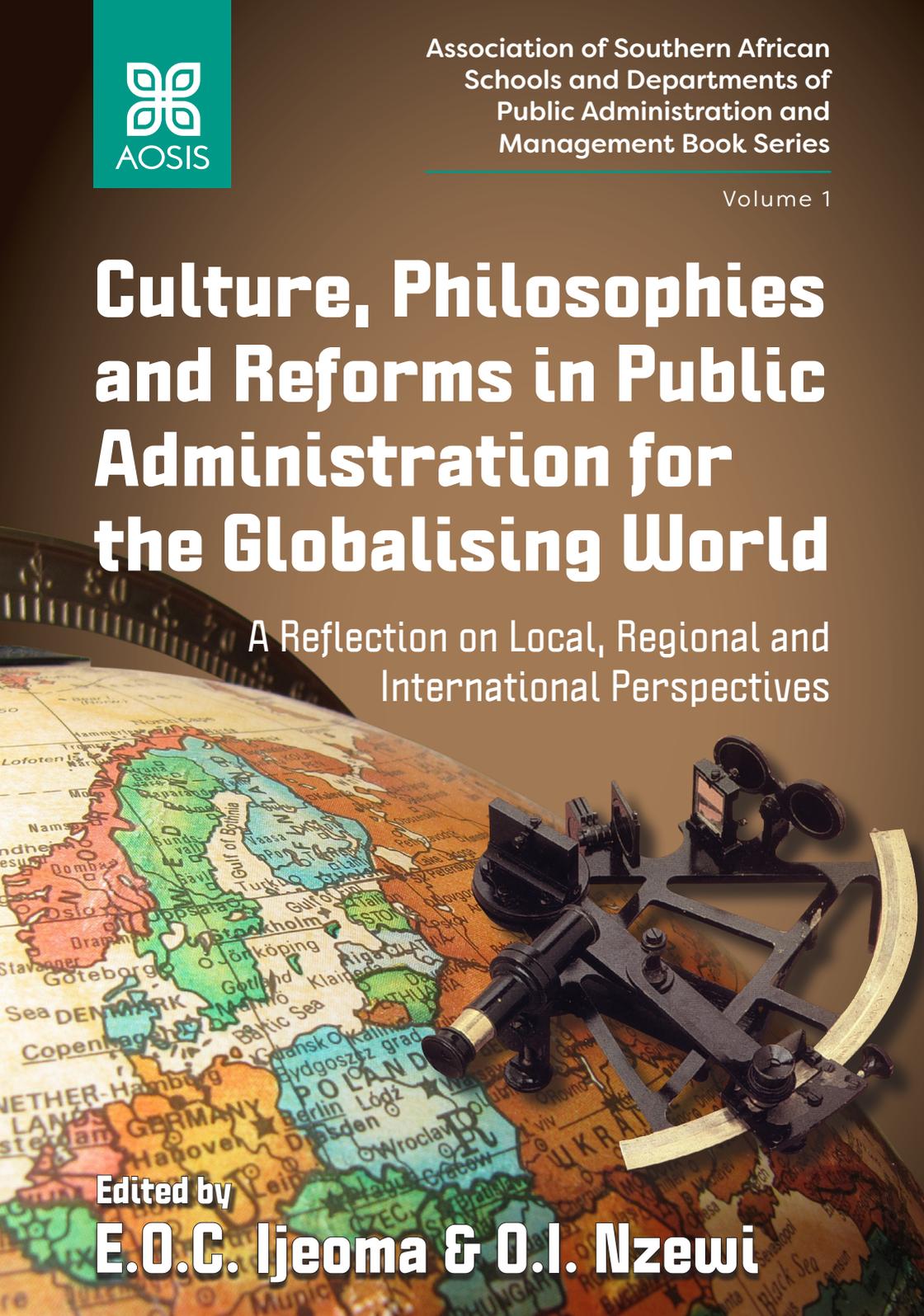# Culture, Philosophies and Reforms in Public Administration for the Globalising World

A Reflection on Local, Regional and International Perspectives

Edited by

E.O.C. Ijeoma & O.I. Nzewi

Culture, Philosophies and Reforms in Public Administration for the Globalising World

A Reflection on Local, Regional and International Perspectives

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Culture, Philosophies and Reforms in Public Administration for the Globalising World

A Reflection on Local, Regional and International Perspectives

EDITORS
E.O.C. Ijeoma
O.I. Nzewi

AOSIS

Peer review declaration

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Research Justification

The aim of this scholarly collected work is to contribute to the scientific discourse on public administration in a globalised environment. The book reflects on the governance challenges in South Africa and in Africa. Its point of departure is the 'master narratives' (the so-called grand debates) such as New Public Management and, specifically, the role of technology. It also reflects on the so-called middle range discourses concerning organisational-level issues in government (e.g. leadership and work procedures). The book explores new solutions to old governance challenges like corruption and service delivery. The uniqueness of this collected work lies in its ability to reflect on existing philosophies and practices in an innovative way. Through its multidisciplinary lens, the book opens up a new vision for the future of public administration in the South African context as well as the African continent, not neglecting the current local, regional and global environment.

Until recently, globalisation was considered an entrenched world order. However, international political events during the course of the past few years have resulted in one of the biggest challenges to its endurance in recent history. Indeed, the Brookings Institution (https://www.brookings.edu/) argues that much like the breaking of globalisation's first wave a century ago, the recently elected new government in the USA presents evidence of an unprecedented shift in the USA's post-World War approach to the global economic system. Added to this, the mainstreaming of some fringe nationalist and protectionist movements in Europe, as witnessed in the successful referendum in Britain to exit the European Union, highlights the growth of a severe nationalist and protectionist agenda that may be a signal of the unravelling of the current globalism world order. These developments inspire deeper interrogation of the challenges to effective public administration globally and the ripple effects in South Africa and Africa as a whole. Pointedly, it is evident that ensuring the voice of citizens in policy decision-making remains a critical governance challenge. On the policy front, there are perennial challenges of land reform, service delivery and poverty, while on the governance front, corruption has metastasised with a growing culture of impunity and lack of accountability in leadership. In the midst of growing corruption, and more than 20 years into democracy, South Africa's income inequality remains one of the highest in the world. This setting constitutes the context of the research outcome published in this scholarly work. All contributions to this book are original research and no part of the book was plagiarised from another publication elsewhere.

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Abbreviations, Charts, Figures and Tables appearing in the Text and Notes

List of Abbreviations

AAPAM	African Association for Public Administration and Management
AIS	Association for Information Systems
APS	Australian Public Service
APSC	Australian Public Service Commission
CBPS	Centre for Budget and Policy Studies
SCCSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
CSO	Civil Society Organisations
CYSD	Centre for Youth and Social Development
DPP	Democratic People's Party
DWA	Department of Water Affairs
EC	Eastern Cape
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
EU	European Union
FHS	Fort Hare Solutions
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GMP	Good Manufacturing Practice
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
IBV	Information Behaviour and Values
IMP	Information Management Practices
IS	Information System
IT	Information Technology
ITP	Information Technology Practices
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management

LFN	Laws of the Federation of Nigeria
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
MMR	Mixed Methods Research
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPG	New Public Governance
NPM	New Public Management
NPS	New Public Service
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PACIS	Pacific Asia Conference on Information System
PGDL	Postgraduate Diploma in Leadership
QC	Quality Circles
RBV	Resource-based View
RTI	Right to Information
SLP	Short Learning Programmes
TPA	Traditional Public Administration
TQM	Total Quality Management
UDF	United Democratic Party
US	United States
WHO	World Health Organization
YASS	Yunnan Academy of Social Sciences

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Mainstreaming the Whistle-blower Policy in the Fight Against Corruption in Nigeria

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■ Introduction

The phenomenon of corruption has continued to plague Nigeria from the pre-independence era to date. It is rather a challenging issue (Aiyede 2006; Bolu 2016; Ebegbulem 2012; Ijewerem & Dumade 2014; Imhonopi & Ugochukwu 2013; Mohammed 2013;

Ogbeidi 2012; Seteolu 2004) and has persistently defied legislation, frameworks and different measures by successive governments. Rose-Ackerman (1999) admits that corruption is part of human nature and is not only driven by psychological forces such as greed, ambition and desire for power, but it is also sustained by institutional forces such as bad governance, dishonesty and scarcities. Corruption in the public realm exists in different forms such as violations of financial procedures, misappropriation of funds, bribery, diversion, conversion and theft of public funds and resources and other forms of financial malpractices. The effect in Nigeria has been pervasive with wide-ranging implications on national development. Corruption is thus fingered as the bane of Nigeria's under-development (Ebegbulem 2012:221; Enweronye et al. 2017:37; Imhonopi & Ugochukwu 2013:78; Ogbeidi 2012:2). It has not only reduced government's capacity to respond to the socio-economic needs of the people but is arguably also responsible for the high poverty level and low living standards as public funds meant for development end up in private pockets. The dynamic effects are, therefore, lower government effectiveness, weak investment (especially, foreign direct investment) and lower human development. The cost of corruption in the country is high. A recent study by PricewaterhouseCoopers (2016:3) revealed that the cost of corruption in the country was equated to around $1000 per person in 2014 and could cost up to 37% of the gross domestic product by 2030 if there is no immediate intervention.

Successive governments have come up with a host of strategies and mechanisms to fight the scourge of corruption. Tolerance to corruption and inability to fight it have been adduced as part of the reasons for change of governments by military juntas in the past, and different anticorruption statutory and institutional frameworks have been instituted by both past military and civilian administrations, the most recent being the Independent *Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Act*, no. 31 of 2000, and the *Economic and Financial Crimes Commission Act*, no. 2 of 2002 (Gonzalez 2016). Nigeria is also a

signatory to two international conventions against corruption. These are the African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption, adopted by the heads of states and governments in 2003 (UNODC 2004), and 'the United Nations Convention', 2004 (Bonell & Meyer 2015). Despite all these measures, the corruption profile of the country remains embarrassingly high. The 2016 Corruption Perception Index score for the country was only 28%, with a ranking of 136 out of 176 surveyed countries (Transparency International 2016).

With the inception of the present government in May 2015, a renewed attack on corruption was launched. Of note was the implementation of Treasury Single Account by the federal government 'to ensure accountability of government revenue, enhance transparency and avoid misapplication of public funds' (Abiodun 2016) by government ministries, agencies and departments. However, the hallmark of this anticorruption campaign was the introduction of the whistle-blower policy through the office of the Ministry of Finance in December 2016. The policy is aimed at encouraging individuals in possession of information that entails 'violation of government financial [procedures,] mismanagement [of] or misappropriation of public funds, [theft of public] assets and [other forms of] financial' malpractices to report it for investigation (Akinkugbe 2018:14). The goal is to support the fight against corruption by increasing exposure of financial crimes and also rewarding whistle-blowers (Onanuga 2017). This chapter therefore focuses on mainstreaming this policy into the national anticorruption framework through legislation and the creation of sufficient public awareness on its existence as an effective tool for detecting fraud and combating corruption in both public and private sectors.

■ Conceptual Clarifications

In this section, the concepts of corruption and whistle-blowing are examined for purposes of clarification and establishing their contextual links.

◼ Corruption

Corruption, like every other concept in the Social Sciences, suffers from a surfeit of definitions. This means that there are numerous definitions based on different perspectives. Andvig and Fjelstad (2001:4) view corruption as a 'complex and multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes and effects as it takes on various forms'. However, the most popular and simplest definition of *corruption* is that 'it is the abuse of public power for private gains' (Anvig et al. 2000:11). The encyclopaedic and working definition is found in the World Bank (1997 cited in Balboa & Medalla 2006; UNDP 1999 cited in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] 2009; Quah 2011; Transparency International 2011). Corruption, whether termed *public*, *official*, *grand* or *institutional*, means the same thing and literally refers to the misuse of public resources by public officials to achieve private benefits, and this entails all forms of corrupt behaviours perpetrated by those entrusted with public power. It is, however, argued that this definition does not cover corrupt practices in the private sector. Corruption in the private sector or the role of the private sector in enhancing corruption is emphasised through such definitions as 'abuse of public or private office for personal gain', in which there is recognition of the intersection between the public and private sectors (Asian Development Bank 2006:1; Heidenheimer, Johnson & Le Vine 1989:6; Rose-Ackerman 1978). In Nigeria, corruption is classified as an economic crime and entails non-violent 'criminal and illicit activities committed with the objective of earning wealth illegally' (Akov 2015:396; Federal Republic of Nigeria 2002). Corruption viewed from either the public or private realm is an aberration and constitutes an antisocial behaviour. It constitutes unethical behaviour and a degeneration from the normal (Heidenheimer &Johnson 1993:6; Khan 1996:1; Okojie & Momoh 2005:1). Thus, the United Nations Convention against Corruption (2004) recognises corruption as a multifaceted, dynamic and flexible phenomenon and describes rather than defines it. Forms of corruption include embezzlement, fraud, extortion, favouritism, grafts, theft, falsification of records,

kickbacks, influence peddling and so on (Andvig et al. 2000:15; Ebegbulem 2012:222; Klitgaard 1998; Okolo & Akpokighe 2014:35). *Corruption* here refers to all dishonest and fraudulent activities committed by persons either in the public or private sectors for private wealth acquisition. It therefore:

- entails abnormal behaviour involving misuse of trust
- is behaviour perpetrated by people in either the public or private realm
- manifests in different forms
- has a damaging effect on society.

◼ Whistle-blowing

There are various definitions of *whistle-blowing*. Geldenhuys (2016:16) notes that these definitions vary depending on the role that whistle-blowing is seen to play in society. However, there is agreement of definitions on whistle-blowing as the disclosure of information on illegal or illegitimate activities of organisational members to persons or organisations that may be able to effect action (Delmas 2015:80; Johnson 2003:3; Jubb 1999:78; Miceli & Near 1992:15). This, however, does not emphasise the aspect of whistle-blowing as a tool for exposing corruption in the society. This aspect is captured in the definition offered by Schultz and Harutyunyan (2015:88) and also emphasised in Transparency International (2013:4) as 'the disclosure of information related to corrupt, illegal, fraudulent or hazardous activities being committed in or by public or private sector organisations' (Lewis & Castellino 2013)*.* Whistle-blowing could be internal or external (Geldenhuys 2016:17; Holtzhausen 2007:53; Miceli & Near 1994:774–775). Internal whistle-blowing refers to disclosure of wrongdoing to authorities within the organisation and external whistle-blowing entails disclosing such information outside the organisation to regulatory authorities.

One key element is that whistle-blowing has turned out to be an 'accountability infrastructure' in organisations (Diale 2010:296; Zakaria 2015:230). The ultimate goal of whistle-blowing is to protect

public interest (Transparency International 2010:1). From the foregoing, a whistle-blower is one who performs the act of disclosing information regarding illegal activities to authorities or for public knowledge. Schultz and Harutyunyan (2015:88) identify two major motivations for whistle-blowers as the desire to expose wrongdoing and as a last resort, especially when internal structures make such disclosures difficult. In the context of this chapter, a whistle-blower is any individual who discloses information relating to corruption and other forms of financial malpractice to government for action.

■ Theoretical Analysis

This chapter applies the expectancy theory of Vroom (1964). Vroom (1964:2) suggested that people consciously choose particular courses of action, based upon perceptions, attitudes and beliefs as a consequence of their desires to enhance pleasure and avoid pain. This theory belongs to the category of process theories of motivation (Fudge & Schlacter 1999) and differs from the content theories as found in the works of Maslow (1954), McGregor (1960) and Herzberg (1966). Sloof and Van Praag (2008:7) contend that while the content theories rely on individuals' internal attributes to explain motivations in the workplace, the process theories focus on the interactions with the environment. In other words, 'external rewards are viewed as inducing motivational states that [trigger behaviour] as opposed to […] behaviours derived from internal [sources] such as enjoyment [for] work itself' (Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt 2001:217). Isaac et al. (2001:212), Suciu, Mortan and Lazăr (2013:183), and Sloof and Van Praag (2008:7) state that Vroom's expectancy theory explains motivated behaviour as goal oriented and also reaffirms that motivation is determined by three factors, namely, expectancy, instrumentality and valence. *Expectancy* refers to people's perception that effort is positively correlated with performance and the greater effort expectancy, the more motivated to exerted effort (Sloof & Van Praag 2008). *Instrumentality* refers to performance outcome and concerns a person's expectation that rewards are closely related to a level

of performance. Valence is the level of value that the person attaches to the reward. In this chapter, the theory serves as a framework for explaining motivations (monetary reward) that underlie the disclosure of information that could lead to the recovery of stolen monies by the Nigerian government.

Drawing from the theory, there exists a strong perception regarding 'effort-performance' in providing vital information that could lead to the recovery of such stolen monies, where the reward for this effort is monetary (2.5% to 5% of the recovered money) and the reward is highly valued in terms of the positive impacts on the individual's life. However, it is argued here that in the absence of such monetary motivations, the willingness to blow the whistle is likely minimal. There has to be something in it for the individual to be worth the risk of such disclosures. In essence, it is not a totally deliberate, non-obligatory act (Jubb 1999:83; Near & Micelli 1995) and not 'predominantly motivated by notions of public interest' (De Maria 1994 in Jubb 1999:84). The act is thus explained by the motive for external rewards.

■ Policy Context

■ Whistle-blower Policy 2016

The aim of this policy 'is to support the fight against financial crimes and corruption, by increasing exposure [of such] and rewarding whistle-blowers' (Onanuga 2017:n.p.). This is driven by (Onanuga 2017):

> [*T*]he possibility of increased accountability and transparency in the management of public funds and the possibility that more funds would be recovered [*from looters and such*] that could be deployed in financing [*the country's*] infrastructural deficit. (n.p.)

■ Reporting Information

Onanuga (2017) refers to a ministerial statement that:

> Anyone […] who has 'authentic information about violation, misconduct or improper activity that can impact negatively on

the Nigerian people and government' should report it through one or other of three channels: [*via SMS to*] 09098067946; Email [*to*] whistle@finance.gov.ng and the [*whistle-blowers'*] Web [*portal at*] http://www.finace.gov.ng. (n.p.)

The violations include the violation of government's financial regulations (e.g. failure to comply with the *Financial Regulations Act*, *Public Procurement Act* and other extant laws); mismanagement and misappropriation of public funds and assets; financial malpractice or fraud; collecting or soliciting of bribes; theft, diversion of revenue and other public funds; fraudulent and unapproved payments; and procurement fraud such as kickbacks and over-invoicing (Onanuga 2017).

■ Reward for Reporting Fraud

The whistle-blower is to get between 2.5% (minimum) and 5% (maximum) of the recovered money, provided that 'there is voluntary return of stolen funds or assets on the account of information provided' (Onanuga 2017:n.p.). For instance, a whistle-blower whose information leads to the recovery of up to ₦1 billion will receive 5% of the amount and an amount above ₦5bn will attract an extra 2.5%.

■ Whistle-blowers Protection

Whistle-blowers are to file formal reports where they have been treated badly because of their reports. Restitution is to be made to individuals who have suffered harassment, intimidation, victimisation or other forms of losses. In essence, through the Federal Ministry of Finance online whistle-blowing portal, the government encourages individuals with credible information regarding all forms of financial crimes and corruption 'deemed to be in the interest of the public' to disclose such for action. However, issues of modalities for creating awareness, structure and protection of whistle-blowers are not yet detailed out.

So far, there seems to be modest and serious attention by the government towards the policy in terms of reward and protection

of whistle-blowers. For instance, in terms of reward, the federal government through the Ministry of Finance recently paid ₦421 million to a whistle-blower who provided information leading to the recovery of $43.5 million, £27 800 and ₦23.2 million at No. 16 Osborne Road, Ikoyi, Lagos State (Vanguard 24 May 2017:14). Also, in terms of protection, the Senate passed the Whistle-blower Protection Bill into law. Accordingly (*The Punch Newspaper* 2017), it is:

> An Act to Protect Persons Making Disclosures for the Public Interest and others from Reprisals, to Provide for the Matters Disclosed to be Property Investigated and Dealt with and for other Purposes Related Therewith. (p. 1)

These are therefore positive efforts to sustain the policy and ensure it achieves the intended objectives.

■ Whistle-blower Framework

The whistle-blower policy is predated by series of anticorruption measures. The Nigerian government had launched the Ethical Revolution (1982) and War against Indiscipline and Corruption (1984). The government have equally put in place institutional and statutory frameworks for fighting corruption since the return of the country to civil rule in 1999. Such measures include the *Independent Corrupt Practices Commission Act*, no. 5 of 2000; *Economic and Financial Crimes Commission* (EFCC) *Act*, no. 12 of 2002; *Public Complaints Commission Act*, no. 7 of 2004; *Code of Conduct Bureau Act*, no. 13 of 2004; *Freedom of Information Act*, no. 1 of 2011; *Money Laundering (Prohibition) Amendment Act*, no. 11 of 2012; etc. These measures have failed to yield desirable outcome in the fight against corruption, thus leading to the introduction of the whistle-blower policy by the present government as reinforcement.

■ Methodology and Discussion of Findings

This study conducted a survey on three public institutions in Nigeria, namely the Ministry of Interior, Bureau of Public

Enterprises and National Orientation Agency. The choice of these institutions was deliberate. In the course of the survey, questionnaires were administered to 10 senior government officials at the rank of deputy director and above on four issues around the whistle-blower policy. These issues centre on awareness of the policy; perceived efficacy as a means of checking corruption and recovering stolen public funds; the willingness to blow the whistle if in possession of credible information; and enactment of legislation to protect the whistle-blower. Using a simple percentage analysis, 93% of the respondents claimed full knowledge of the policy, with 0% unaware of the policy and 7% declining to respond. On the issue of perceived efficacy of the policy as a means of checking corruption and in the recovery of stolen public funds, 73% showed a favourable response, 17% negative and 10% declined to comment. In contrast, 53% favoured whistle-blowing if in possession of information and 33% responded in the negative with 14% declining to respond. In a similar vein, 90% would agree to blow the whistle because of the monetary reward, whereas 10% declined comment. Moreover, 70% of the respondents advocated for legislation to protect whistle-blowers with 10% declining to respond. The data are presented in Figure 1.1.
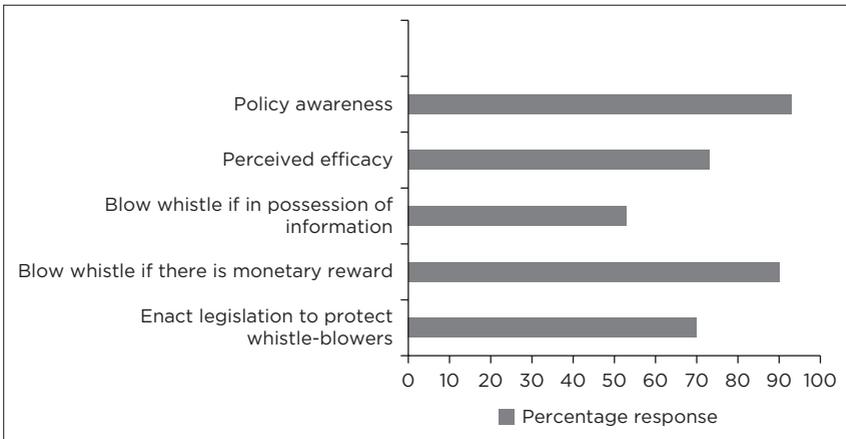
FIGURE 1.1: Survey on whistle-blower policy.

