**CHAPTER 1:          RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

## 1.1     Introduction

With more than 38 million people living with HIV/AIDS and about 4.3 million people infected in 2006 alone, the HIV/AIDS epidemic has become one of the highest priorities on the global agenda.  About 65% of the world population living with HIV/AIDS live in sub-Saharan Africa.  Sub-Saharan Africa also lags behind in achieving international development goals and the burden of HIV/AIDS further exacerbates the cycle of poverty and inequality.  The international community promised large increases in funding as well as further increases in the future.  This aid is required to resolve the rising humanitarian crisis and suggests immediate large-scale acceleration in public sector spending.  The question is: how well would developing countries respond to the new, sometimes uncertain flows of aid for a single disease?  The scaling up of the financing of the AIDS epidemic has also compelled the donor community to review its own donor practices.

This chapter will focus on the character, objectives and purpose of the study.  The methodology of the information gathering for the thesis will be discussed.  Key concepts and terms associated with public administration, public financial management, HIV/AIDS and aid architecture will be defined.  In conclusion, a short overview of the framework of the study will be provided.

## 1.2     Theoretical framework

In the early 1980s AIDS was for the first time recognised as a disease and since then it has spread throughout the world.  The understanding of the drivers and determinants of the epidemic is imperative when undertaking a study of the impact of HIV/AIDS on people.  The AIDS epidemic has resulted in exceptional levels of illness and death among the young adult population and has many economic and social implications.

### 1.2.1 HIV/AIDS - a special problem

Although the major cause of HIV transmission, namely unprotected heterosexual intercourse by infected people, has been known for more than 25 years, people are being infected daily.  In the developing world, and especially in sub-Saharan Africa, tuberculosis is a co-infection that often results in death.  The AIDS epidemic is not homogenous and there is a difference between the rich and poor countries, and even between sub-Saharan and North Africa.  With the onset of antiretroviral treatment (ART) the disease has further been polarised, with rich countries providing ART and AIDS being viewed as a chronic disease, and with people dying in poor countries because of poor nutrition and co-infections.

In the developing world, most infections occur among young adults, people who are sexually, socially and economically active.  The importance of this epidemiological attribute is that people who are most susceptible to HIV infection are also most socially and economically active.  The severe illness and premature deaths in this age group have a significant bearing on the economic and social impact of the AIDS epidemic.

### 1.2.2 HIV/AIDS is a long-wave event with stages of impact

HIV infection is not easy to detect and initial symptoms can be flu-like, many people find out they are infected only when they become ill with opportunistic infections.  By this time, many years may have passed and many people may have been infected.  When a large number of people start presenting themselves at hospitals and clinics for diagnosis and treatment, the probability is that the epidemic was already well advanced.  This long latent period that the virus has, is called a long-wave event.  The epidemic also presents in stages or waves of impact.  The first wave is HIV infection, the second wave is AIDS sickness and death, the next wave is the impact of the first two waves.  By the third wave, namely impact, as many as 14 years could have passed.  The epidemic hits people hard in the sense that it takes a long time to strike people down, and by that time little can be done to save people's lives.  The impact wave often includes issues such as poverty, orphans, inheritance rights,

grandparents that look after grandchildren, children leaving school to take care of their sick parents, and abuse of orphaned children. At macro-economic, health and social level, the health systems are overwhelmed by AIDS-sick people, economically active people dying, leave a gap in the human resources, and the social system buckles under demands for assistance.

### 1.2.3 Key concepts of susceptibility and vulnerability

The African AIDS epidemic cannot easily be explained by using developing or economic indicators. Richer countries such as South Africa and Botswana have severe epidemics while poorer African countries seem to have the epidemic under control. This discrepancy is an indication that the epidemic is extremely complex with social, economic and cultural reasons for the spread of the epidemic (Barnett & Whiteside, 2006:99).

The concepts of *susceptibility* and *vulnerability* are key in the study of HIV/AIDS. According to Barnett and Whiteside (1999:3), "susceptibility is the term used to describe the individual, group and general social predisposition to infection" and "vulnerability describes those features of a social or economic entity making it more or less likely that excess morbidity and mortality associated with disease will have adverse impacts upon that unit".

### 1.2.4 Impact difficult to determine

The socio-economic impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic cannot be measured with existing economic tools, since it is difficult to determine. The macro-economic impact of the AIDS epidemic on a middle-income country such as South Africa is relatively small and most of the effects of the epidemic are visible at personal and community level. In most of the poorer countries, the number of infected people continues to rise. In countries such as China, India and Russia, the epidemic is expanding but not much attention is given to impact.

## 1.2.5 The Millennium Development Goals, HIV/AIDS and the new aid architecture

To attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of the Millennium Declaration of the United Nations, special attention needs to be given to HIV/AIDS. Should the AIDS pandemic not be addressed appropriately, all the MDG might be in jeopardy. The Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness, harmonisation and alignment does not make any provision for safeguarding funds for the mitigation of the impact of HIV/AIDS in recipient countries. The United Nations' UNAIDS has made it clear that to effectively attain any development goals in the developing world, mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS in all development activities needs to be done.

## 1.3  Purpose of the study and problem statement

The HIV/AIDS epidemic in sub-Saharan Africa is both a tragedy to individuals, families and communities and a threat to sustainable development. The AIDS epidemic has reversed many development gains that were made over the past 50 years. During the same period, official development assistance (ODA) has grown into a multi-billion US $ endeavour of the rich developed countries to assist the poor developing countries to rise from poverty and attain economic welfare. Over the years, the donor community changed the aid modalities often in search of a solution to provide ODA. Since 2001, the funding towards financing HIV/AIDS has increased dramatically, with more bilateral and private sector donors joining in the effort to fight the AIDS epidemic. International goal-setting has created international pressure on both donors and developing countries to achieve the set goals.

For developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, HIV/AIDS must be effectively resolved. Given the history of the problems of dealing with the AIDS pandemic in Africa at political and economic level, it was and is a struggle to secure funds for AIDS activities. The donor community, in conjunction with the developing countries, has developed new aid architecture to make both parties accountable for results.

Aid for HIV/AIDS is mostly going to countries that are dependent on aid to achieve most if not all of their development goals. The multiplicity of funding modalities in the donor field makes the absorption and spending of aid a challenge. The ideal is that aid should be absorbed and spent on the appropriate development programmes. The European Commission and Group of Eight (G8), the largest donors to HIV/AIDS initiatives have a total of 40 different agencies to channel funding, and adding up the other bilateral donors and private sector donors, the situation for the recipient of aid can be overwhelming. The new aid architecture, which is based on harmonisation, co-ordination, alignment and managing for results, is difficult to implement with vertical initiatives such as the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), the Global Fund to fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (Global Fund) and the World Bank's Multi-country HIV/AIDS Programme (Saasa, 2007). The challenge is to make the available money work effectively for recipient countries.

Donor aid is often given on the assumption that the recipient country has adequate capacity in the government to manage all aspects of development: planning, fiscal management, programme design, financial control and budgeting, project implementation, accountability and monitoring and evaluation (United Nations Secretariat, 1995: Section 4). The national capacity influences the ability to absorb donor aid and the role of public administration in the national development programmes cannot be over-emphasised.

To attain the Millennium Development Goals of the Millennium Declaration of the United Nations, special attention needs to be given to HIV/AIDS. Should the AIDS pandemic not be dealt with properly almost all the MDG might be in jeopardy. The Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness, harmonisation and alignment does not make any provision for safeguarding funds for the mitigation of the impact of HIV/AIDS in recipient countries. The United Nations' UNAIDS has made it clear that to effectively attain any development goals in the developing world, mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS in all development activities needs to be done.

Conceptually, mainstreaming HIV/AIDS means to bring HIV/AIDS to the centre of the development agenda, which requires change at individual, departmental and organisational level:

- What is the impact of AIDS-related illnesses on society's capacity to achieve development goals? Therefore, what measure can be put into place to minimise these impacts?
- What is the impact of AIDS-related deaths on the society's capacity to achieve development goals? Therefore, what measure can be put into place to minimise these impacts?

In terms of donor agencies mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS in development work can be rephrased in the following questions:

- What are the possible impacts of HIV/AIDS on the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals?
- What possible effects can the new aid architecture have in the national response to HIV/AIDS?

From this overview emerges the research question:

Will the changing international official development assistance environment have an influence on financing the response to HIV/AIDS in the developing countries of southern Africa?  The topic of the thesis flows from the research question:

**The public policy impact of the changing official development assistance programme in financing the HIV/AIDS response in southern Africa**

## 1.4    Research design and methodology

This is a qualitative and descriptive study, based on a literature review utilising a deductive approach in the fields of public administration, public financial management, development, development administration, HIV/AIDS and official development assistance (ODA).  Through the deductive methodology, with a clear conceptual framework in mind, the gathering of data has been systematised and meaningfully interpreted through analysis (Mouton & Marais, 1996:103).

## 1.5    Benefits, limitations and assumptions

This study has the possibility to deliver some academic input into the field of public administration, specifically in policy analysis in public financial management and sustainable development.  The study also has the potential to make a contribution to the method of financing HIV/AIDS programmes at national level. History has shown that there is very little evidence of southern African governments succeeding in managing the response to AIDS, both from their own budgets and donor funds, in a manner to 'make the money work' for the epidemic.  Should policies be implemented effectively, the ultimate beneficiaries are the people of southern Africa whose lives will be improved.

Nine southern African countries, namely Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe, and the donors working with HIV/AIDS were investigated in terms of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, human development indicators and political and financial status.  The developing countries in southern Africa are struggling to manage donor funding and donors are struggling to co-ordinate funding efforts among themselves.

Some of the assumptions made, are:
- Donors would be keen to align their financial and programmatic processes with their partner countries;
- Donors do not have their own agendas but support the partner countries' development goals;
- Development is good for people living in underdeveloped countries;
- Partner countries want to fight the AIDS epidemic at all levels of society;
- Partner countries would be keen to welcome donor funds and donor input in their programmes; and
- Information gathered from the United Nations is correct.

There are many limitations to this study but only a few will be discussed.  The fields of public administration, development and official development assistance are wide and this study does not claim to cover all aspects of these topics. It is also not

possible in a broad study like this to go into any depth in individual countries' development and public financial issues.

## 1.6 Data collection

### 1.6.1 Literature review

The literature review consists of books, journal articles, legislature, reports, conference papers and websites. The literature review forms the theoretical foundation of the study from which empirical interpretations will be developed. Information gained from personal participation in national and international forums will also form part of the literature review.

### 1.6.2 Conferences

A paper titled *An analysis of the fiscal issues of HIV/AIDS as an epidemic: A South African Perspective* based on findings from the literature review was presented at the 6th annual conference of the South African Association for Public Administration and Management in 2005. Another paper titled *The environment in which public administration functions in sub-Saharan Africa* was presented at the 7th annual conference of the South African Association for Public Administration and Management in 2006. This paper was also included in the conference proceedings edition of the *Journal of Public Administration* (September 2006).

