A NEPAD LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY: THE SADC CASE

BY

AUSTERIA LETHOLETSENG NTSIKE

DISSERTATION PRESENTED FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

PROMOTER: PROF. ERWIN SCHWELLA

December 2007

DECLARATION

I the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in the dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature: ………………..   Date: …………………………

ABSTRACT

The overall aim of this study is to shape the future of the SADC through the New Partnerships for Africa's Development leadership development strategy (NEPAD LDS), including a social responsiveness strategy. It proceeds from the premise that leadership development should be based on the values and interests of an institution, because these represent the institution's position regarding the context within which it exists.

This study pursued the following objectives:

- To identify leadership needs in the SADC

- To suggest a NEPAD-based leadership development strategy that includes a social responsiveness strategy as a response to identified SADC leadership needs

The research therefore viewed the future of the SADC through leadership development. The entry point in this process was to establish the character and qualities of the SADC, considering that the continued existence of this region depends on its ability to transform all its systems in a unified pursuit of common goals. The history and natural resources of the region were thus seen to be the most visible measures of its overall health and strategic direction.

The process of stakeholder identification and mapping was then pursued, with the view to help the SADC leadership to assess systematically the nature and impact of groups with which the organisation deals. Following the stakeholder analysis, information on the macro-environment of the SADC was gathered because of the impact the external environment has on the SADC. This large body of information was screened systematically. The scanning taxonomy that was developed included five areas: social, technological, environmental, economic and political (STEEP). This specialised taxonomy helped the researcher to focus on issues of greatest concern to the study. The issues that were scanned are discussed relative to their impact on SADC leadership practice.

Based on the leadership challenges in the SADC thus identified, planning assumptions were developed, which are best guesses or predictions about key dimensions

of the future given the leadership challenges identified. These assumptions are estimates based on the combination of estimating factors/validation points, which are portrayed in the analysis of the macro-environment of the SADC. The probability, the impact, the proximity and the maturity of these assumptions are interpreted by calculating their weighted positive or negative values.

Cross-impact analysis of the validation points is used to guide the SADC decision-makers to adopt policies designed to achieve more desirable leadership futures. Here, the connections between validation points impacting on the probability of one another are illustrated. These specified relationships trace out a distinct, plausible and internally consistent future for the SADC leadership. This analysis gives rise to the identification of key validation points/drivers in the SADC from which emerge the key leadership needs of this region. Further needs that emerged were to make the NEPAD the base upon which the leadership development programme is built, and to incorporate social responsiveness strategy.

Based on these key leadership needs in the SADC, it is suggested that a NEPAD-based leadership development strategy, including a social responsiveness strategy, be developed and implemented. Furthermore, the NEPAD leadership development strategy (NEPAD LDS) should be based on the premise that linking leadership development with a social responsiveness strategy is critical not only for the SADC, but for the entire world, because this region is part of the global village. It is suggested that the implementation strategy should enable participants to translate the NEPAD LDS into action and to see leadership development and a social responsiveness strategy as key mechanisms for doing so.

This study attempts to avoid the worn-out remedies of the past and uses a holistic approach called Common Sense Management, which entails market research, direction-setting, strategy development, implementing strategies and outcome assessment.

The findings and the conclusions for this study are organised around the research questions that were the basis of motivation for this study.

OPSOMMING

Die oorhoofse doelwit van hierdie studie is om die toekoms van die Suider-Afrikaanse Ontwikkelingsgemeenskap (SAOG) te help bepaal deur middel van die Nuwe Vennootskap vir Afrika se Ontwikkeling (algemeen bekend as NEPAD) se leierskapsontwikkelingstrategie (LDS), insluitende 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie. Dit gaan uit vanaf die veronderstelling dat leierskapsontwikkeling op die waardes en belange van 'n instelling behoort te berus, omdat hulle die instelling se posisie verteenwoordig rakende die konteks waarbinne dit bestaan.

Hierdie studie het die volgende doelwitte nagevolg:

- Om leierskapsbehoeftes in SAOG te identifiseer

- Om 'n NEPAD-gebaseerde leierskapontwikkelingstrategie voor te stel wat 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie insluit as 'n reaksie op die geïdentifiseerde SAOG leierskapsbehoeftes.

Daarom betrag die navorsingstuk die toekoms van SAOG deur die bril van leierskapsontwikkeling. Die vertrekpunt in hierdie proses was om die karakter en hoedanighede van SAOG vas te stel met in agneming dat die volgehoue bestaan van hierdie streek van sy vermoë afhang om al sy stelsels in 'n verenigde nastreef van gemeenskaplike doelwitte te transformeer. Die geskiedenis en natuurlike hulpbronne van die streek is dus gesien as die mees sigbare maatreëls in sy oorhoofse gesondheid- en strategiese rigting.

Die proses om belanghebbers te identifiseer en te beskryf, is vervolgens aangepak met die oog op bystand aan die SAOG se leierskap om die aard en impak van groepe waarmee die organisasie te doene het, sistematies te beoordeel. Na afloop van die belanghebbersanalise, is inligting oor SAOG se makro-omgewing versamel vanweë die impak van die eksterne omgewing op SAOG. Hierdie groot hoeveelheid inligting is sistematies verwerk. Die verwerkingsistematiek wat ontwikkel is, sluit vyf gebiede in: sosiaal, tegnologies, omgewing, ekonomies en polities (STOEP). Hierdie gespesialiseerde sistematiek het die navorser in staat gestel om op sake wat van die grootste belang vir die

studie is, te konsentreer. Die aangeleenthede wat verwerk is, word bespreek in verhouding met hul impak op SAOG se leierskapspraktyke.

Op grond van die leierskapsuitdagings in SAOG wat aldus geïdentifiseer is, is beplanningsaannames opgestel wat beste skattings of voorspellings verteenwoordig aangaande sleutelelemente van die toekoms, gegewe die leierskapsuitdagings wat bepaal is. Hierdie aannames word vasgestel op grond van die samestelling van faktore/geldigheidspunte wat in die analise van die makro-omgewing van SAOG voorgestel word. Die waarskynlikheid, die impak, die nabyheid en die rypheid van hierdie aannames word by wyse van die berekening van hul geweegde positiewe of negatiewe waardes geïnterpreteer.