■ Summary of Findings

1. The survey shows a high awareness (93%) of the whistle-blower policy by public servants using a sample drawn from the three government institutions.
2. Favourable response (73%) was recorded in favour of the policy serving as means of checking corruption.
3. High favourable response (90%) was recorded for respondents who were willing to whistle-blow if there were a corresponding monetary reward.
4. Favourable response (70%) was recorded for advocating legislation to protect whistle-blowers.

■ Whistle-blower Awareness

Awareness of the whistle-blower policy is presently limited to public servants, especially the high-ranking ones, whereas most people in the lower cadre and the majority of ordinary Nigerians are still ignorant of the policy. There is, however, no restriction on reporting acts of corruption and financial malpractices. The damaging effects are continuously borne by the people. For the policy to succeed and yield the expected results, adequate knowledge of its existence is basic. Corruption is a secret behaviour and cannot come to light if not reported by people who discover it (Transparency International 2010:1). All are therefore stakeholders in the fight against corruption in the country.

Awareness of the policy has to be intensified at the three levels of governmental activity – federal, state and local. The first step here is the official unveiling of the policy at both the state and local levels and to civil society organisations. The second step is the intensified use of both traditional (television, radio, newspapers, books, etc.) and new (Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, etc.) mass media technology in the awareness campaign. The mass media at this stage can perform the two vital functions of instilling awareness and helping to change

public attitudes and consequently shedding the mantle of nonchalance usually characteristic of civil society in Nigeria. In addition, the National Orientation Agency of Nigeria has vital roles to perform in strengthening whistle-blower awareness. Among the related functions of the agency in this regard are included (Federal Republic of Nigeria 1993):

> [*Enlightening*] the general public on Federal Government policies, programmes and activities; [*mobilising*] favourable public opinion and support for Federal Government policies, programmes and activities; [*conducting informal education through public enlightenment activities*]; [*collecting*], [*collating*], [*analysing*] and providing a source of feedback from the public to the federal government on its policies, programmes and activities. (p. 4)

Thus, to achieve full-scale grassroots awareness, the agency has to collaborate with the mass media. This could be achieved by using its machineries at the three levels of government to scale up enlightenment campaigns.

■ Whistle-blower Legislation

Transparency International (2010:3, 2013:2) lays strong emphasis on the need to protect whistle-blowers through legislation. However, there exist international instruments aimed at combating corruption that also recognise the importance of whistle-blower protection legislation (United Nations Convention Against Corruption 2004; Africa Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption 2003; OECD Recommendations on improving Ethical Conducts in the Public Service 2009; G20 Anti-Corruption Plan 2010). Different countries also have different legislation in this regard. For instance, the US *Sarbanes–Oxley Act*, no. 59 of 2002; the UK *Public Interest Disclosure Act*, no. 23 of 1998; Japan's *Whistleblower Protection Act*, no. 122 of 2004; the South African *Protected Disclosures Act*, no. 26 of 2000; etc. Whistle-blower legislation is imperative in the corruption fighting effort as presently demonstrated through the policy. The aim is 'to ensure that those who speak in the public interest are protected' (Auriacombe 2005:216). From the survey

conducted, the unwillingness of most respondents to report acts of corruption and other forms of financial crime is directly attributable to the absence of protective measures through legislation. Strong fears of intimidation and victimisation were expressed, especially where the system is already characterised by weak legal frameworks. Legislation is therefore intended to provide the legal basis for the policy and also serve as a mechanism to:

- encourage individuals to report acts of corruption and other forms of financial malpractice
- protect individuals from victimisation
- manage the information provided in the right way to achieve results.

The process of enacting whistle-blower legislation by the National Assembly has to be detailed and involve multistakeholder inputs, such as the civil society, academia, public and private sector and so on. Moreover, this process must be guided by international best practices.

■ The Role of Institutions

In the fight against corruption in Nigeria, government at different times took measures such as the establishment and use of institutions. These institutions include the National Assembly and State Houses of Assembly, which are empowered to conduct investigations on public issues as enshrined in Section 88(1) of the constitution; the judiciary, with the role of interpreting laws and prosecuting offenders as contained in the 1999 constitution; the EFCC, which investigates and prosecutes cases of corruption and other forms of financial crimes as contained in the *EFCC Act*; the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission, which operates to protect the public service against corrupt practices as contained in Act no. 5 of 2000; Public Complaints Commission (Ombudsman), which functions to protect the public against corruption and oppressive exercise of power by public officers, as contained in Act no. 7 of 2004; the Code of Conduct Bureau

and Code of Conduct Tribunal, which is empowered by the 1999 constitution to investigate persons who violate the code; the Central Bank of Nigeria, which also functions to prevent corruption, dishonesty and misconduct through the powers as contained in Act no. 7 of 2007; the police and other security agencies such as the Department of State Security, which the various acts provide for investigation and arrest of persons involved in corruption; the Federal Character Commission, which functions to ensure equity in the distribution of posts and socio-economic amenities among the federating units, as contained in Act no. 34 of 1996.

While some of the institutions have more mandates to determine, investigate and prosecute cases of corruption and financial crimes, others have limited mandates and are mainly designed to review and advise public officers on the adoption of procedures to minimise corruption. However, the institutions are to serve as a supportive framework for the whistle-blower policy. They have in place established structures in the anticorruption crusade. Moreover, they are peopled by professionals who constitute valuable resources in managing the whistle-blower process.

■ Whistle-blower Leadership

This refers to giving space and recognition to developing whistle-blowing champions (Diale 2010:302). It therefore involves creating a positive government approach to whistle-blowing at the three levels of government and the private sector, where top public officials are expected to demonstrate commitment in developing the culture. The culture of reporting corruption and acts of financial crimes is negligible in our society because of the absence of encouraging legislation, as well as for sociocultural and other ecological reasons. Leadership is imperative in situations where people are in a dilemma to report acts of corruption and financial indiscipline to authorities for action.

■ Conclusion

In the fight against corruption in Nigeria, the government has at different times adopted measures such as enlightenment campaigns and statutory and institutional frameworks. These efforts have failed to achieve the desired outcomes, leading to the recent introduction of the whistle-blower policy through the Federal Ministry of Finance. Through the policy, the government encourages individuals with credible information on corruption by public officials and other forms of financial crime to report it for investigation with monetary reward. At present, whistle-blower awareness is low among Nigerians, except senior public officials who favour it as an effective means of checking corruption and recovering stolen public funds. The survey conducted also shows that individuals are willing to make disclosures if there is a monetary reward and legislation to protect them from victimisation. This chapter recommends intensified whistle-blower awareness through the media in collaboration with public enlightenment institutions and the enactment of legislation by the National Assembly and its assent to law by the president for purposes of strengthening the policy and protecting whistle-blowers.

Town Twinning in Local Government: Applying Work Procedures for Municipal Collaborations

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■ Introduction

Shared services, collaborations and other forms of cooperation are positioned whenever there is an urgent need to be addressed by officials involved. The original idea of town twinning emerged as a strategy for regional collaboration in many regional groups like the European Union (EU). Member states belonging to regional groups such as the EU aligned their local economies with their regional goals to advance the economies in the various local and state governments through internationalisation of municipalities and town twinning. South Africa is also interested in regionalisation of development initiatives and internationalisation of local municipalities. International lessons between sister cities have demonstrated that there is a need to further develop town twinning, not only for economic development but also for strengthening the administrative capabilities in towns and cities (Clarke 2011:116). This chapter's purpose is to assess how district municipalities in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa can collaborate on the application of work procedures with the intention to improve service delivery. A single municipality in a district cannot have all the required capacity and ability for economic development and delivery of goods and services. Town twinning is not new in South Africa; it has been used to adjust municipal consolidation of services for capacity development and benchmarking, blending of workforces for concessions, and to diminish the alienation of less-developed cities from developed ones. According to Buxbaum (2014), the formation of international relationships between municipalities can augment collaborations and partnerships at the local level to include learning various strategies from all parties with the intention to improve democratisation and decentralisation of current local government service delivery status. Thus, organisational arrangements for relationships can be global and regional and filter down to other forms of governance in consideration of economies of scale. The South African government is signatory to many regional and global associations; therefore, it is compelled to formalise and improve regional and

collaborative partnerships as part of its development initiatives. Therefore, the status of local government capacity compels the government to rethink urgent strategies to improve municipal administrative capacities. According to Chikulo (2013:46), local government is expected to be developmental and provide service delivery that will have a direct impact on the quality of the citizens' lives in South Africa. Consequently, local government has limited autonomy and less financial capacity, and that creates a limitation to apprehend the profits of the economy (Ijeoma & Nzewi 2016). In addition, the continuous service delivery protests and failure of municipalities to obtain clean audits in South Africa are evidence of the bad state of local government, which needs to recover from the challenges of public service reforms that were informed by the New Public Management (NPM) approach. These reforms opened new avenues for greater efficiency in local government. NPM introduced an important strategy of alternative measures to service delivery, which include private and public partnership, collaborations, shared services and privatisation. These mechanisms open a window for local municipalities to collaborate with other municipalities abroad to learn strategies in the pursuit of effective and efficient service delivery. However, the challenges of applying NPM strategies in the South African local government context, where historical imbalances heighten the pressure for accelerated service delivery outcomes, are mounting. Wood (2015:1) asserts that cities should at times also explore new thoughts beyond their limits, and this chapter contends that perhaps they can learn better ways of servicing their clients. However, this chapter argues that intermunicipal cooperation must encompass joint production between local governments in South Africa, improve administrative capacity, promote regional service coordination and improve service delivery. The initial studies conducted in the Eastern Cape Province confirm that local municipalities have little understanding on how they can apply work procedures as internal controls that are used to improve their administrative performance and capacity (Ijeoma & Nzewi 2016b:64). Scholars shared their international experiences on the application of regionalism and

town twinning to shared lessons to be learnt on how local municipalities can advance their administrative capability on service delivery. It should be noted that there is a paucity of literature on studies focusing on town twinning and regionalisation in South Africa. Hence, this chapter intends to contribute to the extensive and in-depth exploration of town twinning strategies to enhance intermunicipal cooperation on work procedures and methods. This chapter will first examine the theoretical aspects of regional and collaborative governance. It then explores the context of municipal internationalisation and town twinning. This chapter draws on literature strategies that can be adopted as praxis for twinning projects to promote work procedures, analyse the role of work procedures in municipal collaborations and examine implications for service delivery. The focus of this chapter is to improve the use of work procedures in local government using town twinning collaborations.

■ Research Methodology and Procedures

This chapter reports on the research that employed a qualitative data analysis methodology for collecting and analysing data. The authors reviewed literature as part of a conceptual framework and linked town twinning with work procedures for municipal collaborations. Various articles from accredited journals and books were reviewed to solicit literature on domain areas of town twinning, work procedures, collaborative management and service delivery in local government. The authors used their experience and knowledge in the spheres to which these themes are best applied. The authors drew literature from 59 published and forthcoming articles, working papers, PhD theses and conference proceedings on municipal cooperation, town twinning, municipal internationalisation, collaborative management and service delivery. Literature was also reviewed from distributed and unpublished papers from the fields of Public and Municipal Finance, Public Management, Economics, Public Policy, Political Science, Urban Studies and Geo-politics. The authors further filtered,

analysed, re-examined and reused data from previous studies and produced new knowledge. Different electronic databases were used, such as EBSCOhost, Emerald, Science Direct, Google Scholar, Sabinet and Summon. A qualitative document analysis was favoured by this study because of its applicability to existing studies to produce additional information (Bryman & Bell 2016:267). Having noted twinning and collaborations as important aspects for promoting work procedures in local government, this study intends to respond to the question of how district municipalities in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa can collaborate with other sister municipalities to apply work procedures with the intention to improve service delivery.

◼ Theoretical Approach: Regionalism and Collaborative Governance

Global economies and political debates are the major drivers of regionalism and internationalisation of organisations and structures at local level. The economic downturn compelled governments in various regions to relook at diverse ways of improving their local economies, while also complying with government strategic positions to boost local economic development. In the context of this chapter, regionalism is viewed as a practice of regional rather than central systems of combined administration between parties focusing on economic, culture and political affiliation. Along the same lines, collaborations are formed to further joint management of projects and programmes to pursue a common goal. The genesis for collaborative management can be traced from the NPM approach that promotes efforts for partnerships and collaborations to enhance strong points and weaknesses. The NPM offers a range of practices rather than theories or an articulated theoretical model (Williams, Rayner & Allinson 2012:2615). However, the NPM model is premised to offer strategies to re-engineer the way government works through partnerships and collaborations. Currently, the NPM plan has created public value to move from a regulatory approach to a more collaborative one. However, the South

African government has adopted some of the NPM principles to reform public service. William et al. (2012:2615) agree that governments have considerable interest in the principles and culture brought about by the NPM reforms, which later affected some major public service organisations. The NPM approach originated from the idea of Osborne and Gaebler (1992) that suggested various alternative ways of providing service delivery through collaborations and partnerships. Collaborative management focuses on facilitating a preferable process whereby government collaborates with other service providers such as private and non-governmental entities to address an issue and provide service and goods. Matsiliza (2016:2) agrees that collaborations and partnerships require an arrangement of some flexibility on the part of all parties involved to loosen up controls without acting contrary to the constitution. Public sector departments and agencies are still accountable, while private partners have less accountability and control. In a collaborative arrangement, there is a necessity for an agreement that will determine the scope of control as well as accountability and responsibility. Collaborative governance has favoured giving public and private partnerships equal accountability because the public sector has a stake in serving the general welfare of the people, while the private sector is concerned with the bottom line and profits. It is the responsibility of the collaborators and partners to agree on the ground rules, objectives and outcomes whenever they are involved in a joint project or activity. Some considerations, and the nature and scope of control of the parties involved, include the following:

- *Complexity*: Collaborations can assist in complex services where large capital and human resources are utilised. The challenge of complex projects and services is to adopt and apply a definite scope and specification for the service. Collaborative services need a joint pool of capital and resources to achieve the desired outcomes. Both regional programmes and twinning projects have legally binding relations; hence, a memorandum of understanding or a contract is drawn.

- *Number of collaborators*: The number of partners in an arrangement can determine the type and quality of services. Once there are more partners in the arrangement, there might be less control among them. An agreement must dictate the portion of the stake each partner has, because this will determine if each partner has direct control in the case where their shares are equal, or if another has more shares and thus more control. The number of collaborators and partners determines the level of trust and honesty in sticking to the joint agreement. However, it is also important that all collaborators align themselves with a vision for collaboration to avoid deviating from the main goal of their collaboration.
- *Resources*: It is a challenge to manage resources used in a political environment like local government because of the time and cost of labour, and there is a human element involved in a political environment. It is advisable to consult each other and work together in 'shared working' units. To ensure effective collaboration, it is advisable to effectively and efficiently share the responsibility of using and managing the resources and information. It is also advisable that collaborators and partners know the direct cost estimation and availability of resources.

■ Municipal Internationalisation and Town Twinning

Town twinning was conceived as an organised phenomenon in the Western European zone just after the Second World War. Attention was drawn from the experience of early 20th-century municipal internationalism – networking between the states that had common interests and organisations established during that period. Rapid industrialisation escalated a need for countries in the regional blocks to discuss urban problems that were brought about by industrial expansion. It was essential that new lines of communication and transportation technologies be allowed to address problems that were discussed across their boundaries. European and North American engineers, mechanics, economists and town council technicians and officers formed networks

inspired by their expertise and those across the borders. Other regions followed suit in Africa. South Africa considered municipal internationalisation when it became a member of signatories such as the UN, AU and South African Development Community. In the new dawn of South African democracy, there were massive challenges in areas such as urban infrastructure, housing, education and other needs of the masses. Also, the birth of democracy in South Africa in 1994 propelled the democratic government to foster relationships with other countries throughout the world based on economic, social and cultural exchanges. The recent decade of NPM is seen as the driver for collaborations to rescue vulnerable municipalities by merging their reform strategies with those of advanced municipalities overseas and within their regions. The South African government opened doors to new models of transforming its public sector through municipal internationalisation. The notion of fostering relations through municipal internationalisation is vital in countries that are not self-reliant and therefore want to learn from the best practices of other countries in the world. The literature identifies three approaches (phases) in the development of twinning, namely, (1) the associative phase (twinning based on friendship and cultural exchange), (2) the reciprocity phase (twinning based on educational exchange and capacity building) and (3) the commercial exchange phase (twinning based on economic development). It can be argued that in the 21st century twinning is more based on economic development as it promotes a good livelihood through job creation. South Africa is not immune from global challenges; hence, it is required to forge relations with other cities through what are termed 'sister city relationships'. Cross (2010:104) maintains that cultural understanding can build sister city relationships and peace through citizen diplomacy and politicians who are increasingly demanding real returns where local government is involved. Halvorsen, Almklov and Gjøsund (2017:2) are of the view that the key, unique features driving twinning relationships are the social, economic, political and cultural spatial practices. Cross (2010:107) argues that local government influence in New Zealand falls far

short of levels seen in China and Japan, where sister city relations are intended to convey a cultural and educational exchange policy, which can be officially mandated as part of an internationalisation programme. Twinning is coupled with an understanding of the importance of theoretical engagement, which he identified as lacking in twinning projects. Based on the literature, the following key features of internationalisation of municipalities can be identified:

- There are two or more local governments involved in different countries, and they are committed to having a sister municipality.
- The signing of a formal agreement seals the relationship of the twinning municipalities. These relationships are usually intended to be indefinite or long term.
- Each relationship is generally not confined to a single project. Relationships between sister cities usually display some concrete examples of success.
- There is a necessity for a supporting business plan setting out the objectives to be achieved.

Notably, cities and towns are expected to respond towards globalisation, regionalism, urbanisation and local socio-economic factors that are driven by new open markets, increase competition and add a new complexity to global supply chains. The South African government has linked its national strategy towards regionalisation with municipal internationalisation by formalising municipal relations with the global community and regional cities. There are practical examples where cities have applied municipal internationalisation such as the cities of Tshwane, eThekwini, Port Elizabeth and Buffalo. In addition, cities in other provinces such as OR Tambo, Buffalo City, the City of Tshwane and Johannesburg City are exploring ways to relate with other international cities for purposes that would be beneficial for local economic development in diverse provinces in South Africa. While there is not much experience of town twinning and collaboration at local level, we argue that town twinning relationships can be in-country regional relationships and have the potential to add as much value to community upliftment

through local economic development and job creation. Cities and towns have become more concerned about international affairs as they are responding to global needs with the intention of improving how they service their communities. Mayors and municipal officials have learnt how to set a benchmark for their cities by relating with other cities abroad, in the region and locally. According to Clarke (2011), various groups, to establish a long-lasting formal relationship, have formed twinning relationships, and it emerged as an organising strategy in Western Europe after the Second World War, where countries like the USA, the former Eastern Bloc nations and African states had to rebuild their transitional economies. Further, various scholars have explored how municipalities are involved in twinning where there are similar interests they wish to share like historical connections or economic, cultural and ideological issues (Jayne, Hubbard & Bell 2011:31). This study intends to explore twinning in the context of regionalisation of municipalities from a conceptual narrative. Regionalisation of municipalities has been pushed by politicians through involvement in matters that address social and economic problems in their regions.

Clarke (2011) agrees that regionalisation has become popular among developed and developing nations at an international level and at a local level whenever actors see a need to address issues of common interest. The idea of regionalisation emanates from the practices of the EU and other regional structures that collaborate on efforts of common interest. Indeed, many factors drive municipal linkages through twinning such as engaging in foreign trade and investments, development and technical services needed for sports and recreational activities, exchange of ideas and lessons through conferences, skills transfer and others. This study explores town twinning at a local level to address public service challenges and to ensure sustainable capacity development. This chapter argues that capacity and resources must be utilised and extended beyond provincial and municipal state borders in areas of common interest. However, the scale and efficiency of twinning projects varies from state to

state and from municipality to municipality. The next section will focus on the twinning strategies that can be adopted by municipalities in the Eastern Cape to improve the application of work procedures in service delivery.

■ Building Municipal Capacity Through Town Twinning Strategies

■ Programme-Based Twinning

Programme-based twinning is regarded as a good move that can enhance greater economic opportunities, regional recognition and skill transfer that will lead to a better understanding of administrative processes and procedures. Programme-based twinning must be driven by the needs of the society and must be monitored and evaluated to check their progress. Sister cities can be exposed to and learn from each other's good administrative conduct and they can be identified as good ambassadors by other municipalities. Bel and Warner (2015:7) emphasise municipal cooperation based on programmes to develop the municipal financial base within the same regions. They also encourage cooperation of municipalities to form stable service delivery arrangements within a particular regional area of jurisdiction. This chapter suggests that sister towns can conduct a systematic programme strategy assessment firstly where municipalities can estimate what changes are needed in society and how they can be attributed to a programme where they need assistance based on societal needs. Triana (2015:59) agrees that government cannot work alone; innovation has always been connected to sharing because of its new ways of developing institutions. In many cases, municipalities fail to assess the possibility of the impact of the programme, as some results cannot be estimated and thereby limit the risk in service provision. For instance, procedures are applied differently in different environments like a metropolitan municipality and a district municipality. Ika and Donnelly (2017:45) agree that capacity development projects require a good understanding of their context to build effective relationship between the stakeholders to

minimise their unpredictability in the process. It should be noted that collaborations through town twinning could drive the motivation for the proliferation of multisectoral provision of services in public agencies by state actors, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and private service providers. However, McGuire (2006) agrees with the notion that collaborations and partnerships between municipalities and universities can stimulate debate around capacity building and training of municipal employees to enhance better decision-making. These forums can be arranged through twinning programmes and conferences, with municipalities arranging partnerships between practitioners and academics specialising in municipal internationalisation, twinning and local government, which could enhance knowledge sharing and networking (Kolk 2014). Austin and Seitanidi (2012) note that twinning partnerships based on misunderstanding of twinning strategies and agreements could result in misallocation of funds, mismatch of resources, lack of complementary skills, ineffective decision-making styles and mistrust. It is advised that twinning programmes be managed and sustained through policies and agreements that are authentic and legally binding to control corruption and mismanagement of funds. However, using strategic programme-based forecasting, municipalities can assess the perceptions of the target groups and compare what happens to society with different options after the programme is launched. South Africa can also learn from Western and European cities on their procedural justice about issues affecting certain groups. The diversity of collaborations can provide a degree of project feasibility, effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery. Interorganisational collaboration can be practised ranging from government monopoly (no sharing) to privatisation (total transfer of responsibility).

