Session 2 & 3: Gender, environment and development

In these two sessions the central issues that you must focus on are gender and the environment and how the two relate to issues of development planning.

Take some time and read Study Unit 1 and pay particular attention to 1.4. By the end of the sub-unit you should be able understand the following concepts: gender mainstreaming; gender-neutral policy, gender redistributive/transformative policies, gender specific policies etc. As you read around these concepts you should bear in mind that ultimately you will be required to demonstrate gender-environment-development nexus. Let's briefly tackle these terms:

- Gender-streaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels (UN Economic and Social Council 1997:28). In other words any development plan must take care of the needs of both men and women. Put in other terms the needs of women and those of men are not necessarily the same. We will explain this point later.
- Gender-neutral policy - they rely on accurate information based on existing gender-based resources and responsibilities in order to ensure policy objectives are met in the most efficient possible way.
- Gender specific policies - target activities that women will most probably benefit from or control based on the fact that there has been some inequalities in the past. However, like the gender-neutral policies there is a high possibility of leaving the existing relations to resources intact.
- Gender redistributive policies (transformative) - as the phrase implies they target at changing gender-relations with the aim of equality between men and women. NOTE TO STUDENTS: Those familiar with the political system of South Africa might want to share with the group on the quota system some political parties adopted for parliamentarians.

Unit 4.1 must be read in conjunction with prescribed reader pages 178-189. From Moser and Moser (2005) article may I draw your attention to the following issues:

- from the Beijing conference of 1995 it was agreed that attention must be focused on ‘gender equality and empowerment of women’. Sufficient to say the understanding was and still is that women are disadvantaged and deliberate actions to empower them must be put into place. Therefore gender-streaming was seen as the mechanism to achieve the desired goal of equality. Let’s note that gender-streaming does not seek to topple men but aims at equality (pg 179).
- Gender-streaming involves the institutionalisation of gender concerns in all spheres of planning taking into account equality in administration, financial, staffing and other organisational procedures. It therefore encourages transformative processes.
- Thirdly another point to note that at policy making level so many countries have gone a long way to promulgate gender-mainstreaming. Some countries have gone on to include ministries or departments of gender and women empowerment. However, when it comes to implementation, so many of them fall flat. There are a number of reasons why policy commitments evaporate in implementation phase, these include: organisational culture and attitudes (the world is still very patriarchal in nature; resistance to notion of gender equality; treatment of gender equality as a separate problem; as well as staff ‘simplification’ of gender issues. It is therefore a challenge for development planners to seek for alternatives in planning for implementation. Otherwise there shall remain good policies which are not being implemented.

Another reading relevant to this discussion is pages 169-177. Nelson, et al (2002) also tackle the need to mainstream gender in climate change adaptations. Points to note:

- we ask the question why women are so central in climate change. There is an “assumption that women are closer to nature than men and that environment protection is exclusively or largely for women” pg 170. While we will not over
emphasize this point, it must be pointed that climate change and its attendant natural disasters disproportionately affect women more than men. For instance in times of drought men tend to outmigration more than women and therefore increasing workload on women who are left behind (p171).

- Development planners must therefore avoid gender blindness because it leads to the neglecting of the impact of climate change on gender relations.

- Policies must make sure gender analysis is fully integrated to avoid exacerbating gender inequalities.

- A case in point would be the agricultural policies in a number of third world countries that emphasised monocropping of cash crops such as coffee, cotton, sunflower, and cocoa which in some communities are said to be crops that are for men. New policies should not only encourage intercropping but also diversification to mitigate against climatic changes.

Pages 209-2011 (Joto Africa series) discusses manifestation of climate change and its effects. Points to note:

- Climate change is primarily a result of greenhouse gas emissions (from burning of fossil fuels, deforestation, etc). Instead of heat escaping from the atmosphere it’s trapped and that leads to increase in temperatures and melting of Polar Regions thereby resulting in rise in sea level.

- Changes in rainfall patterns would follow leading to either little rains followed by droughts or too much rains followed by floods. Either way food security issues arise thereby impacting on development plans as resources will be diverted to address emergencies instead.

- Africa is most at risk of climate changes as it is limited in terms of adaptability due to low levels of technical development and widespread poverty.

- Lake Chad is an example of how climate changes has devastating effects on the environment. In 1960 it covered 26 000km² and by 2000 it was 1 500km².

- Planners must focus on making sure that rural farmers are informed on changes in climatic conditions and also have access to meteorological reports. Need for farmers to switch agricultural practices to those that make better use of rainwater, runoff and well; as well as growing drought resistant crops.

Activity: After going through these notes and reading around the prescribed literature. Go to your Study Guide and do Activity 1.3. Share your finding with your colleague on this platform.

Whenever environmental issues and planning are tackled always remember the concept of Sustainable Development (SD). By definition SD refers to the development that meets, “the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs” (Gupta, 1998:3). It must be noted that: ‘in as much as sustainable development makes no explicit reference to the environment it is quite clear that the idea has gained prominence in environmental problems’ (Attifield and Wilkins, 1992:93).

- In the Rio de Janeiro Conference of 1992 delegates committed to formulation and implementation of sustainable development strategies. SD strategies must be adaptive and cyclical.

- Development is therefore intertwined with ecosystems. As the discussion above demonstrated it is largely human factors that lead to climate change. Deforestation and greenhouse gas emissions are cases in point. Therefore for development planners, the concept of SD must be an essential ingredient to planning just like gender-streaming and climate issues discussed earlier on. Plans must focus not only at the well-being of people but that of the ecosystem too.

- While development is largely targeted at economic growth, it must not come at the expense of the ecology. Thus it must be noted that sustainable development and economic growth are not inimical but rather they are mutual and inclusive.

Activity: Go to your Study Guide and do Activity 1.4. Share your findings with your colleague on this platform.
Session 4: reflections on session 2&3 and influence of environment in development

Gender sensitive policies are significant in development planning in that:

- They seek to analyse the disadvantaged position of women and to form bases for redressing the unequal power relations.

- Climate change and its attendant natural disasters disproportionately affect women more than men. Therefore planners should guard against the assumption that women are closer nature and it should be their responsibility to protect it. Policies must ensure both men and women benefit equitably.

- Development planners must therefore avoid gender blindness because it leads to the neglecting of the impact of climate change on power relations.

- Policies must make sure gender analysis is fully integrated to any strategy to avoid exacerbating gender inequalities.

- From the Beijing conference of 1995 it was agreed that attention must be focused on ‘gender equality and empowerment of women’. Therefore gender-streaming was seen as the mechanism to achieve the desired goal of equality.

- Gender-streaming involves the institutionalisation of gender concerns in all spheres of planning taking into account equality in administration, financial, staffing and other organisational procedures. It therefore encourages transformative processes.

- While many countries have gone a long way to promulgate gender-mainstreaming, implementation seems to be lacking. Therefore development planners must plan effectively for implementation. Outside that policies will remain good only on paper.

The influence of environment on development planning

Climate change is a reality that human beings have to face. For instance floods are becoming common partly due to rising sea levels. Coastal areas such as KwaZulu Natal in South Africa experience semi-Tsunamis which means developments such as housing must take into consideration such environment factors.

- It will have an effect on crop yields due to change in rainfall patterns (droughts and floods). In other words climate change will have a severe effect on food security as many rural communities especially in SA depend on rain-fed cropping. Development planners in agriculture sector must factor in water stress in their strategies.

- Climate change will have an impact on human health directly eg heatwaves and indirectly through water-borne diseases.

- Ecosystems and natural resources in which most of the third world populace depend will also be affected by rising temperatures, sea-level and rainfall patterns.

- While planners might come out with new technologies to mitigate climate changes effects, it must be noted that technology comes at a price and most rural areas might not afford them. Therefore planners must guard against ‘wrong technologies’. Therefore instead of conventional agricultural techniques that advocate for high yields and which some communities might not afford, it is advisable to consider sustainable organic techniques too.

- Climate change affects women since it is their prime responsibility in most rural communities to provide water and firewood. Therefore planners must make sure they do not entrench the gender inequalities. (Read Moser and Moser, 2005 pages 178 in your reader).

- While there is little human beings can do to stop climate change, there are some steps that can be taken to minimise its effects and these include: mitigation eg reforestation; adaptation eg preparing for risks and coping with disasters.
hence the Disaster Management Unit in a number of countries (local government in SA); and Intervention eg by including locals in planning through participatory development models.

**Session 5: Development planning-gender mainstreaming-climate change nexus**

In my introduction to sessions 2&3 I did mention that after going through the activities of Unit 1 you should be able to demonstrate a gender-environment-development nexus. In other words I wanted to drive you to realise that there is a relationship between development planning, gender mainstreaming, and climate change.

-Climate change as explained in session 4 is a reality that human beings have to deal with as one of the factors that affect development planning and some of its effects such as droughts, floods, food insecurity and diseases have been discussed.

-We also explained that climate change disproportionately affect women especially in Third World countries where the economy is still largely subsistence. Women are expected to fetch water and firewood for their households in the rural areas. As rainfall patterns and resultant droughts are becoming more frequent, women are forced to walk long distances to fetch water. In times of hardships men usually out-migrate far more than women. The foregoing results in increase in the load women have to carry to cater for their family needs.

-Development does not occur in a vacuum. It occurs within a certain context. In our discussion climate change and the unequal gender dynamics are the contexts, although this does not mean that they are the only factors impacting development. Development planning is a process whereby the most appropriate action for realising overall policy objectives is decided on. It seeks to address uncertainties that are brought about by climate change for instance. However, in that planning it must be noted that the world has been patriarchal for so long and therefore actions and plans must be crafted with a deliberate effort to address gender inequality. Hence gender-mainstreaming is required to address inequality.

-planning can either be institutional (innovative) by for instance introducing new governments departments or special units within the departments to address women needs. It can also be allocative, for instance by allocating financial resources and incentives for certain projects to be done.

-Plans will not be judged by merely predicting the future but rather their ability to impact on them. For instance it is predicted that yields from rain-fed agriculture will decrease by up to 50% by 2020 thereby increasing food insecurity and hunger (pg 210 of the prescribed book). Planners may look at technologies such as more irrigation and use of fertilisers with the aim of increasing yields. However, the big question would be, are these technologies sustainable and can the poor households afford them? Therefore it is advisable to consider sustainable organic techniques as well.

-Development needs a buy-in from the recipients. Thus public participation is important in development planning. Generally most development meetings in rural communities are attended by men. That being the case strategies and plans thrashed out risk to entrench gender inequalities. Suffice it to say a deliberate effort to include women in planning is necessary or alternatively strategies that would benefit women equitably must be put into place.

-Planners might also learn something from women’s coping strategies in their unpaid labour activities and adapt them to mainstream planning.

-All in all climate change-development planning –gender mainstreaming have a relationship. NOTE: take some time and reflect on this nexus and find examples which you can post for discussion with your colleagues on this platform.

-Assignment 2 also required a similar kind of approach. From your prescribed book read Nelson, etal (2002: pg 169-177). The article focuses on gender-mainstreaming in climate adaptations and would be useful in tackling the question.
STUDY UNIT 2 – KEY ACTORS IN PLANNING

Session 1: Who are the planners?

We are doing a module in development planning. Therefore we should be able to decipher who are the actors in this field. This unit focuses on these actors.

- one of those actors are ‘planners’

- in order to explain who are the planners you should recall what we covered in unit 1. You should start with the definition of planning. According to Hall (2002:1) planning is ‘a method of doing something, planning is achieving some objective, it proceeds by assembly actions in some orderly sequence’. Planners are therefore people who are come up with the methods and sequences of executing certain actions for the public interest. They can either be individuals or professionals. For the sake of our module we will focus on professional planners.

- Professional planners are the people who play a particular role by virtue of their training or place in the overall planning process. They come from different sectors and at different levels of planning. Perhaps those who are familiar with huge construction projects can draw a parallel with the dynamics of planning. If you look at a board that details who is who in the project, it will show you that there are different people and various levels who converge for the ultimate objective of coming up with a structure.

- Professional planners would work as individual or serve under various agencies. To further understand who the planners are let’s briefly look at their role:

  - much of their time is spent in consulting stakeholders, coordinating activities and reconciling various viewpoints and perspectives.
  - stimulate and facilitate communication processes.
  - a planner is a facilitator, coordinator and negotiator. As a facilitator the planners ‘plan the planning itself’ by making stakeholders aware of the planning and providing services to meet set targets. As a coordinator the professional planner must make sure that all stakeholders play a role in the planning activities. In the process the planner makes sure integration of ideas is achieved. And finally as a negotiator the planner is expected to resolve conflicts that may arise between individuals and groups.

  - planners collect, process, and analyse data in the process of planning and implementation. In the process professional planners help consolidate ideas of technical skills and political skills.

Activity 2.1: For this activity choose at least two reasons or disadvantages of the use of professional planners. Think of many development projects in Third World countries that fail and try to use Hall’s interpretations to explain them. Cases in point will be for example water and sanitation programmes in rural areas either provided by the government or NGOs.

- think of how some professional planners can be so abstract in their approach. A case in point will be the government’s effort to mitigate cholera outbreaks in some rural area by constructing pit latrines. Professional planners might then come in and say to cut down the costs the government will provide villagers with building materials and in turn the villagers will construct the structures. However, because the villagers have not been trained on awareness and advantages of proper sanitation they may sell the material and continue to use bush latrines.

- professional planners can also delay and complicate decision making process. Think of rural schools and provision of libraries. In many cases when they were planned focus was on classrooms and when one wants to add a library, planning processes can delay construction even by years.

- the above point can be discussed together with the point that professional planners might have little knowledge of the situation on the ground. For example someone planning for an NGO may argue for the provision of a library to a
school, yet the school plan does not have provision for such a facility. In the process implementation will be delayed by years.

