municipality should also encourage communities to take ownership of the municipality's infrastructure by reporting criminal acts to the police. It is from this background that President Thabo Mbeki in his state of the nation address in 2008 demanded that all local municipalities must have had anti-theft and anti-corruption strategies to deal with corruption (Rohan, 2008:24).

3.3 Lack of Capacity at Local Municipalities

Devas and Rakodi (1993:190) indicate that inadequate financial management and resources remain among the key constraints on the provision of satisfactory service delivery. Lack of financial skills in running huge projects such as water service projects has been a major constraint in the country. It is from this background that the PDLGH has considered it imperative to deploy experts in various fields to build capacity among the weak municipalities that are unable to perform according to the required standards and procedures. The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) has also embarked on ensuring that Municipal Councillors are equipped with the necessary skills to manage big projects in their municipalities. It is a known fact that most of the councillors in all municipalities are elected and not appointed. In some instances, some are without the necessary skills that are required to ensure that services to the people are delivered.

4. Causes of Water Problems

The main causes of the water problems, according to studies conducted by specialists, as seen in the water crisis in the 21st century was much more related to management than to a real problem of scarcity and stress (Rogers, 2006:17). Nevertheless, according to other specialists, it is the result of a set of environmental problems aggravated by economic and social development problems (Gleick, 2000:24). Somlyody & Varis (2006:12) attest that the deepening and complexity of the water problems are due to real problems of availability and increased demand, and to a sectoral management process that responds to such problems without a systematic approach that tries to foresee them. Tundisi & Matsumura-Tundisi (2008:28) heighten the need for a systematic, integrated and predictive approach to water management at a level decentralised from the river basin. According to these authors, a consolidated database converted into a

management tool can be one of the most effective forms of confronting the problem of water scarcity, water stress and deteriorating quality.

Tundisi *et al.* (2008:29) highlight that, in the broad social, economic and environmental context of the 21st century, the following principal problems and processes were the main causes of the water problem:

- Intense urbanisation, increasing the demand for water, expanding the discharge of contaminated water resources, while there is tremendous demand for water for drinking and economic and social development (Tucci, 2008:09);
- Water stress and scarcity in many regions of the planet due to alterations in availability and increased demand;
- Poor infrastructure or infrastructure in a critical state in many urban areas, with losses in the network of up to 30% after treatment; and
- Problems of stress and scarcity due to global changes with extreme hydrological events increasing the human population's vulnerability and compromising food security (intense rains and intense periods of drought).

Tucci (2008:10) went further to propose that the services such as the regulation of cycles, climate control, water supply, energy and food production should be the basis for a new approach in the management and governance of water resources. Advanced monitoring capacity with the preparation of a database and the production of software suitable to the management is another methodology of broadly applied scope (MEA, 2003:52).

4.1 The Water Contribution Towards Regional and National Economics

Regional and national economies depend on the adequate availability of water for the generation of energy, public drinking supplies, irrigation and food production (agriculture, aquaculture and fishing for example). Improving the management of water resources, integrating and improving the multiple uses, flexibly in allocating water to different users and investing in public sanitation (sewage collection, resolving sanitary problems of waterborne diseases) are of the most important forms of economic and

social development, because improving the quality of life promotes the generation of jobs and income and expands the ability to supply water for multiple uses and stimulates the economy (Bhatia & Bhatia, 2006:30). Low cost technologies can support the implementation of measures and the development of actions in basic sanitation, especially for low-income populations on the periphery of large metropolitan regions (Tundisi *et al.*, 2006:35).

4.2 Effects of Climate Change on Availability of Water

Climate change plays an important role in the hydrological cycle and in the quantity and quality of water. These phenomena can promote countless changes in the availability of water and in the health of the human population. With various changes on continents and in regions, three fundamental problems should be studied to promote solutions:

Hydrological extremes - hydrological extremes that will occur on different continents and in regions should affect human populations due to disasters (floods, mudslides, overflows) or intense droughts (increase in semi-arid and arid regions), compromising human health, food security and increasing the vulnerability of the cycles and biogeochemical processes; urban areas can be affected to the extreme by these hydrological extremes.

Contamination - studies undertaken in many regions indicate a sharp increase of contamination aggravated by salinisation and decontrol of land use, interfering with the cycles of phosphorus, nitrogen and heavy metals (Tucci, 2008:22). The eutrophication of surface waters (rivers, lakes and reservoirs) should increase because of higher water temperatures and thermal resistance to circulation, as a consequence there will be greater frequency of outbreaks of cyanobacteria (Pearl & Hussmann, 2008:45), aggravating the toxicity of springs and natural water supply sources.

Water and regional and national economies - These hydrological extremes and the increased contamination will affect regional economies, causing profound alterations in the economy dependent on the availability and demand for water resources. The solution to confronting the consequences of the effects of global changes in water resources is to adapt to these alterations by promoting better governance at the watershed level, developing advanced technologies

for monitoring and management while expanding community participation - users and the public in general - in this management and in the sharing of the technological processes that will improve the infrastructure of the database to give greater sustainability to the actions.

5. Methods and Materials

Research methodology is the specific procedures or techniques used to identify, select, process, and analyze information about a topic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:141). The researcher followed qualitative methods of conducting the study due to the nature of the topic and the intended data to be collected. Qualitative research design encompasses several approaches to research that are in some respects quite different from one another, but they all have two things in common: firstly, they focus on phenomena that occur in a natural setting, that is, in the real world, and secondly, they involve capturing and studying the complexity of those phenomena (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:141).

The researcher implored Phenomenological study because it attempts to identify and understand the challenges that face Fetakgomo Tubatse Municipality with regard to its water management strategy. Semi-structured interviews with respondents were conducted. The interview guide with open-ended questions was developed to guide the interview sessions. The flexibility of using semi-structured interviews as compared to structured interviews is that the former allows the researcher for the discovery and elaboration of information from respondents that is important to the research but may not have been thought of as pertinent by the researcher (Gill, Steward, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008:1). Besides the semi-structured interviews, the researcher also utilised document analyses as form of secondary data collection and observations.

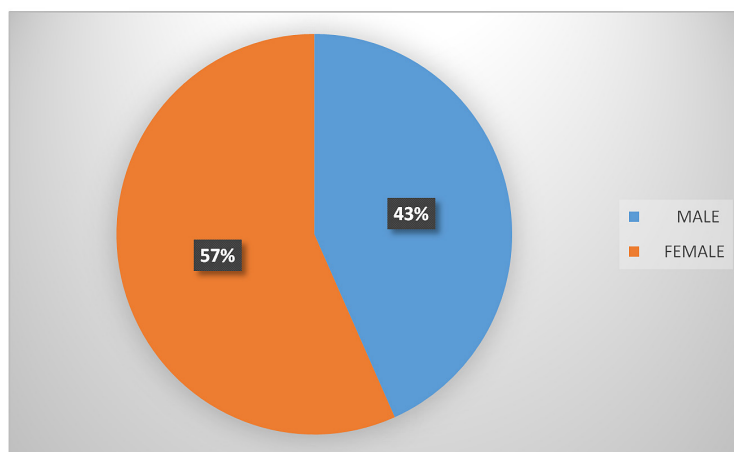
5.1 Study Area

Mohlaletse is one of the villages that fall under Fetakgomo Tubatse Local Municipality, Sekhukhune District. Mohlaletse borders with Mabopo, Apel, Nkoana and Seroka Villages. Fetakgomo Tubatse is a product of reconfiguration of municipalities, a process that was undertaken by government in the year 2016. The Municipality is located north of the N4 highway, Middleburg, Belfast and Mbombela, and east of the N1 highway, Groblersdal and Polokwane. The

Table 1: Gender of the Respondents

Male	Female
13	17

Source: Authors

Figure 1: Gender of Respondents

Source: Authors

municipal area of jurisdiction covers approximately 4 550.001105 square kilometres or 45 500.1105 ha in size. The area is known as the middle-veld as it is located between the High-veld and Low-veld regions. It is located within the Sekhukhune District Municipality (SDM) of the Limpopo Province. (Draft consolidated IDP for Fetakgomo Greater Tubatse Municipality, 2016/17). Mahlaletse used to fall under jurisdiction of former Fetakgomo Local Municipality, which was considered to be one of the rural based municipalities with less/no potential for revenue generation. The village is situated approximately 120 kilometres East of Polokwane City (IDP Document, 2016/2017).

6. Results and Discussions

The researcher utilised the thematic data analysis technique. The variables that denote themes were clustered together and those that denote the numbers were put together. The frequency of water supply is quantitative. The feelings of the households about service delivery are qualitative, hence a qualitative approach to this study (Giesler, 2004). The following are the findings of the study emanating from the data analysis:

6.1 Biographical Information of Respondents

The biographical information intends to gather specific information as follows, gender of the respondents,

age group of the respondents, educational level of the respondents, household income, and size of house owned.

6.2 Gender of the Respondents

In terms of gender the following information was found as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 and Figure 1 above demonstrate that according to the findings, the number of male respondents who were found at home was thirteen while their female counterparts were seventeen. The general opinion is that women are usually above men in number, especially during working days as most men are normally at work, while their wives are taking care of their homes. These data are consistent with the theory.

6.3 Age Group of the Respondents

The age group information of the respondents is shown in Table 2.

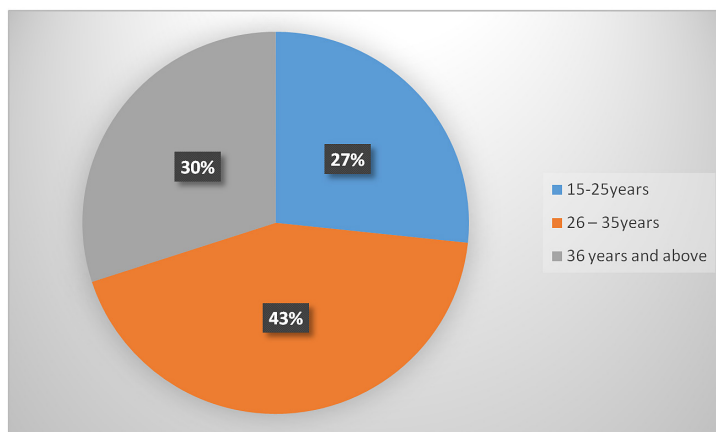
The results depicted in Table 2 and Figure 2 on the next page show that three sets of age groups took part in the study. In terms of the findings, the respondents from fifteen to twenty-five years were eight, those between twenty-six and thirty-five years that took part in the study were twenty-three. The adults from thirty-six years and above were

Table 2: Age Group of the Respondents

15-25 years	26 – 35 years	36 years and above
8	13	9

Source: Authors

Figure 2: Age Group of Respondents



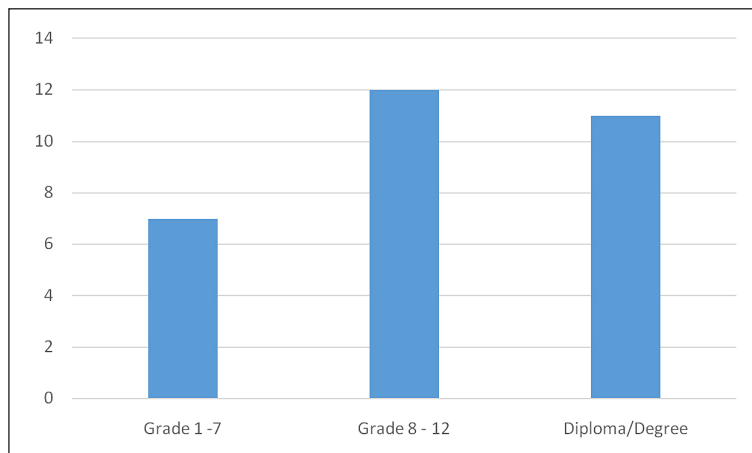
Source: Authors

Table 3: Educational Level

Grade 1 -7	Grade 8 - 12	Diploma/Degree
07	12	11

Source: Authors

Figure 3: Educational Levels of Participants



Source: Authors

twenty-nine. This part, as well, shows that a reasonable number of the residents were at home when data were collected, indicating the area is a rural setup with more elderly people, women and the sick are at home during working hours.

6.4 Educational Level

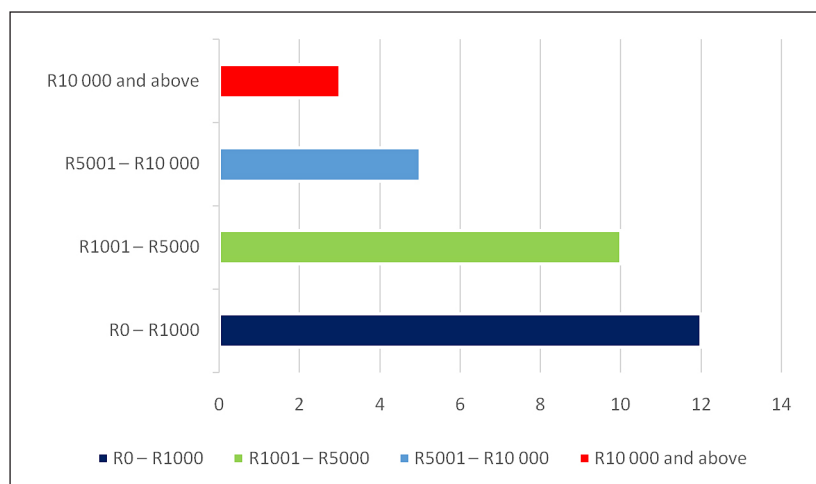
The educational level results are indicated in Table 3 above.

In terms of educational level, results indicate that the majority of respondents achieved Grade 8-12, which were twelve in number, followed by eleven with Diploma /Degree and seven in the Grade 1-7 category. The highest response rate of Grade 8-12 indicates that the most of community have high school education, and have some knowledge of water issues. They lack tertiary education because of lack of resources and the rural nature of the community.

Table 4: Household Income

R0 – R1000	R1001 – R5000	R5001 – R10 000	R10 000 and Above
12	10	5	3

Source: Authors

Figure 4: Household Income Categories

Source: Authors

6.5 Households Income

In terms of household income, results indicate that the majority of respondents were in the category R0-R1000, followed by R1001-R5000. Very few are in the category R10 000 and above. Similarly, very few are in the category R0-R1000. Household income is a strong determinant of the supply and use of water. It is argued that people could be water-poor not because there is no safe water in their area but because they are income-poor. In other words, despite water being available within their area, people may fail to get connected and have access to safe water because they cannot afford the cost of doing so (Dungumaro, 2007:1146). The situation in Fetakgomo Tubatse indicates that the income of the community is very poor, with most residents falling in the lowest category.

Table 5 and Figure 5 on the following page show that seven of the households had only one room each. This room would be used as a kitchen, dining room, lounge and bedroom, reflecting a desperate state of lack of housing accommodation and indeed a state of poverty. One in eight households had two room houses and that still suggests a shortage. Most households with one and two room houses were in, implying severe lack of housing development in this municipality. The majority of houses were 3-4 rooms and 4-5 rooms. Some households

in the study area had bigger houses with more than five rooms. Some houses were built for the communities by government under its. The sizes of houses owned by households in the study area could therefore not be a reliable indicator of their economic status.

6.6 Contribution of the Municipality to Water Accessibility

According to the National Water Act, no 36 of 1998, government is the trustee and custodian of all water resources in the country and must ensure that water is protected, used, developed, conserved, managed and controlled in a sustainable and equitable manner, for the benefit of all persons and in accordance with its constitutional mandate. The government has the responsibility, among others, to conduct water resource management, enact water-pricing strategies, protect resources, and implement water augmentation schemes (Van Heerden *et al.*, 2008:110).

6.7 The Problem of Water Supply in the Area

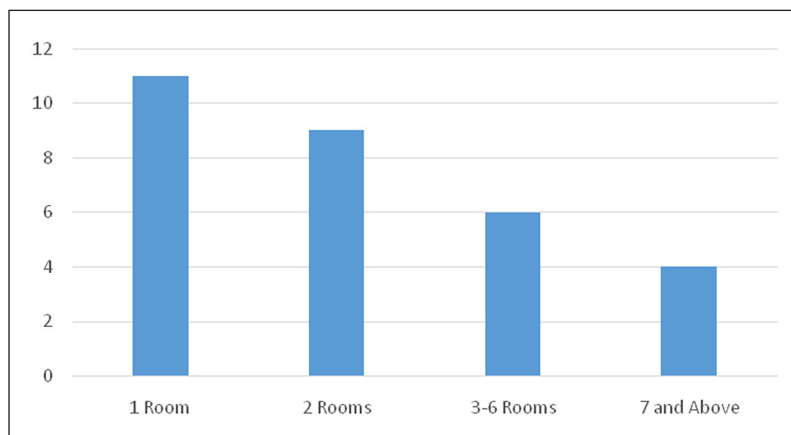
The identified area relies mostly on river water and boreholes. The few who can afford the piped water also have to fall back on river water or boreholes when the supply has stalled or has been interrupted. Physical assessment identifies that there

Table 5: Size of Houses Owned

1 Room	2 Rooms	3 – 6 Rooms	7 Rooms and Above
11	9	6	4

Source: Authors

Figure 5: Sizes of Houses Owned



Source: Authors

are no other sources of water besides river streams and boreholes, except the rain water. Community members regard piped water as an unreliable source of water as it frequently gets interrupted. The overarching factor to unreliable piped water supply includes unavailability of operators and municipal officials responsible for operation and maintenance lacking the requisite skills. In one of the incidences, respondents said that it took the municipality over a week to repair the broken pipe and restore the water supply. One of the challenges identified which affect supply of water to the research area is the illegal connections made in villages before Mohlaletse village. Illegal connections affect water pressure in the pipelines, either to or from the reservoir, as some piped water gets lost along the way.