◼ Human Resources Capacity Building

The transformation of public service has resulted in the amalgamation of the old South African public service with that of the homelands systems. However, public service transformation

has led to municipal structural changes that needed more personnel who are skilled and have the expertise to administer and deliver goods and services. Collaborations among district municipalities can include training needs by prioritising gaps in employee capacity, as identified in the needs assessment of various programmes. Training can be offered informally and through workshops where employees can learn from other municipalities how to follow procedures to perform their jobs effectively, efficiently and in consideration of value for money. In other municipalities, the development of work procedures might include more than training for short-term improvement. According to Van der Westhuizen (2017:284), some public officials and politicians hold degrees and diplomas that are relevant to their job specifications while some do not. However, municipalities also need a competent workforce to do their jobs effectively and efficiently. Van der Waldt (2014:177) asserts that municipalities can improve their capacities by learning from other service providers through partnerships. The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (RSA 1997) supports capacity building where public officials are required to possess some necessary competencies and skills to be able to perform well when discharging their duties. Even though the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority develops skills audits for training needs and submits them to the Department of Labour, there is still a gap and shortage of skills; hence, municipal officials are required to be trained and equipped with the knowledge of current developments that can improve their capacities. The global issues and challenges facing humanity (e.g. population growth, climate change, technological developments and economic globalisation) must compel universities and research centres to assist municipalities in identifying gaps in service provision by doing extensive research. Sister cities can bring on board academics from various countries on a voluntary basis and as consultants to assist in capacitating municipal research extensively. The impact of current production and consumption patterns, resource scarcity, growing inequality and changes in political and environmental dynamics are

evidence for improving municipal capacities. It is not common for organisations to educate employees for a longer term to sustain their activities through knowledge, skills and abilities at work. Matsiliza (2016:59) asserts that collaborations and partnerships can assist in addressing the bottlenecks of public organisations that are caused by poor attitudes towards service delivery, poor infrastructure that is not sustainable and lack of alignment of service delivery with policy mandates. In addition, a collaborative approach to training can also foster and promote dialogue, knowledge exchange and co-creation between municipalities and the wider community, whether that is across municipalities or with potential beneficiaries of their programmes where services are offered in the society, private or third-party sectors, or in the wider public sector.

Capacity building through collaborations can also involve the transfer of skills, knowledge and information aimed at performing a task that could not be previously performed (Van der Waldt 2014:177). It would also add more value to service delivery if procedures could be linked to the strategic planning of municipalities, with consensus reached among the stakeholders and the council, and with political parties. Developing a project plan for a service like water delivery, without recognising how the stakeholders perceive it and how it would be funded, may undermine the training goals and the relations between municipalities. Collaborations would be fostered successfully when the parties agree on what is to be done and when they consider the external environment where certain procedures are to be followed. Municipalities could also include university academics who are willing to assist voluntarily or as consultants to build the capacity of municipal officials. Their level of capacity building can range from recording voluntary hours of input into community development projects to informal training given to local communities.

■ Institutional Capacity Building

In the spirit of improving employee performance on how procedures are followed, sister municipalities can collaborate in

inculcating a culture of providing quality services to customers through total quality management (TQM). For municipalities to continuously improve, they must learn from each other in various areas that have been identified as weak. Experiments and pilot studies could be conducted as part of quality improvement and employees should learn basic research skills and other skills such as communication, strategic thinking and problem-solving. These pilot studies could also assist in developing learning units for understanding work procedures. Municipalities can also address their gaps in performance by managing quality that is oriented with service excellence. South African municipalities are compelled to apply Batho Pele principles that determine service standards, while municipalities in other regions display their service quality standards and both can learn an integrated approach towards TQM. However, it is imperative to put in place service quality improvement plans and service charters as a strategic approach towards quality management. Municipalities should provide efficient service that will benefit customers more. Municipalities can also learn from each other by exchanging their approaches and culture around quality management and quality circles (QC) used in the private sector, without disbanding their service standards. Municipalities can adopt the QC approach used by the private sector, whereby sister towns can audit each other while learning to improve service quality in the process. However, TQM is hailed for increasing participation of employees in service improvement that can add value to the organisational culture. However, there is strong criticism around the failure of QC to live up to its claims of advocacy in the private sector. Managers must be cautious when conducting QC in sister municipalities because not all employees will find circles to be welcomed into because they are aiming at changing employees' attitudes to performance. However, the public sector is familiar with TQM, which is widely practised by some municipalities who consider quality management as linked with their performance indicators. Employees must be oriented towards quality management. However, managers must guard against ambiguity when

technical guidelines for work procedures are rolled out for workers to apply them. Sometimes municipalities in the same province can increase complexity because of ambiguities and unclear standards as indicated in national policy objectives.

■ The Role of Work Procedures in Municipal Collaborative Efforts Through Town Twinning

A study by Ijeoma and Nzewi (2016:64) on the use of organisational work procedures in municipal governance in South Africa shows that work procedure application in local government is largely neglected, with more than half of employees preferring more informal applications through trial and error and devising their own preferred procedures. These findings are in line with other studies such as that of Hung et al. (2010:1), which reveal that gaps in procedural compliance are the result of workers changing the practices to suit their own way of work rather than adjusting or becoming accustomed to the work procedure practice. Indeed, much like Knudsen (2005 cited in Antonsen et al. 2008) argues, formal procedures are perceived negatively by operational staff because they seem to give the impression of superiority over other realistic understandings of the work; findings from Ijeoma and Nzewi (2016:64) show the same defiant attitude among those who do the work as knowing better than superiors who are distant from the actual hands-on work. However, there seems to be a general acknowledgement by workers of the positive role work procedures can play in achieving useful operational performance expectations in compliance, efficiency, introduction of new practice and standardisation of work (Ijeoma & Nzewi 2016). Thus, while municipal employees may have a sour attitude towards work procedures, there is a general acknowledgement of their potential as instruments to produce needed elements to achieve organisational fit into deliberate, new, structural and operational designs needed for successful twinning initiatives. However, to achieve this, there

are some important measures to bear in mind in using work procedures for this purpose (Antonsen et al 2008; Ijeoma & Nzewi 2016):

1. They must have relevance to the real work situations across the board. The design of work procedures must be participatory to ensure that what is written in the directives must reflect the actual conduct of the work unique to the twinning entities and is based on commonly shared values and interests.
2. Access to these work procedures must be easy. To this end, employees from twinning entities must be close to work procedures at any point of doing work. Shared platforms for access may be helpful.
3. The language must be simple and unambiguous to be understood by the employees from twinning entities. There must be a consensus in terms of interpretation and application of the provision of the directives.
4. Education and training are required for all workers to make sense of work procedures, especially when they are devised from knowledge sharing, organisational learning and research.
5. Continuous improvement through reviews at given intervals is required to check the continued relevance of the procedures to the current situation of work.
6. Indeed, for effective municipal collaborations using town twinning strategies, work procedures can play a key role. The role of work procedures in this regard is to ensure that these collaboration strategies are effectively coordinated between partners and implemented at municipality level. Work procedures are considered tools to 'fit'[1] structures, especially where there is need for organisations to adjust or adapt to both internal and external environments (Brodbeck 2002; Coleman 1999). Attention to formal work procedures will enable the diffusion of knowledge and practice associated with municipal twinning strategies (Squires, Moralejo &

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1. Fitness is an organisation's ability to self-organise and adapt both internally and externally in the face of change (Kelly & Allison 1999).

LeFort 2007). Work procedures can also help where the diffusion of intangibles such as verbal and interactional arrangements and cognitive biases are essential in the collaborative effort (Kay & Gorman 2012:92, 93).

Therefore, Table 2.1 shows considerations for applying work procedures for town twinning strategies. It is essential that mutually agreed procedures be developed for programme coordination and monitoring purposes. To enable municipal level implementation of collaboration, municipal parties must ensure that uniform procedures are established for capacity building arrangements associated with the programme. In developing municipal collaboration programmes, it is important to build the capacity of programme actors. In this case, parties should prioritise training on legally binding procedures associated with the collaboration and provide specific training on how to develop organisational-level work procedures needed for the implementation of the collaboration agreements. Work procedures can also be incorporated into agreed parameters of the collaboration to monitor mutually agreed quality standards and entrench communication strategies.

TABLE 2.1: How work procedures can enhance municipal collaborations using town twinning strategies.

Town twinning strategies for municipal collaboration	Work procedure application considerations
Programme-based twinning	• Mutually agreed procedures for programme management (coordination) monitoring and evaluation.
Human resources capacity building	• Uniform procedures for establishing and implementing capacity building arrangements. • Educate municipal employees on legislatively binding procedural aspects of collaborations. • Training on development of municipal-specific procedures for institutionalisation and implementation of collaboration agreements.
Institutional capacity building	• Developing mutually agreed technical guidelines for designing work procedures. • Using work procedures to monitor mutually agreed quality standards, entrench communication strategies.

◼ The Role of Work Procedures

To effectively deliver on these twinning strategies, municipalities must engage in some level of institution building. Joenniemi and Sergunin (2011:126) argue that the point of departure for twinning is to be associated with various forms of institutionalisation like the EU. Institutionalisation implies formalisation of the structures involved in the process, grounded with values and interests that bind them together. It is in this institutional building process that work procedures can play a key role through establishing common procedures for projects, services and programmes based on shared interests and values. Antonsen, Petter and Jorn (2008:8) argue that work procedures act as common points of reference to all members. Research also shows that procedures can be 'pivotal techniques' for taking innovative ideas (e.g. research evidence) into actual practice. From this perspective, they act as a hub or reserve in getting the knowledge whenever need arises in the implementation process. As a guide to work practice, reference for work standards and legal information that guides compliance, work procedures are problem-solving tools (Ghosh & Sobek 2002). In other words, organisational procedures tend to define the system's structure and the order of the organisation's process in the correct way.

◼ Reasons for Work Procedures

Organisations as they exist have been described as *complex adaptive systems*. While systems theory has its limits (it views organisations as machines with component parts that will require even 'fixes' should they malfunction), complexity theory sees organisational systems more as living organisms (Begun & Zimmerman 2003:254). As a process-based model, complexity theory tries to explain organisational change. This change is attributed to the measures of heterogeneity or diversity in internal and environmental factors or organisations such as departments, customers, suppliers, socio-politics and technology (Mason 2007:10). The implication is that institutions thrive and

survive within layers of changing systems and the equally increasing complexity with each system change. Hence, in the struggle to thrive and survive in these situations, institutions (organisations) are viewed as complex adaptive systems. According to Amagoh (2008:6), these systems are characterised firstly by diverse parts, secondly by diverse interests and thirdly by diverse levels of interactions between these parts. Assuredly, this complexity is heightened in a twinning scenario, where different entities that possibly have diverse cultures, systems and processes decide to collaborate. The unpredictability of such systems is heightened even more. However, Mason (2007:12) argues that although the behaviour of complex adaptive systems cannot be predicted, it can be influenced through a beneficial relationship between members of the system. The implication is a deliberate and decisive manipulation of the system to respond to these complexities. This is viewed as self-organisation (Mason 2007:12). To achieve success in such an endeavour, there are two important qualifications.

■ Implications for Service Delivery

Collaborative models operate in a political arena where some factors affecting the performance and success of twinning projects exist. However, these projects are interdependent on the environmental factors. They need to adapt to change during the collaboration process, and they can influence the governance methods adopted to manage their projects. Municipalities are exposed to environmental factors like the political, economic, social and cultural environment (Van der Waldt 2014:187). Society and municipal officials expect service providers to be responsible and accountable for their doings. By improving municipal capacity on work procedures through training and service quality management, there can be an upgrade in the provision of public goods and services in a municipality. All parties involved should maintain the infrastructure in a sustainable manner and recognise the needs of the disadvantaged people in society by providing

equity during plans for service provision. Cross (2010:107) asserts that twinning projects need a careful balance of outcomes and interests to survive. It is obvious that municipalities need integrated support from twinning participants and municipal leadership such as mayors, councillors and community representatives and traditional leaders to commit with clear focus on their roles. Municipalities should monitor the performance of twinning projects to assess whether they add value in service delivery. In addition, collaborating sister municipalities should monitor the application of procedures to enhance continuous improvement. Failure to comply with instructions could be resolved by referring subordinates to manuals, agreements and staff codes. That could possibly be followed by imposing reprimands and assessing whether employees need retraining as part of their continuous improvement. Municipalities aspiring to improve their work procedures are faced with increasing competition, and service providers also have additional demands to respond to increased scrutiny and accountability. To counter these increased demands, new techniques must be benchmarked against other developed municipalities to allow their institutions to be ahead of the competition and permit them to validate whether they have sound performance and are providing value for money.

■ Conclusion

This chapter sought to highlight that municipalities can adopt town twinning to apply work procedures and contribute to ongoing debates on strategies for improving service delivery in local government. The intention of suggesting a move towards town twinning arrangements is to strengthen the administrative capacity of municipalities to enable them to deliver services effectively and efficiently while leaning from each other's experiences. This chapter sought to highlight that a collaborative approach between sister cities can apply programme-based projects, training and quality improvement strategies to improve

the understanding of work procedures that can assist in bringing new effectiveness and efficiency to service delivery in municipalities. Municipal officials and other partners must identify the gap in the application of work procedures to enhance service delivery, and they must engage in constant meetings and open forums as part of agenda setting. Town twinning programmes must be monitored and evaluated annually to track changes and defaults in the application of procedures. Sister cities can also arrange for ways and means to improve their municipalities through various training programmes and quality enhancement programmes. Work procedures are not concerned much with the policies of government but rather with the ways and means government work can be done with less cost and labour. It can be deduced from the literature that the government cannot afford to address all the needs and demands of society through policy decisions arbitrarily, because most of these decisions have financial implications, which in the end implies societal intervention. It should be noted that any change in the nature and scope of the municipal services arrangement implies a change in the procedures and methods of doing work. Cooperation and collaborations are not always binding policy; it is important for twinning programmes to have a memorandum of agreement that will spell out clearly the nature of work to be done. In addition, it should be noted that this twinning exercise does not come without a price: municipal officials are a part of city government that is professional and less subject to political interference than the mayor–city model, and thus they can drive service delivery reform. In addition to the arguably limited institutional focus of work procedures and town twinning, this chapter demonstrated that there is an interconnection in the application of work procedures and town twinning. Findings revealed that a strong engagement with the communities is needed for town twinning to be acceptable by stakeholders. Municipalities, through municipal officials and community representatives, must also form networks in their region to get a buy-in and sustainable cluster groups to monitor the

improvement in service delivery. It is suggested that twinning and collaborative projects must be prioritised as important strategies not only in advancing development initiatives but also in offering a new dimension for improving the understanding of work procedures. There is a need for municipalities intending to adopt collaborative strategies between cities to continuously access and monitor their twinning agreements and collaborative decisions to allow for corrections when the need arises. Town twinning collaborations must also be adjusted to suit the needs of the parties involved. Municipal officials, service providers, advisers and academics must explore the professionalisation of town twinning and collaborations to promote service delivery. This chapter contributes towards town twinning strategies for enhancement of work procedures and methods in public affairs. Public policymakers, municipal officials, consultants, training officers and non-governmental groups can learn some lessons from these collaborative and twinning strategies, which are aligned with the mission of the book.

■ Acknowledgements

Chapter 3

Leadership and Management of the National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control in Nigeria

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■ Introduction

Modern organisations are increasingly aware of the importance of good management and leadership for organisational development. Management staff often create a conducive internal environment in which every staff member can become fully involved in achieving the organisation's goals. Management staff set the standard for managing modern organisations (Ezeibe 2009). According to Misztal (2013:45), 'leadership is an important pre-condition for keeping a quality management system in an organisation'. The National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC) was established by Decree No. 15 of 1993 and now the NAFDAC Act Cap No.1 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria (LFN) 2004. The Act mandates the agency to regulate and control the manufacturing, importation, exportation, distribution, advertisement, sale and use of food, drugs, cosmetics, medical devices, packaged water, chemicals and detergents in Nigeria (Federal Government of Nigeria 2004).

Notably, the performance of the directorate is thwarted by bureaucratic bottlenecks, corruption, poverty and political instability (Ezeibe 2010; Oguonu & Ezeibe 2014; Onyishi & Ezeibe 2014). The agency partners with other relevant government agencies such as the Pharmaceutical Council of Nigeria and the Nigerian Port Authority to promote public health in Nigeria.

In order to perform this task of regulating and controlling drug and food importation and distribution, NAFDAC requires effective leadership. Misztal (2013) argues that effective leadership presents an opportunity to motivate and equip people to achieve organisational goals. Effective leadership also seeks to facilitate the achievement of organisational goals through its members (Asiegbu & Ogbuji 2015; Njoku 2008, 2013).

This study assesses the impact of leadership on the management of NAFDAC in Nigeria. The agency has become particularly important for this study after Transparency International recognised the director of NAFDAC, Professor Dora Akunyili, 'for her courageous war against expired, substandard

and counterfeit drugs' (Adebayo 2005:n.p.). Transparency International has also commended Professor Dora Akunyili for boldly challenging other forms of corruption in the health sector despite the threats to her life.

■ Leadership
■ Character of Postcolonial Nigeria

The character of leaders in public organisations during the colonial and postcolonial eras in Nigeria is the same with the exception of a change in the skin colour of the leaders from white to black. The leadership qualities of the transatlantic slave trade and colonial periods were transplanted to the 21st century as leaders continue to wield immense, arbitrary, violent and threatening power.

Globally, the level of development of any nation depends on the selfless nature of its leaders (Ezeibe 2015). However, when there is a culture of impunity in any society and widespread lack of exemplary leadership, a degenerated symptom of under-development continues to manifest. This is currently the case in Nigeria (Attah, Obera & Isaac 2017). Consequently, the majority of Nigerians wallow in pain inflicted by political corruption. Nigeria is always plagued with a failure of leadership. It is hard to find a public servant in Nigeria who is not advancing their personal interest with public resources today. Investigations into corrupt practices among public servants date back to the 1940s. The Nigerian public sector has witnessed leaders who are profoundly ignorant about integrity, accountability and transparency. This breeds public sector inefficiency and undermines growth. Leaders who lack accountability tend to give way for followers to engage in unfair practices. This act in turn affects desired sustainable growth. The level of corruption among the leadership class in the postcolonial era is alarming (Ogbeidi 2012). Successive political leaders in Nigeria are characterised by institutionalisation of public corruption. As public corruption persists amidst huge government spending, public service delivery suffers. The prevalence of corruption in

the health sector created room for importation and distribution of adulterated drugs in Nigeria. The circulation of counterfeit and adulterated drugs was prevalent in Nigeria until 1999 when Professor Dora Akunyili was appointed as the director-general of the NAFDAC (Obiejesi 2018).

■ Functions and Organisational Performance

Generally, leadership has two major functions. It can either be related to problem-solving or group maintenance. Njoku (2008) on his part notes that leadership transforms potential into reality. In the process of transforming the potential of subordinates, a leader is required to perform many functions, which include the following:

- *Development of teamwork*: A leader inculcates a sense of collectivism in the employees to make them to work as a team.
- *Representation of subordinates*: A leader serves as the bridge between subordinates and top management.
- *Counselling*: A leader serves as an appropriate counsellor to subordinates in times of need.
- *Proper use of power*: A leader should be able to use his or her powers properly so as to arouse subordinates' compliance and cooperation with his or her initiatives.
- *Time management*: A leader must be able to manage his or her time well by proper planning based on information and by arriving at decisions in the moment.
- *Achieving effectiveness*: It is the duty of a leader to provide an enabling environment and adequate reward structure to improve the effectiveness of employees.

The role of NAFDAC includes supervision of the quality of products at the time of manufacture, importation, exportation and distribution. NAFDAC also manages the drug procurement and supply systems. In so doing, NAFDAC detects and prevents

the distribution of falsely labelled, spurious, counterfeit or substandard pharmaceutical and regulated products.

NAFDAC also provides informed advice to the public, health professionals, health planners and policymakers on drugs, foods and cosmetics (Olike 2007/2008). In collaboration with other public and private agencies, NAFDAC promotes public health and supports relevant research and training programmes.

Measures for Effective Management of NAFDAC

Since its establishment, NAFDAC has taken measures to combat product faking and counterfeiting by incorporating World Health Organization (WHO) specifications into their work plan. Some of these specifications include the following:

- *Verification of claims*: The agency under the provisions of various regulations and related guidelines or registration ensures that advertisement claims are true of registered products presented to consumers. It is mandatory that all food and drug products manufactured in or imported into the country must be registered to ensure compliance with standard specifications.
- *Routine inspections of manufacturing plants*: NAFDAC undertook these visits unannounced to assess the good manufacturing practice (GMP) status and level of compliance with standard. Samples are drawn for laboratory evaluation at such visits.
- *Market surveillance:* The agency on a regular basis conducts a baseline open market survey in order to determine the micronutrient content of food products. This is to ensure compliance by manufacturers of these products.
- *Issuance of warnings*: The agency issues warnings to consumers if the laboratory reports of surveillance samples reveal low compliance levels, and this often may lead to blacklisting of defaulting companies, seizure and destruction of the fortified products and prosecution of the manufacturers.

☐ Consumer Education

One of the basic rights of consumers is proper education on available products in order to guide them to make wise choices. Government and industry acquaint the consumer with necessary regulatory processes and procedures.

☐ Public Enlightenment

NAFDAC has begun to invest heavily in a massive enlightenment campaign, dialogue, education and persuasion because of their capacity to effect behavioural change. Public enlightenment strategy has helped NAFDAC to save the bulk of its resources, which had hitherto been used to prosecute hundreds of endless and frustrating cases. According to Akunyili (2005a:11), 'enlightenment and the resultant voluntary change of heart are result-oriented and complimentary to confrontation and prosecution, which the agency had used over the years with little or no fruits'. 'It is gratifying to note that this strategy has yielded tremendous results'. Akunyili (2005b) avers that:

> NAFDAC's enlightenment programme involves dialogue, education and persuasion because this addresses the fundamental issue at stake, which is behavioural change. This has been sustained using print and electronic media such as jingles, alert notices, erection of billboards, publication of differences between identified fake and genuine products in the national dailies. (p. 51)

The public enlightenment campaigns of NAFDAC have also been extended to secondary schools in Nigeria in order to catch them young. The agency has established NAFDAC Consumer Safety Clubs in most schools in Nigeria (*Nigerian Observer News* 2015).

■ Measures Taken by NAFDAC to Control Fake Drugs

The management of NAFDAC has worked hard to curtail the distribution and administration of illicit drugs in Nigeria

(Chinwendu 2008). Some of the notable strategies include the following.

■ Stopping the Importation of Fake Drugs to Nigeria

NAFDAC has adopted certain administrative guidelines to control importation of fake drugs in Nigeria. The guidelines, according to Akunyili (2005a), include the following:

> A factory must be GMP certified before it can export drugs to Nigeria. NAFDAC officials must inspect factories anywhere in the world before we register or renew registration for their drugs, foods and other regulated products. NAFDAC has appointed analysts in India and China who re-certify any drug from the two countries before importation into Nigeria. For drugs imported from any country, NAFDAC requires mandatory pre-shipment information to be provided by all importers before the arrival of the drugs. Through advocacy and collaboration, we were able to convince Nigerian banks to assist us in the war against fake drugs. Since February 2003, the banks insist on NAFDAC clearance before processing financial documents for drug importers. This agreement is now a government policy because of its adoption by Central Bank of Nigeria. It is highly recommended that banks around the world should adopt this measure as it will go a long way to deter the activities of counterfeiters globally. (pp. 11–12)

■ Improving Surveillance at All Ports of Entry

NAFDAC has intensified efforts to beef up surveillance in all ports of entry. According to Akunyili (2005b, 2006:7), 'NAFDAC re-enforced the two new directorates of Ports Inspection and Enforcement for more effective surveillance at all ports of entry and better enforcement activities respectively'. 'This has resulted in increased seizures of fake [and] counterfeit drugs' at the ports. 'Having considerably intensified surveillance at [land and sea] borders, the merchants of [substandard products have] resorted to [using] airlines' (Akunyili 2005b, 2006:7).