NOTE: Think of other examples and share them with colleagues in this platform

**Activity 2.2.** Think of a practical and even more recent case of racial abuse at a secondary school in South Africa. Have a look at this link: [http://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/gauteng/probe-into-racism-at-private-schools-1.1812598](http://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/gauteng/probe-into-racism-at-private-schools-1.1812598). You might want to research for more examples in order to have a rough idea of what you are expected to deal with. Then demonstrate your understanding of the three roles of a professional planner as discussed by Conyers and Hills (1994). You can choose any of the three as long as you can justify your choice. (DO not forget to share your discussion with colleagues). For instance you can choose to be facilitator by making all stakeholders to understand the purpose of racial integration at the school. Then use the technical and political expertise of other stakeholders to take care of the roles of coordinator and negotiator.

**Session 2: Problems in development planning**

As you read around this unit you should note that the purpose of development planning, among other reasons, is to:

- give direction to national programmes

- coordinate actions and efforts of government and private sector for the public interest

After doing Activities 2.3 and 2.4. you should note that the problems faced by Ghana are not necessarily unique to them. A number of Third World countries face similar problems. In the case of Ghana some of the problems mentioned include:

- funding is a challenge as DAs are expected to largely generate and spend their own finances since they have no financial links and few administrative ties with national government. As a result they are forced to tax everything in sight thereby attracting protests and strikes from the citizens.

- finances are a challenge hence to execute some of the programs they resort to international financial institutions but some of these governments would want to come up with policies that do not conform to the funders. A case in point is ESAP.

- inadequate manpower

- weak community involvement.

- domination by political appointees such as secretary or chairman. Included in the groups are traditional leaders and by so doing it creates group of supporters.

- ‘Human resources’ is one of the key problems in local government.

After reading through the challenges faced by Ghana draw comparisons with contemporary local government systems that you are familiar with. Think of the much-talked about cadre deployment in countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe. Think of how employment of Municipal Managers is done and at times how the processes end up in courts and either reversed or delayed. All this come at a cost. One can also think about how often we hear about ‘laziness’ in local government employees when it comes to service delivery.
Session 3: National and local government roles in the development planning processes

In development planning as indicated in the introduction to this unit there are a number of role players who are expected to play complementary roles. In this session we will deal with the roles of national government and local government as well as field administrators.

National

- gives national policy direction. All other development stakeholders’ plans are expected to dovetail towards the national plans.

- coordination of both the private sector and government plans

Local and field administrators

- provide support for development at town and village levels through popular participation.

- planning and budgeting processes start at district level.

- need to pass power to grassroot level. In Ghana they established district assemblies with the idea of popular participation in development planning. This was an effort to try to govern by the people for the people. Village assemblies revived spirit of volunteerism in building of schools, clinics, boreholes etc—participatory development. This was a popular development approach in countries like Zimbabwe immediately after the war of liberation where reconstruction of schools and clinics was predominantly done by the villagers with the government only providing material resources

- Read Assibey-Mensah (2000)’s article on your reference book page 375 on functions of Local Government eg in public health they provided adequate water, preventing spread of diseases; in agriculture by allocating land and taking steps to fight soil erosion.

All the above said and done the big question to ask is whether decentralisation has speeded up service delivery. Take about 10mins to reflect on this issue and share with colleagues on this platform.

Session 4. IDPs

Integrated Development Planning in perspective

- South Africa attained democracy in 1994 at a time when internationally there was a push towards decentralisation as the preferred approach to public management.

- In the same light the new government found itself having to redress the past injustices ushered in by the apartheid regime. Apartheid was based on separate development and thus resulting in spatially fragmented structures and economically deprivation of the non-whites. It therefore became important to come up with new policies to redress such problems. It is under these circumstances that the IDP was born.

- According to the Green Paper on Development and Planning (GPDP) of 1998, the term ‘integrated’ itself means pulling together social, economic, environmental, spatial, political, and cultural concerns into a single concern. It also implies implementation and alignment of internal management systems with external ones. In a nutshell the IDPs strive to bring all development aspects under one document to make sure that there is a common approach by the responsible authority.

- IDPs came into the South Africa’s legal arena when the item was hastily added to the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment, 1996 (Harrison). At that time Harrison argues it was difficult to operationalize the IDPs as many people who were expected to implement it did not understand it either. The White Paper on Local Government
of 1998 also identified IDPs as a key tool of developmental local governance. Ultimately the Municipal Systems Act, 32 (MSA) was passed in 2000 and it made it a statutory requirement that all municipalities (local, district, and metropolitan) prepare IDPs that run for a five-year period which coincides with term of elected council. The influence of the said legislation is evident in the formulation of many IDPs.

The new government also hoped that performance management and participation of interested stakeholders would improve accountability. The democratizing element of IDPs required local authorities to be developmental in orientation so as to 'bring back the public in local government' (Theron, 2009: 136). The bottom line was to speed up service delivery with everyone concerned on board.

It must be pointed out that the IDP is the overall strategic development plan that guides decision making, budgeting and development in the municipality (Guidelines for the formulation of spatial development frameworks, 2010:3). In other words IDPs aim at directing and coordinating plans of a local authority. The MSA, 32 of 2000 specifies the minimum contents of the IDP among them: a long-term vision of the municipality; an assessment of the current level of servicing as well as economic and social development of the municipality; local council’s development and operational strategies; financial plans; sectoral plans required by other legislations (water, transport, waste and disaster management); as well as key performance indicators and targets (Harrison, 2001).

IDPs are a way of moving away from technocratic planning to a more participatory approach.

For activities 2.5 & 2.6 first go through Harrison (2001). Read, especially, from page 393 of your reader. The history and motivation for IDPs is chronicled. Secondly, give a short explanation on whether you think through IDPs, government is promoting more people centred approach? Think of the adverts that we regularly see in newspapers where councils invite communities to imbizos on IDPs and budgets. If you are in South Africa make an effort to attend one of these meetings and share with colleagues the highlights.

**Session 5 (a): Participatory Development Planning**

As discussed in earlier sessions there is a deliberate effort to make development planning as representative as possible by moving it to local spheres. Some of the arguments advanced in favour of participatory development planning include:

- in development beneficiaries must be both participants and recipients. They should own the development.
- need for planning to reach the targeted population instead of the hit and miss approach that the top-down systems sometimes adopt
- people need to be involved in planning events that will shape their lives.
- through participation communities are integrated and enabled to contribute to national progress. Think of initiatives such as CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe and how its processes are set to be so inclusive.
- through popular participation development plans become relevant since they are made to suit certain needs and conditions of specific communities.
- no development program can succeed unless the local people are willing to accept it and make an effort to participate. The involvement of the local people makes it possible to utilize their knowledge about local conditions to solve local problems more efficiently and effectively (Makumbe,1996). Thus local and indigenous knowledges are vital and half the time outside planners would have abstract information about a certain area.
- makes communities less-dependant
Improved ownership of both development inputs, outputs and outcomes

- Improved commitment

- Encourages self-actualisation/self-confidence of local vulnerable groups

- Because of better reflection of community interests and needs avoid costly errors - more efficient & effective programmes and projects

- While we argue for participation in development planning we must bear in mind that communities are not homogenous hence an all-inclusive planning will be most likely impossible; large scale participation of people might be detrimental to planning. In regions of extreme poverty participation can become a luxury not all can afford (Ubgomeh, 2001). Think also of the inhibiting role of external agents such as the national government and donors.

Re: Session 5 (b): Barriers to effective participatory development planning
by E MHLANGA - 14 Apr 2015 @ 21:44

Development planning theory is slightly different from practice. While at policy level the intention might be good, many plans fall flat at implementation level. For instance grassroot and participatory planning are encouraged in IDPs but there are a number of challenges barriers to effective participatory development planning. These include:

- **Economics**: benefits of participation must be greater than costs of participation. Eg if people have to walk long distances for meetings that will drag forever and little results are realised out of it, they will tend to be reluctant to participate. This is a common problem for instance in construction of schools in rural areas when free local labour is relied upon.

- **Politics**: generally the poor do not have the power to organise and therefore they lack being properly represented in decision making.

- **Professionalism**: some sector specialists may emphasize professional training which the poor do not have. This is so especially where there is a huge knowledge gap between the professionals and the beneficiaries, health is a case in point. Hence professionals decide to take the position of decision makers and thereby being a barrier to development.

- **Nature of project**: participation will be enhanced if the envisaged project will benefit the whole community and not individuals.

- **Group dynamics**: the community is not homogenous. Some people prefer to work as a group, yet some want to work as individuals.

- **Behaviour and attitudes of bureaucrats and professionals**, for instance, by looking down upon beneficiaries of development may inhibit the ultimate purpose of planning.

**STUDY UIT 3 – PLANNING MODES**

**Session 1: Introduction**

- can you recall from the studies of your physical science where matter was said to come in three states (solid, liquid and gas).
those who are religious and those who have done religious studies may remember that the devil and his temptations come in different forms.

- a similarity can be drawn from the above with development planning. It comes in various modes which we will deal with in this unit. Before we go deep we will go back to the introduction of this course and try to define ‘planning’ together in this session.

- Planning according to Hall (2002:1) is a method of doing something, planning is achieving some objective, it proceeds by assembly actions in some orderly sequence, it applies to actions people take for the public interest. Bearing the foregoing in mind it therefore means planning takes place within a certain ‘container’; it takes place within a certain state. We can therefore say a planning mode is the context in which development planning takes place. It can also be understood as categorisation of the level at which planning takes place, for instance at administrative level. The phrase can also be interpreted from Faludi (1973, 1979, 1983 and 1984) who wrote extensively about the typologies of dimensions of what he operationalised as pairs of juxtaposed ‘planning modes’. In other words we will understand development planning as taking place within a continuum hence in the next session we will explore three sets of these modes: Rational-Comprehensive Planning versus Disjointed Incremental Planning; Blue Print vs Learning Process planning and finally Functional Planning versus Normative Choice Planning. Don’t forget to think of examples and sharing them with the group as we characterise each pairs.

**Session 2: Rational-Comprehensive Planning v Disjointed Incremental Planning**

In this session we discuss the first two modes. Give yourself time to read Units 3.1 -3.2 from your study guide.

**Rational-Comprehensive planning**

- As the phrase implies the emphasis is on rationality. Proponents of this mode point out that planning must be different from other decision making activities. Fors (1985) as one of the proponents of rational planning argue that planning should not be subjected to short-sighted and amateurish problem solving.

- planning must be done in a way that is objective and that the posting of criteria must be done in such a way that the next person may reach the same conclusion.

- planning agency must reach final and comprehensive conclusions to problems.

- the degree of rationality will be determined by efficiency, optimality and synthesis.

- objectives are clear and reasonably consistent and expressed as targets.

- decision making is centralised within a planning organisation.

- predictability is one of the mantras and the information is reliable.

**Disjointed Incremental Planning**

- it is a typical adaptive approach

- it is a means-oriented approach through which entails the acceptance of objectives that can be achieved through available means. Thus action is planned on the grounds of realistic facts and not merely what is desirable.

- it involves breaking planning steps into manageable steps with flexibility the cornerstone of the mode.

- objectives are ambiguous and subject to change as implementation takes place.

- planning depends on multiple stakeholders (planners, implementers, and researchers).
information can be unreliable and learning comes gradual during the implementation phase.

-empowerment of beneficiaries is central.

Please note: In theory we try to divide the modes of planning but in practice one can not distinctly say one mode ends here and the other starts here, hence the idea of a continuum mentioned in session 1. Both the rational-comprehensive and Disjointed Incremental Planning aim at improving the livelihoods of the beneficiaries of a development initiative. They only differ in emphasis and approach.

Activity 3.1 and 3.2: In a number of countries rational-comprehensive planning is applied. How often do we here of over planning in countries like South Africa. One of the criticisms we often hear is that SA has beautiful policies (just like the Constitution). However, the big challenge is on implementation, hence some critics argue against over planning. Think of countries like Zimbabwe on how a simple issue like constructing a library at an existing school may take years to implement. Those who are familiar with operations of the NGOs, think about some of the rural programmes they undertake such as provision of sanitation facilities.

To what extent do you think disjointed-Incremental Planning is being utilised in your country. Think of development plans especially at local level where planning is done through participation by villagers (VIDCOs). In countries such as Zimbabwe VIDCOs can plan for the provision of water to certain villages by manually digging wells. However, due to the inaccessibility of the area they may deem it fit to also construct a road.

Session 3: Learning Process v Blue-print mode

As indicated in session 1, the second pair development planning mode we will deal with is Learning Process v Blue-print mode. The two can also be comprehended to be the two ends of the continuum. Read Dale page 219 of your reader for further information. The following table illustrates some of the major differences of the two modes. Below it we explain further the two modes with a task to help you recall one of the assignments you did recently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Process Planning</th>
<th>Blue print Planning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plans are not finalised fully prior to implementation. This allows for innovation.</td>
<td>all plans are done fully prior to implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plans are more or less developed during implementation which means planning and monitoring come into interface.</td>
<td>implementers would know what to do, when and at what costs before implementation takes place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncertainty characterises this mode of planning. It's suitable for complex environments where dynamics can change anytime. Therefore one of its characteristics is adaptability.</td>
<td>all efforts are made to remove all uncertainties. No room is left for other activities except those determined by the agency. Therefore replicability is one of its characteristics.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Learning process Planning

-techniques are exposed and developed during regular field tests. Projects are therefore more adaptive. Continual dialogue between planners, implementers and inhabitants of the area is highly encouraged.

-The planning document becomes less important in the application of this planning mode. The task of the planner is to set long-term objectives and the implementation plans are left open.