6.8 The Effects of Water Scarcity in the Area

Scarcity of water has negative effects to the livelihoods of the citizens. The following are the possible negative effects to the wellbeing of citizens.

6.8.1 Exposure to Diseases

In the absence of a piped water supply residents are forced to share river, stream water with animals, the practice that exposes them to waterborne viruses, especially the poor who cannot afford water purification chemicals. This situation leads to government spending more resources providing cures due to the cause which could have been prevented.

6.8.2 Life Becomes Costly

Residents have to go deeper into their pockets buying water from water tankers who take advantage of interruptions of piped water supply and water purification chemicals. The poor are hard hit as they used the money intended for other purposes on water purchasing and/or purifying.

6.8.3 Time Consuming

The poor residents who cannot afford to buy water from tankers have to travel long distances to fetch water, thus consuming their time to engage in other tasks such as studying, exercising and household tasks other than having to travel such distances to get a basic need.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

South African communities have been promised access to clean water, however, this has not yet been a reality in many communities like Fetakgomo-Tubatse community. This is because political leaders tend to forget about fulfilment of their election promises upon ascension to power. The Fetakgomo-Tubatse local municipality also experienced a lot of protests in the area of non-delivery of services, a phenomenon that is prevalent in the country. It is therefore imperative that political leaders take the voters seriously and the communities that put them into power. Nevertheless, water shortage is a global crisis that needs to be handled with care. Governments should ensure that proper

water management strategies are developed and implemented.

The study recommends the following:

- Improve water management strategies and policing to prevent and root-out illegal connections to the system;
- Intensify water awareness campaign to educate citizens about effects of illegal connections;
- Water purification awareness to be embarked upon to educate the community about the danger of drinking unsafe water and how to purify it;
- Provision of water tankers every time the interruption of piped water supply has occurred. This will relieve the communities of unintended expenditure on buying water from private water tankers;
- Management should recruit people with relevant water management and technical skills in the Infrastructure and Basic Service Delivery Department and consider a capacity development programme to enhance the skills of the current workforce;
- Policy development on the municipal water management and enforcement of by-laws should be implemented and the consequences to the non-adherence to water by-laws be clearly communicated to the communities.

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Leadership and Change Management in a Rapidly Changing Environment

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Abstract: The Heads of Departments (HoDs) in the South African public sector are appointed on a five-year contract and not on a permanent capacity and there is also a high turnover of HoDs. The frequent change of HoDs is further exacerbated by the rapid changes taking place in the environment, which means that change management has to be implemented fast and efficiently, any delay or disruption can have an adverse effect on the change process. The purpose of this research was to investigate the effect that the high turnover rate of HoDs in the South African public sector has on maintaining the momentum at which government programmes are being undertaken specifically focusing on the implementation of the Outcomes Approach. The Presidency in South Africa implemented the Outcomes Approach in 2010, which monitors government performance in the country. The intention of the Outcomes Approach is to enhance service delivery, therefore all government departments in the country have a role to play in the Outcome Approach. As with any new project or programme, there is the need for a rigorous change management process with committed and supportive leadership. This research study looked at how change management was implemented and sustained, for the Outcomes Approach, with the frequent change of leadership. A qualitative approach was used for this research. The findings showed that in some cases the change of HoD influenced the department in a positive manner while in other cases it had negative results. Change management was conducted, to varying extents as there was more reliance on the National Development Plan. Most change management models were developed before the onset of rapid change and frequent change of HoDs; therefore, the Triple I Change Management Model was developed for this study where there is frequent change of leadership in a rapidly changing environment.

Keywords: Change management, Frequent change of leadership, Outcomes approach, Rapidly changing environment

1. Introduction

The monitoring system of a country helps to strengthen its governance by enhancing transparency, improving accountability, and promoting a culture in government to improve policymaking, budgeting, and management practices (Talbot, 2010). The main aim of the Outcomes Approach is to improve service delivery for all South Africans. It will help the different spheres of government to make sure that the results improve service delivery, which in turn creates a better life for the citizens. The Outcomes Approach will track progress of what is supposed to be achieved, identify the successes and failures, and establish how to progress over time with planning and implementation on an annual basis (The Presidency, 2010). When a new and major programme like the Outcomes Approach is being implemented, it needs to be introduced to the participating institutions to obtain buy-in and support from all the stakeholders. Before rolling out the Outcomes Approach, a change management process should have taken place. The

aim of change management is to obtain buy-in and to change the mind-set, behaviour, and skills of individuals (Luecke, 2003; Okumus & Hemmington, 1998). A major factor in the achievement of government programmes lies with leadership in the public sector. A report produced by the Public Service Commission (2008), stated that public service managers must be responsible for transforming the strategic vision, goals and objectives of government into efficient and effective service delivery. To assist the public service managers in attaining this goal it is essential to have a certain level of stability in the leadership of the country. This will assist in sustaining the impetus with which government's programmes are being provided and is not compromised by frequent change in leadership. For the purpose of this study leadership will refer to the Heads of department in the South African public sector.

When a major government programme is introduced, there is usually a lot of attention, excitement, and publicity within the public sector departments

and the public in general. With time the excitement and attention dies a slow death and it is 'business as usual'. It is critical that the change management process ensures that the new behaviour and way of doing things continue. Leadership thus plays a fundamental role in maintaining the momentum of the change effort; however, the frequent change in HoDs can have an effect on the change management process and the achievement of government programmes. Currently, HoDs are appointed on a five-year contract. It has been shown that when a new HoD joins a department, they tend to introduce new strategies and plans; or their priorities may not be the same as the previous HoD, this may subject the department to a process of numerous change-overs. The short tenure of the HoD means that just when they understand the operations of the department it is time for them to leave the department and the cycle starts again with a new HoD. Apart from the frequent change of HoDs, we are living in a time of rapid change and departments need to adapt continuously to the changes taking place. It is essential for a HoD to be agile and operate with speed and flexibility to keep abreast with the changes taking place in the environment. The frequent change of HoDs operating in a rapidly changing environment means that they can no longer work in a strategic planning mode they must operate in real time in order to achieve the goals of the department.

2. Literature Review

Leadership as defined by Yukl (2009) is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. In order to transform organisations, a critical success factor is for leadership to drive the process of its implementation. There are several different styles of leadership of which transactional and transformation leadership are two of them. Transactional leadership inspires people mostly through some form of incentive and dynamic management. They set out expectations for employees through suitable mechanisms to achieve the desired goals and feedback is provided so that the tasks of employees are kept on track. Transactional leaders specify at the outset how employees will be compensated for their achievement and commitment, (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 2002). Transformational leaders are charming, inspiring,

intellectually stimulating, and thoughtful (Avolio *et al.*, 1995). They help members to put the vision of the organisation first before their own interests. They are driven by a strong value system, which will ultimately result in influence over organisational performance.

2.1 Leadership Theories

Trait Theory according to early theorists were born leaders that were endowed with certain physical traits and personality characteristics which distinguished them from non-leaders (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016). Trait theories ignored the assumptions about whether leadership traits were genetic or acquired. Jenkins identified two traits; emergent traits (those which are heavily dependent upon heredity) such as height, intelligence, attractiveness, and self-confidence and effectiveness traits (based on experience or learning), including charisma, as fundamental component of leadership (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Contingency theories (Situational) recommends that no leadership style is precise as a stand-alone, as the leadership style used is reliant upon the factors such as the quality, situation of the followers or a number of other variables. According to this theory, there is no single right way to lead because the internal and external dimensions of the environment require the leader to adapt to that particular situation (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016). In most cases, leaders do not change only the dynamics and environment, employees within the organization change. In a common sense, the theories of contingency are a category of behavioural theory that challenges that there is no one perfect way of leading/organising and that the style of leadership that is effective in some circumstances may not be effective in others (Greenleaf, 1977).

Transformational Theory distinguishes itself from the rest of the previous and contemporary theories, on the basis of its alignment to a greater good as it entails involvement of the followers in processes or activities related to personal factor towards the organization and a course that will yield certain superior social dividend. The transformational leaders raise the motivation and morality of both the follower and the leader (House & Shamir, 1993). It is considered that the transformational leaders engage in interactions with followers based on common values, beliefs and goals. This impacts

the performance leading to the attainment of goal. This theory conforms to the Maslow (1954) higher order needs theory. Transformational leadership is a course that changes and approach targets on beliefs, values and attitudes that enlighten leaders' practices and the capacity to lead change (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016).

2.2 Change Management

Gayef (2014) defined change management as the process of continuously reviewing and changing an organisation's strategic direction, structure, and competencies of employees to keep abreast with the constantly changing needs of its customers. Ledez (2008) pointed out that change would never end, it is ongoing; it is the natural life cycle of man, nature, and business. An organisation must be willing to undertake change, which if not carried out, could result in the downfall of the company. Barnard and Stoll (2010) highlighted that in the present time of economic instability and changes in government priorities, change in public departments has become a key priority. Some of the well-known change management models are Kotter's Eight-Step change management model developed in 1996, which consist of increase urgency, build the guiding team, Get the vision right, communicate for buy-in, empower action, create short-term wins, do not slacken, make change sustainable. Kotter's eight steps have been highly praised by Joshi. (2013) as being a systematic model, which is simple and easy to apply, however Sarayreh, Khudair and Barakat (2013) criticised Kotter's (2012) change management model, as all eight stages are about changing people's behaviour and not about changing strategy, systems, or culture. Joshi (2013) stated that the model is perceived to be very rigid, as the steps in the model should be followed in a particular order. If a step is omitted, the implementation of the change will not be effective and if the process has started, it is difficult to change the direction of the project. Another model is Kurt Lewin's 3 Step change management model developed in 1947. It consists of 3 steps that are unfreeze, change and refreeze. The benefits, as cited by Smith (2013), are that Lewin's model is the simplest available for the implementation of change management. According to Burnes (1996:2004a) and Senior, (2002), the approach's emphasis is on small-scale and incremental change, and it is therefore not appropriate to situations that require rapid and transformational change.

There are a number of excellent change management models but none take into account that the landscape has changed to one where the changes are rapid. It is therefore essential that when change requirements are identified, the leaders must emphasise its urgency; any time lapse would be detrimental to the change initiative achieving its goals. Dixon (2015) stated that history is changing at a very rapid pace, it often does not give businesses enough time to apply changes; there are changes taking place in every aspect of the environment. Dey (2017) stated that survival of the fittest is about adaptability to a changing environment and adjusting to new competitive realities, in short 'agility'. Annunzio (2001) stated that there has never been a time in history that has witnessed so much change, occurring so rapidly, and affecting so many people. Soon, businesses that were considered staples in our youth may become extinct or completely reinvented. eLeadership means letting go of being in the comfort zone in search of a new direction that will survive the eRevolution. To be competitive today, the eLeader must have a sound strategy and must be able to implement it well. With today's focus on speed, the lag time between idea and implementation must be zero (Annunzio, 2001).

3. Methods and Materials

This research adopted the qualitative methodology but utilised some elements from the quantitative research methods. Information was collected through semi-structured interviews conducted with the Outcome Facilitators, which took the form of words, impressions, and sentences, and contributed towards the qualitative method of this research. The Outcome Facilitators are employed in the Department of Planning Monitoring and Evaluation and have been involved with the Outcomes Approach from the onset when the Outcomes Approach was developed in 2010. They are appointed on an executive level and are the main officials responsible for supporting and liaising with the lead coordinating departments. The lead coordinating departments are responsible for leading various other departments to achieve the set outputs and targets for a particular outcome. The responses obtained from the questionnaires distributed to officials in the 12 lead coordinating departments for the Outcomes Approach, were in the form of hard data, which contributed towards the quantitative element of this research. Quantitative data was collected to complement the narratives from the interviews. Purposive

sampling was used for this research whereby people were chosen for a particular purpose. The interview participants chosen for this research were based on their area of expertise and the survey participants were chosen based on their experience in the implementation of the Outcomes Approach in their own departments. Only 5 officials were chosen in each of the 12 lead coordinating departments to participate in the survey and 7 Outcome Facilitators were interviewed as some of them were responsible for 2 outcomes and some of them were not available as they no longer worked in the department. When the Outcomes Approach was developed there were 12 outcomes and in 2013 an additional 2 outcomes were added which will not form part of this study. The study sought to find out if the change in the Head of Department (HoD) affected the implementation of the Outcomes Approach and if change management took place when the Outcomes Approach was introduced in the department.

4. Results and Discussions

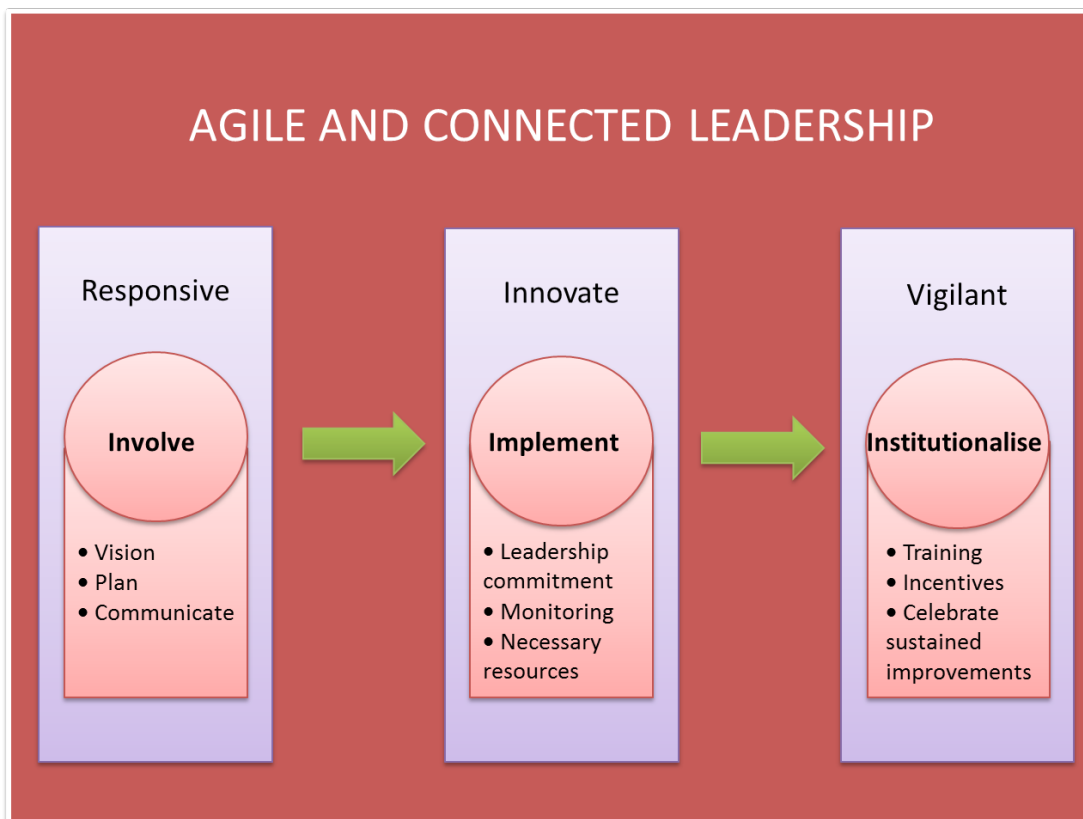
Responses from the questionnaires received from officials working with the Outcomes Approach were positive; the majority of the respondents indicated that in their departments there were no big changes in top management, which allowed for the continuity of the outcomes work when the HoD exited the department. A number of respondents indicated that the Outcomes Approach was institutionalised in their department, which is highly significant because even if there is a change of HoD it was still business as usual. It also means that there are documented practices and processes that contribute to continuity of work when officials working with the Outcomes Approach leave the department. 75 per cent of the survey respondents agreed that HoD stability is important for the successful implementation of the Outcomes Approach. Interviews held with the Outcome Facilitators showed that HoD stability is not necessarily good; if the HoD is not effective then a change in leadership would be beneficial. From the interviews held with the Outcome Facilitators, it was clear that in most lead coordinating departments change management did not take place as the Outcomes Approach emanated from the National Development Plan, which was part of the reporting structures, and departments were compelled to implement the Outcomes Approach. Even though the Outcomes Approach is compulsory, there should have been change management when the Outcomes Approach was implemented,

to obtain the buy-in and support of leadership and officials working with the Outcomes Approach. In departments where change management was conducted there has been more buy-in, support, and performance for the Outcomes Approach has been improving year-on-year. From the interviews with the Outcome Facilitators, it seems that the change of HoDs influenced some departments in a positive manner and other departments negatively. Some of the new HoDs brought in fresh ideas and were enthusiastic to bring about positive change in the department. Whilst in other departments newly appointed HoDs came in with their own ideas and, before assessing the status of the department, changed strategies and policies, which caused interruption and discontinuity. In a department, it takes a while to see the impact of strategies; then the HoD's contract come to an end, which makes the departmental goals difficult to achieve because of lack of continuity. The responses from the questionnaires seemed a little biased when compared to the responses from the Outcome Facilitators. The officials from the coordinating departments were leaning towards positive responses, while the Outcome Facilitators were more candid.

