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Public-Private Partnership: A model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities

Hlalela Mathonsi

11365693

A research project submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Business Administration.

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ABSTRACT

Education in South Africa is a key concern because the South African education system is underperforming compared to many other developing countries despite the large capital investment made by the South African government and its private sector. South African children are routinely underachieving and rate not only among the worst in the world, but often among the worst in the Southern African region and in Africa as a whole. Therefore, the aim of this study was to explore whether Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is a suitable model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities.

The objective of the study was answered in a two-phase approach. The first phase developed an understanding of the challenges that prevents the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities with experts in education. The second phase determined the suitability of PPP to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities and the critical success factors for implementing PPP in education from interviews with PPP practitioners.

The findings of the study revealed that PPP is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African communities and a PPP framework was proposed by the researcher that indicates the benefits of implementing PPP, the critical success factors of PPP and the barriers of PPP in education. The study also highlighted conditions that must be met to achieve quality education in South African rural communities through PPPs.

The research concludes by making recommendations to both the government and the public sector in light of the findings of this research. Limitations for the study were highlighted and other variables to be researched that are important to further understanding of PPP as a model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities were suggested.

Keywords: Public-private partnerships, quality education, South Africa, rural communities

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Hlalela Mathonsi 07 November 2012

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To my wife, **Lusanda**, and my two beautiful daughters, **Vutomi and Ayama**, thank you for being my inspiration and thank you for allowing me this opportunity to study. You guys rock!

To **Anthony Prangley**, **my supervisor**, thank you for providing me with the opportunity to work with you and thank you for believing in my work.

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Thank you to **Ian McLachlan, Rre Mompei, Charles, Tebogo, Classmates, Family and Employer** for showing interest; believing in what I was doing and help via: Conversations; leave; financial resources, moral support and advice in order to complete my MBA.

DEDICATION

To my Parents: **Mr and Mrs. James and Elsie Mathonsi**

Firstly, I would like to dedicate this research paper to the memory of my late mother Elsie Mathonsi. It is sad, mom that you can't and won't be able to read my work, nonetheless I believe that you are watching over me and proud of this moment. Thank you for all the love and happy memories that you have created for me. You have created an enabling environment for me to explore my abilities and gave me that push to "*soldier on"* when times were tough during the pursuit of my dreams, and for that mom, I am eternally grateful and I will cherish you forever. *Ndza tshemba leswaku MBA leyi yi hetisile e xitshembiso xa mina lexi ndzi ngaku nyika xona*. *Ndza ku rhandza mama!*

Secondly, I would also like to dedicate this research paper to my father James Mathonsi. Papa, thank you for the inspirational leadership that you have provided at home. Thank you for inspiring me to become a better person and the best father I can ever be. Today as I conclude this paper, one thing comes to mind, it is the dual role that you undertook when mom passed away, you not only played a fatherly role to me and my siblings but you also filled the void left by our mother. *Ha ku tlangela ni ku ku khensa papa.*

I dedicate this work (and effort) to my wife Lusanda, my beautiful daughters Vutomi and Ayama.

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CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

"Physical poverty is not the only outcome of the historical process of colonialism. Poverty of the mind is possibly the most enduring punishment that we suffer. I am convinced that what is called 'poverty reduction' can only succeed if the poverty of the mind is addressed at the same time as we tackle hunger, disease and homelessness" (Khoza, 2005, p. 194).

1.1 Introduction

Education is an essential driver of growth and development for individuals and is an important tool for long-term eradication of poverty (Brewer, 2011). Poverty hampers learning in developing countries through poor nutrition, health, home circumstances and parental education (UNESCO, 1997). Africa has been the global focal point of poverty reduction and economic development due to having the lowest levels of human capital growth in the world (Seetanah, 2009). In the developing countries of Africa, the average quality of schooling is generally assumed to be inferior compared to those of developed countries, with African education seen as more of a 'luxury good' than a necessity (Toma, 2005). Education has been identified and prioritised as a key element that can lead to employment and poverty eradication in South Africa.

Education, according to Berg (2008), can reduce poverty in a number of ways. Firstly, educated people are more likely to acquire jobs, are more productive, and earn more. Secondly, better and further education improves a poor country's economic growth and thereby generates economic opportunities and income. Lastly, education brings about social benefits that improve the situation of the poor, such as lower fertility, improved health care of children, and greater participation of women in the labour market.

Therefore, this research paper aims to understand whether public-private partnership (PPP) is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities by examining the relationship between the Department of Education (DoE) in the North West Province, schools in the Bojanala District Municipality and other private sector organisations that assist in managing the delivery of education projects in South Africa.

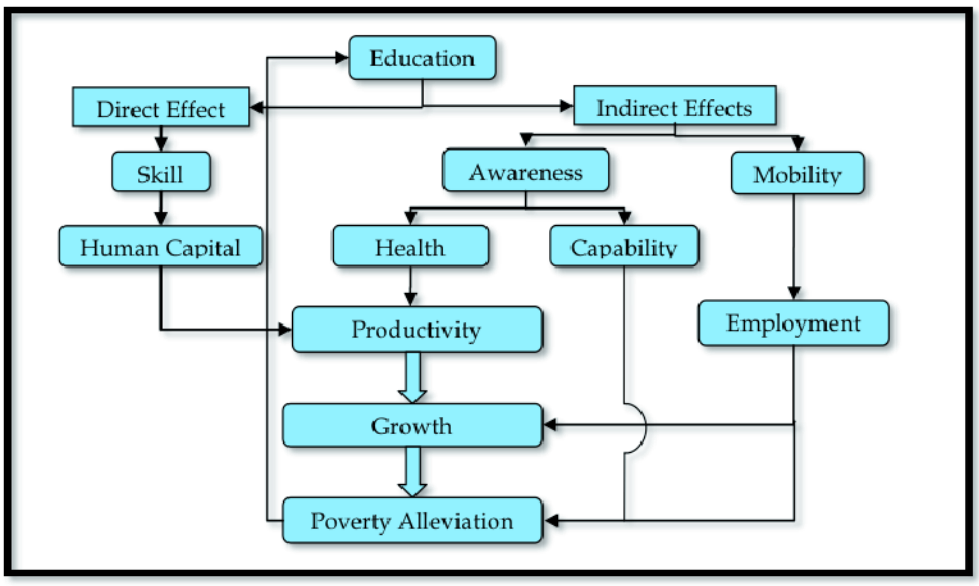
1.2 Background to the Research Problem

1.2.1 Education and Poverty alleviation

Education has always been considered a powerful instrument for reducing poverty and inequality through productivity enhancement which is, of course, a key element in the maintaining of economic growth despite the inherent difficulties in quantifying the real contribution of education to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or other national income aggregates (Khan & Williams, 2006).

Access to education has long been considered an important vehicle for poverty alleviation and tremendous efforts (nationally as well as internationally) have been made to broaden such access (Khan & Williams, 2006). Sen (2001) broadened one's understanding of poverty by defining it as a condition that results in an absence of the freedom to choose arising from a lack of the capability to function effectively in society. Berg (2008) believes that this multidimensional interpretation moves far beyond the notion of poverty as being solely related to a lack of financial resources. Sen (2001) supports Berg (2008) by further arguing that inadequate education could, in itself, be considered a form of poverty in many societies. Figure 1, below, illustrates the impact of education on poverty alleviation.

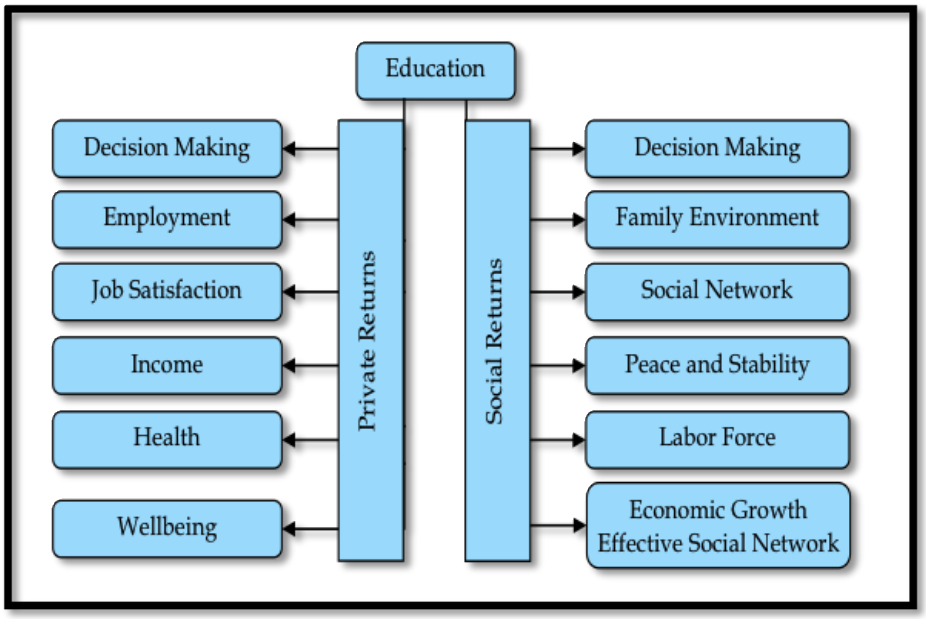
Figure 1: Impact of Education on Poverty Alleviation



Source: Pervez and Usman (2011)

Findings by Berg (2008) support the view that the benefits, direct and indirect, of education result in changes in people's behavior, and the behavioral change inevitably has an impact on poverty alleviation (Pervez & Usman, 2011). Another but similar point of view is that education yields both private and social returns. The distinction between private and social returns to education is that private returns refer to benefits received by the individual who acquires additional schooling, and social returns refer to benefits gained by society form that individual's schooling (Pervez & Usman, 2011). Figure 2, below, shows the private and social returns of education.

Figure 2: Private and Social Returns of Education



Source: Pervez and Usman (2011)

The relationship between education and poverty is quite clear: educated people have higher earning potential and are better able to improve the quality of their lives, which means they are less likely to be marginalised within society at large. Education empowers people and it helps them to become more proactive, gain control over their lives, and to broaden their range of available options (UNESCO, 1997). Therefore, to develop the African continent and its people, educational transformation is imperative, with the delivery of quality education being the key objective (Seetanah, 2009).

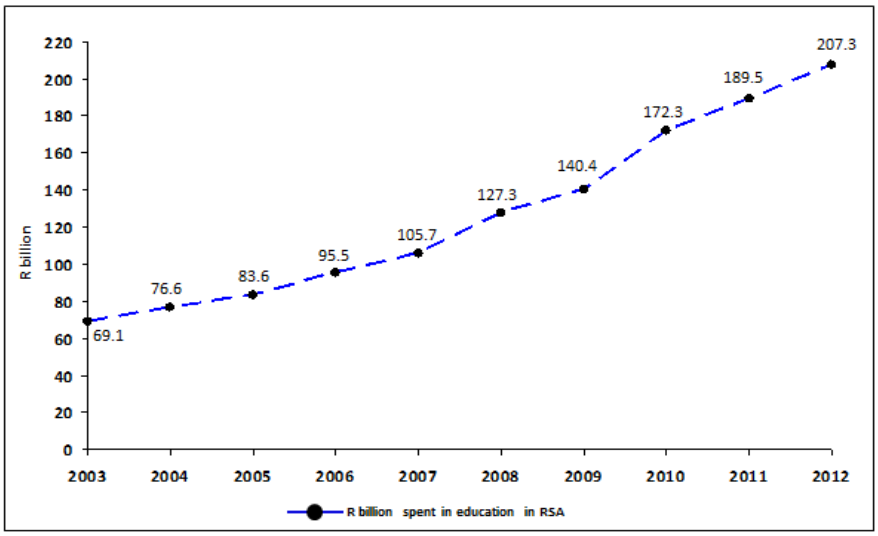
1.2.2 Education in South Africa

The South African education system is complex, comprising more than 12 million learners, more than 350 000 educators, and more than 30 000 schools in 70 districts within nine provinces (McCarthy & de Villiers, 2011). This system is very diverse, with huge differences within and among provinces, districts and schools. The majority of learners are concentrated in provinces that are predominantly rural and include former homelands. These are the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Limpopo provinces (Chisholm, 2004).

Since 1994, after the introduction of compulsory education in South Africa, the number of children attending school has risen sharply (Robertson, 2012). A range of initiatives were introduced between 1994 and 1999 to improve access, equity and quality of education (Chisholm, 2004). Government spending in education became oriented to the achievement of equity and ceased to be determined on a racial basis. The South African Schools Act (1996) introduced school governing bodies to democratise control over schools. A teacher redistribution and deployment project in 1996, and the introduction of Curriculum 2005 in 1997 aimed to improve the quality of education (Chisholm, 2004).

The critical focus and investment priority in education is evident in South Africa (Brewer, 2011). The government's current contribution to public education remain its single largest investment with the expenditure budgeted at 207 billion Rands for the period 2012/13 (Department of National Treasury, 2012). As a percentage of GDP, South Africa spent an average of 6% on education between 2003 and 2012, and an average of 18% as a percentage of total government expenditure for the same period (Department of National Treasury, 2012). Figure 3, below, shows the expenditure in education by the South Africa government since 2003.

Figure 3: South African Government Expenditure in Education

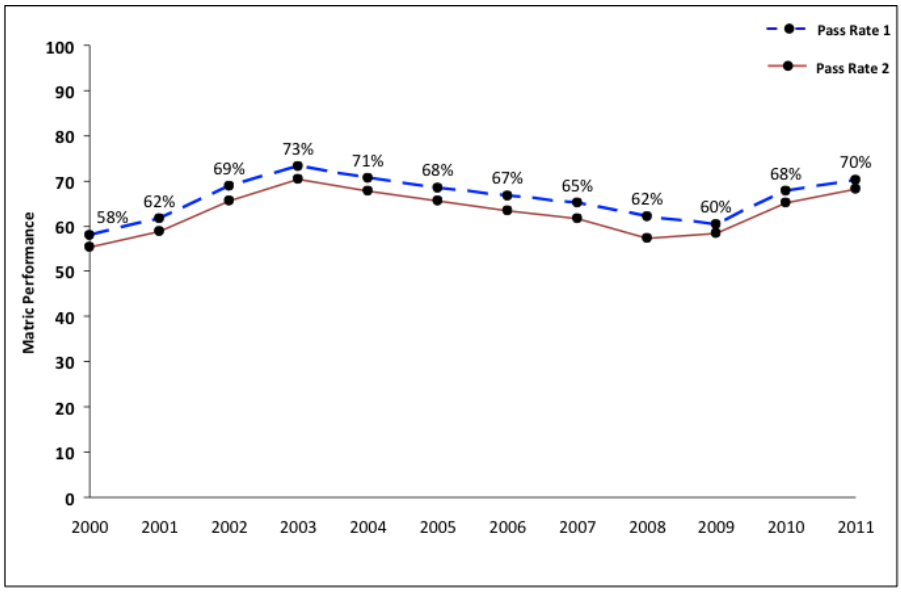


Source: Department of National Treasury (2012)

Despite the large capital investment, the South African education system is underperforming compared to many other developing countries (McCarthy and Bernstein, 2011). Bloch (as cited in Brewer, 2011) stated that "60 to 80 percent of the schools in South Africa are dysfunctional, with specific failings in mathematics and literacy, where South Africa is coming last in relation to international testing standards" (p. 4). Evidence indicates that quality education in the majority of primary schools in South Africa remains poor (Chisholm, 2004). The Department of Education itself acknowledged that 'there is considerable evidence that quality of education in South African Schools is worryingly low relative to what South Africa spends on schooling' (DoE 2003b: p.101).

Figure 4, below, shows matric performance by South African students since 2000. Matric (National Senior Certificate) performance is one of the measures of the state of education in South Africa. Pass rate 1 indicates matric performance by learners who wrote examinations in the respective year excluding those who dropped out during that year, and Pass rate 2 indicates matric performance by learners who registered for Grade 12 in the respective year including learners who dropped out of school during that year.

Figure 4: Matric performance in South Africa



Source: Department of Education (2012)

Structural problems in the education system have resulted in many poorly prepared high school graduates and high numbers of dropouts in the final grades. A multitude of well-publicised problems, including shortage of teachers, under qualified teachers and poor teacher performance, lack of classroom discipline, and insufficient resources and inadequate infrastructure are failing South Africa's education system (Robertson, 2012). South Africa's legacy of Apartheid and past and current issues of race and politics complicate any reform attempts. The country is struggling to turn this ship around, while some improvements have been made, the public schooling system is still failing too many young South Africans (McCarthy & de Villiers, 2011).

1.2.3 The need for Public-Private Partnerships in Education in South Africa

The results in the South African education system suggest that while priority is given to investment in education, it is not translating into the global standards of educated youth (Bernstein, 2005). South African children are routinely underachieving and rate not only among the worst in the world, but often among the worst in the Southern African region and in Africa as a whole, despite vastly superior resources in Africa's most industrialised nation (Bloch, 2009). Subsequently, a strong demand for quality, affordable and accessible education exists.

This demand can be met by the private sector joining forces with government to improve the quality, affordability and accessibility of education in South Africa. Bloch (2010) also argued that the problem in the South African education call on all to assist by playing a part through helping and guiding children, returning to troubled schools and ploughing back; and getting corporations to contribute in new models of hands-on partnering.

Given the constraints in the South Africa education system, the need for alternative sources of delivery mechanisms is increasingly recognised, if the government is to achieve its targets and contribute to addressing the education crises in South Africa (Patrinos, Barrera-Osorio, & Guaqueta, 2009). Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is proposed as one such vehicle. The main rationale for developing PPP in education is to maximise the potential for expanding equitable access to schooling and for improving education outcomes, especially for marginalised groups (Patrinos et al., 2009).

PPP in school education is essentially an arrangement where the private sector partner participates in the provision of services traditionally provided by government, usually characterised by an agreement between government and the private sector, with the latter undertaking to deliver an agreed upon service on the payment of a unitary charge by government (World Economic Forum, 2005).

The need for PPP in school education primarily arises from commitment to provide world-class education to under-privileged children who cannot afford the tuition fee that private schools normally charge. While access to quality education for the underprivileged is traditionally expected from government schools, they alone may not be able to fulfill this enormous task (World Economic Forum, 2005). Public-Private Partnerships are a global phenomenon. In countries like Pakistan, for an example, partnership between the public and private sectors has been a key strategy for increasing efficiency, generating resources and improving the governance and quality of social service delivery, particularly in education for the poor for over a decade (Farah & Rizvi, 2007).

Therefore, the justification for PPP in education arises primarily from the need to accelerate the expansion of education, supplement investment and enable different models for improving the quality of education (Patrinos et al., 2009). Furthermore, PPP is attractive because it involves efficient pooling of resources by making optimum use

of private sector financial and management skills and expertise; risks are shared and managed successfully, as risk management is assigned to the party best able to succeed (World Economic Forum, 2005).

1.3 Research Motivation

The rationale behind this research is pertinent to the present education situation in South Africa. The South African education system is a matter of grave concern which warrants immediate attention. The provision of quality education in rural South Africa is a complex task of great magnitude. Extensive action in the education sector is required to break the inter-generational transmission of poverty, especially in the rural communities of South Africa. Poor quality of education has resulted in unskilled and meaningless jobs which generate low income and in turn perpetuates poverty in South African rural communities (Chisholm, 2004). It is, therefore, essential to explore the diverse options of providing quality education by examining the combined strengths of the public and private sectors in a manner that will improve the quality of education and establish models of excellence and benchmarks for others to emulate.

1.3.1 Purpose of the Research

This study answers the main research question:

Is Public-Private Partnerships a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities?

1.3.2 Research Objectives

The research objectives of the study are:

1. To understand the challenges that prevent improvement of education in the rural communities of South Africa that necessitates the need for the formation of public and private sector partnerships in education in South Africa.

2. To determine the suitability of PPP in education in the rural communities of South Africa.

3. To understand the critical success factors for implementing PPP projects in education in the rural mining communities of South Africa.

4. To determine the factors that discourages private sector involvement in PPP projects in South Africa.

1.3.3 Research Scope

The scope of the research focuses on improving the quality of education in rural communities through PPP within the South Africa context through exploratory, qualitative research based on in-depth interviews with key stakeholders from the DoE in the North West Province, Managers of schools in the Bojanala District Municipality in Rustenburg, the Royal Bafokeng Institute (RBI) and education experts and mining companies in the Rustenburg area that allocate funds for community and education development in their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSI) budgets. Therefore, the case study focus is in the geographical area of the Bojanala District Municipality because a PPP relationship to improve the quality of education in the rural mining communities of the North West Province exists between the RBI and DoE.

1.3.4 Research Structure

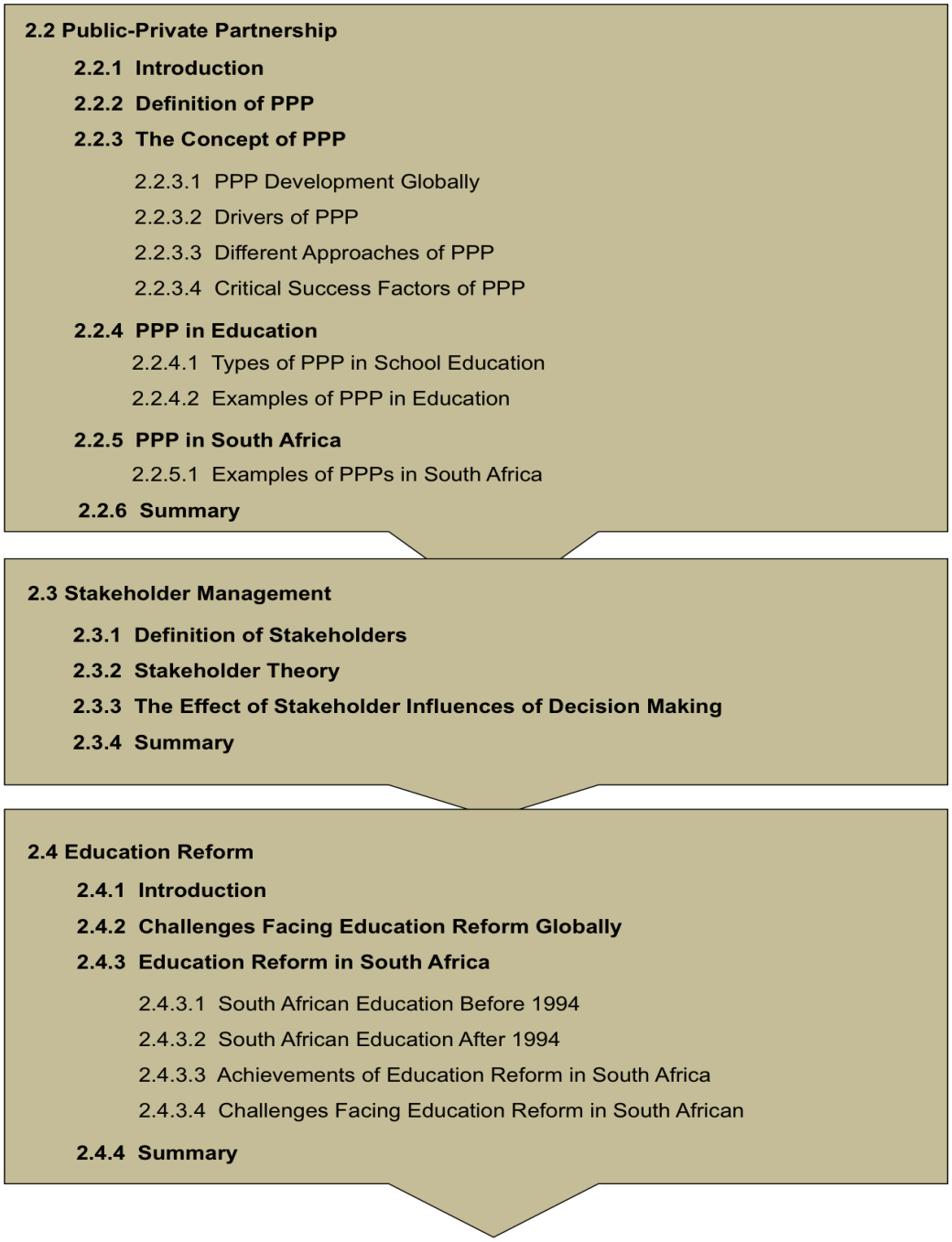
This chapter highlights the challenges faced by the South African education system and provides the case for the examination of Public-Private Partnerships within the South African education context. The next section, Chapter 2 presents a critical review of the literature on PPP, education reform (particularly the challenges of reforming education in South Africa) and the effects of stakeholder influences on decision making. Chapter 3 proposes research questions that help answer the research objectives. The research methodology is addressed in Chapter 4. The results from qualitative research using expert interviews are presented in Chapter 5 and discussed in Chapter 6. The final chapter, Chapter 7, concludes the study and key findings and insights are highlighted.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The literature review is divided into three main sections as illustrated in Figure 5:

Figure 5: Structure of literature review



2.2 Public-Private Partnership

2.2.1 Introduction

Governments worldwide have sought to increase the involvement of the private sector in the delivery of public services. These initiatives have taken many forms, such as the outright privatisation of previously state-owned industries, contracting out of certain services and the use of private finance in the provision of social infrastructure (Nielsen, 1997; Dulaimi, Alhashemi, Ling & Kumaraswamy, 2010). Public-Private Partnership (PPP) offers a long-term, sustainable approach to improving public service delivery and social infrastructure, enhancing the value of public assets and making better use of taxpayers' money (Akintoye, Beck & Hardcastle, 2003a).