-the project is seen as a reactive organism that is capable of undergoing a metamorphosis.

-it promotes self-sustenance of the projects and encourages the development of problem-solving skills.

-process planning is credited with allowing for learning from experience.
However, its critics point to the fact that there is a need of radical changes in attitudes of officials, outside that they may sabotage the programmes.

**-blue-print planning mode** has its origins in civil engineering. Planners are not necessarily the implementers.

-There is a belief that the future is certain and variables can be entirely controlled.

-It's successful in implementation of physical projects that rely heavily on capital investment in a stable environment.

**Task:** Go back to Tutorial Letter DVA3704/101 and revisit assignment 4 on page 17. Explain the strengths and weaknesses of the blue-print mode of planning in development planning.

- assess the applicability of the blue-print planning mode in addressing unemployment: You might want to think of the highly contested public works programme. Refer to President Jacob Zuma's State of the Nation Address at some point when he outlined what the government was anticipating as job opportunities in the public works.

- apply your judgement in critical situations that require sustainable development planning.

- use the available literature with insight.

- also use own wider reading to discuss the unemployment issue.

Given the discussion above, which of the two planning modes would you prefer and what will be your guiding principles on that choice. Take about 10 minutes to reflect on this point and share with us in this platform.

**Session 4: Functional Planning v Normative-choice planning**

The last pair of development planning modes we will focus on is Functional Planning v Normative-choice planning.

-Both modes focus on the element of rationality. Thus the big question the planners ask centres around rationality itself; whether it should relate to means of planning or the ultimate goal of planning.

- In **functional planning** the planner assumes the goals have already been set and is therefore concerned with the means of planning only. In other words there is no concern with how goals were set, be it by individuals, higher authority or even the planners themselves.

- By contrast **normative-choice** is concerned with the ultimate goal of planning and the means to achieve it.

- Proponents such as Forss argue that planning is neither neutral nor objective; value judgments always come into play. Planning goes beyond facts and logic.

- Derman and Whiteford (1985:3) argue that an effort to influence socio-economic changes is seldom neutral. The processes are influenced by political contestation.

**Activity 3.4:** The activity requires you to choose between Functional Planning and Normative-choice planning with regards to which would be the best mode for Third World Countries bearing in mind the three variables of poverty, corruption and weak administrative system. In your discussion you must always bear it in mind that there is no mode that can be purely applied by itself. In that case modes should be understood as two extreme ends and application is in a continuum between the two. Go through Stephen P Riley's article on page 336 of your reader. The discussion about petty corruption mirrors what happens in a number of Third World Countries. Given that background one would argue for functional approach to planning to avoid corruption creeping into planning. However, neutrality is simply a pie in the sky. Therefore elements of the normative approach will inevitably creep in. Therefore the question is how to mitigate the over politicisation of planning and try to balance it with objectivity. Share your thoughts with the group in this forum.
Session 5. From theory to practice

- After going through the material provided for Unit 3 and the relevant literature from your Reader, we now want to look at specific examples from South Africa and analyse them with the view of understanding where certain elements fit in the planning modes that were discussed in this unit. I would like us to focus on the post-independence scenarios in South Africa.

- Let's start by having each student research and give at least 3 development plans in South Africa, be they be national or departmental.

- Give a brief discussion (about 10 lines) on what those plans entails.

- In the earlier sessions we looked at IDPs. In the South African development planning context, this is one of the most talked about initiative. Revisit the earlier sessions and interpret which development mode(s) apply to IDPs.

- Currently the mantra in development planning circles in South Africa centres around the National Development Plan (NDP).

- In the introduction to this session I asked you to list 3 development plans in South Africa. Some of the prominent plans and strategies that are expected to mentioned include NDP, IDPs, RDP, Local economic development (LED); Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP); Strategic Integrated Projects (SIPs) and many more. Each government department has a development plan. Read in detail one of these plans and discuss your interpretation how development planning modes influence each step of these plans. By the end of the day the group will be divided into 2 and you will be asked to focus on a specific plan. Check your emails this evening.

Study Unit 4: Spatial and Operational planning levels

Session 1: Introduction

By way of introduction go back to the earlier units and recall how planning was defined. Loosely we said planning is identification of issues, objectives and strategies. It is important to note also that in Unit 3 we indicated that this identification of issues, objectives and strategies does not take place in a vacuum; rather it happens with certain modes.

- In this unit we focus at spatial levels at which planning occurs. Basically planning occurs at different levels that include state, regional and local. The module focuses primarily at the regional level.

- There are certain terms that you need to familiarise yourself with for this unit and they include: centralisation, decentralisation, and 'spatial planning'. We will deal with the first two in the next session; suffice it to say for this session let us define ‘spatial planning’. It refers to government locational decision by all spheres on which public investment must be made, it describes land use planning and zoning as well as other regulatory mechanisms. In essence it refers to degree to which administration is centralized or decentralized (two terms are dealt with by among others Asibuo, 2000; Assibey-Mensah, 2000). The term has become more popular as compared to others, which may be accurate, such as town planning, physical planning, and land-use planning.

- Our focus is not necessarily ‘spatial planning’ but rather the levels of those planning.

- Friedman (2005) is one of the authors who have dealt substantially with the subject of planning. He has 3 contribution chapters referred to for the purposes of this module.
in the first chapter he argues that planning is not value free (recall the normative mode of planning discussed in unit 3). He stresses the idea of planning cultures. This refers to ways, both formal and informal, that spatial planning in a given multi-national, region, country or city is conceived, institutionalised and enacted.

Planning is therefore embedded in political cultures of the country whether it is in unitary state, federal, or state in transition or market economy country.

- other factors that also influence spatial planning and these include level of economic growth ranging from impoverished economies (Third World countries) to low income societies (Russia, India, China,) to high income post-industrial societies. Poor countries are experiencing rapid urbanisation (urban population doubling every fifteen years in many Third World countries) while fully matured urbanized economies have few people remaining in rural areas therefore they experience inter-urban migration or immigrants from abroad.

- political cultures also matters, how far is participation allowed. This entails the differential role of civil society and how it influences planning eg in US its very active and its voice is heard far and wide, Japan imposed citizen participation on municipalities in the last years of the past century. By so doing cities were allowed to chair their futures without influence from the top. In late 90s citizen participation was reanimated in the form of neighbourhood development (machizukuri). By contrast civil society is non-existent in China so planners have the leeway to do as they please without accounting to the local citizens. Many Third World countries mirror the Chinese example when it comes to the role of civil society. Where it exists there are a lot of legislative pieces that mitigate against their performance.

- It should be noted that all planning systems are in movement or transition (changing with times).

- it is therefore a myth to say planning is the same globally. There are some similarities but peculiarities are also glaring and are influenced by different issues as alluded to above. The other factors that account for the differences are:

  - Lack of resources both financial and human. Friedman notes that no government at the present moment has neither resources nor the institutional capacity to meet even the basic needs of most African cities, hence reliance on donations. Plans can be available but they fall flat at implementation phase.
  - The burden of the past. Most Third World countries are still trying to address the injustices of the past. Interestingly they find themselves having to copy some of the development plans of their colonial master. A case in point is India that takes inspiration from British system which tries to separate political and administrative government. However, they fail to implement all these provisions in entirety. For instance in India the separation between political and administrative functions is usually blurred. Civil service is employed based on an interview that puts general knowledge above skills, hence civil servants criticised for lack of professionalism. Think of cadre deployment in SA, hence lots of corruption and related to land allocation and development rights. In India there are cities without Master Plan eg Calcutta. Hence some residents occupy the land that does not even appear on official maps and hence no legal standing. This is due partly because of the lack of reliable data.
  - Similarly in South Africa the Integrated Development Plan follows the international practices UK, New Zealand and Switzerland. While IDPs are celebrated as a form of strategic planning, they have been criticised for its neo-liberal approach that puts market forces ahead of securing equitable living environment for the previously disadvantaged. By so doing segregated development of the past has remained intact. A case in point will be a look at the City of Joburg where predominantly the inner city is characterised by burgeoning street economy geared towards survival. Otherwise massive growth has moved to shopping malls and suburbs.
  - land invasions are quite common in the form of squatters who have taken over cemeteries, unserviced land, and state/ public land in the outskirts of cities. Even those who have publicly given land they tend to redesign their space eg tangwena houses in Zimbabwe, Soweto, Diepsloot and many other townships. ‘quiet encroachment of the ordinary’.

lack of consultation in most cases (Salah El-Shakhs, 1997) due to the undemocratic nature of the state itself.

- While he notes peculiarities of planning cultures in each country and region, in his second chapter, Friedman (2005) argues that there are emerging general principles and trends which point to a ‘global planning culture’. This is a result of globalisation, a trend that has brought about interdependences between several nation states.
- he takes the view that spatial planning goes beyond professionalism and public institutions. It this way it is more inclusive, but not necessarily shaping, the complex processes of city building.

- new global trends are based on the understanding that the world’s cities are coalescing and increasing resembling each other. However, these trends must not substitute existing cultures but rather should be built into them. Let’s go through each of the new trends:

  o Planning as an innovative practice: Traditional forms of plans are seen as a way through governments are trying to restrain market forces in city-building processes. Typically they will be 10-year plans. However, cities in the contemporary dispensation everywhere are cities in movement. New challenges emerge now and then. Therefore a need for planning to be innovative, hence it can be conceived as an experiment and a “social learning process” (remember modes of panning in Unit 3)
  o Expanding the scope of planning: Planners are being trained to go beyond physical planning and land use to include all the four dimensions of urban development (spatial, environmental, socio-cultural and economic.)
  o Expanded and multiple scales of planning: so many levels of planning from national, municipality, district, street office, residents committees that are loosely coordinated as in Shanghai.
  o Planning for the endogenous development: caring for and improving the asset base of a city through marketing which effectively development from is within. An endogenous (self-reliance) development aims for a robust, livable and more egalitarian city through strengthening human, social, cultural, intellectual, natural, environmental and urban assets in order to compete globally. A good example is Cairo in Egypt.
  o Planning for cities of difference: this refers to diversity which exists in many fronts that include age, gender, occupation, language, religion, length of stay in the city. All these diversities need careful management through suitable policies lest they lead to violence between different groups. Therefore plans must be developed with this difference in mind.
  o The critical role of civil society: they are crucial in defending especially the rights of the most disempowered. They work independently of the state. Examples would include women’s and environmental movements. Some are developed as resistance to state policies such as removal of squatters eg Leeuwarden (Livables) Rotterdam, Abahlali baseMjondolo, residents associations etc. These organisations need to work with government though if they are to carry their mandate successfully.
  o A strategic focus for planning: long term projection of the cities normally over a long period of town such as Joburg Vision 2020, Hong Kong Vision 2030: planning vision and strategy. Strategic planning serves many purposes ranging from political to economic future of the city. Masterplans fall under this section but it must be noted that major interventions cannot contained by traditional forms of planning.
  o The governance of spatial planning: planning for 21st city regions is inherently a collaborative practice. All stakeholders must be involved since no one would like to be coordinated under the plan which is not their own making hence some cities have abandoned masterplans altogether eg Vancouver in British Colombia. All stakeholders involvement is the hallmark of IDPs in South Africa. Planning must be transparent enough for public scrutiny. Action planning is a daunting task though that needs visionary and high quality leadership.

In the third chapter Friedmann (2005) makes a conclusion of his thesis by noting the following about the future of spatial planning:

- Urbanisation will continue to grow hence planning to cope with this phenomenon is always necessary.
- While urbanisation continues to grow, it must be noted that it does not follow that there will one culture. Globalisation has led to a lot of similarities but the peculiarities will always be there, hence planners must face their own different challenges.
- Planning has become more innovative, less regulatory and more entrepreneurial.
- Planning should go beyond focusing on physical landuse to include all other aspect of a livable city.
- For effectiveness planning must be done at different scales - national, regional, district, neighbourhood
- Inter-city competition is a race to nowhere, hence planners must focus more on endogenous strategies.
The one-size fits all approach must be dumped. Cities must be innovative and planning should be designed to meet differences that exist within citizens.

Civil society must be active in planning.

Masterplans may be intellectually satisfying concept but not a practical idea. IDPs in South Africa have been criticised for pushing the neo-liberal agenda at the expense of benefitting the majority. Hence the essay suggests action planning.

Action planning is inherently collaborative and takes face-to-face interactive encounters among principal stakeholders over a period of time. Collaboration is essential because no stakeholder has the ability to act on their own without the voluntary collaboration of others.

Session 2: Decentralisation

For the purposes of this session read your study guide Unit 4.2 in conjunction with the articles from your Reader by Scoones (pgs 316-335); Assibey-Mensah (pgs 374-379) and Asibu (2000) reading (pgs 366-373). With practical examples from these reading you must be able to explain decentralisation, its advantages and disadvantages.

- Decentralisation is the central concept that we will tackle in this session while navigating our way towards an understanding spatial planning levels.

- the term assumes there is another end called centralisation. In the immediate post-independence era most African countries assumed centralized planning hoping it will help them achieve rapid socio-eco-political development. In other words decision making was confined to the central government. However, let’s point out that centralisation and decentralisation are relative terms. Just like we indicated in Unit 3 these two terms can be understood to be in a continuum as well and planning takes place within this continuum. Whatever the case, it must be emphasised that all decisions must not be made at only one level, even in a single country. Therefore there are many levels at which planning takes place. In this module we will not dwell on centralisation since our focus is on decentralisation.

Definitions

-Generally, decentralisation is a term used to describe the manner in which power and authority for decision making and implementation is organised in government or organisation.

- it is transfer of authority and responsibility for public functions from central government to peripheral institutions.