'n Kruisimpakanalise van die geldigheidspunte word gebruik om rigting aan die SAOG besluitnemers te verskaf om hul beleidsrigtings aan te pas om 'n meer gewenste leierskapstoekoms te bewerkstellig. Hier word dan die verbinding tussen die geldigheidspunte uitgebeeld wat 'n invloed op mekaar se onderlinge waarskynlikheid uitoefen. Hierdie aangeduide verhoudings dui 'n duidelike, geloofbare en intern konsekwente toekoms vir die SAOG leierskap aan. Hierdie analise gee aanleiding tot die identifisering van sleutelgeldigheidspunte/aandrywers vir SAOG waaruit die deurslaggewende leierskapsbehoeftes van die streek na vore tree. Verdere behoeftes wat duidelik geword het, was dat NEPAD die basis behoort te verskaf waarop die leierskapsprogram gebou behoort te word, asook om 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie daarby in te begryp.

Op grond van hierdie sleutelleierskapsbehoeftes in SAOG, word aan die hand gedoen dat 'n NEPAD-gebaseerde leierskapsontwikkelingstrategie, insluitende 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie, ontwikkel en toegepas word. Verder behoort die NEPAD leierskapontwikkelingstrategie (NEPAD LDS) op die aanname te berus dat 'n aaneenskakeling van leierskapsontwikkeling met 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie krities nie slegs vir SAOG is nie, maar vir die hele wêreld, aangesien hierdie streek deel is van die wêrelddorp. Dit word aanbeveel dat die implementeringstrategie deelnemers behoort in staat te stel om die NEPAD LDS in aksie in om te skakel en om

leierskapsontwikkeling en 'n sosiale deelnemendheidstrategie te beskou as sleutelmeganismes in die proses.

Hierdie studie poog om die uitgediende redmiddels van die verlede te vermy en om eerder 'n holistiese benadering te gebruik, wat Gesonde Verstandbestuur genoem kan word, wat marknavorsing, rigtingbepaling, strategie-ontwikkeling, die implementering van strategieë en uitkomsgebaseerde assessering insluit.

Die bevindings en die gevolgtrekkings in hierdie studie word om die navorsingsvrae gegroepeer wat as motivering vir hierdie studie gedien het.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 3:

3.0   THE SADC: EXTERNAL ANALYSIS AND LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES

Chapter 4:

4.0   THE SADC NEEDS ANALYSIS

Chapter 6:

6.0   FINDINGS SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB – African Development Bank

AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

AMU – Arab Maghereb Union

ANC – African National Congress

AU – African Union

AWID – Association for Women's Rights in Development

BCP – Basotho Congress Party

BDP – Botswana Democratic Party

BNF – Botswana National Front

BNP – Basotho National Party

CCM – Chama Cha Mapinduzi Party

CIPE – Centre for International Private Enterprise

COSATU – Congress of South African Trade Unions

CSFs – Critical Success Factors

CUF – Civic United Front

DRC – Democratic Republic of Congo

DTA – Democratic Turn-halle Alliance

EAC – East African Community

ECA – Economic Commission for Africa

ECCAS – Economic Community of Central African States

ECOWAS – Economic Organisation of West African States

FNLA – Front for the Liberation of Angola

FRELIMO – Front for Liberation of Mozambique

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

GNU – Government of National Unity

HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus

ICT – Information and Communication Technology

IGAD – Inter-Governmental Authority Development

IMF – International Monetary Fund

INM – Imbokodvo National Movement

ISS – Institute of Security Studies

LDS – Leadership Development Strategy

LCD – Lesotho Congress for Democracy

LDS – Leadership Development Strategy

MCP – Malawi Congress Party

MDC – Movement for Democratic Change

MMD – Movement for Multiparty Democracy

MMM – Mauritian Militant Movement

MPLA – People's movement for Liberation of Angola

MSM – Mauritian Socialist Movement

NEPAD – New Partnerships for African Development

NGOs – Non-Governmental Organisations

NP – National Party

OFS – Orange Free State

QFD – Quality Function Deployment

RENAMO – Mozambique national resistance movement

RSA – Republic of South Africa

SADC – Southern African Development Community

SADCC – Southern African Development Coordinating Committee

SDP – Seychelles Democratic Party

SPPF – Seychelles People Progressive Front

SPUP – Seychelles People United Party

STEEP – Social, Technological, Environmental, Economic, Political

SWAPO – South-West Africa People's Organisation

SWOT – Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

UDF – United Democratic Front

UN – United Nations

UNCHR – United Nations Commission on Human Rights

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF – United Nations Children's Education Fund

UNIP – United National Independence Party

UNITA – National Union of Total Independence for Angola

ZANU – Zimbabwe African National Union

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Background to the study

The Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) developed from an organisation called the Southern Africa Development Coordinating Committee (SADCC). The SADCC was established in April 1980 and included nine southern Africa countries, namely Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. On this occasion, the leaders and representatives of these countries, all independent states, signed a declaration that included the following:

"We the undersigned as heads of governments of majority ruled states in Southern Africa offer this declaration to our own people and governments of the many countries who are interested in promoting popular welfare, justice and peace in Southern Africa and to the international agencies who share this interest. In it we state our commitment to pursue policies aimed at the economic liberation and integrated development of our national economies and we call on all concerned to assist us in this high endeavour". (Ntsekela, 1980:3)

The four principal objectives of the SADCC, according to Van Nieuwkerk (2001:11), were as follows:

- To reduce member states' dependence particularly but not only on apartheid South Africa;

- To implement programmes and projects with national and regional impact;

- To mobilise member states' resources in the quest for collective self-reliance; and

- To secure international understanding and support.

In response to the rapidly changing regional and international political climate, the SADCC negotiated a new treaty and consequently the SADC came into being in

August 1992. By 2000, five more countries joined the SADC, namely South Africa, Mauritius, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Seychelles and Namibia.

The objectives of the SADC, according to "the background of the SADC" (2002), differ markedly from those of the SADCC and are also more comprehensive; one reason for this being that the leaders of the SADC had gained experience working together in a group of frontline states. Consequently, they translated the advancement of political struggle into broader co-operation in pursuit of economic development. The objectives emanating from this new alliance are as follows:

- Achieve development and economic growth, alleviate poverty, enhance the standard and quality of the people of Southern Africa and support the socially disadvantaged people through regional integration.

- Evolve common political values, systems and institutions.

- Promote self-sustaining development based on collective self-reliance and inter-dependence of member states.

- Achieve compliance between national and regional strategies and programmes.

- Promote and maximise productive employment and utilisation of natural resources of the region.

- Achieve sustainable utilisation of natural resources and effective protection of the environment.

- Strengthen and consolidate the long-standing historical and social cultural affinities and link among the people of the region.