5. The Triple I Change Management Model for a Rapidly Changing Environment

Many of the change management models were developed before the onset of rapid changes taking place in the business environment, and contained a step-by-step process, which needed to be followed. In the current period, the one-size-fits-all approach does not apply as each organisation is different and it is important for change to be adapted to a particular organisation. The Triple I Change Management Model was developed to accommodate the rapidly changing environment and the frequent change of leadership. It is essential that when a change management process is underway there is continuity, even when the leadership changes. For this model to achieve its desired effect, it is important that all future leaders and top management attend training in change management so that they can be successful change agents. The Triple I Change Management model has to be championed by the Head of Department together with the top management team in the department. The reason being is that if the HoD suddenly exits the department the top management team can take over the change process without any disruption.

Figure 1: The Triple I Change Management Model



Source: Authors

The model depicted in Figure 1 incorporates the three important phases of change management, involve, implement and institutionalise; hence the name Triple I. Each phase contains three processes and each of these processes should be implemented with speed and flexibility to be able to adjust to the radical and fast changing environment today. In order for the Triple I model to be achieved in an environment that is operating at such a rapid pace, it is important for the leader to be agile and connected.

Each phase of the Triple I Change Management Model contains processes, in the involve phase there is vision, plan, and communicate. it is essential that there is a clear vision and everyone involved takes ownership of the vision. There must be a detailed strategic plan that shows the current state of the organisation and the desired state after change, and there must be continuous communication from the leader and top management. These processes need to take place with the leader, top management, and the employees in the organisation and should not be a command and control environment where it comes from the leader and the people involved have to obey; there must be consensus and agreement

on all the change issues as it concerns everyone in the organisation.

The implement phase contains three processes, leadership commitment, monitoring, and providing the necessary resources. The leader together with the top management team must show commitment to the change process otherwise the employees will not take the change seriously. Monitoring of the plan must take place to ensure that the activities and timeframes are achieved. For change to be successful the necessary resources must be made available. it is important for the leader to be innovative. They need to think outside the box if things are not going as planned and they need to come up with innovative ideas fast to ensure that these processes are achieved.

The institutionalise phase contains the processes of training, incentives, and celebrate sustained improvements. If the change required new skills the employees must be trained. There should be some form of incentive to motivate the employees to maintain the change and it is important that there are celebrations for sustained improvements. It is essential that the leader constantly reinforce that

the organisation is at a place where they do not do business as usual. Weekly meetings ensure the sustainability of change in the organisation and if any challenges are identified it can be resolved quickly. For the rapidly changing environment that leaders are operating in it will be effective for them to adopt the transformation leadership style.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

In South Africa and many other countries worldwide, there are frequent changes of leadership in the public sector, especially when there is a change of administration. The high turnover rate of HoDs in the South African public sector can affect the sustainability in the delivery of government programmes. It is important that the new HoDs continue from where the previous HoD left off, so that the goals of the department are achieved. It should be about the departmental goals and objectives and not about any individual's personal goals that need to be achieved. Leaders need to operate with speed and flexibility when managing change in their departments, thus ensuring that the departments are kept abreast of the changes taking place in the environment, and to provide for the needs of the country's citizens. The model developed for this study would be ideal for a government department undergoing any kind of change. This is an era where there are rapid changes taking place; therefore, reliance should not be placed on a single individual on the top but for the Head of Department to work as a team with their top management. If the HoD has to exit the department suddenly the top management team can continue with business as usual and change management is not disrupted or discontinued.

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Dilemmas of Implementing Climate Change Adaptation Policies: The Prospects and Constraints of Multilevel Governance

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Abstract: Globally, climate change has become a serious environmental problem within a development discourse. Most government structures have put in the initiatives to circumvent these harsh environmental realities without any success. This is due to the complexities surrounding climate change adaptation and mitigation. Literature provides pragmatic evidence that without collaboration between the governments, including public and private sectors, at the national and local level (i.e. Multi-Level Governance) mitigation of climate change will never be realised. Multilevel governance is based on the principles of collaboration, coordination and cooperation in implementing climate change adaptation. Thus, the multi-level principles can help in the promulgation and implementation of policies at both the national, local and global level that can be used as measures to adapt to climate change. The recent work on multi-level governance indicate that government are continuously challenged with the notion to merge different actors, either state or non- state to address climate change adaptation which leaves a huge gap in most countries. Although, the adaption of multilevel governance may seem to have left some few important facts, but the approach tends to be more arguable in its positive effectiveness for addressing climate change. Multi-level governance approach may have some limitations and constraints when coming to the involvement of the local people but can still play a pivotal role as one of the climate change adaptation strategies. Theoretically, with literature based analysis, the paper reviewed Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of selected municipalities within Capricorn District Municipality to uncover the level of integration and stakeholder engagement within local government in the quest to address climate change. The paper concludes that various local municipalities continue without proper plans, capacitated personnel and institutions for the implementation of climate change adaptation plans which derail the potentialities that multilevel governance holds in addressing urban challenges.

Keywords: Multilevel governance, Local government, Climate change, Integrated Development Plan

1. Introduction

The global crisis of climate change has been common in the past years, and still constitutes enormous impacts in most developing countries (Gunster, 2017) such as South Africa. According to the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA), climate change can be understood as an ongoing trend of changes of earth's general weather conditions that courses a rise in atmospheric temperatures which sometimes referred to as global warming (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2011). The present of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in the atmosphere as a result of human activities has resulted in climate change. These gases intensify a natural phenomenon called the "greenhouse effect" forming an insulating layer in the atmosphere that reduces the amount of the sun's heat that radiates back into space (DEA, 2011). One of the resultant effects of climate change is the rising sea level, melting of polar ice, snowfall patterns,

change in rainfall patterns, droughts, frequent floods and amongst others, that poses a disastrous effect in for the lives of people (DEA, 2011; Abraham, 2018). Policies were formulated and implemented to prevent or mitigate the level of climate change in most of developing countries. However, some policies were a bit equivocal and dwindled during its formulation and implementation (Boyd, 2012). Therefore, climate change has become increasingly imposed in South Africa. Regardless of the formulation of policies to address climate change adaptation and mitigation, there were some momentous factors that were left behind, that possessed a very important role in strengthening and addressing such issues of climate change (Lobell, Burke, Tebaldi, Mastrandrea, Falcon & Naylor, 2008). For climate change adaptation strategies to be effective, there were a need for adopt the interaction and decentralisation of powers from national, regional and local levels (Lobell *et al.*, 2008).

In chapter 3, section 40(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa has adopted a system of multi-level governance divided into three 'spheres' of government – national, provincial and local, that are to be 'distinctive, interdependent and interrelated' (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). This article interrogates the importance of interacting and decentralising powers from national to local to address the adaptive capacity of the local government towards climate change. Further, local government needs facilitate and execute powers so that can also adapt to ensure that climate change policies are effectively implemented in South Africa. However, the implementation climate change adaptation plans through multilevel governance is not as straightforward process. This is because climate change is not only an environmental issue, but it is also political. Furthermore, IDP and municipal plans play a role in adapting to climate change and thus providing South Africa climate policy context that drives and tries to balance the adaptation. Consecutively, article will also deliver the constraints and prospects that are associated with practicing multi-level governance and reaching paramount recommendations on how climate policy adaptation can be improvised in practicing multi-level governance in South Africa.

2. Multi-Level Governance Approach

The concept of multi-level governance finds its etymology in political science and public administration theory in European integration (Piattoni, 2009). It was developed by political scientist Liesbet Hooghe and Gary Marks in the early 1990s (Bache & Flinders, 2004). Multilevel governance can be described institutionally as a new concept to encompass overlapping competence and interactions amongst actors across various levels of governments, private sector, communities and civil societies (Stein & Turkewitsch, 2008). Multilevel governance is about the creation of institutions and decision reallocation upwards to the supranational level and downwards to the subnational level in order to effectively address developmental problems (Bache & Flinders, 2004). Multi-level governance strengthens the relationship and interactions of different government levels. In this sense, multilevel governance was essentially a broadening concept of federalism to include more than two levels of government and autonomous policy-making structures (Stein & Turkewitsch, 2008). However, there are four drivers of multilevel governance. Firstly,

the tendency over time to increase participation of non-state actors such as the NGOs, corporation and unions in government functions. Secondly, the growth of the overlapping decision making networks engaged in such functions. Thirdly, the change in the role of the state from command and control to steering, coordination and networking. Lastly, the challenges multilevel governance confronts in assigning responsibilities and exercising democratic accountability in governance (Bache & Flinders, 2004).

According to Bache and Flinders (2004), multi-level governance is being built on a number of foundations. Firstly, European integration means that capacity to make decisions in the European Union (EU) rests at different levels. The most important of these is the supranational level of EU institutions, the national level of governments and the sub national of sub-state actors such as local government and interest groups (Bache & Flinders, 2004). The European integration has also meant a loss in the supreme power of authority of the state (Hooghe & Marks, 2001; Bache and Flinders, 2004) within the multilevel governance context in order to ensure decentralised decision making. The supranational, national and sub-national level of government are seen to be interconnected with political development at one level impacting on the other levels (Hooghe & Marks, 2001). However, the state centric model that sees state as the sole controller in the European politics and the channels through which actors engage in the European sphere (Hooghe & Marks, 2001) is nullified by the application of multilevel governance.

There are two types of multi-level governance; the first type is the more traditional form, which is built upon the general purpose or the jurisdiction at different levels (Bache & Flinders, 2004). The traditional form of multilevel governance is mostly interested in the interaction between these levels of governments and the sharing of competence between them (Bache & Flinders, 2004). Thus, this type of MLG is attached to a state-centric concept of politics. Hence, the intellectual home base for this type of governance is federalism, which is concerned with power sharing among a limited number of governments operating at just a few levels (Benz, 2000; Bache & Flinders, 2004). The unit of analysis is the individual government, rather than the individual government (Benz, 2000). The second type of multi-level governance is the one in which

the jurisdictions is broad, rather than being limited. Jurisdictions are not aligned only to just a few levels, but rather operate at diverse territorial scales (Hooghe & Marks, 2001). These types are functionally specific rather than multi-task. This type of multi-level governance is intended to be flexible rather than fixed. The conception is predominant among neoclassical political economists and public choice theorists, but it also summarizes the ideas of several scholars of federalism and international relations (Stein & Turkewitsch, 2008). This type of multi-level governance embraces the capacity to take collective decisions and make them stick in order to be shared among various actors. The use of multi-level governance approach has expanded well beyond the study of the EU (Bache & Flinders, 2004). It reflects that international, national and more local political dynamics simultaneously matters, and that their ongoing interaction also critically matters.

3. The South African Climate Change Policy Context

Climate change is a key concern in most developing countries like South Africa (Ziervogel, New, Archer van Garderen, Midgley, Taylor, Hamann, Stuart-Hill, Myers & Warburton, 2014). South Africa falls within the top 20 globally in terms of carbon emission, and thus is one of the key contributors towards global climate change (Bryan, Deressa, Gbetibouo & Ringler, 2009; Cobbinah & Darkwah, 2016). It has been estimated to be the thirteenth largest emitter of carbon dioxide in the world (Cobbinah & Darkwah, 2016; Cobbinah & Nimminga-Beka, 2017). Due to an increase in changing weather conditions, the South African government formulated policies that aimed at addressing and avoiding climate change and problems associated with it (Erasmus, Van Jaarsveld, Chown, Kshatriya & Wessels, 2002). Section 24(a) of the South African Constitution (1996) stated that everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to the well-being of the South Africa populace. Section 24(b) states that everyone has the right to the environment that is protected for the benefit of current and future generation, through reasonable legislative framework and other measure that prevent pollution, ecological degradation and the promotion of conservation. The Constitution provides a legislative significance as an enablement to achieve sustainable development. Within environmental discourse, climate change has the potential to derail plans to provide a developmental need of the entire populace which can result in food

insecurity. Climate change represents an additional stress to South Africans already struggling with the challenges posed by environmental degradation (Bryan *et al.*, 2009). Climate change has a detrimental effect on biodiversity and biome which are threatened by the increased temperature and rising carbon dioxide levels (Ziervogel *et al.*, 2014).

With all this multiplicity of climate change effects, South African government has promulgated various pieces of legislations with the purpose of managing the environment. South African government promulgated National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), National Environment Management: Air Quality, National Climate Change Response (NCCR) White Paper (2011), Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2014) and other pieces of legislation to address the undying effects of climate change. In order to address climate change and adapt it, the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA) held successive workshops towards sustainable development and green economy. The workshop resolved to place major focus on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for which the environmental sector holds primary responsibility. Objective 12 (response consumption and production), 13 (climate action), 14 (life below water), 15 (life on land) and 17 (partnership for the goals) are centrally aimed adapting and mitigating climate change. Further, the white paper on NCCR presents the South African Government's vision for an effective and efficient responds to climate change and towards a low carbon emission economy and society (NCCR, 2011). Climate change also affect agriculture, it affects staple crops such as maize and on the forest industry (Ziervogel *et al.*, 2014). The white paper stated that the achievement of climate change response objectives is guided by various principles set out in the Constitution, the Bill of Rights and NEMA. The principles include amongst others: common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities; equity; special needs and circumstances; uplifting the poor and vulnerable; intra- and inter-generational sustainability; the precautionary principle; the polluters pay principle; informed participation; and economic, social and ecological pillars of sustainable development. The government's national climate change response policy was approved and gazetted in October 2011 (Erasmus *et al.*, 2002). The white paper represents the culmination of an iterative and participatory policy development process that was started in October 2005 (Ziervogel *et al.*, 2014).

Table 1: CCAAP for the City of Polokwane

Project Name	Activities	Location
Development of a Climate Change Adaptation Action Plan (CCAAP) for the City of Polokwane	Development of a Climate Change Adaptation Action Plan (CCAAP) for the City of Polokwane	Municipal wide

Source: Authors

The white paper prioritizes climate change responses that have significant mitigation and adaptation benefits, and further have a significant contribution on economic growth, job creation, public health, risk management and poverty alleviation (Ziervogel *et al.*, 2014). The white paper on NCCR ensures equity through a fair allocation of efforts, costs and benefits in the context of the need to address disproportionate vulnerability, responsibilities, capabilities, disparities and inequalities (Ziervogel *et al.*, 2014). It also involves considering the special needs and circumstances of the localities and people that are vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change, including vulnerable groups such as woman, especially rural poor woman, children, child head families, the aged, the sick and the physically challenged. Another principle is to uplift the poor and the vulnerable. This could be done through ensuring that climate change policies and measures should address the needs of the poor and vulnerable and ensure human dignity (Bryan *et al.*, 2009). It is therefore clear that climate change is not only an environmental problem, but also political, social and economics factor. This principle also introduces the polluters pay principle. This will ensure that those who harm the environment pay the cost of remedying pollution and environmental degradation and supporting any consequent adaptive response that may be required (Bryan *et al.*, 2009). All of the factors and legislations framework demonstrate the commitment of South African government to ensure environmental protection and adapt to climate change. Local government in constitutionally mandated to ensure the formulation of IDP as an operative plan to address that developmental needs of the community. Therefore, it is important this important local government plan embrace the notion of climate change adaptation in order to improve the capacity to be adaptable.

4. IDP and Climate Change Adaptation

Local governments in South Africa are constitutionally mandated to formulate Integrated Development Plan (IDP). Durban city has formulated an integrated

assessment framework in order to provide an integrated development initiative in addressing climate change. Such an integrated assessment framework helps to provide a strategic input into an ongoing development of the city's IDP (Roberts, 2010). This will allow the municipality to inculcate climate change considerations into its long-term planning and budgeting, and to develop appropriate responses in terms of adaptation and mitigation plans (Roberts, 2010). Thus, it is important to interrogate selected municipal IDPs to evaluate their role in integrating climate change adaptation in planning.

4.1 Polokwane Local Municipality

Scholars have over the years argued that cities are vulnerable to climate change and Polokwane city in different (Roberts, 2010; Cobbinah, Ardiaw-Kwasie & Amoateng, 2015; Cobbinah & Nimminga-Beka, 2017). Therefore, stringent development of climate change adaptation strategies is eminent if the city is to continue to be operational post climate hazards. Polokwane local municipality IDP (2017-2018) stated that 'as part of Free Basic Electricity, the municipality has provided households with solar Panels. Plans are in place to increase the provision of solar Panels to other parts of the municipality'. The provision of solar panel aims to reduce the level electricity consumption within the municipality. This is part of climate change mitigation approach that promotes the use of energy mix to abate burning fossil fuel for energy use. Despite this commitment by the municipality to abate carbon emissions, it must also put in place measures to adapt to climate change.

It is stated in the IDP (2017-2018) that Polokwane local municipality has put in place budget for the formulation of CCAAP for the city of Polokwane. However, to date, the formulation of the plan is yet to be realised. Polokwane local municipality in its IDP stated that they have developed new parks in 'Sebayeng and the Oos-skool Park, 3 Entrances: Westernburg, Ga-rena and Blood river. The beautification of the Nelson Mandela road (island) new

extension using the remnants of materials from other parks and maintenance programmes'. This is another way of adapting to climate change through process called greenery development. However, in the midst of various effects of climate change, Polokwane provides an insufficient climate change adaptation measures within the city. These measures that are implemented coupled with some of the challenges that local municipalities (funding, human capacity and lack of local knowledge) are facing paint a blurry picture in the quest to adapt to climate change. The city cannot adequately adapt to floods, heatwaves, rising temperature and draughts using this conventional adaptation measure.