- the foregoing definitions may give an impression that decentralisation is a singular and clear cut concept. That is far from the truth. In practise it is a process that comes in different forms, it is rarely a singular process. Hence Scoones, et.al (2008) speak of multiple decentralisations. In other words it has many variants, which include:

   - Political/democratic decentralisation:
   - Deconcentration / administrative
   - Delegation
   - Devolution
   - Fiscal
   - Privatization
   - Participatory local governance (WB 1997, Manor 2000; Ribot 2001)

In policy and practice it is the first three issues are reflected by decentralisation and these are democratisation, decentralisation for efficient delivery of services as well as project based/sectoral decentralisation.

-Asibu (2000) also agrees and notes that decentralisation is a political process of transferring power through deconcentration (limited and minimal transfer of power to subnational agents as agents of the centre. Think of the provincial offices of departments such as public works, land affairs, environment affairs in South Africa. Their duty is to carry the instructions of central government) or devolution (conferring the legal powers of executing certain functions to local authorities or agencies. These authorities also have the powers to impose levies and fees and run
their own budgets. In other words when devolution takes place certain functions are executed at sub-national level (states, regions, districts and local councils). Please note the different levels of planning that the authors are referring to. A third variant of decentralisation called delegation can be placed between deconcentration and devolution. Delegation refers to subnational governments rather than branches of national government are responsible for delivering certain services subject to supervision by central government. Think of the provincial government departments run by MECs in South Africa. Intergovernmental fiscal transfers characterises the relationship between central and subnational government.

Advantages of decentralisation

- it places local government at the centre of investment, fiscal and regulatory authority that have a bearing on local economic growth.

- local governments are seen as best suited to handle service delivery for necessities such as water, electricity, housing, education and health.

- the third point would be governance: Local governments are seen as more legitimate as they are closer to the people they serve. It also increases chances of participation by those who are supposed to benefit from the development initiatives.

Advantages of decentralisation

- decentralisation in principle increases participation but in practice is only for a few individuals especially the elite.

- where national and local government do not coincide it can be challenging to implement national policy. Just to get you thinking, cast your eye to the provincial or municipality controlled by an opposition party eg Western Cape in South Africa, major cities of Bulawayo, Harare, Gweru and Mutare in Zimbabwe.

- while it generates more resources it may generate more demand thereby resulting in difficulties to maintain control by the national government.

- it can also be disguised for political expediency by eg one party state as what happened in Zambia.

In order to understand further the concept of decentralisation let’s focus on the literature provided for this unit. Let’s start with Scoones, etal (2008).

- the central thesis of this reading is that decentralisation is complex and must not be seen as a panacea to development.

- in its pure decentralisation assumes that: there are free and fair elections; money will be available from the central state; traditional systems will erode with time and be substituted by modern administrative structures; decision making on budgets occurs at local level and not at the centre. This model and ideal is an import from well-established Western democracies, hence the assumption that all actors will be fair in the political arena and doing it in the interests of the public. What we tend to see in many African countries is therefore policy fantasy of decentralisation.

- while decentralisation is rooted in neo-liberal thinking of efficiency in service delivery (market forces) and good governance, in fact in Southern Africa it also has anecdotes of the colonial policy of proxy local leaders (traditional authorities).

Articles by Asibuo (2000) and Assibey-Mensah (2000) are the other two major readings for this theme. Read together with Scoones etal (2008) please note that:

- Decentralisation is one single reform mostly prescribed for the developing world. Scoones (2008:316) also notes decentralisation, like sustainable development and good governance, is what everyone at the World Bank thinks is a ‘good thing’. Hence it has become one of the world’s best known development clichés.
Theory and practice are different or at least have variations in Third World countries. Thus decentralisation provides an incentive for co-operation among societal groups, making it possible for an array of political groups to participate in decision-making. It carries the democratisation agenda for Africa. Because of the democratisation agenda a number of international donors and organisations are involved in the case of Ghana and they include: Danish International Agency, Canada IDA, SNV, UNCEU, who have directed their efforts to District Assemblies. However, in reality there is resistance to this democratisation process.

- while Scoones cites Southern African case studies, Asibu (2000) and Assibey-Mensah (2000) focus on Ghana. They note that Jerry Rawlings Provisional National Defence Council is credited with the restructuring of Ghana’s economic and political structures where in November 1988 110 district and metropolitan assemblies were established. That as it may decentralisation is best with a plethora of challenges that include:

- Incomplete integration: 10 years after implementation some of the decentralised departments are yet to relocate. Those that did have to content with poor quality staff. Central government staff at the districts still report to Accra.
- Human resources: by January 1996, only 35 out of 110 districts had qualified districts coordinators. The problem was worsened by reluctance by some civil servants to relocate to rural areas. Assibey-Mensah a few of grassroots governors have managerial and financial skills (think of SA the much talked about cadre deployment. The new local government minister Pravin Godharm wants to turn around the management system in local government).
- Coordination of training programmes and donor support: No strategy had been devised to coordinate training programmes and donor agents efforts.
- Legislative delays: generally the legislation making is too slow.
- Composite budget: there have been delays in introducing composite budgets at (district assemblies) DA level.
- Failure to establish sub-district level structures: largely due to legislative difficulties.
- Lack of basic office equipment
- Financial difficulties: despite funding DA Common Fund they assemblies have found it difficult to operate within budgets. Assibey-Mensah p19 notes that DAs are charged with administering 87 functions but with inadequate resources they resort to taxing everything in sight resulting in citizens protesting.
- Assibey-Mensah talks of the Weak community involvement: since DA largely depend on taxes it therefore means those in rich areas will have more resources as compared to those in poor areas hence participation in poor areas is likely to be minimal (migrant labour also contributes to this phenomenon).

In Mozambique from independence up to 1990 the country experienced 'democratic centralism' under one-party state. In 1990 a new dispensation that followed the discourse of 'bureaucratic decentralism' was introduced. In June 2001 saw the introduction of Public Sector Reform Strategy that identified decentralisation and deconcentration as main factors to improve the efficiency of the public sector. June 2001 saw the introduction of Public Sector Reform Strategy that identified decentralisation and deconcentration as main factors to improve the efficiency of the public sector.

- however, the strategy did not give the legislative framework for the accountability of local government. Therefore the reforms were seen as steps towards decentralisation.

- in the dawn of 1994 multi-party polls a reform law was passed which envisaged municipalisation of all cities and districts but its constitutionality was in doubt hence it never came into force.

- in 1997 a municipal legislative reform was passed differentiating the rural and urban areas. And it provided for the elected representative with devolved powers to run these areas through own source revenues and intergovernmental transfers. However by 2008 only 23 urban municipalities and 10 rural centres had been established. Most of the rural communities have been left out of the political decentralisation process and hence remain subject to central control through the three-tier deconcentrated system of central government, provincial government and district administration.

- therefore Mozambique exhibits a picture of highly selective commitment to political decentralisation.

In Zimbabwe decentralisation was installed through the Prime Minister decree of 1984 to parallel party structures established during the liberation war.
VIDCOs, WardCos and DIDCOs were superimposed on traditional authority of chiefs and headmen. Source of conflict hence some chiefs also wanted to be councillors in some areas. New structures had no financial support from the government hence in the late 90s the VIDCOs effectively collapsed and were substituted with a hybrid that brought traditional authorities back in.

In South Africa decentralisation SA is based on multi-tiered system of elected local government countrywide. The government is very committed to the system and significant investment has been made.

- it is driven by the belief that many functions can be driven effectively at local and also that national government wants to relieve itself of fiscal pressure and administrative responsibilities.

- funding is from own revenues, project specific funds from Treasury, the ‘equitable share’

- administrative decentralisation is also underway eg Land Affairs has provincial and district offices.

- democratic decentralisation is complicated by continued existence of ‘traditional authority’. Think about land ownership in KwaZulu Natal in the light of the Ingonyama Trust. Unelected chiefs and elected councillors find themselves in conflict since the role of traditional leadership is blurred.

- while the commitment for decentralisation is there, the ANC seems suspicious with alternative power centres especially in former homelands.

We should note that decentralisation is indeed a contested terrain as shown by conflicts from different stakeholders especially the traditional leadership and the elected local government authorities. So instead of promoting development, decentralisation has become a source of struggle.

Case studies from Southern Africa

Scoones etal, (2008) makes three case studies that demonstrate the complexities decentralisation in Third World countries. A number of themes and challenges, around negotiating resources, emerge from these case studies:

- Negotiating institutional complexity: because there are a number of role players, decentralisation cannot just be the ‘transfer of power’ to local authorities. People at local level should negotiate legal and institutional frameworks some of which are conflictual. NGOs and administrative authorities have a tendency to run parallel structures which in Bojane, Mozambique, was described as ‘committee disease’. Participation is also costly for local people as they have to travel to attend meetings.

- In Zimbabwe the catchment council hydrological boundaries cut across administrative and political boundaries end up serving people in different districts which are a source of frustration and conflict. This due to the fact that catchment boundaries are not aligned to district boundaries (focal administrative point). In Chipinge the water authority ZINWA is seen as exercising ‘virtual taxation’ of local people by collecting water fees. Therefore local communities face a challenge of accessing key livelihoods due to multiple decentralisations.

- Accountability, authority and legitimacy: the main source of competition and conflict in Africa is between new local government players and traditional authorities. A case in point is in Zimbabwe where Chimanimani traditional leaders think they are the custodians of water authorities yet Budzi Sub-Catchment Council argues it has that authority. In SA land issues are a source of conflict between councillors and traditional leaders (Mdudwa Village in SA). Power is thus invested in people with different agendas to that of the livelihoods of people.

- Power and politics: inevitably decentralisation is characterised by power contestations by those who want to control resources which blurs authority and accountability. While democratic decentralisation can easily be devolved there are many ways in which bureaucrats can keep a grip on resources eg mayors and municipal managers that are accountable to central politics. Even traditional authorities may manufacture ‘participation’. Generally administrative centres will be too far from some of the people the municipality covers hence participation will be confined to those who are closer, hence the concept of ‘elite capture’. In Zim the contemporary situation has brought into one politics and planning, especially in resettled areas.
where authority is reserved for ZanuPF members. Opposition affiliated councils have been rendered useless by war vets and youth militias in rural areas.

- Relationship between central state and local authorities: even before political turmoil, Zim authorities were criticised of entrenching state authority through local government authorities. The much talked about CAMPFIRE has been criticised for overlooking local people’s immediate needs. The 1999 Traditional Leaders Act (provides for the payment for traditional leadership) is seen as a way of extending political hegemony. And indeed chiefs are by default members of ZanuPF who even attend the party congress.

- Resources and capacity: In practice decentralisation seems to be allocating resources to the centre while devolving responsibilities to local levels. Multiple resource flows also means district based staff must respond to multiple authorities hence it’s difficult to hold district level staff accountable. There is also a high turnover of staff at district level thereby threatening stability.

**Livelihood implications**: demand-led service delivery can be enhanced through decentralisation as localized political channels will be used for expression. Eg Amatole Land Reform in SA, water catchment councils in Zimbabwe. However, it should be noted that as case studies have demonstrated, enhancing capacity for articulation and channeling grievances does not necessarily lead to better service delivery. Localised grouping may be exclusionary eg War vets situation in Zimbabwe. Again decentralised management of resources (page 332) may be susceptible to interest and involvement in management institutions by key individuals who help finance community initiatives eg borehole seizures by some groups in Zimbabwe.

**Conclusions: Towards an ideal decentralisation**

-Scoones, etal, (2008) suggest that certain steps can be taken towards an ideal decentralisation

- Avoiding parallel structures: multiple decentralisation is potentially costly high for the poor. Thus it can be time consuming (visiting too many offices, attending meetings, negotiating across authority structures) and may require cash they can ill afford to spend (bribes, travel). It may also be political contingent hence the current practices of decentralisation in Africa may not be good at all for livelihoods. There are too many question marks, trade-offs and tensions in implementing it in the African context. The ‘committee disease’ noted in Moz case study characterises many of the decentralisations in Africa. Donor support has made situations worse at times by failing to realise interaction between local government and sector-based support (line ministries) structures (332).

-decentralisation is not a panacea for development: thus creating local structures my result in alliances that divert development initiatives. Eg issues of gate-keeping between local government authorities and traditional leaders in SA. Wishing time will heal these division may be naïve and inappropriate.

- Appreciating social differentiation: decentralisation brings in new dimensions of social organisation to an already a complex environment characterised by contestations among the rich and the poor, age, sexes, ethnic groups and gender among other factors. The question is who gets what resources? Hence even elections of councillors will be based on a number of social networks. Therefore decentralisation may have an exclusionary effect. Elites, especially men will certainly be the first to benefit in any development initiative eg sanitation and water programs funded by an NGO called ORAP in Zimbabwe. The first to have protected wells and Blair toilets were the powerful in the communities. Therefore an assessment of the differentiation will be important before any development initiatives are implemented.

- Improving capacity beyond the council: effort has been directed at new decentralised government authorities who are often inefficient, overtly bureaucratic and sometimes corrupt organisations. Therefore there is need to go beyond council compound to empowering rural and village structures.

- Offer real power and real resources: cautious and bankrupt governments may resists devolution of power and budgets resulting in competition for resources between line ministries and new local government structures. If real resources and real power is not handed to local administrators it hampers their efforts. Many local authorities have limited sources and this coupled with corruption means some authorities are in a state malfunctioning. A case in point is in SA where Minister Pravin Gordham is not reconfiguring some municipalities in order to make them viable. Some municipalities can’t even raise enough money to pay for the often over bloated workforce. In Zimbabwe the tax base has been eroded with the contested land
reform. Hence government is grappling with how to raise revenues especially in the rural areas and not be construed for the colonial hut tax. People will legitimately ask why attend the meetings if the councilor cannot deliver anything?