### 1.6.3 Legislation

By promulgating the bill S*hared responsibility - Sweden's policy for global development*, Sweden was the first country in the world to present an integrated policy for global development. Since the implementation of this bill, the Swedish government has decided to revitalise Swedish policy towards Africa for the 21st century by focusing on sub-Saharan Africa for a period of 5-15 years. Issues such as natural resources, human resources, demography, economy, and migration, as well as cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, gender, peacekeeping and business co-

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operation were investigated. Contributions were made to the draft policy framework on demography, economy and HIV/AIDS

### 1.6.4  2006 High-level Meeting on AIDS – Uniting the world against AIDS

UNAIDS, consisting of UNHCR, UNICEF, WFP, UNFPA, UNODC, ILO, UNESCO, WHO and the World Bank, conducted a high-level meeting at the United Nations in New York from 31 May to 2 June 2006.  The deliberations among the participants, consisting of AIDS ambassadors and decision-makers, were on universal access to treatment of AIDS, scaling up HIV prevention, treatment and care and support.  The author contributed to the Norwegian AIDS ambassador's notes by researching and providing information on the HIV/AIDS situation in southern Africa.

### 1.6.5  Meetings of the Joint Norwegian and Swedish Regional HIV/AIDS Team for Africa

The author contributed to and participated in meetings of the Joint Norwegian and Swedish Regional HIV/AIDS Team for Africa during the research period.  These regional meetings take place at least once a year and was joined by the Royal Netherlands and Irish Aid HIV/AIDS regional advisors in 2005 (Embassy of Sweden, 2007:25). Topics such as updates on recent developments in the region, mainstreaming, donor harmonisation and co-ordination and the relations between global, regional and national levels in the AIDS field are usually on the agenda.

### 1.6.6  High-level meetings with UN organisations

The researcher contributed and participated in the Joint Sida/Norad/UNDP/UNAIDS training on the changing development environment and UN reform in support of national responses to HIV/AIDS in eastern and southern Africa from 22-24 November 2005 (Swedish International Development Co-operation Agency 2005).  The aim of the training was to learn and share experiences and lessons learnt on the new aid architecture.  Furthermore, the implications of and opportunities for the HIV/AIDS response within the new aid architecture were explored.

### 1.6.7 Donor Co-ordination Forum on AIDS and the EU+ working group on HIV/AIDS

Information gathered through participation and convening various national and international forums on HIV/AIDS contributed to the study.  The Donor Co-ordination Forum on HIV/AIDS is a forum which is convened by the South African Department of Health, and consists of bilateral donors, multilateral agencies, private sector donors and government.  Topical issues on HIV/AIDS are discussed with the government and with donors among themselves.

The European Union+ (EU+) working group on HIV/AIDS, which includes the EU member states, other interested bilateral donors, multilateral organisations and UNAIDS is being convened by the Embassy of Sweden on a monthly basis.  The main objective of the group is donor harmonisation in the field of HIV/AIDS.  In conclusion to the section dealing with the research process, a schematic overview is provided to demonstrate the flow of the process (Figure 1.1).  This diagram shows that the whole process of research is interlinked and related.

**Figure 1.1** *A schematic overview of the research process*
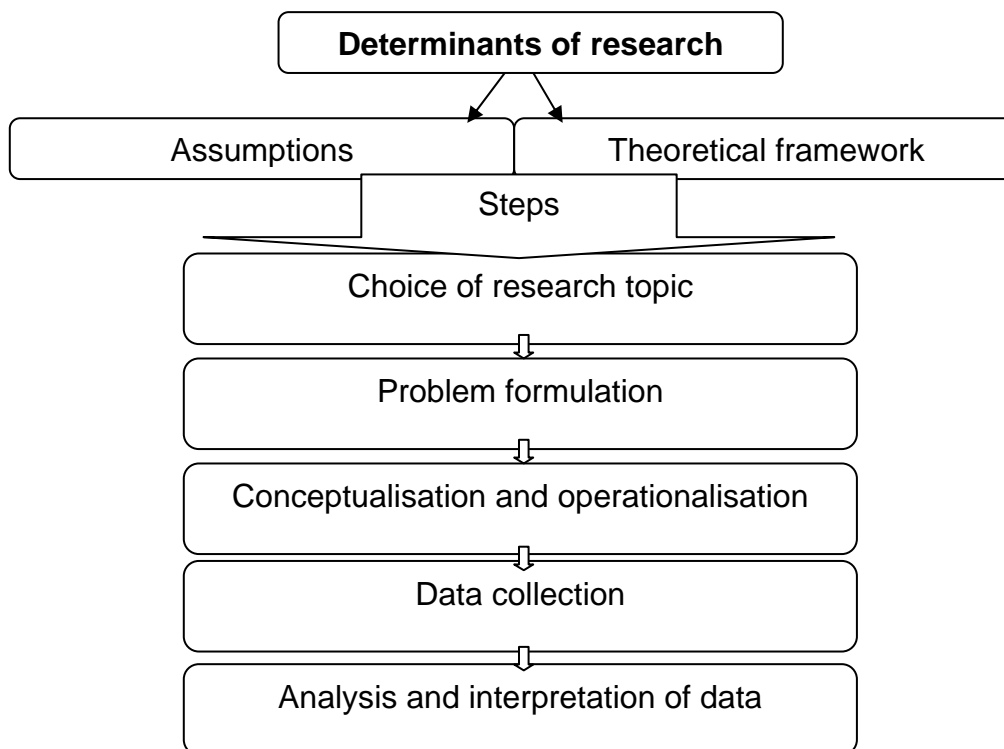
Source: Mouton, J. & Marais, H.C. 1996. *Basic concepts in methodology of the social sciences.* Pretoria: HSRC Publishers.

## 1.7    Clarification of key concepts and terms

Before the summary of the thesis is presented, it is important to define the terms and terminology that will be used to eliminate uncertainty, as follows:

**Adult mortality:** the probability of dying between the ages of 15 and 60 years (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:169).

**Affected person(s):** people whose lives have been changed, directly or indirectly, due to infection and/or the broader impact of the epidemic (Smart, 2004:226).

**Aid:** aid and assistance refer to funding flows which qualify as official development assistance (ODA) or official aid (OA).

**Aid modality:** the method a donor uses to provide funding to a recipient or partner country.

**AIDS:** acquired immune deficiency syndrome (Evian, 2003:3).

**Alignment:** the commitment of donors to base their development assistance on partner countries' national strategies, institutions and processes (DAC Task Team on Harmonisation and Alignment, 2005:15).

**Audit:** an inspection of the accounting procedures and records of an organisation by an independent and trained accountant.

**Basket fund:** a funding mechanism which is an instrument shared by two or more parties for the disbursement, management and accounting of donor funds.

**Bilateral agency:** organisation working for relations between two states.

**Budget support:** a method of financing a recipient country's budget by transferring resources from a donor to the government's national treasury.

**Confidence interval or range:** a statistical range with a specified probability that a given parameter lies within the range (Answers.com, 2005). The term *95% confidence interval (CI)* is often used in HIV prevalence and behavioural surveys. Confidence intervals show how precise an estimate is. For example, the HIV prevalence of 15-19-year-olds might be estimated to be 13%, but it needs to be known how precise that estimate is. The 95% CI shows the range in which one is 95% certain that the true value lies.

**Decentralisation:** in this thesis used in the context of the spread of power away from the national branch of government.

**Demographic impact:** demography looks at populations and their dynamics. It is concerned with the numbers, growth rates and structure of populations. Demographic analysis must be part of impact studies, as information such as premature deaths, number of orphans, number of old people, number of people to seek hospital treatment and expected life expectancy, can assist with projections and planning (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:167).

**Developing country:** low- and middle-income countries in which most people have a lower standard of living with access to fewer goods and services than do most people in high-income countries. There are currently about 125 developing countries with populations over 1 million; in 1997, their total population was more than 4.89 billion (UNESCO, 1998).

**Direct budget support:** a method of financing a recipient country's budget through a transfer of resources from an external financing agency to the recipient country government's national treasury.

**Discrimination:** when people acting on a pre-existing stigma.

**Economic growth/development:** the process by which a country increases its ability to produce goods and services (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:271).

**Economic impact:** that which causes the diversion of resources to uses that would not have been necessary in the absence of HIV/AIDS, and decreased production due to the disease (Barnett & Whiteside, 2000:44).

**Effectiveness, efficiency and economy:** effectiveness is an activity's overall success producing desired outcomes and reaching its overall objectives. A public institution exists for and on behalf of the community (Cloete, 1998:110). The efficiency of a public institution should be measured against its effective way of achieving objectives with the most economical utilisation of resources. *Efficiency* is used in the sense of to what extent a need has been satisfied as indicated in the original plans that were made. *Economy* is how frugal the resources have been used to best serve the community where the plans are implemented. *Efficiency's* basic meaning is the capacity to produce desired results with a minimum expenditure of energy, time and resources. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Section 195) clearly states that the efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted.

**Epidemic:** a disease that spreads quickly through a population. It is often an infectious disease.

**Epidemiological impact:** assists with the identification of risk groups, the trend of the epidemic, core transmitters, morbidity and mortality (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002: 46).

**EU+:** member states of the European Union and other active donors such as the US, Canada and Norway

**Foreign direct investment:** happens when an investor based in one country acquires an asset in another country with the intent to manage that asset (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2001:15).

**Fungibility:** the quality and capability of exchange, in other words interchangeability.

**Gender:** the different roles and relations between males and females.

**Globalisation:** worldwide connectivity, integration and interdependence in all spheres of life.

**Global Fund to Fight AIDS, TB and Malaria (GFATM):** the Global Fund was established in response to perceived failures of previous 'big aid' to mobilise fast and far enough against global threats, such as epidemics (Rogerson, Hewitt, & Waldenberg 2004:20).

**Governance:** the traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised for the common good. This includes (i) the process by which those in authority are selected, monitored and replaced, (ii) the capacity of the government to effectively manage its resources and implement sound policies, and (iii) the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them (World Bank, 2002).

According to the Webster's Online Dictionary (2005) the term *governance* refers to the decision-making processes in the administration of an organisation. Different nations and different organisations within a nation may approach governance concerns (who makes decisions? who pays the bills?) in very different ways.

In 1996, the Governance Working Group of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (1996) defined *governance* as:

(i)     the process whereby elements in society wield power and authority, and influence and enact policies and decisions concerning public life, and economic and social development.

(ii)     a broader notion than government, whose principal elements include the constitution, legislature, executive and judiciary. Governance involves interaction between these formal institutions and those of civil society.

(iii)    having no automatic normative connotation. However, typical criteria for assessing governance in a particular context might include the degree of legitimacy, representativeness, popular accountability and efficiency with which public affairs are conducted.

The Institute for Democracy in South Africa (Idasa) subscribes to the definition of *governance* as "a set of values, policies and institutions by which a society manages its economic, political and social processes at all levels through interaction among government, civil society and private sector" (Strode & Barrett Grant, 2004:1).

**Harmonisation:** the commitment by donors to rationalise their multiple activities to maximise aid efficiency under country ownership (DAC Task Team on Harmonisation and Alignment, 2005: 20).

**Heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC):** a group of least-developed countries with the highest levels of poverty, which is eligible for special assistance from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (Worldwebonline, 2007).

**HIV:** human immunodeficiency virus (Evian, 2003:3).

**Human capital:** people's accumulated life experiences, their human and job skills and their knowledge and insights built up over a period of years (Economic Commission for Africa, no date).

**Impact in general:** a slow but complex set of changes to a social and economic system, attributable to the effect of an identifiable set of causes (Barnett & Whiteside, 2000:9).