4.2 Blouberg Local Municipality

Adaptation to climate change measures are important for all municipalities to undertake in order to abate the harsh realities of this environmental problem. Blouberg local municipality IDP stated that the 'municipality has embarked on environmental campaigns to educate communities about issues of climate change, its adaptation and mitigation programmes'. This is important in ensuring that the locals are well aware of the environmental problems and to ensure the development of local knowledge about climate change. Scholars have identified local knowledge as one important factor to ensure that various plan to adapt to climate change are successful. However, local knowledge is not the end to it all, there is a requirement for appropriate intervention to adapt to climate change. 'A programme on tree planting is done with stake-holders such as Venetia mine, DWA and private donors'.

4.3 Lepelle-Nkumbi Local Municipality

Though Lepelle-Nkumbi local municipality does not have a bigger city like Polokwane, it is vulnerable to climate change effects as well. In its IDP (2016-2021), Lepelle-Nkumbi local municipality recognised that 'rainfall and river flow are unpredictable in time and unevenly distributed in space, with only 12% of the land area generating 50% of stream flows. The main users of surface water resources are agricultural irrigation, domestic, industrial, mining and power generation. This planning capacity will be a key capability for adaptation planning under ongoing and future climate change.' This awareness of the availability of surface water is important in order to adapt to climate change, but it is not adequate. Lepelle-Nkumbi local municipality in its IDP

(2016-2021) has put in place climate change adaptation interventions as follow:

- Sustainable water resource use and management including catchment management.
- Maintenance and climate-resilient restoration of ecosystem services.
- Sustainable farming systems including integrated crop and livestock management.
- Community-based forestry and diversification of livelihood skills.
- Climate resilient forestry options.
- Climate advisory services and early warning systems for extreme weather events.
- Fire mitigation including burning fire breaks and reactive firefighting.
- Climate change integrated into agricultural curricula.
- Integrated water use planning.
- Integrated, simplified and unambiguous policy and effective governance systems.
- Sustainable urban expansion including, where possible, ecosystem-based solutions.
- Awareness, knowledge and communication on climate change and adaptation.

Climate change adaptation within local government is very important towards the achievement of sustainable development. Polokwane Blouberg and Lepelle-Nkumbi local municipalities have all recognised the importance of climate change in their IDPs. Polokwane and Blouberg local municipality IDPs do not have interventions on how the municipality will ensure that they are adapting to climate change. Blouberg is predominated by rural areas with high level of service delivery backlogs. Further, rural municipalities are always characterised by lack of financial resources, capacitated human resources and other challenges which derail the quest to implement climate change adaptation intervention. On the other hand, Lepelle-Nkumbi local municipality has put in place various interventions to implement

climate change adaptation. However, it is important that the local government delegate department who will be able to carry through the adaptation plans. Furthermore, due to the multiplicity of climate change, it is imperative that local government should be able to collaborate with departments, private sector and public sectors. Therefore, multilevel governance is very important to ensure the implementation of climate change adaptation objective.

5. Multilevel Governance Prospects and Constraints for Climate Change Adaptation

Multi-level governance is an important theory to perform and nourish the implementation and development of policies, especially climate change adaptation. This concept is important as it assures decentralisation of powers in participatory and interactions between different actors, either state or non-state (Miller, 2002). This section will then provide the prospects of this concept and thus diagnose the limitations evolved during its processes within local government planning.

5.1 Prospects of MLG at the Local Government Planning

Numerous actions have been made since the adoption of the multi-level governance in south Africa (Boyd, 2012). In the application of multilevel governance, different powers are shared amongst different administrates to ensure concerted efforts to address climate change. South African local government tries to respond to exclusion and undemocratic governance that was imposed for the past years. There are 9 provinces, 8 metros, 44 districts and 278 local municipalities that tries to bridge the gap and formulate policies that will develop the country by improvising on the minimum standard of living as well as coming up with mechanisms to improve socio-economic issues (Boyd, 2012). This interaction indeed plays a pivotal role in ensuring solidarity among such stakeholders (Boyd, 2012) and thus creates the potentiality to address the developmental challenges facing the country such as climate change. The motive of practicing multilevel governance in planning deepen accountability, transparency and openness between actors, which help bridge some of the challenges local government are facing such as financial and human resources. Therefore, this is important in climate change adaptation objective in South Africa.

Decentralisation of powers amongst different actors assures that all sectors are accountable. Further, the multilevel governance enhances the municipalities to have responsibilities in implementing and formulating policies on climate change adaptation within the country (Miller, 2002). This drives efficiency and effectivity in policy implementation and municipal plans and IDPs (Miller, 2002).

Substantively, multilevel governance widens the political participation and participatory planning approach in the government structures. Moreover, multilevel governance in the local played an enormous role in facilitating sustainable development and promoting good governance (Matthew & Hammill, 2009). Multilevel governance significantly guides sustainable development goals in such a way that climate change adaptation and any other policy formulated are sustainable. This practice automatically assured good governance solely because such policies aligned are effective in a way that they will be on a sustainable basis. Miller (2002) states that Multi-level governance ensured local people in planning to make their own initiatives in development related goals (Miller, 2002). This gives local planning the drive to implement their own policies that are effective in preventing climate change, hence, there were loopholes revolved around the policy adaptation for climate change. All policies are bound and directed by the Constitution which promotes the notion of participation (Boyd, 2012). Local municipalities draft their own policies for climate change, focusing more on the level and the context of their jurisdiction. It makes it even more simple to articulate and implement such policies necessarily because a single group in the government cannot maintain and provides interests of the total population (Miller, 2002). In this manner, Greenhouse gases may be reduced due to the effectiveness of such policies (Boyd, 2012).

Multi-level governance promotes efficiency in service provision for local people. This would mean that decentralisation of powers creates recognition for services to be provided by the state as it assures the welfares of civil society as well as engaging diverse stakeholders that may be more operative in service provision (Boyd, 2012). Multi-level governance which is best manifested in strong, autonomous and vibrant systems of local government reduces the cost of resources for locality through accountability and transparency (Lobell *et al.*, 2008). In this regard, authorising other stakeholders in decision making

for policy formulation and implementation is effective in assuring that resources are well managed and that of accountability is easily monitored in order to ensure climate change adaptation. Different engines in participatory processes for local planning have been beneficial because it promoted policy influence and decision-making during participatory processes that indeed improved the developmental goals.

5.2 Constraints of Multilevel Governance at the Local Government Planning

There are numeral constraints that local government planning is faced with, that may include; destabilization and intra-regional inequalities. The authority of giving away powers to local people may create gaps from region to region. Since different regions are differently endowed in terms of natural resources, level of economic activities, land values (Miller, 2002). For some local jurisdictions, this may cause them to produce more revenue than others and afford their populations more or better quality services than is provided in poorer jurisdictions (Miller, 2002). It has also brought higher risks of resource or power capture, in a sense that different elites and stakeholders have authority or power to make some decisions that may only benefit them. This creates the action of mismanagement of resources which promote corruption and fraudulent within government structures (Murray & Simeon, 2011). The increment in the level of corruption limits the amount of money that can be used for developmental needs. Therefore, local government will not have enough budget to undertake climate change adaptation policy implementation. Weak accountability and supervision creates a bold risk in resource use and facilitation, necessarily promoting policies to fail (Murray & Simeon, 2011). Multi-level governance in most cases is seen as unrealistic in local planning for South Africa, solely because the national government may still have power over every decision taken at the local level. This shows that despite the decentralization of governance from the upper echelon of government, national continues to influence the decision making at the local level. Thus, the implementation of climate change adaptation will continue to be a pipe dream in South African local government. Nevertheless, this will have a negative effect in planning for locals since the interests of the local people are sometimes not given superiority, which may mean that some plans may be poorly implemented (Murray & Simeon, 2011). Multi-level governance tends to be more multifaceted, as it

maneuvers from different levels of governance that in most cases cause discrepancies aligned with different interests for different developmental goals. This then promotes confusion and lack of direction in the local planning government (Murray & Simeon, 2011).

6. Conclusion

South Africa is currently experiencing the effects of climate change and Cape Town and Johannesburg are the cities that are most hit. Adaptation to climate change is very important to ensure that cities are operational post disaster. Multilevel governance gives local government with the potentiality to facilitate the implementation of climate change adaptation policy. However, from the three local municipality's IDPs, it is clear that the effects of climate change are recognised. To a greater extent, the municipalities do not have strategies that must be put in place in order to ensure that they are adaptable to the effects of climate change. Therefore, it can be concluded that local government within Capricorn district municipality do not play central roles in ensuring that their areas are adaptable to climate change. Further, the lack of cooperation and collaboration between municipalities in terms of implementing adaptation objectives derail the efforts to address climate change. It can be noted that most local municipalities are not embracing multilevel governance in order to circumvent some of the challenges they are facing. Therefore, local government should start to enforce the notion of collaboration and coordination in the quest to address climate change adaptation objectives. Local government should embrace the notion of multilevel governance in order to circumvent challenges such as financial and capacitated human resources.

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Transformational Leadership and Mentoring: A Panacea for Capacity Building

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Abstract: The importance of capacity building in organisations cannot be overemphasised. The realities of the working place have increased the need for organisations to find ways of improving efficiency and effectiveness. Scholars have identified a number of measures for capacity building, and one such measure is mentoring and coaching. The paper focuses on mentoring and discusses behaviours and attributes relevant for successful mentoring. The paper finds transformational leadership concomitant to mentoring, hence for successful mentoring, transformational behaviours and attributes are relevant. Therefore, the paper argues that not every supervisor or leader can be a mentor, but observable transformational attributes are necessary for successful mentorship. To understand the notion of mentoring and transformational leadership, the study reviews levels of understanding leadership by Maxwell as a conceptual framework. The paper concludes that for effective mentoring, transformational leaders graduate from one level of leadership to another until they reach pinnacle level.

Keywords: Capacity Building, Ethical leadership, Mentoring, Leadership

1. Introduction

In the advent of institutional change and organizational development, capacity development becomes an imperative. As organizations reinvent themselves to keep up with competition, technological and other changes, employees must also enhance their skills and competencies to remain relevant. In addition, organisational leadership must be effective in order to sustain organisations. It is acknowledged that to realise effective service delivery and harness talent, employees need guidance from those with experience. Jung *et al.* (2003:526), argue that 'unless the creative behaviors of individual employees can be coordinated and their creative outputs and ideas are harnessed to yield such organizational-level outcomes, the company still would be left without effective responses to the challenges of a competitive market place'. Therefore, organisations develop employee capacity through mentoring among other methods, as is notably useful in the attainment of both personal and organizational needs.

In today's climate of poor service delivery, demotivated workforce, poor work ethic, mentoring of employees matter more than ever. Leaders who concentrate their efforts on developing others develop a sensitive and committed workforce. Unfortunately, organizational environment for mentoring is not always conducive, as mentoring programs are taken as contingencies. Organizations tend to be

inactive participants in the mentoring process as such mentoring becomes an informal process. This is demonstrated by lack of database for mentors in organizations. Organisations do not invest time in identifying those capable for mentoring, and by default senior employees are taken as mentors. This is totally wrong as armatures end up in the wrong hands of senior employees who may have a negative attitude towards work and life. Organizations should coordinate mentoring programmes, and invest in developing mentors and protégés through training and education.

To enhance the effectiveness of mentoring there is need for research on mentor competencies and behaviour (Hamlin & Sage, 2011; Wyre, Gaudet & McNeese, 2016). This paper discusses mentoring and behavioural traits necessary to cultivate social capital of organisations. The objective of the paper is to discuss transformational leadership behaviour as an antidote for successful mentoring. The paper discusses how transformational leadership aids mentorship, what it takes to be a mentor, as well as challenges of mentorship. It highlights some recommendations such as importance of ethical leadership, altruism and emotional intelligence.

2. Definition of Mentoring

Mentoring involves an intense relationship whereby a senior or more experienced person (the mentor)

provides two functions for a junior person (the protégé or mentee), one function being advise or modeling about career development behaviors and the second function being personal support, especially psycho-social support (Kram, 1985). A number of mentoring processes or types have been provided by different scholars, peer mentoring (Bozionelos, 2004), formal and informal mentoring (Chao *et al.*, 1992), supervisory mentoring (one's boss being a mentor) (Eby, 1997; Tepper & Taylor, 2003), hence mentoring can be multidimensional. It ranges from group mentoring, peer mentoring (Dansky, 1996; Bozionelos, 2004), team mentoring, and professional association groups. Mentoring may be informal or formal, but typically the primary functions associated with mentoring are vocational support, psychosocial support, and role modeling (Ragins & Kram, 2007). These different views and the use of the concept mentoring demonstrate how difficult it is to have a definite definition of mentoring. While perhaps it can be argued that the meaning of mentoring is wide, there is common consensus that mentoring is all about professional development and personal development.

3. Mentoring and Transformational Leadership

Closely related to mentoring, is the concept of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership and mentoring are conceptually different but the two concepts are closely related as the process and tactics of influence are the same. The nature of transformational leadership is consistent with the behaviors needed for effective mentoring (Scandura & Schriesheim in St Clair & Deluga, 2001). Just like mentors, transformational leaders take personal responsibility for development of their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Transformational leaders are different from other leaders because they go beyond call for duty. They see subordinates even beyond the organisation, they make emotional investment on others, hence mentorship. Transformational leaders show personalized attention that links individual and collective interests resulting in commitment to the organization (Hambrick in Sosik *et al.*, 2004). Sosik *et al.* (2004) argue that mentoring transcends organizational boundaries and is involved with the professional and personal development of others over time but in contrast, transformational leadership usually occurs within organizational boundaries. It is important to note that transformational leadership also transcends organizational boundaries,

because attributes that make a transformational leader are alienable. Similarly, St Clair and Deluga (2001) argue that transformational leaders align follower self-interest in development with the larger interest of the group, organization, or society. Transformational leaders focus on broadening and elevating employees' goals and providing them with the values, enhanced skills, and confidence to go beyond minimally acceptable expectations of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

4. Transformational Leadership Theory and Levels of Understanding Leadership

Transformational leadership theory was coined by James McGregor Burns (1978). A transformational leader sees a future that others do not and communicates that vision with such passion that it becomes a reality (St Clair & Deluga, 2001). Transformational leaders influence followers to perform beyond expectation, and to realize that they create deeper relations with followers. Just like mentors, transformational leaders go beyond exchanging contractual agreements for desired performance by actively engaging followers' personal value systems (Bass in Jung *et al.*, 2003). Maxwell (2013) on levels of understanding leadership argues that only a few leaders rarely reach pinnacle level. Leaders at pinnacle level reign and people follow them for who they are and what they represent. Maxwell (2013) points out that leadership starts at position level, where you are invited into leadership game, and you get legitimate authority from organizational rules. At position level it is leadership by 'rule of thumb', not charisma. He notes that good leaders, graduate from position level to permission, production, people and pinnacle level. These levels are building blocks, and when lower blocks are not firm, a leader is likely to be thrown off the course, because the foundation is weak. As the leader advance from one leadership level to another, they should not neglect lower blocks or levels. When leaders move from one level to another they build relationships, they build on past experiences, and every step is strong because of foundation relationships. When leaders develop followers from production to people level, they shouldn't forget that at the same time they have to realize organizational results. It is at this two levels of leadership where transformational leadership challenge begins, where a leader has to balance the needs of the organization (profit or results) and at the same time intensify on people

development and mentorship. All the organisational systems, being the leader/mentor, employee, and the organisation, should benefit exceedingly from these interactions.

At people level, which is the level before last level of leadership, a leader is great, not because of his or her power, but because of his ability to empower others. At this level, there is a transition from production to people development. Attributes of transformational leaders and mentors are observable at this level, because leaders invest their time, energy and resources into growing others. Like transformational leaders, mentors see talent, have firm believe in the people they work with, sensitize and make them believe that they could achieve more than they can think. According to Maxwell (2013), leaders who provide this kind of mentorship, are never forgotten and people follow them for who they are, and what they exist for. Such leaders transcend organisational boundaries, and for them leadership is a lifestyle. When such leaders leave organisations, they will always be given a seat at a leadership table, for example board membership, mediators, conciliators, government advisors, etc. Leadership theories echo same sentiment, a leader's legacy is development of others, and this brings about self-actualisation, pinnacle level. A leader will be supreme, reign for what they have done for others. They have dominance and personal presence because of what they did to others and the society at large.

5. Transformational Leadership and Mentoring a Panacea for Capacity Building

Mentoring cannot be divorced from leadership issues because organizational leaders affect organizational success in several different ways. Organizational leaders create organizational vision, evangelise it and use organisational resources to realise the intended vision. Thus leaders are responsible for shaping organisational culture, employee attitudes and behavior, employee development and growth. Through their charm, transformational leaders bring mentees closer to them for professional and personal development, thus creating a learning organisation. They have firm belief in others, and are willing to put other people's interest before theirs. Like pinnacle level leaders, when they go up the levels, they take along everyone. Mentors have made it in life, they have unshakeable belief in higher goals and

have firm belief in excellent management. Having made it in life, they inculcate the 'I can do it attitude' that is 'if I did it, you can do it'. Transformational leaders excel only if they develop other leaders and one good way of developing others is through mentorship. Mentoring provides an environment of sharing knowledge, experiences and wisdom. A mentor may or may not be able to effect much instrumental help for the protégé in the organisation but the mentor holds the protégé's interests at heart and provides socio-emotional support to the protégé (Murrell *et al.*, 1999:15).