Session 3: Regional Planning

As the discussion in session 2 has demonstrated, decentralisation is more than delegating authority. It has many assumptions and one of them would be to change attitude of civil servants. If certain styles of national administration are merely repeated at lower spatial level, decisions taken at lower level may end up not being responsive to local needs than those taken at national level. Therefore new mechanisms should be developed where resources and essential services should be placed in the hands of those whose lives are affected by them. We therefore turn to one of the three planning levels which is regional. Therefore this session specifically focuses on the ‘region’ as the spatial level of planning.

It is important to understand the relationship between the concepts of decentralisation and region because when countries decentralise they normally do so to the regional level irrespective of how they (regions) are defined. As Friedman (2005) in our discussion in session 1 indicated for effectiveness planning must be done at different scales - national, regional, district, and neighbourhood.

Let’s proceed by way of attempting to define the concept of ‘region’. In our discussion we will use material from the study guide subsection 4.3 and the article by Todorova (2005) pp pgs 97-116.

A region can be conceptualized as a sub-division of national space using a certain criteria, be it physical or socio-spatial diversity. There is no unique way to delimit regions, which can exist at any scale. Regions can be as big as the province (Zimbabwe) or as small as the district (Kenya, Botswana).

Different countries refer to regions with different names such as provinces or districts. The diversity in definition is due to the fact that the concept is both a political and social construct. Notions of religion, race, gender as socially constructed systems of marked and unmarked categories.

Regions are formed through some of the following criteria or features:

a) Human features (ethnicity, language, religion)

b) Topographical features (lowveld, highveld, valleys)

c) Climatic conditions

d) Economic features

e) Political considerations (artificially drawn boundaries as is the case with Africa where the borders were created by colonialists at the Berlin Conference of 1884)

While the foregoing is true, we must not lose sight and oversimplify matters. As Todorova (2005) points out regions are not just sub-national, they can be supra-national (think of economic and political groupings such EU, SADC, COMESA, and some grouping that are not that formal such as as NATO).

As pointed earlier when countries decentralise they do so to the region, irrespective of how they are formed, although power and authority differ from country to country. Two types of authority can be identified:

• Development authorities that are responsible for planning process (formulating and implementation including coordinating various organisations that are responsible for implementation)

• Authorities that are responsible for implementing grassroot projects. The main function is coordinating horizontal development activities.
- It should be noted that regional and national plans are interdependent. Regional plans use development programmes and projects initiated at local level as inputs to national plan; and plans that have been formed at regional level in turn depend on policies that have been crafted at central level (think of how prices of commercial crops such as cotton, sunflower, cocoa, etc affect farming patterns. They are set at national and in turn regions find themselves having to scale up or down production).

- The relationship between national and regional planning can either be top-down (national government provides a framework and more detail will be added at local level) or bottom-up (local population or government officials at local level or both groups formulate the plans which are welded into village, sub-regional, regional and sectoral which ultimately feed to national plans). Both approaches are essential and they should not be treated as alternatives.

- In the bottom-up planning, the development plans are based on the potential of the region's resources (physical, economic and social). It ensures optimal use of resources including local participation. Third World countries can use their human resources optimally under this approach.

- If top-down approaches disregard inputs obtained from bottom-up approach the result could be a number of theoretical plans that are irrelevant to the local population.

- Conversely if bottom-up is not harmonised with top-down the result might be a series of plans of which few will reach the implementation phase.

**Regional planning and coordination**

- The latter is very important in any regional plan especially when planning is participatory and community based.

- Regional commission should have a seat for all relevant departments (stakeholders). You may want to refer to mitigation initiatives in the form of community gardens in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe after the government's Operation Murambatsvina (loosely translated as Drive Out Trash) around 2005. Civil society, local government authorities, faith-based organisation, NGOs and the affected communities formed all stakeholders committees.

- Recall the problems we noted in session 2 in our discussion about decentralisation. The lack of coordination between government and NGOs was highlighted as one of the problems that complicates decentralisation. In the same manner planning and implementation must be coordinated. Without coordination the following problems might occur:

  o Duplicated overhead expenses
  o Haphazard phasing in of activities that might be working on a similar project.
  o No consultation with local communities
  o Competition for the same resources
  o Interdepartmental competition at district level resulting in wastage of scarce resources.

- Rural development is cited as an example where there is lack of coordination. Rigid vertical lines of authority are maintained between departments and their ministries making multi-sectoral approach impossible.

- Coordination results in flexibility and therefore the amendment of programmes become possible (recall the planning modes dealt with in Unit 3, viz Disjointed Incremental Planning and the Learning process planning). For optimum coordination you need, among others, dual structure for officials and public; recognised geographical unit to do the coordination; field administrators should be able to make decisions and not merely act as information conveyers; consensus on priority projects; procedures for reporting, control and supervision should be made.

- Regional planning should take place in a sustainable way, hence the regional planning and ecology interface. Ecology refers to the study of interactions between organisms and between organisms and their environment. That takes us to ecosystems which refer to total physical and biological components of an area and biodiversity refers to
different kinds of life in a particular ecosystem. It dovetails to the concept of sustainable development discussed in the introduction to this module. Therefore ecological experts must be involved in regional planning to make sure that development planning is done in a responsible way hence environmental impact assessments.

- To understand the origins of the concept of region read further the article by Todorova (2005) from your Reader.

- The central argument of the article is that the notion of historical legacy, insofar as it allows more clearly to articulate the dynamism and fluidity of historical change, has numerous advantages over other more structural categories of analysis utilized thus far in the literature, such as borders, space, territoriality, etc.

- It therefore appears to be the most appropriate category for analyzing long-term regional developments by avoiding the reification of latter-day regions. The case is made for historical legacy as an analytical tool both theoretically and concretely, by applying the category to Europe in general and in particular to Eastern Europe and the Balkans.

- Regions have come to be conceptualized on national identities. Where before it was seen as simply as leftovers of provincial mentalities co-opted to the idealized nation state, today they seen as resistance to centralized authority and harbingers of reform and democracy.

- They can be seen as a base for accommodating ethnic and economic differences.

- Borders are the preferred definition of regions in many development planning circles. However, it is a problem with this kind of definition is that borders themselves keep on changing (in South Africa we have classic cases which the Demarcation Board is grappling with. Borders are adjusted now then. Recently people of Malamulele in Limpopo were asking for their separate municipality. If acceded to it means some form of regional borders have to be redefined). Hence studies have shifted from border to space. This focuses on cohesive processes and structures within the entity. However, it also faces problems of essentialism creeping ion via the backdoor.

- Todorova (2005) therefore argues for historical legacies as preferred approach to defining regions: this does not displace notion of space but rather retains valuable features of spatiality and adds to it the vector of time, making it more historically specific. The examples are many and would include: Roman, Ottoman, the communist periods in Eastern Europe.

- While there are a plethora of definitions; the common denominator is that a region ‘is a territory or an area in some way demarcated or at least spatially defined’. The regions must possess some form of internal similarities, cohesion and affinity. In the case of South Africa there is a multi-tier system hence ‘region’ can be understood at different levels of the province, district municipalities and local municipalities.

**Session 4: The Operational Levels of Development Planning**

The focus in this session is how the implementation of plans happens because regional plans are created in order to be operationalised.

- When regions implement plans they adopt one of the following strategies:

  1. In the form of project plans (project planning). Usually projects are implementable in smaller parts of the of larger programmes that flow directly from national policies. The drawback is that programmes usually last longer than the lifespan of project. The projects are specific in all their facets ranging from time, resources and line of activities [recall blue print mode of planning discussed in unit 2]. A case in point would be IDPs which are implemented as Local Economic Development (LED) projects at local level.

  2. According to economic sectors (sectoral planning). It’s probably the easiest as department does both planning and implementation using its administrative structures. For example Department of Transport plans roads and implement their plans; health department may plan to combat malaria or outbreak of cholera. However, it goes against coordination as discussed in earlier sessions. It may result in reduplication of projects which results in inefficient use of scarce resources. Hence there is a call for integrated planning.

  3. By integrating a number of sectors (integrated area planning).
For this session our interest is on integrated planning. It is planning undertaken for all functional sectors or activities in a particular geographical area.

Beyond coordination, integrated planning aims to create functional and spatial harmony between the various sectors to make sure resources are effectively distributed among different sectors.

Third World countries are set to benefit from integrated planning because of the inefficiencies of central government. It is useful where decentralisation has been implemented.

Since 1996 South Africa has come up with regional integrated development plans, LED strategies, integrated sustainable rural development strategies. IDPs are determined at regional level (as defined by the Municipal Systems Act of 2000) and translated to LEDs at local municipal planning levels. These plans are multi-sectoral as they are implemented across a number of sectors. NB just check which sectors are involved and what are their roles in an IDPs. Ultimately IDPs are implemented as projects the local municipalities’ level.

On the negative side most Third World countries lack suitable organisational structures to handle IDPs. Existing structures are hierarchical and centrally oriented.

An article in your Reader by Pycroft (2000) chronicles how IDPs are formulated and implemented. It will help you understand the relationship between Integrated Development Planning and Rural local governments as well as regional development planning discussed earlier. Some of the points you might want to note are:

- the article contextualises the rural area situation in South Africa. SA’s rural poverty can be traced from apartheid and its oppressive policies and legislations that confined black people to areas considered non-urban. So historically, the system created regions that were based on racial segregation and for the blacks it was areas unsuitable for habitation.

- as a result post-independence, especially 1994-96, the government set about addressing especially land redistribution and restitution in rural areas. The drive was however negatively impacted upon by introduction of GEAR which sort of changed focus from RDP.

- 1997 Land Affairs and Agriculture department introduced the Rural Development Framework which advocated for a holistic rural development framework. It echoes in the main the principles of Sustainable Rural Livelihoods.

- rural municipalities face a lot of challenges, among them financial viability and administrations.

- The government also quickly noticed that 843 councils it created after democracy were unsustainable and needed rationalization. The process was guided by the White Paper on Local Government of March 1998. It emphasized developmental local government. It sort to integrate previously disadvantaged areas with former whites only places. It also sort to improve democratisation agenda and include local participation in assembling local plans through Integrated Development Planning (IDP). It aimed at moving away from controlling development to facilitating development. Development municipalities were to become principal agents of LED. Basically it followed new public management tenets of competition, privatization, performance management and customer power (Pycroft, 2000).

- the developmental local government was to be brought into effect through Municipal Demarcation Act (1998); Municipal Structures Act (1998) and Municipal Systems Act (2000). -the Systems law outlines the integrated approach to address the existing systems weaknesses.

- however, just like the concepts of decentralisation and region discussed in sessions 2 and 3, IDPs mean different things according to contexts. A lot of coordination is required between local municipalities (category B) and district municipalities (category C) for the effective formulation and implementation of IDPs. The latter coordinates IDPs of all categories B under it to make sure there are synergies. These are horizontal dimensions of the IDPs.

- because of resource constraints, municipalities also have a vertical dimension with provincial and national tiers.

- in the North West province, beyond elected councillors they also created space for proportional representative councillors to make sure that everyone is represented by a named councilor within a certain zone. Each councilor
chairs a zonal forum which is a non-statutory body (remember Zimbabwe's VIDCOs, WARDCO's and DIDCOs systems discussed in earlier sessions). Please recall the formation of regions debate as well. Zones referred to here are more formed on border line bases. The cited Rustenburg IDP uses the zonal approach to make sure that each zone benefits from a range of projects that include transport, roads, sanitation, storm-water, and waste disposal among others. Thus it's approach to integrated rural development ensures not only a mechanism for consultation and participation from the Village forums upwards but also provides the technical support to achieve cost-effective service delivery.

-As discussed under decentralisation it must be noted that land in rural Rustenburg is predominantly owned by the state under tribal trust. Local authorities therefore encounter problems in enforcing bylaws on land under tribal control. Therefore the solution has been to seek compromise by including traditional leadership in Village, Zonal and District forums.

-the plans also emphasize development of social capital hence coopting of civil societies that existed prior to 1994 to the political and institutional structures of the council. Community halls have been constructed and help with development of human capital. Physical capital is core business of the District Municipality as per the 5-year cycles of the IDPs.

-the municipality still needs vertical and horizontal linkages to source funds for capital projects. This is where the problem lies in that they might not acquire enough funds from provincial and national government.

**TASK:** Visit your local municipality and if you can ask to go through their IDP. Analyse it using the Sustainable Rural Livelihoods or the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach in general. Share your analyses with the group in this forum.

**Session 5: Conclusion**

As a way of conclusion let's recall these major and redefine and briefly explain them:
- Development planning;
- Centralization/Regional planning; and
- Operational levels of planning (particularly integrated development planning).

Are there any of you who answered question 5 of the essays? If so may you share some of the points you raised in your assignments?

I will also note some points for you by tomorrow morning.

**Study Unit 5: Foreign institutions as actors in development planning**

**Session 1: Introduction-key concepts**

before we tackle this unit, cast your mind back to earlier units. In Unit 2 we touched on who are the development planners. In other words we can rephrase and start this unit by saying who the stakeholders are in development planning. You will notice that they are many, including, government, NGOs, civil society, foreign agencies, traditional authorities, and the local communities themselves.

-In chapter 1 we learnt by implication the effects of foreign aid on Third World Countries.

-In this unit we go deeper into foreign agencies as actors in development and how their activities are so intertwined with foreign aid. As we discuss the contents of this unit, please go to your Tutorial Letter DVA3701/101 and go through question 6 on page 19. Try to look for some answers to the question from our discussion. This question will partly act as a guide to the discussion of this unit.