Such partnerships between the public and private sector are now accepted as an alternative to the traditional state provision of public facilities and services (Kent, 1998). Arguably, this joint approach allows the public sector client and the private sector supplier to blend their special skills and to achieve an outcome that neither party could achieve alone (Akintoye, Hardcastle, Beck, Chinyio & Asenova, 2003b). Therefore, the first section of the literature in PPP examines the concept while focusing on the development of PPP globally, the drivers of PPP and the critical success factors of PPP. The second section of the literature reviews PPP in education, and the last section highlight examples of PPP in South Africa.

2.2.2 Definition of Public-Private Partnership

Literature about Public-Private Partnership (PPP) indicates that PPPs are notoriously difficult to define (Evans & Bowman, 2005; Hodge, 2005; Jefferies & McGeorge, 2008). Bettignies and Ross, (2004) point to the fact that PPP has been defined differently by academics, public agencies and international organisations, with the result that a universal definition to which all would agree is elusive. Weihe (2008) concludes that an authoritative definition of PPP, one that encompasses all the different variations of the concept currently in use, is still not logically possible.

Hodge and Greve (2005) defined PPP as institutional cooperation between the public and private sectors designed to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of public service delivery. Hayllar (2010) defines PPP as a contractual arrangement involving the private sector in the delivery of public services based on a partnership approach where the responsibility for the delivery of services is shared between the public and private sectors, both of which bring their complimentary skills to the enterprise. Van Ham and Koppenjan (2001) defined PPP as a cooperation of some sort of the durability between public and private actors in which they jointly develop products and services and share risks, costs and resources that are connected with these products.

In the United Kingdom (UK), HM Treasury defines PPP as a government desire to resolve financial constraints in the provision of public facilities and services by calling upon private management skills to increase the efficiency, effectiveness and quality of facilities and service delivery (HM Treasury, 1997). In South Africa, Treasury Regulation 16 of the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) defines PPP as a contract between a public sector institution or municipality and a private party, in which the private party assumes substantial financial, technical and operational risk in the design, financing, building and operation of a project (Department of National Treasury, 2004). Therefore, the central elements embodied in these definitions include cooperation; sharing of responsibilities; decision-making power and authority; sharing of risks and rewards or mutual benefit; pursuing shared or compatible objectives and joint investment.

2.2.3 The Concept of Public-Private Partnership

Public-Private Partnership has emerged as an important model governments use to close infrastructure gaps as it offers several benefits to governments trying to address infrastructure shortages or improve the efficiency of their organisations (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004). The involvement of the private sector in the development and financing of public facilities and services has increased substantially over the past decade. Approaches to these PPPs continue to be developed in order to draw the public and private sectors together to share the risks and rewards (Li, Akintoye, Edwards & Hardcastle, 2005).

PPPs are collaborations in which public and private sectors each bring their complementary skills to a project, with different levels of involvement and responsibility, for the sake of providing public services more efficiently (Chan, Lam, Chan, Cheung & Ke, 2010). PPP typically consist of voluntary, enduring arrangements that involve significant levels of resource-sharing and joint decision-making (Smith & Wohlstetter, 2006). Achieving value for money, especially from the taxpayers' perspective, is reflected as an element of PPP (Chan et al., 2010).

The concept of PPP is underpinned by a government's desire to resolve capacity constraints in the provision of public facilities and services by calling upon private management skills to increase the efficiency, effectiveness and quality of facilities, and services delivery (Li et al., 2005). The level of private sector involvement might range from simple service provision without recourse to public facilities, through service provision based on public facilities usage, up to and including full private ownership of public facilities and operation of their associated services (Li et al., 2005). These partnerships come in all sizes and types, which makes it difficult to group them in a consistent fashion (Akintoye et al., 2003a).

2.2.3.1 Public-Private Partnership Development Globally

Globally, Public-Private Partnership arrangements are often entered into to accelerate the implementation of high-priority projects through advanced technologies that are usually not available through standard public procurement processes (Beh, 2010). Ideally, management resources are optimised to ensure quality, cost control and strict adherence to scheduled timelines.

The concept of PPP in the United States and Europe has existed for centuries, but has become more prominent in recent decades in local economic development of countries (Pierre, 1998). Some scholars note that it was the United Kingdom's (UK) Labour government that first introduced the PPP concept in the 1990s (Spackman, 2002); however, a review of the literature revealed that the PPP label has been in use since at least the late 1970s (Fosler & Berger, 1982), and that it first appeared in United States (US) urban policy literature. Yet, others state that the UK is leading the way in the development of PPP (Ghobadian, Gallear, O'Reagan & Viney, 2004).

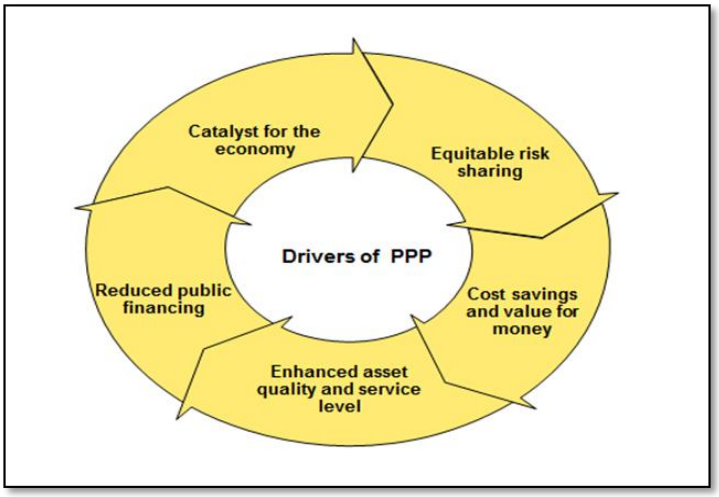
The growing use of the Private Finance Initiative (PFI) has inspired governments worldwide to adopt PPP arrangements, as governments recognised their value (Yuan, Skibniewski, Li & Zheng, 2010). The Australian government has used PPP to deliver several social infrastructure projects (Yuan et al., 2010). In Malaysia, infrastructures PPPs are used mainly for projects in public transport, roads, waste management facilities, and water and wastewater services (Beh, 2010). In the Netherlands, most PPP projects occur in the areas of transport, housing and urban development (Klijn, 2009).

The US is a pioneer with contracting out and has started experimenting with other forms of PPP; emerging democracies form Central Europe are following suit (Yuan et al., 2010). However, problems in policy formulation and implementation as well as with corruption, supervision and a lack of access to investment capital have affected PPP growth. As in other countries, political accountability and risk management also are major issues in PPP endeavors (Beh, 2010).

2.2.3.2 Drivers of Public-Private Partnerships

The key drivers for involving the private sector in the provisioning of public services were (and are still) to address public sector budget deficits and to search for greater efficiency, creativity, satisfying growing demands, and the expectation of new and upgrading of existing ageing infrastructure (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004). Generally, PPPs can provide a wide variety of net benefits for a government. Chan, Lam, Chan, Cheung and Ke (2009) identified the drivers for adopting public-private partnerships.

Figure 6: Drivers of Public-Private Partnerships



Source: Chan et al. (2009)

2.2.3.2.1 **Equitable Risk Sharing**

The private sector is in general more efficient in asset procurement and service delivery than government, and, as a result, it is to government's advantage to share the associated risks with the private sector (Chan et al., 2009).

2.2.3.2.2 **Cost Savings and Value for Money**

Cost savings refers to the reduction in price as a result of delivering a project by PPP instead of traditional methods (Chan et al., 2009). The savings could be a result of the private sector's innovation and efficiency, which the public sector may not achieve (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004; Akintoye et al., 2003b; Li et al., 2005). The private sector generally achieves higher operational efficiency in asset procurement and service delivery by applying their expertise, experience, innovative ideas or technology and continuous improvements. Therefore, the overall cost savings to the project can be achieved by striving for the lowest possible total life cycle costs while maximising profits (Chan et al., 2010).

Value for money, defined by Grimsey and Lewis (2004) as the optimum combination of whole life cycle costs, risks, completion time and quality in order to meet public requirements, is another important consideration especially for the public sector (Chan et al., 2009; Grimsey & Lewis, 2004; Li et al., 2005).

2.2.3.2.3 **Enhanced Asset Quality and Service Levels**

Innovation is another important concept that the private sector can bring to public services. Generally speaking, the public sector may not be as innovative as is the private sector (Klijn, 2009). The private sector is continuously searching for new products and services to increase their competitive edge and to save costs (Chan et al., 2009). The private sector is also made responsible for ensuring that the asset and service delivered meet pre-agreed quality benchmarks or standards throughout the life of the contract (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004).

2.2.3.2.4 **Reduced Public Financing**

To the government, PPP frees up fiscal funds for other areas of public service and improves cash flow management as high upfront capital expenditure is replaced by periodic service payments and provides cost certainty in place of uncertain calls for asset maintenance and replacement (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004). Consequently, the public funding required for public services can be reduced and redirected to support sectors of higher priority, e.g., education, healthcare, community services, etc. (Chan et al., 2009).

2.2.3.2.5 **Catalyst for the Economy**

To the private sector participants, PPP provides access to public sector markets. If priced accurately and costs managed effectively, the projects can provide reasonable profits and investment returns on a long-term basis. Also, these projects tend to be large and therefore expertise from many areas is required; hence, cooperation among different collaborating parties is encouraged (Chan et al., 2009; Grimsey & Lewis, 2004). Business opportunities are also created, due to the large scope of works that can benefit different sectors (Chan et al., 2009).

2.2.3.3 Different approaches of Public-Private Partnership

Four general approaches are identified in the PPP literature according to Weihe (2008):

2.2.3.3.1 **The Urban Regeneration Approach**

In the urban regeneration approach the focus is on public-private partnerships in relation to urban economic renewal and development (Weihe, 2008). This approach seems to have its roots primarily in the American urban governance literature. Urban regeneration partnerships are typically initiated by the response of private businesses to urban crises. Private-to-private cooperation subsequently paves the way for a formal stage where public, private and nonprofit partners work together (Weihe, 2008).

2.2.3.3.2 **The Policy Approach**

In the policy approach, the PPP term refers broadly to the relations between the public and private sector in certain policy areas and policy setups (Weihe, 2008). The PPP concept here does not necessarily encompass specific collaborative projects but focuses instead on describing and analysing public-private constellations within specific policy areas (Weihe, 2008).

2.2.3.3.3 **The Infrastructure Approach**

There are broad and narrow usages of the PPP term within the infrastructure approach. The narrow version includes only arrangements that include private finance and the bundling of design, construction, operation and/or maintenance into a single contract (Li et al., 2005). Particularly the presence of private finance, the allocation of risk to the private sector, and the integration of construction and maintenance/operation are defining characteristics of the narrow understanding of the infrastructure PPP. The broad version of the term however, covers all of the above-

mentioned varieties, including for instance joint ventures, leasing and management contracts (Weihe, 2008).

2.2.3.3.4 **The Development Approach**

The central focus in the development approach is the achievement of development goals. Here PPPs are means to achieve such broad ends as to reduce poverty and social deprivation, reduce corruption and improve education (Weihe, 2008). Although they are typically not directly engaged in partnerships, key actors in development PPPs are national and international non-governmental aid organisations. Their role lies primarily in that of promoting and creating environments conducive to PPP in recipient countries (Weihe, 2008).

2.2.3.4 Critical Success Factors of Public-Private Partnership

The term “critical success factor” is a business term for an element which is essential for an organisation or project to achieve its mission. A company may use the critical success factor method as a means for identifying the important elements of its success (Chan et al., 2010). Rockart (1982) defines Critical Success Factors (CSFs) as those few key areas of activity in which favourable results are absolutely necessary for a manager to reach his/her goals. The CSF methodology is a procedure that attempts to make explicit the key areas that are essential for management success (Li et al., 2005). One critical step in the development of CSF is to identify, analyse and categorise various factors that are critical to the success of PPP in general.

Zhang (2005) believes that a PPP project should be based on a public–private win–win principle. It should create a favorable environment and provide necessary support for private sector participation and establish effective measures to ensure that privatised projects and services are delivered at public acceptable standards and quality; government support and private sector inputs should thus be balanced. Therefore, CSFs are influenced by the context as they try to describe the areas that would enable management to achieve success (Dulaimi et al., 2010).

2.2.3.4.1 Description of Critical Success Factors

2.2.3.4.1.1 **Favourable Investment Environment**

The willingness of private sector investors and lenders to develop public infrastructure projects depends greatly on the environment where these projects operate (Hayllar, 2010). For PPP schemes to work there should be favourable political, legal, economic and commercial environments for private sector participation (Zhang & Kumaraswamy, 2001).The government is in a better position than any party in creating such environments, which largely eliminate fears of the private sector concerning various risks, especially political risks such as expropriation and nationalisation (Zhang, 2005).

2.2.3.4.1.2 **Appropriate Risk Allocation via Reliable Contractual Agreements**

The contractual arrangement is a CSF for construction projects (Hayllar, 2010). The identification and allocation of risks are an important issue in contractual arrangement which dictates both the type and content of the contract. Other important issues include the clear statement of the objectives of the contract and the obligations and rights of the contracting parties, adequacy and clarity of plans and technical specifications, a formal dispute resolution process, and motivation and incentives to the contracting parties (Zhang, 2005).

2.2.3.4.1.3 **Economic Viability**

Economic viability is critical to the success of any kind of project (Dulaimi et al., 2010). PPP projects are characterised by high capital outlay, long lead time and long operation period with a broad range of risks and uncertainties. The uncertainties bring risk into capital investment evaluation decisions and, consequently, new methods have been developed (Dulaimi et al., 2010). Therefore, for projects that are not financially viable but of significant economic value and political and environmental objectives, the

government should provide necessary flexible project-specific support and/or guarantees to make them financially viable (Zhang, 2005).

2.2.3.4.1.4 **Reliable Concessionaire Consortium with Strong Technical Strength**

While the government is in a better position to create a favourable environment for private sector participation in public infrastructure development in general, private sector participants play a paramount role in the successful implementation of particular PPP projects (Zhang, 2005). Significant realignment of risks among multiple project participants is a striking feature of the PPP scheme, in which the concessionaire undertakes many more commitments and assumes much broader and deeper risks than a mere contractor (Zhang, 2005); therefore, selection of the right concessionaire which can be realised through a competitive tendering process (Chan et al., 2010) is critical to the success of the project.

2.2.3.4.1.5 **Sound Financial Package**

The PPP in infrastructure projects are often financed on a non-recourse or limited recourse basis (Zhang, 2005). A number of financial instruments may be used in project finance such as debt, equity, mezzanine finance, contractor, supplier and purchaser credit, or sureties. A sound revenue stream of the project is the basis of project finance as lenders and investors have recourse to no funds other than this revenue stream, and assets of the project may or may not have any residual value (Zhang, 2005).

Therefore, the financial package usually has a greater impact on the viability of a PPP project than the physical design or construction costs. Significant financial engineering efforts should be made to gear the great capital outlay of an infrastructure project to mesh with innovative financial instruments compatible with its projected cash flow (Chan et al., 2010).

2.2.3.4.2 Identification of Critical Success Factors

The identification of the CSFs will enable efficient allocation of limited resources. The CSFs can be identified based either on quantitative measures or on expert opinions (Zhang, 2005).

2.2.3.4.2.1 **Critical Success Factors for PPP identified in previous studies**

Research in and discussions about CSFs for PPPs have been previously conducted (Zhang, 2005). Tiong (1996) has identified six CSFs in winning Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT) contracts: (1) entrepreneurship and leadership; (2) right project identification; (3) strength of the consortium; (4) technical solution advantage; (5) financial package differentiation; and (6) differentiation in guarantees. Tiong and Alum (1997) have further identified distinctive elements of winning proposals in competitive BOT tendering from the sub-factors of the CSFs of technical solution advantage, financial package differentiation and differentiation in guarantees. Gupta and Narasimham (as cited in Zhang, 2005) provided additional CSFs for promoters to win BOT contracts: ability to provide a suitable transfer package; built-in flexibility for future growth and changes; supportive and understanding community; and short construction period.

2.2.3.4.2.2 **Critical Success Factors for PPP under Win–Win Principle**

PPPs involve various kinds of risks that may emerge at different stages in the life cycle of a project (Zhang, 2005). PPPs are not merely a vehicle for governments to develop infrastructure projects by transferring all the risks to the private sector and thus shedding of all their responsibilities; rather, they require appropriate allocation and management of risks (Zhang, 2005). Therefore, a PPP project procurement protocol should be based on a public–private win–win principle. It should create a favourable environment and provide necessary support for private sector participation, and establish effective measures to ensure that privatised projects and services are delivered at public acceptable standards and quality. Governmental supports and private sector inputs should be balanced (Zhang, 2005).

2.2.4 Public-Private Partnerships in Education

Private participation in education has increased dramatically over the last two decades across the world, serving all types of communities from high-income to low-income families (Patrinos et al., 2009). Although governments remain the main financiers of education, in many countries private agents deliver a sizable share of education (Patrinos et al., 2009). Broadly, PPP in school education operates to provide infrastructural services, support services and educational services (Patrinos et al., 2009).

There appears to be a progression in scope with the simplest being the private partner providing infrastructure services and government providing educational and other support services (Patrinos et al., 2009). The next stage in progression is where the private sector provides both infrastructure services and support services. The third type is where private sector provides infrastructure, support and educational services bundled together (Patrinos et al., 2009). Below are the types of PPPs in school education:

2.2.4.1 Types of PPPs in School Education

2.2.4.1.1 **Provision of Infrastructure (Private Financing Initiative):**

In this model, the private partner builds, owns and operates the infrastructure facilities, and the government uses these facilities for running the school through a long-term agreement (Akintoye et al., 2003a). The private sector has to arrange for finances and has the responsibility to build and maintain the infrastructure in lieu of which it is paid a fee over the period of the contract that is generally between 20 to 30 years. The ownership and the asset at the end of the contract period is generally transferred to the government, though a model can be developed where the ownership can be retained by the private sector (Park, 1998).

2.2.4.1.2 **Provision of Support Service**

The private sector provides certain support services in the school like schooling meals, IT facilities, laboratory, gym, transport etc., for which government makes payment (DfEE, 2000).These support services can be bundled along with building infrastructure or can be separately provided for. This is advantageous as the private partner with expertise in particular core areas would be able to provide such services in an efficient manner (DfEE, 2000).

For example, an established caterer would be able to provide school meals to a school or a group of schools more efficiently and at lower cost than if the school arranges for the services in-house(DfEE, 2000). The arrangement also leaves the school staff with more time to concentrate on the core educational activities rather than getting diverted to provide for support services for which they have no core competency (DfEE, 2000).

2.2.4.1.3 **Infrastructure, Support Services and Educational Services**

The entire school is set up and managed by the private partner. This includes construction of the school building and provision of support services and educational services. The private partner has full control of management of the school including recruitment of teachers and staff (Patrinos et al., 2009). The government sponsors learners at the school and pays a fee per learner subject to satisfaction of certain performance criteria which may include attendance of learners and teachers, qualification of teachers, availability and maintenance of pre-determined school infrastructure and services, achievement of learning outcomes and examination results (Patrinos et al., 2009).

A system of incentives is built in so that the schools are motivated to improve their performance continuously over time; those schools that fail to perform would not receive payment from government. Such a system would work well in urban areas where there is a choice of more than one private school for parents through healthy competition among the existing schools to attract learners (Patrinos et al., 2009); this would also tend to push up the performance level.

2.2.4.1.4 **Management Services**

Government entrusts the management of the existing government school to a private partner that would provide management services for the staff, finance and planning. This results in lowering bureaucratic constraints in managing the school and greater freedom to operate (NS, 2000); however, government appoints the staff of the school. For example, in Charter Schools in Canada public schools function as semi-autonomous units. The school is completely publicly funded and is not permitted to select its students or to charge tuition fees, and the private partner simply manages the school (NS, 2000).

2.2.4.1.5 **Operational Services**

In this variation, a government school is operated by a private partner including deployment of its own teaching and non-teaching staff. This would result in greater management control by the private partner and greater accountability of the staff, making the schools more autonomous. For example, Adopt a School in Pakistan, a non-governmental organisation (NGO) in Pakistan, is managing several public schools under this scheme (Alderman, Kim & Orazem, 2003).

These are failed schools from which the staff is withdrawn by government, and the school infrastructure is handed over to the private partner so that the private partner has the flexibility to employ its own staff and to manage the school with the existing students (Alderman et al., 2003). A school council consisting of parents and the private partner manages and maintains the school facilities (Alderman et al., 2003).