**Incidence:** the number of new infections occurring over a given time among previously uninfected people. The incidence can be expressed as a number of a particular population – for example, it is estimated that there are 600 new infections occurring per day – or as a percentage of the uninfected population (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:49).

**International financing facility:** the acceleration of the availability of funding for development by securing future aid expenditure through bond markets (Rogerson et al., 2004:21).

**Life expectancy:** a single index describing the level of mortality in a given population at a particular time measured in years of life (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:174).

**Mainstreaming HIV/AIDS:** the process of analysing how HIV/AIDS impacts on all sectors now and in the future, both internally and externally, to determine how each sector should respond based on its comparative advantage. The specific organisational response may include:

❑ putting in place policies and practice that protect staff from vulnerability to infection and support staff who are living with HIV/AIDS and its impacts, while also ensuring that training and recruitment take into consideration future staff depletion rates, and future planning takes into consideration the disruption caused by increased morbidity and mortality;

❑ refocusing the work of the organisation to ensure those infected and affected by the pandemic are included and able to benefit from their activities;

❑ ensuring that the sector activities do not increase the vulnerability of the communities with whom they work to HIV/STIs, or undermine their options for coping with the effects of the pandemic (Elsey & Kutengule, 2003:13).

**Managing for results:** a process that focuses on results in every aspect of management, thus aiding public policy and administrative organisations to focus on their goals and objectives.

**Medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF):** a policy framework for medium-term budget planning; the process of a multiyear budgeting system that allows a government to plan expenditures in advance for a number of years.

**Millennium Challenge Account**: established by the USA, using a challenge funding mechanism for which developing countries can become eligible only if they meet certain good governance criteria (Rogerson et al., 2004:19).

**Mortality:** the number of deaths in a given period (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002: 169).

**Morbidity:** incidence of a disease in a specific locality (RERF Glossary, 2005).

**Multilateral agency:** in international relations, multiple countries working together on a specific issue.

**Pandemic:** an epidemic that occurs in many countries at the same time.

**0.7 pledge:** developed countries of the OECD pledged to provide assistance to developing countries which equals 0.7% of their GNI.

**Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP):** a country's macroeconomic, structural and social policies and programmes to promote growth and reduce poverty, as well as associated external financing needs. PRSPs are prepared by governments through a participatory process involving civil society and development partners, including the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (World Bank, 2007).

**Prevalence:** the estimated percentage of the adult population living with HIV at a specific time, regardless of when infection occurred.  Prevalence rates always apply to a particular population (region, age or other group) at a point in time, and can be monitored over time for trends (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002:50).

**Public administration:** particular functions of the public institutions, with the public sector as one of the operational areas of the administrative process (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1992:9).  Public administration consists of the work of government

or, more specifically, the management of public affairs, the enforcement of law and the fulfilment of public policy.

The activity of public administration in government is much wider in scope and nature than management in government institutions (Fox, Schwella & Wissink 1999:2). Managers in the public administration must have a policy with the objectives of the institution concerned to fulfil their managerial functions. This policy is normally in the form of legislation, for example, the National Health Bill of 2003. It is through the process of public administration that institutions are created in which people work to achieve objectives (Du Toit & Van der Waldt, 1997:45). It is also through the process of public administration that funds are made available to do the work.

Public administration empowers managers in government institutions to perform their managerial functions (Van der Waldt and Du Toit, 1999:46). The generic public administrative processes are policy-making, organising institutions to implement policy, making funds available to implement policy, providing and utilising staff for the institutions, determining suitable work procedures and prescribing controls. All these functions should be carried out in such a way that resources are used efficiently and effectively to promote the general welfare of the public (Van der Waldt and Du Toit, 1999:13).

**Range or confidence interval:** a statistical range with a specified probability that a given parameter lies within the range (Answers.com, 2005). The term *95% confidence interval (CI)* is often used in HIV prevalence and behavioural surveys. Confidence intervals show how precise an estimate is. For example, the HIV prevalence of 15-19-year-olds might be estimated to be 13%, but one needs to know how precise that estimate is. The 95% CI shows the range in which one is 95% certain that the true value lies.

**Sector-wide approach (SWAp)**: a procedure between governments and development partners to co-ordinate support to public programmes to improve the efficiency and effectiveness in a particular sector.

**Social impact:** the effect of illness and death, social support and where to find it, the influence of cultural views on age, gender and ethnicity, and ethical or religious beliefs are some of the factors that will have an impact on the social systems (HIV/AIDS Survey Indicators Database, 2005).

**Statistical data and information:** a *statistic* is a number that is achieved through applying a scientific method. As a product of the notion that statistics and science are interlinked, it is assumed that such numbers are beyond reproach. A *statistic* is an abstraction – an estimate of a proportion (e.g. %) or an actual number (people, infections, etc.). A statistic is seldom exact – sometimes close to reality, sometimes a poor reflection of the real situation. Statistics aggregate and proportionalise individual level findings and are *only* useful in that way (Cadre, 2005).

Statistics provide insight into lived realities and material conditions, but at the same time they mask the lived experiences that they represent – statistics dehumanise. Statistics can be meaningful or meaningless, depending on how they are contextualised and what they inform or misinform.

Common HIV/AIDS statistics are (Cadre, 2005):

(i)     HIV *prevalence* – the proportion of HIV positive people at any given time – usually expressed as a percentage (usually derived from testing pregnant women at public sector clinics; antenatal; from testing all or nearly all employees in a workplace; context/site-specific prevalence; population-based - e.g. country, province, community); and

(ii)    HIV *incidence* – the number of infections over a given time – usually expressed as a whole number with frequency; e.g. number of new infections per day, month, year; not easily measured.

**STD:** sexually transmitted diseases are infections that can only be transmitted from one person to another through sexual intercourse or contact with the genitals of an infected person. Synonym for STI (Evian, 2003: 14).

**STI:** sexually transmitted infections are infections that can only be transmitted from one person to another through sexual intercourse or contact with the genitals of an infected person.

**Stigma:** the display of negative, hostile and derogatory attitudes or beliefs towards a certain individual or groups of people.

**Subsistence agriculture:** farming and activities that form part of a livelihood strategy where the produce is being consumed by the household and only a small proportion of output is marketed (Barnett, 2000).

**Susceptibility and vulnerability:** the particular features of society that make its structures and processes contribute to increased levels of susceptibility and more vulnerable to the impact of the epidemic (Barnett & Whiteside, 2002: 47).

**Unsafe sex:** sexual intercourse without the protection of a condom/condoms not being used correctly and consistently.

**Virus:** extremely small particles that are infectious and responsible for numerous diseases in humans.

## 1.8    Framework of the study

This study comprises 11 chapters.  Chapter 1 provides the research problem and research design was discussed.  The frame of reference explores why HIV/AIDS is a special problem and what the relationship is between HIV/AIDS and the Millennium Development Goals.  The purpose of the study and the problem statement were considered.  Attention has been given to the research methodology and design outlining benefits, limitations and assumptions.  Key concepts and terms in public administration, development, HIV/AIDS and aid architecture were defined.

Chapter 2 will be devoted to the contextualisation of public administration both as a subject and as an action. The chapter explores the historical perspectives on public administration and also considers the development of administrative theories and schools of administrative theories. The chapter concludes with the functions of public administration: policymaking, financial administration, human resources, organisation, methods and procedures, control and management.

Chapter 3 will describe development theory and development administration. A short history of development contextualises the development arena into the developed, developing and underdeveloped worlds and the dynamics between them. The origins of development administration will be discussed with reference to the administration of underdevelopment and the building of a theory of administrative development.

Chapter 4 will describe and explain globalisation in the context of the role of the state and public administration. The overview of globalisation will aim to inform on a new era for globalisation with new markets, new actors, new roles and norms and new tools. The rest of the chapter is dedicated to the role and function of the state. A short history of the changing concepts of the role of government will provide some insight on how the role of the state has changed over time. Presently, the role of the state is changing under the impact of globalisation and other developments such as demographic changes. The role of the state as regulator, enabler and facilitator will be discussed to illustrate how the role of modern government has changed.

Chapter 5 will analyse the environment in which public administration functions in sub-Saharan Africa. The region's political, economic, social, health and developmental challenges will be explored. Mention will be made of the impact that various international and regional organisations have on sub-Saharan Africa. Lastly, the unique challenges facing the region will be discussed.

Chapter 6 deals with HIV/AIDS as an epidemic. The global AIDS epidemic will be described with special emphasis on sub-Saharan Africa. The epidemic as a long-wave effect will be discussed and the impact of AIDS on population and population structure will be dealt with. The impact of the AIDS epidemic on governments, society and individuals will be described. HIV/AIDS and the impact on the Millennium Development Goals will be discussed. Lastly, the chapter will look at the mainstreaming of AIDS in development work.

Chapter 7 will scrutinise the impact of the AIDS epidemic on development and sustainable development and the impact it has on the quest for sustainable development. A brief history of sustainable development and the major international landmarks as well as the international legislative framework will be put into the context of the AIDS epidemic. The purpose of this chapter is to show that the AIDS epidemic has a direct influence on sustainable development. The Millennium Development Goals and how the AIDS epidemic is already impacting on achievements will be highlighted.

The changing face of official development assistance will be considered in Chapter 8. A history of the drivers of official development assistance and the origins of the new aid architecture will be discussed. The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness will be discussed. Lastly, the effectiveness of official development assistance for HIV/AIDS is considered.

Chapter 9 will deal with public financial management and the financing of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The role of the state budget process as a democratic institution as well as the objectives of public financial management will be discussed. The influence that donor financing has on a government's public financial management will be investigated. The disparities between AIDS funding and other relief efforts will show that the epidemic does not receive the funding it warrants. The global call for funding for the AIDS epidemic is discussed and attention will be given to the challenges of scaling up funding to developing countries. Two existing aid modalities will be assessed and considered for suitability to South Africa. Finally, a financing

and programming model based on the UN's Three Ones (one agreed HIV/AIDS action framework, one national AIDS coordinating authority and one agreed monitoring and evaluation system), the Paris Declaration and the sector-wide approach will be put forward for consideration.

The last chapter will be dedicated to conclusions and recommendations. The findings of the study will be considered and recommendations will be made for consideration by governments and donors in the global HIV/AIDS arena.

## 1.9    Conclusion

The theoretical framework provided the positioning of the research within the discipline of public administration in general and public financial management and development in particular. Attention has been given to the research methodology and design, outlining benefits, limitations and assumptions. The foundation and need for the study were emphasised by focusing on the impact of the changing international financial environment on the national response to HIV/AIDS in southern Africa. Key concepts and terms in public administration, HIV/AIDS and aid architecture were defined. Lastly, a brief description of the thesis was presented.

The next chapter is devoted to the contextualisation of public administration both as a subject and as an action. The chapter explores the historical perspectives on public administration and also considers the development of administrative theories and schools of administrative theories. The chapter concludes with the functions of public administration: policymaking, financial administration, human resources, organisation, methods and procedures, control and management.