-Development plans have become fashionable in Africa. This is so because without an official development plan, it is difficult to attract development aid. While aid does not constitute the bigger percentage of the government's aid, its
influence is normally disproportionate. Therefore this chapter also focuses on the effects of foreign aid organisations on development planning.

-There are key interrelated concepts that one needs to understand before going deeper into this unit. These are foreign aid, democratisation and good governance. Let’s briefly deal with each term:

**Foreign Aid:** It is that part of foreign aid whose aim is to contribute to the human welfare and development in poor countries (read as to reduce poverty). It is a definition that is defined from the angle of donors and not the recipients (Riddell, 2008: 18). So donors decide how much to be given and in what form. Generally development foreign aid came into the development discourse after the Second World War almost simultaneously with the reconstruction phase of the economies that had been shuttered by the war. The aid has continued up to today albeit in different formats.

**Democratisation:** This term refers to a shift towards more democratic political systems. While it has been lingering above the development discourse for some years, it must be pointed out that the democratisation wave gathered momentum in the post-Cold War era as Western democracies try to expand their influence to other parts of the world. As the previous century drew to an end, in the development discourse it became apparent that it was more than ‘getting prices right’ but rather to also ‘getting politics right’ (Hyden 1997: pp359 in the reader). Thus in the 1990s, development therefore became much a matter of not just providing goods and services but rather providing an economic and political framework to allow initiatives to flourish (Hyden; p361).

-as we will discuss in the latter sessions democratisation became one of the conditions for receiving foreign aid. The belief was that development will thrive in a democratic dispensation where everyone’s voice is heard.

-Foreign donors have become some of the most prominent emissaries of democracy in Africa. One of their prominent demands is the ‘free and fair’ elections mantra and it’s rubrics are expected to match well established Western democracies. Foreign donors have thus become a form of a strong democracy pressure group in many Third World countries. However, it must be noted that the recipient countries have very little influence in the democratisation process hence some of the problems we will point out later emanate from the fact that democratisation is more of an influence from the top, instead of the intended participatory approaches and inclusiveness in planning and implementation.

**Good governance:** to understand good governance we must define governance first. According to UN Development Plan (1997:1) defines governance as comprising of mechanisms, processes, and institutions through which collective decisions are made and implemented, the public, groups and communities pursue their visions, articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Good governance therefore deals with the processes of making and implementing ‘good’ decisions for a country. Its core characteristics include: transparency, participation, responsiveness, accountability, legitimacy, partnership, rule of law, consensus orientation, equity, effectiveness and efficiency, strategic vision, resource prudence, empowering and enabling, spatial grounding in communities (Davids, Theron and Maphunye; 2009:65). South Africa has made strides towards good governance through eg decentralisation, National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC), Bato Pele initiatives, etc, although the situation on the ground tends to dilute these good intentions

- Governance became an important issue in the development discourse following the World Bank Report (1998) in which it was argued that development aid reduces poverty and stimulate economic growth but if only recipient countries have good economic management (governance) ie good economic policies and strong institutions.

**Session 2: Historical background of foreign development aid**

as indicated in the first session it was alluded that development foreign aid is a post Second World War phenomenon. This was an era when the current notion of development was born. While the major countries involved in the war ceased hostilities and started rebuilding their shattered economies, a new ‘conflict’ arose. Instead of physical fighting, the new battle was ideological. It was a war between capitalism and communism which is popularly known as the ‘Cold War’.

- The Western block, as it were, led by the US championed the new ideological offensive in the development discourse arena. The Truman Doctrine of 1947 stressed that Third World countries had to be assisted so as to preempt Communist takeover (Hyden, 1997: p359 in your reader).
therefore it can be argued that it was this fear and desire to win the Cold War that drove Western countries' development assistance after the World War II. The aid was a tool to win allies in the Third World countries and not that the donating states necessarily wanted to improve the welfare of the recipients. Suffice it to note, as the saying goes, there is no free lunch; it is always about what is in it for me.

- Aid comes in many forms, among others, of helping with policy, training policy makers, financial support, and expanding public services or bringing experts to help with development projects.

- Development foreign aid has evolved over the years helping with success in countries such Botswana and Republic of Korea in the 1960s; Indonesia 1970s, Bolivia and Ghana in 1980s, Uganda and Vietnam in the 1990s. On the flipside in some countries it has been a spectacular failure as in Zaire (DRC) under Mobutu Sese Seko where international donors did not keep track as corruption, misguided policies and incompetence that hampered all the efforts of aid (WB Policy Research Report 1998). Under the failing countries, it should be noted that it was mostly in era where conditionalities such as good governance and democratisation were not yet so prominent. By then most of the aid was channelled through government and those in power lined their pockets with most of the aid.

- AS A FORM OF ASSIGNMENT I want you to research on four countries that have received aid, two must have good governance and democracy and the other two must not. Explain how effective has the aid been in those countries. Share your findings with colleagues on this platform [read Hermes and Lensik, 2001: p 406 of reader on the effectiveness of aid].

- as indicated earlier, foreign aid has evolved over the years together with international development discourse and trends. From the onset of foreign aid up to the 1960s, receiving governments were the principal agents of international aid. Remember Western donor countries intended using them as bulwarks against communism.

- by the 1970s donors were beginning to realise that, especially in Africa, governments did not only lack capacity but also commitment to the objectives they had initially set. Hence they were seen as liability. At the same time there was increasingly a realisation that economic liberalization and growth of market was an alternative to resource allocation (economic). Secondly there was a discovery of other agents of development that can be used outside government (organisational).

- in the 1980s the development discourse shifted to ensuring people felt they have a stake in development initiatives and that the process is theirs (participatory approaches). Hence some aid organisations dedicated themselves to make sure the voices outside the state are heard. It was under such circumstances that the need for democratisation was amplified. You might want to research on how civil society is funded by international donors to advocate for ‘the voice of the voiceless’ to be heard. Think of organisations whose function is to educate masses about human rights, organisations that help communities fight for the rights of their natural resources, etc

- by the 1990s it was no longer business as usual of foreign countries pouring in resources to developing countries, the latter are expected to do things for themselves. This has become a source of conflict as politics and development have become so integrated. (A case study will be the relationship between government and NGOs in Zimbabwe post-2000 era).

- it is clear therefore that foreign development aid has a long history and it has changed depending on the international trends of the time. However, it must always be noted that aid if firmly controlled by the donors who determine what and how much must be given.

Session 3: Conditionalities to development foreign aid

- in our earlier sessions we indicated that in development aid there is always that question of what is in it for the ‘generous’ donor. We also mentioned that the definition of ‘foreign aid’ is donor-based as they determine what and when to give. It is for this reason that donors also set the rules that they attach to their aid; a case of ‘he who pays the piper calls the tune’. In the development discourse these rules are what we call conditionalities of development foreign aid.
-rules are about control. Development in itself is so intertwined with politics hence some commentators argue that politics is development and development is politics. Thus foreign aid is not pursued in a policy vacuum. It is to a large extent an extension of the foreign policy of donor countries (flashback to historical background of aid). Foreign aid becomes an instrument not only of promoting welfare of others but also promoting one’s status (Commonwealth and Francophone aid in Africa). As pointed out in session two, some Western countries have supported undemocratic states, especially during the Cold War as long as the countries were strategic in their fight against communism.

-Two of the main conditionalities discussed in this Unit are democratisation and good governance. When countries receiving aid are reluctant to accept the democratic agenda, foreign agencies are quickly to impose conditionalities for further aid.

-Democratisation and good governance have been so integrated with aid such that they are dominant in many initiatives. One of these initiatives is economic structural adjustment programme. We will use these structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) to illustrate the conditionalities attached to development aid.

-Of late foreign aid comes mostly in the form of SAPs policies and the emphasis is economic growth and efficiency. SAPs are generally the baby of the World Bank (WB) and International Monetary Fund (IMF). By introducing SAPs the bank aimed cutting down on social spending and subsidies, economic liberalization and privatisation of state parastatals.

-SAPs can be traced back to the multimillions that donors sent to developing countries in 1970s with disappointing results. The anticipated rapid economic growth that would result in ‘trickle-down’ effect did not materialize. Hence most recipient countries could not afford to pay back the loans let alone the profits. Therefore new conditions had to be set to avoid ploughing money into countries that would not pay back nor grow to a substantial level.

-the conditionalities that are prescribed under SAPs are: cut back on public spending, deregulating the economy, relaxing price control and foreign policy, balancing public spending with income from taxation, privatization, flexibility in labour market, increase in agriculture and industry spending, revising agriculture and energy prices.

-while not intrinsically bad, in many countries have worsened the economic and social conditions of the receiving countries. Take some time to research on what SAPs have done to countries like Malawi, Zimbabwe and Zambia. Generally the SAPs prescriptions are devoid of the situation on the ground hence the disastrous unintended consequences. They at times compromise sovereignty; they enhance the powers of the powerful rich nations and multinationals; deepen social welfare problems and hence undermine the country’s ability to tackle its problems. Their emphasis on a structural approach (set projects with set deadlines) is in direct conflict with for example learning process approach which allows for revision of the initiatives as implementation takes place.

-According to Hermes and Lensink (2001: p411 in your reader) the initial reaction to the lack of success of WB and IMF conditionalities was to impose more stringent conditionalities and shortening of programmes period in an effort to force receiving countries to further implement reforms. We shall tackle how these conditionalities impact on development planning in the next session.

-closely related to conditionalities of foreign aid, we must also discuss the issue of aid dependence.

-a country is aid dependent if it cannot achieve a certain objective in the foreseeable future without receiving aid. This is problematic because it means without foreign aid and expertise the recipient country cannot do even the basic government functions to meet the people’s basic needs.

-aid dependence can create an incentive for government and donors to undermine good governance and institutional quality. In other words it can create disincentive for development as long as those in the echelons of power receive the donor funds.

-However, it must be mentioned that high levels of aid is not always negative. For some countries like Botswana it proved to be useful as it helped them build basic infrastructure and became self-sustaining by depending in their own production. Therefore aid can be a temporary and useful phase of development. Yet in some countries dependence on aid has become by default a long term strategy. Can you do a research on the countries that are aid dependent.
Find out why and how aid dependence manifests itself in these countries. Share your findings with colleagues in this platform.

Currently in Burundi there are rumblings in the political circles over the intention of the incumbent President Pierre Nkurunziza's intention to stand to be elected for a third term. The international community is concerned with escalation of violence and many questions have been raised about the role of the police in the violence. One of the immediate responses has been the suspension of foreign aid by Belgium, which happens to be Burundi's biggest donor.

In answering why aid had been suspended the International Development Minister of Belgium Alexander De Croo indicated that, among other issues, it was difficult to keep financing elections that, according to the Observation Mission of the European Union and other organizations, will be neither free nor transparent.

Session 4: Aid conditionalities and development planning interface

In this session we would want to explore how the conditionalities discussed in session 3 affect development planning.

-in preparation for this session read the article by Hermes and Lensink (2001) in your reader. Try to link development planning and foreign aid.

DISCUSSION:

-having discussed the conditionalities that come with development foreign aid, it is important to note that there is a definite cause-effect relationship in these conditionalities and development planning in the receiving countries. Donor countries are involved in the design and implementation of programmes that are linked to development aid. They want to be involved in processes and methods of how donor funded projects and programmes are designed and executed. The effect of their involvement can either be good or bad but the bottom line is that there are effects.

-In Unit 1 we defined development planning as the process whereby the most appropriate action for realising overall policy objectives is decided on. It can either be institutional (innovative) by for instance introducing new governments departments or special units within the departments to address certain needs or it can be allocative, for instance by allocating financial resources and incentives for certain projects to be done.

-if we bring into this equation the conditionalities discussed in session 3 it therefore means donor countries have to determine the institutional and allocations processes for the receiving countries. For example under SAPs the receiving countries are expected to do away with the parastatals because they are deemed to be loss making. A case in point is when Malawi accepted to implement SAPs, prices of foodstuffs were increased by a wide margin. Farmers, both small and large scale, cashed on by selling their excess produce at a good price. However, one of the conditions imposed by the WB was to close the national agricultural board. In the process that deprived multitudes of the reserve they depended on in times of drought. In that sense SAPs, therefore, resulted in unintended negative effects.

-Conditionalities affect development planning due to the fact that they tend to ignore local situations. Thus the planning approaches/modes as discussed in Unit 3 are basically an export from the industrialised nations. Receiving countries are expected to copy and paste the foreign planning modes. If the plans are badly designed from the donor countries, it follows that they will be badly implemented. The foregoing is common due to the fact that the plans are normally devoid of local situations. Some of the projects would follow a rigid cycle of project planning and design developed largely by the WB.

-failure to appreciate the local situations has often resulted in chaotic government planning. In essence the foreign agent's development planners disturb the very development that they were supposed to advance. For instance a donor-funded project will designed in donor countries without involvement of the local recipients and at times in the implementation phase the donor agents will be involved to determine the sequence of events. The use of foreign experts is problematic in that some of them have an inclination towards generalizing about Africa, there is also a problem of communication gap, and tensions may arise between foreign and local staff. Closely related to the foregoing is the flypaper effect whereby those on the lower tier and implementation phase may increase prices to the
excess of what the higher tier planning officials provided. That miscommunication between planners and implementers will have a negative effect on development planning as it might mean some projects will not be finished or planners have to go back to the drawing board.

- one of the demands for democratisation is free and fair elections. The elections do not come cheap. They are expensive and in the name of democratisation at times the elections are donor-funded. Therefore democratisation can fall or stand on the amount of aid received. That presents a dilemma in the development planning arena as the question to ask is what will come first aid or democratisation.

- foreign aid conditionalities at times results in donors pulling leaders and alienate them from their constituencies in the name democratisation agenda resulting in parallel development programmes. That results in truncated planning and implementation similar to the situation we discussed in Unit 4.