2.2.4.1.6 **Professional Services**

Certain professional services like teachers' training, quality assessment, student evaluation and other supplementary services can be contracted out by the government to a private partner (Alderman et al., 2003). This helps in building up core competency in specific areas in the private sector and several private players can compete with each other so as to raise the standards and to lower the costs. Also, the school officials

will be free to spend more time on the actual management of the school than concentrating on lateral services (Alderman et al., 2003; Patrinos et al., 2009 & Akintoye et al., 2003a).

2.2.4.2 Examples of PPPs in Education

In 1997, the UK Department of Education and Employment began to select proposals for PPPs in schools submitted by Local Education Authorities (LEA) in England and Wales for its financial support (Akintoye et al., 2003a). This programme was implemented as a comprehensive nationwide pilot project to demonstrate the feasibility of partnerships for the improvement of school facilities. School PFI projects usually involve the design, building, financing and operation package for a single school and/or the maintenance of a number of school buildings (Akintoye et al., 2003a). A key difference from traditional procurement is that PFI requires Local Education Authorities to specify outputs rather than inputs. This enables the private sector to develop innovative and cost effective solutions within the public sector (DfEE, 2000).

The New Deal for Schools (NDS) of April 1998 gave further support for PFI pilot projects in the UK (DfEE, 1999). In total, this involved facilities at over 220 schools with a capital value of close to 200 million British pounds (DfEE, 1999). By the end of 1998, more than 70 schools were already scheduled to be replaced or renovated under the PFI approach (DfEE, 2000). School PPP projects in the UK involve buying asset-related services for schools from the private sector (Akintoye et al., 2003a). These PPP projects will normally involve using assets such as school buildings and other facilities including equipment relating to specific services such as heating systems and delivering school meals (Akintoye et al., 2003a).

In the US, the Public School Partnership Act amended the federal tax code to allow the use of tax-exempt private activity bonds for the construction of privately owned school facilities which are leased back to the public school system (Akintoye et al., 2003b). Akintoye et al. (2003b) further notes that if this bill were broadened to enhance its versatility, it could serve as the foundation for a legislative plan that encourages the use of PPPs to build public schools more rapidly and at a lower cost across the country.

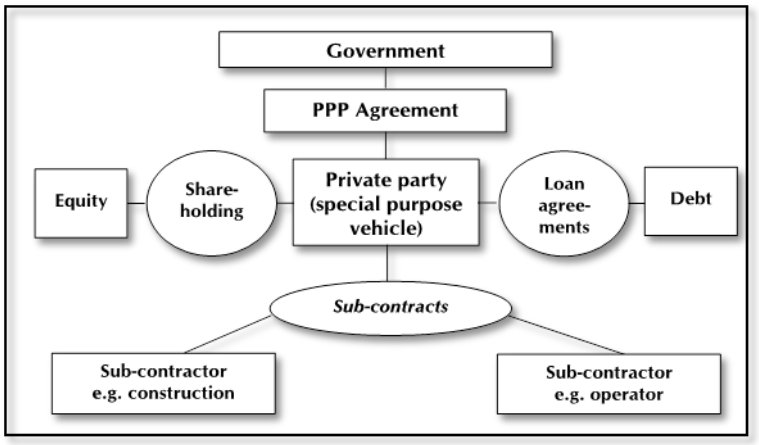
In Canada, the Nova Scotia Government implemented ambitious programmes to use PPPs to facilitate the construction of new schools (NS, 2000). The first phase of Nova Scotia's PPP programme encompassed as many as 41 new schools within three years. Completed projects are provided on a 'turnkey' basis and the developer furnishes the desks, telephones, blackboards and computers while the school system provides teachers, principals and students (NS, 2000).

2.2.5 PPP in South Africa

Since 1999, Public-Private Partnerships in South Africa have been regulated under the Public Finance Management Act (1999) (PFMA) and Treasury Regulation 16, which governs municipal PPP's under the Municipal Finance Management Act (2003) (MFMA), providing a clear and transparent framework for government and its private sector partners to enter into mutually beneficial commercial transactions for public good (Department of Nation Treasury, 2007).

The Department of National Treasury defines two types of PPPs in South Africa; a contractual relationship where, (i) the private party performs an institutional function and (ii) the private party acquires the use of state property for its own commercial purposes (Department of National Treasury, 2007). The Department of National Treasury also allows PPPs to be developed with a range of different characteristics and financial structures. In most PPPs, a dedicated business entity, a special purpose vehicle (SPV), is set up by the private partner to deliver the project (Department of National Treasury, 2007). The typical structure of an SPV is shown in the diagram below, together with the financing structure.

Fig 7: Generic structure for SPVs in South Africa



Source: Department of National Treasury (2012)

2.2.5.1 Examples of PPPs in South Africa

PPP is very much a buzzword in South Africa today, and the South African government has progressively increased the number of PPP transactions covering a wide range of sectors including transport, office accommodation, healthcare, eco-tourism, social development and correctional services (Ball, 1999; Department of National Treasury, 2007). Below are some of the examples of PPP projects in South Africa.

In 1996, the governments of South Africa and Mozambique signed a 30-year concession for a private consortium, Trans African Concessions (TRAC), to build and operate the N4 toll road from Witbank, South Africa to Maputo, Mozambique. After the 30-year period, control and management of the road reverts to the governments. The contract was worth three billion Rands (at 1996 estimates) (Department of National Treasury, 2007). TRAC financed the project while the governments of South Africa and Mozambique jointly provided a guarantee of the debt and, under certain conditions, guaranteed the equity as well (Department of National Treasury, 2007).

In 2001, South African National Parks (SANParks) signed a BOT concession with Nature's Group, a consortium formed to outsource management of 11 restaurants, two shops and three picnic sites in the Kruger National Park Game Reserve for just under 10 years (Department of National Treasury, 2007). The consortium has the right to operate the facilities (including the right to use, design and construct) according to

parameters provided by SANParks. In return, Nature's Group pays a monthly concession fee equivalent to approximately 13% of its turnover to the SANParks (Department of National Treasury, 2007).

The Gautrain Rapid Rail Link (Gautrain) was another large infrastructure project delivered through a PPP. In 2006, the Gauteng Provincial Government signed a 20-year PPP contract with the Bombela Concession Company to design, build, part-finance and operate the Gautrain Rapid Rail Link. After the 20-year period, control and management of the Gautrain will revert to the Gauteng Provincial Government. This was the biggest PPP in Africa and the largest rapid rail link infrastructure project in the African continent with a value of 25 billion Rands (Flyvbjerg, 2007; Department of National Treasury, 2007).

Lastly, facing a significant shortage of prison space, the South African government through the departments of Correctional Services and Public Works implemented a BOT model by signing two 25-year concessions for maximum-security prisons in Bloemfontein and Louis Trichardt as part of its Department of Public Works Asset Procurement and Operating Partnership Systems (APOPS) in 2000 (Department of National Treasury, 2007). The two winning consortia were responsible for designing, building, financing, operating and transferring the prisons. The facilities hold approximately 3,000 inmates each and were fully operational less than two years after contract signature at a cost of 1.7 billion Rands/ 245 million US dollars (Bloemfontein) and 1.8 billion Rands/ 259 million US dollars (Louis Trichardt) respectively (Department of National Treasury, 2007).

2.2.6 Summary

For many countries pursuing development, the search for private investment, in particular within the public-private scheme, PPP is proving critical (Beh, 2010). One perspective is that the partnership between public and private sectors constitute a new and effective strategy for financing and governance of public service delivery that is efficient, effective and inclusive (Beh, 2010). According to this view, the public and private sectors bring different strengths and share responsibilities, resources, risks and ownership of the product or service in question (Collins & Hansson, 2000).

Governments worldwide believe that PPP can provide a wide variety of net benefits for society including enhanced government capacity, innovation in delivering public services, reduction in the cost and time of project implementation, and transfer of major risk to the private sector in order to secure value for the money of the taxpayer (Li et al., 2005). However, the use of PPP is not straightforward; complex issues should be addressed by governments in order to embrace this procurement method for infrastructure development and service delivery (Akintoye et al., 2003a). Malhotra (1997) has argued that governments involved in PFIs need to concern themselves with issues such as transparency of the process, competitiveness of the bids, appropriate allocation of risk, government guarantees and credit enhancement.

2.3 Stakeholder Management

2.3.1 Definition of Stakeholders

Stakeholders are defined as those who are affected by and/or can affect the achievement of the organisation's objective (Freeman as cited in Jones, Felps & Bigley, 2007). Foley (2005) defines stakeholders in more specific terms as "those entities and/or issues, which a business identifies from the universe of all who are interested in and/or affected by the activities or existence of that business, and are capable of causing the enterprise to fail, or could cause unacceptable levels of damage, if their needs are not met" (p. 138). Garvare and Johansson (2010) went as far as to suggest that stakeholders are partners that provide essential means of support required by an organisation; and could withdraw their support if their wants or expectations are not met, thus causing the organisation to fail, or inflicting unacceptable levels of damage.

The central aspect of these definitions is that they enable distinctions to be made between parties who have significant influence on an organisation and those who do not. Although the definitions adopted here do not require a stakeholder to be identified by the organisation to be categorised as such, organisations will behave in such a way as to satisfy the wants and expectations of those it does identify as being its stakeholders (Jones et al., 2007). However, it should be noted that to identify a stakeholder is to interpret and understand a relationship, rather than to identify a partner (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

2.3.2 Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory is a managerial conception of organisational strategy and ethics (Freeman & Phillips, 2002). The central idea is that an organisation's success is dependent on how well it manages the relationships with key groups such as customers, employees, suppliers, communities, financiers and others that can affect the realisation of its purpose (Flak, Nordheim & Munkvold, 2008). The manager's job is to keep the support of all of these groups, balancing their interests while making the

organisation a place where stakeholder interests can be maximised over time (Freeman & Phillips, 2002).

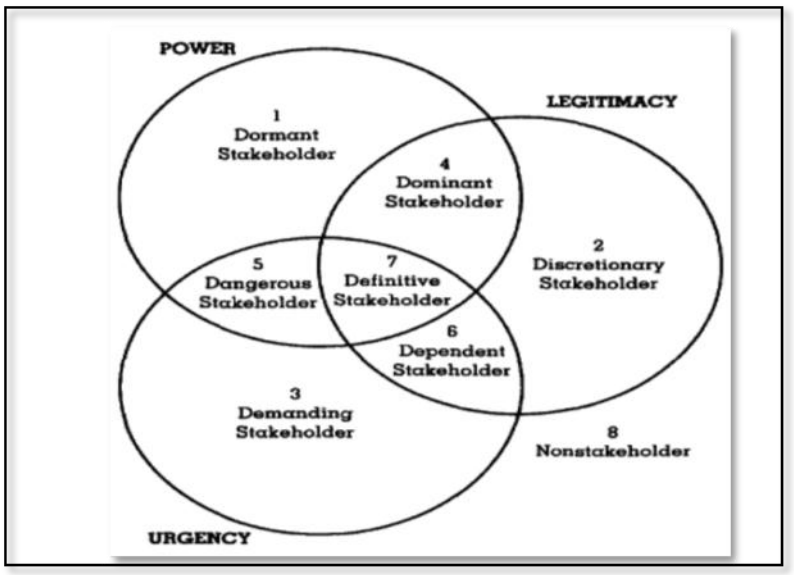
Stakeholder theory according to Jones et al. (2007), states that "an organisation is responsible for the wellbeing of its stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, employees, investors and communities who are identified by their interests in the organisation" (P.187). The list of stakeholders of a particular organisation can vary over time and is dependent on factors that determine the prevailing power balance among various parties, such as culture, type of market and government system (Garvare & Johansson, 2010). Jones et al. (2007) further categorised stakeholders as:

- Primary stakeholders are those that have formal, official and contractual relationship with the organisation, therefore those that have an economic, direct and necessary impact upon the organisation. These 'primary stakeholders' can include customers, management, co-workers, suppliers, shareholders and government.

- Secondary stakeholders are those that are not directly related to the organisation, but nonetheless, are able to exert some sort of influence upon the organisation or even be influenced by it. These 'secondary stakeholders' can include non-government organisations, academics, media, fair-trade bodies, environmental pressure groups and other individuals or organisations that, in one way or another, if their wants and expectations are too heavily violated, are able to influence primary stakeholders to withdraw essential support, thereby causing the organisation to fail, or inflicting unacceptable levels of damage (Garvare & Johansson, 2010).

Therefore managers need to understand this distinction and do their best to unify and satisfy them, especially for the more important stakeholders. A key issue in stakeholder theory is to identify the salient stakeholders - 'who and what really counts'. Salience refers to the question of why some stakeholder claims are attended to while others are not (Assudani & Kloppenborg, 2010). Key aspects of stakeholder theory involve definition of stakeholders as well as tools to identify them and concepts that represent stakeholder salience towards managers (Hendry, 2001). According to Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997), salience is composed of the attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Figure 8 presents a stakeholder typology comprising eight different combinations of these attributes (Mitchell et al., 1997).

Figure 8: Stakeholder typology



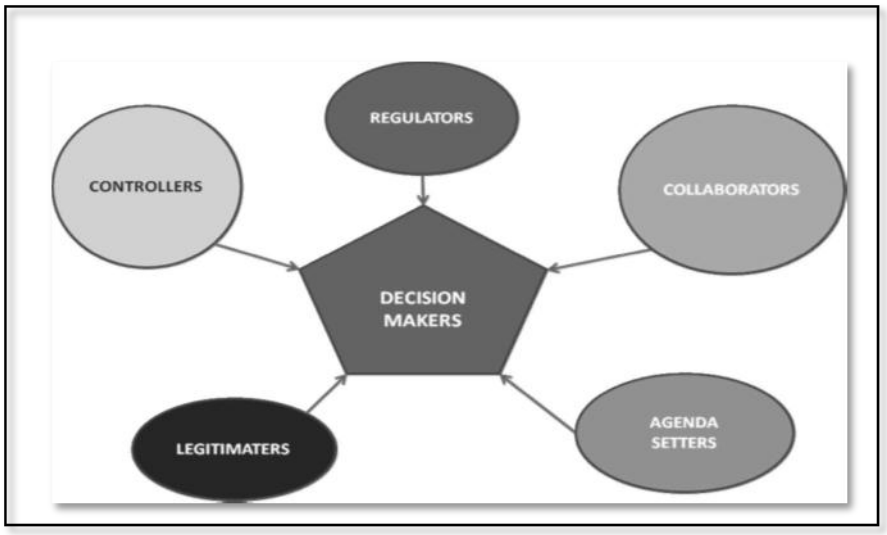
Source: Mitchell et al. (1997)

According to Mitchell et al. (1997) stakeholders possessing all three attributes are more salient towards managers than stakeholders who only possess one or two of the attributes and are thus termed definitive stakeholders in the typology. A definitive stakeholder would very likely be given attention not only because this person or group would represent a legitimate claim, but the person or group would also be likely to exercise power because of a sense of urgency (Mitchell et al., 1997). For example, it is possible to imagine that a politician could be more interested in exercising his or her legitimate powers to influence political decisions shortly before an election because of an increased sense of urgency (to be re-elected). Both stakeholders and salience represent dynamic phenomena, which should be analysed regularly (Freeman, Wicks & Parmar, 2004).

2.3.3 The Effect of Stakeholder Influences on Decision Making

Gomes, Liddle & Gomes (2010) developed a five-sided stakeholder influence model for local governments. According to this model, local governments make decisions regulated, collaborated, oriented, legitimised and inspected by some influential stakeholders that need to be taken into account in its formulation of strategy and performance management if it wishes to be successful. Figure 9 presents a five-sided stakeholder influence model for local governments (Gomes et al., 2010).

Figure 9: A five-sided stakeholder influence model for local government



Source: Gomes et al. (2010)

2.3.3.1 **Regulators**

Influence over the money supply arises from this cluster, which makes central and other tiers of government a strong stakeholder able to affect performance either by reducing or expanding the flow of money. Despite the criticism that taxes are raised mainly at the local government levels, it is up to central government to allocate the amount each local government is entitled to receive. This is a real example of a resource dependent situation (Gomes et al., 2010).

2.3.3.2 **Collaborators**

In this cluster, internal and external agents are identified to approach local government in order to help it deliver public services. This happens because the public entity is incapable of delivering such services, or because of the search for efficiency, which is the case of public and private partners. This relationship can be explained by a resource dependence rationale. The resource dependence theory helps to explain why organisations approach each other to acquire the resource they need to operate (Gomes et al., 2010).

2.3.3.3 **Agenda setters**

In the agenda-setting cluster, central and other tiers of government can again influence local government by defining the main objectives that will steer their objectives and targets. The nature of the relationship formed between local government and this cluster may be explained by the tenets of institutional theory. According to this theory, an organisation needs to comply with the set of rules and regulations derived from its institutional environment in order to achieve legitimacy (Gomes et al., 2010).

2.3.3.4 **Legitimaters**

In this cluster, local politicians gain power and legitimacy for steering the local government for a period of time (Gomes et al., 2010).

2.3.3.5 **Controllers**

Finally, in the controller cluster, formal and informal mechanisms of control can be seen at work. The mechanisms derive from both the need to hold public sector managers accountable to society and the need to ensure money has been spent according to the institutionalised mechanisms of performance, namely efficiency, effectiveness, equity and economy. This seems to be another relationship that can be explained by institutional theory arguments, because it appears to be a demand from society or the result of the action of pressure groups (Gomes et al., 2010).

2.3.4 Summary

Stakeholder management has become increasingly important as organisations operate as ‘open systems’ interacting with various stakeholders (Brewer, 2011). The competitive advantage of stakeholder management is based on the effective managing of relationships of stakeholders which will result in valuable resources that enhance the organisation’s value creation and its ability to outperform competitors (Galbreath, 2006;

Hillman & Keim, 2001). Stakeholders can exercise influence (technological, economic, social, political or managerial) in numerous ways for the achievement of ultimate goals of an organisation (Bailur, 2006).

To ensure the success of the organisation, or education projects in this case, managers need to identify all stakeholders, determine which stakeholders are most important, build relationships with them and manage their expectations, and communicate effectively with all of the stakeholders (Assudani & Kloppenborg, 2010). Therefore, the success of PPP in improving the quality of education in South African rural communities depends on how well the relationships between the Department of Education, Non-governmental organisations providing educational services in rural schools; the private companies that sponsors educational projects in rural schools and the communities are managed.

2.4 Education Reform

2.4.1 Introduction

Ever since public schooling began, governments have been looking for ways to improve them (Levin, 2010). Over the last few decades, many efforts have been made to address education issues through policy at various levels. Looking at these efforts around the world suggest that they have often been motivated more by beliefs than by evidence of impact (Hallinger, 2010). Not only are wrong policies often adopted, but effective implementation of education policy is lacking (Levin, 2010). In part this is because governments face particular constraints on what they can do.

The current moment offers some new possibilities for considering the role of the state, since much of what previously taken for granted seem to have led in the wrong direction (Hallinger, 2010). The same is true in education where much education policy has been unsuccessful in improving students' outcomes or in reducing the inequities in those outcomes while having negative effects on educators' morale (Levin, 2010).

2.4.2 Challenges Facing Education Reform Globally

Levin (2010) and Hallinger (2010) identified challenges facing reform efforts in education:

2.4.2.1 The Challenge of Improvement

Public education has been in many ways a great human achievement, but no matter how well we do, much more is possible (Levin & Fullan 2008). The goals of education are so lofty that we must inevitably fall short in achieving them (Levin, 2010, p.740). Large inequalities in education outcomes are still rife in every country, too often related to students' family backgrounds or irrelevant characteristics such as skin colour. Moreover, the growth in international comparisons has made it more difficult for most countries to be satisfied with current performance, no matter how good it is (Hallinger, 2010).

Further improvement in results across large education systems in a reasonably short period of time turns out to be very difficult to do. Many countries have launched ambitious improvement plans only to find a few years later that things have remained much the same and the promised benefits have not been achieved (Levin & Fullan, 2008). Levin (2010) believes there are two important reasons why it is difficult to improve education results:

- Firstly, education results reflect larger problems and inequalities in societies; thus schools cannot overcome all the inequities and problems around them.
- Secondly, many improvement projects are poorly implemented.

2.4.2.2 The Wrong Policies

Governments are driven to tinker with the levers they control most directly whether or not those are the real drivers of outcomes (Levin, 2008, p. 740). The main means used to try to generate improvement have most often been around structural aspects of the system governance, finance, workforce and accountability or incentive systems (Levin & Fullan, 2008). Most of these can be changed relatively easily, at least on paper, through policy edicts, and the changes have been deeply influenced by dominant ideas rooted in economic systems such as managerialism, choice, markets and incentives (Levin, 2010).

Considerable research evidence is available now on many of these efforts, and it is difficult to find much evidence of sustained improvement in outcomes resulting from these efforts (Levin & Fullan, 2008). Structural changes have almost always had disappointing results (Levin, 2010).

2.4.2.3 Inadequate Implementation

Another flaw in the way governments approach education policy has to do with the lack of attention to implementation. “Because there are so many issues clamouring for attention in the political world, governments tend to give relatively little attention to each one. When an issue is dealt with through an announcement or policy, attention shifts to the next demands, often in a completely different policy area” (Levin, 2008 p.741). Therefore, attention to implementation is typically left to the bureaucracy.

2.4.2.4 Governments Face Particular Constraints on Policy

Critique of misguided education policies is important, but improved policy requires an understanding of the unique constraints and pressures under which governments operate (Levin, 2010). These include not only the normal limits of human capacity to understand complex issues, especially when time is very limited, but also the enormous pressures that political systems inevitably exert on their leaders. Policy-making in education has some additional complexities; it is concerned primarily with children and young people, so it has an orientation to the future that brings out many people's ideals and also their anxieties (Levin & Fullan, 2008).

2.4.3 Education Reform in South Africa

2.4.3.1 South African Education before 1994

In 1953, the South African minister of native affairs, Hendrik Verwoerd, made the case for legislation restricting the quality of schools serving Africans (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). "Racial relations cannot improve if the wrong type of education is given to Natives," he declared. "They cannot improve if the result of Native education is the creation of frustrated people who, as a result of the education they received, have expectations in life which circumstances in South Africa do not allow to be fulfilled immediately" (Fiske & Ladd, 2004, p. 1). Parliament accepted Verwoerd's arguments and approved the Bantu Education Act of 1953, which asserted government control of church-run schools and forbade African teachers from criticising the government or school authorities (Fiske & Ladd, 2004).

The education Africans received was poor in quality and designed to keep them out of the modern sector of the economy, thus ensuring a steady supply of cheap labour, particularly for the agricultural, mining and domestic service sectors (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). Resources and spending per learner were allocated to schools on the basis of race; spending in white schools was more than two and half times than what was spent on behalf of black learners in urban townships (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). Black learners were attending school in dilapidated buildings with filthy and inadequate

toilet facilities, broken windows, too few desks, not enough books and a hundred or more learners to a class (Appiah & McMahon, 2002).

The curriculum was also different for white and black learners; the Christian National Education Policy of 1948, explicitly and implicitly placed different values on children of different colour and gender (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). Curricula were developed with white learners in mind, and little effort was made to consider the needs of non-white learners. Language policy in education was used for political purposes, which was to control black learners by separating them into multiple ethnolinguistic groups, and to separate Afrikaner from English learners (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). Advanced vocational and technical subjects were available only to Whites, as were higher-level Math and Science (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). “What is the use of teaching a Bantu child mathematics,” asked Minister of Native Affairs Hendrik Verwoerd, “when it cannot use it in practice?” (Fiske & Ladd, 2004, p. 42).