**CHAPTER 2:         CONTEXTUALISATION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

## 2.1    Introduction

Public administration, like the sciences, is a process, not a product.   Public administration has changed through the years with changing practices, changing ideologies in government and the global change of the perception of human rights. To attain a degree of validity in this study, the scientific foundations of public administration will have to be examined.   The chapter starts off with a historical perspective of public administration and how the earlier scholars have influenced administrators from the classic up to the modern era.   The chapter will briefly touch on the development of administrative theories and schools of administrative thought to highlight the discipline's crisis of academic construct and significance in society. Next is a discussion of the role and functions of public administration.   Financial aid to implement HIV/AIDS programmes is mostly going to developing countries that are dependent on aid to achieve their development goals.   Donor aid if often provided on the assumption that the recipient country has adequate capacity in the government to manage all aspects of development.   The role and functions of public administration has a direct baring on the developing country's ability to manage aid so that the money reaches the people for whom it is intended.   The conclusion gives a short overview of why public administration is important in the development arena.

## 2.2    Historical perspectives on public administration

The history of social and political concepts plays a considerable role in the study of public administration.   Public administration has on occasion drawn on the history of political and social thought for knowledge.   Public administration, as other subjects in the social and political world, has become completely absorbed with technical rationality. During the 17$^{th}$ century, the enlightenment philosophy as a physical science emerged as a controlling power and epistemology became completely engrossed with a quest for evidence of existence.

Through all the ages, ideas had, and do have, a significant effect on one's way of thinking and reasoning ability. The way one expresses oneself, and the meaning of words such as *public administration, constitution, government, democracy* and *legislation* which is never precise or neutral in any scientific sense, as well as one's own mental framework that one has come to use over time and thinks about, make sense of these words. The study of the history of social and political ideas is important if the scholar wants to study and comprehend public administration. In the developing world, the study and implementation of public administration have emerged as an important aspect in the international arena of donor funding, direct foreign investment and loans.

It is often stated that public administration is as old as modern man himself. Public administration can be traced as far back as 3000 before Christ (B.C.) when priests in Iraq have left written documentation of their transactions (Pindur, Rogers &, Kim 1995:59). In literature from as far back as 1491 B.C., for example, the *Bible*, Exodus Chapter 18, Verses 13-27, reference is found to public administration when Moses, during the exodus of the Israelites from Egypt, on his father-in-law's advice, delegated authority over the tribes of Israel along hierarchical lines (Cornerstone Evangelical Association, 2006). It can be said that Moses utilised Jethro (his father-in-law) as a management consultant to help him with ruling the Hebrews in the desert.

## 2.2.1  Introduction to public administration

In later history, Aristotle, who lived from 384-322 B.C., described the life of a citizen as the highest expression of humanity. Aristotle said man was a 'political animal' and people who avoided politics displayed their ignorance (Bagby & Franke, 2001:623). The ancient philosophers wanted government to develop in citizens a concern for the common good and a willingness to make decisions on the basis of fairness and justice. The public official should serve as an example of virtue and should lead the people as his/her servant, with only their wellbeing in mind. This was referred to as the idealist view.

Socrates and Plato (*circa* 400 B.C.) are both credited for defining *management* as a skill separate from knowledge and experience, while Plato also promoted principles of specialisation (Pindur, Rogers & Kim 1995:59). Alexander the Great, who lived around 325 B.C., successfully used the principle of line and staff in his quest to conquer the world. Alexander's politics relied on an involved rationality that had its origins in Macedonian military principles (Ashworth, 2003:2). Many of Alexander the Great's ideas, such as specialised departments, competence as a power base and a clear chain of command, are reflected in modern public administration (Ashworth, 2003:16). Two other ancient 'public administrators' worth mentioning are Diocletian and Pacioli. Diocletian who was a Roman emperor in 284 A.D., ruled through delegation of authority and chain of command when he divided the Roman Empire into 101 provinces and grouped the provinces into 13 dioceses (Pindur, Rogers & Kim, 1995:59). Pacioli was an accountant who described the double-entry bookkeeping in order for a person to gauge the loss or gain upon each article that he deals with (Chambers, 1989:7). He described the conduct in which public financial affairs should be managed and touched on economy, efficiency and effectiveness.

## 2.2.2 Realism and Enlightenment philosophy

Niccolo Machiavelli, who lived at the end of the 15th, beginning of the 16th century is occasionally referred to as the first modern political philosopher. In his famous work *The Prince*, he broke away from the ancient worldviews. He rejected the ancient idealism and embraced 'what works', which became the modern perspective in political thought and was called realism (Bagby & Franke, 2001:624). Machiavelli's realism was based on government as the provider of safety, power and prosperity, where the leader's primary concern was the security of the state.

The rejection of idealism and turning towards realism provided the basis for the Enlightenment philosophy, with Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) and John Locke (1632-1704), the most prominent philosophers of the 17th century. The Enlightenment philosophy was important in the development of thoughts on public administration. Both Hobbes and Locke initiated the theories about individualism and self-interest, which postulated that government was not about producing virtuous citizens, but that

government was a means to an end (Bagby & Franke, 2001:625). Locke held that government was there to create an enabling environment for the growth of private enterprise and should not hamper these enterprises by too much taxation or regulation. The Enlightenment philosophy is reflected in the emphasis on individual rights and the division between the public and private domains (Bagby & Franke, 2001:625). The Enlightenment philosophy is also reflected in the 'new public management' not only in the separation of politics from administration, but also in the idea of the impartial value system that government should operate from. For public administration this means the ultimate escape from politics, where administration is viewed as a science where the demands of the public are satisfied through rational inputs and outputs (Bagby & Franke, 2001:628).

### 2.2.3 The cameralists

During the 18$^{th}$ century, a sophisticated tool of public administration was designed by the cameralists to serve the monarchs of Austria and Germany (Spicer, 1998:149). The most prominent cameralist was Johan Heinrich Gottlob von Justi and his writings have a modernist and secular vein of the age of Enlightenment. The cameralists assigned three major roles to government: fiscal management; regulating the economy and the exploitation of all natural resources (Jackson,2005:1297). Writers such as Max Weber and Woodrow Wilson were influenced by the cameralist doctrines (Jackson 2005:1293). Cameralists can be viewed as the first real public administrators because they contended that government should implement the functions of the state, that there was scientific knowledge to assist administrators in carrying out these tasks and lastly that there should be a competent chief executive to oversee the process (Spicer, 1998:157).

### 2.2.4 The positivists

Modern debates on positivism refers to a broad attitude about philosophy and science that has it origins in the theories of Henri Saint-Simon (1760-1825) and Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and the philosophical doctrines of the logical positivists

(Babbie & Mouton 2001: 20). There is no consensus among the positivists on whose doctrines were essential to their position and how those ideas should be interpreted. Although the original ideas on positivism were used, positivism in its contemporary form varies to some extent from those. An important feature of all positivist thinking is the emphasis on the naturalistic scientific method of distance between subject and object, while the observation of the phenomenon is free of any value system.

The central position of positivism is simply put that it is possible to have correct knowledge of the part without knowing the nature of the whole. The success of empirical science has tended to validate this as truth and has encouraged the development of positivist thinking in other fields, especially the social sciences. Comte expressed the core of positivism as the discovery of natural laws that logically replaced earlier ancient explanations. *Positivism* refers to scientific claims 'posited' or 'postulated' on the basis of empirical evidence instead of claims based on religion or superstition (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:22). Science and technology, that can be observed and logical deductions made from the observations, appeared to provide rational grounds for the establishment of a new social, moral and political order (Dobuzinskis, 1997:299).

August Comte is known as the farther of positivism and his major work was on the theory of human and scientific progress (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:21). Although Comte coined the term *positive philosophy*, he was not the only scholar to contribute to the movement. Most of the 19th-century philosophers such as John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, Max Weber and to an extent Karl Marx, shared the view that social realities can be known objectively, meaning that the separation of fact from values is both possible and beneficial (Dobuzinskis, 1997:299). Positivism was especially embraced by the psychologists of the 19th century in the application of the positivism philosophy in research. Emile Durkheim made a considerable contribution to positivism with his insistence on treating social facts as similar to natural science facts and his use of positivism in investigations where observation as a method is used (Wikipedia, 2006b).

During the middle of the 19th century until about the 1920s, the European positivistic movement gained momentum in Latin America, where it became a social philosophy

which characterises an alternative to romanticism, eclecticism, Catholicism and traditional Hispanic values (Marti, 1998). The positivist movement emerged as the result of the liberal ideas, which followed the independence wars against the United States and Spain, and the necessity of educational reforms to solve the continent's problems. By the end of the 19th century, positivism in Latin America became more conservative, in favour of gradual change. In public administration, Herbert Simon favoured the scientific, technical and factual information above any other knowledge (Raadschelders, 2003:11). His studies in public administration; political science; organisation theory; decision theory; economics; social and cognitive psychology; computer science and artificial intelligence had its foundation in objectivity, scientific and factual knowledge.

One of the major contributions of positivism to the social sciences is that it gave philosophy and the philosophy of social sciences an empirical, scientific foundation. In social sciences, positivism has supported the emphasis on quantitative data and precisely formulated theories (Kincaid, 1998). Woodrow Wilson applied the positivist dogma when he proclaimed that facts must be separated from values, therefore politics and administration belong in different spheres (Dobuzinskis, 1997:300). This application of positivism assisted in the emergence of public administration as a discipline. The scientific management movement of Frederick Taylor started during the Industrial Revolution and his ideas of a scientific and objective way of studying human relations did not last very long. The rise of the behaviourists effectively put an end to the scientific management movement.

### 2.2.5 The classicists

Although attempts to view administration as a science began in the times of Aristotle; the handling of administration and later public administration as a separate science is a modern development (Masani, 1997:341). Max Weber's description of public administration, especially his view of the bureaucratic system, is conveniently used to provide a framework for the beginning of modern public administration and it is often used as an outline for comparison of earlier and later developments in the field (Masani, 1997:341). Although Max Weber (1864-1920) left no school of followers as

he lectured for about five years at five different universities, his influence on public administration with his bureaucratic model and basic concepts such as domination, authority and rationality has left its mark on the literature (Marais, 1991:226). Weber was not much interested in the civil service, he studied authority as an instrument of domination and demonstrated that his legal-rational form of authority was best expressed in the civil service. His negative attitude towards civil servants was evident in his writings, and he is also the best critic ever of bureaucracy. In his article on Weber, Marais (1991:235) states that Weber's concept of bureaucracy is misunderstood and often quoted out of context. This misplacement gave Weber a place as one of the contributors to the early study of public administration (Marais 1991: 235).

Lorenz von Stein's (1815-1890) work at the University of Vienna is believed to form the foundation of international public administration (Wikipedia, 2005b). As an economist and sociologist, he applied Hegel's dialectic to the field of public administration and public finance in order to advance the systematics of these disciplines. He argued that the science of public administration was at the interface between practice and theory and also urged scholars of the discipline to adopt a scientific method. Another European that has influenced modern public administration was Henri Fayol (1841-1925), a French mining engineer. His work in the field of management, especially the five functions of management, namely planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling, can be found in modern public administration (Piano, 2005). His work was only recognised in the United States (US) after it was translated and printed in 1949.