- The World Report (1998) implied that aid was to be given according to the receiving country’s policy environment. Basing on that report the Dutch government cut recipient countries from 100 to 20 counties by selecting only those they deemed to have good governance. The thinking behind was that aid will be pumped to those countries with good governance and in turn that will stimulate growth and renders aid unnecessary in the long run.

- Hermes and Lensink (2001: p 412 from your reader) notes that some conditionalities may endanger grassroots support hence at times recipient governments just agree to conditionalities that they will not adhere to. That is sort of false planning as planners will spend a lot of time working on drafts that those in the corridors of power know very will never be implemented.

- As indicated earlier, too much aid may have unintended negative consequences of making the recipient aid dependent (negative growth). In other words too much aid may result in receiving countries not planning for local development at all but rather to wait to receive aid.

- However, it must be underlined that conditionalities are not bad per se, neither do they always negatively affect development planning. As stated by Hermes and Lensink (2001) the idea of setting conditions relating to the payment of aid is that it should lead to incentives for the government receiving the aid that assist them in carrying out policies that allow them to achieve their objectives, therefore, conditionality is there to increase the effectiveness of giving aid. Once the objectives of aid are achieved, it therefore means the receiving country can stand on its own and move forward.

- foreign experts can also be helpful in that they can help in training local personnel; may be more experienced than local counterparts; and can act with greater autonomy thereby giving independent and dependable advice.

**Session 5: Conclusion**

- As a way of conclusion we must recall some major issues mentioned in this unit. Can you briefly explain the terms foreign aid, good governance and democratisation.

- explain how foreign aid started and why are foreign donors have so much influence on development planning of the receiving countries.

- describe the conditionalities attached to the development foreign aid.

- describe how SAPs have affected development planning in Africa.

- In session one I indicated that as we tackle this unit I challenged you to revisit Assignment 6 on page 19 of your Tutorial Letter DVA3701/101. This is now any opportunity to share with your colleagues in this platform some of your responses to the assignment. I will also add comments on your inputs. Feel free as well to ask any questions related to this unit. Do not forget to cite relevant examples, especially from Africa in your discussion.
- I will provide you with added literature that you may want to revisit on this topic as you prepare for your examinations.

**Re: Session 5: Further reading material**
by E MHLANGA - 18 May 2015 @ 0:06

I will list here some of the articles and books you may want to read pertaining to this unit.


**Study Unit 6: Some factors that influence development planning**

**Session 6.0: Introduction**

- As you prepare for this unit please use the following question to guide you: “Climate change poses serious threats to development planning”. Critically evaluate this statement on the basis of the impact of climate change on food security in developing countries.

- secondly revisit Unit 1 and 2

- thirdly you should note that there are many factors that influence development planning, among them, demographics, diseases, technology, climate change, migration, finance, and corruption. This list is by no means exhaustive. While we will touch others in passing, our main focus as the assignment above points out is climate change in general and in particular its interface with food security.

**Session 6.1: Climate change**

- Probably to understand the concept of climate change we must first distinguish two interrelated words; climate and weather. Burroughs (2001:2) states that at its simplest weather is what is happening in the atmosphere in any given time while climate is what is expected to happen in any given time of the year based on statistics build over many years. The latter, therefore, is concerned about statistics of the weather phenomenon which provide evidence of longer term changes. Changes in climate constitute shifts in meteorological conditions lasting a few years or longer. These changes, among many other factors, could be in rainfall or temperatures. Joto Africa series (1193:2) note that the concept can also be explained as referring to long-term changes in average weather conditions over a given place or globally.

- Climate change is primarily a result of greenhouse gas emissions resulting from human activities such as burning of fossil fuels and deforestation.

- Instead of heat escaping from the atmosphere it’s trapped and that leads to increase in temperatures and melting of Polar Regions thereby resulting in rise in sea level.

- Changes in rainfall patterns would follow leading to either little rains followed by droughts or too much rains followed by floods. Either way food security issues arise thereby impacting on development plans as resources will be diverted to address emergencies instead.

- Africa is most at risk of climate changes as it is limited in terms of adaptability due to low levels of technical development and widespread poverty.
Climate change does not lead to only changes in biological and physical systems but it goes beyond to affect socio-economic systems as well, hence it is no longer an environmental issue only. It is indeed a threat to human development which means planners cannot afford to ignore it anymore. For instance they must focus on making sure that rural farmers are informed on changes in climatic conditions and also have access to meteorological reports. They must share information on the need for farmers to switch agricultural practices to those that make better use of rainwater, runoff and well; as well as growing drought resistant crops.

Climate change can also be better understood by focusing on its impact. Some of these impacts include:

- **Stress on water resources**: this is as a result of water losses due to increased temperatures, reduced coastal freshwater due to rise in sea level and salinization (hence in some cities desalination has been adopted as a solution to fresh water); melting of glaciers; and changes in rainy seasons.

- **Food production**: while there is an argument that increase in greenhouse may provide crops with carbon fertilisation, it should be noted that this will be offset by rise in temperatures and decrease in rainfall both the intensity and patterns. Zeeuw and Dubbeling (2009) note that changing rainfall patterns will affect agricultural productivity, especially in African countries. If farmers do not adapt to changing circumstances (by using different crop varieties and improving water management) agricultural production could decline 10 - 25% by 2020 (Herren of the Millennium Institute, at an IFAD meeting in February 2009, pers.comm.). Lenton et al. (2008) state that southern Africa risks losing 30% of its coarse grain output by 2030 and countries like Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and Malawi even face a reduction in yields of 50% by 2020. Hence planners must take into consideration the serious impact that climate change poses on food production. Akupali, Hassan and Ringler (2008) did a study that points to the effect that maize production will be affected more by the rainfall patterns than temperatures in South Africa. This is due to the fact 60% of SA soils are used for maize production and such areas are characterised by dryness, therefore maize production will be affected severely by the decrease in rainfall resulting in a severe impact on food security. Therefore agriculture development plans should go beyond focussing on availability of rain water for irrigation to focussing on other sustainable technologies (a case in point will be seed technologies such as short varieties and drought resistant crops) as well.

- **Human health**: heat waves, flooding, storms, droughts, and indirectly there is an increase in water and food borne diseases.

- **Coastal zones**: these areas are vulnerable to floods due to the rise in sea level. UN Habitat, 2009 note that low-elevation coastal zones represent 2% of the world’s land mass but hold 10% of its total population. Cities in these zones are at risk from flooding and extreme storm events. There are 3,351 cities in such zones worldwide, of which 64% are in developing region, and many of them are rapidly expanding (Zeeuw and Dubbeling, 2009). Therefore human settlements planners in such areas must bear in mind these effects of climate change.

- **Ecosystems and natural resources**: they are vulnerable to climate change and may result in extinction of certain species for instance fisheries due to blocked migration routes and pollution.

- **Mountain regions**: melting of glaciers may lead to flooding in the low lying areas (students for those who reside at the foot of Drakensberg/ Ukhahlamba and Lesotho mountains, can you share your experiences).

While we will not over emphasize this point, it must be pointed that climate change and its attendant natural disasters disproportionately affect women more than men. For instance in times of drought men tend to outmigrate more than women and therefore increasing workload on women who are left behind (Nelson, et al, 2002: p171 in your study guide); they have to walk long distances to fetch water and in the process become vulnerable to abuse, securing family health in times of floods is difficult, as food producers, climate change can worsen their situation by threatening food security. Therefore planners must avoid entrenching gender imbalances.

**Session 6.2: Climate change-food security nexus**

In session 1 we dealt with how climate change we stated that climate change has physical, biological, social and economic impacts among many other effects. In this session we want to specifically focus on how climate change
impacts on food security due to negative crop yields. While preparing for this session try define the concept of food security (though not in detail) and revisit JotoAfrica series (page 209 in your Reader).

-I will provide notes on the climate change-food security nexus later on.

**Session 6.2: Climate change-food security nexus**
by E MHLANGA - 20 May 2015 @ 8:33

**DISCUSSION**

-The definition of food security has evolved over the years just like other operational terms we defined in earlier units.

-Nugent (2000) notes that the definition of food security has evolved to emphasise access to food, rather than mere availability of food. It also explicitly incorporates the need for a healthy diet, complete with necessary vitamins and proteins, rather than simply sufficient calories. Therefore, adequate national and community-level food supplies must be available year-round; households must have both physical and economic access to a sufficient quantity, quality and variety of foods; and primary household providers and care-givers must have the time, knowledge and motivation to ensure that the nutritional needs of all household members are met.

-while food might be plenty, not all households are guaranteed to have access to it.

-As noted in session 6.1 climate changes has adverse effects on food production and that inevitably leads to food insecurity.

-Akupali, Hassan and Ringler (2008) did a study in Limpopo and the results point to the fact that maize production will be affected more by the rainfall patterns than temperatures. This is due to the fact 60% of SA soils are used for maize production and such areas are characterised by dryness, therefore maize production will be affected severely by the decrease in rainfall. Therefore climate change will have a severe impact on food security. Agriculture development plans, therefore, should go beyond focussing on availability of rain water for irrigation (some areas are becoming even drier and it might not be possible to produce crops through irrigation in the future as there will be no water) but to seed technologies (such as short varieties and drought resistant crops) as well.

-it is perhaps prudent to briefly focus on the issue of agricultural technologies that are aimed at reducing the effects of climate change on food security.

-mainstream thinking on food security focusses on conventional mechanisation, high yield seeds, distribution of fertilisers and pesticides will increase the yields. While that may be correct it tends to overlook the needs of the poor small subsistence farmers.

-In order to mitigate climate change drought resistant crops and short season’s crops technologies can be adopted. Planners should also plan for the affordability of such crops to such farmers in order to make sure whatever technology is selected is sustainable. Otherwise a wrong technology may result in some farmers becoming more vulnerable. A case in point will Kohwa Pakuru scheme run by Ciba-Geigy and Agritex in Zimbabwe around 1981 to 1985. One of the emphases of this scheme was to use of chemicals including herbicides with hope of increasing yields. Small farmers could not afford to buy the inputs in cash; therefore they were given inputs as a form of credit to be repaid after harvest. Without proper training and also dependence on rain-fed farming, for some farmers the scheme was disastrous. It took some years to repay the loan with interests. In some cases farmers had their properties and livestock ceased by debt collectors.

-another technology is the participatory plant breeding. It recognises the importance of creating locally-adapted high yielding seeds. Farmers would then grow a variety of local produced seed in one place and the process even if some may die from climate change induced stresses, some will survive thereby making sure the farmers will have at least something to harvest.
increase in knowledge of different types of sustainable and organic growing techniques, eg use of manure and compost combined with good seeds will ensure avoidance of debt dependency. This can be done side by side with intensive organic growing of vegetables and fruits.

-the public must adopt suitable animal varieties that mature fast, drought and diseases tolerant/resistant

-in session one we indicated that flooding is one of the major impacts of climate change. Flooding may destroy the infrastructure used to store or transport agriculture produce to markets and that will be a disincentive for the farmers to produce crops leading to food insecurity.

-climate change may lead to the outbreak climate sensitive diseases such as Rift Valley which adversely affect livestock production. You may want to research more on climate change and animal production.

due to climate change some areas might become too hot for certain crops or animals. Hence new breeds become necessary.

-all in all governments and agencies must mainstream climate change in development plans instead of waiting to respond to emergencies.

Session 6.3: Climate change and adaption

In session 2 we have detailed the impacts of climate change specifically on food security. It is clear that climate change is here to stay. Then the next logical question to ask is how can human beings mitigate the impact of climate change. This brings us to the notion of adaption. Read JotoAfrika article and try to define adaption.

- State some of the mechanisms that people have engaged on to try to mitigate the effects of climate change especially on food security. Share your findings with the group on this platform. I will add on some notes tomorrow.

-As has been demonstrated in the previous two sessions climate change is a reality that mankind should be prepared to live with. There is very little if not nothing that humanity can do to stop climate change. However, that does not mean people must just seat and watch with hope that one day climate change will stop. It is important to have coping mechanisms because climate change cannot just be wished away. The foregoing therefore calls for adaption.

-Adaption refers to the process that results in a reduction of harm, or the risk of harm associated with climate change (Connel and Willows, 2003). In other words it refers to risk reduction to climate change. It is a vital policy response that planners must take into consideration. Another concept closely related to the foregoing is adaptive capacity which refers to the community’s ability to adjust to actual or observed climate stresses or cope with consequences (O’Brien, etal 2004).

-adaptive capacity hinges on the following determinants: good governance, economic structures, technology, infrastructure, education, information and skills, institutions, equity and access to resources.

-in session 6.2 we indicated that in the area of food security farmers must adopt sustainable technologies. These include

- drought resistant seeds,
- early maturity crops,
- disease resistant livestock
- diversifying livelihoods

-increase in knowledge of different types of sustainable and organic growing techniques, eg use of manure and compost combined with good seeds will ensure avoidance of debt dependency. This can be coupled with intensive organic growing of vegetables and fruits.
-improve use of natural resources at local level by maximising their utilisation and guarding against plundering eg of trees that leads to deforestation. Use of renewable sources of energy will also help reduce climate change and conversely its impact.

-planners must prepare for risks and coping with disasters

-all in all it must be emphasised that governments and agencies must mainstream climate change in all of their plans instead of waiting to respond to disasters. For instance almost every rainy season in Southern Africa results in severe floods in lower Zambezi River. That affects a lot of households especially in Mozambique. People around the basin are reluctant to relocate. Massive education is required on the dangers of settling near the river whose banks are known will burst every year. People in those areas also need to be assisted with coping mechanisms if they are resettled further from the river.

-the planners must make sure that local people are involved in planning (participatory development).

