CHAPTER 1

General Introduction

1.1   INTRODUCTION

The opening of African markets to increased foreign trade is an important and strategic imperative with many consequences. There are important roles for national governments and domestic public and private sectors in such an exercise. African Governments could previously regulate foreign goods coming into their local market by using various combinations of subsidies and quotas. Import levies in the majority of African countries were, and in some cases still are, a substantial source of government income. The international community, and many African commentators, appear to agree that free trade is the preferred way to encourage strong African economies. Ngoatje (2006:190) for instance opines that 'trade is accepted as a catalyst for economic growth and development'. Stewart (1999:106) concurs and also asserts that 'despite the presence of structures and processes which favour Northern economies, there are opportunities for developing nations and their companies to produce and trade a variety of goods and services'. As in any other activity, someone needs to take responsibility to determine what is required to ensure success from an African perspective. Mills (2000:7) argues that 'policies still require effective strategies for implementation to enable states to engage advantageously with the global environment'. What role can African States therefore play in identifying and assisting in the facilitation of such opportunities for the benefit of their own citizens? The many predicaments identified by this study raise the question as to whether cooperative engagement with such complexities, using a vehicle such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), would assist African states in finding appropriate and sustainable solutions.

The continuous lowering of tariff barriers during international trade negotiations has highlighted the role of regulations as a significant issue as far as technical barriers to trade are concerned. The need by governments to

regulate often creates situations where exporters are faced with voluminous paperwork, complex formalities, and many potential delays and errors. Hill (2002:485) notes that 'a typical international trade transaction may involve thirty different parties, sixty original documents and three hundred and sixty document copies, all of which had to be checked, transmitted, re–entered into various information systems, processed, and filed'. Such a mountain of paperwork, plus specific technological factors for a product, can have very different consequences for exporters. If the exporting company requires proof of compliance to an international (or local) standard and does not have access to a sufficiently developed, recognised and appropriate national technical infrastructure, retesting may be required on delivery with the inherent delays and associated costs. Such difficulties are not only experienced between African exporters and developed countries. There are many such complexities, including language barriers, in inter African trade. If increased trade between African states is to be realised then major work in Africa is also required.

African countries have been encouraged over a period of many years, and often with external donor support, to establish a single public body to address standards–related issues. These typically create and when resources permit participate in the international harmonisation of standards. They may also perform a technical regulatory function on behalf of their government in terms of legislation. Many further develop to also provide testing and/or inspection and certification services to confirm compliance with national and, where appropriate, internationally harmonised standards. They are typically given the name of National Bureau of Standards (NSBs). Many African states, regardless of size, either have such a publicly funded body or are striving to establish one. The need for producing national standards, often an expensive process, and the subsequent activity to prove compliance to such standards, a potential source of revenue, can unfortunately easily create the potential for a conflict of interest. This is especially true when additional revenue is required to supplement scarce and decreasing public funding, which is almost always the case for such organisations whose significant but indirect impact on the economy is often difficult to understand.

In order to ensure financial sustainability, some of these NSBs have further developed the services they offer. Time has shown that without an appropriately overarching policy for Standards, Quality Assurance, Accreditation and Metrology (SQAM), their activities can easily conflict with longer term trade facilitation, and SQAM growth–related, objectives. This is especially true with regard to the promotion of an appropriate private sector involvement in standardisation and conformity assessment. The increasing trend of local adoption of internationally harmonised standards does call into question the future role and scope of work of such bodies. These organisations have historically also taken the lead role in providing technical support for African States. A key question therefore concerns the future role that these and other African public sector organisations should initially and continually play, versus that played by the private sector. Work by Jreisat (2002) is also important given that many of these organisations in Africa were created as replicas of similar institutions in developed countries. Jreisat (2002:70) points out that just because a 'particular structure performs certain functions in one government' one should not automatically assume that 'the corresponding structures will perform the same functions in all governments'. Jreisat (2002:70) also warns against the assumption that such transplants 'will perform with the same degree of competence and ethics across systems'. Another important point in this regard is mentioned by Antonsen and Jorgensen (1997:338) who contend that 'because of the varying age of public organizations and their relatively high immortality, some organizations lose their reasons for being public and remain so simply by tradition'. A review of function and purpose is therefore appropriate.

1.2   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND TRADE FACILITATION

Is it only the privilege of developed country citizens to be able to actively participate in the global trading arena and gain the associated economic benefits? Surely it is time for the African states to claim their rightful place in the global economy on behalf of their citizens. Instead of continuing to be the victims of globalisation, NEPAD could offer new opportunities for African public administrators to tackle some of the past difficulties collaboratively and

innovatively. In attempting the proposed study from an African Public Administration perspective it is prudent to note the concern of White ([1926] 2004:59) who states that 'the role of administration in the modern state is profoundly affected by the general political and cultural environment of the age'. Welch and Wong (1998:43) also caution that the 'global environment should not be ignored as an influential force for bureaucratic change and decision making'. With reference to the state, Freysen (1999:60) argues that its purpose is to have a positive impact on the community through the promotion of the 'self–development of the individual'. The same author (Freysen, 1999:29) asserts that 'Service delivery by the state is not only necessary for the enjoyment of rights – it also secures those rights'. These sentiments are echoed and further amplified by Stewart (1999:128) who notes that 'a well–organised, efficient, and development–oriented government and public service is necessary for the state to play a development role'. Welch and Wong (1998:42) have identified 'a gap between public administration research and practice in Western and non–Western nations'. The same authors (Welch & Wong, 1998:42) also point out that 'ironically these gaps are occurring at a time in which the global environment is subjecting most governments to a similar set of global pressures'.

A fundamental question that therefore needs to be answered initially is if trade facilitation is in fact an African public administration problem or whether solutions should be left for market forces to seek alone? A clear definition of the boundaries of the field of public administration and its application would go some way in beginning to answer this double–edged question. In attempting to describe public administration, Fesler (1980:2) notes 'its paradoxical nature'. A similar difficulty in obtaining a precise definition for the domain of public administration is highlighted by many other authors (White, 1955:4; Rainey, Backoff and Levine, 1976:234; Henry, 1986:41; Jordan, 2006b:634; Lanham, 2006:605; Rugge, 2007:115; Thoenig, 2007:89). Such fluidity within the field suggests that trade facilitation and the related technical infrastructural activities could easily and safely be included within its mandate. The African public administrator after all has to shoulder a lot of the responsibility for ensuring that national commitments, made at such bodies as

the World Trade Organization (WTO), are actually implemented. Another reason for including trade–related issues under the purview of public administration is that the subject and science aim at being practical. Public administration is also one of the few social sciences that explicitly tries to be prescriptive. Africa is in dire need of practical SQAM–related solutions. However, foreign SQAM prescriptions need to be treated with caution.

A leading role for the public administrator, according to White ([1926] 1955:12), is the successful implementation of policy. Such a task in African SQAM includes the creation and appropriate harmonisation of policies related to trade, industrialisation, agriculture and the environment. The same author (White, [1926] 1955:12) points out that the first task for a public administrator is to gain a deep, insightful understanding of 'all the huge array of disciplines which enrich our complicated environment', followed by 'knowing which [disciplines] are relevant to its several missions'. Given the complexities involved in the narrowly selected area of SQAM and related conformity assessment activities, a high degree of technical specialisation is obviously required. Such insight (White, [1926] 1955:12) is then used to 'evaluate and interpret the contributions of each ingredient' and finally (White, [1926] 1955:12) to 'blend these components into a new element which will often be unlike any of its parts'. Given that the conditions confronting the majority of, if not all, African states are similar, there is much to commend the idea that such an activity become a public administration task under the auspices of NEPAD.

Coordinated and cooperative efforts in such specialist activities are especially important when one considers both the African context and the very sophisticated technical infrastructure required by developed countries to address the standards and regulatory issues that confront all African exporters. Naidoo and Kuye (2005:624) have found that 'it is not only the public service's obligation to provide services but [also] to oversee that they are actually delivered'. Such a role, in the context of the subject under discussion, involves not only defining an initial and ongoing public administration contribution but also creating the necessary conditions for

attracting, engaging and ultimately leading and cooperating with the private sector and other important stakeholders. The creation of suitable structures and processes to guide the work of such administrators is crucial to success. If such effort is required of one state, South Africa, in one of the Regional Economic Cooperation's (RECs) of NEPAD, namely the Southern African Development Community (SADC), why not share experience and knowledge both within the REC and also within NEPAD?

African countries are normally standards takers not standards makers. The cost of overprinting an international standard, and then distributing such as a local agent, is relatively small. The counter argument is that, especially in Africa, many of the experts involved in the development of such standards, either locally or internationally, and their subsequent initial interpretation and assessment, are specialist public officials employed by African standards' organisations. There is a need therefore to balance the views of these expert staff in both regional and international discussions on the technical issues surrounding trade facilitation with those of other stakeholders. The positions taken should reflect prevailing realities rather than serving narrow organisational or even self interests. Such influential bias can clearly be seen in the NEPAD document which stresses the need to 'establish organisations on national standards in African countries' (NEPAD, 2001:51); 'establish standards bureaux' (NEPAD, 2001:52); and 'tackle trade barriers in international trade through the improvement of standards' (NEPAD, 2001:55). Although partly true this is unfortunately not the whole picture.