■ Impounding Fake Products Already in Circulation

NAFDAC has been involved in systematic and continuous surveillance at major cities to impound fake drugs and cosmetics. Akunyili (2005b) observes that:

> In 2003, a large consignment of a controlled narcotic analgesic was concealed in T-shirts and imported from India via Lagos airport. Last year, 32 containers of various pharmaceuticals were imported and manifested as motor vehicle spare parts. They were moved to various locations within the ports to avoid detection but were impounded by vigilant NAFDAC officials … NAFDAC inspectors have also found drugs concealed in the inner part of containers of textiles, candles, shoes, etc. (p. 40)

In Onitsha, Anambra State, NAFDAC also destroyed, by fire, a heap of fake and counterfeit drugs estimated at ₦6.5 billion in 2007 (Osondu 2007).

■ Registration of Products

Product registration is an important strategy that enables government to regulate the circulation of imported and locally manufactured products in Nigeria. This strategy involves inspection of production facilities, laboratory tests and clinical trials for new drugs. The strategy has been useful for controlling the distribution of counterfeit drugs in Nigeria.

■ Information Sharing and Dissemination on Fake or Counterfeit Products

The issue of fake or counterfeit drugs is as ubiquitous as it is deadly. It is an international as well as a national problem that requires concerted effort from all stakeholders for its eradication. Because of the apparent lack of accurate data on its prevalence in the country, NAFDAC has concluded the first phase of its baseline study on the incidence and level of fake and counterfeit

drugs in Nigeria. It has become obvious that there is a dire need for all stakeholders to share the responsibility for information generation, sharing and dissemination.

One major strategy of NAFDAC in the crusade for fake drug eradication is enlightenment. Under this enlightenment campaign, NAFDAC undertakes the regular publication of identified fake or counterfeit, substandard, unwholesome, adulterated and unregistered products in the national dailies. These publications have helped create awareness in the general public of the existence of these fake products and more importantly for them to be able to differentiate the fake from the genuine products, after going through the publication.

The materials for these publications are usually obtained from reports by well-meaning Nigerians and information from some manufacturers and marketers of regulated products. Indeed, there is need to reiterate that information sharing is part of the responsibility of stakeholders. In line with the WHO Expert Committee recommendation, it is important for relevant stakeholders to share information. Every incidence of counterfeit product in circulation is usually communicated to the Special Duties Unit.

■ NAFDAC and Regulation of the Pharmaceutical Industry

NAFDAC's regulation of the Nigerian pharmaceutical industry is difficult because of a number of factors. According to Olatunji (2014):

> The first reason is that the sale of pharmaceutical products is lucrative, particularly because the final customer (patients and their families) are more vulnerable to opportunism than they are in many other products in the markets, mainly because of asymmetric information […]. A second reason for the difficulty of the NAFDAC's job in regulating the pharmaceutical industry is government's intervention in the industry. In many countries, government is involved in regulating the pharmaceutical industry, either directly or indirectly because of the imperfect nature of the market, the need to improve efficiency in

resource allocation; and the need to protect the health of members of the public. A third reason why the NAFDAC's regulatory work is difficult is because the drug and pharmaceuticals supply chain in Nigeria is very complex, chaotic and uncoordinated. Weak regulations and non-deterrent measures constitute problems for the NAFDAC in effectively regulating the Nigerian pharmaceuticals market and many decision-points are vulnerable to corruption. (p. 219)

As an executive-controlled regulatory agency, NAFDAC reports to the presidency through the Minister for Health. This makes government intervention a daunting challenge for NAFDAC in Nigeria. Also related to this challenge is poor leadership. However (Olatunji 2014):

> [*The*] popularity and outstanding performance of the agency since 2001 when Professor Akunyili took over as the Director-General are not comparable to what in retrospect looks like the lacklustre performance of the agency under its pioneer leadership. (p. 221)

The leadership of NAFDAC prior to 2001 tolerated illegal and unprofessional sales of prescription drugs. Meanwhile, the leadership qualities of Prof. Akunyili are outstanding. Professor Akunyili inculcated a sense of collectivism in the employees to make them to work as a team. She served as the bridge between the subordinates and top management. She served as an appropriate counsellor to the subordinates in times of need. She used her powers properly to arouse subordinates' compliance and cooperation with her initiatives. She also emphasised timelines and proper planning based on information available to her. Professor Akunyili's leadership qualities were instrumental to the successes recorded by the agency between 2001 and 2010. For instance, the closure of the major drug markets in Nigeria, especially Aba, Kano and Onitsha, is frequently linked to the director-general's capacity to bridge the gap between the subordinates and top management. Specifically (Olatunji 2014):

> [*B*]etween 2001 when Professor Akunyili took over the headship of NAFDAC and 2008, the agency had impounded and destroyed fake, substandard and adulterated food and drug products worth ₦28.25 billion (N.T.A News, Friday, September 5, 2008), a great achievement when compared with the performance of the agency

before 2001. The achievements of the agency under the leadership of Akunyili have elicited various reactions from different audience. While those who are negatively affected by the activities of NAFDAC have attempted to disrupt the smooth running of the agency, others have continued to sing the praise of the agency, showering medals and encomiums on the Director-General and the agency. (p. 221)

■ Conclusion

In Nigeria, public officials, especially those in leadership positions, personalise public institutions. Officials often use mass media to mask their inadequacies and to create a robust and publicly acceptable public image. The leadership quality of public officials becomes critical for effective management of the public sector. As the influence of public officials increases, public institutions weaken to the detriment of the public good.

This study assessed the impact of leadership on the management of NAFDAC in Nigeria. This study notes that public organisations are highly influenced by the quality of their leaders. It argues that the quality of leadership in the management of NAFDAC determines the effectiveness of the agency to control the importation, production and/or circulation of fake and adulterated drugs in Nigeria. This study recommends that punitive measures be employed to discourage the personalisation of public organisations in Nigeria and elsewhere.

Theoretical and Empirical Relevance of New Public Service Reforms in the Context of Malawi's Public Sector

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■ Introduction

Generally, public sector reforms are understood 'as processes and practices which are concerned with improving the capacity of institutions to make policy and deliver services in an efficient, effective and accountable manner' (ECA 2010:5). As rightly observed by McCourt (2013), over the years, public sector reforms in developing countries have been guided by different problems that they needed to address. In Malawi, for instance, from the country's post-independence era to the 1980s and the 1990s, three issues, namely how to establish an orderly and efficient system, how to link up government with the common people and how to make it more affordable, emerged as major concerns of public sector reform. However, from the 1990s to the present, the reforms have shifted attention to three problems, namely, (1) questions on efficiency and effectiveness, (2) how to ensure that government is honest, and (3) how to make it responsive to citizens. Against this background, it should not be surprising that Denhardt and Denhardt (2000) point out that public sector reforms have been conducted in tandem with three perspectives, namely, (1) Old Public Administration, (2) NPM and (3) New Public Service (NPS). Significantly, while public sector reform was previously regarded as merely involving implementation of specific models or practices, nowadays it is increasingly being considered as a more complex process than earlier thought (Cummings 2015). This chapter brings in another dimension of the debate on culture, philosophies and reforms in public administration for the globalising world by interrogating the applicability of NPS using the Malawian experience as an example.

Using a qualitative approach, this chapter questions the theoretical and empirical relevance and applicability of NPS as applied in Malawi (a developing country). The chapter is based on a comprehensive review of Malawian government publications, newspaper articles and general literature on public sector reforms, as well as on key informant interviews with a sample of Malawi's public sector officials.

■ Background to Public Sector Reforms in Malawi

Malawi's public sector reforms can best be appreciated in light of the country's social-political background. Malawi, a southern African country bordered by Mozambique, Zambia and Tanzania, is according to international measures one of the poorest in the world, with a UNDP 2015 Human Development Index of 0.445 and a global rank of 173 out of 188 (UNDP 2015). The country attained independence from Britain in 1964, and in 1966 its first president, Kamuzu Banda, introduced a one-party government system making his party, the Malawi Congress Party, the only legal party in the country until a multiparty governance system was reintroduced in 1993. Following the general elections held in 1994, Bakili Muluzi, leader of the United Democratic Party (UDF), took over the presidency until the expiry of his two legal terms in 2004. Muluzi was succeeded by Bingu wa Mutharika, who later established the Democratic People's Party (DPP) after resigning from the UDF because of internal party power struggles. Mutharika ruled Malawi until his death on 05 April 2012 and was succeeded by his vice president, Joyce Banda, who was voted out of power in 2014. At the time of Bingu's death, Banda had been fired from the DPP and consequently established the People's Party. However, she had remained Malawi's vice president because legally she could not be fired from the position. In 2014, Peter Mutharika, Bingu wa Mutharika's brother, became Malawi's president under the banner of the DPP, and he was still in power during the writing of this chapter.

■ Previous Reform Attempts

The supreme Malawian development policy guide, the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II (MGDS II), discusses among other things the issue of public sector reforms (GoM 2011). For instance, under the theme of 'Governance' the MGDS has 'Public Sector Management' as a subcomponent, which elaborates government's commitment to reform.

Malawi has implemented several reform packages since its independence from the British in 1964. 'Public sector reforms in Malawi can [roughly] be [categorised] into [three types, namely,] first, second and third generation reforms' (Kayuni 2015, 2016b; Tambulasi & Kayuni 2013). The first-generation reforms were applied during the reign of President Kamuzu Banda, from 1964 to 1993; the second-generation reforms were those implemented from 1994 to 2013; and the third-generation reforms are the latest, beginning from 2014 to the present (discussed comprehensively in the following section). The first-generation reforms were mainly aimed at Africanising the public sector in terms of personnel and structures. Later, in the 1980s, the emphasis was on an analysis of the efficiency and effectiveness of training and educational institutions to address public institutions' requirements. The second-generation reforms were influenced by multiple forces, including donor agencies such as the World Bank that were pushing for market-oriented reform packages drawing from NPM influence, the change in Malawi's political system in 1994 that promised an overhaul of the public sector in line with international conventions and observed inefficiencies in the administrative system which had accumulated over the years (Kayuni 2016a).

Just like most developing countries, some of the specific reforms that were initiated during the second-generation phase included, among others, 'decentralisation, downsizing, public sector performance management, contracting out, privatisation, service charters, public-private partnerships and public sector financial management' (Tambulasi & Kayuni 2013:n.p.). Ironically, several studies have confirmed that these reforms have not been able to effectively achieve their goals (Chasukwa, Chiweza & Chikapa-Jamali 2013; GoM 2015; Hussein 2013; Tambulasi 2009; Tambulasi & Kayuni 2013). Worse still, during the launch of the public sector reform agenda in February 2015, President Peter Mutharika indicated that, since 1994, there had been 79 attempts meant to address reforms in Malawi's public sector (Tostensen 2017).

Current Post-2014 Reforms

In contrast to previous reform attempts, the post-2014 reforms are unique in four ways. Firstly, there is apparent political will to push the reform agenda. For instance, the governing DPP's campaign manifesto highlighted its commitment to vigorously pursue public sector reforms. In the same year that the party took over government, on 23 June 2014 President Peter Mutharika established the Public Service Reform Commission. According to the Government of Malawi (2015), its main objective was:

> [*T*]o identify and recommend ways and means of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the public service in order to raise the quality of the public services delivered to the public. (n.p.)

Secondly, the reform agenda was characterised by comprehensive consultation. In addition to international tours, the commission conducted numerous well-publicised structured national consultations. Thirdly, the commission was not motivated by the need to be 'politically correct' in highlighting challenges that the consultation process emphasised. Finally, the public sector reform agenda report, which was launched by the president in February 2015, clearly outlined specific steps and a direction to be undertaken by the reform programme (GoM 2015).

Among other things, the report summarised into thematic areas issues that emerged from stakeholder consultations, and it identified reform areas that would need to be fast-tracked, dubbed 'quick wins'. Table 4.1 highlights these areas.

The public sector reform agenda report, which was launched in February 2015, also has a section referred to as the 'Action Matrix' that sets specific actions and their corresponding dates of implementation, and it has a section that highlights what are known as the '[r]eform pillars and reform enablers' (GoM 2015).

The reform process has experienced some achievements since its inception as exemplified by the decentralisation of passport printing services to two other cities, Mzuzu in the north

TABLE 4.1: Reform thematic areas and reform areas for fast tracking.

Sequence	Thematic areas based on inputs from the stakeholder consultative meetings	Reforms to be fast-tracked (quick wins)
1	Core human resource management–related matters ('Recruitment, Selection, Remuneration, Reward, Discipline')	Reorganisation of the Office of the President and Cabinet
2	Ethics, integrity and work culture	Public servants focus on their official mandate
3	Size and structure, functions and operations of the government institutions	Formation of a one-stop centre for investment
4	Professionalism of the public service *vis-à-vis* political interference	Amendment to official working hours
5	Operationalisation of Performance Management System	Streamlining the management of statutory corporations
6	Managing the reform process	Passport printing services to be offered in all cities
7	'Reviewing of critical policy documents including Acts, Regulations and Laws'	Introduction of one-stop citizen service delivery centres
8	Role of government	Placement of reform advocates and agents in ministries
9	Decentralisation	Revamping image of government offices

Source: Kayuni (2016a).

and Lilongwe in the centre; automation and decentralisation of the Road Traffic Department; and improvement of the Integrated Financial Management and Information Systems, whose weaknesses had in the past led to massive looting of public funds through what the local media dubbed 'cashgate' (Kayuni 2016a).

■ Traditional Public Administration Versus New Public Service: A Brief Exploration

From the 1980s, several approaches such as NPM and New Public Governance (NPG) emerged from the traditional public administration (TPA), which had dominated the operations of

the sector during that time. This chapter discusses four approaches to administration, namely TPA, NPM, NPS and NPG.

According to Robinson (2015), it may be argued that the TPA approach can be traced back to the writings of Max Weber, who for many years provided the basis for the prevailing ideas of what constitutes public administration. In this case, Robinson (2015) further points out that Max Weber developed a public administration model that was guided by the two principles of 'hierarchy and meritocracy'. In this case, 'the approach relied on centralised control, set rules and guidelines, separated policymaking from implementation, and employed a hierarchical organisational structure' (Osborne 2006 in Robinson 2015:5). Additionally, this approach stressed the importance of ensuring that political issues (as well as role of politicians themselves) are not mixed with operational administrative matters that are handled by official administrators. Although this model has been appraised for promoting efficiency in the public sector, it is criticised for its bureaucratic nature. 'Bureaucracy is plagued with progressive inflexibility based on complex hierarchical rule-based systems and top-down decision-making processes which [render] it […] increasingly distant from citizens' expectations' (Tsai et al. 2009:43; Khan & Zia 2014).

According to Robinson (2015), the NPM approach refers to:

> [*A*] series of novel approaches to public administration and management that emerged in a number of OECD countries in the 1980s […] in reaction to the limitations of the old public administration in adjusting to the demands of a competitive market economy. (p. 7)

The key characteristic of the NPM approach is the borrowing of business sector approaches and thereafter applying them in the public sector (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000). Similarly, the main elements of the approach include 'different forms of decentralised management within the public service, for example, creating an autonomous agency, and increased interest in performance and client orientation' (Petrescu et al. 2010). However, NPM has been subjected to several criticisms.

Williamson and Snow (2013) observe that NPM has actually negatively affected some core values of TPA that made it distinct, 'such as fairness, equality, probity, and impartiality'. In addition to this, Mongkol (2011) argues that NPM has some inherent contradictions embedded within it. In this case he explains that there could be a case of 'centralisation through decentralisation' when managers are empowered to make critical decisions, which results in the concentration of decision-making authority in their offices. Thus, the managers themselves create a 'centralised decision-making' system. Another criticism is that the use of private values and techniques in the public sector domain is considered risky. For example, scholars such as Levy (2010) have argued that 'NPM is inappropriate for the public sector [because] it has more complex objectives, more intricate accountabilities and a more turbulent political environment than [does] the private sector' (Islam 2015:149).

In light of the theoretical and operational problems associated with the TPA and NPM approaches, some scholars have ultimately reconceptualised public management itself. Osborne's (2006) suggested NPG approach, for example, has a unique point of departure from those of the two earlier public management traditions. The NPG approach places citizens as opposed to government at the centre. Osborne (2006 cited in Robinson 2015:9) explains that the emphasis of the NPG approach is 'interorganisational relationships and the governance of processes', with relational capital and relational contracts serving as the core governance mechanisms'.

The NPS approach focuses on 'serving' by assuming public organisations as a form of collaborative structures with shared leadership. Within this conceptualisation, according to Denhardt and Denhardt (2000), 'the primary role of public servants is to help citizens articulate and meet their shared interests rather than to control or steer society' (Robinson 2015:10). Broadly speaking, the NPS approach theoretically and practically replaces

TPA as well as NPM (Williamson & Snow 2013), with two main issues being apparent (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000):

> [*F*]irstly, [*NPS*] exist to advance the dignity and worth of public service, and, secondly, to reassert the values of democracy, citizenship, and the public interest as the pre-eminent values of public administration. (n.p.)

■ Comparison Between Traditional Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Service

Among other things, TPA was introduced mainly 'to overcome patrimonial systems of administration where patronage and favouritism dominated government decisions and public appointments' (Robinson 2015:5; Osborne 2006). More specifically, this traditional approach had several unique elements. It was based on a centralised system, it focused on development of relevant procedures, policymaking was detached from implementation, and it relied on a strict hierarchical organogram (Osborne 2006).

Consequently, the limitations of TPA, especially its failure to accommodate the demands of a highly competitive environment, spearheaded the emergence of NPM. Ultimately, the NPM incorporates 'a wide range of techniques and [perceptions] that are intended to overcome the inefficiencies [characterised by the] traditional model of public administration' (Pfiffner 2004:3). Such features include cost containment, specifically, economic factors, which according to the views of most scholars may be considered as the main facilitator in the embracing of NPM as it introduced ideas of competition and private sector management (Robison 2015). The NPM has its conceptual basis in 'public choice and principal-agent theory'. In other words, this conceptual basis 'claim[s] that individual self-interest drives bureaucratic behaviour. Competition, delegation, performance, and responsiveness [provide measures] to regulate bureaucratic

behaviour and to generate improved outcomes' (Robinson 2015:8). Ultimately, the NPM theory had a profound impact on how the public sector was perceived, 'especially the cultivation of new management practices such as decentralisation, marketisation, and contracting out of core services to private companies and non-profit organisations' in the early 1980s (Robinson 2015:8). Despite NPM's impact, a number of scholars have further developed other new approaches to the understanding of public management that are different from previous approaches. These approaches, which have provided another perspective to public management, are NPG and the NPS. However, it should be pointed out that these approaches do not necessarily fully replace the older approaches but are actually in some cases complementary. This entails that they actually build on the previously existing approaches.

The significant aspect of the NPG approach is that it 'places citizens rather than government at the centre of its frame of reference' (Robinson 2015:9; Naguib 2017). The critical aspect of this approach is that the citizens themselves are considered central in the development of relevant policies and the status of public services; these elements make NPG significantly different from other approaches linked to the old public administration. In other words, the NPG approach stresses the importance of establishing interorganisational relationships as well as good governance of such processes; in this context, 'trust, relational capital and relational contracts serve as the core governance mechanisms, rather than organisational form and function' (Robinson 2015:9). Government therefore is no longer in the forefront dominating policy formulation and implementation but becomes one of the policy actors among many in the social-political environment. Ultimately, the policies that emerge from such a process reflect the real needs of the public. The public have multiple interests, which emanate from various interest groups; hence, the said approach tries as much as possible to address this complex set-up.

Although NPG has the aforementioned advantages, the NPS approach is generally perceived by some scholars as possessing the most comprehensive elements, because among other things NPS conceptualises public organisations as collaborative structures with shared leadership (Robinson 2015). It is premised on the view that 'the focus of public management should be citizens, community, and civil society' (Robinson 2015:10). In this understanding, the major role of public officials is to ensure that they provide a platform where the public can ably articulate their concerns as well as guaranteeing that their needs are addressed – and not necessarily directing them, as was the case with TPA and NPM (Robinson 2015). What is clear from the NPS approach is that it is based on the democratic theory, which stresses the significance of an active, informed and engaged citizenship. In this case (Robinson 2015):

> [*Citizens*] look beyond narrow self-interests to the wider public interest and the role of public officials is to facilitate opportunities for [*establishing*] citizen engagement in finding solutions to societal problems. (p. 10)

They go beyond steering society in search of policy solution and they work together with citizens in resolving complex problems.

The NPS and the NPG have different points of emphasis. However, both seek to promote useful corrective solutions to problems of public administration. Robinson (2015) argues that inasmuch as NPS and NPG offer new ways of correcting problems of earlier administration, they do not necessarily completely address all the difficulties that public administration has faced, especially those related to issues of efficiency and effectiveness, hence their 'risk of replicating approaches that may have limited applicability in developing [countries]' (Robinson 2015:14). Table 4.2 contains some of the differences between these approaches.

TABLE 4.2: Contrasting TPA, NPM and the NPS.

Sequence	Methodological and conceptual overview	Traditional public administration	New Public Management	New Public Service
1	Problem or key question	How can government be more efficient?	How can government be made more affordable?	How can government be made more responsive to citizens?
2	Theoretical basis	Political theory	Economic theory	Democratic theory
3	Perception of public interest	'Political, enshrined in law' (public interest)	'Aggregation of individual interests' (self-interest)	'Dialogue about shared values'
4	Type of individuals or groups that civil servants deal with	Clients and constituents	Customers	Citizens
5	Responsibility of government	'"Rowing", implementation focused on politically defined objectives'	'"Steering", serving as catalysts to unleash market forces'	'"Serving", negotiating and brokering interests among citizens'
6	Processes to facilitate achievement of objectives	Through government agencies	Creating a conducive environment for the private sector	'Building coalitions of public, non-profit private agencies'
7	Promotion of accountability	'Hierarchical administrators responsible to elected leaders'	'Market-drive outcomes results from accumulation of self-interests' [sic]	'Multifaceted public servants guided by law, values, professional norms and citizen interests'
8	Proposed organisational structure	Bureaucratic structure	Decentralised	Collaborative structures
9	Motivation of civil servants	'Pay and benefits, civil-service protections'	'Entrepreneurial spirit, desire to reduce size and functions of government'	'Public service, desire to contribute to society'

Source: Modified from Robinson (2015:5, 10).

■ Theoretical and Empirical Challenges of New Public Service in Malawi's Public Sector Reform Exercise

NPS is relevant to most reform agenda pillars that the Malawian government is currently advocating. For instance, decentralisation is in tandem with NPS as it provides some freedom to public officers to make decisions without referring to the central office. Similarly, the idea of building coalitions between public and non-profit private agencies is encouraged by the Malawian public sector reform agenda because it ensures effective implementation of policies. Despite these positive attributes, several discrepancies have been observed regarding the compatibility of the NPS with Malawi's public sector reform process; the following discussion addresses some of the possible challenges that would undermine the implementation of the Malawian public sector reform process if NPS were adopted by Malawi.

■ Collective Structures (Shared Leadership) Versus Political Interference

The current Malawian public sector reform emphasises development of a professional public service that is free of political interference. This view, however, may not be effectively addressed in the NPS-led reform exercise because the idea of 'collective structures and shared leadership' as purported in NPS ignores the highly competitive environment of party politics. In the race for political survival and influence, the platform of 'collective structures and shared leadership' can easily be hijacked by party politics, in the process relegating the public sector employees to merely spectators in their own game (Kayuni 2016a).