Bantu teachers only had an elementary school education and were tired and uninspired by the hopeless task (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). Schools for Blacks may have police and soldiers on the premises to keep an eye on the learners and spot “agitators;” they may even be in the classrooms during classes, in their uniforms and with their guns, and in their strutting arrogance strip the headmaster and staff of any dignity or authority. There were informers in the schools, too, black children desperate for food, security and the little prestige that money could buy (Sparks as cited by Appiah & McMahon, 2002).

2.4.3.2 South African Education after 1994

A new constitution was adopted in 1993 and approved in 1996 guaranteeing all South Africans of all races the right to a basic education, including adult education (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). This constitution is based on principles of equality where everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. Basic education was explicitly included among those rights, and the adoption of race-blind policies in the delivery of education would send a clear signal that the racial differentiation that had been the centerpiece of the Apartheid system and that had such devastating consequences for Blacks was no longer acceptable. As a result, education had to compete for resources and attention with other reform priorities (Fiske & Ladd,

2004). Below are the reform attempts used by the new South Africa government to improve the quality of education in South Africa:

2.4.3.2.1 **Increased Government Expenditure in Education**

Since 1994, the South African government has used a combination of fiscal measures to achieve the goal of equity in education (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).These measures were intended to redress the considerable gap between rich and poor schools in terms of overall quality of education to improve access to education for more and poorer learners, to promote inter-provincial equity in funding, given the differential tax base and educational infrastructure of the nine provinces, and to achieve performance equity across schools and provinces as a result of the ineffective utilisation of funded resources (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).

Education expenditures have shown significant increase since 1994 (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). In fact, education expenditures rose from 31.8 billion Rands in 1994 to 51.1 billion Rands in 2000, stretching further to 105.7 billion Rands in 2007 and doubled to 207.3 billion Rands in 2012 (Department of National Treasury, 2012). Education expenditures in South Africa account for almost 6 percent of GDP; this falls within one of the highest rates of government investment in education (Department of National Treasury, 2012). In addition, education accounts for as much as 40 percent of provincial budgets for school education, adult basic education, early childhood development and education for learners with special needs (Department of National Treasury, 2012).

2.4.3.2.2 **Improvement of Teacher Salaries and Standardisation of Teacher-learner Ratio**

The already high ratio of personnel expenditures to non-personnel costs was significantly increased as a consequence of two policy decisions taken soon after the new government assumed office: the equalization of salary scales for teachers and the equalisation of pupil to teacher ratios (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). The various salary structures for teachers were merged into a single salary scale In the 1996/97 financial year (Department of National Treasury, 1999).

Prior to 1994, teachers in certain homeland administrations were paid less than their counterparts with the same qualifications who were employed by other departments (Jansen, 2002). In effect, all salaries were adjusted upward to the scale of the former White education departments, which resulted in some 40 percent of teachers moving to higher salary brackets. The salaries of females in those departments in which parity had not existed prior to 1994 were also equalised (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).

In 1996, the Department of Education announced new pupil to teacher ratio norms of 40 to 1 for primary schools and 35 to 1 for secondary schools to be phased in over the period 1996-2000 (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). Although the introduction of the new pupil to teacher norms was not designed to increase the overall numbers of teachers, attempts to equalise the differences resulted in the employment of between 40,000 and 60,000 new teachers countrywide (Jansen, 2002). This arose from the facts that schools who were above the norms hired new teachers, while those below the norm were given five years to reduce their teacher numbers (Jansen, 2002).

2.4.3.2.3 **New Curriculum**

The establishment of the comprehensive curriculum project called Curriculum 2005 (C2005), a progressive model of education based on the principles of outcome-based education was also the heart of school reform (Jansen, 2002). In essence, this curriculum “called for a form of learner-centered education which placed the teacher in the role of facilitator” (Jansen and Taylor, 2003, p. 37). It called for the specification of discrete learning outcomes rather than vague and aimless teaching, and it required continuous, formative assessment rather than the one-off, high-stakes examinations that had become a consistent feature of the South African education system (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).

The new government’s learner-centered curriculum was a direct response to the Apartheid curriculum variously described as teacher-centered, authority-driven, content-based, elitist, examination-based and eurocentric in orientation(Jansen & Taylor, 2003).The previous curriculum privileged formal knowledge and encouraged route learning; it straightjacketed students for university preparation, not recognising the diverse interests and pathways actually pursued by the majority of students (Jansen & Christie 1999). C2005, based on a radically different philosophy of education, would counteract this powerful curriculum legacy of Apartheid.

2.4.3.3 Achievement of Education Reform in South Africa

Jansen (2002), highlighted notable successes achieved by the South Africa government in the post-1994 period. These successes include; firstly, the creation of a single national department of education out of 19 racially, ethnically and regionally divided departments of education that ensured a new political basis for the governance of education that nullified the logic of race in the education system's constitution (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).

Secondly, the generation of a formidable architecture of policies and laws to govern education with ambitious goals and lofty ideals for new programmes, schools, colleges, technikons, and universities. One such accomplishment was the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) that has become an important lever for systems change through qualifications reform (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). Thirdly, ensuring a non-discriminatory school environment into which access was gained on the basis of criteria other than race or religion. Lastly, the provision and delivery of basic services, such as the supply of electricity, water, toilets, computers and telephones in schools (Jansen, 2002).

As a result of these gains, South Africa has been able to achieve among the highest enrollment rates in African education. More than 12 million learners attend school, with gross enrollment ratios averaging over 100 percent for primary schooling and over 70 percent for secondary schools. The rate of girls' participation in schooling is one of the continent's highest (Jansen & Taylor, 2003).

2.4.3.4 Challenges Facing Education Reform in South Africa

The achievements of education reform in South Africa unfortunately need to be offset against the significant problem faced by the South African education system especially in rural areas. These problems become more important in the context of the searing competitive demands of global competition, and the local context of deep inequalities and poverty traps faced especially by poor and rural citizens in South Africa (Bloch, 2009).

There are many factors contributing to low achievement of high-quality education and other undesirable educational outcomes in South Africa (Fiske & Ladd, 2004). These

factors include poor teacher development and support, curriculum complexity, poor school governance and leadership, shortage of teaching resources, skills backlogs and poor learner support (HSRC & EPC, 2005). There is a fundamental continuity between the lack of basic services in schools and in rural communities. The lack of basic services in rural communities affects schooling and impacts on the access to and quality of schooling (HSRC & EPC, 2005).

Other factors extend well beyond the control of schools, among them poverty, malnutrition, poor employment prospects for secondary school graduates and HIV/AIDS. These broader social problems must be addressed if South Africa is ever to make significant progress toward the goal of providing an adequate education to all learners (Fiske & Ladd, 2004).

2.4.4 Summary

Schooling reform is difficult and yet, with the right leadership and approach, education systems can make significant gains from almost any starting point. While minimum levels of funding and resources are essential, funds and resources are not enough in themselves to transform an education system. Many countries spend more money but achieve too little; other countries have less to spend and outperform those with bigger budgets.

Sustained education reform requires a new approach to the teaching profession (Levin, 2010). Society needs to value the importance of teachers more highly, and teachers need to see themselves as professionals and behave accordingly. Incentive-base pay is essential. There are groups and interest outside the public sectors who have an interest in education reform and who can be mobilised in support of good school leadership, excellent teaching and improved learner performance (Jansen, 2002). However, the challenge is to take into account of local context politics, unions and economics, and to devise an effective approach that will deliver results. Therefore, a strategy is required that places school leadership and effective, professional teaching at the heart of educational reform. The performance of school managers and teachers, in turn, should be judged in terms of improved learner performance.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explored the concept of public-private partnerships focusing on the different definitions of PPP, the development of PPP globally, critical success factors of PPP and PPP initiatives in South Africa. Stakeholder theory was reviewed and the effects of stakeholder influences on decision making were discussed. The reform of the South Africa education from Apartheid to post-Apartheid Era was discussed, and challenges facing these reforms were highlighted.

Research has revealed the emergence of public-private partnerships in South Africa; however, PPP in education in South Africa, particularly in rural areas of South Africa, has not been fully researched. Therefore, this study focuses on identifying whether public-private partnership is a suitable model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities by proposing research questions that will help to answer the research objectives. Below are the research questions for this study.

3.2 Research Questions

The primary objective of this study is to determine whether PPP can be a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities. To achieve the primary objective, the secondary objectives of this study are to investigate and analyse responses to the following research questions:

Research Question 1

What are the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural mining communities?

This question aims to understand the specific challenges that prevent reform in education in South African rural communities that are pertinent to the delivery of quality education, the development of these communities and results in the need for the formation of PPP in education.

Research Question 2

Are PPPs an appropriate delivery mechanism for improving the quality of education in the rural communities of South Africa?

This question aims to assess the suitability of PPP in the delivery of quality education in the rural mining communities of South Africa by identifying the benefits and challenges of implementing these partnerships.

Research Question 3

What are the critical success factors of PPP in education in rural South Africa?

This question aimed to identify model attributes that would be used as building blocks for education PPP in South Africa and the preconditions for the success in education PPP in rural mining communities.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter states the research questions that are tested in this study. The main research question focuses on determining the suitability of PPP as a model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities. The review of literature on PPP and the challenges facing education reform in South Africa provides insight into how this approach could be applied to education in South Africa.

From the theoretical base, critical success factors for PPP projects have been identified, which serve as a discussion point for in-depth interviews with stakeholders involved in the delivery of education through public-private partnerships. Their perceptions about the suitability and effectiveness of PPP in facilitating increasing delivery of quality education in South Africa have been obtained. Based on the findings, the recommendations that support future programme initiatives that encourage PPP projects in education in South Africa have been formulated.

Therefore, the research questions were addressed in a two-phase approach. Phase One focused on the challenges facing education reform in rural communities of South Africa from information obtained from Headmasters of schools in rural communities and through the knowledge and perception of experts in the education sector.

Phase Two focused on determining the suitability of PPP in the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa and the preconditions for the success of PPP in education from information obtained from Senior Managers of institutions providing educational support in partnerships with the Department of Education in the North West province. This chapter explains the methodology used to test the questions posed in Chapter Three.

4.2 Research Approach

The stated research questions are addressed using an exploratory qualitative research approach to gain an in-depth understanding of whether PPP is a suitable model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities. According to Van Maanen (as cited in Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005), qualitative research is an "umbrella" phrase "covering an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world" (p.378).

Qualitative research is thus advised when a researcher is trying to understand a certain phenomenon in a particular situation rather than trying to establish a relationship between two or more variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2002). Exploratory research can be defined as "research that aims to seek new insight into phenomena, to ask questions, and to assess the phenomena in a new light" (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, p. 592).

Qualitative research is an iterative process, with the importance for a firmly designed guideline to monitor the data collection and analysis process (Yin, 2003). Qualitative field studies can be used successfully in the description of groups, communities and organisations (Welman et al., 2005). Qualitative research approaches originated from the ethnographic methods that were applied by cultural and social anthropologists in their field studies of social groups and communities (Welman et al., 2005).

These approaches have been taken over and adapted by sociologists, psychologists, and educationalists, among others (Welman et al., 2005, p. 193). Qualitative findings can therefore be replicated and sometimes generalised to theory, but they cannot be inferred across the entire population given the small sample size (Yin, 2003).

Patton (2002) stated that in qualitative research there are no set rules for the sample size. The degree of validity, meaningfulness and insight depends more on the richness of the information gathered than the size. Therefore, a small sample is taken in order to retain more richness when it comes to description (Brewer, 2011). This yields a higher internal validity; however, the external validity may be limited (Saunders et al., 2009).

Qualitative, exploratory, in-depth and face-to-face interviews with groups of stakeholders were used to assess their perception on the suitability of PPP to improve the quality of education in rural communities of South Africa. An exploratory study such as this lends itself to the emergent nature of qualitative research because it is a linear, objective process that cannot easily be captured by means of an impersonal questionnaire (Merriam, 1998).

4.3 Research Process

A two-phased approach was used for the research study. Details of each phase are as follows:

- Phase One: This phase developed an understanding of the challenges preventing education reform in rural communities of South Africa. In-depth interviews were conducted with experts in education and Headmasters of schools in rural communities.

- Phase Two: This phase determined the suitability of PPP in education and identified the preconditions for the success of PPP projects in rural communities. Interviews with Senior Managers of Section 21 institutions that provide educational support in partnership with the Department of Education in the North West Province and Senior Managers of mining companies that operate in the Bojanala District Municipality in the Rustenburg area was also used to answer the research questions in chapter three.

4.4 Phase One

4.4.1 Purpose

As stated in the research process, this phase focused on developing an understanding of the challenges preventing education reform in rural communities of South Africa from education experts and Headmasters of schools in rural communities. Each interview was analysed using content and narrative analysis, and a final comparative analysis was conducted to compare results across the units of analysis (Yin, 2003).

4.4.2 Population

The population for this phase consisted of two distinctive groups which represent major role players in the delivery and management of education. These key stakeholders were education experts and Headmasters of schools in rural communities of the Rustenburg District Municipality. The two groups were identified as the population from which the samples were extracted for the face-to-face, in-depth interviews.

4.4.3 Sample Size

Six interviews were conducted with the two groups identified in the population above. Sampling focused on gathering qualitative data from the distinct groups, and samples were selected using non-probability judgement sampling. Zikmund (2003) describes this type of non-probability sampling as: “that, which is employed to serve a specific purpose, when the researchers use their judgement to select the sample based on appropriate sample characteristics.”

In this case, judgment was based on the respondents’ roles and responsibilities in education management and delivery. The respondents of preference were carefully selected as being knowledgeable individuals both directly and indirectly involved in the industry being investigated and having more information and/or richer experience due

to their position held (Welman et al., 2005). Appendix 1 exhibits the profiles of the interviewees for Phase One.

4.4.4 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis was the perspective and knowledge of the experts in education and Headmasters of schools in rural communities.

4.4.5 Data Gathering

Given the nature of this study, the research required face-to-face, in-depth interviews with the two sample groups in order to seek answers to the research questions expressed in Chapter Three. Data was collected in one-time, individual, semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interviews allow for a hybrid of deductive and inductive approaches; it allows for comparative analysis due to a degree of regulation and spontaneity in which the interviewer can ask clarification or elaboration (Welman et al., 2005). The interviews were conducted with each respondent individually for approximately an hour. The main advantage of the one-to-one interview was the ease in transcribing the information and the ease to control.

An interview is an intentional conversation between two or more people. Interviews can aid the researcher in gathering valid and reliable data that are relevant to the research questions and objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). Interviews many also aid in refining the research questions or objectives. Therefore, the nature of any interview should be consistent with the research questions and objectives, the purpose of the research, and the research strategy the researcher adopts (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008).

In-depth interviews are informal, and researchers use them to explore a general area in which they are interested in thoroughly (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). In-depth interviews thus provide the researcher with the opportunity to probe answers where the researcher wants the interviewee to explain, or build on responses. This is important if the researcher is adopting an interpretivist philosophical theory of knowledge, where the researcher will be concerned to understand the meanings that participant ascribes

to various phenomena (Saunders et al., 2009). Fontana and Frey (1995) stated that in-depth interviewing provides a greater wealth of information than other data collection methods because of their qualitative nature.

During in-depth interviews the researcher simply suggests the general theme of discussion and poses further questions as these come up during spontaneous interaction between the researcher and the research interviewee (Welman et al., 2005). During these interviews, the interviewee is given the opportunity to talk freely about events, behaviours and beliefs in relation to the topic area (Saunders et al., 2009). The interviewer's questions should be directed at the participant's experiences, feelings, beliefs and convictions about the theme in question. Therefore, interviewers should be extremely careful not to suggest certain responses in the way in which they phrase their questions (Welman et al., 2005).

The following data collection process was followed for each interview (Saunders et al., 2009; Welman and Kruger, 2001; Welman et al., 2005 & Brewer, 2011):

1. Conduct the interview
2. Transcribe the interview from recordings and notes taken. These first two steps create a platform for qualitative analysis.
3. Edit/clean the data for any transcription errors.
4. Acknowledge any insightful and analytical aspects from the notes taken for use in future interviews and analyses.
5. Combine and organise research notes in themes. Take record of any new themes emerging, and adjust the interview guide (Appendix 2) accordingly to allow for further investigation of the new themes.
6. Repeat the above steps for subsequent interviews.

The data collection for this phase utilised the above procedure to collect qualitative data to achieve reliability and generalizability *(sic)* (Brewer, 2011). The data collection was designed in a structured manner and processed according to the above procedures (Brewer, 2011). The inductive approach to data collection allowed for the essence of the new phenomenon to be captured and therefore increased the validity of the study (Saunders et al., 2009). The transcribing of the interview to ensure all information was collected took approximately three hours per interview.

4.4.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process which aims to bring order, structure and meaning to great amounts of data collected (Lal, 2001); data analysis occurs during the collection of data as well as after it (Yin, 2003). Qualitative data analysis procedures assist the researcher to develop theory from research data, which includes both deductive and inductive approaches, and 'like the process you use to construct a jigsaw, range from simple categorisation or responses to processes for identifying relationship between categories' (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 480).

According to Saunders et al. (2009), there are four stages in conducting data analysis:

1. Summarising (condensation) of meaning - this step allows the researcher to produce a summary of the key points that emerge from the interview in different themes.
2. Categorisation (grouping) of meaning - this step develops a framework of categories relevant to the themes and patterns that emerge; it is necessary that this framework is significant to the research questions. This process involves two activities: developing categories and, subsequently, attaching the categories to meaningful chunks of data.
3. Unitisation of meaning - this step allows for the unit of analysis from the transcriptions to be divided into different themes and patterns using content analysis.
4. Structuring (ordering) of meaning into narrative - this step helps to ensure that data is organised both temporally and with regard to the social or organisational context of the research participants.

The analytical method used in this study was a combination of content, narrative and comparative analysis. This entailed analysing the content to identify specific categories of information and themes. The raw data was then coded, and the codes were grouped in categories. The researcher then identified relationships between the codes or categories of data and the patterns within the data in order to develop generalised conclusions (Welman & Kruger, 2001). The individual responses were then compared between the different subgroups.

4.5 Phase Two

4.5.1 Purpose

Phase Two focused on determining the suitability of PPP in education and identified preconditions for the success of PPP projects in rural communities from Senior Managers of Section 21 institutions that provide educational support in partnership with the Department of Education in the North West province and Senior Managers of mining companies operating in the Bojanala District Municipality. Each interview was analysed using content and narrative analysis, and a final comparative analysis was conducted to compare results across the units of analysis (Yin, 2003).

4.5.2 Population

On discussion of the research problem with experts and colleagues, a discovery of an interesting and relevant population was made. The population was interesting because of the uprising activities that were taking place in the mining communities in the greater Rustenburg area. Therefore, the population for this phase consisted of Senior Managers of mining companies operating in the Bojanala District Municipality and Senior Managers of Section 21 institutions that provide educational support in partnership with the Department of Education in the North West province and mines around the Rustenburg area.

4.5.3 Sample Size

Six interviews were conducted with the two groups identified above. Sampling focused on gathering qualitative data, and samples were selected using snowball sampling through a referral system of one candidate by another, given the timing and the sensitivity of the topic in mining communities (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2008)

In this case, the respondents were selected based on their roles and responsibilities in education management and delivery. The respondents of preference were carefully

selected as being knowledgeable individuals both directly and indirectly involved in the industry investigated and have more information and/or richer experience due to their position held (Welman et al., 2005). Appendix 3 exhibits the profiles of the interviewees for Phase Two.

4.5.4 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis was the perspective and knowledge of Senior Managers of institutions providing assistance in the management and delivery of education in rural communities of South Africa and Senior Managers of mining companies operating in the Bojanala District Municipality.

4.5.5 Data Gathering

Face-to-face in-depth interviews were conducted for data gathering with interviews conducted by the researcher. The interviews were unstructured, as recommended when conducting an exploratory study (Blumberg et al., 2008). An interview guide was used in order to ensure consistency in question content and sequence from one interview to the next (Appendix 4) However, there was minimum focus on the specificity of the guide as specificity may result in rigidity and so hinder unveiling of rich information from the respondent (Blumberg et al., 2008). The interviews were recorded on paper and on an electronic device in order to ensure integrity and accuracy of the data (Blumberg et al., 2008).

4.4.6 Data Analysis

The responses were analysed on the same day as the content, and so were still fresh in the interviewer's mind. Narrative, content and comparative analyses were conducted in analysing data, as is common in qualitative studies, to provide greater depth (Blumberg et al., 2008). This entailed analysing the content to identify specific categories of information and themes. The raw data was then coded, and these codes were grouped into categories. The researcher then identified relationships between the codes or categories of data and the patterns within the data in order to develop

generalised conclusions (Welman & Kruger, 2001). The individual responses were then compared between the different subgroups.

4.6 Research Limitations

The researcher is mindful of various research limitations, presented by the chosen research method and acknowledges the following:

- Researcher and respondent bias may impact on the results. The awareness of this possibility from the researcher's perspective may moderate the objectivity of the study. These biases include but are not limited to the following factors:
    - Interviewer bias: bias in the responses of the respondents due to the influence of the interviewer.
    - Social desirability bias: bias in the responses of the respondents (experts) caused by their desire, either conscious or unconscious, to appear in a different social role.

- While a judgement and snowballing samples are useful for this specific research objective, the researcher needs to be mindful of the bias that may result from the belief by respondents that they may make the sample unrepresentative. Thus projecting data beyond this sample is inappropriate.

- As the sample is not representative of the population (universe), a non-probability sampling may result in a finding that is not representative of the population. Therefore, it would be inappropriate to project the research findings beyond the sample, without additional research.

- Due to the qualitative nature of this study, the respondents' views could potentially not be representative of the level of engagement for using PPPs to improve the quality of education in rural communities. To mitigate this, the respondents were encouraged to speak on the basis of their experiences and to provide examples for the statements made.

The following were the limitations of this research:

- Since the research will use a non-probability sampling, the results will not be generalisable;
- There is a possibility of interviewee bias due to the interviewee's personal perceptions, assumptions, and interpretation;
- The research will be highly dependent on the quality of the answers provided by the respondents during the interviews.

4.7 Validity and Reliability

Validity is "concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about", and research reliability helps to ensure that the study must employ data collection methods and analysis procedures which produce consistent findings (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 128). Therefore, validity is important in research as it is concerned with whether a researcher is measuring what needs to be tested and if the results are credible and can be applied elsewhere (Saunders et al., 2009). In order to improve validity, a consistency matrix needs to be compiled to show how the research questions will be addressed.