It is evident that in the African context, the public sector, and public administration, has a key role in creating initial technical capability and capacity. With reference to the research topic (the role of the new partnerships for Africa's development), increasingly direct foreign and local investment is predicated on issues such as the availability of a sound conformity assessment infrastructure. It is vital that production facilities located in Africa can cost effectively prove compliance with international requirements, especially in respect of environmental and social issues. This trend in turn can be expected to boost the demand for more sophisticated

conformity assessment capability and services. Jreisat (2002:70) argues that 'In order to meet its obligations, a government needs specialized institutions.' This study proposes that an initiative under NEPAD could offer the chance for African countries to share the burden accruing from the creation and maintenance of such specialised capacity in all of its many facets.

1.3   GLOBALISATION, AFRICA AND AFRICAN TRADE

As companies in Africa grow from serving the needs of their local consumers they will be faced with issues accessing other markets that can only be solved by the local availability of appropriate technical support. Governments in Africa, as elsewhere, can no longer prevent competition by the imposition of tariffs. A growth in technical requirements can be expected. African countries need to embrace regional solutions for their technical needs, especially in the area of conformity assessment. Given the long lead times between conception and realisation of projects of such a specialised nature, it is vital that African states identify their needs for technical capacity building for trade facilitation as a priority project and commit appropriate human and other resources to it. Experience has shown that technical infrastructure capacity building and enhancing projects are by no means short term in nature and require large amounts of ongoing capital and operational expenditure. If African governments are serious about creating an enabling environment for export–led growth, it is obvious that well considered, appropriately timed and funded public administration–led interventions are required. These interventions cannot be merely incentive driven; They must also be appropriately supported by credible technical support from public institutions. It is clear therefore that public administrators have a major, collective role to play in ensuring that the intentions of their political leaders in this area are successfully carried out and that they achieve the desired outcomes.

Research by the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO, 2006:1) points out that 'most countries in Africa have failed to reap significant benefits from trading opportunities in expanding markets'. Thoburn (2000:4) declares that 'Africa, particularly sub–Saharan Africa, has been slow

to participate in globalisation'. The same author (Thoburn, 2000:4) points out that even though 'world trade has been rising faster than world output consistently since the second world war, this has not been true of Africa'. The UNIDO research (2006:1) notes that 'African markets are too constrained for adequate industrial expansion' and stresses that African producers of goods and services 'require access to global markets if vital increases in employment and income levels are to be achieved'. A possible reason as to why this might be so is provided in findings from Jun (2000:281) who reports that 'since the 1990s, economic globalization has further contributed to market rationality and competition' which, he (Jun, 2000:281) contends, 'is a basic characteristic of global free trade'. This is a view that is challenged in part by Jackson (2001:11) who also notes the lack of convincing theoretical evidence 'to support the case that competition is good'. Kotze and Steyn (2003:86) also refer to 'Africa's inability to capitalise on the process of globalisation' particularly over the last twenty years. They (Kotze & Steyn, 2003:86) also note the double impediments of a continuing loss of resources and less than optimal terms of trade. Giving an example from South Africa that anticipates support for these assertions, Abbot, Roberts and Robins (1999:37) contend that 'tough residue regulations and stringent phyto–sanitary controls make access to the US market difficult and are perceived by many as disguised protectionism'. Europe is also a major market for African produce. The role of European agricultural subsidies has been at issue for a long time. Abbot, et al. (1999:37) assert that the competitiveness of South African business is 'hampered by agricultural subsidies'.

South Africa has very sophisticated technical support infrastructures in place that are on a par with some of the best developed countries. Such is not the case, with rare exceptions, for the majority of countries in the rest of Africa. Given that both the United States and Europe are major markets not only for South, but also for the rest of Africa, one wonders how other African countries are going to cope if South Africa is facing such difficulties. While noting that South Africa has been successfully competitive, Nwonwu (2006:11) believes that because the vast majority of the other African states 'are suffering from technological backwardness' they only have the limited option of exporting

primary agricultural commodities 'with consequent low export earnings'. The predominant reality facing Africa – that of increasing difficultly in accessing international markets and gaining any benefit from globalisation – is the cause of desperate measures. Nwonwu (2006:2) also argues that the various African states are almost forced 'to adopt strategies that would contrive the realization of economic growth and sustainable development'.

The growth in global trade and a need to adhere to a set of common and internationally agreed rules places enormous pressures on African governments. As parties to international conventions and treaties, they need to intelligently participate in the creation and application of international, trade–related, regulations and standards. But what about those African countries who are individually unable to exercise this responsibility but are subject to its far reaching consequences? Given the present imbalances in the global environment, what are (1) the trade–related policy issues that jointly face African States and (2) how can coordinated African state intervention and African public administrators play a larger role in improving the situation? A specific problem for instance is that African exporters frequently face difficulties in gaining access to foreign markets due to requirements to have products tested and assessed in the importing country to ensure they meet local regulatory requirements. As Ngoatje (2006:41) points out: 'Current trade rules create serious barriers to the processing and value adding that Africa needs in order to speed up economic growth.'

One important element of the current trade rules debate revolves around the issue of national regulations. Some regulation is required, according to Pongsiri (2002:490), as 'a key element to maintain competitive market discipline on public service provisions in developing countries'. Henderson and McGloin (2004:392) also emphasise the need 'for the establishment of a legal framework involving a complex mixture of regulatory activity'. The complexity is required, according to the same authors (Henderson & McGloin, 2004:392), 'to reduce opportunistic tendencies'. In the absence of such legal frameworks, Henderson and McGloin (2004:392) note that 'disputes are likely to occur and projects can and will be delayed'.

This gives rise to the question of models for regulatory practice in SQAM that Africa can learn from. Context is vitally important especially when dealing with the legacy of African colonial administrative systems that are largely still in place. White ([1926] 1955:5) points out that there are basically 'two great systems of government administration'. The one 'Anglo–American' is characterized by a preference for 'self–government in local communities'. The second, 'French' is characterized by a 'dominance of national over local authorities'. With reference to the American tradition of Public Administration, Langrod (1961:72) notes that 'business management, unknown and neglected in the European tradition, became for a time the American model for, and big brother to Public Administration'. All of which is important contextual information given the history of colonial domination within Africa previously mentioned. The present–day thrust by the WTO and other donor–related activities in the area of technical capacity building will continue and hopefully increase. Tangible benefits will remain variable unless such a fundamental problem is understood and appropriately addressed.

An interesting but critical by–product of the present form of globalisation is mentioned by Farazmand (1999:513) who notes that the 'global corporate structure has also produced…a new level of organizational elite that tend[s] to influence public policy and administrative decisions virtually anywhere on the planet'. One important reason for the existence of such specialised individuals is reported by Harris and Fleisher (2005:xxxiv) who argue that the worth to commercial organisations of getting a word change to, or special exception inserted in, regulations 'can be worth millions of dollars, euros or pounds'. Another reason why large private sector Multinational Corporations (MNCs), that are based predominantly in developed countries have identified the need for such a role is perhaps answered by earlier research undertaken by Welch and Wong (1998). Governments and their bureaucracies, according to these authors (Welch & Wong, 1998:43), 'are increasingly making decisions that incorporate global constraints and opportunities into their own domestic agendas'. Fuhr (2001:424) raises a similar issue and not only declares that 'globalization makes the traditional spheres of policy–making and governing in sovereign states more porous' but also continues that 'transnational policy

co–ordination among governments and new global public policies may constrain policy making by nation states in several critical areas'. If MNCs see the benefit of such activity African states should do so too.

NEPAD has played a very important role, according to Herbert (2004:2), in 'sensitising the world about African issues, such as trade'. Based on and building onto such sensitisation, a logical next step would be some sort of coordinating role for NEPAD, as far as African governments and their related public administered infrastructures are concerned, is needed to ensure that African manufacturers and service providers also gain a fairer share in future from the fruits of globalisation rather than continue to suffer from the consequences of marginalisation. Although logical, such an outcome is not automatic. Herbert (2004:4) also points out that 'African leaders remain unable to define clearly what NEPAD is'. He contends that 'many descriptions have been offered' but that 'they fail to answer two questions that are essential to any plan…what specifically does the plan propose to do and who will do the doing?

In the African context, earlier sporadic and uncoordinated interventions need to be carefully considered in order to ensure that previous mistakes are not inadvertently repeated. Nwafor (2003:3) reminds us that in Africa: 'It was generally believed that after independence, the apparatus of state would be used to eliminate mass poverty and deprivation and generally improve the quality of life of Africans.' Hartzenberg, Hoffman, Abeasi and Mbumba (2007:3) also mention the same public sector–led strategy but add that 'governments gave the impression (and indeed some governments still continue to act that way) that they can do it single–handedly and provide all the development needs of their respective countries'. These authors (Hartzenberg, et al., 2007:3) continue 'it was not the best approach because it ignored the tremendous potential of the private sector as a credible partner or ally in the development equation. This is what has become known as making the private sector the engine of economic and social growth' (Hartzenberg, et al., 2007:3). Research by Bayliss and Hall (2002:4) has found that 'private sector options should not be pursued where government stewardship is not

able to enforce quality levels', all of which points to the careful balancing act required of African governments to open markets, provide appropriate publicly funded technical infrastructure and encourage the private sector to take an active and increasing role in service delivery, while remaining ultimately accountable to the larger electorate. The need for African states to satisfy the ever increasing expectations of ordinary citizens regarding tangible personal benefits flowing from greater global inter connectivity coupled with coping with the relentless pressure by the developed nations for greater access to African markets would imply a greater coordinating role for NEPAD. This could only occur as part of a delegation of responsibilities by these states in certain of the identified technical support areas. it is vital therefore that a role for NEPAD be clearly enunciated in this regard.