The success of leadership and mentoring thrusts on effective relationships. As stated earlier, mentorship is different from other forms of knowledge transmission in the sense that, it is a relationship. In agreement McManus and Russell, (1997) argue that leadership and mentoring essentially involve relationships between senior and junior persons in organizations. Importance of relationship is emphasised by content theories on factors that are within a person that actually directs, sustains, energise or really stop behaviour. This includes theories such Maslow's need of hierarchy, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory and McClelland achievement theory. In these theories social rewards and sanctions are the strongest motivators, and one of the key variables is good working relations. In his two-factor theory, Hertzberg note that intrinsic factors bring satisfaction, but extrinsic factors such as good salary, quality of supervisors and company policy if absent or inadequate cause dissatisfaction, but their presence has little effect on long term satisfaction. Hertzberg argues that what brings about happiness, satisfaction and contentment in people's lives are intrinsic factors, like achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and the possibility of growth. When mentors recognise talent on subordinates, and see potential for advancement and growth it brings about motivation and gratification on mentees.

Content theories emphasise the importance of intrinsic factor such as love, St. Teresa of Avila (Teresa de Jesús) once said 'it is love alone that gives worth to all things' without love you cannot do good unto others. This implies that mentors cannot develop others when they are detached from them. Mentors take commitment and dedicate time to develop good working relations with mentees. Mentoring is about taking a leadership oath that your mentees's interests and achievement

matters more than your interests. This is supported by Swahili proverb that says, the greatest gift we can give to others is not just to share our riches with them, but to reveal their riches to themselves. Similarly, Benjamin Disraeli once said 'the greatest good you can do for another is not just to share your riches, but to reveal to him his own'. Professional and personal development offered to mentees is a way of revealing to mentees the other side of their unexplored world. Mentors assist mentees improve their self-efficacy, set of skills needed to be effective. When mentees face challenges in their growth and development, it is the role of the mentor to identify areas of deficit and determine how to work on them. Mentors provide genuine feedback, evaluation and advice regarding improvement. People are not born with competence, they have to learn and practice in order to become competent. Vocational support as provided by Kao *et al.* (2014) helps protégés learn how to fulfill their roles appropriately and to prepare for career development in organizations. Mentors provide the protégé with support, exposure, guidance, protection, and challenging tasks for the protégé's advancement in an organization (Kao *et al.*, 2014). All these actions are geared towards intellectual simulations as will be discussed under 4Is of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership is important because it is performance oriented (Bass, 1985). Mentoring and transformational leadership have been linked to similar outcomes, job satisfaction, employee attitudes, career satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Scandura & Williams, 2002). Sosik *et al.* (2000) found that supervisor transformational leadership behaviour was more positively related to mentoring than transactional leadership behavior. Bass and Avolio (1994) argue that transformational leadership is characterised by the 4 I's, influence, inspirational, motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Bass and Avolio (1994) argue that in a highly innovative and satisfying organizational environment we are likely to see transformational leaders who build on assumptions such as: people are trustworthy and purposeful; everyone has a unique contribution to make. They are able to shape and influence the mentee in a manner that is for their long term development and at the same time, the organization reap the immediate benefits and results of mentorship. Mentors and transformational leaders realize the worthy of each and every employee. They build emotional investment in the development of a junior person.

6. The Four I's of Transformational Leadership and Mentoring

6.1 Idealised Influence

Leaders demonstrate personal charisma, and behave in desirable ways that force them to be role models (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Idealized influence entails role modeling exemplary personal achievements, values, and/or behavior (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). However, this is not to mean a mentor is a role model in strict sense because role models are often naturally selected, it is one sided relationship, and may not have expertise of a mentor, they do not necessarily guide directly like mentors do. Therefore, as a leader one becomes a role model and they do leave a strong impression on followers. Role modeling in this sense means that leaders should live a clean life, successful and meaningful life, like transformational leaders. Such behavior allows the protégé to identify with the mentor as someone who has the potential to advance the protégé's career (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). The paper emphasizes the importance of ethical leadership in mentoring because morals of a mentor provide a personal window for the mentees on a possible future. They demonstrate what constitute professionalism, appropriate conduct, integrity, temperance and walk the talk.

6.2 Inspirational Motivation

Transformational leaders believe in the potential of others to grow. Whitmore (2003) argues that it takes self-belief, self-motivation, clarity, commitment, awareness, responsibility and action to grow other people. Transformational leaders articulate a compelling vision, then stimulate and inculcate followers to achieve more than they can think. Transformational leaders are like Manager Y as articulated by McGregor theory X and Y, these leaders see potential in others. View followers as a hardworking beings and with a supportive environment, people perform more that they thought was possible. This behavior allows the protégé to be confirmed and accepted as an important part of an organization. Like transformational leaders, mentors encourage protégés to value learning by imparting wisdom about the norms and values that are specific to the organisation and help advance the protégé's career (Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

6.3 Intellectual Stimulation

Both mentors and transformational leaders act as role models by encouraging learning and development,

and work to develop others' self-confidence, personal identity, and well-being (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). Transformational leaders and mentors are not content experts, but rather they use interpersonal skills to create a safe learning environment. They stimulate creativity, unconventional thinking, and encourage followers to see life from a new perspective. Mentees are empowered to seek their own solutions and to find expertise when needed if it does not reside with the mentor. Intellectual stimulation enables mentees to question assumptions, to try new things, and to think of old problems in new ways. Such behavior instructs protégés to take on challenging assignments, acquire new knowledge, skills, and abilities, or to creatively balance one's professional and personal life (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, mentors empower mentees to seek their own solutions and assist mentees to adopt generative and exploratory thinking processes (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). Jung (2003:529) argues that 'by showing high expectations and confidence in followers' capabilities, transformational leaders also help to develop followers' commitment to long-term goals, missions, and vision and to shift their focus from short-term and immediate solutions and objectives to long-term and fundamental solutions and objectives'.

Intellectual simulation helps deal with the assertion that mentors know everything and the protégé knows just little to nothing. Hansman (2002) argue that this is authoritarian, manipulative, 'banking' pedagogy, which negates the possibility of democracy and distorts the lived experiences of the learners who are silenced and denied the opportunity to be authors of their own histories. Therefore, intellectual simulation helps mentors to understand that mentorship is a two-way relationship, and mentees are human beings who also bring some insights to the learning table. With intellectual simulation mentors provide a learning platform for mentees, and provide a non-judgemental and confidential space for the mentee to use their exploratory skills. Intellectual simulation cultivates mentees confidence and competence in their professional development.

6.4 Individualised Consideration

Individualised consideration is related to mentoring in the sense that leaders focus their attention to personal and professional development of the follower on one on one basis. Bass (1985) suggests that mentors produce developmental effects on protégés

when they display transformational behaviors such as individualized consideration and idealized influence. Just like mentoring which is mostly done on one on one basis, transformational leaderships involve coaching, counseling, and giving personal attention to others. Such behavior encourages protégés to value learning and may raise expectations for career success (Sosik *et al.*, 2004). With individualised consideration leaders have to create time, even outside their work schedule and give personal attention to follower's personal transformation. Hence it may be considered costly and time consuming by leaders who are still at leadership position, but for pinnacle level or transformational leaders it brings personal gratification. Many of the activities classified as individualized consideration in the transformational leadership literature are consistent with psychosocial support behaviors identified in the mentoring literature (St Clair & Deluga, 2001).

6.5 What Does it Take to be a Mentor?

Mentoring is about developing a whole person, it takes experience and wisdom to do such a colossal task. Misplacement-leadership is about what will put food on my table. It has moved away from serving, leading and influencing. Effective leadership requires time and commitment which seems to be lacking in most leaders. The paper notes that mentoring becomes easy when transformational leadership traits are present. With notion of service, gratitude and humility, transformational leaders build and harness talent as much as they can. Therefore, mentorship is about how leaders and or mentors behave, their personal traits, what they believe in, how they see others. McGregor in his theory X and Y, looked at two different types of managers. This then tells us that not everyone in the organization can be a mentor. Manager X, cannot be mentors because already they have negative mindset about mankind. In 1940, Ohio State conducted a study looking at two groups of correlated leadership behavior; people oriented and task oriented behavior. Task oriented behavior focus more on achieving result, output and productivity, while people oriented focuses on satisfying inner need of employees, with tools such as mentoring and coaching, encouraging listening. This requires transformational leaders to be able to balance the needs for a task and people/employees, in this case mentees. John Adair (2002), on Action Centered leadership, emphasizes the need to balance the needs for a task, team and individual. This starts

with satisfying the needs of an individual to realize all other relationships, being one of the 4I's of transformational leadership; individualized consideration. This is also supported by Maxwell (2013) on levels of understanding leadership, that every level is a building block. Mentors ought to pay attention to behavior of subordinates, their feeling and mentor them accordingly. Mentors ought to satisfy most of personality traits, abilities (supervisory ability, intelligence, initiative), personal traits (decisiveness, masculinity, maturity), and motivators (need for occupational achievement, self-actualization, power over others).

Though traits are hard to measure, at least they provide a benchmark of what to look for in mentoring relationship. Carlyle Thomas (1840) describes types of behaviors and personality traits associated with effective leadership. Therefore, mentors can be selected looking at leadership qualities they have. In formal mentoring process the organization will identify and measure leadership qualities, screen potential mentors from non-mentors, then train those with mentoring potential and list them in the organizational database.

6.6 Ethical Leadership Guided by Moral Code and Ethical Values

Transformational leadership is more of an ethical or moral leadership, since the vision of transformational leaders should always build on the needs of others. Transformational leaders and mentors are often charismatic and embody high ethical and moral standards, and seek to transform. For ethical leaders, mentorship comes naturally because for them it is an obligation and morally acceptable to pay attention to others and develop them to lead a fruitful life. Mentors uphold principles provided by St. Teresa of Avila (Teresa de Jesús) and Benjamin Disraeli that love and care to others is demonstrated by revealing to them their own riches; and that can successfully done by transformational leaders through mentoring. Mentors are those who believe that what is best for others is best for themselves. If they feel good and comfortable as organizational Chief Executive Officers, organizational Directors, then it should also be good for the next person to be given a chance to experience the same. They will locate talent and nurture it. However, the reality in organization is of 'pseudotransformational' there are few mentors in those who occupy leadership positions as often we see animosity in organizations,

and those in leadership position with a feeling that their subordinates cannot be their successor. The term 'pseudotransformational' has been proposed to incorporate leaders who exhibit transformational behaviors but cater to their own self-interest (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Pseudotransformational is consistent with narcissism, where leaders see mentoring as threatening their own dominance and existence. Although some leaders have been willing to groom their successors, others have shown a marked insecurity and disinclination to provide the necessary mentoring to prepare future leaders who might one day succeed them (St. Clair & Deluga, 2001). Transformational leadership notes that legacy of a leader is based on a number of people you have developed, a leader should leave foot prints in organizations, demonstrated by those he or she has mentored.

6.7 Emotional Intelligence

Mentoring requires leaders who can manage their own emotions before trying to reach out to others. They should know their strength and weaknesses, and have a plan to deal with their weaknesses. Mentoring happens from inside out, and one should be a servant first before serving others, therefore mentors should be able to develop themselves before trying to develop others. Leaders are human beings, therefore with emotional intelligence one is able to deal with their weaknesses such as, despotism, egocentricity, etc and use interpersonal skills to develop others. With despotism one cannot do well to others.

6.8 Altruism

Similarly, transformational leaders engage in self-sacrificial behaviors for transcendental shifts in followers needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Authentic transformational leadership is based on altruistic principles. Example: the work of Mother Theresa, who gave her entire life to help the poor. Biggest challenge at this level is to put the interest of followers before your own interest. Altruism is the behavior intended to benefit others without anticipation of reward. It involves personal sacrifice; as a leader you are already there, no one can buy experience, and you have nothing to lose. The best legacy of a leader, is to develop others. Help selflessly for the sake of helping, not in anticipation of a reward. After all mentorship programmes in organizations are not rewarded. Effective leaders are leaders who have matured throughout

the years into the leadership style that best suits them, their followers, and their environment, these are pinnacle level leaders.

6.9 Barriers, Dilemmas and Challenges to Successful Mentoring

Mentoring is not a struggle free process, it's surrounded by issues of power dynamics, gender issues, sexual harassment, negativity and misconceptions. Hansman (2002) note that in the real world of organizations and educational institutions, persons who serve as mentors may primarily be members of dominant and/or hegemonic groups within organizations or institutions. When that happens mentoring becomes a cartel or a syndicate, such that if you don't belong to that cartel then you are thrown off the course. In addition, issues of power and interests within organizations or institutions might hamper the mutual attraction that is required to participate in an informal mentoring relationship (Hansman, 2002). With transformational leadership education, organization are likely to build effective mentors, able to separate office politics from mentoring, and also protect the interest of fragile and even new organizational entrants.

Mentoring is also affected by power relations between a mentor and mentee, and also the external relationships. Ragins (1997:487) argues that the macro dynamics of the mentor/protégé relationship are sensitive to the larger organizations in which they reside; therefore, they are "influenced by the macro dynamics of intergroup power relationships in organizations...resulting in subtle or dramatic shifts in power relations among groups in organizations". This has a bearing on survival of the mentee in the long run, because if the mentor belongs to 'B team/cartel', (taken that A team, is the winning team), then mentee may get negative recognition among colleagues and never get to penetrate the system nor gain power within the organization resulting in loss of morale. This kind of macro dynamics of intergroup power relations may at time not be beneficial because the A team, may not always be the best team, only that they are in control, and mentees, get to loose on good mentorship on the basis that they do not want to be thrown off the system. This is even severe when it comes to women because they are more likely to have low status and to be "filtered out" by organizational politics than men because of "discriminatory selection and treatment" (Koberg *et al.* in Hansman,

2002:61). This then calls for organization to have formal mentoring, with a database of mentors who have transformational attitudes and traits. With time mentorship relationships will flower into an informal relationship, so that the two parties can relate on a loose reign and mood.

Power relations involved in mentoring need to be managed effectively. The reality is that mentoring can disadvantage other groups as mentioned earlier that it can be a cartel, also issues of superior subordinate relations can be harmful. Hansman (2002) argues that the power mentors have and exercise within mentoring relationships can be helpful or hurtful, hence call for effective and ethical leadership. A leader at pinnacle level knows and understands that mentorship is not about the mentor, but mentees. These are leaders who have been in the leadership curve, and they are aware that it is not about being superior or possessing phenomenal knowledge that places you above other people, but what you have done for them. Leadership is about developing others, hence with transformational leadership it is never about mentors but mentees. It can also be hurtful when mentorship is used for issues of loyalty, where mentors expect mentees to be their puppets. Ethical and pinnacle level leaders do not call loyalty, it comes to them naturally because of what they have done for the organization and other people.

There are other dilemmas surrounding mentoring such as sexual tensions where mentoring can be used for office romance. Same sex mentoring may be preferable than cross-sex mentoring relationships. Mentors with transformational attributes have a good character. They possess the right values of strong character. Ethical leaders are able to withstand any temptations that may occur along the mentorship relationship, they exercise temperance. However, the challenge is that for young women joining organizations, they may be limited by the fact that there are typically fewer women in higher-level positions available to mentor women than there are men available (Hansman, 2002). Another barrier reported associated with women mentoring other women is that, 'because women may have less power and influence than their male counterparts in the workplace, women mentors may be perceived as less able to propel a protégé to career success' (Hale in Hansman, 2002:41) and are therefore not desirable to other women as potential mentors. This challenge calls for further research, on gender and mentoring.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the paper demonstrates that when mentoring is not coordinated in organizations then all senior employees or leaders become mentors. This is treacherous in the sense that new entrant's fall in the hands of bad leaders without transformational attributes, nor good values. Mentoring ought to be coordinated, so that mentors who portray transformational attributes are listed in the organizational database. When organizations coordinate mentoring programmes, mentors will be provided with continuous refresher courses and training to sensitize them of important roles they play, and most importantly the 4I as stipulated under transformational leadership. Good mentors understand that there are last in the mix.

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The Appropriateness of Project Management Mechanisms Within the South African Public Sector Environment

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Abstract: This paper examines the variety of project management mechanisms in order to ensure that the three spheres of government which are the National, Provincial and Local government are project oriented. It is the responsibility of the South African government to take ownership pertaining to all the projects and infrastructure development in South Africa. It is evident that all the major projects are managed by the private sector project management Consulting firms. The article will also examine the importance of Enterprise Project Management Office (EPMO) within the public sector. Despite the success rate of government projects through Public Private Partnership synergies, the paper argues that, government departments still have less contribution regarding the management of government projects. It is evident that there is no Project Management Offices (PMO) within the government departments. The paper seeks to assist the South African public sector with the integration of project management mechanisms in order to transform the traditional way of managing government project to a project oriented public sector. This paper relies on document study and published material. The paper concludes by outlining and suggesting that project management mechanisms to be adopted by the South African public sector.

Keywords: Enterprise project management office, Projects governance, Project management office, Project Management mechanisms

1. Introduction

Project management is a topic we come across in all aspects of our everyday lives. It is also a topic in history as concept of project management has been around since the beginning of time. If we define project as the act or art of assembling people and resources to systematically achieve shared goal, then it has existed since ancient history. Ancient assignments were not anomalies in history but projects delivered in a systematic way with similar characteristics to today's projects. Project management has allowed leaders to plan bold and massive projects and manage funding, materials and labour within a designated time frame (Du Plessis, 2014:4). Project management is a methodical approach to planning and guiding processes from start to finish. According to the Project Management Institute (PMI), the processes are guided through five stages which are initiation, planning, executing and controlling and closing. Commonly at the end of each phase, key stakeholders assess the project and decide to either stop or continue to the next stage, commonly known as gates. The planning, executing and controlling stages are often repeating stages occurring throughout the lifetime of the project, whereas the initiation and closing phases are commonly only done once (Du Plessis, 2014:15).