Figure 1.1 indicates the structure of the SADC.
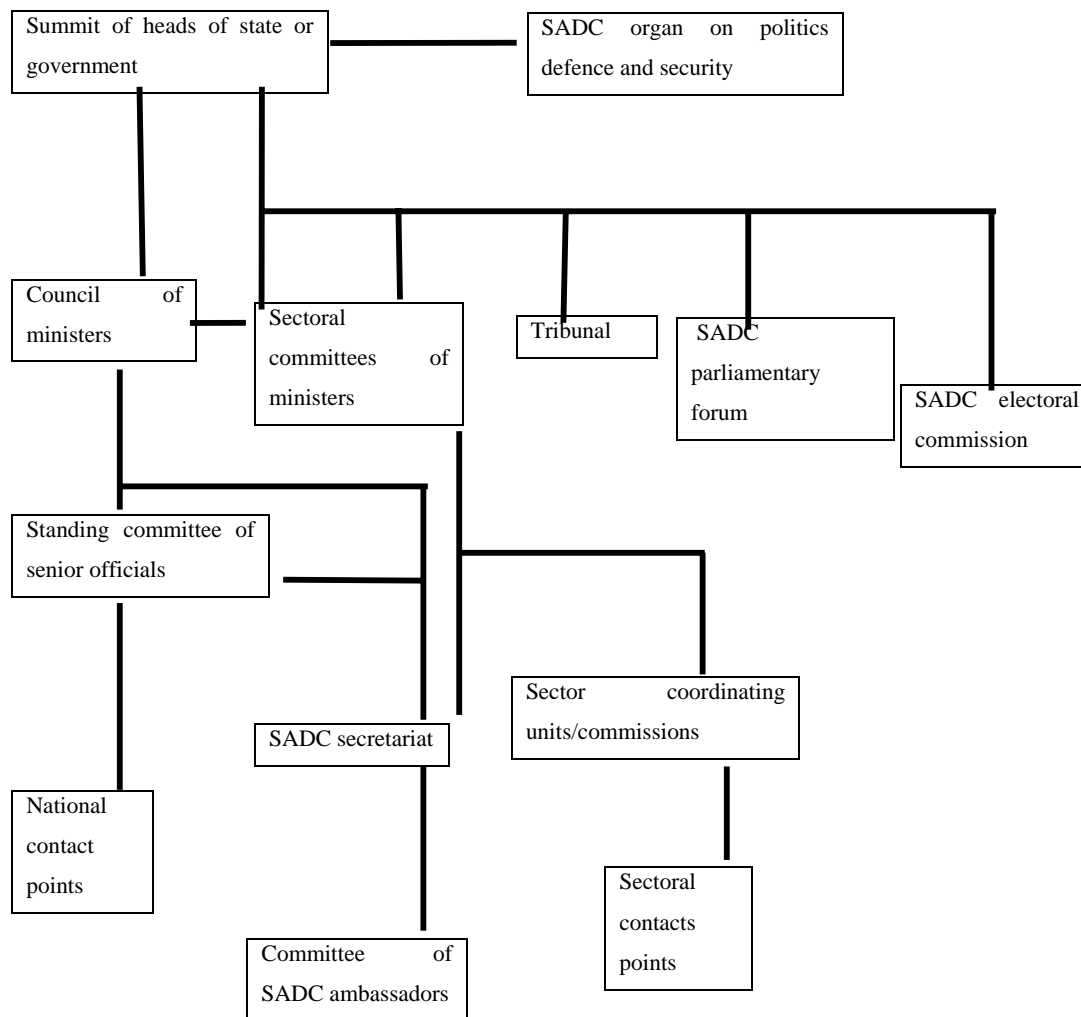
Figure 1.1 Structure of the SADC. Source: The SADC Diary 2001

The differences in the objectives of the SADCC and the SADC and an increase in the SADC's size necessitated some restructuring. This was duly initiated at an extraordinary summit in March 2001 in Namibia, where it was agreed that commissions and sector-coordinating units should be phased out and that the secretariat should be strengthened. One of the initiatives undertaken to this effect was the establishment of the Department of Strategic Planning, Gender and Development and Policy Harmonisation. This new structure comprises of the summit, Troika, Organ of Politics, Defence and Security, Integrated Committee of Ministers, SADC National Committees, Secretariat and Directorates (see Figure 1.2).
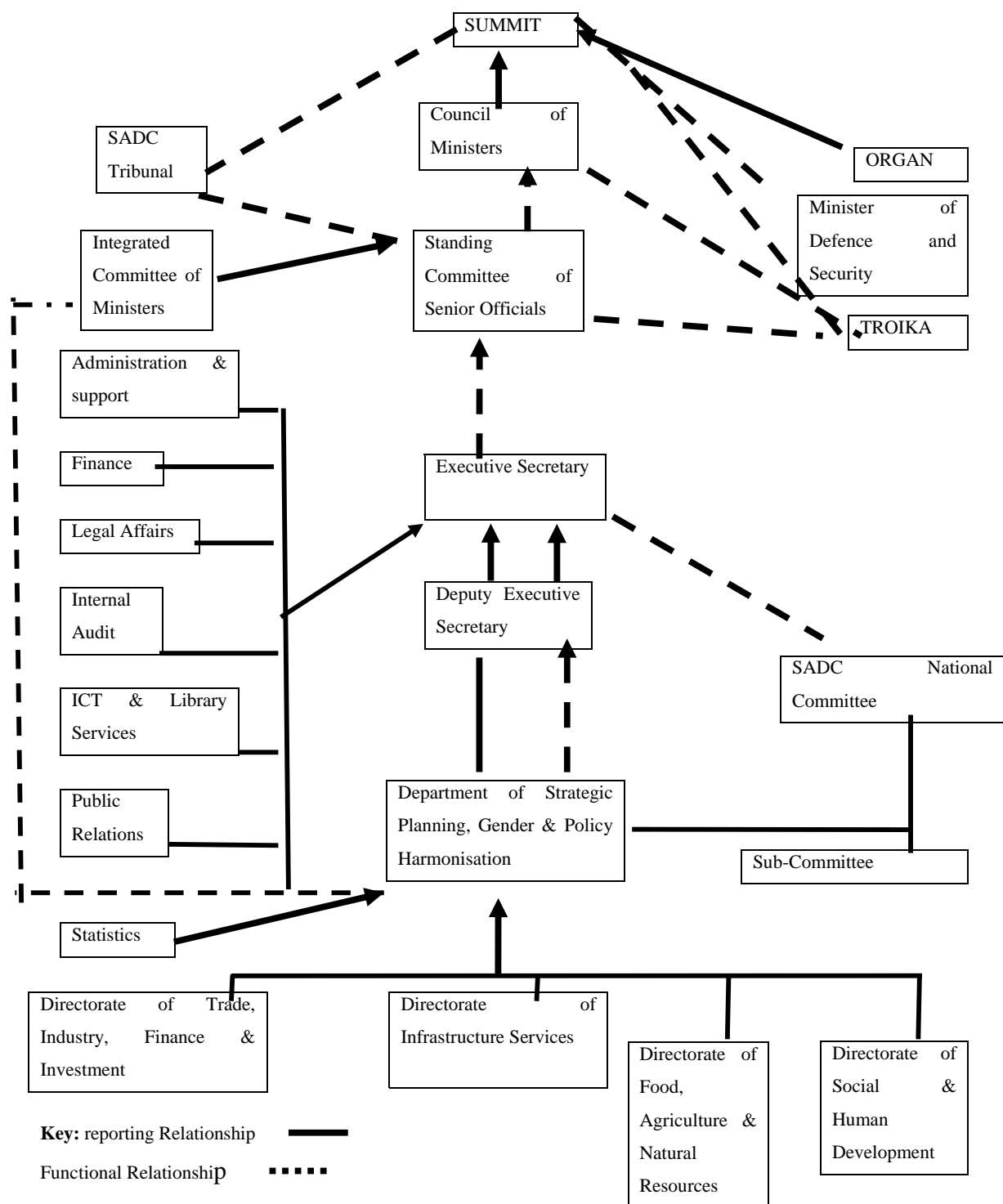
Figure 1.2 The SADC Organogram. Source: http://www.SADC/int/english/whatsne/organogram.htm