Most scholars refer to Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924) as the father of modern public administration and his work *The study of administration* (Shafritz & Hyde, 1997:11) is the beginning of self-conscious study of public administration in the United States. Wilson is known for putting forward the dichotomy of politics and administration, when he wrote "The field of administration is a field of business. It is removed from the hurry and strife of politics; it at most points stands apart even from the debatable ground of constitutional study" (Gildenhuys, 1988:12). Wilson maintained that "the object of administrative studies is to rescue executive methods from the confusion and costliness of empirical experiment and set them upon foundations laid deep in

stable principle" (Gildenhuys, 1988:12). His insistence that public administration should have its foundation in the science of management and should be separate from political politics became the dogma of the discipline until after World War 2. Wilson's main themes are still influential and indispensable when studying the development of public administration. He also urged the development of the science of administration that would assist administrators to perform their duties (Fry, 1989:3).

Frank J. Goodnow (1895-1939) took the politics and administration dichotomy further when he argued that politics is the expression of the will of the government and administration is the implementation of that will (Shafritz & Hyde, 1997:2). Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915), a contemporary of Wilson, conducted experiments in a Philadelphia steel plant on the development of time and motion. He is considered the father of scientific management and his ideas of finding the "one best way' of executing a task to enhance production methods were the foundation of the classical organisational theory (Shafritz & Hyde, 1997:3). Another early scholar in public administration worth mentioning is William F. Willoughby (1867-1960), who produced literature and ideas on a wide variety of issues in public administration. He is well known for his reasoning that public administration had common features that were applicable to all branches of government, as well as for his work on budgetary reform (Shafritz & Hyde, 1997:4). A contemporary of Goodnow and Willoughby was Luther Gulick (1892-1992), an expert on public administration who was one of the founders of the American Society for Public Administration (Piano, 2005). He is well known for POSDCORB, his acronym that depicts seven activities: planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting.

The first textbook that was completely devoted to public administration, *Introduction to the study of Public Administration,* by Leonard D. White, was published in 1926 in the United States (Henry, 1980:30). Through his long and illustrious career, White researched and wrote prolifically on public administration. Many of his ideas and thoughts on public administration are as valid today as they were in his lifetime. White stated that the practice of administration is the same regardless of the level of government, he started the ideas of efficiency, effectiveness and economy when he wrote that the purpose of administration is the most efficient utilisation of

government's resources (Weber, 1996:61). Mary Parker Follett, also a contemporary of White, is well known for her groupthink process and her creative exercises such as brainstorming, which are still being used in modern management. (Fry, 1989:98). Nicholas Henry argued that public administration has progressed as a discipline through the succession of five overlapping paradigms and that each of these five paradigms can be typified according to its locus or focus, where the locus is the institutional "where" of the field and the focus is the specialised "what" of the field (Henry, 1980:27). Other scholars in the classics of public administration such as Elton Mayo, Chester I. Barnard, John Gaus, Abraham H Maslow, Robert A. Dahl, Herbert A. Simon, Dwight Waldo and Aaron Wildavsky have all contributed widely and have defined and refined the discipline over the years.

## 2.2.6 New public administration and new public management

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, the new public administration surfaced as a reaction to various factors such as the turmoil in the discipline in terms of its intellectual basis, and a change of emphasis in the social science disciplines (Frederickson, 1980:13). Issues like social equity, inequality and participation have irrevocably changed the study of public administration. The client-centred approach and service delivery have become the focus of public administration. The models of reform in the new public administration, reinventing government, business process reengineering and the new public management of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have all shaped the discipline and provided a framework for analysis of ideas and lessons learnt (UNPAN, 1999: 248).

Since the 1980s, neo-liberalism has emerged where the impact of globalisation, the role of markets, privatisation, corporatisation and outsourcing of services have become the new terminology of the new public management approach. The focus shifted to the balancing of economic policy with social and environmental policies, client-centred service delivery and the participation of the community in government decision-making. The new public management of the 21st century focuses on adding public value, which refers to the value created by government by means of its actions, legislation and service delivery (O'Flynn, 2004:16). Economics plays a

significant role in the new public management and the model for political and administrative relationships in the public sector is the economic market (Kaboolian, 1998:190). The changing role of the government is illustrated in Table 2.1.

*Table 2.1: The changing role of government*

|  | Public administration | New public management | Public value management |
|---|---|---|---|
| Model of accountability | Departments report to politicians who report to Parliament. | Officials report through performance contracts to politicians who report to Parliament. | Government is overseen by citizens. Taxpayers see themselves as funders of services. |
| Service delivery | Departments are hierarchical and do self-regulation. | Sourced out to private sector or public sector agencies. | Mixed group, PPP, government, community interest companies, public sector agencies. |
| Public participation | Citizens vote and can also pressurise representatives. | Limited. Citizens can contribute through customer satisfaction surveys. | Unlimited role for participation. |
| Aim of managers | React to political direction. | Managers achieve performance targets. | User preferences play an important role. Trust and good service delivery is used as criteria for renewal of managers. |

**Source: Adapted from Harmsworth, P. 2005. *Effectiveness in Public Administration*. [Online] Available at: http://www.ipaa.org.au/_dbase_upl/PeterHarmsworth.ppt [Accessed: 16 March 2006].**

In the developing world, public administration and development are closely related. Therefore the study of public administration is also a study of development theory and development administration.

## 2.3 The development of administrative theories and schools of administrative theories

The question whether Public Administration is a science or not will not be discussed in this thesis. An attempt is made to understand the development of an administrative theory and the schools of administrative theories that developed in the study of public administration through time.

### 2.3.1 Introduction

Since public administration was first practised and acknowledged as a discipline, there have been many debates on whether Public Administration is an academic science, as it did not have its own theories. This resulted in many criticism of the discipline which caused many administrative scientists to withdraw from the field, leaving the practitioners to draw from more related disciplines of business administration (Botes, Brynard, Fourie, & Roux, 1997/8:272). Henry Fayol (in Gulick & Urwick, 1937:101) contended that there is one administrative science that can be applied to private and public affairs alike and that the principle elements can be summarised in the administrative theory Fayol also stressed the great importance of the successful management of an organisation. This debate on public administration is ongoing. Raadschelders (1999:282) argues that "public administration suffers from so many crises of identity that normal adolescence seems idyllic". Raadschelders maintains that public administration in general and as a discipline is in a crisis about its academic construct and its significance in society. The crisis can be summarised as follows:

*Table 2.2: Identity crisis of public administration*

|  | **public administration** | **Public Administration(PA)** |
|---|---|---|
| **Theoretical crisis** | ❑ The definition of public administration and how to differentiate between the public and private.<br>❑ Where does public administration fit in between society and government? | ❑ Epistemological foundations of PA<br>❑ The acquisition of knowledge in the field.<br>❑ Is this acquired knowledge scientific or analytical? |
| **Existential dilemma** | ❑ There is a need for moral authority. | ❑ P.A. is a discipline among others or a sub-field within e.g. business administration, political science and law. |

**Source: Adapted from Raadschelders, J.C.N. 1999. A coherent framework for the study of public administration. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 9(2):281-294.**

The ever-changing ideological, political, economic, legal and social environments to which practitioners of public administration must respond makes Public Administration a vibrant discipline among scholars studying theory, method and practice (Raadschelders, 1999:289). The increased intricacy of the functioning of a modern government has made the application of scientific methods in preparing reports, memoranda, plans and submissions a necessity.

### 2.3.2 Approaches and schools in Public Administration

Public Administration has been influenced by many disciplines, such as Political Science (originally of which it was an extension), Law, Sociology, Psychology, History and Business Management. The main approaches of Public Administration is normativism, empiricism, behaviourism and behaviouralism (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:279), where *normativism* describes the ideal, what should be or be striven to, *empiricism* is the view that all knowledge is based on or derived from experience (Mautner, 2000:166). *Behaviourism* is a method of psychological investigation that studies what an organism says and does in order to establish correlation between

stimuli and reactions (Mautner, 2000:64), whereas *behaviouralism* determines the influence of the system on the overall behaviour of individuals within a given group context (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:280). These approaches in Public Administration can be found in the different schools of administrative theory. Gladden (1966:20) states that there are many books on public administration, but not one accepted approach. Leonard D. White (in Storing 1965:50) says that "there are many ways to study the phenomenon of public administration "(A)ll these approaches are relevant and from all of them come wisdom and understanding". As part of the historical perspective of Public Administration and to further expand on administrative theory a short summary of the schools of Public Administration will be provided.

The empirical school of Public Administration is of the view that all knowledge is based on or derived from experience (Mautner, 2000:166). The study of administration in practice will assist practitioners to make informed decisions based on the written history of administration. Although this school can be useful in the study of the history of public administration, in a rapidly changing world practitioners are required to adapt their work methods accordingly. The school of human behaviour studies the behaviour of people in their workplace and how they interact with other people in a group setting. This school has first been extensively applied to the industrial settings of the private sector and these theories were later utilised in the public sector (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:281). The application of this school to public administration can be useful if used in correlation with other methods. The bureaucratic model is attributed to Max Weber, who described *bureaucracy* as a control system based on rules which regulate the government's arrangements and procedures through highly qualified and efficient people (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:281). Weber's bureaucratic principles have influenced many scholars in Public Administration and issues such as hierarchical authority, specialisation and a merit system of appointments and promotions can be found in modern governments.

The social system school can be attributed to Chester I. Barnard, who viewed organisations as co-operative systems in which the "functions of the executive" is supposed to sustain a balance between the needs of the individual and the needs of the organisation and also to develop communication between the parties (Fry, 1989:156). Herbert A. Simon was influenced by Barnard and supported a systems

approach to public administration and the study of decision-making. According to the decision-making school, the organisation must develop methods of coping with the limitations of human decision-making by providing decision rules that can be applied to deliver a correct or desirable outcome (Fry, 1989:181). The mathematical school used the systems approach to analyse administrative problems and developed models to assist with almost all aspects of administration. This idea that administration is a logical process that can be mathematically calculated and explained does not have many applications in the rapidly changing public service of the present day. Modelling is useful in quantifiable entities such as money, logistics, stock, predictions and planning, but the human element is always a huge factor in the practice of public administration.

The public service has been trying to introduce the business management approach in the public service. Public administration is, however, far more comprehensive than business management. Business management techniques are being utilised by practitioners, but with the caution that the principles and normative guidelines of Public Administration must not be ignored (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:283). Henri Fayol and Frederick Taylor made a considerable contribution to the administrative process school with the classification of the universal principles which are found in any organisation's activities, namely organising, co-ordinating, commandeering, control and vision (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8: 283).

## 2.4    The role of public administration

*Public administration* is, broadly speaking, the implementation of policy within a state framework. *Public administration* can be defined as taking care of the state's business by civil servants within the executive branch of government. *Public administration* is the term both for the subject matter and for the academic study of the same.

### 2.4.1  Defining public administration

One of the earliest definitions of *public administration* is by Woodrow Wilson, who wrote "The field of administration is a field of business…The object of administrative studies is to rescue executive methods from the confusion and costliness of empirical experiment and set them upon foundations laid deep in stable principle… Public administration is the detailed and systematic execution of public law. Every particular application of general law is an act of administration" (Gildenhuys, 1988:12).  Frank J. Goodnow argues that *politics* is the expression of the will of the government and *administration* is the implementation of that will (Shafritz & Hyde, 1997:2).  Gladden described administration as a process with three stages, namely the stage of decision, the stage of administration and the stage of fulfilment (Gladden, 1966:12).