Project management is currently employed in only a few enterprises as a successful business function at the executive level. However, we believe this practice will become a standard practice in future enterprise organisational model. Executives and business unit managers in today's most forward-thinking enterprises are already taking project management disciplines beyond handling specific projects in manufacturing product development, services and information technology. The practices of project program and portfolio management are applicable to any type of enterprise, whether it is a for-profit company, a not-for-profit company or a governmental agency (Bolles *et al.*, 2007:3).

According to Van der Waldt (2007:249) project management was established as a popular discipline in the late 1960s and 1970s, through the creation and activity of the United States and European project management societies and through the widespread adoption in business, government and the military of the matrix form of organisation. The main driving force in the 1980s and 1990s was mainly in the area of computer tools and software applications. Project management is internationally recognised as a profession and in South Africa, a professional body, Project Management Institute South Africa (PMISA),

was established to ensure quality in project management practices. One of the key contributions and products of PMISA is the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) guide which highlights nine knowledge areas of project management, namely quality management, human resource management, cost management, communication management, procurement management, scope management, integration management, risk management, and time management. Over time a wide variety of models emerged to study the processes associated with projects. A "model" is used to identify, monitor, measure and benchmark a progression of steps or methodology in a project cycle. A model could lead to an organisation's ability to implement strategies and programmes through effective, efficient, and consistent steps. Models are gaining interest as organisations and theorists strive to make sense of why some projects succeed and others not.

Since 1994, South Africa's first democratically elected Government focused primarily on the development of policy frameworks, structures and systems to give effect to the values and principles of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) and to lay the foundation for democratic governance. Considerable progress has been made in this regard as can be witnessed by a myriad of policy papers in nearly every sector of the government. But, as the new policy frameworks were operationalized, attention increasingly shifted to the most critical issue, namely service delivery. In line with international trends, the Government became increasingly aware that a significant expansion in the scope and quality of service provision was not possible with traditional delivery approaches. There is growing evidence that there is a need for a significant departure from conventional approaches and that a massive leap into a new service delivery paradigm is necessary. Increasingly this new paradigm highlights the need to further develop the Government's project management skills and applications with a view to achieving improved delivery capability (Van Der Waldt, 2007:239-240).

Turning strategy into reality is not a function in which the public service is known to excel. This deficiency has caused many political principals huge embarrassment as they often had brilliant visionary abilities and provided strong direction, yet the operationalization of their visions left much to be desired. There are various factors which can

be attributed to Government's inability to deliver on the vision of executing authorities, of which the lack of adequate skills, lack of funding, high vacancy rates, inadequate systems, non-cooperation from other spheres of government and administrative red tape are often identified as the major causes. At times the lack of planning and or performance management are also identified as possible causes, but that puts the spotlight on the department itself whereas the factors mentioned previously can easily be placed at the door of a third party. When looking objectively at the prescribed planning and budgeting processes of the departments it becomes evident that the formal processes do allow for adequate discussion and consultation. Policy priorities, strategic objectives and funding options are thoroughly discussed at structures such as the Medium Term Expenditure Committee (MTEC) and the Standing Committees on Public Accounts (SCOPA). Therefore, nothing which reflects in departments' annual performance plans is enforced without budgetary consideration. Departments determine their own score sheets which should take into account issues such as vacancy levels, funding of and availability of skills, and red tape requirements. This leads to the hypothesis that service delivery inefficiency and ineffectiveness is partly due to a lack of a project management approach to delivering on objectives as well as the absence of a system that provides a consolidated projects portfolio view to enable performance management at strategic level (Modernisation Programme, 2009:4). It is important to note that this hypothesis identifies the problem: "service delivery inefficiency and ineffectiveness" and attributes it partly to the root cause: "a lack of a project management approach to achieving objectives". The lack of project based management practices is evident through a plethora of symptoms which include: poorly documented and structured initiation and prioritising of deliverables, inadequate or no planning of activities that lead to the achievement of intended deliverables and poor execution of activities, weak monitoring and controlling mechanisms and late completion of projects and little or no formal sign-off thereof (Modernisation Programme, 2009:4).

2. Public Sector Project Governance

Project governance is viewed as playing a vital role in the successful delivery of public sector projects. For the purposes of this study, project governance

is defined as those aspects of governance related to ensuring the effectiveness of projects. In essence, project governance is about helping to ensure that the right projects are done. The aim of project governance is to help public sector bodies put in place and maintain the structures and forums that are needed for effective project governance at all stages in the project lifecycle. Project governance consists of the main activities which relate to the following aspects to programme direction, project ownership and sponsorship, ensuring the effectiveness of project management functions and reporting and disclosure (including consulting with stakeholders) (Project Governance, 2007:3).

Project governance arrangements should be put in place from the inception of a project. It is important to note that the arrangements will need to vary considerably over the life of a project as it moves through its different phases. A broad framework for the project governance structure for the full life cycle should be prepared at the outset. A good starting point is to work from a project plan which shows the main project approval or authorisation points in order to identify key decisions and the actions and information needed for those points. The detailed project governance arrangement for each project phase should be worked up before the phase starts and should focus on the specific needs of the project for that phase (Project Governance, 2007:11). Broader public sector issues need to be brought within the project governance framework to be managed effectively. Although generally they are intended to ensure value for money, fairness, transparency and accountability and to provide a sound audit trail, these issues can have a significant impact on timely project delivery if they are not handled correctly. Broadly these issues will be matters of government policy objectives and public law. The value of managing these within the project governance mechanisms is that it enables scrutiny at the right level at the right time, allows any conflicts with stakeholder interests to be resolved and enables access to expert advice and best practice, such as legal, accounting, policy and financial expertise. The aim is to help the judgement of stakeholders. A number of examples include:

- Freedom of Information and data protection. There can be conflict between the interests of the stakeholders (e.g. operational and commercial sensitivities) and the wish to be as open and informative as possible;

- The need to comply with public law, including the public procurement regulations. Public law places constraints on public sector activity. An example is where a procurement following the Competitive Dialogue route under EU public procurement regulations wishes to make substantive changes post selection of the preferred bidder;
- Policy on terms and conditions of employment for transferring employees and new joiners; e.g. improving affordability should not be at the expense of employees' terms and conditions;
- There can be conflicts of interest among the stakeholders, e.g. scope and quality constraints driven by considerations of affordability, or interfaces with complementary projects;
- "Government Accounting", for regularity, probity and value for money issues;
- The vires of the public sector to undertake the proposed project.

An effective project governance system can help ensure that public sector requirements are addressed fully and in good time, perhaps in the face of considerable pressures from individual stakeholders, and hence minimise the potential for delaying or disrupting the project (Project Governance, 2007:13). According to Santos and Varajo (2015:2) public administration institutions can be central (ministries), territorial (county councils, mayor halls, county school inspectorates) and of social insurance (Health Insurance House). They also include schools, hospitals, theatres, museums, public libraries, military units, police, and others; managed by local communities according to the decisions of locals elected and funded by the related administration funds. The structure of a public institution and its leading board is directly influenced by the services delivered during a certain period of time and the available funds. The total expenditure cannot exceed the organisation revenues for a certain period of time. The budget from previous years represents model patterns for the following year so as based on the experience acquired to make improvements in accordance to the structure, intensity and variation of activity volume and previous activity framing. Thus, in routine, bureaucratic activities carried out by public institutions, budgetary management on functions and traditional services proves to be useful, easy to

plan and manage, with real chances to ensure the organisation's efficiency. However, a public institution faces permanently a series of internal and external challenges, the occurrence of needs that require reorganization, changes, diversification, modernisation or adaptation and implementing projects in public organizations have become an important issue in recent years. Due to its role as keeper of our common economy, the public sector differs in its nature from financially interested owners or investors in the private sector. The most important public and private sector values differ to some extent. In public sector the most important are 'accountability', 'lawfulness', 'incorruptibility', 'expertise', 'reliability', whereas the highest ranking private sector values are 'profitability', 'accountability', 'reliability', 'effectiveness', 'expertise', 'efficiency', 'honesty' and 'innovativeness'.

2.1 E-Governance

E-Governance is the use of information and communication technology (ICT) to deliver certain services electronically. According to this approach to service delivery, government utilises internet technology to improve quality (better services), efficiency (cost effectiveness), and effectiveness (economic development). In 2000 Government established the State Information Technology Agency (SITA) to create a uniform ICT-platform for governance (Van der Waldt, 2007:247). The e-Governance cluster must be assigned to ensure that Information and Communication Technology Systems, processes and structures are best positioned and applied to improve effective and efficient service delivery. The following objectives are included in cluster:

- To assess the current IT service delivery model through an IT services work stream;
- To optimise existing filing systems and introduce uniform e-filing practices through a Registry/ e-filing workstream; and
- To develop a system and implement an approach to establish and institutionalise delivery of all objectives on a project management basis.

Two work streams, namely the Projects Management Approach and the Executive Projects Dashboard, must be established. Due to the integrated nature of the work of the two streams and the interdependencies between the two it is important to combine

the two work streams into a single one to manage the implementation of the Executive Dashboard, the Project Management Approach and to address the quality of the content being captured on the system (Modernisation Programme, 2009:3). According to Cats-Baril and Thompson (1995:560) the role of IT in public organizations has been the subject of numerous research efforts, including a major research program at the University of California at Irvine (Northrop *et al.*, 1990). The Irvine group argued that many of the intended benefits of IT, such as better information for planning and managerial control, had not been realized. A long-term, longitudinal study found that most payoffs from computerization were in the areas of fiscal control, cost avoidance, and better interactions with the public. However, those payoffs were not immediate, and the prospects for future payoffs in these areas were mixed. Other research has focused on the control of information resources (including IT) at the state level. A national study of state governments investigated new organizational structures, planning processes, and policy formulation activities relating to the acquisition, use, and management of IT (Caudle, 1990). The study concluded that although the focus remained on IT management, public sector management was increasingly considering information itself as an important resource to be managed.

3. The Mechanisms of Project Management

3.1 The Drivers of Project Management Application in Government

Arguably the main driver behind the application of project management in government is to improve state institutions' ability to deliver efficient, effective and high quality services. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, Chapter 10, Section 195(1)(b & c), for example lay the foundation for drivers by stipulating that South Africa's Public Service must promote efficient, economic and effective use of resources and that it must be development-oriented. The Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999 (Part 2, Section 38(b)), a further example, stipulates that accounting officers are responsible for the "effective, efficient, economical and transparent use of the resources of the department". As statutory drivers these stipulations place significant emphasis on the optimal utilisation of departmental resources by focusing on outcomes. It further focus attention

on getting things done on time (efficient), within budget (economical) and according to certain quality standards (effective). There are also increased accountability requirements on public sector institutions, leading to a greater focus on effectiveness and efficiency in the way functions are performed. Project management can support the achievement of institutional goals, as well as give greater assurance to stakeholders that resources are effectively managed. Applying a formalised project management framework, or methodology to projects can help with clarification of, and agreement to goals, identifying resources needed, ensuring accountability for results and performance, and fostering a focus on final benefits to be achieved (Van Der Waldt, 2007:250).

3.2 Project Management Office (PMO)

In the last 20 years, the public service has changed its approach to programme delivery to respond to the increasing and evolving expectations of government and the public. Known as New Public Management (NPM), this changed approach borrows heavily on private sector financial and management practice, shifting away from a traditional stewardship focus toward performance based on outcomes and efficiency. In the same way that commercial entities realize change through projects, the delivery of the key policies of Government has become project oriented (Blixt & Kirytopoulos, 2017:2).

PMO could mean Project Management Office, Program Management Office, and Portfolio Management Office depending on the level of PMO operation. The word "PMO" is used differently in different contexts. The basic difference between the type of PMOs and the level on which these PMOs operate are outlined below as follows:

- **Project Management Office** - Project Management Offices are typically setup for large projects where they help the project managers in collecting timesheets, collating status reports and financial data, tracking deliverables, coordinating issues and risks etc.
- **Program Management Office** - Program Management Offices are generally setup at Program level where there are several projects running under a program. Program Management Offices support program managers, project managers and project teams. Typical responsibilities of the

Program Management Offices include collating project related data from the project teams, ensure process adherence, collating project reports from project managers and creating reports for senior executives'/project sponsors, identifying project dependencies and coordination between projects within the program.

- **Portfolio Management Office** - Portfolio Management Offices are generally setup at Department/Business unit level to ensure the Department/Business unit projects are aligned to overall enterprise business objectives. They facilitate business prioritization of projects. Benefit realization and value management also form part of Portfolio Management Office responsibilities. The Portfolio Management Offices support the portfolio leaders with portfolio management activities (Rathore, 2010:3).

Over the last decade, many organisations have implemented one or more Project Management Offices (PMOs) as part of organizational project management, attributing a variety of both operational and strategic roles to their PMOs while PMOs are now a prominent feature of organizational project management, the underlying logic that leads to their implementation or renewal is still not entirely understood]. PMOs typically perform a number of functions: project definition and planning; cost or benefit analysis of projects; risk management; monitoring and control; supply of experience and knowledge; support in undertaking Project Management (PM) processes and procedures; knowledge capture and dissemination; provision of specialist skills; maintenance of projects tools; standards and processes. The roles of PMOs can be segmented into three levels which are strategic; tactical; and operational. Knowledge management is one of the key functions of the PMO at all levels. At the strategic level, the role of the PMO is to guarantee that projects are aligned with the strategic objectives of the organisation, so that projects assumed are consistent with the business long-term objectives (project and team members have a direct relation to the organization's strategic operating plans, and are aligned on project process, selection, importance, and execution). Also, at this level PMO contributes to the organization strategic growth as projects assumed will contribute with value to the growth of the business and it has impact on efficient and effective knowledge management conducted so as to increase the policies, practices, and methodologies of project management with efficient knowledge

capture, knowledge sharing, knowledge transfer, and knowledge reuse mechanisms in place (Santos & Varajo, 2015:3-4).

3.3 Enterprise Project Management Office (EPMO)

Enterprise Project Management Office (EPMO) is a centralized business function which operates at strategic level with the enterprise executives and provides enterprise wide support on governance, project portfolio management best practices, mentoring, tools and standardized processes. EPMO ensures strategic alignment between business objectives and projects executed. EPMO does not eliminate the need for Project, Program or Department level PMOs. It simply complements these traditional PMOs. While the traditional PMOs operating at the tactical and operational level focus on doing the things right. Organizations having an EPMO and traditional PMOs get the right things done the right. So the EPMO help the overall organization achieve its strategic goals and in the process also helps better support the project teams (Rathore, 2010:5).

EPMO differentiates itself from other PMOs mainly by the level on which it operates. It is mainly operating as a business function within the organisation and reporting directly to one of the CXOs, mostly CIO. With the authority that comes with being at this position the EPMO can effectively control the portfolios, programs and projects running across the enterprise. Its position is regarded close to the Portfolio Management function. Strategic alignment of business objectives with the projects, project prioritization, value management and benefit realization are some of the key responsibilities of EPMO. The EPMO is not restricted to governing only the IT programs but the sales PMO, finance PMO, marketing PMO, HR PMO functions will also be typically reporting to the EPMO. Therefore, EPMO collaborates and supports cross functional projects. This results into better synergy between the projects running under different enterprise functions.

In an organization that has global operations, the geographically dispersed PMOs will report to the centralized EPMO thereby providing much needed coordination between these multinational PMOs. In today's uncertain business environment amidst the financial crisis where organisations putting more emphasis on cost cutting, better resource

utilization and trying to do more with less, EPMO have become even more relevant. Another factor leading to rise in EPMO adoption is increasing globalization. Organizations are now having global footprint and it becomes ever so important to have a centralised PMO (EPMO) at the enterprise level overseeing all the projects undertaken in the organisation (Rathore, 2010:5-6).

The EPMO is incumbent on the executives of an enterprise to recognise that portfolio, program and project management are critical business functions that are necessary to achieve the business strategies. Embedding project business management as a core competency within an enterprise first requires a business strategy that accepts project management as business management function. Once accepted, but before embarking on strategically implementing enterprise-wide project management, the enterprise must prepare an organisational business strategy to create the specific organisational structure known as an EPMO at the executive level (Bolles *et al.*, 2007:45)

The purpose of incorporating project management into strategic planning of the enterprise's overall operations is to improve the strategic planning processes by adding a project business management perspective. This addition of the EPMO organisation to the enterprise can have the following benefits:

- Adding executive level project management planning input into developing business strategies;
- Identifying and implementing the project business management processes applicable to developing the enterprise's business strategies;
- Helping to assure that the business strategies do not conflict with enterprise environmental factors applicable to the organisation;
- Helping to assure that any business strategy accomplished by project-related actions and activities will support the enterprise's vision and mission;
- Providing executives with timely and accurate oversight capability of future portfolios; and
- Enabling the maturation of the organisation's project business management strategic planning process (Bolles *et al.*, 2007:46).

3.4 Leading the Change to a Project-Based Organisation

Most future growth in organisations will result from successful development projects that generate new products, services or procedures. Such projects are also a principal way of creating organizational change, implementing change and growth strategies is usually entrusted to project managers (Graham & Englund, 2004:1).