1.1.2 Rationale for study

The NEPAD LDS in the SADC was chosen as a research topic because leadership development could play a major role in SADC transformation efforts. Development practitioners are once more giving attention to the issue of sustainability in development. Central to the concept of sustainability are issues of leadership development and social responsiveness. Leadership development represents a strategic intervention that is able not only to effect change, but also to build an organisation's core competencies. The evident change imperative in the SADC and its role in leading the organisational transition motivated this study's argument that the SADC region has to invest in a new form of leadership development in order to address the discrepancy between leadership capabilities and the external demands of this region. The topic for this study also followed from the observation that leadership talent is limited in the SADC region where the need for leadership is crucial. It was therefore decided to take a hard look at the type of leadership development necessary to create a culture and value system centred on good leadership principles, and to determine how the NEPAD could enhance this leadership, especially now that the SADC is undergoing institutional and operational transformation.

1.1.3 Research problem

The focus of this study is the SADC because this organisation has embarked on structural adjustments, both institutional and operational, in an effort to reduce the developmental gap that exists between itself and other regions of Africa and the rest of the world. If, however, the SADC is to succeed in its change initiative, it must acquire the support of responsive leadership. Responsive leadership skills have to be exploited extensively to meet the demands of the sustainable development for which this organisation strives.

This calls for the establishment of a NEPAD LDS that includes a social responsiveness strategy in the SADC. The integration/reconciliation of these concepts is necessary because leadership development represents a strategic intervention that is able not only to effect change, but also to build the SADC organisation's core competencies. A social responsiveness strategy represents a culture founded on ethical principles and

moral values that will enable this organisation to create an atmosphere in which there is constructive pressure to perform accordingly. The NEPAD LDS in the SADC can therefore enable the SADC to become an adaptive organisation because of the adaptive cultures that will be integral to the process. This implies that new strategies and organisational practices that can enable this region to perform well have to be introduced. These adaptive cultures can in turn enable the organisation to adapt to socio-economic changes such as globalisation and become flexible, grow developmentally, have capable leadership and exhibit higher sustained performance. The problem this study addresses is therefore how the unique leadership and social responsiveness qualities required in the SADC during its transition can be developed.

It is therefore necessary for the SADC to determine how it can respond effectively to environmental pressures, and how it can implement and evaluate its capacity to participate, respond to and manage issues and problems arising from the diverse environments within which it exists. The following are the research questions for this study:

1.1.4 Research questions

- How is the macro-environment of the SADC as it restructures its institutions and operations?

- What social and ethical issues in the SADC the NEPAD LDS could address?

- What kind of leadership development can make the NEPAD LDS initiative successful?

This study thus attempted to answer the above questions and to fill a gap in the existing literature, particularly on leadership development and social responsiveness. It proceeded from the view that, since the behaviour of leaders is regarded as the most important influence on the ethical behaviour of organisational members, strategies for improving the SADC's ethical climate must emanate from the leaders of this region. Therefore, the goal and objectives of this study are as follows:

1.1.5 Goal and objectives

The main goal of this study is to find ways of developing and retaining exemplary leaders and leadership that will improve the SADC's social performance. These leaders would be able to integrate traditional economic conditions with ethical and moral considerations, devise viable responses to changing conditions and demonstrate genuine care for the well-being of people. The objectives of this study are:

- To identify leadership needs in the SADC; and

- To suggest a NEPAD LDS intervention that comprises a social responsiveness strategy as a response to the identified SADC leadership needs.

1.1.6 Significance of the study

The concepts of leadership, social responsiveness and capacity building are as old as civilization itself. People from time immemorial have been concerned with balancing their leadership and their responsiveness to social issues especially when they experience changes in their environment. Hence, this study does not explore a new terrain but describes existing phenomena in more detail. This intervention is unique because it is NEPAD- based. It examines how to develop the unique qualities required to lead in times of transition. It is significant because it contributes to the construction of a social theory on leadership and the transformation of organisations.

The outcomes of this study are significant to the leaders within the SADC, to the governments within the SADC, to strategic mangers and to the Southern Africa society at large because it argues that leadership can be learned and describes the common pitfalls to avoid when building leadership talent at all levels of the SADC organisation.

1.1.7 Research design

This study uses the "Common Sense Management" (2005) design, but modified to meet its particular requirements. Common Sense Management is a design used to create a favourable future in which institutions can prosper. The researcher found this design appropriate for employment in the study because it aims to create a successful future for the SADC by tuning into its changing macro-environment and positioning this region to

take advantage of new opportunities, such as a leadership development programme and a social responsiveness management strategy. Five steps are followed when using Common Sense Management:

Step one: Market research

Market research entails information-gathering activities carried out by the researcher. It is a direction-setting exercise because data and information about past and present activities are gathered. The focus is on the threats and opportunities that these changes present to the organisation, and include broad social, technological, environmental, economic and political trends and developments, as well as geographically specific trends and developments. Market research includes the identification and analysis of stakeholders and the development of planning assumptions.

Step two: Direction-setting

Here strategic issues that cut across all levels of the organisation are identified. This process ensures that strategic issues that are identified are compatible with and complement existing development activities within the region, and that they enhance the organisation's position relative to critical success factors.