Pauw defines *public administration* as the organised non-political executive state function (Pauw, 1995:28), while Gildenhuys, (1988:14) describes *public administration* as the detailed and systematic execution of public law.  Every particular application of general law is an act of administration.  *Public administration* has also been defined in terms of its generic functions of public administration, namely policy-making; organising; financing; staffing; determining work methods and procedures and controlling (Cloete, 1998:22). The Constitution of South Africa of 1996 (Section 197) states that within public administration there is a public service for the Republic, which must function, and be structured, in terms of national legislation, and which must loyally execute the lawful policies of the government of the day. The process of public administration can be described as a number of related activities that need to be performed in public institutions.  The tenets of public administration include accountability to the voters; the body politic playing a role, the importance of community values and service delivery.

### 2.4.2  The functions of public administration

As early as the beginning of the 20th century, Henri Fayol defined the field of management to have five functions, namely planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling (Piano 2005).  Cloete (1998:22) provides the functions of

public administration in terms of the generic functions, namely: policy-making; organising; financing; staffing; determining work methods and procedures, and controlling.  In the South African context, this classification is being regarded as a rational analytical model that distinguishes the relationship between the functions (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1992:21).

Cloete (1994:58) describes *organising* as the establishing of task lists for sections and individuals within a department, and also to develop communications systems. The work of the public administration practitioner is being done within the framework of certain work procedures and methods and controlling in the format of monitoring and evaluation needs to be done.  The function through which public funds are obtained, spent and controlled is called financing. Government receives its funds through the collection of taxes, the charging of levies, tariffs and fees, as well as interest gained from loans.  As the custodian of the money of the people of a country, the government is responsible for the appropriation of funds to ensure service delivery for all.  The functions of public administration are interrelated and interdependent and one function cannot be effective without the others.  A seventh function, management of administration, was added to the generic functions. Management as a leadership phenomenon should be present in the execution of all six generic administrative functions.

### 2.4.2.1    Policy-making

The literature on public administration has a large amount of information on the elements of policy-making, such as planning, determination of gaols/objectives and decision-making.  Botes *et al.* (1997/8:304) state that in public administration there should be a distinction between the concepts of planning of administration, goal determination and policy-making and provide guidelines to do so.

Policy-making incorporates many actions that can ultimately lead to public policy.  No administrative action can take place if explicit aims and objections have not been put in place (Kuye, Thornhill, Fourie, Brynard, Crous, Mafunisa, Roux, van Dijk, & van Rooyen, 2002:71). These aims and objectives should be based on the concrete

needs of society.  During the process of objective identification the 'what', 'how' and by 'what means' will be considered to determine the best way to proceed.  The parliamentary portfolio committees and the joint standing committees of parliament play an important role at this stage of policy-making (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1993:63). The legislator then decides on public policy and the public institutions are tasked to implement the legislator's policy decisions (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1993:63).  The legislator also stipulates the degree to which the public institutions will be involved in matters concerned. Policy becomes important for the public administration practitioner after the legislation has been passed.

### 2.4.2.2    Financial management in public administration

In order for a government to render services to its citizens, it needs money to finance the government and deliver the services.  The state uses public money and receives this public money from the public in the form of taxes, tariffs, levies, fees, fines and loans (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:314).  Public money belongs to the community of citizens in a state, called 'the people' (Pauw *et al.,* 2002:6) and not to the government. Generic administrative procedures also form part of financial administration in the form of policy-making, staffing, organisation, procedures, control and management of the financial system.   Financial management is based on the model of value for money measured in terms of the 3Es: effectiveness, which relates to the outputs, economy, which relates to input costs and efficiency, which relates to the relationship between inputs and outputs (Woodhouse, 1997:47).

### 2.4.2.3    Human resources

Human resource management or personnel administration is a multifaceted function that includes the generic administrative functions of policy-making, financing, staffing, organisation, procedures and control, as well as social and labour issues.  Just as no government department can function without money, it cannot function without people to carry out its work.  Public institutions generally have a division that deals with human resource management based on legislation of the government of the day

(Van Dijk, 2003:41). As mentioned above, the human resource management functions not only include all the generic administrative functions but also social and labour issues. The stresses of the modern working environment, the many changes in the southern African working situation and especially the advent of HIV/AIDS has compelled the government to implement a wellness strategy for employees which includes an employee assistance programme, occupational health and safety, infection control and HIV/AIDS services.

### 2.4.2.4 Organisation

Organisation and organisational theories have been prolifically researched and described in the literature, but the question arises: what is it that public administration practitioners really do when they are working? The work includes practical judgements, the everyday, taken-for-granted routines and practices, the specific and implied knowledge applied to situations, the day-to-day working in the legal-moral environment of bureaucracies, the mastering of demanding human emotional interactions and the give and take with colleagues (Wagenaar, 2004:648). The process of organisation involves, among others, different structural arrangements, line and staff units, span of control, delegation of authority, centralisation and decentralisation and co-ordination of activities (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:346). Wagenaar (2004:651) describes the key task of the administrator as follows "Confronted with the complexity and overwhelming detail of everyday work situations, administrators have to turn the partial descriptions of such situations, as exemplified in formal rules and procedures, into concrete practical activity with acceptable and predictable outcomes".

### 2.4.2.5 Methods and procedures

Methods and procedures relate to administrative practices that are designed to make it possible for administrators to carry out their daily work (Howard & McKinney, 1998:109). These methods and procedures are not law, but they are derived from a combination of the many agreed authorisations the institution gives to the

administrators to do their work. Methods and procedures are usually put in writing in the form of manuals or managerial policies and need to be revised regularly to ensure improvement and control (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:332). The 3Es, namely efficiency, effectiveness and economy are the pillars of not only financial administration, but also administrative practices as incorporated in methods and procedures (Woodhouse, 1997:47). Over the years, a change took place in focus from procedural correctness to the efficiency and performance methods that are concerned with customer satisfaction rather than process rights (Woodhouse, 1997:221). Many of the new public management methods and procedures have been adopted from the private sector.

### 2.4.2.6 Control over the administration

As early as 1932, Mary Parker Follett said that "the object of organisation is control, or we might say that organisation is control" (Gulick & Urwick, 1937:161). She described the fundamental principles of organisation as co-ordination of all related factors in a situation, co-ordination of people concerned, co-ordination in the early stages of the situation and co-ordination as an on-going process (Gulick & Urwick, 1937:161). According to Follett, these principles form the foundation and process of control, but also indicate that control is a process.

The ultimate aim of control over the administration is accountability and transparency of government. Control is applicable to financing, staffing, procedures and methods and organising, as well as control itself. The control process normally starts by the setting of standards and then measuring the performance against the set standards (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:364). Control is also linked to governance, as governance can be defined in terms of openness, participation, accountability effectiveness and coherence (Pina, Torres, & Acerete, 2006:3).

### 2.4.2.7    Management

In the past, there has been some confusion about the study of management in public administration, a field that studies government institutions which are service-oriented (Botes *et al.,* 1997/8:353).  Public management refers to the study of management as a unit of administration. Management revolves around the personal characteristics of a manager which make him a leader.  Administration uses policy, finance, personnel, procedures and control for goal attainment, whereas management is concerned with the mobilisation of the individual skills of good managers to make administrative tools operational by applying intellectual activities (Botes *et al* 1997/8: 354).  The main functions of a manager are to plan, execute and control the execution of the planned activity.

### 2.5    Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to the contextualisation of public administration.  The historical development of the discipline and the practice of public administration were discussed to put modern public administration or new public management into the context of the 21st century.  The development of administrative theories and schools of administrative theories were briefly discussed to give a broader picture of the different disciplines that influenced public administration.  An attempt was made to define public administration and explain its role in government and the state.  The last part of the chapter expanded on the generic functions of public administration, policy-making, financial administration, human resources, organisation, methods and procedures, control and management.

The next chapter will expand on development theory and development administration.  The history and origins of development will be discussed, as well as the creation of the First, Second and Third worlds.  The importance of development in the developing world, or absence thereof, will be considered.

**CHAPTER 3: DEVELOPMENT THEORY AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION**

**3.1    Introduction**

Development is one of the most contentious issues in the world.  Development is a multidimensional and multifaceted concept, linked to globalisation, economics, politics, as well as social and cultural issues.  Development has a language of its own that describes the focus and locus of the term.  One is used to the geographical and descriptive way of development 'speak', such as 'Lesotho is a small, developing country, completely land-locked by South Africa'.  Terminology such as the Third World, the south, underdevelopment and developing countries evokes images of poverty, squalor, famine, illness and Africa, while the developed world, the north, the industrialised world and the western world relates to modernisation, progress and wealth.

Many scholars have tried to define development and there are many different ways of interpreting the concept.  The United Nations Development Programme describes *development* as giving people more choices.  Other definitions include giving the ordinary people a say in the decisions that shape their lives, giving people the opportunity to develop to their fullest potential and to carry out a nation's development goals by promoting economic growth, equity and self-reliance, to mention but a few.  The reality of development is that it is one of the central organising concepts of the time.  The United Nations has development agencies, hundreds of thousands of people are employed in development work and billions of US dollars are spent each year on development.  Almost every government, if not all, has development plans and development budgets and the rich countries have official development assistance as an important part of their foreign policies.

This chapter provides a short overview of the phenomenon of development theory and administrative development.  The emergence of development theory as well as the major trends in development and development theory will be discussed.  The influence

of development and administrative theory on public administration and international development goals and targets will be examined.

## 3.2    Trends in development theory

*Development* as a concept has its origins in the beginning of capitalism in the 15th and 16th centuries, when the social, economic, cultural and political development of the lives of people were thrust in the limelight (Lyes, 1996:4).  Hegel and Marx are hailed as the true originators of development theory with their view that capitalism and social change changed the way universal history is seen as a process of development, "a progression to the better' (Lyes, 1996:4).  Development has had different meanings to different people over time (Nederveen Pieterse, 2001:5).  The modern term *development* only came into being after World War 2.  The exploitation of poor countries was out of fashion and 'development theory' took its place (Cowan & Shenton, 1996:7). The post-war development discourse plan shows that development has an almost overwhelming need to reinvent or erase the past (Crush, 1995:).  The predecessor of the present-day economic development is colonial economics, with the colonies' management  going through different stages, from resource management and trusteeship where the colonial economies were managed not only for the benefit of the colonial power, but also to set up viable economies for colonies (Nederveen Pieterse, 2001:5).

***Table 3.1    Meanings of development over time***

| Period of time | Perspectives | Meanings of development |
|---|---|---|
| 1870+ | Late-comers | Industrialisation, catching-up |
| 1850+ | Colonial economics | Resource management, trusteeship |
| 1940+ | Development economics | Economic growth – industrialisation |
| 1950+ | Modernisation theory | Growth, political and social modernisation |
| 1960+ | Dependency theory | Accumulation - national |
| 1970+ | Alternative development | Human-focused |
| 1980+ | Human development | Capacitation, enlargement of people's choices |
| 1980+ | Neo-liberalism | Economic growth – structural reform, deregulation, liberalisation, privatisation |
| 1990+ | Post-development Alternative development | Authoritarian engineering, disaster |

**Source: Nederveen Pieterse, J. 2001. *Development theory: Deconstructions/reconstructions.* London: Sage.**

In post-war development theory, development economics was equated to economic growth. The United Nations played an important role in putting the economic development of underdeveloped countries in the spotlight as described in the United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs' 1951 policy document (Escobar, 1995:4). According to this report, the goal was to attain material prosperity and economic progress for all underdeveloped societies. During the 1950s, development theory was broadened to include modernisation. Modernisation of political, social and economic systems to embrace nation building and entrepreneurship was advocated. The next decade was dominated by the dependency theorists, where development equals economic growth which led to accumulation and eventually to dependent accumulation, which in turn led to the development of underdevelopment and an intermediate form of "associated dependent development of underdevelopment" (Nederveen Pieterse, 2001:6).