According to Du Plessis (2014:414) the intertwined discipline of change, change management and project management evolved from very different starting points. The dominant paradigm of change is that it can be controlled and this fits nicely with the project management idea that change is controlled, which is deeply embedded in the field of engineering. Conversely, the idea of change management comes from a behavioural point of view and is rooted in the fields of Psychology and Sociology. They regard the process and techniques related to change management as inherent to organisational development.

- Project management aims to systematically and methodically manage change in an organisation from techno-structural perspective.
- Change management aims to facilitate the same changes but from people perspective, supporting different levels of social system of the organisation through this process of transition.

In some organisations and some types of projects, projects, project and change specialist work very closely together to realise change. In other organisations they try to work together without successfully collaborating. Sometimes there is even a rift between project and change specialist. At structural level, often project and change management roles are specified in the organisational structure. However, change management is sometimes seen as a capability or competency that can be sourced via involvement of human resources, organisational development or even line management. Change managers should be involved in a project right from the beginning, Change managers can contribute process thinking during planning phases and this will help facilitate change that is done with or by people rather than to people. However, when organisations view change management as an independent skill it is seen as a core competency for project managers (Du Plessis, 2014:415).

3.5 Power and Political Behaviour

Power and political behaviour in organisations is complex and dynamic. It is also unavoidable in a project environment as stakeholders are greatly diverse and have different backgrounds, norms, needs and expectations. There is a need to be able to use power skillfully and politically to manage projects successfully, as a lack of emphasis on project politics and an inappropriate use of power will lead to chaotic project management. Power and politics are still some of the least discussed subject matters in project management and project managers and leaders need to know about it and learn how it works. It is impossible to break away from power and politics in any organisation. Political strategies and political tactics apply to everyone in every situation. Project managers have to be particularly conscious of all the possible stakeholders differing power bases and interest (Du Plessis, 2014:348-349). Project managers need to be aware that, in the public sector, they are operating in a milieu in the sense that project outcomes have political consequences and also in the sense of departmental and inter-department politics. Politics can be viewed as either the activities or affairs engaged in by government or the intrigue and maneuvering in a group. In politically-charged circumstances, effective project management requires the exercise of political skills as well as the skills of problem solving and participation. Project managers need to be sensitive to the power and influence of key individuals in the institution and to how the pattern of influence is affected by the project and changing circumstances. Project managers have to market ideas and concepts to indifferent or hostile colleagues, to channel information in order to change perceptions and to undertake a number of lobbying activities to obtain resources needed for the project (Kinipe *et al.*, 2002:213).

3.6 Developing the Project Management Information System

When determining the proper components of project management information system (PMIS), first evaluate whom it will serve. Upper managers need the information on all projects regarding progress, problems, resources usage, costs and project goals. This information helps them judge the portfolio of projects. They need to review projects at each milestone and produce a go or no-go decision. Project managers and department managers need to see

each project schedule, priority and use of resources to determine the most efficient use across the organisation. Project team members need to see schedules, task lists, specifications and the like so they know what needs to be done next. The PMIS should do the following:

- Answer questions of the major stakeholder;
 - Facilitate communication between team members, between team members and other stakeholders, between all project managers and between project managers and upper managers;
 - Help in "What if?" analyses to answer questions about project staffing, proposed staffing changes, and total allocation of resources; and
 - Help organisational learning by helping the members of the organisation to learn about the project.
- Require that each project have a core team;
 - Define core team membership as an important position in the organisation;
 - Commitment to the core team members should be full time or at least a large percentage of each member's time;
 - Support core team involvement in defining the project goal and completing the project plan. Core team members should be heavily involved in in the project start-up meeting;
 - Resist moving core team members once they are assigned;
 - Motivate, evaluate and reward core team membership;
 - Support regular core team meeting.

Developing a useful information system across projects is critical to successful of a project-based organisation because people need to be able to do each of the following:

- Respond quickly to opportunities and threats;
- Get needed information efficiently;
- Avoid duplication of efforts;
- Get help on current project by considering information on similar past or present projects; and
- Provide individual schedules, along with information on who is waiting for output, to support on time delivery (Graham & Englund, 2004: 168-169).

3.7 Developing and Supporting Core Teams for Project Success

Successful projects are completed by project teams, not upper managers. But the background work of upper management teams often leads to project team success. Project teams represent the cornerstone of the post bureaucratic organisation. They confer benefits but also have costs (Graham & Englund, 2004:109). For the upper management team to develop a core team process:

A common mistake in implementing project management is ignoring the process of developing core teams. Core team process implementation requires a long-run view of projects; often only upper managers have this view (Graham & Englund, 2004:113)

Teams develop around achieving a long-term goal and for a team to develop successfully there some key features needed which are the right people with the right combination of skills needed to be identified. Trust needs to be built; and roles, responsibilities and membership need to be identified. When teams are developed, most of them go through five predictable stages of development which are forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. At the norming stage newly formed teams start by milling around in confusion because of the high degree of uncertainty regarding their roles and relationships. The storming stage is when the teams progress to confronting possible issues and interact with other team members to understand their roles. The third stage is norming and team members have organised themselves to be able to work together and meet project objectives. Performing is the productive stage of team development when team members are openly operating and effectively and willing to set each other up to win. Adjourning stage is when project time lines are temporary and all project teams have adjourned when the project comes to an end (Du Plessis, 2014:302-305).

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper has demonstrated that the integration of Project Management mechanisms within the public sector which is the borrowed concept from the private sector will refine and enhance project management. The utilisation of project management mechanisms in government will result in a new implementation "tool-kit" for public service managers and service providers. From this article it should, however, be clear that the incorporation of project management mechanisms into the public sector will yield efficiency and effectiveness benefits for government departments. The concept of a Project Management office (PMO) at an enterprise level (EPMO) is relatively new but large organizations having global footprint are adopting Enterprise Project Management Office (PMO). Therefore, the public sector must also benchmark on the best practices of the private sector. The popularity and adoption of EPMO will increase as globalization increases. The emphasis is on effectiveness and efficiency within the public sector. Moving from what has been the traditional approach of having program and project level PMOs to an EPMO level is a logical step in enhancing project management within the public sector. The adoption of project management mechanisms by the public sector will enable the public sector to be project oriented and gradually refrain from utilising the services of the private sector project management companies. Despite significant investment since 1994, most of the public sector projects have failed to meet delivery expectations, and the lack of significant project management experience in the South African Public Service has been identified as a contributing factor. The South African Government has sought to address these gaps and improve future outcomes by engaging the services of private sector to increase project management competency in the

South African Public Service. However, according to the above exposition outlined in this article it is evident that the South African public sector must incorporate and implement project management mechanisms in its current structures.

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Section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana: An Ingredient for Personal Rule

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Abstract: Section 47 (1) and (2) of the constitution of Botswana provides thus; the executive power of Botswana shall vest in the President and subject to the provisions of this Constitution, shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers' subordinate to him. In the exercise of any function conferred upon him by this Constitution, or any other law the President shall, unless it is otherwise provided, act in his own deliberate judgement and shall not be obliged to follow the advice tendered by any other person or authority. This paper examines this provision and argues that such provision accords the president extensive executive powers and promotes personal rule. In other words, the constitution of Botswana accords the president absolute powers and that is undemocratic. The paper further argues that this provision undermines the functioning of the Judiciary and the Legislature thereby compromising the doctrine of separation of powers. In addition, the paper posits that this provision has led to the dominance of the Executive arm of government over Parliament and the Judiciary. In such circumstances the accountability of the President to the citizenry is compromised. In view of these, this paper argues that section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana is out-dated, undemocratic and is overdue for amendment.

Keywords: Constitution of Botswana, Judiciary, Legislature, Section 47, Personal Rule

1. Introduction

This paper examines Section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana. The special focus is on how this provision influences or has influenced personal rule in Botswana. Section 47 (1) and (2) explicitly vests executive power in the President. It provides as follows: "(1) the executive power of Botswana shall vest in the President and subject to the provisions of this Constitution, shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers' subordinate to him; (2) In the exercise of any function conferred upon him by this Constitution, or any other law the President shall, unless it is otherwise provided, act in his own deliberate judgement and shall not be obliged to follow the advice tendered by any other person or authority." The legislative function and the judicial function of the State are vested in a group of people, that is, in the National Assembly and the President as well as in the Judiciary consisting of judges and magistrates respectively. Unlike the judicial and the legislative function, the executive function is vested in a single individual, the President. The paper argues that this provision accords the president extensive and absolute executive powers and promotes personal rule. Personal rule is a type of political system that is centered on a leader or a

select few elites who control and monopolize state power (Jackson & Rosberg, 1982). The paper posits that this provision has led to the dominance of the Executive arm of government over Parliament and the Judiciary and that this provision undermines the functioning of the Judiciary and the Legislature and compromises the doctrine of separation of powers.

To achieve the aim, the paper is divided into six sections inclusive of this introduction and the conclusion. The second and third sections present the theoretical framework of the paper as well as Botswana and powers of its presidency, respectively. In the fourth section, Section 47 of the Constitution and Personal Rule in Botswana has been discussed. Section five critically discusses the Personal Rule as applied in Botswana. The paper concludes that the roots of personal rule in Botswana is the constitutional provision which vests extensive and absolute executive powers in the hands of one person, which is the president. This provision is therefore out-dated and undemocratic and needs to be repealed or amended with a view of spreading the executive powers to a number of persons or bodies just like it is the case with the judicial and the legislative powers of government in Botswana.

2. Theoretical Framework

Jackson and Rosberg (1984:421) defined personal rule as "a distinctive type of political system in which the rivalries and struggles of powerful and wilful men, rather than impersonal institutions, ideologies, public policies, or class interest, are fundamental in shaping political life." They further defined personal rule as a type of political system that is centred on a leader or a select few elites who control and monopolize state power (Jackson & Rosberg, 1982). Ogbazghi (2011:2) posits that "the political dynamics of personal rule, by nature, promotes personalized state-society relationships rather than institution-based practices of governance. This is simply because, he argued, "personal rule is based on loyalty to the president as opposed to institutions, which are constantly monitored and controlled to ensure that they will not achieve any balance of power that could threaten the system." Jackson and Rosberg (1984:421) argued that the political system of personal rule is "shaped less by institutions or impersonal social forces than by personal authorities and power." As such, institutions, by definition, are not governed exclusively by the formal rules as they are often flouted whenever and wherever they come into conflict with the interests of the ruler (ibid: 438). Seabo (2018) noted that "the exercise of power by personal rulers is often not done within the remit of the law and that in such political systems, established and effective political institutions and mechanisms of accountability are largely absent and those that exist are rendered ineffective". Similarly, Arriola (2009) posits that formal institutions tend to be generally too weak to perform their functions in personal regimes. Jackson and Rosberg (1984) contended that personal rule is a distinctive political system where leaders try to stay afloat in an unrestrained way.

As a result, in such political systems, government and administration are likely to be highly personal and permeated with patronage and corruption. Personal rulers tend to be self-centred and seek to control state apparatus. In so doing, the primary motive of personal rulers is not much about the interest of the nation other than achieving their own self-centred objectives (Seabo, 2018). At the very essence of the problem of personal rule thus lies the monopolization of political power (Davidson, 1993; Reno, 1997; Ayittey, 1999; Ogbazghi, 2011). Ayittey (1999) and Linz (2000) combined personal rule with the system of what he calls "political sultanism" as

the natural embodiment of the monopolization of power at the heart of Africa's political crisis. The phenomenon of sultanism or state hegemony operates within a "defective economic system of statism," that is the monopoly of enormous power in the hands of a single individual, which is achieved by such devices as price controls, legislative acts, regulations, state ownership of the means of production, and the operation of state enterprises (Ayittey, 1999; Linz, 2000; Ogbazghi, 2011). Unlike in functioning democracies with pluralistic politics, political power tends to be dominated and monopolised by few political elites in personal regimes. In this way, a leader rules by decree and consults with his most trusted loyalists (Seabo, 2018).

Ogbazghi (2011) noted that the political history of many African independence and contemporary leaders has shown that they equated the practice of unrestrained power with state sovereignty. Against this backdrop, Roessler (2011:310) asserts that in personalist, authoritarian regimes the incumbent's use of his discretionary power to make appointments and eliminate real or perceived rival's increases anxiety within the government. Seabo (2018:247) argued that "personal regimes take various forms and include princely rule, autocracy, prophetic rule and tyrannical rule". To this end, all state funds, opportunities, and other resources, including government bureaucracy are used as strategic centres of enrichment and reward for such loyal clients. Bosch (2015:1) described personalist regime as "the most stereotypical form of dictatorship. He wrote that the term raises associations of absolute power in the hands of one man, surrounded by a loyal group of sycophants telling the dictator what he wants to hear and all the excesses, narcissism and paranoia that go with it." Ezrowand Frantz (2011) and Bosch (2015) argued that in accordance with the personalist regimes, the military, state resources and ruling party are dominated by one person, wherein the ruler aims to use power for personal desires that can be enjoyed by him and distributed among his protégés.

3. Botswana and Powers of Its Presidency

Botswana is a unitary state that embraces a hybrid system of government. A hybrid between the parliamentary system as practiced in Britain and the presidential system as practised in the United States (Nsereko, 2010). A unitary state is a state

in which the three major branches of government have authority in all matters over the whole territory and all persons in the territory of the state. Whereas, in a federal state powers are distributed by the Constitution between the Government of the whole or the central or federal and the governments of the regions or provinces into which the country is subdivided (Nsereko, 2010). A presidential feature in the Botswana system of government is the merger of the two executive functions of the Head of State and Head of Government into the office of the President and the way the head of the Executive exercises his or her powers. The President of Botswana is the sole repository of the executive power; he does not share that power with anybody (RoB 1997:sec. 47; Molomo, 2000; Nsereko, 2010; Dingake, 2011; Botlhale & Lotshwao, 2015). However, in a parliamentary system, the functions of the Head of State and the Head of Government are separate. It is also worth noting that Botswana adopted a constitutional democracy as opposed to a parliamentary democracy. Therefore, the centre piece of Botswana's democracy is not a sovereign parliament but a supreme law, in the form of a constitution. The Constitution of Botswana provides for the separation of powers between the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary. Unlike in many countries, the President of Botswana is elected by parliament and not by the people. That is, the President, in whom the executive power of the State is vested, is not directly elected by the people. Nevertheless, Botswana has always been viewed as a shining example of democracy in Africa (Molomo, 2000).

Powers of the Presidency in Botswana are provided for by Section 47 (1) and (2) of the Constitution of Botswana which reads:

"(1) the executive power of Botswana shall vest in the President and subject to the provisions of this Constitution, shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers subordinate to him. (2) In the exercise of any function conferred upon him by this Constitution, or any other law the President shall, unless it is otherwise provided, act in his own deliberate judgement and shall not be obliged to follow the advice tendered by any other person or authority".

That is, the political power is centralised in the Office of the President. The Constitution of Botswana provides for an executive presidency with extensive

powers, sweeping constitutional powers, he decides alone, he does not share that power with anybody (RoB, 1997; Molomo, 2000; Good, 2007; Botlhale & Lotshwao, 2015). However, (Colton, n.d.) argued that "no man is wise enough, nor good enough to be trusted with unlimited power."

The President of Botswana is the Head of State and Head of Government. He is the Commander in Chief of the armed forces. He appoints the Vice-President, Cabinet Ministers, Assistant Ministers, Special Elected Members of Parliament, Permanent Secretaries, Assistant Permanent secretaries, Commissioner of Police, Chief Justice of the High Court, Judge President, Judges, the Attorney General, the Auditor General, the Ombudsman, Ambassadors or High Commissioners and He can appoint and constitute a commission of inquiry into any matter, determine whether it sits in public or in private, and whether their report is made public or not (RoB, 1997).

The President also exercises the prerogative of mercy (RoB, 1997; Molomo, 2000; Good, 2007; Dingake, 2009; Nsereko, 2010; Bodilenyane, 2012; Botlhale & Lotshwao, 2015). The Office of the President further has direct control over the Public Service, the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC), Information and Broadcasting and all oversight institutions in Botswana. The President is an ex-officio Member of Parliament and can take part in the deliberations of the House, including voting. He has veto powers and all bills that are passed by the legislature need his assent in order to become law. In the exercise of these powers, the President is not obliged to consult anybody or heed anybody's advice (RoB, 1997). The powers of the President are also exacerbated by the fact that the President of the Country is also the president of the ruling party. In Botswana, the ruling party has always been the Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) since independence in 1966. Surprisingly, Section 92 of the Constitution empowers the President to dissolve a democratically elected parliament, even though the President himself is not democratically or popularly elected (Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017).