Step three: Strategy development

Strategy development entails the development of the necessary strategies to achieve the direction set in step two. These strategies are broad courses of action that define how to deal with the critical issues identified through the development of planning assumptions. These strategies are predicted to position the organisation so that it can capitalise on its strengths and opportunities, and mitigate the effects of the most serious threats and weaknesses. These strategies are action-oriented and adapt to a variety of conditions.

Step four: Implementing strategies

This step encompasses the execution of a specific course of action that is identified as appropriate for an organisation.

Step five: Outcome assessment

Here an assessment between actual results and desired results is done in an attempt to keep the planning and the implementation phases on target.

1.1.8 Data collection

Literature from the following sources of information was studied in order to collect data. This implies that data was obtained largely through literature, using the following resources:

Data generated by organisations

- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development reports.

- The SADC Sectoral annual reports.

- Diplomatic missions

- The SADC head-office

- World Bank Human Development reports

Data from primary sources

- Academic journal articles

- Unpublished conference papers

- Conference papers in published proceedings

- Newspapers and magazines

- Unpublished dissertations

- Personal communications

Data organised, collected and indexed in secondary sources

- Text books

- Abstracts (periodic issues in academic disciplines)

- Dictionaries

- Sacred scriptures e.g. the Bible

Data from tertiary sources

- My promoter and co-promoter

- On-line data base

- Information services

1.2 Orientation

The following strategic diagnosis of the SADC macro-environment indicates that there are five areas to emphasise in the effort to navigate the complexity of the SADC region and to come to a relevant solution.
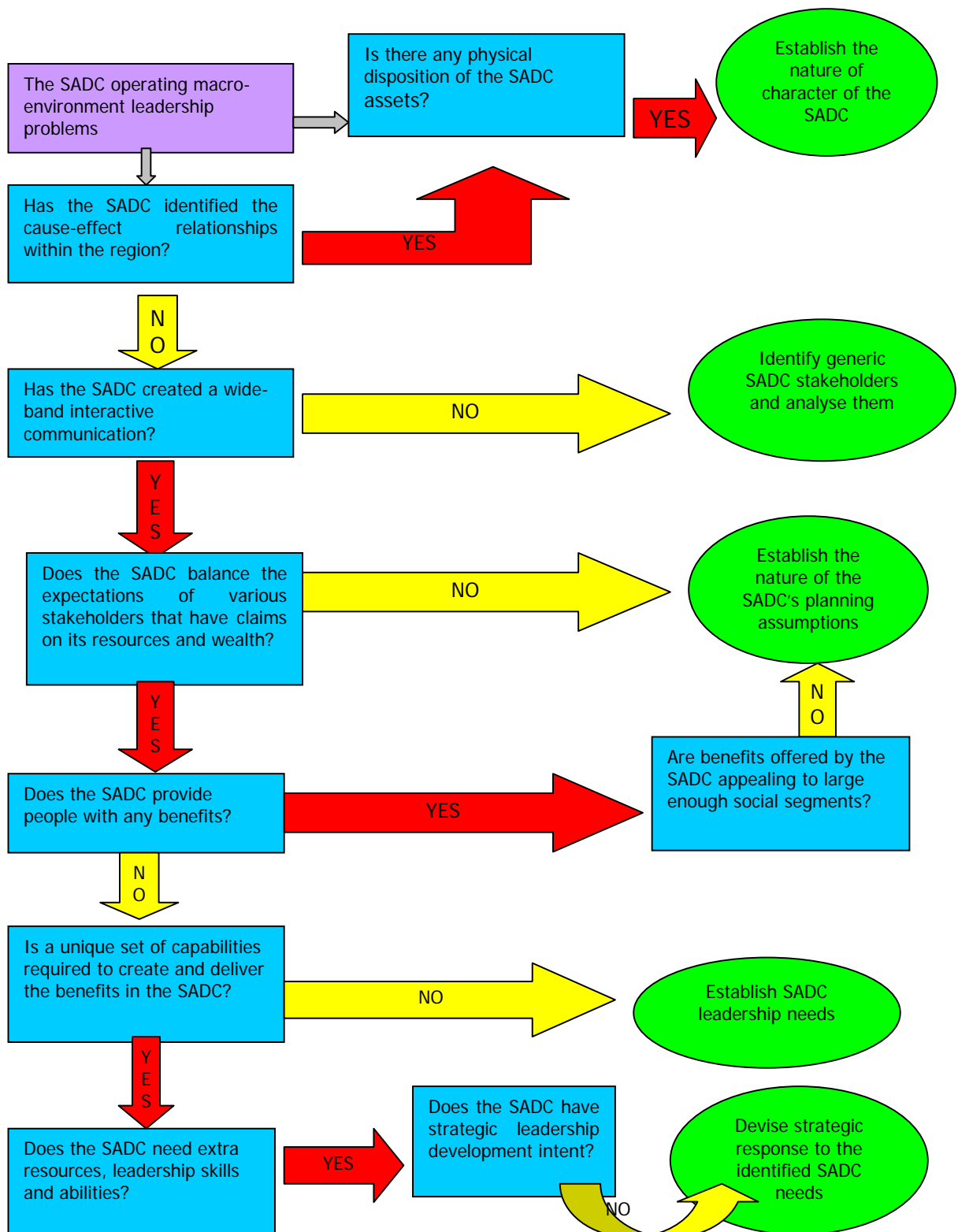
Figure 1.3: Strategic diagnosis of the SADC operating macro-environment

The SADC operating macro-environment leadership problems

Is there any physical disposition of the SADC assets?

YES → Establish the nature of character of the SADC

Has the SADC identified the cause-effect relationships within the region?

YES

NO

Has the SADC created a wide-band interactive communication?

NO → Identify generic SADC stakeholders and analyse them

YES

Does the SADC balance the expectations of various stakeholders that have claims on its resources and wealth?

NO → Establish the nature of the SADC's planning assumptions

YES

Does the SADC provide people with any benefits?

YES → Are benefits offered by the SADC appealing to large enough social segments?

NO

NO

Is a unique set of capabilities required to create and deliver the benefits in the SADC?

NO → Establish SADC leadership needs

YES

Does the SADC need extra resources, leadership skills and abilities?

YES → Does the SADC have strategic leadership development intent?

NO → Devise strategic response to the identified SADC needs

11

1.2.1 Outline of the chapters

This study consists of the following six chapters:

Chapter 1 – Introduction and orientation

- The context of the study

- Why the study is carried out

- How the study is carried out

- What is contained in the study

Chapter 2 – Literature review

This chapter describes and critically analyses material relevant to the topic of this study. The literature is subdivided into different subjects.

Chapter 3 – The SADC external analysis and leadership challenges

Chapter 3 starts by exploring developmental realities in the SADC region. The SADC as an organisation is the institutional centrepiece of a complex society, whose people have a diverse range of interests, expectations and demands. The exploration of developmental realities in the SADC has to start with an analysis of these stakeholders since development is for people by people.