Data validity in qualitative research refers to the accuracy and precision of the data in terms of the research question being asked (Denscombe, 2007). Given the nature of this research, the potential for the researcher's bias due to personal perceptions and assumptions and interpretation existed, hence, the need for interpretative validity. This required the researcher to pay attention to the language and perspective of the respondents during the interview as opposed to the researcher's interpretation of the respondent's comments.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explained the methodology used to test the research questions highlighted in Chapter Three. This chapter will present the findings of phases one and two of the study. The purpose of phase one was to develop an understanding of the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities by conducting in-depth interviews with experts in education and Headmasters of schools in rural areas. Once interviews of phase one were completed, the researcher was able to refine the interview questions for phase two, which purpose was to determine the suitability of PPP to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities and also to determine the critical success factors for implementing PPP in education in South Africa. Each phase is discussed in three sections: description of the sample; responses classed under each research question; and summation of emerging themes.

5.2 Results of Phase One

5.2.1 Introduction

Phase one focused on developing an understanding of the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities from experts in education and Headmasters of schools in rural communities in the North West province.

5.2.2 Description of Sample

This section presents a summarised description of the sample that was used in Phase One of the study with regards to characteristics that are significant to the study such as the Interviewees' positions to illustrate their expertise on the topic (Table 1).

Table 1: Description of the Sample

Number	Name	Company	Position
1	Prof. Robert Balfour	University of North West	Dean of Education
2	Prof. Irma Eloff	University of Pretoria	Dean of Education
3	Graeme Bloch	Mapungubwe Institute (MINSTRA)	Senior Researcher: Political Economy
4	Prof. Liesel Ebersöhn	University of Pretoria	Director: Unit of Research in Education
5	George Harris	Lebone II College of the Royal Bafokeng	Headmaster
6	Job Kaira	Moremogolo Primary School	Headmaster

A sample of eight interviewees was identified for Phase One of the research; however, only six candidates were interviewed due to unavailability of members of the NW DoE. All interviews were conducted at the interviewees' place of work. The semi-structured interviews lasted approximately an hour.

5.2.3 Reflections on the interviews

The researcher noted a number of interesting comments as well as observations during the six interviews:

- Interviewees were appreciative when the researcher revealed knowledge about them. Thus, it proved critical to be prepared for the interviews, including having background knowledge about the interviewees.
- Ensuring tools were available and functioning; these included two recording devices and ample paper and pens.
- Planning to arrive early, thus travelling earlier, and being prepared for the fact that interviewees might be late and thus understanding the need for flexibility.

- The researcher printed interview guides for both the researcher and the interviewee; as the interviewee was being interviewed, the researcher could reflect on the questions covered.

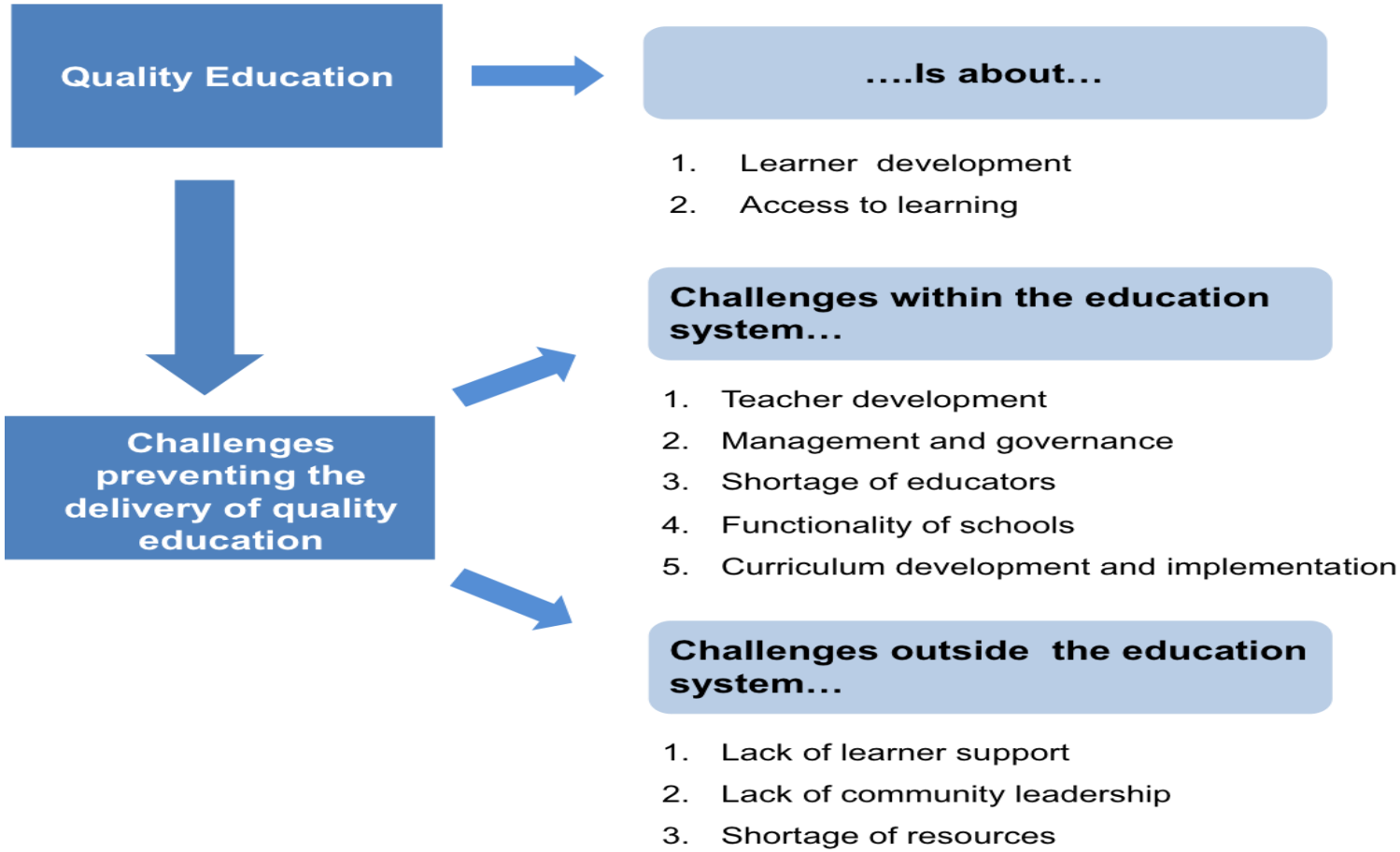
- Though the interviews were set for one hour, a number of them proceeded beyond an hour as the interviewees became excited about talking about their work. The longest interview lasted two and a half hours, and the conversation style of the researcher allowed for interviewees to express their views freely.

- The researcher tried to relax and enjoy the process, given the fact that the interviewees occupy top positions and are highly respected in their organisations.

5.2.4 Research Question 1: What are the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities?

In order to understand the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South Africa, specifically in rural communities, the interviewees were asked to define what quality education is and to explain the challenges facing the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa. Figure 10, below, exhibits the key themes that emerged from the responses to research question 1.

Figure 10: Summary of challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities according to experts in education



5.2.4.1 Quality Education

The interviewees expressed different definitions of 'quality education'. Table 2, below, shows the constructs that emerged from the six interviews and the number of interviewees that identified constructs under the theme quality education.

Table 2: Constructs for the themes of quality education

Number	Construct	Number of interviewees
1	Learner development	4
2	Access to learning	4
3	Quality of teaching in the classroom	2

Learner development and access to learning were ranked high by the interviewees. Although the quality of teaching in the classroom was only mentioned by fewer interviewees, it was emphasised by key experts as important to the delivery of quality education. The following quotations express key constructs that constitute the responses to the expression of a definition of quality education.

5.2.4.1.1 **Learner Development**

The interviewees believe that learners should be able to achieve optimally in relation to their abilities and should be assessed in terms of the learning they experience through schooling which is displayed by their level of critical analysis, problem-solving, engagement with social issues and understanding of moral obligations.

"*Quality education is a type of education that must be provided to all children in South Africa that will ensure that these children are completely developed physically, mentally and emotionally to be good citizens of this country. The end result is the development of a person as a whole" (Interviewee Three).*

5.2.4.1.2 **Access to Learning**

The interviewees also argued that children must have access to education irrespective of whom they are or where they live. Schools should accommodate and retain learners even if the learners have to work in the afternoon or look after their siblings; this implies that schools would be flexible enough to accommodate these learners to achieve the desired educational outcomes.

"*Quality education means having access to opportunities to learn. Education needs to retain learners in the system where they can progress from Grade R to Grade 12. Learners must be able to achieve optimally in terms of who they are" (Interviewee Six).*

"Quality education must lead to recognition by the industries and educational institutions and it must be relevant. It must lead to students gaining access to further education institutions like universities and those learners that cannot further their educational studies must be employable" (Interviewee One).

5.2.4.1.3 **Quality Teaching in the Classroom**

Education should focus on outcomes that are of national importance such as focusing on learners and the quality and effectiveness of teaching.

"Quality education relates to quality of teaching in the classroom, availability of resources and accountability in terms of how we measure ourselves and to what extent we are willing to resolve issues" (Interviewee Two).

5.2.4.2 Challenges Preventing the Delivery of Quality Education in South African Rural Communities

Responses from the interviewees indicated that various challenges prevent the delivery of quality education in rural schools. For the purpose of this analysis, the researcher has categorised these challenges into internal (in-school) and external (outside-school) challenges because some are posed by the schooling system itself and others by the

communities within which the schools are. Themes emerged from the interviewees' responses to form the constructs of the internal challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities as indicated by table 3 below.

5.2.4.2.1 Internal Challenges

Table 3: Themes for the construct of internal challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities

Number	Theme	Number of Interviewees
1	Teacher development and support	6
2	Management and governance of schools	4
3	Shortage of educators	4
4	Curriculum development and implementation	3
5	Functionality of schools	3
6	Accountability	1

Teacher development and support; management and governance of schools as well as shortage of educators were ranked higher by the interviewees as key challenges within the education system that prevents the delivery of quality education in rural communities .The researcher was also surprised to notice that accountability by the educators and DoE officials was ranked lower by the interviewees. The following quotations express key themes that emerged as the internal challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural communities.

5.2.4.2.1.1 ***Teacher Development and Support***

The interviewees believe that the provision of teacher development and support is a major challenge in the delivery of quality education in rural areas.

"The training teachers receive doesn't develop them sufficiently to provide quality teaching in schools. There's more focus on the academic development of teachers and

less focus on the practicals and experiential training which makes it difficult for teachers to deliver the right teaching methods in class (what is expected of them in class)" (Interviewee Three).

"We have teachers whom, because of the Apartheid system, were not adequately trained, people with one to three years of teaching experience, and we are expecting them to solve the problems of the youth" (Interviewee Two).

"Most of these teachers are still studying, which means that they are committed and enrolled in in-service training, but this takes them away from their time to teach. So we have a conundrum of teachers not equipped and upgrading their skills, but this means that they are taken away from the core business of teaching" (Interviewee Six).

"Not enough effort is put into the development of these teachers, they often attend workshops and seminars that don't help them to improve their teaching capabilities or develop their competencies" (Interviewee Four).

"DoE has initiated plans to develop teachers by deepening their knowledge through higher education learning and this hasn't yielded the desired impact. This has resulted in under-capacitation of teachers (Lack of teacher development) (*Interviewee Five*).

5.2.4.2.1.2 ***Management and Governance of Schools***

Lack of governance and management of schools were also cited by the interviewees as serious challenges that have significant impact on the efficient functioning of schools.

"Parents lack the capacity to govern schools effectively. Many parents are not educated well enough to fully participate in their roles as School Governing Body member (SGB members)" (*Interviewees Three and Six).*

"Some school principals are not qualified to manage the schools. There are no succession plans in place to ensure the development and progression from educator to school manager. Educators normally teach for few years and are then promoted to Head of Department (HOD) and immediately move to become school principals without

learning the management role sufficiently to lead the schools" (Interviewee One).

5.2.4.2.1.3 ***Shortage of Educators***

A shortage of skilled and experienced educators in rural schools has been identified, and rural schools are also not receiving adequate support from the DoE with regards to the recruitment of qualified and skilled educators.

"There's a lack of qualified and experienced teachers in rural areas, and some rural schools, because of the shortage of educators, have Grade 12 learners who are teaching. Experienced and qualified teachers don't want to teach in rural communities because they want to live it urban areas." (Interviewee Three).

"Getting the right professionals to teach in rural schools is a challenge because the government doesn't incentivise them to teach in those areas" (Interviewee Four).

"HIV/AIDS is also a huge problem: we have teachers who are ill because of this disease, these teachers are absent from schools and are unable to teach (sic)" (Interviewee One).

5.2.4.2.1.4 ***Curriculum Development and Implementation***

The language of learning and teaching (LOLT) in schools poses serious challenges to the South African education system.

"Our learners are expected to learn in a language that is not their mother tongue and our teachers are also expected to teach in a language that is not their mother tongue. The scenarios are that learners come to high school and they still cannot read, write and understand English and yet they are expected to articulate, memorise, formulate reason in that language" (Interviewee Six).

"If someone coming from Mars and comes to our schools will think that these people are crazy, you have a siSwati teacher teaching a siSwati learner in English. The teacher is not comfortable with English and the learners are also not comfortable with English. This is done because English is seen as a currency for economic productivity

but yet at this stage this is a barrier to learning, growth and development (sic" (Interviewee Two).

5.2.4.2.1.5 ***Functionality of Schools***

Some interviewees strongly argue that most schools are dysfunctional and lack discipline.

"There are challenges with the average teaching time and the amount of time teachers spend in the classroom" (Interviewee Four).

"This is also the reason why the right quality of education is not delivered in these schools. Schools don't adhere to planned schedules and curriculum is not delivered according to the prescribed standards" (Interviewee Six).

"Lack of discipline also poses a serious challenge to many schools. Most educators were trained during the times when corporal punishment was accepted in schools. Since the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools, teachers are unable to find alternative ways of disciplining the learners or instilling discipline in schools" (Interviewee Two).

"There is no security in some of these schools and most of them cannot afford to install or put in place security measures to protect the learners, educators and learning equipment" (Interviewee *One*).

5.2.4.2.1.6 ***Accountability***

Lack of accountability and corruption of government officials was posed as another challenge to deliver quality education in schools.

"There is a huge concern at district levels where resources are allocated to schools but not delivered to those schools i.e. the distribution of textbooks, the release of funds to schools etc. There seems to be blockages in the system and there is no accountability of who is responsible for these blockages" (Interviewee One).

5.2.4.2.2 External Challenges

Themes also emerged from the interviewees' responses to form the constructs of the external challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities as indicated by table 4 below.

Table 4: Themes for the construct of external challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities

Number	Theme	Number of Interviewees
1	Lack of learner support	6
2	Lack of community leadership	4
3	Shortage of resources	4

All the interviewees believed that lack of learner support was the most important external challenge that prevents the delivery of quality education in rural communities. Shortage of resources and Lack of community leadership also emerged during the interviews as challenges outside the education system that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural communities.

5.2.4.2.2.1 ***Lack of Learner Support***

Interviewees argued that learners are not receiving adequate support from parents, the community and educators.

"Illiteracy and unemployment also plays a significant role here because learners are unable to get support at home with regards to homework or funds for education" (Interviewee Four).

"Domestic labour is also a contributing factor because learners have more domestic chores that take their time to study" (Interviewee Three).

"Most rural households are not led by parents but by grandparents or children. Adults are working in urban areas and leave their children with grandparents and/or orphaned children lead families because of diseases like HIV/AIDS" (*Interviewee One*). *"In the*

classroom we have learners who have lost their parents or sitting in class with the anxiety of losing their parents and not knowing what will happen to them" (Interviewee Six).

"We have teachers who are using their salaries to supplement learners to buy their school uniform and food because they are hungry, tired and sick. How can those children learn? Because of poverty schools are places of comfort not areas of learning" (Interviewee Five).

5.2.4.2.2.2 ***Lack of Community Leadership***

Lack of leadership within the communities also poses a serious challenge to improve the standard and quality of education in rural schools. Below are quotations from the Interviewees:

"Lack of leadership (Traditional, household and youth) by the leaders who have the capability to effect change in these schools by either influencing or holding the school governance structures accountable" (*Interviewee Three*).

"Principals complain about the lack of effective engagements by SGBs, their quality of engagement is poor" (Interviewee Five). "Other SGB acts like opposition parties where they intervene in the running of the schools unnecessarily or inappropriately" (Interviewee One). "Most parents are unemployed, they don't know their rights and it is impossible for them to hold the schools accountable to deliver quality education" (Interviewee Four).

5.2.4.2.2.3 ***Shortage of Resources***

Shortage of resources makes it difficult to provide quality teaching in many rural schools.

"Most rural schools lack proper infrastructure, buildings, toilets and sporting facilities" (Interviewee Three). "Rural communities don't have public support facilities like libraries, learning centers, public learning programmes, etc. Thus there's no stimulation

in rural areas. There's also a lack of newspapers, TV or educational programmes to help learners to develop" (Interviewee Six).

"The lack and distance of resources is an issue. Teachers need to travel vast distances to institutions where they study. Some of the schools don't have roofs, and sanitation. Some teachers don't receive salaries (sic)" (*Interviewee Two and Four*).

5.2.5 Conclusion

Phase One defined quality education and identified the themes that highlighted the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities. Phase Two will revisit the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education and develop an understanding of whether PPP is a suitable delivery mechanism for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities, and also determine the critical success factors of PPP in education in South Africa.

5.3 Results of Phase Two

5.3.1 Introduction

Phase Two focused on developing an understanding of whether PPP is a suitable model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities and to determine the preconditions for the success of PPP in education in rural communities by interviewing Senior Managers of Section 21 companies that assist the NW DoE to improve the quality of education in the greater Rustenburg area, and Senior Managers of mining companies that operate in the North West province.

5.3.2 Description of Sample

This section will give a summary of the description of the sample that was used in the study with regards to characteristics that are significant to the study such as the Interviewees' positions to illustrate their knowledge on the topic (Table 5).

Table 5: Description of the Sample

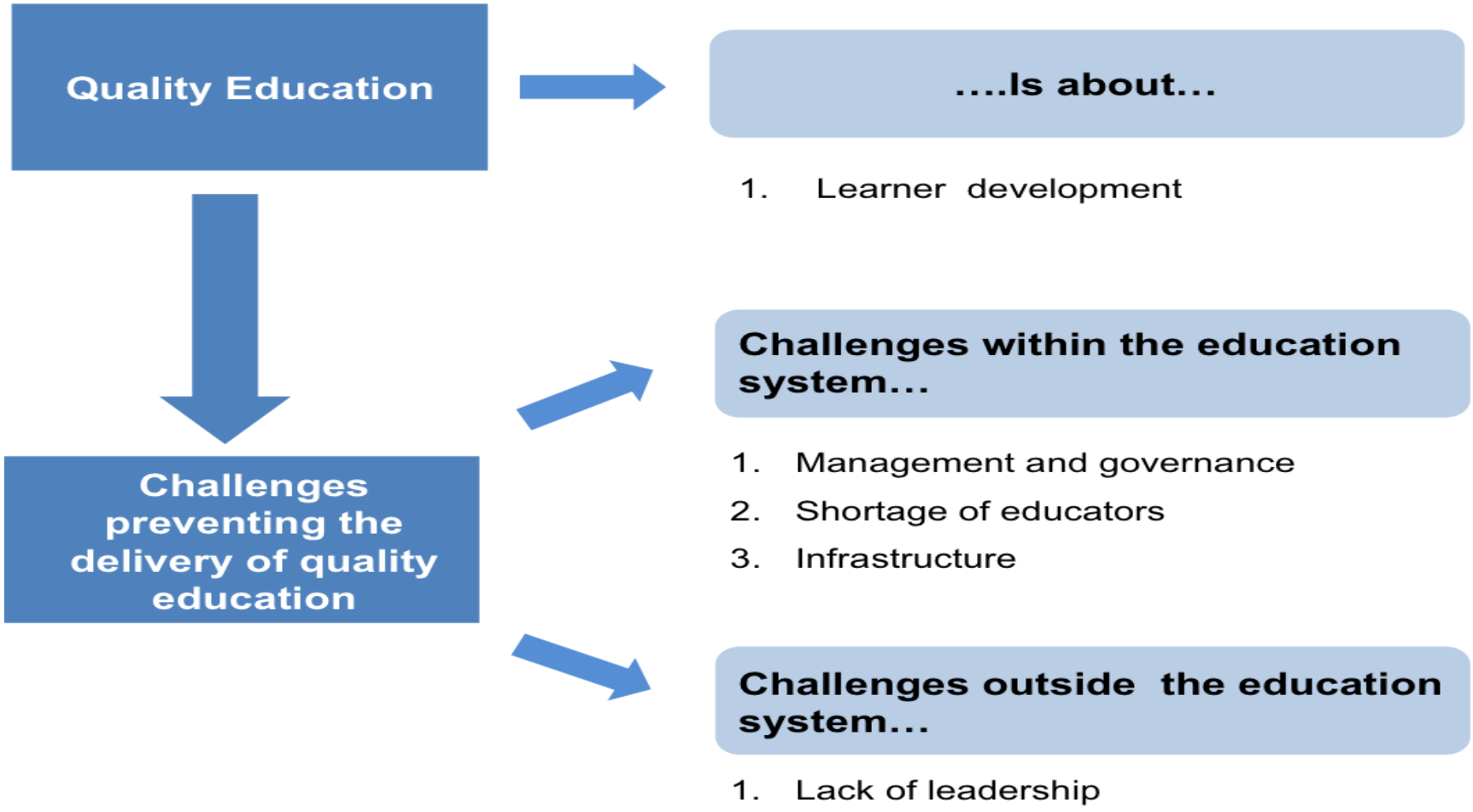
Number	Name	Company	Position
7	Ian McLachlan	Royal Bafokeng Institute	Chief Executive Officer
8	Gustaph Mompei	Royal Bafokeng Institute	Executive: Quality Assurance
9	Abey Kgotle	Lonmin	Executive: Human Capital and External Affairs
10	Mzila Mthenjane	Royal Bafokeng Platinum Mine	Executive: Business Sustainability
11	Keneiloe Mohafa	Anglo-American	Executive: Community Development
12	Mark Allen	LEAP Schools	Executive: Finance

A sample of six interviewees was identified for Phase Two of the research. Five of the interviews were conducted in-person in the interviewees' place of work, while one interview was conducted via Skype, since the interviewee is based in Cape Town and the researcher was unable to travel to Cape Town to conduct the interview. The semi-structured interviews lasted for approximately one and half hours.

5.3.3 Research Question 1: What are the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities?

To understand the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa, Interviewees were asked to define quality education and explain the challenges facing the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa. This was done to establish whether there was alignment of perspectives on the definition of quality education amongst the different stakeholder groups, and the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education between the Interviewees in phases one and two. Figure 11, below, exhibits the key themes that emerged from interviews during Phase Two when the Interviewees were responding to research question 1.

Figure 11: Summary of challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa according to executives of mining companies and Section 21 companies participating in PPP in education



5.3.3.1 Quality Education

Although the concept "quality education" was defined differently by the Interviewees to the two phases, most of the responses are aligned. Themes emerged from the interviewees' responses to form the construct of the definition of quality education as indicated by table 6, below. It is important to note that the Interviewees in Phase Two indicated learner development only as a key theme for the definition of quality education, while Interviewees in Phase One also indicated access to learning and quality of teaching in the classroom as themes to the definition of quality education. The following are quotations that contain constructs that are in alignment with those that make up the responses to the definition of quality education.