From the 1980s, the focus of development had changed to human development, making it possible for people to have more choices, as described in the human development reports of the United Nations Development Programme's definition of development. During this period, two different perspectives of development came to the fore, neo-liberalism and post-development. The neo-liberals believed that capitalists were only interested in their own expansion in the Third World, therefore the neo-liberals thought that what is important is to let market forces do their work (Leys, 1996:6). The main objective, economic growth, was to be attained through structural reform, deregulation, liberalisation and privatisation, all of which were to curb government intervention (Nederveen Pieterse, 2001:6). The post-development theorists felt that the concept of development was obsolete and that the practice of development did more harm than good (Matthews, 2004:373).

## 3.3    The emergence of development theory

The end of colonialism on the one hand and the semi-colonial state of the former Latin American countries on the other hand, called for a new theoretical development framework.  The new development theory had a strong practical foundation and was formulated by economists, influenced by an American economist, John Maynard Keynes (Keynes's views are discussed in the following section) and the wartime and post-war practices of state intervention (Leys, 2005:111).

### 3.3.1  Development theory in the period after World War 2

In 1944, the Allied countries attended a meeting at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, to discuss world economy and possible post-war strategies (Brettonwoods Project, 2005). At this meeting, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, which became known as the World Bank, were established (Rapley, 2002:5). These institutions are known as the Bretton Woods institutions.  During 1947, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established and together with the IMF and the World Bank its aim was to create a secure and freely flowing international trade milieu.  The World Bank was established to assist with the reconstruction of post-war Europe, and when this was done it started to focus on the development of the Third World.

One of the foremost economists of that era was John Maynard Keynes and his influence at the Bretton Woods Conference and beyond helped to shape development theory (Rapley, 2002:7). Keynes's vision of economic development, where the state plays a larger role than that which the classical and neoclassical models of development allowed, had a profound impact on international and domestic economies.  The classical political economic theory emphasises the free market, with a very small role for the state for defence, protection of people's rights and provision of public goods (Virtual

Economy, 1999). Keynes's idea that governments should borrow money to stimulate economic growth was difficult to sell. It was only during the war between 1939 and 1944, that the American president tried Keynes's idea to pull the nation out of the depression (Reich, 1999:3). It worked very well and unemployment went down and the nation's output went up. The economic and political climate that prevailed after World War 2 in developed capitalist countries has become known as the Keynes consensus (Rapley, 2002:9).

The Third World was 'born' into the political, economic and intellectual frame of mind of post-World War 2 developed, capitalist countries. There was a definite split between the capitalist west and the communist Soviet block and all the countries that could not be classified as advanced capitalist (First World) or communist (Second World) were called the Third World (Rapley, 2002:10). The cold war between the First and Second Worlds activated decolonialisation and the subsequent programme of developing the Third World (Baeck, 1996:400). These Third World countries more or less shared the same attributes: low *per capita* income; and because of poverty, a shorter life expectancy; a high infant mortality rate and a low education uptake. The economy centred on agriculture while manufacturing did not play an important role in the economy.

After decolonialisation, the First World countries started with great enthusiasm to develop the Third World at social and economic level. The two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union, entered the development arena with westernisation and communism their respective paths of development. The term *development* has become popular and many definitions were coined of which *modernisation* became the most popular at that time (Baeck, 1996:401). From the post-war period up to the 1960s, development theories were profusely generated and many different schools of thought produced impressive theories. Most of these theories were criticised as they were seen as idealistic and abstract, devoid of the reality in which the developing countries found themselves (Baeck, 2000:9).

The modernisation theory searched for the reasons why the First World was successful in development and why the Third World did not have the right conditions for development to take place. The modernisation theorists prescribed many different recipes for development to flourish, such as capital injection and a new value system for the indigenous people. They were convinced that underdevelopment was only a stage in the development of the country and eventually the country will overcome this stage (Rapley, 2002:15). The modernisation theory appeared to be similar to structuralism by also giving prominence to physical-capital formation, but it had a different view on capitalism, imperialism and the influence they had on Third World development. Structuralists in Latin America criticised the development theories that were proliferated by the modernisation and economic growth theories, counterbalancing it with the dependency and neo-Marxist schools of thought. The structuralists only saw the negative side of dependency, which disadvantages the developing country (Baeck, 2000:8). The dependency theorists emphasised that as long as the Third World economies were linked with that of the First World, the Third World would stay dependent and poor. The solution would lie in the Third World countries' implementing their own national development strategies, cutting their ties with the First World and becoming self-sufficient.

### 3.3.2 The first 30 years of development: 1950s – 1970s

During the 1950s, the measure for development was economic growth, and more accurately GNP (gross domestic product) growth, with a heavy emphasis on investment in modern activities. Development was equated with growth, and the solution for less developed countries was a large injection of investment (Tarp, 2000:19). Industrialisation was seen as the main thrust of growth, which would lift the economy of the country. Foreign aid was in the form of capital resource transfer to trigger the economy to higher growth rates, until at least the recipient country would be able to

sustain itself. Security also played an important role in foreign aid, in particular the United States used aid as a counteract to deal with the security threat of the spreading communism (Tarp, 2000:23).

During the next decade, a spirit of optimism prevailed throughout the world and this optimism spilled over to the development of the Third World countries. The belief was that with sufficient foreign aid, modernisation and new administrative systems, the countries of the Third World would not only match the First World, but eventually overtake them (Dwivedi, 1994:8). During the 1950s and 1960s, multilateral and bilateral aid programmes were established with the conviction that the world was entering a utopia of new societies, national integration and global development through technical co-operation. This utopia did not materialise, and indeed there was a rude awakening to the serious flaws of the developmentalist paradigm of public administration to cope with important issues. It became evident in the early 1970s that development administration is not playing out as envisaged with disease, poverty and hunger increasing in the developing world. The administrative environment was plagued by decline and lower expectations, both in the developed and developing countries. Many of the international and domestic development attempts failed with a simultaneous questioning of western social science, especially administrative and development theories (Dwivedi, 1994:9). The disintegration of development theory created an intellectual crisis in development administration. The failure of development efforts called for a different concept and understanding of development. The initial idea that development would spread from the developed to the underdeveloped countries in an orderly and almost contagious manner had been contradicted on logical and empirical grounds (Dwivedi, 1994:12).

### 3.3.3  The next three decades of development: 1980 – 2000

The basis of the development administration theory was questioned. The Third World, or developing world, doubted the effectiveness of development and scholars were in an intellectual crisis about development administration.  In this era of crisis, the new international economic order (NIEO) became an important symbol in the development field (Dwivedi, 1994:13).  NIEO demanded a repositioning of the world economy through radical changes in trade, aid and technological transfer.  Although the World Bank supported the idea, the expected change in the world economy never happened.  Other problems that the developing world faced were the declining of the communist hold of the Soviet Union, and the entry of some of the east block communist countries and Central Asia into the developing world.

It became evident that development administration cannot be separated from either political economy or a theory of development.  The general development doctrine was that to achieve development, a country should subscribe to the same standards as the most advanced industrial countries. The traditional way of working needed to be changed to a new way and with the assistance of foreign experts, the public service in the developing world was rigorously modernised. The developing world, and specifically Africa, was unable to mobilise adequate financial resources to carry out development with the consequence that these developing countries needed to get assistance in the form of foreign aid and/or loans (Hope, 1996:53).

### 3.4     Development administration

Development administration as it is known today has mostly evolved from the restructuring programme of war-torn Europe after World War 2. Nineteenth-century and early 20th-century development was mostly in the form of colonialism of the poor,

underdeveloped countries. There are some examples of development administration in South Africa dating as far back as 1896 when Sweden developed a country plan for its relationship with South Africa. The development plan covered the 'civilisation' of the country, as well as industrial and commercial links with import and export of items such as wool, wine, gold and precious stones (Swedish government, 1896).

### 3.4.1  Development theory and administration

The practice of public administration in the developing world cannot be studied without looking at development, development theory and development administration. Development and official development assistance have been closely linked to one another from the onset of the notion that there are some poor, backward countries that needed development. The story of aid and development has been one of the rich, capitalist, industrial nations of the west against the poor, underdeveloped nations of the south. After World War 2 the world was divided into the First and Third world, with the rich counties in the northern hemisphere the First World and the under-developed counties in the southern hemisphere and the African continent the Third World. The terminology *third world* became unpopular and politically incorrect and was replaced with poor, undeveloped countries and later with developing countries. For more than 50 years, developing countries have been subject to development strategies of the developed world. It has not been a success because the poor has become poorer, debt has increased, preventable diseases have increased and malnutrition and hunger have increased; all this in the light of billions of aid dollars being spent over the years. Aid has been mostly conditional, unpredictable, donor-driven and with high transaction costs on the side of the recipient country.

### 3.4.2  The nature of development administration

The term *development administration* came into use in the late 1950s, early 1960s, when the developmental community referred to the developing nations of Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Latin America.  The concept has its origins in the west and was formulated when two streams of administrative thought came together: the scientific management and administrative reform thought and the notion after World War 2 that government intervention in development is accepted, played a considerable role in defining the concept (Dwivedi, 1994:1).  Before World War 2, the perception of the role of the state had already started to change in the in the form of Keynesianism.  Government intervention on a big scale also resulted in big central governments.

The United States made aid totalling US $13 billion available for the reconstruction of Europe after World War 2 (Ritschl, 2004:1).  The programme became known as the Marshall Plan and its aim was to bring accelerated and sustained economic growth to Europe.  The terms *reconstruction* and *development* were almost used interchangeably in the Marshall Plan.  During this post-war period, a fundamental transformation occurred in the international system.  The age of imperialism came to an end and decolonialisation followed rapidly.  The establishment of the United Nations brought a fundamental change in the international co-operation and by the middle 1950s, the United Nations began to play an important development role.  The newly independent countries embraced economic growth as the main policy objective and together with modernisation it was hoped that the inequities would be reduced (Tarp, 2000:19). Growth was equated to development and prosperity was seen as a solution to the looming threat of communism (Dwivedi, 1994:4).  Development administration was seen as a Marshall Plan-type intervention to ensure economic growth, sustainability and modernisation.

### 3.4.3  The administration of underdevelopment: building a theory

*Development* as a concept was entrenched in public administration by the early 1950s. Public administration was seen as the vehicle to accomplish development goals; public administration provided the resources to convert development goals to outputs (Dwivedi, 1994:5).  Stone (in Dwivedi, 1994:5) sums it up as follows:

> Development Administration is the blending of all the elements and resources (human and physical)…into a concerted effort to achieve agreed upon goals.  It is the continuous cycle of formulating, evaluating and implementing interrelated plans, (policies, programmes, projects, activities and other measures) to reach established development objectives in a scheduled time sequence.