TPA assumed the bureaucratic organisation of conducting business with top–down authority and control (Robinson 2015). The emphasis was on the bureaucratic and hierarchical way of

conducting business when it came to public administration, which entailed following set rules and regulations, while NPM premises its approach on injecting economic principles and competition when it comes to managing the public. However, these two approaches are a big contrast from NPG and NPS, whose inherent democratic attributes promote collective structures with shared leadership. These approaches hold the view that 'citizens are co-producers of policies' and deliverers of services, hence the existence of interorganisational procedures within the domain of government (Robinson 2015:9). Because public policymaking involves numerous players with diverse interests, there is a problem of identifying the central policy-shaping entity, and this is an important attribute of TPA. Not surprisingly, this is the area where NPS becomes vulnerable to political interference, a view that was aptly highlighted by John Kapito, the Executive Director of the Consumers Association of Malawi, in a newspaper interview when he was reacting to the Malawian public sector reform exercise. He said, 'In fact what I see is a deformed civil service, not reformed. Politics has destroyed everything' (Namangale 2014:4).

■ Extending the Scope of Public Administration: The Quest for Shared Values

Application of the NPS with the quest for shared values leads towards extending the scope of public administration into a realm that is not in their mandate. Denhardt and Denhardt (2000) argue that NPS initiates negotiation about shared values. In every society, people have goals and aspirations that they would like to achieve; however, these are achieved differently depending on how society is arranged. The NPS purports the view that citizens should move beyond the 'narrow self-interest' to the broader 'public interest and the role of public officials' to ease and affirm citizen commitment in articulating and finding solutions to societal problems and meeting their shared interests

(Robinson 2015:10). Thus, public managers acquire skills that enable them to work together with citizens towards attainment and implementation of policies that help resolve complex problems.

If the aspiration of NPS is implemented, it is likely going to turn public administrators into elected leaders. The core mandate of a public administrator is not to identify and then establish shared values. This is the role of elected leaders such as councillors and members of parliament. The public sector reform report notes that (GoM 2015):

> [*T*]here is laxity in the delivery of public services due to the absence of a robust results-oriented performance management system linked to agreed individual work plans that are closely aligned to organisational performance targets derived from the National Development Plan. (p. xxi)

This observation suggests that the envisaged reform direction is to make sure that public administrators have a clear scope of their responsibilities as agreed in their individual work plans and not necessarily to fight for the establishment of shared values, a realm that should be left to elected officers.

Related to the foregoing observation is the question of accountability. TPA emphasises that the role of government is growing (Robinson 2015); the function of government is to 'control' by implementing policies that have political objectives (Pfiffner 2004). This entails that 'citizens' are handled as those who should receive already-made policies by top public officials without necessarily being involved in the formulation of those policies, thereby addressing citizens as clients or constituents. In contrast, NPS emphasises 'serving', premised on the argument that 'the [central] focus of public management should be [serving] citizens, community and civil society' (Robinson 2015:10). Practically, therefore, citizens are engaged in decision-making process and policy implementation and, as such, civil servants are not simply answerable to the elected officials. Rather, going beyond public service philosophy, they emphasise the values and motivations of public servants by dedicating

themselves to the wider public good (Robinson 2015). This extension of accountability is the one that makes the NPS problematic. While being accountable to multiple stakeholders is not a new idea in public administration, what is problematic here is that the idea is being explicitly expressed in the NPS as one of the core elements of the public administrator.

TPA had a hierarchical administrative system of accountability. It employed hierarchical organisational structures in decision-making processes by setting a centralised system of control (Robinson 2015). The civil servants are answerable to the elected officials, who decide what gets to be delivered to the citizens and what is to be held within the systems, and therefore accountability is not entirely something citizens are involved in. The key concepts of accountability in TPA were 'effectiveness and efficiency' with regards to human resource and budgetary management (Robinson 2015). However, the NPS has multidimensional civil servants who are directed by certain specific values, laws and public interests. As a result, according to Robinson (2015), accountability extends:

> [*B*]eyond the formal accountability parameters of public servants to elected officials in the management and delivery of budgets and programmes to accommodate a wider set of accountability relationships with citizens and communities. (p. 10)

It is our view, therefore, that in the NPS model the scope of public administration becomes over-extended with an ultimate possibility of adversely affecting Malawi's public sector reform path.

■ New Public Service's Failure to Enhance Innovation and Thought Leadership in the Reform Agenda

NPS assumes that civil servants are public service-oriented and that they desire to contribute towards society (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000). However, NPS falls short of highlighting the

significance of innovation and thought leadership in reform agenda, the most important element in public sector reforms in Africa. The NPS assumes that public administrators seek to build collaborative relationships with citizens, encourage shared responsibilities and '[s]eeking opportunities to involve citizens in government activities' (Robinson 2015:11). Thus, it believes that civil servants work hand in hand with citizens in coming up with solutions to problems facing society, looking past their personal self-interests to come up with new ways of achieving a liveable society. These solutions need to be embedded within the framework of innovation and thought leadership, which the NPS is unable to adequately articulate.

Innovation in the African public sector has mainly been championed by two key institutions, the African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) and the African Union. Most of the ideas that have been discussed or agreed upon in these institutions have permeated into national-level public sector reforms. The AAPAM, for instance, introduced the Innovative Management Award in 2007, which recognises organisational achievement in the public sector and has first, second and third prize recipients. According to the AAPAM, 'the award is about innovations that create effectiveness in the performance of organisations in the public sector through the introduction of new ideas and new operational and management methods' (AAPAM 2007:n.p.). Through the African Union, 'the All Africa Public Sector Innovation Awards programme was launched in December 2005 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia' (www.afrimap.org). The initiative seeks to 'recognise and award homegrown innovative ways of delivering services to the communities' and it is administered under the guidance of the Pan-African Ministers of Public/Civil Service programme. The theme for the 2016 Award was 'The Public Sector Innovating towards the Africa We Want'. The African Union has also been in the forefront to champion innovation, and it has a charter titled 'The African Charter on Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration Performance Management Criteria'.

In Article 25 of this charter (AU 2011:14), it states that '[t]he Commission shall promote innovative experiences and institute a system of awards for Innovation in Public Service and Administration'.

Because of absence of a discussion on thought leadership and innovation in the Malawian public sector, the general understanding of reform in the public sector emphasises institutional innovations (the renewal of existing institutions) and organisational innovation (introduction of new working procedures) at the expense of other important elements such as process innovation and conceptual innovation. This came out clearly during our discussion with government officials. According to interviews conducted between June and July 2016 in Lilongwe, Malawi, when the issue was raised of how new ideas and innovation can be promoted in the public sector, reference was only made to institutional and organisational matters. Yet, in practice, more importantly thought leadership should reflect what the common people actually need. Actually, research also shows that ideas that emerge from the bottom are more relevant and applicable in that the middle and front-line officers constantly interact with the citizenry, who serve as a breeding ground for innovation or ideas (Key informant interviews with senior government officials, Department of Human Resource Management and Development and Public Sector Reform Unit, Lilongwe, 13 to 17 June 2016). In other words, the inability of the NPS to fully discuss innovation as one of the key concepts with public administration implies that it misses its critical relevance to Malawi's public sector reform process, thereby rendering itself as another model that cannot aptly reflect the needs of the sector.

■ Conclusion

Public sector reforms in contemporary states have become very complex. Although NPS is currently being championed by many scholars as the appropriate approach for effective reform in the

sector, this chapter, using Malawi's public sector as a case study, finds that there are several complex limitations regarding its applicability. Some of the areas that this chapter considers shortfalls of the applicability of NPS are its inability to effectively aggregate the demands of collective structures and political interference; its potential to extend the scope of public administration beyond the latter's ideal mandate; and its inability to enhance innovation and thought leadership in the reform agenda. Based on these potential empirical and theoretical weaknesses, the chapter suggests that governments need to tread cautiously when adopting NPS-inspired reforms.

The Role of Civil Society in Kenya's Governance and Public Administration

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■ Introduction

This chapter argues that, at a time of change in cultures, philosophies and reforms in public administration in countries and globally, civil society organisations (CSOs) remain relevant and have important contributions to make in governance and

public administration. The main thread of argument in this chapter is that CSOs in Kenya have the potential to make a difference by providing leadership in ensuring community participation in governance and public administration. This chapter also explores experiences of CSOs in other countries, with a focus on India in their efforts to promote public participation in governance, deciphering lessons for Kenya and other interested parties from these experiences. It makes the case that CSOs in India have been active and successful in taking strategic actions that have successfully brought citizens to the centre of governance and public administration. The case of Australia further demonstrates that this is not a CSO's role alone. States and elected leaders also have responsibilities to ensure that citizens are given greater say in decision-making processes in matters that affect their lives. The chapter further explores Kenya's perspectives in as far as promotion of community participation in governance is concerned.

According to Jillo and Kisinga (2009), civil society has been active in Kenya since the colonial period in the 1930s and 1940s, driven by many factors including the African spirit of togetherness. This situation was further augmented by educational and social institutions by the Christian missionaries at the time and social clubs by the British colonialists as well as organisations that arose to resist the British, including self-help groups or *harambee* groups among the Africans. The situation led to the development of a variety of organisations such as the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association. Others were more secular in nature, for example, the War Veterans' Association and the Kenya Farmers Association (Jillo & Kisinga 2009).

The growth of CSOs in Kenya occurred rapidly in the 1970s and 1990s in response to political and economic trends at the time. Significant growth of CSOs was witnessed after the African Union agreed to support the African Charter on Human Rights (Maingi 2016). As a result, CSOs became strengthened.

Repressive regimes in Kenya in the 1990s during the single party era also saw pilferage of public resources through corruption among the elected leaders (Maingi 2016). According to Maingi (2016), there was wanton abuse of public resources, and this saw further growth and prominence of CSOs as they sought to rectify the situation. CSOs have responded by promoting public participation in local governance and public administration.

■ Concepts of Civil Society and Governance

■ Civil Society

The concept of *civil society* has different meanings, with different authors giving different versions of the concept. Among these is Edwards (2014), who argues that CSOs are those organisations that are concerned with societal values such as tolerance and cooperation among people. He also argues that CSOs often seek harmony among the various actors in society including government, business and citizens. Further, he argues that CSOs are concerned with the common good and everything to do with shared interests, willingness to accommodate those with opposite views and work together to pursue common goals. Edwards (2014) goes on to argue that the organisations are about the unity of purpose in the community where people come together for common goals.

Heyden (2013) is another scholar who brings out arguments about the concept of civil society. He states that the concept has to do with the many private and public associations that are engaged in organising, mobilising and even at times shaping decisions made by politicians and that are free of the state's control.

In Kenya, there are a multitude of CSOs and it is therefore not easy to come up with a common concept in respect to them.

◼ Governance

Heyden (2013) views governance as all that governments are and do – that is, the actual task of running a government. He argues that citizen participation and their ability to put forward their opinions is an important part of governance and that often the opinions are put together so as to inform development of public policy. Governance also has to do with the means for ensuring rulers are accountable to the citizens for their decisions and actions. Heyden (2013) also argues that governance has to do with a situation where leaders are responsible. He also further notes that governance also entails ensuring that citizens relate with each well for the good of all.

According to Booth and Cammack (2013), governance is about decision-making. They argue that good governance is important for the smooth operation of agencies.

◼ Lessons from Civil Society Organisations' Experiences in Other Parts of the World

However, CSOs have been successful elsewhere in the world, which proves that they can make a difference when it comes to governance issues and public administration despite prevailing changes in cultures, philosophies and reforms in public administration globally.

◼ Indian Experience

Vyasulu (2007) discusses the important contributions of CSOs in India when it comes to addressing governance issues. He indicates that for many years, CSOs have been active in India and corruption is one of the key issues they have focused on. Corruption is perceived by many in India as a key stumbling block to the country's economic growth. CSOs have made major contributions to addressing the situation of corruption in the

country among other challenges. One action that CSOs have taken is recourse to the courts and often they have won cases.

According to Vyasulu (2007), because of these actions by CSOs, it is now mandatory for anyone seeking elective positions to declare their assets and disclose such information to confirm if there were any criminal charges against them. This is part of CSOs' contributions to the electoral reforms.

Another aspect that CSOs have pushed for in India is timely access to information as a prerequisite to accountability in governance and which is expected to enhance transparency (Vyasulu 2007). CSOs have also demanded to be included in contributing their views towards policy formulation and in the implementation of programmes, particularly those programmes meant for the poor. These CSOs' demands led to the enactment of the *Right to Information Act, 2004*. CSOs have been involved in monitoring its implementation. Such actions by CSOs have led to raising awareness and increasing consciousness among citizens about their roles in democracy. Citizens have come to learn that their role does not end with elections after voting but has to be continuous, whereby citizens and their organisations demand that their voices be heard and their demands met.

As a result of these actions by CSOs, people's participation in governance has taken root and has been enshrined in the 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments, whose requirements include 'local self-governments', meant to enhance such participation in a democratic framework.

The lesson here is that CSOs can significantly contribute to enhancement of governance by the positive actions that they take. This is by ensuring timely access to information that enhances transparency. Monitoring implementation of government policies only makes the public aware of their roles, especially in demanding accountability. Vyasulu (2007) provides examples of specific cases of CSO contributions in governance as follows.

☐ Madhya Pradesh District Planning Committees

According to Vyasulu (2007), the Madhya Pradesh District provides a good example of what CSOs have achieved in India in respect to governance. As a result of citizen participation in governance, along with other factors, there has been a marked improvement in literacy of over 20% in 10 years. Such work by CSOs in India has brought about situations where citizens no longer perceive government as 'knowing it all' to a new situation where citizens constantly demand that government listen to them and act according to these demands.

The lesson here is that, with such actions by CSOs, this has contributed to changes; for instance, while government plans were previously made without citizen participation, there now exists a process that has citizens participate and determine what goes into such government plans. District planning committees are now enshrined in the constitution.

☐ Kerala District's Village Council

Vyasulu (2007) provides another case study, that of Kerala District, which is a good example of CSO contributions to governance issues in India. The local village council has documented local resources and has made plans for what is needed in five years' time. The lesson here is that it is important for CSOs to know what resources are available in the regions where they are working and make these known to the communities so that they can be part of the planning process. The community is able to know what is not available and demand more provisions and support from the government.

☐ Rajasthan District's Peasants and Labourers Struggle Association

Another case study by Vyasulu (2007) is in Rajasthan, where the Peasants and Labourers Struggle Association brought together

citizens, who demanded access to the muster rolls on the basis of which wages were paid to labourers. The state at first refused to grant their request and this led to protests and then to the establishment of a movement for the right to information (RTI). Rajasthan and Karnataka districts were the first to enact the RTI law of 2004, but further pressure by CSOs led to a nationwide RTI law. CSOs are involved in monitoring the implementation of the law. The lesson is that CSOs can make a difference even in situations where success may appear impossible. They need to stand with the people and help push for their rights.

☐ Delhi's Resident Welfare Associations

In Delhi, the state consulted Resident Welfare Associations, seeking to understand citizens' priorities (Vyasulu 2007). However, the associations came together and protested against arbitrary increases in power rates. Citizens demanded that power bills be within the requirements of the regulator, who had permitted rate increases only when savings in transmission losses were shown. These associations have become a force to reckon with in the governance of city issues.

In Delhi, a people's movement by the name *Parivartan* also used the Delhi *RTI* law of 2004 and pushed to ensure that poor citizens receive their rights and entitlements for the public distribution system. They trained the citizens to ask specific questions, which led to the public supplies system working and functioning effectively. The work of Parivartan received resistance but citizens supported the CSO and this has made it a force to reckon with in Delhi.

The lesson in this case is that CSOs have the capacity to make a difference in governance of cities and are unique forces that counter forces of marginalisation and exploitation of the poor. They have a unique role in ensuring that public systems function as desired to fulfil their mandate in respect to needs of the citizenry.

☐ Parliamentary Research Service Legislative Research

Vyasulu (2007) has also highlighted the case of Parliamentary Research Service, which is an independent body comprising CSOs that provides parliamentarians with simple-to-understand briefs on major issues coming before parliament. The lesson is that CSOs can make important contributions in ensuring that decision-makers have the right information relevant to the needs of the citizens. Providing such information to policymakers ensures that they make policy decisions from an informed position in respect to the situations of poor people.

☐ Four NGOs in Bangalore

Vyasulu (2007) has espoused four NGOs in Bangalore who launched the PROOF campaign, whereby citizens demanded quarterly financial statements from the government. As a result of these demands, the government always provided information, it was debated upon, and this process is still ongoing. The four NGOs have worked together towards achievement of common goals. The lesson is that coming together as CSOs and working together is a positive trend. It is possible to demand accountability from the government and this becomes more possible when CSOs combine their efforts by working together.

☐ The Karnataka Case

Vyasulu (2007) has also highlighted the case of Karnataka, which has given attention to the municipal budgets of small towns in Karnataka. They place the results of their analysis of budgets on a website so that it is accessible to all. This is often followed with workshops and debates, where Centre for Budget and Policy Studies (CBPS) meets with elected representatives to enable them to gain a clearer understanding of the results. CBPS has

also come up with a film called *The Story of Municipalities*, which they use to stimulate debate in many forums. The lesson is that CSOs have the potential to be innovative in making elected leaders accountable to the citizenry. Use of films and other tools only makes the citizenry aware and facilitates their participation in the budget process.

☐ The Case of Orissa State

In Orissa State, dialogues were initiated by the Centre for Youth and Social Development (CYSD), with the speaker of the State Assembly (Vyasulu 2007). The CYSD organised workshops to create awareness among members of the State Assembly on how they could make inputs to the state budget. The CYSD also put together a series of publications called 'Budget Watch', which were debated by the members of the public.

Also in Orissa State, in the poorest district of Koraput, where the majority of poor tribal peoples live, the Centre for Analytical Tribal Studies has been documenting the situation of the poor tribes and sending the information to the local administration for them to get a clearer picture of the situation and also to effectively meet the needs of the poor tribes (Vyasulu 2007). The lesson is that CSOs need to be innovative by coming up with initiatives, especially in ensuring that elected leaders are accountable to the citizens. A further lesson is that sharing of information on the situation of the poor is important because CSOs are more often than not located at the grassroots level and have first-hand information on the poor and a strategic position to highlight this to elected leaders.

☐ Hyderabad: Lok Satta

Lok Satta in Hyderabad started as a movement against corruption. However, it has since transitioned to a movement for clean elections. It is today involved in demanding electoral reforms (Vyasulu 2007). The lesson is that CSOs have unique roles and

contributions they can make, especially in ensuring that leaders are accountable to the citizenry. They also have a unique role to push for clean elections, ensuring that credible leaders assume elective positions.

☐ Mumbai: Cehat

Cehat is an organisation that works on health issues in Mumbai. It monitors the state's investment in health and documents emerging information (Vyasulu 2007). The data have been a useful reference for all working in the health sector. The emerging lesson is that CSOs should be ready to engage in diverse roles including information on state investment in specific sectors so that gaps can be identified and solutions determined.

☐ Pune: Prayas

Prayas is an agency that works on areas of energy policy (Vyasulu 2007). It takes part in debates on the energy needs of poor people and the existing inequalities as the poor try to access energy. The lesson is that there are many issues affecting the poor and marginalised in society and CSOs need to have an open mind in their analysis and determination of solutions.

☐ Kerala: Thenal

Further, Vyasulu (2007) highlighted the case of Thenal, which is an agency in Kerala whose focus is on environmental issues and food security. Through its field studies, it makes important contribution to policy debates and has been successful in policy advocacy that has contributed to policy changes on many occasions. One of these policy changes is the banning of the use of endosulfan in north Kerala for agriculture. The lesson is that contributions to policy changes and improvements are paramount, which CSOs can accomplish by carrying out field studies in sectors where they are working to highlight pertinent issues and gaps to policymakers.

☐ Sanket Development Group

Sanket Development Group is a key organisation that started with a focus on a human development report for Madhya Pradesh in the 1990s for the state government (Vyasulu 2007). In places that were found to have a low Human Development Index, the organisation used the information to persuade government to allocate more funds to such districts. It is also involved in budget analysis at district levels and has even assisted in preparing budget estimates for Videsha District and shared these with government and NGOs. The lesson is that CSOs have a pertinent role in guiding leaders through provision of useful information that could be used in planning for programmes for poor and marginalised people.

☐ Wada Na Todo Campaign

In 2005, more than 100 CSOs together launched the Wada Na Todo ('Don't Break Your Promises') campaign. The campaign sought to monitor promises made by the new incoming government that assumed office after elections. The campaign was major as it had a nationwide reach. The lesson is that CSOs can make useful contributions in all areas, including ensuring that promises made by elected leaders are kept.

■ Australian Experience

The government of Australia came up with a report that sought to promote a whole new way of governance whereby communities would be given greater say in decision-making processes in matters that affect their lives (ANAO 2011). The report led to a complete change of culture and running of the government and introduced changes that were evident by the 1980s and went on to the 1990s (ANAO 2011). The new approach in meeting expectations of the public borrowed from the private sector in the way the government functioned. The whole argument was informed by the fact that public

service was more flexible, efficient and responsive if a private service management style were introduced and used in public agencies.

Several components were involved in this direction, including borrowing approaches from the corporate sector and also delegating services to individualised agencies and outsourcing some of the services to NGOs (ANAO 2011). Also, there was more focus on outputs, cutting down on bureaucracy, treating communities as customers or consumers, thus invoking an entrepreneurship spirit (AGAS 2011).

Top–down approaches were further modified in the 1990s, and this led to more citizen engagement, community consultations and overall stakeholder participation. Citizens were perceived to have a greater right to participate in decisions in programmes and projects that affect their lives. The view was that for this to happen, citizens must be facilitated. Power was seen to reside in the citizens (AGAS 2011).

These perceptions have become urgent in the wake of powers such as those in the corporate world that have assumed growing power over the state and citizens (ANAO 2011). This was demonstrated by the global financial crisis of 2008–2009 that brought to question such issues as citizens' ability to control their lives, as well as the extent to which citizens and governments could work together to safeguard policies, including results that citizens would want to see in this working arrangement (ANAO 2011).

Reforms in the public service in Australia have taken several steps that seek to realise the following:

1. a better working economy
2. more use of information and technologies that facilitate communication
3. a more open way of working
4. stronger and more open agencies
5. more openness in employment.

Each successive Australian government sought to ensure they realised transparency as they interacted with citizens through the following reforms:

1. In 2002, a single entry point for the government information service was established.
2. A summit was held in 2008 to get citizens' views and assist the government to identify priorities and contribute to policies.
3. Community cabinet meetings were introduced in 2008.
4. In September 2009, an advisory group was formed to help in the reform of the Australian government administration and come up with reforms in the government's public service.
5. In 2009, the use of certain clauses in law that inhibited the flow of information was abolished.
6. In March 2010, government accepted suggestions for protection of whistle-blowers.
7. Government accepted recommendations for a more open government, and this led to publication of more information that was now available to the public. There was also more use of technology in reaching out to the public to get their views.
8. Government made a declaration in 2010 on efficient use of government-held information. The declaration stated that (Tanner 2010:n.p.), 'Citizens collaboration in policy and service delivery design will enhance the process of government and improve the outcomes being sought. Collaboration with citizens is to be enabled and encouraged'.
9. In 2010, the Australian Information Commissioner was appointed to oversee *Freedom of Information and Privacy Matters* (AGAS 2011). Reforms were enacted on the *Freedom of Information* fees charged.

From 2010, the Australian government has continued to monitor public service work and has come up with new programmes aimed at achieving change that are in line with citizen-centred approaches (ANAO 2011).

The Australian government has played an important role in bringing about changes in how it serves the public by coming up with rules and regulations. These regulations have made

important contributions in working with the public and in getting the public to participate in the affairs of the government. In 2004, Australian Public Service Commission (APSC) came up with suggestions on better ways to get the members of the public to participate in the running of government services (AGAS 2011).