4. Section 47 of the Constitution and Personal Rule in Botswana

Botswana has always received accolades as a shining example of democracy in Africa. This was mainly attributed to the founding President of Botswana Sir Seretse Khama who espoused democratic principles

in his leadership. Similarly, his successor, Sir Ketumile Masire championed democratic principles which put Botswana as democratic politics frontrunner as attributed to democratic transitions by embracing democratic norms and practices. Nevertheless, Botswana operates an executive presidency that enjoys extensive executive powers (Molomo, 2000). This has led to Botswana being susceptible to personal rule. Personal rule in Botswana is amongst other things attributed to the provision of Section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana which gives the President absolute powers. Richard (2014) and Seabo (2018) posits that personal rule in Botswana was experienced under the leadership of General Ian Khama in which strict militaristic discipline carried out in the form of directives displaced consultation as one of the cornerstones of Botswana's democracy. As alluded to by Richard (2014:128) "when army generals take control of the country, participatory democracy gets assaulted; inclusive governance is dealt a hard blow, civil liberties get eroded and ultimately autocratic rule displaces and overthrows democratic rule". This was the defining features of General Ian Khama's Presidency. For example, Khama's unilateral pronouncement of public salary adjustment at a kgotla (village ward) meeting while negotiations with unions at the Public Bargaining Council were on-going (Seabo, 2018). A number of unilateral decisions which affect the whole nation were taken by President Ian Khama, the source of power to do so being the Constitution of Botswana. For instance, whereas consultation in policymaking lies at the center of a democracy, Khama unilaterally pronounced policy positions. In his briefing, Good (2010:315) described personal rule under General Ian Khama as follows:

"Since the succession of Lieutenant-General Ian Khama to the presidency in April 2008, an escalation in the militarization and personalisation of power in Botswana has taken place. Repressive agencies have been operationalized, military personnel have entered government in increased number, an informal coterie of advisers has come into being around Khama, and a spate of accusations of extra-judicial killings by state agents have been made. Governance and democracy are thus seriously undermined in what is conventionally represented as an African success."

Good (2010) described this as events which threatens the rule of law, peace, and human rights in the country. For instance, in 2008 as noted by Seabo

(2018), a 30% alcohol levy was imposed on the country without prior consultation with all involved stakeholders. In so doing, Khama alienated captains of industry and civil society which is an anathema to due consultation in the policy making process. As if that was not enough, Khama unilaterally pronounced public servants' salary adjustment of 3% in 2010 at a kgotla meeting while a consultative process at the bargaining council was underway (add sources). These are some of the decisions that are exacerbated by Section 47 read in conjunction with Section 41 of the Constitution. Section 41 of the Constitution gives the sitting president absolute immunity from criminal and civil proceedings. It states that no criminal or civil proceedings shall be instituted or continued against the president in respect of anything done, or omitted to be done, in his private or official capacity. This provision makes it difficult to challenge any decision a president makes, whether in his or her private capacity or state capacity. Thus, Section 47, read with Section 41 of the Constitution, creates loopholes that make the office of the president susceptible to abuse, corruption and misuse of power; and the issue of personal interests overriding public interest comes into play. Such powers lead to the monopolizing of the state by a few individuals or state capture. However, some may view extensive presidential powers as appropriate by arguing that whatever the president does, he or she is answerable to the country, thus the constitution accords limitless powers that the president fully execute his duties without "shaming the country." The president needs these powers to fully execute his or her duties as the head of state and as the head of the executive branch of government. The president is given so much power so that he cannot blame his failure to execute the presidential duties on lack of adequate powers needed to execute these duties.

5. Synopsis of Personal Rule in Botswana

This section outlines some of the highlights of personal rule in Botswana more especially under the leadership of President Ian Khama. Personal rule in Botswana has been somewhat felt during the leadership of President Festus Mogae and gained momentum during the leadership of Ian Khama who controlled and monopolized state power. Under Ian Khama's leadership, the State has been transformed into an instrument of consumption for the few. State resources were used to serve the

interest of those in power and their cronies. The following 5 subsections briefly discuss the measures of Botswana's personal rule.

5.1 The Directorate of Intelligence and Security (DIS)

The establishment of the DIS by the Government of Botswana under the leadership of General Ian Khama was mired with a lot of controversy from the public and opposition political parties (add sources). The DIS is established under the Office of the President to investigate, gather, coordinate, evaluate, correlate, interpret, disseminate and store information, whether inside or outside Botswana, for the purposes of, detecting and identifying any threat or potential threat to national security and advising the President and the Government of any threat or potential threat to national security (Good, 2016). Thus, the DIS exists to enhance national security and to protect national interest by gathering intelligence at national, externally and international levels. At least in paper, the DIS formation was a good initiative for the country, however, the DIS's real practice instilled a lot of fear to the nation. One of the critical objectives of the initiative was to offer security services to the president's administration through intelligence gathering of his opponents as well as taking action against them (Gabathuse & Kgoboge, 2019). Accordingly, Richard (2014) asserted that the DIS was popularly known for allegedly spying on prominent opposition members and for extra judicial killings. Good (2010:316) is of the view that "the existence and role of DIS is closely identified with President Khama". Furthermore, the DIS is the institution which typified General Khama's dominance by gaining public prominence when a wanted criminal suspect John Kalafatis was shot dead in Gaborone in 2009 (Good, 2016). "The killing of Kalafatis in public execution style was one of several other reported killings at the hands of the DIS without following due process in courts of law" (Seabo, 2018:252). Moreover, "there had been 12 shootings in which 8 people died between April 2008 and March 2009, and according to the Law Society of Botswana 'immense fear' existed in the nation" (Good, 2016:6). The DIS was seen as protecting the personal interest of President Ian Khama other than assuming a duty of ensuring national security.

Surprisingly, in an interview with Mmegi Newspaper (31 May 2019) "former president Ian Khama has

advocated for the disbanding of the Directorate of Intelligence and Security (DIS) and its sister spy organisation, Military Intelligence (MI). Khama argued that the current President Mokgweetsi Masisi-led regime is using these departments to serve his own interests. Khama parroted similar accusations that were apparently levelled against his government when he was in office (Kgoboge, 2019:4-5).

5.2 Public Service Appointments

The President of Botswana is empowered by the Constitution to appoint key and senior public servants. He appoints the Vice-President, Cabinet Ministers, Assistant Ministers, Special Elected Members of Parliament, Permanent Secretaries, Assistant Permanent secretaries, Commissioner of Police, Chief Justice of the High Court, Judge President, Judges, the Attorney General, the Auditor General, the Ombudsman, Ambassadors, High Commissioners and the Commander of the Botswana Defence Force (BDF) (RoB, 1997). In many occasions, the presidential appointments have overlooked meritocracy over loyalty to the sitting President. Accordingly, after becoming the president in 2008, Khama appointed trusted loyalists most of whom were drawn from the army to occupy strategic positions within key bureaucratic institutions (Seabo 2018). Richard (2014:120) argued that "Khama's ascendance to the presidency opened the 'floodgates' to an unprecedented military influx into civilian offices and partisan politics". Good outlined the militarization of the public service as follows:

"General Merafhe became Vice-President, the former Captain Kitso Mokaila became Minister for Environment, Wildlife and Tourism, and, as noted, Brigadier Ramadeluke took over at Justice, Defence, and Security...The appointment of military men reportedly cascaded downwards, with retired Lieutenant-Colonel Moakohi Modisenyane as general manager of the Central Transport Organization and Colonel Silas Motlalekgosi as head of the Prison Service." (Good, 2010:322-323).

The above citation shows how key senior public servants appointments were personalised and/or militarized. These appointments were largely due to personal loyalty to the President a defining attribute of personal rule in Botswana. "The independence of the judiciary came under attack as Khama unilaterally made judicial appointments disregarding the Judicial Services Commission. The Judicial Services

Commission that is charged with among other functions recommending judicial appointments has not had it easy with Khama" (Seabo, 2018:254). Good (2016) asset serious limitations in the independence are experienced accompanied by strength of the judiciary and secrecy which prevailed in the president's appointment of judges on the recommendation of the Judicial Service Commission.

5.3 Corruption and Mismanagement of Public Office

High profile, elite and institutionalised corruption and mismanagement of public office are also defining attributes of personalist regimes. "The stories of corruption coming out of Botswana, do not point to lower levels of corruption as much as the inability of the Botswana Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC) to deal with elite corruption, especially if it involves members of the executive arm of the state. Elite corruption has flourished under the regime of General Ian Khama" (Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017:5). "Various newspapers in Botswana have reported on corrupt deals which have privileged the presidents' family and friends. These have been Seleka Springs, Khama's brothers' company, which has long dominated the BDF's defence procurements. The Khama brothers, including President Khama himself, and their friends, have been sole middlemen of especially lucrative BDF procurement deals, from fighter aircraft through to trainer and transport aircraft, and on to armoured vehicles and tanks" (Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017:6). Motlogelwa and Civilini (2015) posits that "the BDF arms procurements have made President Khama and his brothers so wealthy that they have been referred to as Botswana's "military millionaires". On another note, Seabo (2018) avers that what is unique about Khama's presidency is that the president used state institutions and or resources to finance his private life. Seabo (ibid) gives an example of the construction of an airstrip in the private property of Ian Khama and subsequent constructions apparently carried out by the military using military resources. During his tenure as Vice-President, "Lieutenant General Ian Khama Seretse Khama used state resources to aid his party's campaign. In what was perceived by the opposition as unfair political advantage, Khama used official transport a Botswana Defence Force helicopter that he personally piloted to Nkange, where he launched the BDP manifesto" (Molomo, 2000:103).

One of the companies that dominates Botswana's tourism industry is Okavango Wilderness Safaris, which owns several lodges in the tourist hub. President Ian Khama and several of his family members are reported to have direct or indirect financial interests in the company and/or its subsidiaries (Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017). Not only is Khama reported to have tight control over Botswana's tourism industry, he has appointed his younger brother as the Minister responsible for tourism, and is reportedly patron to all national environmental-based NGOs (Rihoy & Maguranyanga, 2010:59). Makgala and Botlhomilwe (cited in Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017) pointed out that political corruption and the strong 'link between Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) elite and army generals' serves to illustrate the relationships between 'politicians, businesspeople, and high ranking military leaders' which together can be seen to form Botswana's self-perpetuating 'power elite' (Mills, 1956). Here, 'political, economic and military powers combine through interwoven alliances' (Mills, 1956) to form a power elite whose interests drive policy and societal values in the direction it wants, regardless of democratic principles (Dye and Zeigler, 1997, 155)". "Khama prevailed over BDP MPs to pass a bill to amend the pensions and retirement benefits which was viewed by the opposition as attempts to sustain the president's lifestyle. The list of Khama's retirement benefits is probably a far cry from what his predecessors are entitled to (Seabo, 2018). "In addition to other benefits, new clauses permitted the president to work in government while he continued to earn 80% of his monthly salary and even to choose his preference of location for retirement home." (Weekend post, 2019).

Moreover, the president, a pilot by training, could fly government aircraft, use boats or any other preferred mode of transport (Chida, 2017). Permanent Secretary to the President (PSP) Carter Morupisi has admitted during a press conference that government has gone overboard with regard to the law just to please former President Lt Gen Ian Khama (Gasennelwe, 2019).

Morupisi made this startling revelation at a media briefing in Gaborone which was aimed at discussing the pension and benefits of former presidents especially with regard to Khama. The public service chief said former presidents; the late Sir Ketumile Masire and Festus Mogae never wanted special treatment extended to them from government with regard

to pensions and benefits, but Khama continues to expect preferential treatment. The PSP said they admit being wrong with regard to the fact that, they did this when Khama was still president. In other words, he added that, Khama took decisions concerning the office he was heading to, of former President, while he was still president. "He took away the prerogative of the then incoming president, to take such decisions as the law provides for that. A sitting president now, is the one entitled to take such decisions with regard to the benefits of the retired president (office of the former president.)" (Gasennelwe, 2019:2)

Bayford (2009 cited in Good 2010:317) expressed what he called the 'public perceptions' of President Khama: "He is nepotistic, corrupt and misuses government resources for personal and family gain'. As Vice-President 'he was contemptuous of Parliament', and he 'abused government property' despite repeated calls from the Ombudsman not to do so. Bayford alleges that under his presidency security agents have killed unarmed citizens the DIS has spied on people 'because he is paranoid about being displaced as leader of the ruling party'. Further, the President 'surrounds himself with friends, relatives and sycophants as advisers."

5.4 Advertising Ban on Private Media

The private media in Botswana has suffered the burden of Ian Khama's authoritarian rule. It has been identified as one of the critics of BDP (Khama) led government. There has been an advertising ban on private media by public institutions under the presidency of Ian Khama. Mogapi (2015) pointed out that "over the years, the Botswana Democratic Party and their government led and participated in what by all accounts amounted to a reign of terror against those who opposed both the party and government. Economic suffocation has often been the preferred weapon of choice, the private media, in all its multi-faceted variations was being denied government advertising in a most obnoxious scale".

Media Institute for Southern Africa (2009) stated that during Ian Khama's reign, a cloud of fear had descended on civilian life in Botswana, impacting on freedom of expression and the constitutional provisions guaranteeing freedom of expression are not respected by government. With the Department of Broadcasting placed under the Office of the President, only government programmes and

activities of the ruling party (BDP) were aired in the Botswana Television (Btv) and Radio Botswana. Opposition political parties' activities were often side-lined to the extent that their leaders complained against state media abuse and unfair coverage. Mokwena (2017:4) reported that "a study conducted by the Ombudsman found that the ruling BDP enjoyed disproportionate coverage by Botswana Television. The report shows that BDP enjoys 82 percent of coverage as compared to 18 percent shared by the rest of the opposition parties and out of 89 activities, only 16 from opposition were found to be newsworthy by BTV compared to 73 from the BDP". This has led to Freedom House (2017) arguing that while Botswana has a robust media sector, authorities in 2016 sought to suppress reporting on the opposition and on issues related to corruption.

5.5 Ineffective Oversight Institutions

As, Arriola (2009) posits, formal institutions tend to be generally too weak to perform their functions in personal regimes, established and effective political institutions and mechanisms of accountability are largely absent and those that exist are rendered ineffective. This has been the defining feature of Botswana's oversight institutions, particularly the Parliament, the Office of the Ombudsman, the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC) and the Office of the Auditor General. Parliament in Botswana has been rendered ineffective owing to the over dominance of the Executive branch of government. Given its dominance, the Executive controls the Legislature (Fombad, 2005). The ineffectiveness of the office of the Ombudsman, Auditor General and the DCEC in Botswana has been attributed to the fact that all these institutions are under the Office of the President, they report to the office of the President. The Office of the President is the final decision maker on whatever matters brought before it by these institutions. Examples of such matters are cases of corruption, economic crime and mismanagement of public office for personal advantage. Thus, the ineffectiveness of these institutions are largely due to their operational independence. The Ombudsman, the Auditor General and the DCEC Director are presidential appointees, they owe their allegiance to the president, therefore, there are in a very compromising position to investigate the president and his allies on issues of corruption and mismanagement of public office.

Similarly, Members of Parliament (MPs) argued and exposed how "toothless" the Ombudsman is as it is unable to use its powers to hold top government officials accountable. They said it is only using its powers to investigate and prosecute members of society's low classes. MPs said that is why when the former Ombudsman Lethebe Maine pronounced that the then Vice President Ian Khama had no right to fly Botswana Defence Force (BDF) aircrafts he continued flying them. Maine's recommendation to reprimand Khama was thrown out of the window as former President Festus Mogae gave Khama permission to fly BDF aircrafts (Sunday Standard, 2016). In accordance with best practices in the Commonwealth and elsewhere, these bodies must report directly to parliament, an elected body representing the citizens (Botlhale & Lotswao, 2015).

Contrary to the concept of separation of powers and its checks and balances and the supremacy of parliament, the parliament of Botswana is subordinate to, and dominated by the executive (Molomo 2002; Bodilenyane 2012; Botlhale 2012; Botlhale & Lotswao, 2013). "The extent of executive influence over the legislative branch is particularly evident in the law-making process. Although the parliament's principal function to make laws, as in most parliamentary democracies, the whole of this process - especially the most decisive pre-legislative stages - is controlled and driven completely by the executive" (Fombad, 2005:321). Botlhale and Lotswao (2013:42) argued about the ineffectiveness of parliament by stating that "parliament is a department within the Office of the President (OP), consequently, parliament is unable to significantly discharge some of its roles or functions. First, the parliament lacks operational independence from the Office of the President (OP). Among others, the parliament of Botswana neither has an independent budget nor does it hire its own staff. Instead, it depends on the OP and Directorate of Public Service Management (DPSM) for the budget and personnel respectively. Arising from this, it can be argued that parliament is subject to the whims and caprices of the executive arm of the government". The ineffectiveness of parliament is further aggravated by Section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana which implies that the president is not constitutionally accountable to Parliament.

Parliament in Botswana is indeed incapacitated, seriously weak and therefore ineffective; another defining feature of personalist regimes. Likewise,

under the leadership of Ian Khama the DCEC has always been viewed as a "toothless bulldog" which could not investigate cases of corruption and economic corruption amongst the ruling elites and the president's allies. Parliament and other oversight institutions named above need to be strengthened.

6. Conclusion

This paper has looked at Section 47 of the Constitution of Botswana and how it has influenced or is influencing personal rule in Botswana. Special reference was made to the ruling of former president Ian Khama from 2008 to 2018 whose administration exhibited personal rule regime characteristics ranging from institutionalised corruption, mismanagement of public office, the use of state apparatus for private gain, ineffective oversight institutions, advertising ban on private media and senior public service appointments based on loyalty to the president. The paper concludes that the roots of personal rule in Botswana is the constitutional provision which vests extensive and absolute executive powers in the hands of one person, the president. This provision is therefore out-dated and undemocratic and needs to be repealed or amended with a view of spreading the executive powers to a number of persons or bodies just like it is the case with the judicial and the legislative powers of government in Botswana. The paper further argued that this provision undermines the functioning of the Judiciary and the Legislature thereby compromising the doctrine of separation of powers. In addition, the paper posits that this provision has led to the dominance of the Executive arm of government over Parliament and the Judiciary. In such circumstances the accountability of the president to the citizenry is compromised. Therefore, section 47 of the constitution of Botswana is overdue for amendment.

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