Table 6: Constructs for the Themes of quality education

Number	Construct	Number of Interviewees
1	**Learner development**	**6**

5.3.3.1.1 **Learner Development**

Learners must be developed holistically, and they must become employable to meet the needs of economic development of the country and to reduce poverty.

"Quality education is an education system that can interpret the needs of the South African economy and deliver the people with skills that can meet those needs. It must therefore produce the right quality and level of people that the country requires to achieve economic development and reduce poverty. This entails producing employable learners" (Interviewees Nine and Twelve).

"Quality education is also about the quality of learners that are produced by the education system and it comprises of different aspects of learning both in and outside the classroom" (Interviewee Eight).

"It is measured by number of things; the content of the subjects taught the quality of teaching and delivery, and the environment within which teaching takes place.

Therefore, learners must be able to apply their learning in the real world" (Interviewee Ten).

"Quality education is an education of a lifetime, an education that will ensure that a person will lead a quality life with very clear and well-grounded foundation. It's about developing a whole human being and must cultivate the right norms and behaviour" (Interviewee Eleven).

5.3.3.2 Challenges Preventing the Delivery of Quality Education in South African Rural Communities

Responses from the Interviewees indicated various challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural schools in South Africa. Themes were identified from the Interviewees' responses to form the constructs of the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities. Tables 7 and 8 below show the key themes for the constructs of internal and external challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities.

It was interesting for the researcher to observe that the Interviewees of Phase One ranked teacher development very high as one of the key challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural communities, while the Interviewees in this phase ranked management and governance of schools as a key challenge. Interviewees in Phase One included curriculum development and implementation, school functionality, and accountability as other challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities; however, these elements were not mentioned by the Interviewees in this phase.

5.3.3.2.1 Internal Challenges

Table 7: Themes for the construct of internal challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities

Number	Theme	Number of Interviewees
1	Management and governance	4
2	Shortage of educators	3
3	Infrastructure	2
4	School support	1

Management and governance, and shortage of educators were also ranked high by the Interviewees in this phase as key challenges within the education system that prevents the delivery of quality education in rural communities. Infrastructure and school support were ranked lower by the Interviewees. It was interesting for the researcher to notice that experts in education and executives of companies that support PPP in education were aligned on the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural areas. The following quotations express key themes that emerged as the internal challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural communities.

5.3.3.2.1.1 ***Management and Governance***

Numerous challenges regarding lack of management and governance in schools prevent the delivery of quality education in rural schools.

"There is no good supply of quality school managers (principals) to lead the schools and there's also a lack of educated and able parents to govern the schools by holding educators accountable to provide quality education" (Interviewee Nine).

"In our rural areas there's a high level of illiteracy and as such many parents who merely have passion but no knowledge of how to govern these schools and run School Governing Bodies in rural schools which leads to failure" (Interviewee Twelve).

"Illiteracy is very high is some rural areas. There might be passion and high willingness to participate in the governance of schools by parents but their knowledge base is very thin. Passion without knowledge can be tragic at times" (Interviewee Eleven).

"Mines pumps money into our schools but the lack of governance in those schools makes it difficult to improve them such that these schools are unable to run the way they were supposed to run and achieve the results that they are supposed to achieve" (Interviewee Ten).

5.3.3.2.1.2 ***Shortage of Educators***

The Interviewees believe that the shortage of teachers in rural areas poses a serious challenge to the improvement of education delivery standards in those communities.

"The shortage of educators who are qualified and have the right skills to teach learners is a key challenge in rural areas" (Interviewee Nine). "Teachers are reluctant to teach in rural areas. There's a brain drain of skilled educators in rural areas because younger generations want to access quality resources like good schools and hospitals etc., hence their need to move to urban areas" (Interviewee Eleven).

"Good students especially in Maths and Science don't want to be teachers, the private sector and the government is not doing enough to incentivise these learners to become teachers" (Interviewee Twelve).

5.3.3.2.1.3 ***Infrastructure***

Some Interviewees strongly argue that rural South Africa lacks the fundamentals for human development. Infrastructure gaps in rural communities, especially in schools, contribute to the poor standard of education.

"Schools don't have the basic infrastructure required to deliver quality education, for an example, learners are taught under trees and there's no sanitation in these schools" (Interviewee Ten).

"The lack of technology also hinders the development of learners in rural schools. Schools in rural areas are unable to produce learners who can cope with the technological requirements needed to develop a country" (Interviewee Eight).

5.3.3.2.1.4 ***School Support***

Rural schools are not receiving adequate support from the Department of Education, especially district offices.

"There's lack of passion and dedication by some of the education officials in some of these rural areas. For an example, we had completed a project in one of the rural area and wanted to hand it over to the community but even the head of that district didn't know the location of that school. There's a reluctance to go beyond the call of duty and apathy" (Interviewee Eleven).

5.3.3.2.2 External Challenges

Table 8: Themes for the construct of external challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities

Number	Theme	Number of Interviewees
1	Lack of leadership	4
2	Poverty	1

Lack of leadership was ranked high as a key challenge outside the education system that prevents the delivery of quality education in rural communities; however, Interviewees in Phase One indicated the lack of learner support as a key challenge. Even though poverty was also considered to be a challenge to the delivery of quality education, it was only mentioned by one Interviewee and surprisingly, other Interviewees didn't consider it to have a significant impact on the delivery of quality education.

5.3.3.2.2.1 ***Lack of Leadership***

Lack of clear directive from the political leadership in the community and the country was cited by the Interviewees as one of the factors that contribute to the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education.

"There's a lack of resolute and quality leadership in place which provides sound governance in schools and throughout the entire education system. There are no people who are able to take decisions and lead by making educators to do things that are right" (Interviewee Seven).

"South Africa might have good leaders but these leaders are not providing a clear political leadership when it comes to education and ever since 1994 South Africa hasn't managed to have good leaders in education" (Interviewee Twelve).

"Our education system in highly politicised. Simple things that are supposed to be left to management and administration of schools at district level reside in the political realm and its problematic" (Interviewee Eight).

"That is why more often than not situations that supposed to be attended to through simple mechanism of human resources management and administration are often solved at the political table which is not good for our education". (Interviewee Nine)

5.3.3.2.2.2 ***Poverty***

Challenges of poverty in rural communities which have a significant impact on the delivery of quality education in rural schools were indicated by the Interviewees.

"Issues like malnutrition amongst learners have a significant impact on quality learning because learners won't be able to learn when they are hungry and they will lack the necessary concentration that is required in class" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.4 Research Question 2: Is PPP an appropriate delivery mechanism for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities?

To determine the suitability of PPP in the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa, the concept of PPP was revisited and its constructs traced back to responses. The Interviewees were asked to explain whether they believe that PPP is an appropriate mechanism to improve the quality of education in South Africa; to explain whether the private sector is involved or interested in improving the quality of education in South Africa; and to list the benefits of implementing PPP in education in rural communities of South Africa. The following are quotations that contain themes that are in alignment with those that make up the responses to research question 2.

5.3.4.1 PPP as a Delivery Mechanism for Improving the Quality of Education in South African Rural Communities

Responses from the Interviewees indicated that PPP can help to improve the quality of education in South Africa if they were managed properly. Table 9, below, shows Interviewees' responses to whether they believed that PPP is an appropriate mechanism for improving the quality of education in South Africa.

Table 9: Responses of whether the Interviewees believed that PPP can improve the quality of education in South Africa

Can PPP improve the quality of education in South Africa?	Count
Yes	**6**
No	**0**

All the Interviewees believe that PPP can play an important role to improve the delivery of quality education in South Africa. The following are quotations from the Interviewees' responses:

"PPP are a solution to improving the quality of education in rural communities, however, there must be a full diagnostic of the problem at hand. This call for the private

sector, government, unions and communities to come together and jointly determine the vision and the approach to resolve the problems in education" (Interviewee Ten).

"The case for and the need of PPP in the South African education is growing, especially the need for pulling together resources and improve the standard and quality of education" (Interviewee Seven).

"Government, for an example, has a sizable budget to provide education in this country but there are issues with financial controls" (Interviewee Eleven).

"The private sector because of its expertise and capacity to provide assistance in areas such as financial management skills and the provision of resources can enable our children to learn in conditions that are conducive for the provision of quality education. For an example, we have kids in rural areas that have passed matric and don't know how to operate a computer, how do we expect those kids to compete with children coming from private schools who have used computers before they could learn how to write their names?" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.4.2 Private Sector Involvement in Education

The definition of "private sector" in this document is not only limited to private organisations for profit and not for profit but it includes communities in general. Mixed responses were obtained from the Interviewees regarding the involvement of the private sector in the delivery of quality education in rural schools. Table 10, below, indicates the Interviewee's perceptions about the involvement of the private sector in improving the quality of education in rural schools in South Africa. Their responses were categorised into two themes, positive and negative.

Table 10: Interviewees' perceptions about the involvement of the private sector to improve the quality of education in rural schools in South Africa

Perception about the private involvement in education	Count
Positive	**5**
Negative	**2**

5.3.4.2.1 Positive Perception about the Private Sector Involvement in Education

Majority of the Interviewees were positive about the involvement of the private sector to help improve the quality of education in rural school in South Africa.

"There is a sense of seriousness from the big companies, if you look at their CSI programmes, most companies do invest in education. Whether the private sector sees the return of their investment is another story" (Interviewee Eight).

"Many companies have set up different education trusts to assist these schools to tackle their problems but sadly in some provinces the funds don't reach the beneficiaries" (Interviewee Eleven).

"Parents and communities in rural areas do understand the significance of education for their children; they do understand that education might be the only way to liberate their children from poverty" (Interviewee Seven).

Passion for education is there from parents in rural areas, for an example, one mining company was offering ABET classes few kilometers from a particular village and those parents refused to spend their money to commute and attend those classes because they preferred to spend their money on educating their children" (Interviewee Thirteen).

5.3.4.2.2 Negative Perception about Private Sector Involvement

Some Interviewees indicated they perceived the involvement of the private sector in education negatively. Their perceptions were completely different from those who indicated the involvement of the private sector was positive.

"There's marginal involvement of the private sector in our education system especially in the rural areas" (Interviewee Twelve). "This is because the private sector focuses on the cost benefit analysis and want their involvement to be seen by many people so that they can enhance their brand" (Interviewee Ten). "For those reasons we have a meager participation of the private sector especially in the rural areas" (Interviewee Eight).

"Parents and communities in rural areas don't take charge of the education of their children. They are waiting to be involved by the schools or department of education because they believe that due to their lack of education they cannot play a meaningful role" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.4.3 The Benefits of PPP in Education

Table 11, below, provides a list of potential benefits of PPP in education in rural communities of South Africa, from the Interviewees' perspective.

Table 11: List of potential benefits of PPP in education in rural communities according to interviewees in Phase Two

Number	Benefits	Number of Interviewees
1	It will develop the human capital required to improve the quality of education	6
2	It will transfer skills to the education sector	6
3	It will attract a skilled workforce to the rural areas	5
4	It will benefit the community with resources that have been provided to the schools	5
5	It will provide financial support to learners so they can further their academic development	4
6	It will make the Rand go further by optimising existing processes and implementing strict financial controls	3
7	It will reduce unemployment as learners will be able to access employment opportunities due to better education that they would have received and other skills and development programmes provided by the private sector	2

5.3.5 Research Question 3: What are the critical success factors of PPP in education in South Africa?

To determine the critical success factors of PPP in education in rural communities of South Africa, the Interviewees were asked to explain the preconditions for the success of PPP in education in South Africa; to explain whether the South Africa conditions encourage the formation of PPP in education; and to highlight the negative factors that will discourage the private sector from participating in PPP in education. The following are quotations that contain themes that are in alignment with those that make up the responses to research question 3.

5.3.5 1 Critical Success Factors of PPP in Education in South Africa

Responses from the Interviewees indicated that various conditions must be in place for PPP in education in South Africa to succeed. Key conditions were identified from the Interviewees' responses to form the core constructs of the critical success factors for PPP in education in rural communities. Table 12, below, shows the CSFs for PPP in education in rural communities.

Table 12: CSFs for PPP in education in South African rural communities according to interviewees in Phase Two

Number	CSFs	Number of Interviewees
1	Common vision and guiding coalition	4
2	Right partners	4
3	Political will	4
4	Effective governance and leadership	4
5	Transparency and honesty	4
6	Community stability	2
7	Provision of Infrastructure	2
8	Thriving economy	1

5.3.5.1.1 Common Vision and Guiding Coalition

Interviewees expressed strongly that a common vision and willingness to cooperate from all parties concerned was essential; the parties must be unified in their quest to improve the quality of education through PPP.

"There must be a common goal from all parties concerned to significantly change the quality of education in our country and produce the required skills by the economy and thus curb the ever increasing challenges of unemployment" (Interviewee Nine).

"There must be a common definition of the needs of the society and long-term sustainable interventions by all stakeholders. This means moving away from the rhetoric and declarations of statements that the parties make to implement what needs to be done in the communities, broadly in terms of community development and more specifically in terms of education" (Interviewee Twelve).

"We need to eliminate the "us and them mentality" where the rural communities can see mines as organisation that can help to improve the quality of education in their schools and their standards of living" (Interviewee Ten).

"Mines can implement their Social Labour Plans but that cannot transform education in our country, we need to move from the mentality by the Department of Minerals and Energy (DME) where they simply instruct mines to produce schools (infrastructure) but to work together to improve quality education. This should not be a ticking exercise during mining audits but a collaboration process where education and other sectors are reviewed holistically to understand what need to be done" (Interviewee Eleven).

5.3.5.1.2 Right Partners

The Interviewees believe that the right partners are important in the development of PPP in education.

"*These partners must be willing and able to go the extra mile to improve the standard of schooling and positively impact on the communities around these schools. It's not*

only about educating the child in the school but it's also about educating the parent, guardian and community leaders so that the whole system (In and out of school factors) can be addressed" (Interviewee Ten).

"It means having both the private and public sector representatives walking the grounds together in these villages to understand the needs of the society and come up with integrated plans that will resolve the challenges faced by the education systems in rural areas. They need to walk the village and see what happening so that they don't look at each other in terms of compliance but in term of partners who can jointly resolve these issues" (Interviewee Nine).

"The private sector support must not always be seen as a contribution because of legislation (mandatory requirements) but private sector must be seen as an equal partner that also wants to help to improve the standard of living in this country" (Interviewee Twelve).

5.3.5.1.3 Political Will

Willingness to cooperate from all parties, especially the political leadership in the country, was also cited as a critical success factor for PPP in education by the Interviewees.

"There must be a political will to resolve the problem through Public-Private Partnerships" (Interviewee Ten). "The must be a political will within the communities to help deliver this education" (Interviewee Seven).

"There must be an acceptance by all parties that the success of these communities and the private sector (mines) depends on their ability to move away from pointing fingers at each other (blame mentality)" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.5.1.4 Effective Governance and Leadership

Effective governance and leadership in government, the private sector and communities are required to ensure the success of PPP in education.

"There must be good governance in schools and the government must be the main driver of the strategies for delivering quality education" (Interviewees Ten and Twelve).

"There must also be a leadership that is able to define the development agenda for the community, the leadership that is able and willing to engage the private sector (mines) to arrive at the final point where the development of education and communities are derived or outlined" (Interviewee Nine and Eleven).

5.3.5.1.5 Transparency and Honesty

The private and public sectors, including communities, must be honest and transparent in their engagements.

"There must be an environment that is open and honest, and encouraging and nurturing to do initiatives" (Interviewees Eleven and Twelve).

"The DoE must remain open to accepting that they are experiencing capacity shortages to improving the standard of education in this country. They must also remain open to the investments that the private sector is prepared to make" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.5.1.6 Community Stability

Community stability was also highlighted as a key factor in the successful development of PPP.

"There must be stability in the communities and these communities must continue to run well so that mining companies can make money in order to continue to contribute to the development of education" (Interviewee Eight).
"There must be communities that are able to operate on their own and their need for self-sustenance with limited dependence on the government or mines for their survival (self-sustainable communities)" (Interviewee Ten).

"The communities must be interested in the education of their kids, they must also be interested in charting their way out of the current levels of poverty and their need for better development without heavily reliant on handouts" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.5.1.7 Provision of Infrastructure

There must be sufficient and adequate infrastructure in schools to facilitate the development of quality education in rural communities.

"There must be a continued investment in the basic services and the infrastructure required for these communities to function properly" (Interviewee Nine).

"The basic needs of the communities must be met such as sanitation, roads or infrastructure" (Interviewee Twelve).

"There must be an appropriate technology to help facilitate education delivery; newer technologies must be used to provide quality education" (Interviewee Eleven).

"The provisions of infrastructure in the communities (roads, transportation, electricity, sanitation) are supportive conditions for the provision of quality education" (Interviewee Ten).

5.3.5.1.8 Thriving Economy

There must be a thriving economy for the private sector to generate revenue in order to contribute to the improvement of education in South Africa.

"There are other factors external to education such as thriving economy so that business can continue to generate profits (financial resources) in order to contribute to the development of education" (Interviewee Ten).

5.3.5.2 The Conduciveness of the South African Conditions to the Formation of PPP in Education and Factors that Discourages Private Sector Participation in Education PPP

Although legislation in South Africa allows and regulates the formation of PPPs, the responses from the Interviewees indicate that conditions in South Africa were not conducive for the formation of PPP in education. Table 13, below, indicates the Interviewees' views on the conduciveness of the South African environment to the formation of PPP in education.

Table 13: Interviewees' views about the conduciveness of the South African environment to the formation of PPP

Is the South African environment conducive for the formation of PPP in education	Count
Yes	0
No	7

5.3.5.2.1 Factors Discouraging the Formation of PPP in Education in South Africa

When the researcher probed the Interviewees further to understand the reasons why they believed that the South African environment was not conducive for the formation of PPP in education, several factors emerged. Table 14, below, highlights the factors that discourages the formation of PPP in education in South Africa.

Table 14: Factors discouraging the formation of PPP in education in South Africa

Number	Factor	Number of Interviewees
1	Political interference	6
2	Government bureaucracy	4
3	Government capacity to provide service delivery	4
4	Corruption and theft	4
5	Wrong partners	2

5.3.5.2.1.1 ***Political Interference***

The Interviewees believe that political interference is a barrier to PPP which discourages private sector involvement.

"Those who are politically connected seems to participate without interference and the less politically connected ones struggles to make headway and are reluctant to participate because they don't want to politicise their involvement in education" (Interviewee Twelve)

"There are traditional leaders who want to dictate which villages must be developed and which that cannot be developed because of the internal politics within these communities. Therefore traditional leadership and the divisions that occur in those villages sometimes impact negatively on the development of PPP especially in the provision of resources that are critical such as the building of schools" (Interviewee Eleven).

"Unions are also an institutional blockage to the development of educators in this country because they are so powerful in such a way that they choose the type of private support they want and from whom. At time their decisions are not based on what is good for the educators but based on the politics of how they are going to benefit from such partnerships" (Interviewee Eight).

5.3.5.2.1.2 ***Government Bureaucracy***

Government bureaucracy is indicated by the Interviewees as a barrier to the formation of PPP which may discourage the private sector to participate in education PPP.

"The legislation around PPP in education which if not properly developed may become the bureaucracy that limits the formation of PPP and delay the implementation of projects and decision-making" (Interviewee Ten).

"The distribution of power amongst PPP members may also discourage the involvement of the private sector in education PPP" (Interviewee Eight). "The manner

in which power is distributed can have an impact on stakeholder relations and thus discourage them to participate in PPPs" (Interviewee Seven).

"When government is not willing to provide funding to run the schools that are built by the private sector such teacher salaries and day to day running costs of the schools will also discourages the private sector to participate in PPP" (Interviewee Nine).

5.3.5.2.1.3 ***Government Capacity to Provide Service Delivery***

Lack of capacity to provide service delivery by the DoE can also discourage the establishment of PPP in education. Below are quotations from the Interviewees:

"The capacity of the government, DoE in particular, to be able to handle the problems of education can also discourage the private sector involvement in PPP because the government have a veto right in terms of what happens and what doesn't happen in schools" (Interviewee Ten).

"Poor quality of work and lack of service delivery deters private sector participation in education PPP. Some developers under government contracts provide substandard of work when building some of these infrastructures. This is an emerging trend that is unfortunate and it is disappointing" (Interviewee Eleven).

"The government's ability to pay could be barrier and can delay service delivery" (Interviewee Seven). "Potential credit risks resulting from delays in payment may deter other stakeholders from fully participating in PPP initiatives" (Interviewee Eight).

5.3.5.2.1.4 ***Corruption and Theft***

Corruption by government officials and theft in schools can have a significant impact on whether the private sector is willing to participate in PPP.

"The private sector might inject money into education but for some reasons the funds are not reaching the beneficiaries" (Interviewee Twelve).

"The private sector find themselves spending extra effort micromanaging either government or communities when it comes to the efficient utilisation of resources which have been donated by them because some resources are diverted and go to places where there are not meant to go" (Interviewee Eleven).

"Companies donate computes to schools and the very same community which they are trying to uplift steals them" (Interviewee Eleven).

5.3.5.2.1.5 ***Wrong Partners***

Collaborating with the wrong partners can be damaging to the success of PPPs and might discourage private sector involvement in education.

"Partners who don't have the capacity and knowledge to participate fruitfully will hinder the development of PPP; it's not about writing a cheque but going an extra mile" (Interviewee Ten).

5.3.5 Conclusion

Phase Two revisited the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in rural communities of South Africa and also developed an understanding of whether PPP is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South Africa. Benefits of PPP as well as the critical success factors for establishing PPP emerged from this phase. The results of this chapter will be discussed in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the responses to the research questions stated in Chapter Three. The study conducted a two-phase approach: the first phase developed an understanding of the challenges preventing the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities. Phase Two discussed the suitability of PPP to improve the quality of education in rural communities and the critical success factors for implementing PPP in education in South Africa.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings from Chapter Five in line with the literature (Chapter Two) and the research questions that were stated in Chapter Three. This chapter will also confirm the existence or otherwise of links between the findings of this study and the literature. Research question one will be discussed in section 6.2, research question two will be addressed in section 6.3, and research question three will be discussed in section 6.4. Finally, a framework summarising the model of PPP for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities will be proposed in section 6.5.

6.2 Challenges that Prevent the Delivery of Quality Education in South African Rural Communities

To understand the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in South African rural communitie s, the Interviewees were asked to define quality education before they elaborated on their thoughts about the challenges that prevented the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities. Authors such as Hallinger (2010) and Fullan (2007) found that the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality educational outcomes are characterised by the absence of leadership, lack of resources, lack of knowledge and skills, lack of institutional support and staff resistance. The researcher discovered that it was easier for the Interviewees to discuss the challenges preventing the South African education system to deliver high-quality education once they had a clear definition of quality education. The following sections will define quality education according to the Interviewees' perspectives, highlight the

challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education and summarise the key insights that emerged from the interviews.