In 2008, the government came up with a team responsible for coming up with approaches to improve services to the public (AGAS 2011). As a result, the government made a strong commitment on the need to work with members of the public in meeting their needs and expectations (ANAO 2011).

In its documented report of 2010, the advisory group's report recommended that the Australian government do the following:

1. provide guidance and support to members of the public in participating in government services
2. establish new approaches in working with the members of the public
3. ensure that information is available to the public
4. implement a process to get feedback and views from the public in respect to their expectations as far as government programmes are concerned.

The secretary of the Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet established a secretary's board made up of heads of departments. The board is formally responsible for:

1. formulating solutions in respect to improvements and changes in service delivery
2. identifying and coming up with best options for the Australian Public Service (APS)
3. putting together a yearly work programme for board subcommittees for the APSC.

Reforms were realised in the following aspects. '[t]he first is to forge a stronger relationship with citizens through better delivery of services, and through greater involvement of citizens in their

government' (Rudd 2010). Moran (2010), as the person charged with implementing the reforms, has reiterated that:

> We need not only to consult citizens, but invite them to collaborate in the design of services and of policy. Citizen engagement in service and policy design is not only the right thing to do but will provide a rich new source of ideas to government. (n.p.)

Moreover, the 2010 APSC report titled 'Empowering change: Fostering innovation in the Australian Public Service' fought for 'openness in the development and implementation of government policy'. It highlighted that this 'will require a paradigm shift in the approach of many agencies where much development of new ideas takes place in a climate of secrecy' (ANAO 2011). It also emphasised on 'external input' and 'partnering' as important concepts to realise fresh perspectives (ANAO 2011).

It is obvious that promotion of approaches that seek to involve the public in the running of government affairs has continued to be a main preoccupation of the government of Australia. This has happened more since the publication of the APS framework, whereby it is now the norm that members of the public are at the centre of policy formulation and service delivery (AGAS 2011).

As far as the Australian public is concerned, participation in government affairs matters to all in the government and all stakeholders. The importance of public participation has been highlighted in literature, too. Discussions on public participation in government affairs are expected to be a continuous process. It entails keeping all the parties in the know, a practice of openness and accountability as well as an environment of giving and receiving of reasons behind actions and the articulation of values. Public participation is seen as a continuous process that has several activities. It is more of mutual interactions that are based on trust and relationships among the different stakeholders (FaHCSIA 2011).

In line with the arguments of Stewart (2011), community engagement is more a process of reaching out and forming

relationships for working with those outside government in the policy process. Policies are therefore made in a more participatory environment and all crucial stakeholders are involved. It comprises the processes whereby members of the public are involved and consulted (Stewart 2011).

However, this does not overlook or ignore the fact that there exists some level of power between the various parties involved. What this means is that collaboration of this nature brings about a situation whereby results come about as a result of joint determination of outcomes and are given legitimacy by all involved (Stewart 2011).

The best practice of collaboration among the various stakeholders in matters of engaging with each other has the following important components according to the Australian experience.

☐ All Stakeholders Have to be Able to Access Information

For better citizen participation, information has to be shared with ease. This must include even information from diverse sources. More recently, the law on access to information has helped make this possible, and the emergence of the technology era has also opened channels of information to the public. The technology era has enabled the government to use technology in keeping records and has made it possible for the public to access government information much more readily (ANAO 2011).

More importantly, the government approved the recommendations on access to information in April 2008. It acknowledged principles of openness, transparency, quality and integrity, use of new technologies, redress and fair-pricing mechanisms, and international access and use. Australia was a key party in the development of the agreements and is a signatory to them (AGAS 2011).

Currently, it is the norm and near to unbelievable that an Australian government agency would be found operating with no website that enables the public to access information (EIPP 2009).

☐ Effective Engagement has Only Been Engaging in Consultation

More often than not, public participation has been perceived as a way of consultation that brings on board the views of the public, corporate and civil society, primarily all stakeholders to a process of decision-making. The consultation process largely could remain in the hands of politicians and public servants and deny most stakeholders a chance to air their views (EIPP 2009). Australian administration tries to avoid just relying on consultations but also uses approaches such as focus groups discussions and surveys to get public views and feedback. And where policies might have a certain effect on certain categories of people, governments go to a whole range of lengths to reach out and consult with the affected groups of people and those who defend their interests. Quite often in a consultation situation, it remains generally the case that governments define the agenda for consultation, set the questions and remain on top of the process and control the process (ANAO 2011).

☐ Public Participation

The Australian administration has recognised and acknowledged participation as the ultimate order of public engagement that it uses in policymaking and service delivery. Participation of the public is viewed not just as an opportunity for simply exchanging information, but rather as all stakeholders involved being allowed the possibility of changing their views (EIPP 2009). All stakeholders are expected to be open to others' views. In such an environment, all involved are able to come to a common understanding of issues and make better decisions (EIPP 2009).

The International Association for Public Participation specifies seven core values for participatory engagement practices that cover both the normative and instrumental dimensions of participation (EIPP 2009). All three components of engagement discussed here – information, consultation and participation – all contribute to a better and democratic way of decision-making. They all have to be part of the whole equation. Information provision alone is not adequate. Consultation gets useful as citizens find themselves able to reach out to leaders and are able to feed into parts of how decisions are made. However, in a consultative process, citizens may have no ability to push for their needs when the decisions are finally made. The situation is different when there is public participation, as has been embraced by the Australian government (EIPP 2009).

Discourse on community participation and engagement must acknowledge the community as crucial in ensuring those in leadership account for their actions. Community participation is an important addition to representative processes and provides solutions to national political elites or technocrats. It has helped as seen in Australia in minimising citizens' sense of hopelessness and powerlessness in the face of these larger forces such as the state and the corporate world (EIPP 2009).

Community participation matters for the Australian government as articulated in the APSC's 2010 report 'Empowering change: Fostering innovation in the Australian Public Service'. The report (APSC 2010) captures the importance of public engagement when it states:

> Citizens and businesses are especially important external sources of ideas. Not only are they outside the public sector, but they also directly feel the impact of new policies and services. Governments cannot effectively address needs and concerns that they do not fully understand. (n.p.)

This is the argument of the Australian National Audit Office's Better Practice Guide, titled *Innovation in the Public Sector*. It views and supports the importance of citizen engagement as a

way for public servants to reduce and minimise risks when coming up with solutions for difficult issues. A further quote from their guide states as follows (ANAO 2011):

> The best results are likely to flow from a process of strategic and frequent engagement. Such engagement goes beyond what might be thought of as more traditional forms of consultation to establishing a positive, proactive relationship [...] Apart from enriching the development process, at the very minimum proactive engagement with clients and external stakeholders will confirm assumptions, identify unexpected issues and help build understanding and support for change. (p. 23)

The main reason for promoting public participation in running affairs of a government is to ensure that countries that do so maximises and benefit from the flow of useful information and knowledge that is made available to leaders and officials in governments (ANAO 2011).

■ Kenyan Experience

In Kenya, recent study findings on how CSOs can encourage communities to participate in governance issues effectively reveal that CSOs have had significant contribution in this respect (Munene & Thakhathi 2017). The study by Munene and Thakhathi (2017) focused on three counties in Kenya – Nairobi, Busia and Nyeri. Of particular significance in the findings is that although CSOs are active in public administration and governance in Kenya, their contributions are rather sketchy despite the challenge of poor governance and abuse of public resources prevailing in the country. CSO efforts were found instead to be more superficial and to merely lean more towards providing information on available resources in the counties studied, identification of projects that could win resource allocation from authorities, training communities on governance issues and a general creation of awareness on bad governance through training forums. Actual follow-up on use of public funds in the funded projects has been given lukewarm attention by CSOs

across the counties, except in Busia, where some significant follow-up on funds has taken place.

Findings also indicate that CSOs have not involved themselves with such strategies as meeting with authorities, writing petitions to those in authority and organising communities into demonstrations. Rather CSOs have been shying from doing this or have given it lukewarm attention. What this implies is that communities are left on their own after awareness is created and identification of funds that can be funded (Munene & Thakhathi 2017). According to Munene and Thakhathi (2017), this indicates that CSOs have failed to engage directly with governance issues, perhaps avoiding open confrontation or considering it too dangerous to handle. Qualitative findings show that respondents in the three counties studied reported open intimidation from those in authorities through hired goons who are sent to meetings to cause mayhem and chaos whenever issues on governance are raised. Munene and Thakhathi (2017) also argue that fear seems to have been cultivated in CSOs so that they are involved more in 'quieter' engagement with governance issues. It also indicates that CSOs' inadequate capacity in terms of funds, offices and personnel also inhibits them from confronting and sustaining action against poor governance (Munene & Thakhathi 2017). They are also limited by their inability to acquire important information from government officials that would help in follow-up of poor governance cases. However, in a few places, especially in Busia, those in authority were said to be cautious in their governance-related practices, as they have become increasingly aware that they are being watched by CSOs (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

The study also sought to find out whether governance structures formed by CSOs had received support to facilitate them to fulfil their mandate. Findings indicate that they have received support especially in terms of funding and training. The support was found to have been useful, especially in terms of strengthening leadership aspects, enabling members to

network with those in authority and, to some extent, went a long way in strengthening the financial base of the structures. However, financial support was found not to be adequate and CSOs suffer poor capacity in terms of adequate offices and office equipment, needing to use borrowed office space, including chairs. They suffer inadequate staff in numbers and skills and have to rely on volunteers. This was found to have affected CSOs' capacity to sustain action (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

The study also wanted to find obstacles that CSOs were facing that would undermine their ability to fulfil their mandate as far as governance issues were concerned. These obstacles were poor leadership, internal governance, financial instability, members dropping out, unfriendly political environment and poor participation by members. Findings reveal that financial instability is indicated as a key obstacle across the counties despite the support received by these structures from funders and other supporters. Internal governance and poor local leadership pose significant obstacles as well, especially to governance structures. Findings also show that attempts have been made to address these obstacles in Busia and Nyeri but no attempt has been made to address them in Nairobi. Activities towards resolution of these obstacles have included provision of training, financial support, cooperation with authorities, cooperation with community, more support from politicians and others not mentioned. Training and cooperation with those in authority and the community emerged as the key activities to resolve the obstacles. It is telling that financial instability, although it was cited as a key obstacle, has not been addressed across the three counties (Munene & Thakhathi).

The study also sought to discover the extent of community participation in these CSOs' governance structures. While respondents in Nairobi indicated they themselves did not participate, they reported to have witnessed their relatives or other people known to them participate in these structures. Participation in these structures was more significant in Busia

and Nyeri but not in Nairobi. The structures seem not to have taken root in Nairobi but have done so in Busia and Nyeri. The frequency of participation is also significant, especially in Busia and Nyeri, at between once a week and once every month. This finding shows that CSOs have had significant success in Busia and Nyeri, but not in Nairobi, in bringing people together and providing a platform through which they are able to participate and even engage with those in authority on matters to do with their welfare. Perhaps this could imply that for Korogocho in Nairobi, being a slum community, governance issues are not as much of a priority as having tangible food put on the table on a daily basis. This also shows that CSOs have a challenge in selling governance as an issue in the slum community and perhaps more strategies specific to slums need to be devised rather than having strategies that cut across the country irrespective of the context. It could also mean that the concept was strange to the slum community and not easily understood and grasped (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

It could also imply that the approaches also used by CSOs could have been the source of the challenge and ended up causing confusion to the people, especially in Nairobi. In Nairobi, Legal Resources Foundation partnered with Kituo cha Sheria on the ground, Action Aid partnered with Busia Community Development Organization in Busia, while in Nyeri the Centre for Governance and Development partnered with the Tax Payers Association on the ground. This implies that if a partner has many other competing mandates, the community may get confused and get lost on the main agenda being pursued. Care needs to be taken by the different partners to constantly clarify the agenda with communities (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

This study also tried to find out if there are other, alternative forums. The findings show that a significant number of people in the community were said to prefer community elder forums, clan-based forums and church-based forums. However, mosque-based and local politicians' forums including other forums were

given a lukewarm preference. These alternative forums, especially community elder forums, clan-based forums and church-based forums, have been instrumental especially in Nairobi where the governance agenda was not given prominence by CSOs. The alternative forums have been used by the community to engage with governance and other issues. Also, in the prevailing lack of adequate support to governance structures, the communities have had a fallback situation to these alternative structures across the three counties. It is indicative that while people prefer to participate at church-based forums, the church has not been pursuing a governance agenda very keenly. This implies that the church can do more because people prefer its forums, too (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

The study also sought to find out the respondents' preference in terms of which ones they participated in. The majority of respondents in Busia and Nyeri said they preferred those implemented by CSOs, while only a few preferred CSO-led ones in Korogocho, Nairobi. This could imply that the poor mobilisation in Korogocho could have led to this kind of finding, where people were left with little information on the agenda of the CSOs. However, a significant number of respondents indicated they would prefer to participate in community elders' forums and the clan-based forums. A few, however, cited church-based forums, but mosque-based forums and local politicians were given lukewarm consideration (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

Another issue that the study sought to find out was the strength or lack thereof of these alternative governance forums. The majority of respondents were of the opinion that the alternative forums were relatively strong at between the scale of 3 and 5, apart from Nairobi, where the majority of respondents indicated that the alternative forums were weakest at a scale of 1. This implies that Nairobi's Korogocho community are on their own because even what they are relying on as the alternative forum to help address governance and other issues is weak (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

The study also sought to find out the levels at which benefits arising from the governance structures implemented by CSOs have been realised. Levels were categorised as individual, family, community as a whole and 'don't know'. A majority of respondents were of the opinion that the benefits had been realised more at family and community levels, especially in Busia and Nyeri. This implies that the structures have had benefits on wider numbers of people at family and community levels as a whole. The findings also reveal that the structures have improved community access to water and education services (Munene & Thakhathi 2017).

■ Conclusion

This chapter has examined the contributions of CSOs in governance and public administration and has made the case that these contributions remain relevant despite prevailing changes in cultures, philosophies and reforms in public administration in countries and globally. The Kenyan perspective reveals that CSOs are yet to make a meaningful impact in governance and public administration in that country. However, the cases cited from India offer important lessons for Kenya and other interested parties and serve to demonstrate that CSOs have not only been active in India but also quite successful in their efforts on citizen participation in governance. An important lesson is that most of the CSOs in India do not work on their own but have learnt the value of networking in order to make a meaningful impact. As a group of CSOs they have shown the potential to have even bigger impact. The case for Australia has brought to the fore the fact that, although CSOs are active in that country, distinctive and proactive government effort is important.

The Australian government is a testimony that state leadership is also crucial in ensuring effective community participation in governance. Such a role should not be left to CSOs alone.

A Conceptual Framework for Information Systems Capability Improvements in Municipal Water Resource Management

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■ Introduction

Demographic studies reveal that by 2025 South Africa's local and regional water resources will be insufficient to meet projected water demand, unless water resource sustainability is addressed (DNT 2011). Water is an increasingly valuable resource that is significant for human survival and a necessary catalyst for sustainable local, regional and international socio-economic development (Awad, Khawlie & Darwich 2009; Ren, Lyu & Wu 2013; Veiga & Magrini 2013). Therefore, shortages in the availability of water reserves threaten the quantity and quality of water supply in developing countries such as South Africa (Muller et al. 2009; Veiga & Magrini 2013). The available water reserves require proper management to ensure that current needs are met and that long-term economic and environmental plans are achievable and sustainable (Veiga & Magrini 2013). Contributing factors, such as climate pattern changes and the increasing water demands from a growing global urban population and industrialisation, require sound strategies for proper water management by municipalities (Wostl et al. 2008).

Municipalities as the front end of the water supply chain are faced with significant water management challenges (Van der Mescht & Van Jaarsveld 2013). The challenges manifest as a skills gap among employees in water management systems use, immature information systems (IS) use in water management processes, conflicts in the decision-making process and a lack of adequate water resource management processes (Awad et al. 2009; Garrote 2017). *Water resource management* refers to the municipality's activities associated with the planning, development, distribution and management of water resource usage (Robles et al. 2012; Staddon 2016).

For municipalities to attain the goal of efficient water resource management, they need to find adaptive means to manage water resources, such as the adoption of IS throughout the water management process (Wostl et al. 2008) for informed management

decision-making (Makarovskiy 2016). However, to achieve these goals, municipalities will need to understand and reflect on their current public administration practices in order to initiate the necessary reforms for improved local service delivery. Efficiencies in public administration practices at a local level have a ripple effect on the regional and international competitiveness of a country.

This chapter identifies challenges faced by municipalities concerning water resource management and how IS capabilities can assist in mitigating them. A conceptual framework is proposed for use by municipal stakeholders to inform the need for IS capabilities in the water management process.

■ Background

The South African water sector is organised into three different spheres of influence, namely, the National Department of Water Affairs (DWA), water boards and municipalities (Hollingworth et al. 2011). The responsibility of the DWA is to set water resource policies, while the primary role of water boards is to provide bulk water operations to municipalities, but it can also extend to the provision of retail services through an agreement with the municipality.

The *Municipal Systems Act* 32 of 2000 defines how government in South Africa is separated into three spheres, namely, national, provincial and local government. The roles and responsibilities of each of the spheres of government differ significantly. The local government sphere, which is the focus of this chapter, is that body in direct contact with citizens (Republic of South Africa 2000; Van Wyk 2012). Local government represents the elected government body in charge of providing municipal and public services to a local community (Karagel & Karagel 2014). Karagel and Karagel (2014) further define *local government* as the administrative zone concerned with legal administrative autonomy. In summary, local government can be

described as a municipal structure responsible for governing water and other resources in a specific city or town. Municipalities provide water resources to all stakeholders within their jurisdiction (Hollingworth et al. 2011). In order for a municipality to manage their water resources, there are various processes that need to be in place.

When defining water management processes, it is vital to understand the nature of water resource management. Ren et al. (2013) argue that providing a succinct definition of *water resource management* is difficult given the many variables associated with the concept. Water resource management is an advanced and integrated method in water science that focuses on the promotion, development and management of water resources in order to maximise social welfare and economy in an equitable manner (Figueres, Tortajada & Rockstrom 2012). Ako, Eyong and Nkeng (2009) define water management as including planned water resource development, distribution and utilisation. Water management is considered to require collaboration between government (for the provision of reliable policies, procedures and regulation); the private sector (for the provision of innovative and technological advances); and civil society (for the provision of user inputs) (Tindale & Sagris 2013). Holistically, water resource management can be considered as the planned technological, legislative and cultural measures that are put in place in order to manage water resources properly.

Therefore, water management processes can be described as actions, activities and measures that are utilised to manage water (Ako et al. 2009; Figueres et al. 2012; Ren et al. 2013). Such actions range from water governance and management measures to the promotion of water conservation (Cheng & Hu 2012). In addition, water management processes include laws, procedures, policies and methods that are put in place by government institutions, such as municipalities, to manage water resources.

■ Theoretical Foundation

The resource-based view (RBV) of the firm theory is a theory that has been in existence for 20 years and proposes that firms possess resources that allow them to achieve competitive advantage and long-term performance gains. These resources are inherently unique to each firm, as no two firms in a given industry possess the same constraints and capabilities associated with their resources. These resources can be defined 'as assets and capabilities that are available and useful in detecting and responding to market opportunities or threats' (Wade & Hulland 2004:109).

The firm considers its assets as either tangible (e.g. the IS architecture) or intangible (e.g. relationships with vendors) (Wade & Hulland 2004). A firm's assets are used to facilitate the processes involved in the creation, production and delivery of goods and services to consumers (Wade & Hulland 2004). Investments in Information Technology (IT) assets are only significant to the extent that they become part of organisational practice and positively contribute to the firm's capabilities (Arvidsson, Holmstrom & Lyytinen 2014). *Capabilities* refer to the available human skill set (e.g. administrative, managerial and/or technical) or the maturity of the systems processes to transform inputs into valuable outputs efficiently. The transformation process is made possible through the use of assets to shape repeatable patterns of action (Wade & Hulland 2004).

The application of the RBV of the firm theory to municipalities and water resource management necessitates the rewording of 'competitive advantage' to 'effective service delivery', as service delivery is the principal goal of municipalities. Tarhan, Turetken and Reijers (2016) state that not all organisations (municipalities) are on the same maturity level when it comes to their business processes, especially when it comes to their use of IS. Expanding this notion further, it could be stated that municipalities make use of their assets and capabilities to provide resources

(such as water) to residents by adopting a suitable strategy that aims to mitigate the presenting challenges. The municipal strategy to be adopted should aim to narrow the gap between the efficient use of the municipality's assets and its capabilities, such that IS capabilities are increased. However, this is only possible if municipalities have knowledge of the relevance of IS capabilities to water resource management and the need for appropriate IT investment to ensure process alignment (Pederson 2016).

■ Research Method

The research method followed for this chapter was a literature review, which sought to investigate the availability of knowledge on IS capabilities for water resource management in municipalities. A literature review is a systematic method for identifying, evaluating and synthesising existing studies by accredited scholars and researchers on a particular topic of interest (Booth, Sutton & Papaioannou 2016; Taylor 2011).

The literature review in this chapter discusses the existing knowledge available on the strategies, challenges and IS capabilities experienced by municipalities with regard to water resource management. The literature review process was conducted by collecting and analysing relevant articles, published manuscripts and journals in the field of water management by means of a structured keyword search of the literature. These included the online databases Springer (specifically the *Water Management Resource* journal) and Elsevier (Science Direct) and online resources such as Research Gate, Google Scholar and Google Books. The following keywords were utilised to conduct the literature search: *water management*, *information systems capabilities in water management processes* and *water management challenges*. The search identified 77 relevant articles, of which 43 were determined to be directly relevant to the three areas (strategies, challenges and IS capabilities) associated with the topic of water resource management.

■ Literature Review

This literature review section identifies the current knowledge extracted from the literature search that was conducted. The three areas within water resource management, namely, strategies, challenges and IS capabilities, will be discussed.

■ Water Resource Management

□ Strategies

There are two core strategic approaches to water resource management, namely, *water conservation* and *water demand management* (WDM). Water conservation refers to those strategies for the mitigation of water loss and wastage, the protective care of water resources and efficient water use (Masia & Erasmus 2013). The WDM strategies are implemented with the goal of reducing water resource demand (Masia & Erasmus 2013). Masia and Erasmus (2013) further state that there are five categories of WDM, namely:

- *Engineering* focuses on identifying innovations to reduce water use, such as installing efficient showerheads.
- *Economics* involves the available supply and demand to determine the appropriate tariffs to manage water demand.
- *Enforcement* involves the application of water restrictions and punitive measures in order to reduce water wastage.
- *Encouragement* focuses on providing incentives to users to reduce their water demand voluntarily through initiatives such as rebates for efficient water users.
- *Education* focuses on promoting awareness through educating consumers and employees on water service best practices.

The WDM strategic categories mentioned are applicable options for municipalities to consider when establishing various processes to manage water. Masia and Erasmus (2013) point out that water management processes need to be planned properly and improved continuously.

Municipalities can use a combination of strategies to focus on reducing water demand, which can be achieved by implementing adequate tariff systems, changing water use technologies and increasing the efficiency of water consumption use by domestic and industrial consumers (Cosgrove & Loucks 2015). Mombeni et al. (2015) state that municipalities in many countries reduce water demand by redesigning the water tariff structure so that those citizens who consume more water than a minimum average are subjected to increased water rates. Those municipalities with low water catchment reserves in South Africa are increasingly adopting a strategy of punitive water tariffs in an effort to conserve the available water reserves.