1.4 THE NEED FOR AFRICAN STATES TO CREATE AND MAINTAIN SUPPORTIVE TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE TO ASSIST IN GREATER MARKET LIBERALISATION

Responsible African governments want to seize the benefits of globalisation for their nationals, that is, larger markets and greater income for their local industries and lower prices for their consumers. The pursuit by African governments of such a laudable objective needs a carefully thought out strategy. Any interventions would require both political and administrative components. The challenge is to achieve such objectives whilst limiting the unintended consequences of any downstream actions such as higher safety risks, due to inferior quality imported goods, for the local consumer. Sophisticated technical requirements are obviously a major concern to African countries owing to their potential to negatively impact on exports from the continent. Such a concern has been identified by NEPAD. The need to 'establish organisations on national standards' and 'harmonise the technical regulatory frameworks' of African countries (NEPAD, 2001:51) is specifically highlighted. The widespread global focus on the role of internationally harmonised standards in trade facilitation logically leads to the issue of how does one satisfactory prove compliance of an African product or service against such a standard? To ensure that products or services comply with

technical regulations or standards increasingly requires some sort of credible conformity assessment, for example, laboratory testing, inspection or third party certification. A global demand has therefore been created for appropriate mechanisms that allow for independent proof of the competence of both conformity assessment bodies and the integrity of the associated national technical support infrastructure. NEPAD (2001:51) has identified the need to 'acquire membership of relevant international standards organisations'. This strategy is required in order to 'give Africa a stronger voice in these bodies'.

An icon of modern economics, Adam Smith ([1776] 2003:xviii), expressed concern as far back as 1776 that 'merchants and manufacturers, pursuing their own self–interest, would orchestrate government regulation…to their advantage'. It is interesting therefore to note that, in Africa at least, the previously mentioned public providers of conformity assessment services could potentially be just as problematic. This is especially important if one considers that much effort and donor funding, encouraged by the WTO, are presently focused on creating such sustainable technical infrastructure in developing countries, particularly in Africa. Although the role of the private sector is recognised as being important, little is actually being done to create conditions for a more active role on their part. Another difficulty is that in many cases, substantial income from levies is generated against regulations and then used to provide income for most public Standards bodies.

As African states try to better integrate into the wider, and brutally competitive, global economy such challenges will not decrease. In facing this challenge there are several further issues. One is how should a country migrate from donor or government driven creation of publicly administered technical support capacity and delivery to encouraging an appropriate mix of public and private institutional capacity where required? A related issue is how to address sustainable private sector conformity assessment service provision in such a highly technical and potentially expensive field.

African governments, with appropriate public sector support, also need to address the issues of differing standards and support offered to competitors in the appropriate international forums like the WTO. They also have to ensure that there are appropriate domestic systems in place to back international negotiating positions. African governments certainly cannot be seen to be asking others to do one thing while applying different norms domestically. African governments, through the judicious use of the public sector, also have a key role at least initially in the creation of domestic and / or regional technical capability and capacity.

1.5   THE ROLE OF AFRICAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

It has already been argued that leadership in creating SQAM policy and its subsequent implementation must be seen to be a public administration responsibility. What needs to be managed by the public sector as opposed to that which is delegated to the private sector is another issue entirely. Henry (2007:42) notes that with regard to the type of 'institutional setting, public, nonprofit, or private' within which 'public administration will be done is more open to alternatives than ever before'. The private sector, Kennedy and Hobohm (1999:1) assert, 'has become the central focus for the economic development of African countries in recent years. Two factors account for much of this new emphasis: the failure of public sector led economic development and the rise of globalization'. Diale (2005:59) cautions against 'an umbrella approach to replacing public sector practices with those of the private sector' as this 'will in the long run leave the public, …at the mercy of the self–interested market forces'. Many economists, Pauw, Woods, van der Linde, Fourie and Visser (2002:19) point out, 'agree that there is a phenomenon called market failure'. This, they state, 'means that not all goods and services that the members of a community need or want will ever be produced on an individual payment basis'. (Pauw, et al., 2002:19). This is definitely the case as far as technical infrastructure is concerned, not only in South Africa where it is already well advanced even compared to developed countries, but also in the wider African region. Outside South Africa, prevalent activity in the area of conformity assessment relies mainly on funding the

normally underdeveloped infrastructure of the various national Bureaux of Standards based on their assessment of prevailing country needs. Private sector development of conformity assessment bodies, if considered at all, is largely seen as an unrelated and even unwelcome activity and effort is certainly not focused on producing a sustainable private sector component. This leads to the creation of specialised public capacity that ultimately impedes the creation of a sustainable private sector in this area while actively discouraging any chance of growth.

Several approaches to the provision of conformity assessment are mooted by such influential bodies as the World Bank, the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the European Union (EU). These proposed remedies fall, simplistically, into two categories. One is private sector dominated and based on an underlying philosophy of control by the so–called market forces of competition and relying on the Suppliers Declaration of Conformity (SDoC). This approach is enthusiastically driven in international forums, largely by the United States. The second, the so–called 'New Approach' relies on appropriately sophisticated regulation and a menu of conformity assessment choices based on risk. The latter approach is preferred by the European Union (EU). The EU promotes this view for at least two reasons. One is the inherent risk from incorrect but cheap test results. Another is the legislative need as contained in European Directives for public institutions within Europe to take appropriate responsibility for protecting the welfare of their citizens. Stone's (2004:571) assertion, that 'two contradictory interpretations cannot both be true…and political life is full of them', sums up the situation exactly. African industry needs to export to both of these important markets complete with their 'contradictory interpretations'.

There is a need to determine if there is a cost effective way, as an African country exporter, to satisfy the apparently conflicting but entrenched export market philosophies on which the fragile global trading system is presently constructed. Stewart (1999:106) asserts that 'despite the presence of structures and processes which favour Northern economies, there are opportunities for developing nations and their companies to produce and

trade [in] a variety of goods and services'. Unfortunately Stewart does not then elaborate in any detail where the problems usually emerge. Of direct relevance to African public administration and the associated public institutions are the findings from Raadschelders (2000:381) who declares that 'the influence of the West on African government is not only visible in the pursuit of Western style reforms but also continues to be visible in the usage of Western–based theoretical frameworks for analyzing reform'. Jreisat (2002:121) challenges such a generic strategy and argues that the 'administrative concepts and techniques evolved in the context of the social, economic, and political conditions of Western countries are not fully valid or applicable in the new contexts'. That the concerns of Jreisat are valid is underlined by Nzwei and Kuye (2007:205) who report that 'policies from the North may be well intended, there have been no conclusive research evidence that they have worked'. A good reason why this may be the case is provided by Haruna (2004:202) who contends that 'because public problems are "wicked," there can be no quick fixes'.

Should African countries blindly follow present global trade and SQAM related orthodoxies? There is sufficient evidence that African states need to become more active in the international trade arena and shape it towards serving their own interests. They cannot rely on the good intentions of the private sector whose *raison d'être* ranges from self–preservation for small or newly emerging businesses at one extreme to global domination by the large MNCs in brutal competition with each other at the other end of the spectrum. Neither of these two extremes easily accommodates an altruistic outlook as far as African countries or their domestic industries are concerned. This would suggest an important role for public administration in general and African Governments working, independently or preferably together, on mutually beneficial strategies in particular.

The need for African countries to actively participate at the international level to protect its interests while simultaneously researching policies and frameworks that would benefit its citizens is already an overwhelming challenge. To these tasks must also be added the need for successful

ongoing implementation of such policies. Such complex and interlinking activities need to be managed whilst coping with increasing demands for the rationalisation of both the services government provides and the public officials required to execute such tasks. Each one of these activities is significant in its own right let alone in combination. The effort required to try to perform such tasks simultaneously, in a coordinated fashion that achieves the desired benefits, whilst minimising unintended consequences, defies the imagination. All of which causes Stiglitz (2007:21) to posit that globalisation creates a far greater need for countries to 'act together to solve their common problems'. The implication is that far greater responsibility needs to be taken by African governments, before seeking assistance, to more fully understand what they want to achieve. Related issues are how they would determine success and whether the proffered remedies by others would indeed provide sustainable solutions.

South Africa is currently the only country in Africa that has fully developed the sophisticated infrastructure required to prove equivalence of conformity assessment activities. South Africa's experience could provide valuable lessons for those donors and recipients who think that technical infrastructure capacity building and strengthening projects are a short term remedy. Mathiasen (2005) provides some sage advice in this regard. Mathiasen (2005: 667) notes that 'what works and what does not tends to be heavily context–dependent, that is to say, a technique or organizational structure that succeeds in one place may fail in another'. At issue therefore is the role that African Governments and related public administered infrastructures might play, individually and cooperatively within a framework such as NEPAD, in creating the appropriate environment for African manufacturers and service providers to gain from participation in international trade.