The role of government and its administration was highlighted in the implementation of development, especially activities such as change management, resource mobilisation and creating an interface between the developers and the recipients of development. Development administration was seen as an action- and goal-orientated activity that utilised the administration to achieve its objectives. There was no common understanding of the theory of development; however, some identifiable paradigm came into being (Dwivedi, 1994:6).  Five themes can be distinguished in the theory of development administration:

- ❏ Development can only be reached through modernisation;
- ❏ Economic development, especially economic growth, is necessary for development;
- ❏ Economic change will result in qualitative changes, in turn economic growth will result in social change, and that will lead to political development;
- ❏ Development will create the conditions for traditionally agrarian communities to move spontaneously to industrialisation; and
- ❏ Development administration will facilitate orderly and stable change.

Development administration was mostly based on the modernisation or westernisation of institutions and the way they operated. A developed and modern society was seen as one which was democratic, literate, open, urbanised and industrial (Barnett & Riggs, 1970:173). With this theory in mind, the rich, industrialised countries of the west set out to develop the poor, Third World countries of the south.

### 3.4.4 The new millennium and development

Towards the end of the last century, development remained a challenge for the developing and developed worlds. Fifty years of development did not attain much to show, the developing world was poorer with preventable diseases and famine on the increase. Developing countries have come to realise that they have to make the best use of their own resources, while the developed nations and international organisations have realised that a new framework for equitable and sustainable development needs to be found.

At the beginning of the new millennium, the international donor agencies, multilateral organisations and the developing world set international development targets. These development targets have its conception in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's document *Shaping the twenty-first century* (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 1996), and in the Millennium Declaration of 2000 (United Nations, 2000b) the Millennium Development Goals were set. These targets and goals were a set of quantifiable goals against which international development agencies and donors could measure their development successes.

The International Development Targets are divided into three distinctive fields, namely economic well-being, social development and environmental sustainability, and regeneration aimed at poverty reduction (Black & White, 2003:3). These targets show

that the idea of development practice has started to change. For development to take place, there needs to be human development, and not only poverty reduction by the injection of funds. It has become clear that poverty is not only about income or the lack thereof, but about other aspects of well-being, such as health and education.

*Table 3.2: The International Development Targets*

| Target | Indicator | Origins of target |
|---|---|---|
| Economic well-being | By 2015, the number of people living in extreme poverty should be halved | 1995 – Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action |
| Social development | By 2015, the following should be attained:<br><br>❑ Universal primary education for all<br>❑ Elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education<br>❑ Infant mortality and child mortality rates decreased by two thirds<br>❑ Maternal mortality rate reduced by three quarters<br>❑ Access to reproductive health services for all | ❑ 1990 – Jomtien Conference on Education for All<br>❑ 1994 – Cairo Conference on Population and Development<br>❑ 1995 – Endorsed at Copenhagen Summit on Social Development<br>❑ 1995 – Beijing Conference on Women |
| Environmental sustainability and regeneration | ❑ Every country should have a strategy for sustainable development<br>❑ This strategy should ensure the reversal of the loss of environmental resources | 1992 – Rio Conference on Environment and Development |

**Source: Adapted from Black, R. & White, H. (Eds.) 2003.** *Targeting development: Critical perspectives on Millennium Development Goals.* **New York: Routledge.**

These targets were designed in such a way that they were quantifiable and the results were the expected outcomes of development. This is different from previous target setting that was always done in terms of monetary resources. For the first time, governance became part of the target outputs, and the importance of democratic accountability and anti-corruption in development became a precondition for attaining

targets. These targets were not fixed and as new challenges such as HIV/AIDS presented themselves, they were added to the targets. From 5 to 7 May 1996, at the 34th high-level meeting of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC), the International Development Targets were officially adopted (Black & White, 2003:4). Although the targets were based on resolutions at various international conferences that were also attended by the developing world, they were met with some resistance because they were set by a group of developed countries. The feeling was that the International Development Targets symbolised an imposition by the views on development of the members of the Development Assistance Committee.

From 6 to 8 September 2000, at the Millennium Summit in New York, the Millennium Declaration was made. The Millennium Declaration contained a new set of targets, the Millennium Development Goals, which replaced the International Development Targets. The Millennium Development Goals overlapped some of the International Development Targets, but they were not the same. The Millennium Development Goals form a blueprint agreed to by the whole world and all the leading development institutions to help meet the needs of the world's poorest people. The United Nations Secretary-General at the time, Kofi Annan, said the following (United Nations, 2000a):

> *We will have time to reach the Millennium Development Goals – worldwide and in most, or even all, individual countries – but only if we break with business as usual. We cannot win overnight. Success will require sustained action across the entire decade between now and the deadline. It takes time to train the teachers, nurses and engineers; to build the roads, schools and hospitals; to grow the small and large businesses able to create the jobs and income needed. So we must start now. And we must more than double global development assistance over the next few years. Nothing less will help to achieve the Goals.*

***Table 3.3: The United Nations Millennium Development Goals, targets and indicators***.

| Goals | Targets | Indicators and UN institutions |
|---|---|---|
| Goal 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger and Poverty | Target 1. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than $1 a day | 1. Proportion of population below $1 per day (World Bank)<br><br>2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty] (World Bank)<br>3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption (World Bank) |
|  | Target 2. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger | 4. Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age (UNICEF-WHO)<br>5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (FAO) |
| Goal 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education | Target 3. Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling | 6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education (UNESCO)<br>7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 (UNESCO)<br>8. Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds (UNESCO) |
| Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women | Target 4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015 | 9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (UNESCO)<br>10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old (UNESCO)<br>11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (ILO)<br>12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (IPU) |
| Goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality | Target 5. Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate | 13. Under-five mortality rate (UNICEF-WHO)<br>14. Infant mortality rate (UNICEF-WHO)<br>15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles (UNICEF-WHO) |
| Goal 5: Improve Maternal Health | Target 6. Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio | 16. Maternal mortality ratio (UNICEF-WHO)<br>17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (UNICEF-WHO)<br><br>16. Maternal mortality ratio (UNICEF-WHO)<br>17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (UNICEF-WHO) |
| Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases | Target 7. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS | 18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 years (UNAIDS-WHO-UNICEF)<br>19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate (UN Population Division)<br>19a. Condom use at last high-risk sex (UNICEF-WHO)<br>19b. Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS (UNICEF-WHO)<br>19c. Contraceptive prevalence rate (UN Population Division)<br>20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years (UNICEF-UNAIDS-WHO) |
|  | Target 8. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases | 21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria (WHO)<br>22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures (UNICEF-WHO)<br>23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis (WHO)<br>24. Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS (internationally recommended TB control strategy) (WHO) |
| Goal 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability | Target 9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources | 25. Proportion of land area covered by forest (FAO)<br>26. Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area (UNEP-WCMC)<br>27. Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per $1 GDP (IEA, World Bank)<br>28. Carbon dioxide emissions per capita (UNFCCC, UNSD) and consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons) (UNEP-Ozone Secretariat)<br>29. Proportion of population using solid fuels (WHO) |

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| | **Target 10.** Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation | **30.** Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO) <br> **31.** Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO) |
| | **Target 11.** Have achieved by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers | **32.** Proportion of households with access to secure tenure (UN-HABITAT) |
| **Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development** | **Target 12.** Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system (includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction both nationally and internationally) <br><br> **Target 13.** Address the special needs of the Least Developed Countries (includes tariff- and quota-free access for Least Developed Countries? exports, enhanced program of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries [HIPCs] and cancellation of official bilateral debt, and more generous official development assistance for countries committed to poverty reduction) <br><br> **Target 14.** Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing states (through the Program of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and 22nd General Assembly provisions) <br><br> **Target 15.** Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term | **Official development assistance (ODA)** <br> **33.** Net ODA, total and to LDCs, as percentage of OECD/Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors' gross national income (GNI)(OECD) <br> **34.** Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) (OECD) <br> **35.** Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied (OECD) <br> **36.** ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their GNIs (OECD) <br> **37.** ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their GNIs (OECD) <br><br> **Market access** <br><br> **38.** Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from LDCs, admitted free of duty (UNCTAD, WTO, WB) <br> **39.** Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries (UNCTAD, WTO, WB) <br> **40.** Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as percentage of their GDP (OECD) <br> **41.** Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity (OECD, WTO) <br> Debt sustainability <br> **42.** Total number of countries that have reached their Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC) decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) (IMF - World Bank) <br> **43.** Debt relief committed under HIPC initiative (IMF-World Bank) <br> **44.** Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services (IMF-World Bank) |
| | **Target 16.** In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth | **45.** Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total (ILO) |
| | **Target 17.** In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries | **46.** Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis (WHO) |
| | **Target 18.** In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications technology | **47.** Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population (ITU) <br> **48.** Personal computers in use per 100 population and Internet users per 100 population (ITU) |

**Sources: United Nations. 2000a. *UN Millennium Development Goals*. [Online] Available at: http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/ [Accessed: 27 June 2006].**
**Millennium Project 2006. Goals, Targets and indicators. [Online] Available at:  2008. http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/goals/gti.htm [Accessed: 7 April 2008].**

The setting of international targets and goals create a sense of common purpose in the development community. The targets were developed by all the role-players who assisted with accountability and responsibility. The Millennium Development Goals aim to resolve extreme poverty, basic human rights and environmental sustainability. Because these goals are the most broadly supported, comprehensive and specific poverty reduction targets that the world has ever established they are of extreme importance (United Nations Millennium Project, 2005:2). The international political system uses the Millennium Development Goals as the core on which development policy is based. For the billion people living in abject poverty, the Millennium Development Goals give a glimmer of hope for a productive life and economic growth. At global justice and human rights level, the goals are important for international and national security and stability.

Many countries in the developing world are to some or other degree dependent on overseas development assistance (ODA) or foreign aid to deliver services and alleviate poverty. Almost all funds that enter a country as donor funding or aid, are being handled by governments. In Africa, and especially sub-Saharan Africa, donor funds play an important role in countries' budgets and the way these funds are administered has a direct influence on policy and administration. Most of the donors and their partners follow the United Nations' guidelines on aid and mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS in their development work. Mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS, aid effectiveness, harmonisation and alignment have become the key issues in the donor community.

## 3.5    Conclusion

This chapter provided a background to development and development theory. In order to understand the concepts of development and development theory, the origins, history and trends of these phenomena were examined. The link between public administration

and development and development administration was explained with regard to the developing world. The chapter touched on the development of administrative theories and the important role that the state plays in the development process.

The concept of development, conceptualised after the World War 2, has changed over time. The notion that the rich, developed countries of the north must develop the poor, backward countries of the south does no longer dominate the international development arena. It has been acknowledged that development means more than economic growth and the many different development reports of the development agencies of the United Nations can attest to this. Development as a field of study is still in crisis, as is development as a practice. Scholars are not agreeing on what is the ideal development theory and neither is development in practice making any headway. After being subjected to more than 60 years of development, Africa is still poor, if not poorer, and the illusive development targets are still to be attained.

The next chapter will describe and explain globalisation in the context of the role of the state and public administration, an overview of globalisation, and the role and function of the state. A short history of the changing roles of governments will provide some insight on how the role of the state has changed over time. Currently, the role of the state is changing due to globalisation and other developments such as demographic changes. The role of the state as regulator, enabler and facilitator will be analysed to illustrate how the role of modern governments has changed.