An alternative strategy that might be followed by municipalities is to focus on managing water resources through better water governance. *Water governance* refers to the design and implementation of water management policies in a shared, responsible manner across the levels of government, civil society and business (OECD 2015; Raju & Manasi 2017). Good water governance is impacted by many factors such as a municipality's ability to develop and implement strong policies, as well as regulatory and legal frameworks (Raju & Manasi 2017). Even though municipalities are investing in these water management processes – or rather strategies – they are still facing several challenges with regard to water management.

☐ Challenges

Municipalities experience water management challenges, which result in the loss and shortage of water and an economic decline in municipal revenue (Chuene 2012). The challenges that municipalities face are impacted by their inability to implement the integrated processes and systems for the management of water resources. Ako et al. (2009) define the integrated management of water resources as involving those processes that promote the coordination and development of water management resources. The successful integration of water

management requires a multi-tiered stakeholder approach that targets all of the identified management levels to address the presenting challenges (Ako et al. 2009).

The challenges that can hinder the successful implementation of integrated water management at the municipal level include a lack of water management frameworks, municipal employees in the water sector who are not professionals and conflicts or miscommunications among stakeholders during the decision-making process (Koop & Van Leeuwen 2015). Table 6.1 identifies the various water management challenges arising from the reviewed literature, explains them in a municipal context and provides supporting articles.

Municipalities in South Africa need to mitigate the challenges by identifying suitable remedies. The DWA's 2015 annual report on water and sanitation stated that the challenges in water

TABLE 6.1: Water management challenges experienced by municipalities.

Water management challenge	Explanation of challenge for municipality	Relevant authors from the literature review
Lack of water information management	• Lack of quality of information between different stakeholders involved in water management results in poor decision-making. • Lack of proper record-keeping and management IS to monitor water demand and supply. • Lack of tools that present meaningful and real-time information about the usage, price and availability of water resources.	Curry et al. 2014; Harris et al. 2001; Wegelin and Jacobs 2013
Insufficient capacity	• Insufficient scientific, technical and infrastructural capacity to design and implement water management strategies. • Poor or non-existent policies and procedures for effective water resource management.	Ayala and Juizo 2011; Koop and Van Leeuwen 2015; Senyoke 2011

TABLE 6.1 (Continues...): Water management challenges experienced by municipalities.

Water management challenge	Explanation of challenge for municipality	Relevant authors from the literature review
Lack of funding	• Unstable and/or insufficient revenue for effective implementation of water management processes. • There is insufficient funding available for programmes such as water demand management and water conservation, information management and skills development.	Nkondo et al. 2012; Senyoke 2011; Wegelin and Jacobs 2013
Lack of accountability and stakeholder involvement	• Difficulty in ensuring the transparency of practices across the different constituencies, mainly because of insufficient user commitment, lack of concern, awareness and participation.	Boakye and Akpor 2012; Fulazzaky and Akil 2009; Molobela 2016
Shortage of skills and expertise in water sector	• Poor administrative skills in water management departments. • Lack of specialist skills (engineers and scientists) capability is a critical challenge in the water sector. • Lack of leadership skills for management and governance.	Elraheem and Abdou 2012; Fulazzaky and Akil 2009; Mothetha, Nkuna and Mema 2011; Nkondo et al. 2012; Wegelin and Jacobs 2013
Issues in paying for water services	• Lack of efficient water metering. • Inaccurate water billing IS in municipalities.	DWA 2015; Molobela 2016; Peters 2011
Climate change issues	• Lack of IS and technologies to forecast climate change in order to manage water effectively.	Bahri, Brikké and Vairavamoorthy 2015; Cheng and Hu 2012; Cosgrove and Loucks 2015; Garrote 2017; Ziervogel et al. 2010;
Administration issues	• Difficulties in tariff structure determinants. • Conflict between municipalities and water board bodies over accountability and responsibilities.	Elraheem and Abdou 2012; Muller et al. 2009; Sousa et al. 2016

Source: Adapted from Koop and Van Leeuwen (2015).

management include skills shortages, poor planning and budgeting, inappropriate water pricing and a lack of information use in water management (DWA 2015). Russo, Alfredo and Fisher (2014) state that municipalities should put innovative measures in place, including assets (such as technologies and IS), to overcome water resource management challenges. However, municipalities must not only deploy IS but also work at improving the capabilities of these IS.

Previous studies in the water management discipline focused on the utilisation of IS or technologies to improve water resource management (Li 2015; Soutter et al. 2009; Stefanovic et al. 2015). Other studies focused on water resource management challenges (Bahri et al. 2015; Garrote 2017; Sousa et al. 2016). Few studies exist that focus on how the capabilities of IS are used for improvement in water management processes (Horne 2015; Levidow et al. 2014).

☐ Information System Capabilities

The literature defines IS as a set of components for collecting, storing, processing and transmitting data in order to deliver information for action (Mohamed 2013; Stair & Reynolds 2016). IS has also been described as the means by which people and organisations are increasingly using technology to gather and process information (Karimi & Walter 2015). In essence, IS is the process of utilising resources, such as human skill sets and information technologies, to convert data into useful information that can be used for decision-making and other purposes. The main objective of IS is to ensure that the right information gets to the right person in the organisation at the right time for decision-making. Organisations or entities, whether in the commerce, non-profit or public sectors, are heavily dependent on their IS to accomplish their processes effectively (Karimi & Walter 2015). Municipalities are no different in needing efficient IS capabilities (Horne 2015).

IS capabilities refer to what IS can accomplish or what organisations can achieve through the use of IS (Bi, Smyrnios & Kam 2010). Improvements in IS capabilities can include but are not limited to enabling efficient operations, supporting effective management, enhancing decision-making processes and producing real-time information.

Davidrajuh (2009) identifies three core IS capabilities that organisations, whether private or public, should pursue, namely, information technology practices (ITP), information management practices (IMP) and information behaviour and values (IBV). Table 6.2 explains these IS capabilities within the context of municipalities.

Municipalities can improve their IS capabilities for water management processes by ensuring that they effectively manage the IT assets that are associated with water management (Davidrajuh 2009). In addition, the municipality needs to ensure that IT fully supports the water management business processes. Stefanovic et al. (2015) argue that the first step in improving IS capabilities in water management is to enhance the collection, processing and storage of data and information.

To monitor their water infrastructure, municipalities can make use of IS such as geographic information systems (GIS) to sense, collect, organise and process information related to their water resources. A GIS is a computer-based IS that assists in collecting, manipulating, storing, analysing and distributing spatial data and information (Malik, Bhat & Najar 2016). Stefanovic et al. (2015) state that a municipality deals with many aspects of water management including the collection and supply of water, the maintenance of water distribution systems and the transportation of water to the customer. The ideal way to manage all of these aspects is to have real-time information linked to corresponding geographical locations (Stefanovic et al. 2015). The information from these systems can then be integrated into other systems at the municipality.

Horne (2015) maintains that the improvement of IS capabilities should focus on assisting water managers with effective decision-making improvements to allow municipalities to address water-related challenges better. Therefore, municipalities must utilise water management decision support tools that will present real-time information about usage, price and the availability of water resources (Curry et al. 2014). Furthermore, Curry et al. (2014) argue that various water stakeholders have different information requirements regarding water resource management, which include customers managing their personal water usage, business users managing their water consumption and municipalities managing the distribution of water resource.

TABLE 6.2: Core Information System capabilities.

Core IS capability	Definition specific to the municipality	Competency required by the municipality
Information technology practices	The capability of the municipality to effectively manage IT applications (including hardware) for the purpose of decision-making and communication	• IT must support water management functions • IT must support the water resource business processes • IT must be dynamic and provide innovative support to meet changing circumstances
Information management practices	The capability of the municipality to manage good-quality information effectively	• Collect information that is current and useful for its intended purpose • Organise information so that it is accessible when and where it is required • Process information in a manner that maintains the relevance of the information
Information behaviour and values	The ability of the municipality to promote ethical IS behaviour among employees for effective use of information	• Sharing: Free exchange of information • Transparency: Openness about failures and mistakes • Control: Effective flow of information

Source: Adapted from Davidrajuh (2009).

Improved IS capabilities for water management will ensure that these diverse stakeholders will have real-time and accurate information to make informed decisions about water consumption (Curry et al. 2014). Cosgrove and Loucks (2015) believe that municipalities' greater focus on the development and implementation of usage monitoring and tracking systems will provide real-time information on water resources, which will aid municipalities to improve the IS capabilities in water processes continuously. The continued improvement of IS capabilities will in turn provide timely and comprehensive information in an accessible format, which will allow people (employees, citizens and municipal managers) to identify and explore innovations (Cosgrove & Loucks 2015). For example, municipalities can investigate the alternative uses of mobile technologies by residents for reporting on their water use.

Levidow et al. (2014) state that the most important consideration when enhancing IS capabilities in water management is to ensure that municipal employees are working effectively and creatively with an IS. However, considerations about adequate training to use the IS should not be overlooked as this will directly impact on whether or not the IS can address the challenges of municipalities' lack of water information management (Levidow et al. 2014). Once the IS capabilities are improved, they will assist municipalities in mitigating water management challenges.

■ Towards a Conceptual Framework

Based on the literature review included in this chapter, the authors propose a conceptual framework that serves to highlight how municipalities in South Africa can investigate their IS capabilities for water management processes. Ross et al. (2010) reveal that conceptual frameworks come in various forms that can be presented in a visual form, such as a mind

map, flow diagram, or textually. How conceptual frameworks are constructed depends on their intended purpose, and they can be formed from a combination of literature, discussions, expert opinion or primary data.

The conceptual framework in this chapter has been compiled from a literature review and its intended purpose is to assist stakeholders involved with municipalities to have a holistic view of the elements that affect the effective management of water resources when incorporating IS capabilities. The presented conceptual framework comprises four core elements:

1. identify the challenges
2. determine information system capabilities
3. select a strategy
4. evaluate and monitor service delivery (cf. Figure 6.1).

The framework is presented graphically as a pie chart with supporting text. The choice of graphic representation is to convey the notion of the framework as dynamic and iterative rather than linear. The dynamic and iterative nature of the framework requires municipal stakeholders to evaluate and monitor their service delivery targets constantly in order to determine which actions are providing the desired level of service delivery. Each of the identified elements will be explained briefly and applied to the context of water resource management within municipalities.

■ Identify Challenges

Each municipality will need to conduct an analysis of their individual water management activities and resources (assets and capabilities) to identify their unique challenges. These challenges will differ from municipality to municipality and will largely be impacted by the assets and capabilities of said municipality. A number of challenges were identified from the literature (cf. Figure 6.1) and these have been generalised and
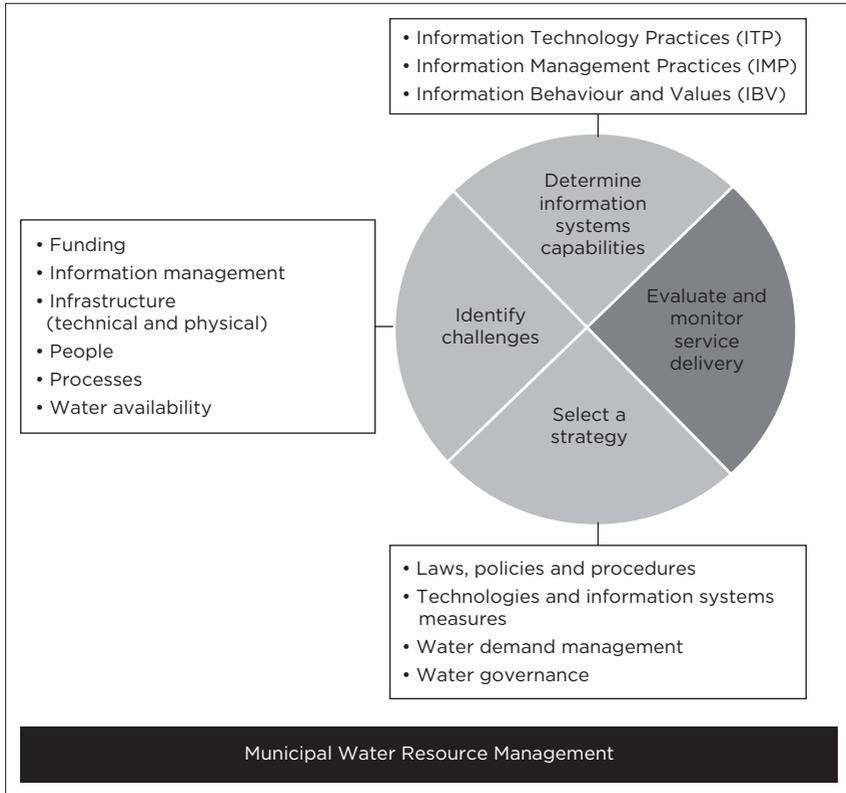
FIGURE 6.1: Conceptual framework for IS capability improvements in municipal water resource management.

depicted in the framework. Municipalities can utilise these core themes to complete a holistic identification of the challenges and to refine each of them further. This will aid in determining what actions can be taken to mitigate the risks associated with the identified challenge to the municipality's service delivery. In determining the action to take, municipal stakeholders should consider how the existing or additional IS could assist, in other words, what are the current IS capabilities.

◼ Determine Information Systems Capabilities

The level of IS capabilities will differ from one municipality to another and will be directly impacted by the challenges faced. Smaller rural municipalities may not require extensive IS capabilities, but larger metropolitan municipalities with a significant urban population will need a means to collect regular information about the status of service delivery efforts.

When determining the IS capabilities, municipalities need to concentrate on three core activities, namely, ITP, IMP and IBV. These are explained in Table 6.2 and their relevant competencies are identified. Potential ways in which municipalities can aim to improve their IS capabilities include:

- using IT to support the water business processes and management decision-making
- using technologies such as sensors, GIS and Decision Support System to collect and process water-related data
- improving the technologies available for the sharing of water-related information by employees
- changing employees' behaviour towards water information management.

This list is not exhaustive and improvements in IS capabilities can result in the following possible benefits to the municipality:

- access to real-time water management information
- improved decision-making capabilities
- water demand and supply forecasting
- accuracy in water billing processes
- increased controls and accountability in the water processes
- improved information awareness among employees.

How the municipality approaches their commitments to service delivery will be influenced by the relevant business and IS strategies that are to be followed. The focus on strategy will also influence the level of investment in initiatives to improve IS capabilities.

■ Select a Strategy

The development of a municipal strategy is influenced by existing laws and procedures. Municipality management who plan on increasing their IS capabilities to mitigate existing challenges need to align the organisational strategy with that of the IS and/or IT department so that they complement one another. If the strategies are not in harmony and the intended goal of the IS intervention is not clear, then the municipality may incur a poor return on their investment from the purchase of a given technology. It is therefore necessary to have a clear understanding of the current IS capabilities (information systems measures) and what challenges, if any, they can address.

The municipality's strategy should also outline the WDM elements that can address any identified challenges in water resource management. The constant monitoring of the water processes through water governance can provide a means to implement the necessary control mechanisms to ensure that the strategy is actioned at an operational level in the municipality.

■ Evaluate and Monitor Service Delivery

Although the *evaluate and monitor service delivery* portion of the pie chart is removed from the larger pie, it does not mean that this element is of lesser importance. The area of evaluation and monitoring is not one of the core themes of this chapter, but it is nevertheless an important concept in the public sector. If a municipality intends to work towards improving its IS capabilities, then there needs to be regular feedback regarding the impact of the actions within the municipality on service delivery. Where the feedback is negative, the municipal management can take the necessary corrective action.

There is a symbiotic relationship among all of the elements as each is associated with the goal of determining the optimum IS capabilities for the municipality, which will mitigate the identified challenges. The strategic goals of the municipality and the service

delivery expectations of the citizens that are being serviced by the municipality will highlight those challenges considered to be priorities.

◼ Implications of the Research

Municipal stakeholders at all levels of the water resource management supply chain can benefit from the knowledge provided in this chapter and the conceptual framework presented. By considering the elements of the conceptual framework, municipal stakeholders can identify areas within the municipality where IS capabilities can be improved to assist in addressing those challenges identified in water resources management.

◼ Conclusion

The focal point of this chapter was the identification of water resource management challenges affecting municipalities and how municipalities can improve their IS capabilities to address these challenges. With the help of an extensive literature review, this chapter discussed the strategies, challenges and IS capabilities associated with water resource management. Furthermore, the chapter explored the strategies that municipalities can consider when undertaking water resource management, the challenges that are experienced when ensuring that water is available to their citizens and, finally, what IS capabilities are required.

A conceptual framework based on the literature was provided for municipal stakeholders to utilise as a starting point when determining their unique challenges and to illustrate how IS capabilities can be utilised to mitigate those challenges.

◼ Acknowledgements

An Assessment of the Need for a Mentoring Model for Public Service Training Facilitators: The Case of a Training Agency at an Eastern Cape University, South Africa

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■ Introduction

The main focus of this study was on the assessment of the need for the formulation of a mentoring model. The model will be used to mentor training facilitators at Fort Hare Solutions (FHS) on leadership development training for public servants in the Eastern Cape (EC).

Emerging from a gap in the literature, it is clear that a comprehensive mentoring model for leadership development training for public service facilitators does not exist. This, combined with the results from the quantitative and qualitative data analysis in this chapter, is what has necessitated the development of a comprehensive model to suit the mentoring needs of FHS training facilitators.

The legal context and framework for the implementation of a mentoring programme include the South African constitution of 1996, the *Labour Relations Act* 66 of 1995, the *Skills Development Act* 97 of 1998 and the *Employee Equity Act* 56 of 1998. On the other hand, training is regulated by a legislative and policy framework governing human resource development (HRD), a strategic framework for HRD in the public sector and a conceptual base for transforming the public sector.

Starr (2014:n.p.) defines *mentoring* 'as a distinct relationship where one person (the mentor) supports the learning, development and progress of another person (mentee)'. Mentoring is a tool for managing change in organisations and an instrument for boosting personal and professional development (Szczyglak 2016).

According to Andrews and Chilton (2000), mentorship preparation is accomplished 'in a variety of ways, from observing

how others function to more formal arrangements such as mentor training courses', but the key elements of mentorship are teaching, support and assessment of the mentee's performance. Andrews and Chilton (2000) maintain that no individual in any specific field of work has been able to be competent and independent without having had the opportunity to be mentored, guided and supported by those who already had the know-how in that specific field. There has to be a partnership between the mentor and the mentee. Their arguments reflect the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, which declares that all obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled because they are basic values and principles governing public administration. These characterise the core pillars upon which public administration is effectively hinged on. Section 195(1)(h) of Chapter 10 of the constitution principally pinpoints the all-important phenomena of public human resource management (HRM) when it posits that excellent and meritorious HRM and career-development practices must be cultivated to maximise human potential.

Accordingly, some training is required by law (Blanchard & Thacker 2013). In other cases, even though training is not legally required, it makes good legal sense to provide the training (Blanchard & Thacker 2013). Because of the important role played by training and development in South Africa's endeavour to become a competitive nation, the government has passed a number of acts in this regard over the years (Warnich et al. 2015). The legislation and frameworks include, *inter alia*:

- Constitution of the Republic of South Africa
- *Skills Development Act* (Act 97 of 1999)
- *South African Qualifications Authority Act*, No. 58 of 1995, now replaced by the *National Qualifications Framework Act*, No. 67 of 2008
- *Skills Development Act*, No. 97 of 1998, now amended by the *Skills Development Amendment Act*, No. 37 of 2008
- *Skills Development Levies Act*, No. 9 of 1999.

These legislative frameworks play a pivotal role in HRD (Mello 2008).

In addition to the above acts, policies and strategies, there are other strategic frameworks like the HRD Strategy, sector developmental plans, the National Skills Development Strategy and skills development legislations, which offer opportunities for improving skills, or upskilling (Tshilongamulenzhe & Coetzee 2013). According to the Department of Labour (2007), these policies ensure:

> That different industries enter value-added markets to stimulate demand [*for skills*], employers act in their long-term interest, and there are incentives for [*organisations*] to [*develop*] both [*high-level*] and basic skills. (p. 67)

The scale of the training and development challenge is still daunting to most employers and the task of appropriate skills development awaits all South African workplaces (McGrath et al. 2004). Accordingly, all these legislations have far-reaching implications for education and training and development efforts in South Africa (Tshilongamulenzhe 2012):

> Owing to the country's history, no single model of skills development is suitable for implementation in South Africa (DTI, 2006), but rather an amalgamation of the three global models, taking what is relevant and proven from each in order to maximise skills development. The National Skills Development Strategy is a well-conceived strategy with the potential to move South Africa forward in the monumental task of addressing the country's skills shortages. (p. 81)

In line with Ijeoma's (2013) recommendation and in response to the training requirements in South Africa, the *Skills Development Act*, No. 97 of 1998, was introduced to address the imbalances and to improve the general performance of the employees. In trying to put the Act into practice, in 2002, the EC Provincial Administration Office of the Premier initiated a transversal training programme, which was aimed at training public officials in all six districts in the EC province.

Under a transversal training programme offered by the then-Transversal Training Management Agency (TTMA), a continuing education unit based at the University of Fort Hare, public servants in different EC government departments had to attend Short Learning Programmes (SLPs) that focus on critical and scarce transversal skills in fulfilment of the *Skills Development Act*.

On 01 July 2012, TTMA's name changed to FHS (Pty) Limited, which is a profit-making continuing education agency. The purpose is to be a premier solutions provider in South Africa by building a reputation for innovation, excellence in the quality and the uniqueness of its solutions. At present, FHS has more than 40 accredited courses and is seeking to expand this number into several other areas of expertise. FHS is a broad-based organisation whose focus and expertise lies in human capital training and development as one of the five main areas.

■ Relevance of the Study

The premise of the FHS programme is best described by Lomenick's (2013 cited in Masha 2016) leadership framework, which outlines the development of leaders who are optimistic about the future, focused on the best in people, always content (never satisfied), consumed with making tomorrow better than today, embrace change, include other people in their vision and, finally, who have personally bought in, that is, the vision is 'inside' them. The Postgraduate Diploma in Leadership (PGDL) modules and module purpose statements are tabulated in Table 7.1.

A mentoring model would come in handy to assist in the presentation of the envisaged PGDL in that the model covers aspects such as the presentation of training programmes for leadership development, the necessary competencies required

TABLE 7.1: Modules in the Postgraduate Diploma in Leadership to be presented by Fort Hare Solutions.

Sequence	Modules	Module purpose statements
1	Leadership evaluation, assessment and development	To develop the cognitive skills that will enable learners to formulate a personal leadership development plan
2	Interpersonal skills for leaders	To develop an understanding of own personal preferences, interpersonal behaviour and leadership style and the impact of these on relationships in the current working environment with the objective of making required adjustments
3	Leadership and management for change	To develop visionary leaders who are able to bring about sustained change
4	Team leadership	To develop and enhance learners' understanding and ability to apply the concept of team leadership
5	Research methods for leadership development	To conduct a leadership development research project
6	Policy and strategy formulation and implementation	To develop the cognitive and practical skills to formulate and implement policy and strategy by considering the relevant principles and practices
7	Programme and project management for 21st century leaders	To develop the cognitive and practical abilities to understand, implement and manage complex programmes and projects
8	Financial management and oversight for leaders	To develop the cognitive and practical skills to plan, prepare, review and analyse budgets

for training facilitators and a framework for the implementation of the mentoring model.