1.6 THE COORDINATION OF AFRICAN TECHNICAL INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT AS PART OF NEPAD

The initial and ongoing role of both private and public funded conformity assessment activity and the supporting technical infrastructure is an important component in creating holistic solutions for Africa in addressing Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT's). In facing this challenge there are several issues. As already mentioned, one is how countries migrate from a scenario of donor or government driven creation of publicly administered service capacity and delivery to one that encourages the creation and use of an appropriate mix of public / private institutions. A related issue is how to address sustainable private sector conformity assessment service provision in such a highly technical field. Melber (2004:4) for one expresses doubt about a meaningful role for NEPAD. He claims that 'NEPAD remains controversial among leaders of African states. It has also utterly failed to gain approval from many stakeholders'. A factor that is 'indispensable for the success of NEPAD' according to Ngoatje (2006:41) is the role of partnerships between 'Africa and the richest countries of the North'. It might also be useful to also stress the need for appropriate partnership with the richest country in the South of Africa. Ngoatje (2006:41) does argue that such partnerships need to be grounded 'on mutual respect, dignity, shared responsibility and mutual accountability' – essential advice, given South Africa's past traumatic relationship with many African States.

South Africa is one of only two African states (the other is Egypt) with the standards, metrology and accreditation functions fully separated and independently operational as envisaged by the NEPAD document. Such a separation has been a slow, painful and relatively expensive exercise that mimics developed European countries but would be impossible to replicate in many African states. Regional provision of such facilities is also mooted by NEPAD. A regional accreditation service has only just begun in one of the NEPAD RECs, SADC, supported by both South African and Norwegian funding. The many challenges that have had to be addressed over a period of nearly eight years prior to this realisation are fully addressed in the case

studies in Chapter 4 of this thesis. The lessons learnt from the South African and SADC initiatives in the area of standards and conformity assessment related technical support structure creation and maintenance are investigated and compared to work at the NEPAD level in order to extract guidance and lessons for future work in this important area.

1.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented an overview of the emergence of a new form of globalisation and its impact on African countries that seek to grow through inter and intra regional trade. Given the focus of the study, the role of public administration in the support of trade facilitation was articulated. The need for African states to corporately and individually address the issue of supportive technical infrastructure was identified as an important area of activity under the umbrella of NEPAD. Thereafter a definite role for African public administration was expounded. The role identified for NEPAD and its limitations followed with some of the accompanying challenges that are foreseen as areas of concern. Informed by this background, the next chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted to allow a deeper investigation of the many and various issues involved in African SQAM.

CHAPTER 2

Research Methodology

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Although not always the case, in many instances, research is predicated on the identification of a particular problem. Ayto (1993:413) points out that, etymologically, a problem is something 'thrown forward' and argues that 'things that are 'thrown out' project and can get in the way and hinder one'. Hoad (2003:400) also adopts an etymological perspective, and defines research as an intensive search. The same source (Hoad, 2003:400) notes that there is a purpose and focus to such an investigation which is to lead to discovery. Given these insights it is postulated that the purpose of the research is an intensive investigation directed towards discovery of obstacles and their causes albeit with a focus on trade facilitation, Africa and NEPAD. Arriving at such an initial understanding is an important and vital step for determining how to proceed. In order, however, to make further progress it is very important to consider, amongst other things, the scope, context, focus and depth of such an 'intensive investigation'.

The first decision in narrowing the focus of the research is the decision to adopt a public perspective. Given the African trade facilitation context of this research project and the concomitant regional environment, it is suggested that a focus on research for the African public sector is a valuable exercise. The potential to identify interesting opportunities for unique public administration insights is ever present, given the rich cultural heritage of Africa that is still largely untapped. If further justification were necessary, and noting the link between the public sector and the political environment, especially in Africa, one need look no further than Stone (2004). Stone (2004:571) asserts that '[s]omething cannot be two different things at once. Two contradictory interpretations cannot both be true. A paradox is just such an impossible situation, and political life is full of them'. One might add that so is the prevailing understanding of Africa and its problems.

Is research into African public policies and their successful implementation therefore an optional extra that might or should be done as resources permit? Cloete (2006:285) would challenge that view and argues not only that 'the economic, effective and efficient performance of every activity of a public institution requires that it be subject to research' but also 'that the research findings are taken into account by political office–bearers and officials'. Cloete's remarks are obviously based on some fundamental assumptions about both the type of research processes adopted and the intelligent use of the results once the research is completed. Cloete is acutely aware of the difficulties in the latter case. He (Cloete, 2006:286) calls attention to the fact that 'it is essential that political office–bearers and officials have the knowledge and skill to use research and research findings to obtain economic, effective and efficient public administration'. It is obviously possible to gain deeper understanding through research prior to, during, and after policy implementation, even when evaluating any unintended consequences. As Brynard (2006:169) sagely points out '[p]olicy comprises vague guidelines for decision making'.

This chapter identifies relevant research instruments and data analysis methods employed in academic research of public administration issues. It then provides insights into the rationale behind the use of the particular research methodologies that have been chosen for the study. The reasons for the research and its objectives are also explained. The definitions used, limitations and value of the research are then articulated followed by a conclusion to the chapter.

2.2 RESEARCH IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

With reference to the 'object of administrative study', Woodrow Wilson ([1887] 1988:9) argued that such studies were required in order to ascertain both 'what government can properly and successfully do', and 'how it can do these proper things with the utmost possible efficiency'. In discussing the nature of public administration, many authors discuss the difficulty of prescribing boundaries for the issues and activities covered by the subject (White,

1955:4; Rainey, Backoff and Levine, 1976:234; Henry, 1986:41; Jordan, 2006b:634; Lanham, 2006:605; Rugge, 2007:115; Thoenig, 2007:89). In order to assist in the delimitation of studies of public administration and the public sector, Robbins (1980:69) and Schwella (1999:348) agree to a focus on three generic areas: purpose, the means and 'the power required by the bureaucracy' to achieve the desired results. Robbins (1980:69) and Schwella (1999:348) also agree that deeper understanding of the means assists in gaining new insights that could contribute towards future 'optimal utilisation of human and other facilitating resources'. As Robbins (1980:68) asserts 'all three spheres are interdependent and closely interwoven'.

An 'important interdependency' is identified by Heyen (2000:721) between 'administrative tasks, administrative professions, and administrative sciences'. He (Heyen, 2000:721) concludes that 'no component of this complex changes fundamentally without causing changes in [the] other parts'. Regarding how best to study the field of public administration, which acknowledges that there are 'numerous schools of thought', Pfiffner and Presthus (1967:10) point out that 'most of them fall into three categories: legal–historical, structural–descriptive, and behavioural'. These three areas will be now looked at in more detail.

2.2.1 The legal historical approach to the study of public administration

The legal–historical approach to the study of public administration, according to Pfiffner and Presthus (1967:10), is based on 'a framework of legal rights and obligations of government', and that an important point when considering the legal–historical approach is to note that 'policy and administration are separated'. Public administration is an historical discipline, according to Heyen (2000:720) as the 'object of study is historical' and the 'study itself is historical'. Such a view is supported more recently in studies by Jun (2000) and Jordan (2006b). New possibilities, Jun (2000:280) asserts, 'must be reflexively examined in relation to history and to tradition' – a vital insight that appears to have been sadly lacking in many of the foreign imposed solutions for Africa in the context of the research. Jordan (2006b:632) also encourages

one to return to 'the early texts with a critical eye for lasting insights' as a prerequisite before beginning 'to grapple with other concepts'. Moreover, Raadschelders, Wagenaar, Rutgers, and Overeem, P. (2000:773) caution against using an historical perspective as 'a mere annex to the study'. These authors (Raadschelders, et al., 2000:777) argue that '[a]lthough history cannot point the way into unknown territory, it could help us to map what is there'. While cautioning against unrealistic expectations, they (Raadschelders, et al., 2000:775) point to the usefulness of administrative history, which can summarised into three components. The first component is to acquire knowledge that would assist in a better understanding of the present. The second is to obtain practical insights from such knowledge. The knowledge and insights thus obtained are then used towards finding appropriate solutions to present–day problems. Given the African context of this research, Thoenig (2007:89) offers a pertinent reminder that '[p]olicy choices made in the past shape choices made today'. Historical approaches, he (Thoenig, 2007:90) rightly avers also 'underline the fact that politics and policies shape institutions'. This is an important point that will become increasing evident later in the study.

2.2.2 The structural descriptive approach to the study of public administration

The structural–descriptive approach, according to Pfiffner and Presthus (1967:11), accepts the relevance and assumptions of 'scientific management' and business methods for application in the study of public administration. The downside to such an approach according to the same authors (Pfiffner & Presthus, 1967:11) is that it 'tends to restrict the field to organization and personnel management combined with financial and legal controls'.

With reference to the 'traditional approach' to the study of public administration in South Africa, both Rowland (1987:62) and Hanekom and Thornhill (1993:86) refer to a grouping proposed originally by Cloete (2006:85) into generic administrative and delivery, auxiliary and 'functional, also referred to as line functions'. Such a categorisation by Cloete has strong

ties to the structural–descriptive approach. The benefit of such an approach in the local context, according to Hanekom and Thornhill (1993:86), is the provision of a framework to 'explain the administrative duties of an official in a supervisory post in the public sector'.

A major and unintended consequence in the South African environment argues Rowland (1987:58) is that because Cloete's approach resembled a 'dogma', it unfortunately led to 'stagnation in academic thought and discussion' which is only relatively recently being addressed given both the new found freedom and associated challenges now facing South Africa.