-revisit session 6.2 to remind yourself about the impact of climate change on food security. That will help you understand the importance of coming up with coping mechanisms.

**Session** Now that we have dealt with the impacts of climate change especially on food security, we would want to proceed by way of looking at case studies around Africa. Our focus in this session is to demonstrate how climate impacts on development planning. I have attached the Joto Africa series to your additional resources (see announcements as well). Take some time to go through those case studies. Discussions will follow in due course.

**Re: Session 6.4: Case Studies-discussion**
by E MHLANGA - 25 May 2015 @ 11:18

-As demonstrated in the preceding sessions, climate change has an impact on a number of socio-economic facets of our lives. We used food security as an example. In other words climate change affects development planning itself. It can no longer be business as usual, new initiatives and strategies must focus take into consideration the effects of climate change. In this session we will use case studies from Benin, South Africa, Kenya, Ethiopia, Mozambique, and Tanzania to demonstrate how climate change has impacted on development planning. These examples are predominantly drawn from Joto Africa series.

**Ethiopia:** The case of the Nile Basin - In Ethiopia agriculture is heavily dependent on rainfall. Rainfall variability and recurrent droughts have led to food insecurity.

- Some farmers have adapted to climate change by:

  - changing planting and harvesting periods, for example planting later or earlier depending on long-term rainfall
  - adopting soil and water conservation measures, such as stone bunds, soil bunds and waterways

With the above background development planners, agencies and government cannot hope farmers will continue to depend on rainfall. Therefore in their plans they must:

* provide farmers with appropriate and timely information on predicted changes in climate to empower them to take appropriate steps to adjust their farming practices

* facilitate access to credit markets

* ensure that farmer-to-farmer extension services include farmers in poor communities.

**Benin:** The country has experienced longer drought and flooding in succession which reduces crop output. Farming contributes 36% of GDP and 88% of export revenue. In 2007 floods destroyed 50 villages leaving crops damaged
which inevitably leads to more hungry mouth and helpless farmers. In 2003 it was estimated that if no action is taken to mitigate the effects of climate change in Benin the production of food crops would decline by 6% by 2025. Rural farmers do not have access to meteorological information.

- In mitigation planners have come up with the project ‘Strengthening the capacity to adapt to climate change in Benin’ which seeks to bridge knowledge gap between meteorologists, farmers and the government. All stakeholders are involved in identifying the most vulnerable communities and come up with strategies to mitigate the effects of climate change.

- the project also has a network of early warning committees which help farmers plan for any eventualities. – the national meteorological committees comprising beneficiaries and experts have been formed to process meteorological data into useable form by farmers. Information is shared through village networks and community radio stations. In the process that helps farmers plan for the coming season. The committee has scored many achievements including that: Government recognised as contributing to country’s National Plan on Adaption; as of early 2009, ‘pre-alert’ committees had been established in 35 of Benin’s 77 rural communes, serving a population of close to 3.5 million people

- Kenya: In the Kenya’s central highlands rains have become less reliable since 2006. March-April rains arrive late and seasons are becoming shorter such that in 2008 there was only 4 days of rain. That has led to severe impacts on food security because crops failed and livestock died because of lack of pastures.

- Many farmers in Kyuso are struggling due to the lack of rains, but by sharing information about new crops and water harvesting techniques, more people are adapting to the changing climate.

- due to the lack of food, prices have skyrocketed. A 1kg bag of maize flour cost 20 Ksh in July 2008; by March 2009, the price had increased to 70 Ksh due to extended drought and political turmoil.

- Due to the skyrocketing of prices planners in the agricultural sector had to change some of the regulations. For instance the National Cereals Board rationed maize selling per day. Declining production, and the limited access and affordability of imported food, mean food security has declined, with many impacts.

- farmers switched to cowpeas and fruits (mangoes) growing. In Kenya they introduced grafting as a way of growing mangoes and that takes two years to mature. In Kyusu village the project has been so successful that plans are afoot to produce mango juice (Joto Africa series page 4)

- stakeholders in planning should provide farmers with information about switching to drought-tolerant and fast-maturing crops, and access to seeds.

- planning for and promoting water harvesting and demonstrating different farming techniques is essential.

- the storage of grain during bumper harvests can provide food in poor seasons; processing this surplus can also add value and avoid wastage.

- Limpopo Basin - South Africa/Zimbabwe: While rainfall in the Limpopo River basin is variable, 2005-2008 were very dry. The Climate Systems Analysis Group predicts that maize yields in Zimbabwe and South Africa’s Limpopo Province will decrease by approximately 9 percent between now and 2045 due to climate change. Since 2007, erratic rainfall has further increased food shortages, as droughts have damaged and destroyed maize crops.

- the farmers’ main adaptation strategies are switching to more drought tolerant crops, such as millet, and switching to different varieties of the same crop, such as more drought tolerant maize.

- they are also changing planting dates, increasing irrigation, building water harvesting schemes, changing the amount of land under cultivation, and buying livestock feed supplements.

- Planners must make sure farmers have access to affordable credit to increase their ability to change production strategies.
- Policymakers should reconsider irrigation investment needs; this will allow farmers increased control over water.

- To promote efficient water use, policies should emphasise pricing reforms and clearly defined property rights, as well as strengthening farm level managerial capacity of efficient irrigation.

- The implementation of land reforms has increased the number of new farmers, who do not have the skills and information gathered by experienced farmers; there is a great need to increase farmers’ access to extension services in South Africa.

- Africa: Let’s briefly focus on climate change and livestock production in Africa as a continent. Climate change may compromise the ability of livestock to contribute to food security. Livestock account for 25 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of sub-Saharan Africa (FAOSTAT, 2005 cf Joto Africa series page 7).

- 70% of rural population rear livestock in one way or the. They provide poor people with meat, milk, hides, traction for cultivating croplands and transporting farm goods, manure for fertilising crop soils, a form of insurance, and a way to build household assets, which can be used to access credit.

- There is a problem of diseases, such as Rift Valley fever, whose incidence is increased by changes in temperature and rainfall patterns.

- Relatively rapid temperature rises may lead to high losses of traditional local livestock breeds; the Food and Agriculture Organization reports that over 4 000 livestock breeds were lost during the 20th Century.

6.4: Case Studies

Session 6.5: Revision and Assignment

by way of revising this unit it will be helpful to focus on the assignment I gave you at the beginning of this unit. The question read: “Climate change poses serious threats to development planning”. Critically evaluate this statement on the basis of the impact of climate change on food security in developing countries.

- Before you tackle any question you must underline the key and action words. In this assignment start with the quote which makes a guiding statement to the whole question. In it the two key phrases are ‘climate change’ and ‘development planning’. We dealt with development planning from the first unit of this module and climate change was tackled in this unit.

- then proceed to the action word ‘evaluate’. In case you need a reminder about action words revisit Tutorial Letter 301/4/2015 page 6. The term ‘evaluate’ is explained on that page.

- the next key phrase is ‘food security’. We dealt with this term in this unit.

- Once you understand these phrases then you can proceed to tackle the question. Let’s have your input in this forum before I give you mine.

Re: Session 6.5: Revision and Assignment
by E MHLANGA - 29 May 2015 @ 0:14

DISCUSSION
In your answer you should first of all demonstrate that you understand the concept of climate change. Go back to session 6.1 where we went at length in trying to explain the concept of climate change.

- Changes in climate constitute shifts in meteorological conditions lasting a few years or longer. These changes, among many other factors, could be in rainfall or temperatures.

- It is primarily a result of greenhouse gas emissions resulting from human activities such as burning of fossil fuels and deforestation.

- Africa is most at risk of climate changes as it is limited in terms of adaptability due to low levels of technical development and widespread poverty.

- Climate change does not lead to only changes in biological and physical systems but it goes beyond to affect socio-economic systems as well, hence it is no longer an environmental issue only.

- Changes in rainfall patterns would follow leading to either little rains followed by droughts or too much rains followed by floods. Either way food security issues arise thereby impacting on development plans as resources will be diverted to address emergencies instead.

- Then briefly explain what you understand by food security.

- From the last two point above it then lead us to the transition to the next phase of the question which requires you to link climate change to food security. The key word is to evaluate the problem statement of the question. You are required to make a value judgment and state the grounds for it. In this we are making a statement that climate change has an impact on food security.

- Proceed by way of outlining how does climate change impact on food security in developing countries. Please underline the fact that we want to concentrate on developing countries, preferably Africa and even more closer home in the SADC region.

- Revisit Session 6.2 and 6.3 where we tackled how climate change impacts on food security.

- While discussing the foregoing which also happens to be the gist of the assignment do not forget to use examples. Using appropriate examples separates best student from the rest. Revisit Session 6.4 for the case studies. For more examples you can consult the Joto Africa series attached to the Additional Material in this site.

- In our earlier session we indicated that climate change is here to stay and as human beings we can’t stop it. However, this does not mean we can just stand and watch. Human beings can at least come up with strategies to mitigate the effects of climate change. That is what is called adaption. Revisit Session 6.5 for more points on how various countries have tried to mitigate the effects of climate change.

**Revision**

- In study unit 6 we indicated that development does not occur in a vacuum. It occurs within a certain context. In other words there a lot of facts that impact on development planning. We dealt extensively with climate change. Another factor that we mentioned in passing was corruption.

- Transparency International says: Corruption is the abuse of entrusted power for private gain. It hurts everyone who depends on the integrity of people in a position of authority.

- It goes beyond the exchange of money between two parties. It equates to theft as public funds are taken and used in an unauthorised manner for individual benefit.

- Corruption takes many forms such as bribery, embezzlement, fraud, and extortion.

- The next question to ask then is how does it affect development planning?

- To start with we should note that corruption improperly affects decisions of public servants (or anyone who is corrupted for that matter. We chose to focus on public servants for this discussion).

- State resources are diverted to enrich individuals especially in the so-called grand corruption deals.

- Corruption can permeate every corner of society in the form of petty corruption. Generally, petty corruption can be understood in the context of the Turkish saying the ‘The fish rots from the head first’. In a way petty
corruption thrives because of grand corruption from the top government and business officials who abuse millions of rands. It reduces the poor people’s access to resources through affecting for instance service delivery and public works.

- generally for public works there is little or no skill required to do some tasks to earn a living. For instance in ‘food-for-work’ projects rural communities may be required to clear a road or fence a dam. However, due to corruption individuals might be asked to give chickens to supervisors or cede part of their payment whether its cash or food packs to the authorities. In that case the poor will be alienated from the benefits of development planning. At the back of the minds of development planners is that the masses must benefit from public works but ultimately it’s those in influential positions who get something out it.

- with corruption the benefits of public works and service delivery will not be realised optimally.

- think of petty corruption that we read of daily about traffic officers. Think of a poor person who wants to obtain a licence so that they can work as a driver and earn a living. How often do we hear about kombi drivers complaining of ‘ukudiza’ the traffic cops? In the process their livelihood is affected. When government plans to decentralise transport by involving small and private players, it will be hoped that resources will be redistributed in the process. However, due to corruption these small players may remain just that, small players.

- petty corruption affects service delivery as officials will want to be ‘energised’ to do their work with a ‘cool drink’. Otherwise they will drag their feet. So petty corruption is an antithesis of development. Those who cannot bribe will not have access to resources.

- think of grand corruption deals and how a number of state officials open foreign accounts with overseas institutions such as the Swiss banks. Huge sums of money are hidden somewhere in these banks instead of them being used at home for development. Think of the history of Mobutu Sese Seko under the then Zaire. When he was eventually toppled he was said to be richer than his country and most of his riches were in foreign lands. The Democratic Republic of Congo has plunged into a series of conflicts since the end of his dictatorial term of office. Remember we cited DRC in Unit 5 as a monumental example of the failure of foreign aid. Millions of dollars were pumped in as foreign aid without any tangible benefits for the ordinary man on the street.

- corruption even affects the mechanisms put in place to fight it. How often do we hear about ‘whistle blowers’ having to be provided with security and the unfortunate ones killed by those they seek to expose?

- another example will be that of ghost employees. Through fraud non-existent people are ‘paid’ salaries and the money is channelled improperly to the officials with a serious impact on service delivery. Planners would have budgeted for a certain number of people to achieve a certain goal. With ghost employees payment is made for no output.

- in South Africa we have even come up with our lexicon ‘tenderpreneurs’. There are interesting observations you will make if you research and read around what happens in the world of tenderpreneurs. It is money circulating and limited work done in most of the dealings.

- Read the article on the link below on some of the ways corruption impacts on SA society:


- I have also attached to your additional resources another article on a lighter take on corruption.

- ever heard about ‘name-throwing’ and use of political figures’ names in extortion in areas such as house allocation? Many poor people in Third World Countries are swindled of their hard earned cash in the area of human settlements due to corruption. There are cases of double selling of stands, cases of being in a waiting list for decades yet someone who was registered barely a few months ago is allocated a stand.

- currently the world is facing a ‘small matter’ around Fifa World Cup scandal. Follow it as it brings to the fore some of the names that are used to describe corrupt practices. This partly serves to demonstrate that corruption is not a Third World Countries phenomenon. Someone argued that it’s a human condition. Think about the case of Italy’s former prime minister Silvio Berlusconi.

- corruption deprives the poor of their basic rights hence there is a link between corruption and poverty.

- You may also want to briefly look at the reasons why people engage in corruption and also means to fight it. Just a reminder again ‘The fish rots from the head first’ hence if the top officials in government want corruption stopped and are ruthless about curbing it, surely it will be minimised. And that will make the work of civil society easy in tackling the scourge of corruption.

---

Re: Revision
by A MPOFU - 4 Jun 2015 @ 20:10

Thank you very much. I find this very helpful especially with regard to tackling assignment 03