■ Research Purpose and Aim

According to Creswell (2014:177), 'mixed methods purpose statements contains the overall intent of the study […] and rationale of incorporating both strands to study the research problem'. Following the guideline offered by Creswell (2014), the following statement of intent fits this study: This study investigated the needs of FHS training facilitators regarding mentoring on leadership development training as well as the necessary competencies and professionalism of

training facilitators. This was followed by recommending a mentoring programme or model, which shall be utilised by training facilitators at FHS to build or to keep their competitive advantage. Our objectives were:

1. To establish the needs of FHS training facilitators in terms of mentoring on presenting training programmes for leadership development to public servants.
2. To establish the needs of FHS training facilitators in terms of mentoring on the necessary competencies and professionalism of training facilitators who present leadership development training to public servants.
3. To develop a mentoring model or system that would lead towards effective and professional leadership development training.

■ Research Question

To achieve the aim of this study, the main research question was posed as: What are the mentoring needs of FHS training facilitators regarding mentoring on leadership development training for public servants? In particular, however, the researcher sought to know the following:

1. What model should be adopted to mentor FHS training facilitators?
2. What guidelines should be formulated to operationalise a model to mentor FHS training facilitators on leadership development training?
3. How does mentoring contribute to the effective training goals of FHS training facilitators?

■ Research Problem

This section discusses the leadership challenges in South African institutions that need to be addressed through leadership development training. Importantly, training facilitators have been noted to lack adequate skills to deliver the proposed PGDL, as

well as access to mentoring. The statements of the subproblems are presented as follows.

- Subproblem One: There exists a need for mentoring training facilitators regarding presenting training programmes for leadership development to public servants.
- Subproblem Two: There exists a need for mentoring training facilitators regarding the necessary competencies and professionalism of training facilitators who present leadership development training to public servants.
- Subproblem Three: There exists a need for the development of a mentoring model or system that would effectively lead towards professionalism of leadership development training for FHS training facilitators.

These problems are detailed in the following statements.

☐ Mentoring

There is a huge interest in the concept of mentoring both locally and internationally, which clearly shows that the matter is currently enjoying great attention (Meyer 2007). There is also great enthusiasm on the part of mentors and coaches alike, with the realisation that mentoring and coaching, if properly implemented, can yield significant benefits for South African organisations (Meyer 2007). Meyer (2007) opines that more than 80% of the nation's current problems can be resolved through mentoring and coaching.

An investigation of 151 studies on formal mentoring by Hansford, Tennet and Ehrich (2002, cited in Potgieter 2011):

> Found that 67.5% yielded positive outcomes as a result of mentoring and 24.5% reported mixed positive and negative outcomes. Together, more than 90% of the studies showed that mentoring had at least some positive effect on the [*mentee*], mentor or organisation. (p. 65)

Research has documented a number of positive career-oriented, psychosocial and organisational outcomes facilitated

TABLE 7.2: Benefits to companies that provided mentoring to employees.

Benefits to companies	Improvements (%)
Productivity	53
Quality	48
Organisational strength	48
Customer service	39
Reducing customer complaints	34
Retaining managers who received coaching	32

Source: Business Wire (2001); Meyer (2007).

by mentoring relationships. Nonetheless, despite the importance of this and other benefits of mentoring, according to Meyer and Fourie (2004) and Meyer (2007) (Table 7.2), there is a lack of a model to undertake this exercise at FHS.

At the moment, there is a lack of mentoring in terms of presenting training programmes for leadership development for public servants. In addition, there is a lack of mentoring in terms of the necessary competencies and professionalism of training facilitators who present leadership development training to public servants. Therefore, this study investigated the need for a mentoring programme for FHS training facilitators in terms of presenting leadership development training to public servants and the necessary competencies and professionalism of training facilitators.

☐ Training

According to Masha (2014), as opposed to the general, erroneous public view, it should not be viewed that for an SLP to take place the only components needed are a training facilitator, trainees, a laptop, a data projector, stationery, catering, ablution facilities and a training venue.

There are several reasons why training produces disappointing results, notable among them that there is a general lack of training skills among some training facilitators (Reilly 1979).

Rothwell (2008) points out that it is not a secret that some people who work as training and learning practitioners do not possess formal degrees or other relevant accredited and certified qualifications. Most of them lack a solid grounding in adult learning theory, practice and principles. This causes problems because there is more to training others than simply 'throwing grab bags of facts at them' (Rothwell 2008). It is not disputable that good training facilitators should possess an excellent grasp of how to train adults, how andragogy is different from pedagogy and how training young adults is different from training older adults (Rothwell 2008).

It is for this reason that Prince and Felder (2006) acknowledge the complexity of these issues, which imply that adult educators in an instructional setting need to rethink, reinvent and redesign the way they teach because a (Fischer 2000):

> Lifelong learning [*process*] is more than training. Individuals, groups and organisations need to personally engage in and experience these new forms [*and*] use their creativity and imagination to explore alternative ways of [*teaching and*] learning. (n.p.)

This demand necessitated the undertaking in this chapter.

■ Research Methodology and Procedures

Considering the research objectives of this research project, qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to establish the perceptions of training facilitators at FHS regarding mentoring on the presentation of training programmes for leadership development and the necessary competencies and professionalism of training facilitators for training public servants.

This study used a case study approach, with FHS being the organisation being studied. Data were collected from closed-ended questionnaires and from an interview protocol using semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires were used in this study

because they were 'easier and quicker for respondents to answer, the answers [of] different respondents [were] easier to compare, the answers [were] easier to code and [to analyse] statistically', there were no irrelevant or confused answers to questions (Carr 2005:140; Neuman 2014) and they proved to be relatively economical (Denscombe 2014; Du Plooy-Cilliers 2014; McMillan & Schumacher 2006) in that they allowed the researcher to collect large quantities of data at a low cost in comparison to other methods (Bertram & Christiansen 2015; Denscombe 2014; Kumar 2005). As an advanced mixed methods design (Creswell 2014), the explanatory sequential mixed method design was implemented in two phases where one approach was preceded by the other, both being independent of each other (Creswell 2014; Leedy & Ormond 2014) (see Figure 7.1).

In the first phase of the explanatory sequential mixed method, the researcher collected quantitative data using closed-ended questionnaires (Creswell 2014; Leedy & Ormond 2014), analysed the results to yield only numbers in the form of percentages (Leedy & Ormond 2014) and then used the results to build into the second phase. In the second phase (the qualitative phase), participants were asked to describe what they were thinking or feeling about the programme, using an interview protocol (in semi-structured interviews). A compelling reason to start with a quantitative approach that was followed by a stronger
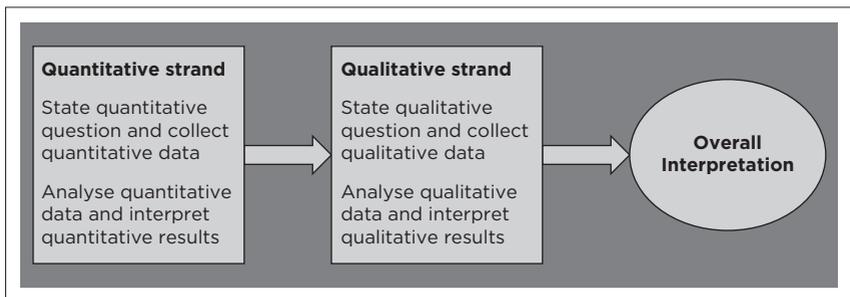
Source: Creswell (2014); Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).
FIGURE 7.1: Example of an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design.

qualitative approach was to get statistical data on the three constructs used in the quantitative phase and to follow it up with deeper descriptions of participants' views in the qualitative phase. The overall intention of having the qualitative data was to explain in detail the initial quantitative results (Creswell 2014) and to give the researcher greater substance and meaning to the numbers (Leedy & Ormond 2014).

Creswell (2014) offers three ways to merge the data in Mixed Methods Research (MMR), namely, (1) a side-by-side approach, (2) data transformation and (3) joint display of data. The researcher in this study used the side-by-side comparison to merge data. In these comparisons, the researcher first reported the quantitative statistical results and then discussed the qualitative findings to confirm the statistical results (Creswell 2014). Out of the three ways of integrating data in the MMR, namely, merging, connecting or embedding (Creswell 2014), the two databases in this study were connected in that the analysis of one data set was used to lead into and build into the second data set.

Out of the various types of sampling designs used by mixed methods researchers, this study used the identical samples design. This was done because this study utilised an MMR approach, which took place in two phases (first quantitative and then quantitative). An identical relationship was used in this study, whereby the same respondents were used in both phases.

To ensure fairness in selection of respondents, the six respondents were identified from FHS Trainer for Transversal Training and Municipal Finance and tagged TF1, TF2, TF3, TF4, TF5 and TF6. The above convention or format reflects ethical convenience, which enabled the researcher to refrain from using the respondents' real names when reporting on the data. This was done to protect the identity of the respondents in accordance with Creswell's (2014) view that researchers should avoid disclosing information about respondents as it may harm the respondents.

■ Data Analysis

The emphasis in this section is on data analysis and on the interpretation of both quantitative data obtained through questionnaires and qualitative data collected through interviews. According to Zikmund et al. (2013):

> Data analysis is the application of reasoning to understand the data that has been gathered. In its simplest form, analysis may involve determining consistent patterns and [*summarising*] the relevant details revealed in the investigation. (n.p.)

In the quantitative part of this chapter, the researcher analysed data and presented the results in the form of simple descriptive statistics in graphical representations. Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg (2014) caution that statistics used to describe data need to be the correct and most appropriate ones and presented in clear language as well as in numerical formulation. The graphic presentation of data in this study afforded significant insights. Other than graphic presentation, text was used in this study to explain the data.

On the other hand, data collection in the qualitative approach typically goes (Skhosana 2013):

> Hand in hand [*with analysis*] in order to build a consistent understanding of the data. The researcher is guided by initial concepts and interpretations in the process of reducing, organising and giving meaning to the collected data. (p. 70)

Punch (2005) asserts that methods of data analysis need to be systematic, disciplined and able to be analysed and described. According to Miller and Crabtree (1992, cited in Terre Blanche & Kelly 2014), there are several qualitative analytical traditions that come under the umbrella of interpretative analysis, which include phenomenology, grounded theory and thematic content analysis.

In this chapter, content analysis was used. The interview protocols were read several times to enable the researcher to

grasp an in-depth understanding of issues in the study. Data were analysed for the spontaneous emergence of themes or natural meaning units; themes reflecting transformation of meaning units were synthesised into a suited structure and integrated into a single general structure.

■ Ethical Considerations

Approval to conduct research needs to be obtained from the relevant research ethics committee(s) (Babbie & Mouton 2014; Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole 2014; Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg 2014; Creswell 2014). Accordingly, the first ethical issue observed was to get an ethical clearance for the main study where this chapter is derived from. Because this was an academic research study that was conducted at the University of Fort Hare, the researcher sought approval and clearance to carry out research from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare before any data were collected. This led to the issuance of an ethical clearance certificate (Certificate reference number: IJEO51SMAS01). Moreover, other principles based on the human rights that need to be protected in research, namely, the right to self-determination, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality, fair treatment and to being protected from discomfort and harm (Brink et al. 2014) were observed throughout the study.

■ Findings

This section deals with qualitative and quantitative findings, namely, (1) findings of questions relating to the purpose of mentoring, (2) findings of questions relating to knowledge of presenting training programmes on leadership development, and (3) findings of questions relating to requisite competencies and professionalism of the training facilitator.

■ Relating to the Purpose of Mentoring

In seeking the purpose of mentoring, the questionnaire used a Likert scale. According to Immelman (2013):

> With the Likert scale, respondents indicate their attitudes by checking how strongly they agree or disagree with carefully constructed [*sentences*], ranging from very negative to very positive attitudes towards some object. (p. 26)

Therefore, to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements regarding need for a mentoring programme for presenting a training programme for leadership development, training facilitators were requested to respond by marking an *X* against the appropriate number, on a scale from 1 to 5, 5 denoting 'strongly agree', 4 'agree', 3 'neutral', 2 'disagree', and 1 'strongly disagree'. The results appear in Chart 7.1.
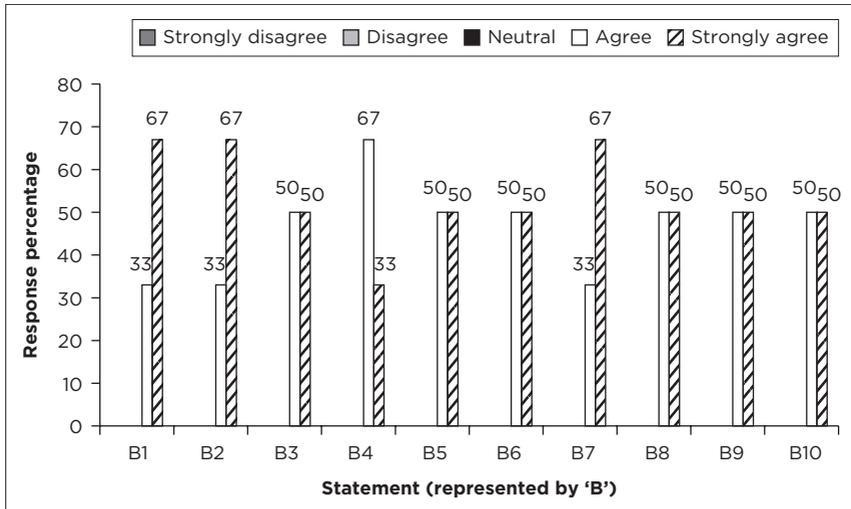
Chart 7.1: Respondents' responses on the purpose of mentoring.

☐ **Implications**

Chart 7.1 shows that all (100%) of the respondents agreed (agree + strongly agree on each questionnaire item) on the purpose of mentoring. They all agreed that mentoring:

- has a place at FHS
- is different from coaching
- enhances the satisfaction and commitment of employees
- provides employees 'with a sense of belonging [and] engagement'
- increases employees' 'sense of empowerment'
- increases 'one's sense of job satisfaction and personal effectiveness'
- provides both learning and socio-emotional learning to the mentor–mentee relationship
- offers role-modelling, counselling, as well as 'confirmation and friendship, which help the [mentee] develop a sense of professional identity and competence'
- provides advice, career planning and instruction in social, technical and managerial skills
- provides mentees with career-enhancing functions, 'exposure and visibility'
- '[offers] challenging work or protection, all of which help the [mentees] to establish a role, [learn] the ropes and prepare for advancement' (Ritchie & Genoni 2002:n.p.).

The implication of these findings is that FHS training facilitators are aware of the importance of mentoring.

After getting statistical results of 100% of the respondents agreeing on the importance of mentoring, the second phase of this MMR study intended to establish if the same respondents would require mentoring in terms of presenting leadership development training. This would fulfil Objective 1 of this study, namely, to establish the needs of FHS training facilitators in terms of mentoring on presenting training programmes for leadership development to public servants.

Therefore, in addition to the results in the quantitative approach, it was deemed necessary to probe additional questions

during the semi-structured interviews to establish if respondents required mentoring. All the respondents indicated a dire need for mentoring, which fulfils Objective 1 of this study.

Because 100% of the respondents indicated that mentoring has a place at FHS because of the benefits embedded in it, it is clear that there is a need for mentoring at FHS. Notably also, all the participants indicated that they would require mentoring; hence, this necessitated the inclusion of a specific section that deals with mentoring issues.

■ Relating to Knowledge of Presenting Training Programmes on Leadership Development

In this section, the aim was to discover the frequency of training facilitators receiving mentoring on leadership development training from FHS. The results appear in Chart 7.2.
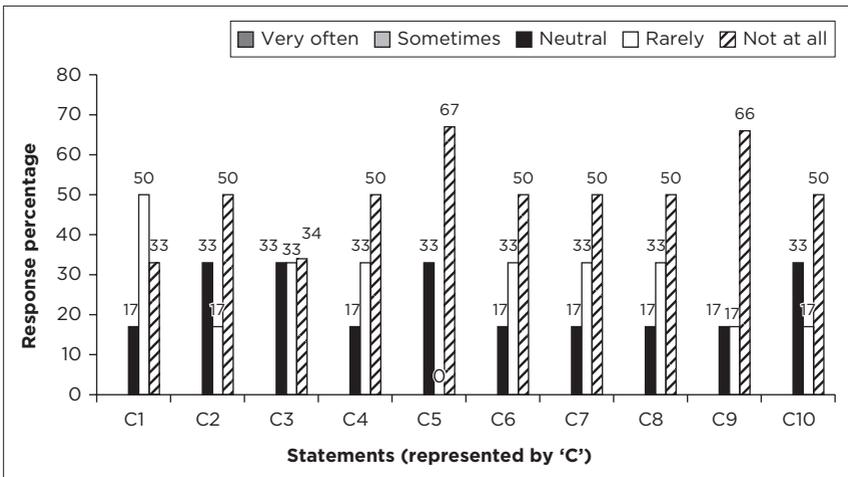
Chart 7.2: Quantitative results on knowledge of presenting training programmes on leadership development.

☐ Implications

Chart 7.2 shows that the majority (83%) of the participants disagreed (rarely + not at all) that they received training from FHS on using role plays and audio-visuals during leadership development trainings. In addition, 67% of respondents disagreed (rarely + not at all) that they received skills from training programmes from FHS in the following areas:

- using case studies
- using activities, including icebreakers and energisers, to facilitate leadership development
- using PowerPoint slides to provide an angle of professionalism
- preparing handouts
- conducting group work and assessment in the form of a portfolio of evidence.

The implication of these findings is that the respondents were not yet well-equipped to provide interactive leadership development training. At this stage, the questionnaire only intended to get statistical data. Whether they would require mentoring on proactive training methods was established in the results of the semi-structured interviews below.

Just like in Chart 7.2, the majority of respondents agreed that they did not receive mentoring on training methods for leadership development training. What came out strongly, however, is that the majority of participants indicated a need for mentoring on the following training approaches and methods:

- using proactive training methods
- the use of creativity in training
- the use of technology in training (audio-visuals and online facilitation)
- learning styles to be taken into account
- retention of learning
- andragogic principles
- supportive learning environments in training
- using icebreakers (in-house programmes)

- case studies (off-the-job programmes)
- using role play (off-the-job programmes)
- wilderness or adventure training (contemporary method).

■ Relating to Requisite Competencies and Professionalism of Training Facilitators

In this section, the aim was to test the quality of the skills and competencies of training facilitators at FHS. The results are presented in Chart 7.3.

☐ Implications

Chart 7.3 shows that the majority (83%) of the respondents rated their competency levels as good because of their experience as FHS training facilitator in the following areas:

- encouraging group members to elaborate
- clarifying or illustrating what they have been saying
- highlighting salient aspects of discussions by recapturing the highlights of a previous session.
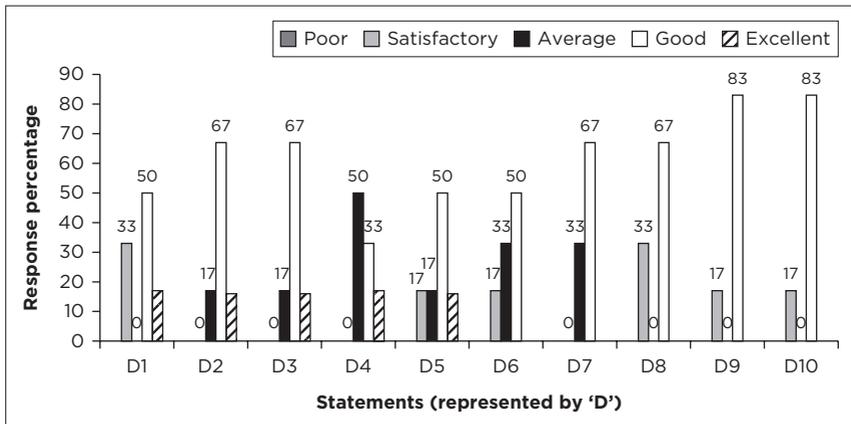
Chart 7.3: Quantitative results on the requisite skills and competencies of training facilitators.

Furthermore, 67% of the respondents rated their competency levels as good because of their experience as FHS training facilitators in the following areas:

- adjusting, acting and reacting according to circumstances of the group procedures by being proactive, supportive, serious or light-hearted as the occasion demands, but always in command of the situation
- summarising, interpreting and concluding their groups' performance during discussions
- honestly and directly indicating what they observe as taking place in the group and encouraging trainees to verbalise their input to create a need for more information about the content of the message.

Moreover, 33% of the respondents rated their competency levels as satisfactory because of their experience as FHS training facilitators in creating a medium for open communication between themselves and the group, thus enabling them to acquire information and encouraging group members to continue talking and to verbalise their feelings and ideas freely.

The implication of these findings is that the respondents seemed to be at a good stand in terms of the requisite competencies and professionalism required of training facilitators. Both quantitative and qualitative results were meant to achieve Objective 2 of the study, which sought to establish the needs of FHS training facilitators in terms of mentoring the competencies and professionalism of the training facilitators who present leadership development training to public servants. Because respondents indicated strengths in this area, little emphasis was laid on this area in this study. Most respondents were seasoned training facilitators in other fields, which seems to have given them exposure to the competencies tested in this section. However, most respondents expressed the need for the understanding of professionalism.

■ Overall Implications

In view of these findings, it is real that there is a need for mentoring on leadership development training, and a mentoring model for leadership development training of public service training facilitators has to be developed.

This study has created a framework for guiding model development. The framework for guiding the model development of this study was based on the two models selected by the researcher, namely, the reflective practitioner model, which improves practice, and the competency-based model, which provides structure.

■ Conclusion

The purpose of this study originated with the need for a mentoring model for public service training facilitators at FHS. A comprehensive mentoring model was created to address this gap. The mentoring model was based on a theoretical foundation and provided direction for incorporating andragogic factors and identifying the importance of the role of proactive training methods, technology and creativity, at a time when old training methods are being replaced by contemporary methods.

The literature highlighted the need to focus on a mentoring model that addressed the respondents' needs in the training fraternity. Findings from both the quantitative and qualitative approaches established that the proposed model is essential. Based on the findings of this study, it may be concluded that the mentoring model addressed the need for a structured approach to mentoring training facilitators at FHS. The author therefore proposes that the mentoring model created in this study should provide a valuable guide to mentees and mentors who will be in charge of mentoring training facilitators at FHS.

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Index

This book is a contribution to the ASSADPAM Book Series of AOSIS Scholarly Books, entitled *Culture, Philosophies and Reforms in Public Administration for the Globalising World: A Reflection on Local, Regional and International Perspectives*. The research covers countries such South Africa, Malawi, Nigeria, Kenya and BRICS countries. Researchers in academia who work in the field of public administration and management will find the structure and content of the book as exceptionally relevant. This includes lessons in leadership and management of national agency for food and drug administration, service delivery challenges, the utilisation of information systems and the improvements in municipal water resource management, the need for a mentoring model for public service training facilitators, theoretical and empirical relevance of new public service reforms.

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From a knowledge contribution standpoint, the book makes an original contribution. For instance, the book examines ways of mainstreaming whistleblowing into corruption legislation in Nigeria. It provides lessons for South Africa and other African countries. There is little research on twin cities in local government studies in South Africa. This book examines the use of work procedures to enhance municipal collaborations using town twinning strategies. This is an innovative approach to alternative service delivery.

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