2.2.3 The behavioural approach to the study of public administration

The behavioural approach to the study of public administration, Pfiffner and Presthus (1967:12) declare is 'concerned essentially with the systematic study of human behavior in an organizational context'. The usefulness of the approach is based on the assumption that although the 'substance of admin-istrative programs is obviously varied, individual and group behavior in bureaucratic organizations tends to exhibit significant regularity' (Pfiffner & Presthus, 1967:12).

In the context of public administration and with reference to Africa, Haruna (2004:205) states that '[t]he old mechanisms for studying Africa as a continent in crises of poverty, disease, conflict, squalor, and corruption that has been used as an experimental laboratory are no longer enough'. He (Haruna, 2004:205) stresses the need to 'investigate people's modes of understanding of organization, authority, government, and public service' as a vital initial step. The suggested emphasis clearly aligns itself to the behavioural approach.

2.3 APPROACHES TO POLICY EVALUATION IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration, according to Fesler (1980:3), 'translates paper

declarations of intent into reality'. That such a translation exercise is not trivial is alluded to by the same author (Fesler, 1980:5) who argues that related activities include 'shaping of policy on the way up, execution of policy after it has been made, and…decision making about policy matters on the way down'. Such an understanding is supported by the earlier work of White ([1926] 1955:4) who, writing about the role of Administration, concluded that it provides the means through which 'policy adjustments are made effective'. In order to better understand different policy options there are several established models identified in the literature.

One set of models specifically concentrates on analysing the content of a policy. Four of the most popular of these models, the rational–comprehensive model, the incremental model, the mixed–scanning model and, lastly, the so–called "garbage can" approach are described in paragraphs 2.3.1 to 2.3. 4. Another set of models within the incrementalist public policy paradigm addresses the policy–making process. The institutional, group, systems and elite / mass models for analysing public policy–making processes are further described in paragraphs 2.3.5 to 2.3.8 respectively.

2.3.1 The rational–comprehensive model for policy content analysis

According to Birkland (2005:214) and De Coning and Cloete (2006:34), the rational–comprehensive model for policy content analysis can be traced to rational–comprehensive decision–making. Henry (2007:283) argues that the rationalist paradigm is 'theoretical, effectual, prescriptive and normative'. Lindblom (2005:29) calls the rational comprehensive method of decision–making the "root" method, because decisions start from the "root" of the issue or problem. The rational–comprehensive model assumes that a policy maker has access to, and choice of, a comprehensive range of policy options. Using the rational–comprehensive approach, a policy analyst needs to identify and then analyse all possible policy alternatives. Such an analysis would also include all discipline specific frameworks. The next step would be to investigate the consequences contingent upon each option. The final activity would be to choose an appropriate option(s) from the possible alternatives

that would satisfy the identified need in its broadest context. Dye (2005:15), for instance, asserts that rationalism attempts, through the selected policy, to attain the greatest possible 'social gain'. Dye (2005:15), points out that a rational policy is one where differences between the values achieved and those sacrificed are 'positive and greater than any other policy alternative' and argues that polices that cost more than the intended benefits should not even be considered.

The rational model is underpinned by several important assumptions. These are that initially a decision maker understands the problem and also what is needed or desired as an outcome once the problem is solved. Their next task is to gather all the available, relevant information in addition to that already in their possession. The final phase, according to Birkland (2005:215), is to examine the various alternatives including taking no further action. A major critic of the approach, Lindblom (2005:27), asserted in 1959 that '[i]t is impossible to gather all the information about a particular problem; one could spend a lifetime doing so and not find a final answer'. Considering the vast improvement in information storage and retrieval systems since then, Birkland (2005:215) argues that 'significant resource constraints and time pressure' prevent today's decision makers from collecting 'all the information needed'. Frederickson and Smith (2003:167) contend that individual, but notably collective, decision makers 'are constrained by limited cognitive capacity, incomplete information, and unclear linkages between decisions and outcomes'.

In recognition of such a reality, the 1978 Nobel Laureate in economics, Herbert Simon, referred to 'bounded rationality' (Birkland, 2005:216; Shafritz & Russell, 2005:53). Bounded rationality considers the constraints of time, limited information and imperfect human ability. The concept notes that a decision maker will behave as rationally as possible 'within certain bounds or limits'. Several authors (Frederickson & Smith, 2003:167, Shafritz & Russell, 2005:53) refer to the "satisficing" concept, invented by Simon that asserts that decision makers, rather than finding the best course of action, usually search for actions that are good enough.

2.3.2 The incremental model for policy content analysis

The incremental model was championed by Lindblom in a ground–breaking article called 'muddling through' published in Public Administration Review in 1959 (Birkland, 2005:216; Dye, 2005:18; Oberman, 2005:65; Shafritz & Russell, 2005:53; De Coning & Cloete, 2006:34; Henry, 2007:284). Lindblom (2005:28) argues that decisions are made in relatively small increments and are often based more on events and circumstances than policy. These choices are also usually made in environments characterised by incomplete access to key sources of information. Henry (2007:283) notes that the incremental policy analysis paradigm is 'substantive, processual, descriptive and objective'.

The incremental approach, Oberman (2005:65) contends, uses 'successive limited comparisons as opposed to comprehensive analysis'. According to Dye (2005:18), the policy makers focus their attention on 'new programs and polices and on increases, decreases, or modifications of current programs'. De Coning and Cloete (2006:34) also note that the incremental model 'regards public policy as a continuation of existing government activities with the potential for small, incremental adoptions only'. The underlying assumption is that a rational and more comprehensive approach to change in the public environment is impossible given the inherent difficulties associated with 'obtaining full and adequate data on all aspects of policy' (De Coning & Cloete, 2006:34). The incremental method, according to Birkland (2005:216), gives scope for a decision maker 'to take a fair number of short cuts'. He (Birkland, 2005:216) notes that decision–making efficiencies include the elimination of 'the need to explicitly separate means from ends, to pick the analytically "best" policy, and to rely heavily on theories that the decision maker may have neither the time nor the inclination to use'. Another important advantage is identified by De Coning and Cloete (2006:34) who point out that 'incremental adaptation contributes to a redefinition of policy on a continuous basis'. Lindblom (2005:29) describes incrementalism, or successive limited comparisons as 'the branch', justifying this description by arguing that 'it uses and builds on what is already known, without relying on reanalyzing

everything about what is currently being done'.

2.3.3 The mixed scanning model for policy content analysis

The rational and incremental models are, according to Shafritz and Russell (2005:54), 'often viewed as two ends of a continuum'. Contending that these two models provide 'useful intellectual tools for conceptualizing the decision–making process', they (Shafritz & Russell, 2005:54) note the existence of 'a "split the difference" compromise model that combines the two'. The mixed–scanning model was developed as an alternative to the previous models in 1967 by Etzioni (2005:46). It seeks to obtain short–term solutions to problems by using both the incrementalist and rational–comprehensive approaches. Etzioni (2005:48) points out that '[u]sers of the mixed–scanning model integrate the good characteristics of the rational–comprehensive model with those of the incremental model'.

2.3.4 The garbage can approach to policy content analysis

The last model that will be described is the so called "garbage can" approach (Birkland, 2005:218; Oberman, 2005:65; De Coning & Cloete, 2006:36). Frederickson and Smith (2003:177) refer to the Cohen, March, and Olsen's description of an organisation as 'a collection of choices looking for problems, issues and feelings looking for decision situations in which they might be aired, solutions looking for issues to which they might be the answer, and decision makers looking for work'. Birkland (2005:218) notes that '[t]here are three elements or streams in the garbage can model: problems, solutions, and participants'. According to Birkland (2005:218), an important aspect of the model is the availability of many existent solutions looking for problems 'as much as vice versa'. Another distinguishing feature is the presence and role of participants who are 'looking for a way to participate' and 'advance their solution to a problem, even when it seems that they are simply carrying a solution in search of a problem' (Birkland, 2005:218).

2.3.5 The institutional model for analysing the policy–making process

According to the institutional model, 'public policy is the product of public institutions' (De Coning & Cloete, 2006:39). Government institutions, according to Dye (2005:13), confer three distinctive characteristics on public policy. These are legitimacy, as they generally involve 'legal obligations', universality, such policies 'extend to all people in a society' and lastly, coercion, violators of such polices can be legitimately imprisoned (Dye, 2005:13).

Proponents of the institutional paradigm (De Coning & Cloete, 2006:39) posit that 'the structure of governmental institutions can have an important bearing on policy results'. According to Henry (2007:286), the model 'describes the arrangements and official duties of bureaus and departments, but customarily it has ignored the living linkages between them'. The same author (Henry, 2007:286) notes that the methodology fell out of favour '[w]ith the onrush of the behavioral revolution in political science' with more reliance being placed on the group, systems and elite–mass models 'in about that order of emphasis'.

2.3.6 The group model for analysing the policy–making process

According to Dye (2005:20), 'Group theory begins with the proposition that interaction among groups is the central fact of politics'. De Coning and Cloete (2006:38) argue that 'group pressures are of particular importance in policy–making processes of a participative nature'. They (De Coning & Cloete, 2006:38) point out that the use of forums to gather policy input is an 'institutionalised arrangement to ensure that interaction' occurs. Henry (2007:285) explains the concept by noting that it can be 'conceived of as a system of forces and pressures acting [on] and reacting to one another in the formulation of public policy'. Dye (2005:20) points out that within group theory, public policy 'is the equilibrium reached in the group struggle'. Frederickson and Smith (2003:232) refer to 'capture theory' that posits the notion that because of too close a relationship with a certain group, regulators can inadvertently become 'advocates of those they purportedly regulate'.