6.2.1 Definition of Quality Education

On analysis of the responses from the Interviewees' data collected during the research, it became clear that quality education was about the quality of teaching in the classroom, the learner's ability to gain access to schooling, and the complete development of that learner. One of the Interviewees, Interviewee Three, gave a comprehensive interpretation of the definition of quality education by stating that "it is a type of education that must be provided to all children in South Africa that will ensure that these children are completely developed physically, mentally and emotionally to be good citizens of this country. The end result is the development of a person as a whole".

Quality education is furthermore about the quality of learners that are developed through the education system. It is also about providing the enabling conditions for the exercise of the freedoms that come with enhanced capabilities (HSRC & EPC, 2005). It does not limit learning to only what is taught in the classroom but takes the whole world as a learning centre. Quality education should enable an interaction between what happens in the classroom and the world, and that interaction can come through practical activities where learners are given exposure of how the world operates. Quality education must be aligned to what learners are being educated for, and it must result in employability and poverty reduction.

Therefore, quality education should develop virtuous citizens that are conscious about themselves and the environment in which they live; they must be critical thinkers and must become employable. Quality education can only take place when quality teaching and learning happens in the classroom; when resources are available in schools for learners to learn effectively; and when educators, government, parents and communities accept accountability to ensure that quality learning takes place in schools. Below are some of the conditions that need be in place for quality education to occur, from the Interviewees' perspective:

- Firstly, an enabling environment within which to deliver quality education in South Africa should be established; if the environment is not conducive, quality learning will not take place and delivery of quality education will not be achieved. By "conducive environment" the Interviewees mean adequate resources should be available to and accessible by schools to facilitate quality learning. These findings were confirmed by Farah and Rizvi (2007) when they emphasised a need for more resources to improve the quality of teaching and curriculum and the quality of education in general. Therefore, the government, the education system and the community should express political will clearly and unambiguously to ensure that schools function properly with adequate resources; and communities should be passionate and serious about the future of their children.

- Secondly, resolute and quality leadership should be in place to provide sound governance of schools and the entire education system. Good governance structures at school level and within the education department, as well as excellent management structures both at schools and all governmental/departmental levels are required to ensure that quality education is achieved. Officials within these structures should be able to take decisions and lead by doing the right things the right way.

- Thirdly, qualified and committed human resources in the various sectors of the education system should facilitate the process of delivering quality education. This does not only refer to educators but also to individuals working in the support sectors of education such as human resources, infrastructure and supply chain management.

- Lastly, communities of practice should be established where schools are able to partner with each other to discuss solutions to their challenges and sharing of ideas on how to resolve some of these challenges. These communities of practice must create centers of excellence and provide teachers with a platform to network with other teachers.

6.2.2 Challenges that Prevent the Delivery of Quality Education in South African Rural Communities

Once the Interviewees defined their individual interpretations of what quality education is and identified the conditions that should be in place to achieve quality education, several factors emerged from the study that were identified as challenges contributing to the non-achievement of quality education and other undesirable educational outcomes in South African rural communities (highlighted in figures 10 and 11, Chapter Five). Scholars such as Fiske and Ladd (2004) believe that these factors extend well beyond the control of schools. Most of these challenges are posed by the South Africa education system itself, while rural communities within which these schools are operating impose others.

Interviewees' views about the identified challenges and those that were found in the literature clearly aligned. A number of challenges such as lack of teacher development; poor school governance; inadequate learner support; weak community leadership; and shortage of resources emerged as some of the factors that prohibited the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities. The findings of the study are aligned to the findings by Farah and Rizvi (2007) that lack of adequate space, lack of teacher training facilities, the unavailability of qualified teachers and the learner's inability to understand any language other than their mother tongue contributed to low achievement of quality education. These factors will be discussed in detail below.

6.2.2.1 Teacher Development and Support

Teaching in secluded rural areas evokes countless images of barriers, hardship and despair. From the literature consulted, it is clear that teachers in rural schools are often scripted as under- and/or unqualified (Ebersöhn & Ferreira, 2012). Teacher development and support is thus a major challenge in the delivery of quality education in rural areas. "There are not enough qualified teachers in the education system and this leads to the delays in improving the quality of teaching because teachers needs to be long enough in the system to impact change on learners. So we might see the impact of the newly qualified teachers in 15 to 20 years due to the lag in teacher development *(sic)*" Interviewee One added.

Surprisingly, some Interviewees believe that the intentions of the South African government to provide good education cannot be questioned, as well as its effort to improve the development of teachers who were previously disadvantaged. However, other Interviewees argued that teacher development in South Africa, especially in rural areas, appears not to be making the difference to learner achievement, and that government should be attempting to address the root cause of such failures. Duke (2004) concurs with the latter by arguing that for change to take place, readiness is required on the part of the educators in the system; otherwise, change will not be achieved effectively. Therefore, the DoE must continuously develop educators to improve the quality of teaching in rural South African schools.

6.2.2.2 School Governance and Leadership

Although the South African Schools Act of 1996 makes provision for SGBs to intervene in the curriculum and management of schools, many parents and community leaders in rural areas lack the ability to access the levels of understanding how school governance functions. High levels of illiteracy in rural communities impact on the parents' and community leaders' abilities to effectively participate in the governance of schools. Mukundan and Bray (2004) also found that, low capacity of communities to take on academic management responsibilities contributed to the non-achievement of quality education. Interviewee Nine supported this view by arguing that "the lack of educated and able parents and community leaders to govern the schools by holding educators accountable to provide quality teaching in schools poses a serious challenge that prevents the delivery of quality education in rural communities".

The current participation of parents in the governing of schools can be described as ceremonial. Most parents do not feel able to fully engage with teachers about the education of their children, nor do they have the resources to participate in SGB functions or to hold the SGB accountable. These findings were also confirmed by the research findings of the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) and Education Policy Consortium (EPC) that parent's involvement seems to be largely limited to control over school furniture and repairs and assisting with feeding schemes (HSRC & EPC, 2005).

The lack of qualified and effective Principals to manage the schools also poses a serious concern for the delivery of quality education in schools. Interviewee Nine

believes that "there's no adequate supply of quality school principals to lead the schools in rural areas". Most rural schools don't have succession plans in place to ensure that the development and progression of educators to school managers is properly managed. "Educators normally teach for few years and promoted to Head of Departments and immediately move school manager's role without the sufficient management experience required to lead the schools" said Interviewee Three.

6.2.2.3 Learner Support

The biggest challenge with the current education system is based on the assumption that learners are supported to learn within functional family structures. However, the Interviewees believe that learners are not receiving adequate support from their families; some rural households are headed by children or grandparents because of the results of diseases like HIV/AIDS, and/or parents leave the children with grandparents who are mostly illiterate, as they are forced to move to cities for employment due to lack of employment opportunities in rural areas.

Although families in rural areas also have high aspirations for the education of the children (HSRC & EPC, 2005), lack of financial, educational and social support which includes good parenting and role modelling, prevents learners from achieving good performance in schools. These children have many chores they have to do after school which consumes most of their learning time at home. Interviewee Eight went as far as to suggest that, "these challenges are a barrier to children for them to even progress from primary schooling to secondary schooling".

Interviewee Nine further argued that "there are also challenges of poverty in communities that have a significant impact on learners' abilities to learn". Poor nutrition has a definite impact on learner performance at schools. Many learners go to school without breakfast or anything to eat for the whole day, and some of the teachers have difficulties realising that children who seem out of sorts are simply hungry. Without proper nutrition, learners will not be able to concentrate in class.

The results of starvation are visible in the classroom as skin diseases and illnesses that result in hemorrhage. "Teachers find themselves having to be in constant readiness for occasions when some children collapse in the classroom because of hunger *(sic)*" (HSRC and EPC, 2005, p. 55). School feeding schemes in this context

serve as major incentives for learners to come to school. Interviewee six agreed with these sentiments by stating, “That because of poverty, schools are places of comfort and not learning. Learners are able to move from one school to the other because those are providing meals. Therefore learners go to schools where they can eat first not where they can learn first”.

6.2.2.4 Shortage of Educators

Lack of qualified, skilled and experienced educators to teach in rural schools poses a challenge to the improvement of quality education in these schools. “The challenge is to get specialist teachers especially in Mathematics and Science to teach in these rural areas where there are no sufficient facilities to teach and where they themselves as professional don’t want to be. Getting the right professionals to teach in rural schools is a challenge because the government doesn’t incentivise them enough to teach in those areas,” said Interviewee Two.

Interviewee Three added to Interviewee Two’s remark by stating that “good students don’t want to be teachers, the private sector and the government are not doing enough to incentivise these learners to become educators;” the younger generation of educators wants to move to urban areas to access quality resources like schools, hospitals and better service.

6.2.2.5 Shortage of Resources

The Interviewees believe that rural South Africa lacks the fundamentals for human development and that rural schools do not have the basic infrastructure to deliver quality education. Lack of teaching aids, poor infrastructure, and lack of co-operation and shortages of teachers are cited by the Interviewees as being major obstacles. Chisholm (2004) argues that school facilities and resources have an impact on what is possible in poor and especially rural schools. Ebersöhn and Ferreira (2012, p.30) pointed out that “we have come to expect rural schools to have derelict buildings, not enough classrooms, broken windows, limited access to water, electricity and sanitation, and restricted access to resources such as libraries and books, information technology and specialised science laboratory equipments”.

Lack of teaching aids is an issue that arises consistently in this study. Textbooks, for an example, are essential teaching aids and extremely important sources of learning, which needs to be accessible. “The recent Limpopo textbook issues where textbooks were not delivered to schools nine months after the schools reopened show us that the South African government is not willing to support learners in rural areas,” argued Interviewee Seven.

6.2.2.6 Curriculum Implementation

Although Curriculum 2005 was introduced to provide common curricula and to remove bias, discrimination and achieve social justice between Black and White schools, many challenges of implementing this curriculum still exist in rural schools. A number of authors confirms this finding although they gave some context such as Jansen and Taylor (2003) when they stated that these challenges include the highly inaccessible and complex language; the under-preparation of teachers for this complex curriculum; large-scale discrepancies in resources and capacity between the privileged schools and the large mass of disadvantaged schools with respect to implementation. Interviewee Six argued “that the DoE does not adequately support teachers when the curriculum is changed. When the DoE changed curriculum in 1997 to curriculum 2005, teachers were not adequately trained to teach the new curriculum”.

The process of curriculum development in South Africa is a top-down process, with little or no communication taking place between the policy makers and the teachers within the system and with no regard for implementation. Many policies fail at the level of implementation because there is little participation from local manager, teachers and head teachers in the policy and programme development (Ali, 2006). Schools have simply been expected to understand and implement these curriculum changes as desired by the DoE. What comes to the fore here is the gap that exists between the policy expectations and what is really being achieved at the grass roots level within the schools in South Africa. The Interviewees believe that schools and teachers have adjusted their teaching methods to be in line with curriculum changes; yet, weak achievement of results by learners, especially in rural areas, seem prevalent.

Learners, for example, in early grades are expected to learn for key subjects in a language that is not their mother tongue which has an impact on their level of cognitive development. Interviewee Three concurred with this view by stating that “the language

of learning is a major challenge in the South African education system, our learners are expected to learn in a language that is not their mother tongue and our teachers are also expected to teach in a language that is not their mother tongue. Especially young children need to first become fluent in their mother tongue before they will grasp concepts and abstract skills like problem-solving and critical thinking.The scenarios are that learners come to high school and they still cannot read, write and understand English and yet they are expected to articulate, memorise, formulate reason in that language".

6.2.3 Summary

Quality education is an education system that delivers quality outcomes and can address the needs of South Africa and deliver individuals with skills that meet the needs. It should encourage learners to be intellectual explorers and become good citizens of this country. It must therefore develop quality individuals the country requires to achieve economic development that would reduce poverty.

Challenges of teacher development; school governance and leadership; shortage of teachers and resources; and learner support and curriculum implementation emerged as challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in rural communities.

A number of conducive conditions need to be in place to achieve quality education such as an environment that enables the standard of education to improve; effective governance and quality leadership to ensure that schools are functioning properly; able and committed human resources to facilitate the delivery of quality learning in school; and the necessary resources.

This section defined quality education from the Interviewees' perspectives and identified the challenges that prevented the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities. The next section will determine the suitability of PPPs as a delivery mechanism to improve on this quality.

6.3 Public-Private Partnership can be used as a Delivery Mechanism to Improve the Quality of Education in South African Rural Communities

It has emerged from the study that PPP can be a suitable delivery mechanism to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities if implemented properly. As defined by Hodge and Greve (2005) in Chapter Two, PPP involves institutional cooperation between public and private sectors designed to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of public service delivery. In this case, the DoE, private organisations for profit and non-profit, and communities can cooperate and work together to improve the quality of education in rural schools. Farah and Rizvi (2007) argued that the engagement of the community and the private sector help bring children to school and often generate additional resources for the school.

The Interviewees agreed that a growing case for and need of PPP in the South African education system to improve the standard and quality of education especially in rural communities, as PPP, according to Akintoye et al (2003b) offers a long-term, sustainable approach to improving social infrastructure, enhancing the value of public assets and making better use of taxpayers' money. The involvement of more than one actor in education increases the potential to bring together resources available within the government, the local society and larger civil society (Farah & Rizvi, 2007).

The partnership between the DoE, private organisations and communities should be accepted as an alternative to traditional state provision of education. Arguably, this joint approach allows public and private sectors to blend their special skills and achieve an outcome, which neither party could achieve alone (Akintoye et al., 2003a). Interviewee Nine agreed with these views and added that "the private sector because of its expertise and capacity to provide assistance in areas such as management skills, financial controls and the provision of resources can enable our children to learn in conditions that are conducive for the provision of quality education."

Although the study has revealed that PPP is an important mechanism to improve the quality of education in South Africa, the biggest challenge is to understand how PPP should be initiated, implemented and managed. Interviewee Twelve argued that for "PPP to work properly in education it must be structured and formalised". Interviewee Ten expanded by stating that "the biggest challenge currently facing the South African

education system is that the private sector involvement in education is too individualistic and voluntary and it is difficult to measure its success".

Therefore, public and private partners in education must work very closely with communities and schools to ensure that the right issues are identified and addressed. "PPP can work as long as these organisations consult with the schools and communities to find out what are the challenges faced by the schools and communities," explained Interviewee Three. It is generally believed that most organisations provide support to schools without consultation of the DoE and communities.

The following sections will explore whether private organisations for profit and non-profit are currently involved in education projects and to determine whether any partnerships between the DoE, private sector and communities currently exist. These sections will also explore the benefits of such relationships or partnerships.

6.3.1 Private Sector Involvement in Education

This researcher needed to understand during the study whether the Interviewees believe that the private sector was sufficiently participating in the provision of education in rural communities. This would aid to provide insight into the types of relationships or partnerships that currently exist or existed in education in the past. Majority of the Interviewees believe that the private sector was involved in the delivery of education in South Africa; however, their involvement was not in a form of formalised partnerships. Interviewee Six stated that "there's a sense of seriousness from the big companies to invest in education through their corporate social investments", and Interviewee Three agreed with Interviewee Six by adding that "there are many NGOs that support various educational initiatives in this country and schools also receive extensive support from churches."

However, dissimilar views were expressed by some Interviewees with regards to the private sector involvement in education. Some of the Interviewees argued that the private sector is marginally involved in supporting the education system, especially in the rural areas. "This is because the private sector focuses on the cost benefit analysis of their involvement and want their contributions to be seen by many people so that it can enhance their brand," claimed Interviewee ten.

From the discussion above, it is evident that the private sector does play a role in supporting education in South Africa; however, their participation is marginal and it has not been formalised in the form of structured partnerships or relationships. Therefore, it is difficult to measure the involvement of the private sector in education, especially in rural areas.

6.3.2 Benefits of PPP in Education in Rural Communities

The Interviewees highlighted that the main benefit that could be obtained from properly structured partnerships between public and private sectors and communities is the synergy that could be achieved from the pooling of resources. According to HM Treasury (1997) PPPs can generally provide a wide variety of net benefits for a government. This benefit includes both financial and management expertise, human development and skills transfers, financial benefits and the high quality of services delivered through PPP. Unlocking these resources would ultimately enhance South Africa's ability to deliver high quality education in rural communities. The following are the benefits of PPP raised by Interviewees as illustrated in Table 11 in Chapter Five.

6.3.2.1 Human Capital Development and Skills Transfer

PPP will develop the human capital required to improve the quality of education in rural communities. Human capital such as SGBs and school managers can benefit from the private sector by learning how to effectively manage their schools better and this was confirmed by Akintoye et al. (2003a) who believes that the public sector can gain new skills, technology and knowledge as a result of undertaking PPP projects. PPP can also assist with the continuous professional development of educators to ensure that the standard and quality of teaching and learning is continually improved. The private sector can also help to eradicate illiteracy within communities by providing Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) classes and other kinds of training to parents and community members which will, in turn, enable these parents to participate effectively in the governance of their schools.

6.3.2.2 Attraction of Skilled Workforce

PPPs have the ability to attract high quality people and the unique ability to change radically the existing workforce (Davies & Hentschke, 2006). Schools in rural areas will be able to recruit and retain qualified and skilled educators especially in key subjects such as Mathematics and Science with the financial backing of the private sector. “Additional personnel can also be recruited to help with running extra curricula in schools and also with home based care for learners by helping them with homework, etc.” as explained by Interviewee Four.

6.3.2.3 Provision of Resources and Infrastructure

The private sector has the financial backing to provide the necessary infrastructure required to deliver quality education. Infrastructure such as school buildings, functional libraries and laboratories, sports fields and roads can be provided by mining companies and other large organisations in South Africa. Interviewee Eight stated that “the private sector can also donate their time to schools to assist SGBs in key functions such as human resources management, financial management and project management.”

6.3.2.4 Financial Support to Learners

The private sector can provide financial support to learners for further academic development. Financial assistance such as scholarships and bursaries could be awarded to learners who require and deserve financial support. The private sector also has the capacity to provide financial assistance on other key programmes offered by schools such as school feeding schemes which will help to alleviate the issues of malnutrition in schools.

The private sector can similarly procure transportation services for learners who live far from schools; “the private sector has the ability or financial muscle to acquire psychological services for learners where educational psychologists can provide assistance in supporting learners who struggle to learn and help children with emotional and behavioural problems such as bullying and conflict resolutions” Interviewee Eleven explained.

6.3.2.5 Maximisation of Value

PPP will maximise the value achieved in education by making the Rand go further through optimising existing processes and implementing strict financial controls. This finding was also confirmed in literature by scholars such as Akintoye et al. (2003a) who explained that a PPP approach offers the potential benefit of reducing costs or delivering higher quality for the same cost. Interviewees highlighted that the rigour and due diligence involved in PPP provided value for money. This benefit has been demonstrated in several studies (Akintoye et al., 2003b;; Diekmann & Girard, 1995; Zhang, 2005).

6.3.3 Summary

Given the above discussion, PPP has the potential to help resolve the challenges faced by the South African education system; however, a full diagnostic of the problem at hand should be conducted. Increased private involvement in education, through PPPs, may increase the expertise and capacity of the education sector (Patrinos et al., 2009). This calls for business, government, unions, NGOs and communities to come together and jointly determine the vision and the approach to resolve the problems and will require effective stakeholder engagement and mobilisation.

6.4 Critical Success Factors of PPP in Education in South African Rural Communities

A number of departure points will frame the discussion of the results in this section. The first is that it is critical to understand the preconditions (critical success factors) that need be in place for PPP in education in rural communities of South Africa to succeed. The second point of departure is to understand whether the South African conditions are conducive to the formation of PPP in education. The third and last point of departure is to understand the factors that will discourage private sector participation in education PPP in rural communities.

6.4.1 The Preconditions for the Success of PPP in Education

As identified by the consulted and referenced literature, the suitability, extent and success of the use of PPP depends on, amongst other factors, the environment, the economic strength and prevalent political environment of a particular country. Critical success factors will need to be in place to ensure that the stakeholders realise their objectives (Dulaimi et al., 2010). The identification of the critical success factors will enable efficient allocation of limited resources (Zhang, 2005). The adoption of PPP also requires an enabling institutional environment. Therefore, key conditions emerged from the Interviewees' responses that constitute critical success factors for PPP in education in rural communities as highlighted in table 12. The following conditions (discussed below) were highlighted as key to the successful delivery of education PPP projects in rural communities.

6.4.1.1 Common Vision and Guiding Coalition

All parties concerned need to share a common vision and willingness to cooperate; the parties must be unified in their quest to improve the quality of education through PPP in rural communities. PPP's success can be better assured if participants work together as a team with established common objectives and defined procedures for collaborative problem solving (Larson, 1995). Stating and sharing a vision plays a key role in producing the desired useful change by helping to direct, align and inspire actions on the part of a large number of people (Kotter, 1996). The Interviewees argued that all parties concerned should share a common goal and coalition to significantly change the quality of education in our country and produce the skills required by the economy and thus curb the ever-increasing challenges of unemployment.

Therefore, major change in education in rural areas is impossible unless the heads of the DoE, private sector organisations for profit and non-profit, and communities are active supporters of that change, and they are committed to collaborate as a team to achieve improved performance. Without a common vision shared by all stakeholders, PPPs in education, especially in rural communities, can easily dissolve into a list of confusing, incompatible and time consuming projects that go in the wrong direction or nowhere at all.

6.4.1.2 Right Partners

The right partners are key in the development of PPP in education. While the government is in a better position to create a favourable environment for private sector participation in PPP development in general, private sector participants play a paramount role in the successful implementation of particular PPP projects (Zhang, 2005). PPP projects in education will fail if the right partners who can improve the standard and quality of education are not involved; therefore, the Interviewees believe that the partners should be willing and able to go an extra mile to improve the standard of education and positively impact on the communities surrounding the schools in rural areas.

6.4.1.3 Political Will

According to Li et al (2005), politics has a close relationship with the development and implementation of public policies. A positive political attitude towards private sector involvement in PPP projects would support the growth of those partnerships. On the other hand, inadequate political support would pose a great risk to PPP projects (Li et al, 2005). “There must be a political will from the government to resolve education problems through PPP and there must also be a political will within the communities to help deliver quality education” explained Interviewees ten and thirteen respectively. Walker and Smith (1995) confirms this by arguing that a workable political, legal and regulatory framework should be established to enable the formation of effective contractual vehicles for PPP that are compatible with a country’s political and legal system.

6.4.1.4 Effective Governance and Leadership

Effective governance and leadership in government, the private sector and communities are required to ensure the success of PPP in education. Good governance and leadership are imperative for the success of PPP in terms of developing sound policies in administrating PPP projects (Li et al, 2005). Badshah (as cited in Li et al., 2005, p.456) emphasised that “good governance and leadership is

essential to attract private sector participation in public service delivery". Interviewees ten and twelve agree with these sentiments by further stating that "there must be good governance in schools and in the government to drive the strategies for delivering quality education". "There must also be a leadership that is able to define the development agenda for the community, the leadership that is able and willing to engage the private sector and the government to arrive at the final point where the development of education and the communities are derived or outlined" argued Interviewees nine and eleven.