Chapter 3 proceeds to analyse the macro-environment of the SADC. Identifying macro-environmental change and its potential threats or opportunities is essential to ascertain its implications for leadership. This macro-environment comprises a social environment, economic environment, technological environment, political environment and ecological environment. Only view-selected segments of these environments are comparatively analysed to find common denominators and differences between the SADC member states, thus enabling a more in-depth exploration of the developmental realities of this region.

Chapter 4 – The SADC needs analysis

Having established leadership implications through the analysis of the external environment of the SADC, a tool for integrative forecasting – planning assumptions development – is used to depict the SADC's probable future. This is an effort to assign subjective probabilities to those events identified as potentially able to affect the SADC. These planning assumptions are developed on the basis of possible implications for leadership identified by the analysis of the macro-environment.

Validation points are allotted to the identified SADC planning assumptions. This indicates that the validation points justify the selected assumptions because they are the driving force behind these planning assumptions. Therefore, they are referred to as the 'drivers'. The cross-impact analysis, which is a type of forecasting method, is then employed to analyse the drivers and the rise in the leadership needs of the SADC. This method entails the interaction of events; here event-to-event impacts are considered simultaneously. The forecast of each event is derived from mathematical projections. When these relationships have been specified in accordance with their estimated probability, they trace out a distinct, plausible and internally consistent future. This makes it possible to establish the key leadership needs of the SADC, and possible policy choices relative to the identified key leadership needs.

Chapter 5 – The NEPAD LDS as a strategic response to the identified key leadership needs in the SADC

Chapter 5 deals with NEPAD LDS as a strategic response to the identified key leadership needs within the SADC region. This chapter addresses concerns such as the kind of effective leadership programme to be designed and the necessity to base this programme on the NEPAD to fully achieve its goals. NEPAD as one of the most ambitious attempts to build a broad collaborative effort in Africa and can it provide the SADC with viable and sustainable economic growth and a practice of good governance, hence good leadership. The SADC leadership is therefore urged to find a niche within NEPAD, adopt it, domesticate it, own it and base its leadership development on it. The focus of this part of Chapter 5 is therefore on examining how leaders in this region should

respond in a 'leadership sense' to the kinds of social and ethical issues arising in the region. Social responsiveness is an important design component here, because the social-ethical-public environment has an intense impact on the SADC organisation.

Chapter 5 is developed around the premise that the major determinant of successful strategy implementation is how well the process is led. It argues that the proficient execution of strategic responses for the strategy-shaping factors relies on competent personnel, adequate competencies and a competitive organisation. Therefore, the SADC has to regard the stated components of the NEPAD LDS strategic plan as top strategy priorities.

Chapter 6 – Findings, discussions and conclusions

This chapter examines the extent to which and how well the NEPAD LDS, including a social responsiveness strategy, meets the identified strategy-shaping factors of the SADC. The consequences of this examination are presented as findings and their discussions. Chapter 6 also presents the researcher's deductions based on the study as a whole.

1.2.2 Structure of the chapters

Each chapter has the following introductory features:

- Objectives for the chapter

- An overview of the chapter

- Summary and conclusions

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter engages with prior research and compares how different theories address the selected themes of this study.

2.1.1 Objectives

- To identify literature directly relevant to the topic of this study

- To use literature for review and for referencing

2.1.2 Overview

The literature review proceeded from the assumption that contact between peoples and countries of the SADC has grown in extent and diversity, which in turn gave rise to contradictions and opportunities in leadership. From the literature scanned, the following major themes were identified:

Of particular significance for Chapter 1 in which the restructuring and the design of the SADC organisation are discussed are the following themes:

- Regionalisation;

- Organisational transformation; and

- Organisational design.

The theme relevant to Chapter 3, which deals with the external analysis of the SADC and establishes the leadership challenges, is

- Current organisational challenges.

The theme relevant to the needs analysis in Chapter 4 is

- Adaptive organisations.

The following themes were also selected for literature review and are particularly relevant to Chapter 5 where the strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS is established:

- Leadership development;

- Social responsiveness; and

- Leading change.

These themes for the literature review are prerequisites for building the basis of the discussions in the respective chapters. The literature review thus contributes to a better understanding of these chapters.

2.2 Literature review

Here, what is known in the area of regionalisation, organisational transformation, organisational design, current organisational challenges, adaptive organisations, leadership development, social responsiveness, and leading change is integrated and summarised to show the direction of this study.

2.2.1 Regionalisation

All countries of the world encounter macro-environmental problems that extend beyond national boundaries and hence they have developed regional-level governance through regional conventions, economic co-operations and even union of governments. According to Delors (1995:41), "nations must unite when they feel affinity, be it for reasons of geography, history, key objectives or indeed, simple necessity." Ghai (2000:219) argues:

> Regional integration must be encouraged as a framework for economic growth through trade and productive specialisation … efforts in this area should take place within the framework of existing bilateral regional groups, and should emphasize exchange rate harmonisation and currency convertibility; the shared use of training manpower.

Longo (2005) points out that the necessities of coordination, collaboration and integration derived from globalisation of social process, and the emergence of huge global crises that affect the economy, ecology, demography and scarcity make it difficult to think that some form of political unification of the world could be avoided indefinitely.

There are different schools of thought regarding regional integration, according to Griffiths (1995), who indicates that the realists school regards the world as composed of

rational unitary state actors that strive to ensure their own survival through maximising their power and material, while being within an anarchic environment. This school of thought stipulates that, even if the state actors were interested in co-operation, the underlying condition of international anarchy would inhibit their willingness or ability to do so.

The neo-realists school of thought argues in favour of systematic analysis that can incorporate a measure of cooperation as a means by which regional organisations can still maximise their power. Membership of regional organisations can confer benefits by re-designing transaction costs inherent in trying to obtain similar results through *ad hoc* bilateral bargaining processes.

The neo-liberal school of thought accepts the premise that the actors in the international system are self-integrated nation states. However, this school of thought contests the underlying assumption that such a system would be prone to anarchy and atomisation. This school adds that international organisations are capable of controlling the incidences of 'cheating' because they have accumulated responsibilities over a range of issues.

Apart from these schools of thought, there are also variations in the level of integration reached by different regional institutions. The "European Union and SADC seminar" (1995) indicates that other regions have reached a trade liberalisation level whereby non-tariff barriers are removed to ensure economies of scale. According to Pooley (1995: 30), "In a world where economics are increasingly interdependent, a solid and broadly integrated base is an important asset in order to compete." Therefore, trade liberalisation encourages a relocation of resources especially through mergers between institutions. Ghai (200:212) however points out that, "The institutions must conform not only to political necessity, but to the established norms and ethics of the society in which they are placed … political institutions that are inappropriate to local circumstances can also be destabilising."