2.3.7 The systems model for analysing the policy–making process

The systems model is based on the work of Easton in the mid 1960s (Birkland, 2005:201; De Coning & Cloete, 2006:42; Henry, 2007:286). According to Henry (2007:285) and Birkland (2005:201), the systems model conceptualises policy process 'as being essentially cyclical'. Public policy in this paradigm is therefore 'originated, implemented, adjusted, re–implemented, re–adjusted, ad infinitum' (Henry, 2007:285). De Coning and Cloete (2006:40) assert that the systems model 'is regarded as one of the most valuable tools for the purposes of policy analysis'. Birkland (2005:201) argues that such models can help ensure that all aspects of policy–making have been taken into account. Care still needs to be exercised when utilising systemic thinking in public administration. Frederickson and Smith (2003:232) caution that '[t]he inaccurate portrayal of the real world represented by the [politics – administration] dichotomy lessens the replicative, descriptive, and predictive capacities of the theory'. Toonen (2007:307) argues that 'retrospective rationalizations have to be avoided', pointing out that the administrative process 'is full of inconsistencies, and self–induced consequences, but also with unexpected serendipities, which, in the long run, may actually generate some decent results, next to the misses inherent in any experimental and learning process'.

2.3.8 The elite model for analysing the policy–making process

The elite model contends that a small and elite group of policy makers (usually government) is responsible for policy decisions (Birkland, 2005:112; Dye, 2005:22; De Coning & Cloete, 2006:36; Henry, 2007:285). According to Henry (2007:285), the model simplistically segregates society into a small group, or elite, who 'have power and a larger group who do not'. De Coning and Cloete (2006:37) point out that an important corollary of the model is that 'the elite are firmly in power, that they know best and that consensus on policy exists within the elite group'.

The elite model assumes disinterest and even apathy on the part of a largely passive population (Chomsky 1991:2; Dye, 2005:24; De Coning & Cloete,

2006:37; Henry, 2007:285). Dye (2005:23) and Henry (2007:285) opine that the elite share a set of values differing from the masses. These values are then reflected in public policies. The focus is on incremental change to policies only and on substantially preserving the prevailing system because of the advantageous position occupied by the elite within it. Shafritz and Russell (2005:63) argue that elite structures offer little direct participation as they are 'closed, pyramidal, consensual, and unresponsive'.

2.4 THEORIES, CONCEPTS, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DATA

2.4.1 Theories

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:4) a theory is 'an organized body of concepts and principles intended to explain a particular phenomenon'. Cooper and Schindler (2003:54) and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:22) concur but stress the interrelatedness of concepts, definitions, and proposi-tions that together 'present a systematic view of specifying relations among variables'. The challenge, according to Cooper and Schindler (2003:54), is to 'build a better theory and to be more skillful in fitting theory and fact together'. Zikmund (2003:50) identifies the two main purposes of theory as '[p]rediction and understanding'. Theories, Zikmund (2003:50) argues, 'allow us to generalize beyond individual facts or isolated situations'. Welman, et al. (2005:20) suggest that it is desirable that a research project be associated with 'a specific theory'.

With regard to the formulation of theory in public administration 'that could withstand a penetrating analysis', Hanekom and Thornhill (1993:52) acknowledge that it 'may prove to be difficult'. These authors (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1993:52) encourage public administrators 'not [to] shy away from the challenge' and have identified three sequential elements in the process of knowledge orientation and transfer. Their suggested process begins with the summation and subsequent interpretation of extant information in order to arrive at appropriate explanations of administrative phenomena or activities. The next step is to create suitable frameworks 'to order facts and values

related to administration' (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1993:52). The final step is to identify inherent patterns that may in turn assist in guiding action in the future.

2.4.2 Concepts

A concept is defined by Welman, et al. (2005:20) as 'an abstraction representing an object, a property or a certain phenomenon'. They (Welman, et al., 2005:20) argue that '[c]oncepts are the building blocks of any theoretical model'. According to Pesch (2005:15), the use of concepts 'is necessary for humans in order to understand reality and enable communication with others'. Welman et al. (2005:20) state that '[c]oncepts are crucial in the researcher's tool bag' and identify four important reasons for their usage. The first concerns communication. Welman, et al. (2005:20) also argue that 'without a set of agreed concepts, there cannot be any meaningful communication'. The second use is as a means to provide an appropriate perspective. The third is that a concept provides a useful 'means of classification and generalisation' (Welman, et al., 2005:20). Lastly, Welman, et al. (2005:20) note that concepts are 'components of theories and thus of explanations and predictions'

The role and importance of both political and administrative concepts is highlighted by Jordan (2006b:632) who maintains that political concepts assist in the description of 'the utilization and deployment of power'. Administrative concepts, he (Jordan, 2006b:632) stresses can be usefully employed to 'describe the art and science of organizing communication, goods and services in a regime'. One wonders if there are reasons, given the perspective of the research, why such usefulness might be prevented from being usefully extended to a region.

2.4.3 Primary data and Secondary data

Primary data are original data, usually collected at source and assembled for a specific research project (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:149; Zikmund, 2003:740; Welman, et al., 2005:149; Mouton, 2008:69). Cooper and Schindler (2003:87) point out that 'data reflect their truthfulness by closeness to the phenomena'

and note that '[p]rimary data are sought for their proximity to the truth and control over error'.

Secondary data comprise information which already exists, previously collected for some purpose other than the research being undertaken by individuals, agencies and/or institutions other than the researcher themselves (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:149; Zikmund, 2003:741; Welman, et al., 2005:149; Mouton, 2008:71). Cooper and Schindler (2003:87) state the obvious: that '[s]econdary data have had at least one level of interpretation inserted between the event and its recording'.

2.5   STRATEGIC APPROACHES TO RESEARCH

The need for a predetermined amount of theoretical underpinning, structure and rigour in the academic research process is emphasised by Marshall and Green (2004:77). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (1997:72) wisely insist that 'knowledge of the different research traditions enables you to adapt your research design to cater for constraints'.

Table 2.1: Types of Research and methodologies (Adapted from Hussey & Hussey, 1997:84)

Approaches to research	Methodologies
Quantitative or positivistic	Comparative studies
Qualitative or phenomenological	Case studies
Exploratory	Cross–sectional studies
Descriptive	Longitudinal studies
Explanatory	

Various approaches to research and the supportive methodologies are shown in Table 2.1. A detailed explanation of these research paradigms now follows under appropriate sub–headings.

2.5.1 Positivistic or quantitative research

Several authors (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:52; Saunders et al., 1997:77; Rudestam & Newton, 2001:27; Welman et al., 2005:6) note that positivistic research is based on a philosophical approach known as logical positivism. These authors (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:52; Saunders et al., 1997:77; Rudestam & Newton, 2001:27; Welman et al., 2005:6) point out that adopting such an approach implies that the research will be limited to that which can be observed directly, accompanied by logical and objective inferences on the recorded data. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) note that quantitative research usually starts 'with a specific hypothesis to be tested'. Further illumination is provided by Hussey and Hussey (1997:52) who assert that 'precision, objectivity and rigour replace hunches, experience and intuition as the means of investigating research problems'.

Welman et al. (2005:6) point out that the 'positivist approach to research is also known as the quantitative approach'. Hussey and Hussey (1997:12) and Zikmund (2003:111) note that the goal of quantitative research is ultimately quantification of the object under study in numerical form. Such an objective is achieved by the collection and analyses of numerical data. Although Saunders, et al. (1997:77) assert that the positivistic approach to research is strongly based on 'scientific research', Hussey and Hussey (1997:149) indicate that 'data about the variables under study' are collected in positivistic and phenomenological research. The latter is addressed in the next section.

2.5.2 Phenomenological or qualitative research

The phenomenologist (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:52; Saunders, et al., 1997:72; Rudestam & Newton, 2001:38; Welman, et al., 2005:191) is concerned with the description and the elucidation of human experience within a particular context. Welman, et al. (2005:6) declare that the phenomenological approach to research 'is also known as the qualitative approach'. The same authors (Welman, et al., 2005:192) contrast the positivists who 'require a research design to be decided on before data are collected' with the methods adopted

by phenomenologists who 'usually favour emergent designs'. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) point out that 'qualitative researchers often start with general research questions rather than specific hypotheses'.

Rudestam and Newton (2001:36) note that in qualitative research there 'is more emphasis on description and discovery', meaning that 'qualitative data are usually reduced to themes or categories and [are] evaluated subjectively'. The focus of qualitative research, according to Zikmund (2003:111), 'is not on numbers but on words and observations'. Mouton (2008:161) argues that the focus is on 'the process of implementation rather than (quantifiable) outcomes'. Hussey and Hussey (1997:12) contend that a qualitative approach 'is more subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting on perceptions'. Another facet according to Rudestam and Newton (2001:156) is that qualitative studies 'are likely to produce large quantities of data that represent words and ideas rather than numbers and statistics'. They (Rudestam & Newton, 2001:37) note that while such an exercise 'begins with specific observations', it then 'moves toward the development of general patterns that emerge from the cases under study'. In terms of Africa and its development, Jreisat (2002:114) argues that the 'objectives or criteria of development are heavily qualitative and seem to defy direct statistical development'. Such an argument would seem to favour qualititative approaches to research such as the present study.