6.4.1.5 Transparency and Honesty

The private and the public sectors, including communities, must be honest and transparent in their engagements. PPP engagements should be transparent to avoid criticism of partner selection or political favouritism (Zhang, 2005). In this case, transparency in PPP projects in education lies with the DoE, schools, the private sector and communities. Li et al (2005) further suggests that three features are important for transparency: (i) good communication between the public and the private sector including their advisor which is the communities in this case, (ii) the private sector openly consulting with the public sector and its adviser, and (iii) the public and private sectors establishing a clear basis for making decisions.

6.4.2 The South African Environment is not Conducive for the Establishment of Formal PPP Structures in Education

All Interviewees, as indicated in table 13 in Chapter Five, believe that the South African environment is not conducive to the formation of PPP structures in education although a legislation that allows for the formation of PPPs in South Africa exists. It is important for all key stakeholders to understand that a conducive and an enabling environment is a fundamental issue in establishing PPP. Li et al. (2005) agrees with the findings and notes that an enabling regulatory, legal and political environment is the cornerstone of sustainable private sector participation in public service delivery. The government as discussed by Zhang (2005) is in a better position than any party in creating such environments, which largely eliminates fears of the private sector. Chan et al. (2010) also suggested that public acceptance of the concept of private provision of public

services is important. Issues involved in the CSF of PPP projects need to be addressed at an early stage of project development (Chan et al., 2010).

Several factors emerged from the study as reasons why the Interviewees believe that the South African conditions are not conducive for the formation of PPP, as they were highlighted in table 14 in Chapter Five. These factors will also discourage private participation in education PPPs. Below are some of the key factors that discourage the formation of PPPs in education in South Africa.

6.4.2.1 Political Interference

The Interviewees believe that political interference serves as a barrier to the formation of PPP in South Africa and discourages private sector involvement in PPP in education. Scholars such as El-Gohary, Osman and El-Diraby (2006); Grimsey and Lewis (2004); and Zhang (2005) agree with the Interviewees by arguing that political interference by the public and stakeholders is one of the reasons why PPP fails. Interviewee Twelve also argued that “the interference of politics in the participation of the private sector in education is a serious challenge and harms the education of our children.”

“There are traditional leaders who want to dictate which villages must be developed and which ones that cannot be developed because of internal politics within these communities. Leadership divisions that occur in those villages sometimes impacts negatively on the development of PPP especially in the provision of resources that are critical such as the building of schools” Interviewee Eleven expanded. Therefore, interference from politicians, community leaders and unions is an institutional blockage to the development of partnerships in education and prevents the delivery of quality education in schools in South Africa.

6.4.2.2 Government Bureaucracy

Government bureaucracy also discourages private sector participation in the development and improvement of education in South Africa. “The legislation around PPP in education which if not properly developed may become the bureaucracy that limits the formation of PPP and delay the implementation of projects and decision-making” argued Interviewee ten. According to Zhang (2005), the government’s perspective needs to shift from the traditional regulatory stance to a liberal and dynamic outlook which will allow for the private provisioning of public services.

6.4.2.3 Government Capacity to Provide Service Delivery

Lack of capacity by the South African government to efficiently provide public services is also cited by the Interviewees as a factor that discourages the private sector to participate in PPP. PPP projects according to Chan et al. (2010) may fall apart due to failure on the part of the public sector and private sector participants. Interviewee Ten believed that “the government’s limited capacity to handle problems in education poses a serious challenge to the delivery of quality education and discourages the private sector’s involvement in PPP.” The lack of capacity relates to lack of management skills and weak governance.

6.4.2.4 Corruption and Theft

Corruption and theft are major challenges that will discourage the private sector from participating in PPP in education. Corruption may be spawned by the lack of transparency, which greatly impairs private sector interest (Zhang, 2005). The Interviewees believe that the private sector finds itself spending extra effort micromanaging either the government or communities regarding efficient utilisation of resources which have been donated by it, because some of the resources are embezzled. Interviewee Eleven agrees with this sentiment and explained that “the private sector spends money to procure resources for the schools such as computers and projectors, however, these resources are often stolen by the same communities the private sector is trying to uplift”. Therefore, the DoE and the schools should be held accountable for the donations they are receiving from the private sector, and they must

utilise those resources effectively to avoid discouraging the private sector from participating in education PPPs.

6.4.2.5 Wrong Partners

Collaborating with the wrong partners can be detrimental to the implementation of PPP projects in education because partners who do not have the capacity and knowledge to participate effectively will hinder the development of PPP. In contracting out the PPP projects, the government should ensure that the parties in the private sector are sufficiently competent and financially capable of taking up the projects (Chan et al., 2010).

6.4.3 Summary

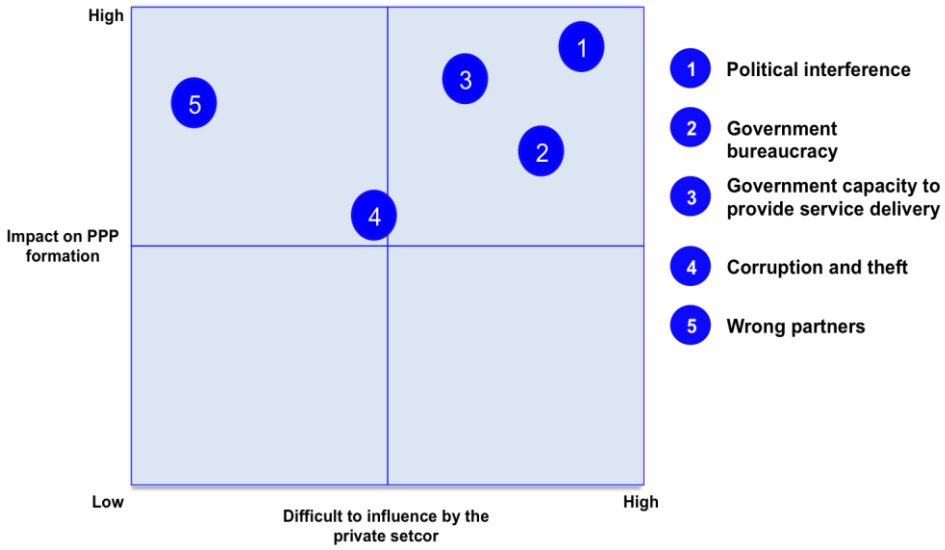
In this section, an understanding of the critical success factors that must be in place for PPP in education in South African rural communities to succeed has been developed. Various success factors have been identified through literature review and interviews with senior managers of organisations that participate in PPP projects in education. These success factors were further analysed, distilled, coded and finally classified into five main CSF aspects: (1) Common vision and guiding coalition, (2) Right partners, (3) Political will, (4) Effective governance and leadership, and (5) Transparency and honesty. Not surprisingly, many of these factors were also found in the literature. Table 15, below, lists the CSF that were found in the study and compares them to that were identified in literature.

Table 15: List of success factors found in the study and in literature

CSF	CSF found in Literature	CSF found in the study
Economic viability	X	Not found
Favourable investment environment (Political will)	X	X
Sound financial package	X	Not found
Good governance	X	X
Appropriate risk allocation	X	Not found
Reliable concessionaire consortium with strong technical strength (Right partners)	X	X
Transparency in procurement process	X	X
Common vision and guiding coalition	Not found	X

It also emerged from this discussion that South African conditions were not conducive to the establishment of formal PPP structures in education and the factors that discouraged the private sector participation in education PPP in rural communities were also discussed. Below is an analysis of the factors that discourage the formation of PPPs in education and the level of influence by the private sector on these.

Figure 12: Factors discouraging the formation of PPPs in education and the level of influence by the private sector on these.

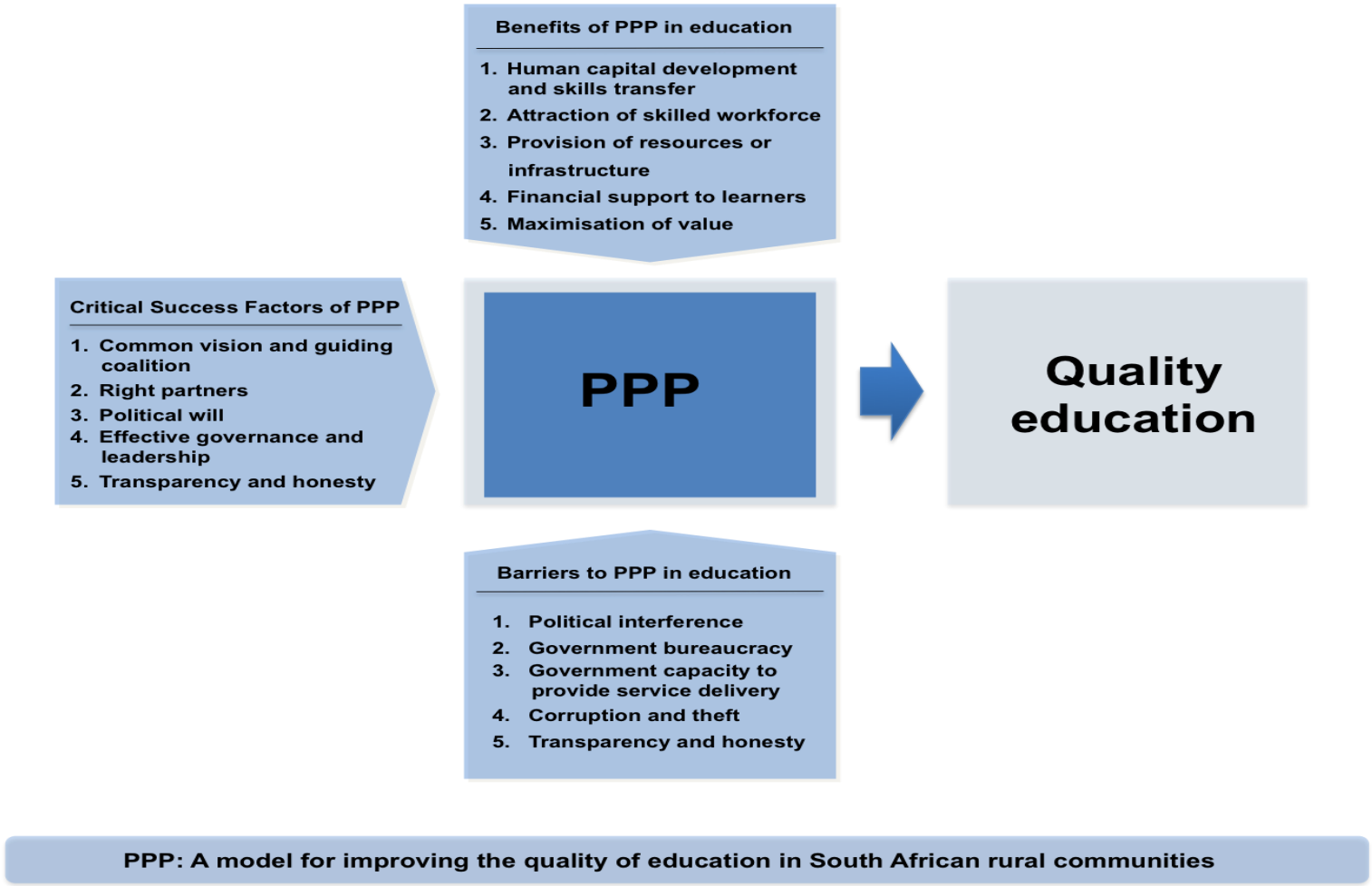


Factors such as political interference, government bureaucracy and incapacity to provide service delivery were considered to have high impact on the establishment of PPPs; however, these factors are difficult to be influenced by the private sector. Collaborating with the wrong partners, and corruption and theft were also considered to have a high impact on the establishment of PPPs, but they can be influenced by the private sector more easily.

6.5 PPP as a Model for Improving the Quality of Education in South African Rural Communities

Below is a framework which summarises the discussion in Chapter Six and highlights how PPP is a model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities.

Figure 13: Framework of PPP as a model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities



6.6 Conclusion

The main research question of “Is public-private partnership a suitable model for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities?” is answered in this chapter. A framework for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities is shown in figure 13. This framework highlights the critical success factors of PPP in education, the benefits of PPP in education and the factors that discourage the private sector participation in education PPP.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the results of the study in Chapter Five and concluded that Public-Private Partnership is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities. This chapter will discuss the background to the study as well as the objectives of the study. A summary of the findings in relation to the research questions proposed in Chapter Three and in light of existing literature will follow with recommendations to stakeholders. This chapter will conclude with limitations and implications for the findings of the research with regards to future research that could contribute to richer and more meaningful insights into the subject matter as identified by the researcher.

7.2 Research Background and Objectives

It is widely agreed that the relationship between poverty and education resonates in two directions: poor people are often unable to obtain access to adequate and quality education, and without quality education, individuals are often constrained to a life of poverty (Sen, 2001). Education can reduce poverty in a number of ways. First, educated people are more likely to acquire jobs, are more productive, and earn more. Secondly, better and further education improves a poor country's economic growth and thereby generates economic opportunities and income. Lastly, education brings about social benefits that improve the situation of the poor (Berg, 2008).

Education in South Africa is a key concern because the South African education system is underperforming compared to many other developing countries despite the large capital investment made by the South African government and its private sector (McCarthy and Bernstein, 2011). Sixty to eighty percent of schools in South Africa are dysfunctional, and fifteen years beyond the advent of democracy, the schooling system has failed to meet its promise. Opportunities disappear before the eyes of South African children just as they should expect to be grasping a future of hope and possibility (Bloch, 2010). South African children are routinely underachieving and rate not only among the worst in the world, but often among the worst in the Southern African region and in Africa as a whole (Bloch, 2009).

Given the constraints in the South Africa education system, the need for alternative sources of delivery mechanisms is increasingly recognised, if the government is to achieve its targets and contribute to addressing the education crises in South Africa (Patrinos et. al, 2009). Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is proposed as one such vehicle. The main rationale for developing PPP in education is to maximise the potential for expanding equitable access to schooling and for improving education outcomes, especially for marginalised groups (Patrinos et. al, 2009). The justification for PPP in education arises primarily from the need to accelerate the expansion of education, supplement investment and enable different models for improving the quality of education in South Africa.

The objective of this study was to determine whether PPP is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities. The objective was addressed in a two-phase approach. The first phase developed an understanding of the challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in South African rural communities through interviews with experts in education. The second phase determined the suitability of PPP to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities and the critical success factors for implementing PPP in education in South Africa through interviews with senior managers of mining companies in the North-West province and senior managers of section 21 companies that assist the DoE to deliver education in rural schools.

7.3 Findings Summary

The research revealed that PPP is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities. A PPP framework for improving the quality of education in South African rural communities is developed in Chapter Six, figure 13, which indicates the critical success factors of PPP in education, the benefits of PPP in education and the factors that discourage private sector participation in education PPP in South Africa.

Quality education is defined by this research as an education that encompasses the complete development of the learner and the learner's ability to gain access to schooling or education. It is a type of education that must be provided to all children in South Africa that will ensure they are completely developed physically, mentally and

emotionally to be good citizens of this country. Quality education must therefore produce critical thinkers and lead to employment and poverty reduction.

Certain conditions must be met to achieve quality education such as: (i) the environment must be enabling, for example, adequate resources should be available in schools to facilitate the quality of teaching and learning, and there must be political will in South Africa to improve the quality of education; (ii) resolute and quality leadership should be in place to provide sound governance in schools and throughout the entire education system; and (iii) qualified and committed human resources should be available in the various sectors of the education system to facilitate the process of delivering high quality education.

Challenges that prevent the delivery of quality education in South Africa extend well beyond the control of the DoE and schools. Lack of teacher development and support, school governance and leadership, learner support, shortage of educators and resources, and curriculum implementation were found to be the major challenges that result in the poor delivery of education in South Africa, especially in rural areas.

The success of the use of PPP depends on, amongst other things, the environment, the economic strength and the prevalent political environment of the particular country. The study found that common vision and guiding coalition from key stakeholders, the choice of right partners, the political will of all stakeholders, effective governance and leadership in schools, and transparency and honesty from all stakeholders were key in the successful delivery of quality education in South Africa through PPP.

During the study, it emerged that properly structured partnerships between the public and the private sector in education could result in benefits such as human capital development and skills transfer, attraction of skilled educators and other workforce required in the education system, provision of resources and infrastructure, financial support to learners and the maximisation of value of the taxpayer's funds.

Other findings included the factors that discouraged the private sector from participating in PPP in education. Factors such as political interference, government bureaucracy, the lack of government capacity to provide service delivery, corruption and theft, and the choice of wrong partners by the government can be detrimental to the successful implementation of PPP initiatives in education.

7.4 Recommendations

As noted in Chapter One, the findings of this study will allow for better understanding of PPP as a model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities from an empirical point of view; this information can be used by the public and private sector. Below are the recommendations to the stakeholders.

7.4.1 Government (Public sector)

To ensure the successful implementation of PPPs in education in South Africa, the government must focus on the following:

- The PPP policy must be reviewed to reduce the bureaucracy around the formation and implementation of PPP projects, especially in education because the current policy delays decision making and implementation of projects.

- A political decision must be made to reduce the interference of politics in schools, especially from unions and communities who prevent the development of partnerships in education.

- The government must improve its capacity to handle problems in education by selecting the right partners with proven successes in their education delivery methods to improve the quality of education in South African and it must also be transparent and honest in its engagements with the private sector.

7.4.2 Private Sector

The private sector must focus on the following:

- The private sector must strive to develop deeper relationships with the government and communities, and must be willing to participate in meaningful partnerships with the public sector to improve the standard and quality of education in South Africa, especially in rural areas. This must not be done to

meet the legislative requirements of companies to contribute in society but to ensure the reduction of poverty in South Africa.

- The private sector must also focus on those success factors that they can easily influence to establish successful partnerships with the public sector. Factors such as helping the government to select the right partners who will assist to deliver public services efficiently, and fight corruption to ensure the successful implementation of PPP projects.

7.5 Limitations of the Research

There were several limitations to the research:

- No existing literature on PPP in education in South Africa could be sourced. The existence of such literature would contribute positively to gaining even more insight into the notion.

- The study focuses on the geographic location of Rustenburg. Given the fact that rural areas around Rustenburg differ significantly from other rural areas in South Africa because of the platinum mining activities in the area, the notion might manifest itself differently in rural areas which are not surrounded by mines. The fact that mines are compelled by government's social labour policy to contribute to development in the communities within which they are operating should also be kept in mind; therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalised to all rural areas in South Africa.

- Input from the North West Department of Education was not obtained for this study as the identified interviewees from the DoE were too busy to participate in the study.

- The results of the study are based on interviewees who obliged to being interviewed and revealed the challenges faced by the education system and how PPP can play a role in improving the quality of education in South Africa; hence purposive and snowball sampling method was used. To make the study more robust, quota sampling can be used in the interviews with the senior

managers of private companies, the DoE, NGOs and experts within the education sector.

7.6 Implications for Future Research

The case of PPP as a model to improve the quality of education in South African rural communities that is constituted by this study has its limitations, as mentioned above. To reduce these limitations and make the case more forceful, further research will have to be conducted. This model can be further developed and tested through an explanatory study, hence a quantitative study. Future research could test the results of this study in other rural areas. The framework of PPP as a model to improve the quality of education in rural communities that is developed in this study could be tested in other locations and could be adjusted accordingly depending on the findings, enabling a vigorous framework that could be applied throughout South Africa.

7.7 Conclusion

The development of South Africa is highly dependent on the quality of its people, and the quality of people depends on the level of education that is provided to them. To leave a sustainable and lasting legacy for the next generation, we need to educate individuals so that those who complete schooling and further their studies at tertiary level, and those who simply complete schooling and seek employment, become employable.

The South African education system must enable children to take full advantage of their potential, mentally; physically; emotionally; spiritually; and socially. Education must prepare children holistically for the future by taking cognisance of their talents and abilities. This must be done in a structured, caring environment in which children will feel happy, secure and disciplined. Valuable time must be spent on teaching the basics of critical thinking, academic skills, peer co-operation, independence and self-discipline. Therefore, the education system must ensure that children who drop out of school must have the basic level of education and skills, literacy and numeracy to find employment.

Finally, PPP is meaningful when it is developed with the interest of the community in mind. The emphasis must be on the community and not the politics around that community. The private sector must show genuine commitment to communities even during difficult economic conditions; they must bear in mind the sustainability elements that should be put in place for communities to continue to thrive after they have left them.

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Appendix 1: Interviewees for Phase One

NAME	COMPANY	POSITION
Prof. Robert Balfour	University of North West	Dean of Education
Prof. Irma Eloff	University of Pretoria	Dean of Education
Graeme Bloch	Mapungubwe Institute (MINSTRA)	Senior Researcher: Political Economy
Prof. Liesel Ebersöhn	University of Pretoria	Director: Unit of Research in Education
George Harris	Lebone II College of the Royal Bafokeng	Headmaster
Job Kaira	Moremogolo Primary School	Headmaster

Appendix 2: Interview Guide for Phase One

Section 1: Delivery of Quality Education

1. What is quality education?
2. What needs to be in place to achieve quality education in South Africa?
3. What are the challenges facing the delivery of quality education in South Africa?

   PROMPTS:

   - Government support
   - Parents support
   - Management and governance of schools
   - Basic school functionality
   - Teacher development
   - Curriculum development and implementation
   - School safety and security, and discipline

4. Are there specific challenges in rural South Africa that prohibits the delivery of quality education?

   PROMPTS:

   - Community leadership
   - Household leadership
   - School governance
   - Attraction of skilled educators

Section 2: Private Sector Involvement in the Delivery of Quality Education

1. Is the private sector currently involved or interested in education?

   PROMPTS:

   - Private organisation (Corporate and NGO) support
   - Parents and community support

2. What limits private sector involvement?

   PROMPTS:

   - Stakeholder engagement and collaboration

3. Are there incentives available to attract private sector involvement?

Appendix 3: Interviewees for Phase Two

NAME	COMPANY	POSITION
Ian McLachlan	Royal Bafokeng Institute	Chief Executive Officer
Gustaph Mompei	Royal Bafokeng Institute	Executive: Quality Assurance
Abey Kgotle	Lonmin	Executive: Human Capital and External Affairs
Mzila Mthenjane	Royal Bafokeng Platinum Mine	Executive: Business Sustainability
Keneiloe Mohafa	Anglo-American	Executive: Community Engagement and Development
Mark Allen	LEAP Schools	Executive: Finance

Appendix 4: Interview Guide for Phase Two

Section 1: The Suitability of Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) in Quality Education Delivery

1. Are PPPs an appropriate delivery mechanism for improving the quality of education in South Africa?
2. What are the potential benefits of PPPs in education?
3. What are the challenges of implementing PPPs in education in South Africa?
4. What approaches can be utilised to encourage participation and stimulate PPPs in this sector?

Section 2: The Critical Success Factors for PPP in Education

1. What are the necessary conditions for the success of PPP in education?
2. Does the South African environment facilitate the formation of PPPs?
3. If no, what are the constraints that prevent the formation and implementation of PPP in education?
4. What are the negative factors that deter stakeholders from participation in PPP in education?
5. What approaches can be utilised to encourage participation, and stimulate public private partnerships in the education sector?