Another level of integration is a customs union that provides the framework to integrate institutions, improve intra-community transport and liberalise trade. This brings

about the need for customs codes to ensure that rules are applied consistently and universally. There is also integration in the environmental, urbanisation and transport sectors, which includes infrastructure development. This demands common environmental policies and harmonisation of legal codes. In order to ensure the achievement of a number of key tasks, structural funds are created for regional integration. Structural funds require co-financing with member states, usually at the rate of 50/50. Consequently, as Delors (1995: 41) points out; "The strength of institutions is crucial, the strength is lies in a certain division of powers, but also in the institutional system's capacity to arrive at a consensus … effective channels of information between the various national and community institutions."

Few regions have reached this level of monetary integration because it touches directly on the issue of sovereignty. The few that have reached monetary integration have also reached common foreign and security policies. In these instances, national policies are harmonised so that they are constant with the national ones. This single institutional framework contributes to efficiency in the external activities of the region.

Effendi (cited in Zana-Nau, 2005) argues that the unity of the human race requires the establishment of a world commonwealth in which all nations, races, creeds and classes are closely and permanently united, and which safeguards the autonomy of states as well as the personal freedom and initiative of individuals who compose them. This implies that regions emphasise community relationships over individual autonomy, cultural diversity over assimilation, quality of life over accumulated wealth, sustainable development over unlimited material growth and global co-operation rather than the unilateral exercise of power.

It seems the constructed world regions are at the crossroads and need to find inspiration, a common vision, and values that transcend their geographical space. They need to undertake the revision of their values and procedures, and re-think how to live together in accordance with the principles of unity in diversity. Ghai (2000:262) indicates that regionalism has faced political problems for the following three reasons:

- Conflicts of interest are resolved in favour of immediately pressing considerations;

- Regionalism, whatever the rhetoric, has rarely been perceived as a short-term life or death or national/governmental survival issue; and

- External crises and prescriptions for overcoming them have tended to be anti-regional in result, even though not necessarily in intent.

In any integration, there are bound to be winners and losers; some sectors gain benefits while others lose, especially in the short run. Delors (1995) urges the world to adapt because it is no longer possible to ignore the fact that the world is in motion. Therefore, no frontier or specific model can deter the world from the efforts required to come to terms with globalisation. He maintains that interdependence calls for a new co-operation effort at world level.

The "Alternative Information and Development Centre" (2004) indicates that developmental regionalism has the following strategic aims:

- **Create economies of scale:** To provide effective bases for rounded and viable developmental regionalism, countries have to be combined within wider more realistic and rational economic entities. Large-scale production programmes and markets, and greater cost-effectiveness and efficiencies, especially through shared infrastructure, should be in place.

- **Create communities of nations and peoples:** National entities cannot be submerged easily or immediately into one unitary economy. Regional groupings must initially be communities of nations and peoples, while encouraging cross-border convergence and actively promoting emerging regional and broader identities as well.

- **Create 'variable geometry':** This entails the democratic negotiation and creation, co-existence and co-ordination of varying but overlapping sub-groupings of countries, where demanded, in different sectors and spheres of co-operation and within differing frameworks and timetables.

- **Create special and differential treatment:** Different modalities and rates of integration must be adopted in view of the unequal levels of economic development of countries. This requires special and differential treatment to avoid disadvantaging the weak in their economic interactions with the strong.

- **Create preferential and variable trade agreements:** Contrary to the simplistic free-trade formula pushed by the World Bank and WTO, trade agreements between the partners within the region should be negotiated to encourage productive development and stimulate constructive trade between them.

- **Create self-reinforcing development:** More balanced and equitable development must be promoted within and through all regional agreements and arrangements. This has to be based on political and moral issues of equity and justice, and should include compensatory programmes and redistributive measures.

- **Create differentiated but common responsibilities:** Stronger member governments should carry greater responsibility for compensatory measures and redistributive mechanisms to redress geographical and social imbalances and inequities in the region. They must ensure that their companies do not reinforce or aggravate existing economic imbalances through aggressive or predatory business tactics in other countries within the region.

The above aims require public planning and regulation. Market forces cannot promote them because they function according to different business profitability criteria. Public sector and public investment can lead the way in such a developmental process. Therefore, the skills and resources of national or regional private enterprise could be marshalled towards such aims in joint public-private partnerships.

Ghai (2000) poses the following questions regarding regionalisation:

- Can regionalism advance security and good governance, both at the level of basic service delivery and in the audited accounts?

- Are common interests … likely to be seen as being a compelling organising priority for national, enterprise political and economic strategies?

- Can states be active participants in regionalism in a way that builds support for regional and national interests?

He indicates that regionalisation has been a problem in Africa because:

> African countries were basically creations of the Berlin Conference of 1884, they have common colonial legacies, one of these legacies is the definition of borders that bear little relationship to geographical or cultural features of the African landscape … A major problem with the inherited borders is that people belonging to the same family, clan or tribe live in two or more states … Another colonial legacy that has a negative effect on African development is the economic, social and political linkages. (Ghai (2000))

Ghai further points out that Pan Africanism was used in an effort to regionalise because this approach looks beyond national boundaries and seeks to identify common concerns and ways to further them. Pan Africanism, according to him, has the following themes that assisted the process of regionalisation:

- Self-respect: This theme emerged among people who were colonised at home and discriminated against abroad as members of the diaspora. Although they found it easy to organise, the experienced the hurtful contact with prejudice more intensely than people in much of the colonised Africa.

- Self-determination: This concept initially encompassed participation in the rule, then independence, and now includes meaningful participation in the international system.

- Self-reliance: This concept suggests unity, which ranges from the community, through national and sub-regional levels.

These themes imply that the constructed world regions need to be aware that the leadership component of integration process cannot be neglected. Regional integration requires highly competent leadership. Therefore, organisational transformation should be a priority in all regional integration settings.

2.2.2 Organisational transformation

Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy (2002:389) refer to Beer's (1988; 1999) rational approach to organisational change, represented by the following formula:

$$C = D \ x \ M \ x \ P > R$$

The **D** represents **D**issatisfaction of followers with the current status quo. **M** symbolises the **M**odel of change and includes the leader's vision of the future, as well as the goals and systems that need to change to support the new vision. **P** represents **P**rocess, which involves developing and implementing the plan that articulates the who, what, where, when and how of the change initiative. **R** stands for **R**esistance. People resist change because they fear loss of identity and social contacts; therefore, plans should address these sources of resistance. The **C** corresponds to the amount of **C**hange. The formula suggests that leaders can increase the amount of change by increasing the level of dissatisfaction, increasing the clarity of vision, developing a well-thought out change plan and decreasing the amount of resistance in the followers.