2.5.3 Exploratory studies

There are three distinct but interrelated purposes for exploratory research identified by Zikmund (2003:111). These are: (1) diagnosing a situation, (2) screening alternatives, and (3) discovering new ideas. According to Saunders et al. (1997:78), Rudestam and Newton (2001:66) and Zikmund (2003:111), exploratory studies are a valuable way to gain greater understanding of either a concept or to obtain greater insights into a problem or both. Hussey and Hussey (1997:10) point out that exploratory research is extremely useful 'when there are very few or no earlier studies' to use as reference with regard to an issue or problem. In the same context, Cooper and Schindler (2003:151)

argue that '[b]oth qualitative and quantitative techniques are applicable, although exploration relies more heavily on qualitative techniques'. Hussey and Hussey (1997,10), Rudestam and Newton (2001:66) and Zikmund (2003:111) agree that although exploratory studies in theory can provide both quantitative and qualitative data, many exploratory studies result in qualitative data only.

2.5.4 Descriptive studies

The object of descriptive research, according to Saunders, et al. (1997:79), is 'to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations'. Hussey and Hussey (1997:10) add that such research 'describes phenomena as they exist'. As a major contribution towards successful research output, Saunders, et al. (1997:79) stress the need for a clear understanding of the phenomena on which data will be collected prior to the beginning of the data collection process. Owing to the need for such clarity, both Saunders, et al. (1997:79) and Zikmund (2003:55) contend that descriptive research 'may be an extension of, or a forerunner to, a piece of exploratory research'. Additional clarification on the role of descriptive research is provided by Zikmund (2003:55) who notes that it 'seeks to determine the answers to who, what, when, where, and how questions'.

2.5.5 Explanatory studies

Explanatory research is the logical next step, according to Hussey and Hussey (1997:11), after completing a descriptive research project. Explanatory research, as its name suggests, attempts to both analyse and explain why things are or are not occurring. Hussey and Hussey (1997:11) and Saunders, et al. (1997:79) point out that after studying a situation or a problem, the emphasis in such research is to identify and explain causal links and relationships between variables.

2.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

Some types of research methodology are associated directly with either the positivistic or the phenomenological approach to research. These linkages are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Linking research strategy to methodologies (Adapted from Hussey & Hussey, 1997:59)

Positivistic		Phenomenological
Associated methodologies		*Associated methodologies*
Comparative studies		Case studies
Cross–sectional studies		Participative enquiry
Longitudinal studies		

2.6.1 Comparative studies

According to Mouton (2008:154), comparative studies focus 'on the similarities and differences between groups of units of analysis'. The use of comparative studies as a tool in public administration research has both enthusiastic proponents and detractors. As one for the former, Jreisat (2002:2) believes that such research 'promotes understanding of global influences while expanding the domain of intellectual inquiry beyond traditional parochial tendencies'. Welch and Wong (1998:41) report that revisionists 'criticize the lack of cumulative knowledge in comparative public administration'. Such criticism is based on a belief that such studies are 'limited to the comparison of bureaucracies operating under similar political, economic and social contexts' (Welch & Wong, 1998:41). Jun (2000:277) argues that the growth in research that uses other approaches is more than enough evidence of the limitations of comparative studies that use established, in other words, 'Western–based theories'. The same author

(Jun, 2000:274) points out that the assumption that 'non–Western countries could adopt Western methods in order to improve their administration' led historically to the incorrect selection of an appropriate theoretical framework in comparative research. Another difficulty is identified by Farazmand (1999:515) who refers to the 'shifting debate over the nature and size of the state and public administration in developing knowledge and building theoretical generalizations'. Jun (2000:277) asserts that 'every society has conflicting visions, goals, and policy orientations', and notes therefore that 'differences among societies and localities are more important to our pursuit of gaining comparative knowledge than are similarities'. This is sage advice indeed given the different legal and public administration traditions in Africa due to its colonial past.

2.6.2 Case studies

Case studies are defined by Mouton (2008:149) and Saunders, et al. (1997:76) as the development of in depth descriptions about a single 'case', or a small number of related 'cases'. The aim of using a case study, according to Zikmund (2003:115), 'is to obtain information from one or a few situations that are similar to the researcher's problem situation'. Saunders, et al. (1997:76) contend that a case study 'can be a very worthwhile way of exploring existing theory'. Jreisat (2002:69) points out that the use of case studies can supply a 'comprehensiveness that is hard to reach through other methods of research without sacrificing specificity and relevance'.

2.6.3 Cross–sectional studies

A cross–sectional study is a snap shot using data collected at a single point in time that focuses on a particular phenomenon or variables in different contexts, but at the same time (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:59; Saunders, et al., 1997:77; Cooper & Schindler, 2003:149; Zikmund, 2003:187).

2.6.4 Longitudinal studies

Several authors (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:62; Cooper & Schindler, 2003:149; Zikmund, 2003:187) point out that longitudinal studies are those that are repeated over an extended period in order to observe and track changes of either a variable or group of subjects that occur over time.

Even when time is a constraint, Saunders, et al. (1997:78) aver that 'it is possible to introduce a longitudinal element' to a study. They (Saunders, et al., 1997:78) base such an assertion on the fact that 'there is a massive amount of published data collected over time just waiting to be analysed!'

2.7 THE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An important prior step to commissioning any new research is to determine what is already available in the specific or related areas of scholarship. This implies a thorough review of appropriate literature. Finn (2005:90) cautions against using this exercise merely to summarise 'the state of knowledge'; he continues: 'although the role of summary is necessary in a literature review, it is far from sufficient.' A critical interrogation of prevailing knowledge, including the identification of any significant gaps, regarding the specific issue(s) under investigation is thus the minimum output expected from a literature review.

With reference to the study of public administration policy, a study by Brynard (2005) has identified the existence of 'three different generations' of research. Brynard (2005:651) reports that the first generation is characterised by assumptions that 'implementation would happen automatically' once 'policies had been authoritatively proclaimed'. The second generation identified by Brynard (2005:651) realised that 'implementation was a political process no less complex (and often more so) than policy formulation'. Brynard (2005:651) points out that the third 'analytical' generation, have been trying to understand 'how implementation works in general and how its prospects might be improved'. Given these developments in public administration research, it is important to understand these underlying assumptions of the various authors

if value is to be obtained from using such prior work to guide future research in related areas. As is elaborated under 2.12 of the current research project, the thrust of this thesis falls broadly into the analytical generation, within very carefully defined parameters but depending upon existing studies, which are examined in some detail in Chapter Three.

2.8   THE SELECTED RESEARCH APPROACH, METHODS AND DESIGN

The methodology adopted for the study is an exploratory study using primary and secondary data collection techniques. These are used as part of a qualitative research approach using some quantitative aspects to enable scientific and logical conclusions to be formulated. As no less a luminary as Albert Einstein (1879–1955) once said 'Not everything that can be counted counts, and not everything that counts can be counted'. The primary sources are personal research, observations and meetings with various public officials, technical experts and international donor organisations over several years at the national, SADC, African regional and international levels aimed at identifying an African approach to providing the specialised technical infrastructure required to reliably prove conformance to appropriate standards and technical specifications.

The secondary sources used are various journal articles, official documents, books and Web sources as quoted. The review of prevailing scholarship begins with a contextualisation of the research within the current global trading arena. Key issues regarding the need for African states to create and maintain a sustainable and functioning technical support infrastructure for trade facilitation are identified. The literature review also notes the existing work in NEPAD. An historic perspective is used to both ground as well as identify the significant future role of African public administration.

Owing to the nature of the topic and the specific focus on the perspective of the role of NEPAD from a public administration viewpoint, three case studies based on national, REC and NEPAD initiatives were chosen for comparison. Rudestam and Newton (2001:43) suggest the adoption of such an approach

in similar circumstances as 'it is more likely that theory will emerge once the data are collected'. As intimated, some limited quantitative secondary data concerning inter and intra regional trade flows are utilised as appropriate to identify trends and highlight related issues for the study.

The first of these case studies identifies and describes relevant activity in South Africa. South Africa is specifically chosen owing to the lessons that can learnt from the many years of experience within the technical institutions there and very recent developments from government strategy in the area under study. The next case study addresses the same activity but using insights from the SADC REC. The final case study investigates the existing activity at the NEPAD level.

Although the review of the scholarship is recognised as an important component of the research, it was recognised from the outset that the ideas acquired in evaluating the three selected case studies would provide both (a) valuable guidance in finalising the structure of the text and also (b) play a crucial role in arriving at an appropriate conceptual framework for African public administration in the area of study.

2.9   THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Nations that trade internationally expect proven compliance of imported agricultural products and manufactured goods against increasingly sophisticated technical requirements. These requirements may be perceived or real Technical Barriers to Trade (TBTs) by their trading partners. The problems experienced in developing countries, such as those in Africa, without credible demonstration of compliance with the aforementioned technical requirements are increasingly and painfully obvious. The public sector is already recognised as having an important role in assisting industry to address these and other market access issues.

Much donor effort in the area of conformity assessment is currently directed at public sector capacity building in Africa but doubts on sustainability are

beginning to surface. A related problem concerns the creation of appropriate and sustainable private sector conformity assessment capability and capacity to support and supplement existing public funded institutions. Prevalent international trends in public administration appear to actively promote a smaller, more focused, public service. Such a trend may be counterproductive in the current context. Any African project that challenges the prevailing orthodoxies would therefore need careful preparation, rationalisation and implementation.

The document 'New Partnership for Africa's Development, October 2001 (Official Text)', sketches some of the aspects regarding the need to create a sustainable technical infrastructure for Africa. This research attempts to identify and explain the impact of the numerous issues confronting Africa and African public administration in order to offer new insights into (a) the need for a harmonised regional approach to lobbying at the international technical level whilst, with specific focus on the role of NEPAD, (b) discussing the need for African public administration specialists in the area under study and (c) exploring the role of NEPAD and African public administration as facilitators of joint solutions for the many challenges involved in the implementation and maintenance of such an infrastructure within Africa.

2.10   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research objectives pertain –

2.10.1 The identification of current NEPAD mechanisms to assist its Regional Economic Communities (RECs) in sustainable capacity building in this area

2.10.2 The identification of areas where NEPAD mechanisms to assist its RECs are currently lacking

2.10.3 The identification of areas where regional public administered technical infrastructure is already assisting African inter and intra regional trade

2.10.4 The identification of areas where regional public administered technical infrastructure is required to assist inter and intra regional trade.

2.11 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

There is an important need for sufficient time and emphasis to be placed initially on question formulation. Saunders et al. (1997:21) encourage such diligence in order to ensure that any subsequent research successfully delivers the intended results. Zikmund (2003:99) expounds the need to begin research with the objective in mind. Cooper (2003:80) also sounds a warning and notes that '[t]o be researchable, a question must be one for which observation or other data collection can provide the answer'. The need for careful preparation in the initial stages of the research process is emphasised by Rugg and Petre (2005). They (Rugg & Petre, 2005:146) affirm that 'asking the right research question is a key academic skill'. As they (Rugg & Petre, 2005:146) insist: 'bad research questions are a common cause…of tragedy when a mistaken result is used for public policy making.'

Focusing on NEPAD, it is clear that African public administrators have a major, collective role in ensuring that the intentions of their political leaders for the continent are successfully carried out and that they achieve the desired outcomes. Such a role involves not only defining an initial and ongoing public administration contribution but also creating the necessary conditions for attracting and engaging the private sector and other important stakeholders.

The research question therefore is: *'To what extent can the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) assist in creating sustainable public and private standards and conformity assessment related infrastructure for African trade facilitation.'*

2.12 THE NEED FOR THE STUDY

Any practice adopted by African countries that gives no external confidence in the continuous competence of its public and private standards and conformity assessment organisations to accurately report on the results of inspections and tests could easily jeopardise more than individual organisation reputations. Although NEPAD has documented some of the underlying issues

at the broader philosophical level, there is no existent research on the role of NEPAD or its constituent RECs regarding the type of public administration mechanisms that should be promoted and adopted to allow sustainable creation of appropriate technical infrastructure needed to address the pressing issue of proving conformity to international standards. The role and type of regional monitoring processes required to ensure cooperative implementation have also not been addressed in any way. The research is therefore undertaken to contribute to the discipline of African public administration by identifying the role of public administrators, acting in concert with and under the auspices of NEPAD, in addressing the trade facilitation and technical capacity building challenges that face the African region.

2.13 DEFINING CONCEPTS AND CONSTRUCTS

***Technical Barriers to Trade* (TBT)** is the World Trade Organization (WTO) term for those potential barriers to international trade that occur once tariff barriers are removed between trading partners. The WTO has a TBT agreement that has been signed by all members. This agreement seeks to ensure that technical regulations, standards and procedures adopted by member states for assessment of conformity do not create unnecessary obstacles to such trade.

Technical regulation is a legislative, public administrative approach used by governments to safeguard the health and safety of consumers as well as the environment. Technical requirements can vary from country to country. Goods must comply with the technical requirements of the relevant country as defined in a specific technical regulation in order to be permitted into that country.

Technical capacitation is a methodological description of the holistic activities and resources required to identify, prioritise, implement and maintain a technical infrastructure in support of specified government policy objectives.

2.14 LIMITATIONS

The study identifies existing and potential trade facilitation initiatives of NEPAD from an African public administration perspective, focusing specifically on the role of NEPAD and African public administration regarding the technical capacitation of infrastructural elements of trade related regulation, standards, metrology and accreditation only.

It is important to point out that South Africa is acknowledged both within the greater region, and internationally, has having by far the most technically sophisticated and internationally recognised domestic SQAM infrastructure. The South Africa government has also actively encouraged its public funded technical experts to take a leading role in SADC over many years. The SADC SQAM interventions are also recognised by other NEPAD RECs, namely the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA) and the East African Community (EAC), as being relatively well advanced compared to their own SQAM related REC projects. The research therefore focuses on the present SQAM infrastructure developments in South Africa, SADC and NEPAD in the form of three case studies. The research compares such activities with recent public administration related developments in the European Union. It seeks to identify ways to develop and promote alternative, Afro centric solutions to Africa's unique SQAM infrastructural problems through NEPAD. As these are developmental in nature, they differ fundamentally from the harmonisation problems in SQAM matters presently experienced by Europe and the United States.

Owing to the vast complexities surrounding the study at hand together with funding and time constraints, a conscious decision was made to focus specifically on "analysing the contents" of current SQAM–related policies. The adopted approach has been used in order to suggest appropriate remedial action. It is acknowledged that the determination of who was involved, why they were involved and how they were involved in the various policy options at the present time in NEPAD are significant areas of research in their own right.

2.15   CHAPTER DELINEATION

Chapter 1:   General introduction

The chapter provides the general background of the study. It introduces the subject of globalisation and its impact on the efforts of governments to simultaneously regulate imports while trying to benefit from increased export trade flows. The important role for public administration in the issue of trade facilitation is then elaborated. The focus moves to the issues surrounding globalisation, Africa and specifically African trade. The need for African states to create and maintain appropriate, specialised technical infrastructure for trade facilitation is also highlighted together with the specific role of African public administration. The chapter concludes with a section that highlights the limitations in the NEPAD strategy regarding the topic under study.

Chapter 2:   Research Methodology

This chapter identifies the research instruments and data analysis methods employed in the academic research of public administration issues. It then defends the use of the particular research methodologies that have been chosen for the study. The reasons for the research and the objectives of the research are also listed. The definitions used, limitations and value of the research are articulated. The chapter concludes after a breakdown of the content of each chapter.

Chapter 3:   The need for public led interventions in addressing African technical infrastructure capacitation

The chapter provides an overview of the scholarship in the area covered by the research by means of a review of appropriate literature. The chapter addresses the background in the search for both a theoretical framework and critical role of African public administration in creating a suitable environment within NEPAD for successful trade facilitation. The impact of the prevailing form of globalisation on free trade, governments and public administration are

also investigated. The understanding of the definition and scope of public administration is addressed as part of the identification of the need for an enhanced role for it in the generation of Africa's own solutions to technical infrastructure issues. The same theme is addressed by exploring the evolution of the science of public administration from American and European perspectives. This is important, given Africa's colonial past, as well as the developed country domination of international trade related organisations. The role of the state and its institutions as far as regulation and market liberalisation is then examined.

Market failure and the associated need for legislation and policy administration regarding the role and use of technical regulations and standards as part of a NEPAD strategy to facilitate inter and intra regional trade follows. The focus shifts to proving conformity against such technical regulations and standards and the need for African capacity and capability. The role of both public and privately funded technical resources is scrutinised within previous donor funded interventions and other African experience. The legacy from, and impact of, colonially created public administrative structures inherited by African states industry is then addressed. The major but often uncoordinated efforts of donors in the area of SQAM, including their role as well as the states themselves in enhancing sub regional and regional technical cooperation, are highlighted. The chapter ends by studying NEPAD, as the vehicle tasked with addressing such technical issues for Africa. A potential role includes addressing the creation and maintenance of shared technical infrastructure and how NEPAD might coordinate such activity at the continental level.

Chapter 4:   Case Study

Chapter Four focuses on three case studies that address the creation of sophisticated technical infrastructure from the South African, NEPAD REC, namely SADC and NEPAD perspectives. South Africa has been chosen both because of the maturity of its technical infrastructure and the international reputation that such infrastructure has subsequently earned. The relatively

recent role given to the technical infrastructure in public policy aimed at both trade facilitation and industrialisation is also addressed. SADC as a sub region of NEPAD was chosen in recognition of its role in supporting the political goals of the member states to create a regional trading bloc. Comparisons are also drawn with the relatively recent developments in the European Union regarding the increasing preferential use of accreditation in proving conformity.

The last case study addressed in the chapter, NEPAD, focuses on the uneven development of regional efforts to address the important domain of technical infrastructure and why certain elements have enjoyed a priority to the detriment of the holistic approach that is desirable.

Chapter 5:   An analysis of the case(s)

The chapter provides an analysis of the various case studies described in Chapter Four. The analysis identifies areas where South African, SADC and NEPAD directed public administrative activity is currently assisting African industry to demonstrate compliance with international technical criteria in a sustainable manner and, more importantly, where it is not and why this might be so. Such an analysis is important in order to identify key impact factors. The intended and unintended consequences of the various planned activities are also probed.

Chapter 6: Research findings, recommendations and conclusion

The concluding chapter provides an appropriate summary of the findings of the research. A set of recommendations for NEPAD coordinated and directed SQAM related initiatives to promote inter and intra regional trade are then detailed and supported. The chapter ends with a conclusion.