On the same issue of organisational change, Bologun, Haily, Johnson and Scholes (1999:3) indicate that change has the following main components:

- **Context**: This is the 'why' of the change. There is an internal context, which entails the culture, structure and capabilities of the organisation, and includes the political context. There is also an external context, which refers to the social, economic, political and competitive environment within which an organisation operates.

- **Content**: This is the 'what' of the change and refers to choices that need to be made about the organisation's product range, and how it competes, how it should be structured and so on.

- **Process**: This is the 'how' of the change; thus the things done to deliver change.

Hughes *et al.* (2002:402) indicate that organisational change can sometimes occur through an emotional approach, such as charismatic and transformational leadership. This kind of leadership derives authority from its exemplary characteristics. Such leaders are

thought to possess superhuman qualities or power of divine origin that set them apart from ordinary people. They argue that charismatic leaders are passion-driven individuals who are able to paint a compelling vision of the future. Through this vision, they are able to generate high levels of excitement among followers and build strong emotions and attachments within them. Therefore, Hughes *et al*. (2002:402) argue; "The combination of a compelling vision, heightened emotional levels and strong personal attachments often compels followers to put forth greater effort to meet organisational or societal changes."

Furthermore, transformational leadership changes the status quo by appealing to followers' values and their sense of high purpose. According to Hughes *et al*. (2002:402), "Transformational leaders articulate the problems in the current system, and have a compelling vision of how a new organisation or society is ultimately linked to the values of both the leader and the followers." They indicate that transformational leaders are charismatic, but not all charismatic leaders are transformational. Charismatic leaders who are not transformational can convey a vision and form strong emotional bonds with followers, but they do so in order to get their own needs met. Both transformational and charismatic leaders strive for organisational or societal changes, but with the difference being in whether the changes are for the benefit of the leader or the followers.

Balogun *et al*. (1999:4) suggest that "changing organisations is about changing people, [and] any implementation approach has to work within cultural, political and social nature of the organisation." Sedler (1994:158) however differs in this regard: "Here the purpose is clearly to transform the organisation into a radically different form of social institution from that which previously existed … organisational transformation will always involve bringing about change in values, attitudes and beliefs." Sedler (1994) furthermore argues that the aim is to adapt or modify an existing social institution to make it more effective in achieving its goals, but not alter its fundamental characteristics. To illustrate, he refers to an organisation that possesses certain characteristics, which when taken together could justify it as a bureaucracy. The purpose of transforming it would be to make it a more efficient kind of bureaucracy, not to transform it into something different.

Harvey and Brown (2001:428) similarly argue, "Organisational transformation may be defined as drastic, abrupt change of total structure, management processes and corporate cultures." They argue that organisational transformation approaches tend to use directive rather than participative approaches. Leadership initiates the transformational change, which is usually a top-down process. According to Covey (2002:287),

> The goal of transformational leadership is to 'transform' people and organisations in the liberal sense; to change them in mind and heart, enlarge vision, insights and understanding; clarify purposes; make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles or values, and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating and momentum building.

As the discussion above shows, organisations that perform well consistently transform the way they operate and devise cultures that allow for the improvement of skills, abilities, structures and motivational levels of organisational members. Institutions are dynamic systems and change continuously. Gouillard and Kelly (1995:7) define organisational transformation as "an orchestrated redesign of the genetic architecture of the corporation achieved by working simultaneously, although at different speeds."

Daft (2001:369) states that all organisations need to make changes in their life and that many organisations are cutting out layers of management and decentralising decision-making as a way of restructuring. The SADC has undergone organisational transformation that entailed the restructuring of the organisation's portfolio and the alignment of its work processes, as well as its operations strategy. This restructuring was necessary for the SADC's survival as an organisation.

Some people resist the change that organisational transformation brings because the internal stability of the organisation may be lost unless there is an explicitly shared vision of where the organisation is going. According to Tsoukas (1994:56),

> Prosperity of change does not assure survival and the processes of change are complicated by variety of confusions and surprise. Solutions sometimes discover problems rather than other way round …

Organisations evolve, solve problems, learn, bargain, initiate and regenerate.

Restructuring is evidently painful because comfortable behaviour is challenged. On the other hand, the pain of change could establish a platform for growth. The SADC organisation seems to have undergone only strategic and structural changes pertaining to the administrative domain, which include changes in the organisational structure, strategic management and policies.

This study will focus on cultural changes, an aspect the SADC has addressed inadequately. Cultural changes refer to changes in values, attitudes and expectations. Sedler (1994:171) says the following in this regard:

> The process of implementing change and doing so in such a way that it
> strikes, is one which calls for intense persistent and dedicated effort …
> The greater part in bringing about changes lies in bringing about changes
> in people's actual behaviour and in the values, beliefs and attitudes, which
> underlie that behaviour.

Accordingly, one could say that the value proposition acts as a design standard; without it there is no common context for development. Similarly, one could argue that understanding the change leads to the success of the change initiative, because as relationships improve things get better. Daft (2001:332) points out that "value-based leaders engender a high level of trust and respect based not only on their stated values but also on coverage, determination and self esteem." Fullan (2001:3) warns that misunderstanding of change could lead to moral martyrdom. These statements by Daft and Fullan imply that SADC leaders have to combine commitment with moral purpose in their leadership to become more successful and to unearth deeper moral purpose amongst their subordinates. The SADC, like any other organisation, exists to create value for its stakeholders. This is why the SADC common agenda in the report on review of the SADC institutions (2001:47) states the following:

Given that the SADC is an intergovernmental organisation, this principle aims at facilitating participation of stakeholders in the furtherance of Sac's common agenda. These stakeholders can be categorized as

- o Associate organisations

- o SADC agencies and institutions

- o Political, social, cultural and economic institutions and agencies

- o NGOs and civil society

The SADC must therefore be cautious of its organisational design if it is to be successful.

2.2.3 Organisational design

Embedded in every organisational structure is the need to maintain control over delegated decision-making. Without an appropriate design, an organisation can lose its ability to determine corporate direction and performance. Historically, organisational design focused on a centralisation-decentralisation continuum. Robinson (1990:229) identifies the following common elements in the design of organisations:

- Bureaucracy

- Adhocracy

- Divisional structure

He states that bureaucracy can be either machine bureaucracy or professional bureaucracy. Machine bureaucracy design has routine operating tasks, very formalised rules and regulations, tasks that are grouped into functional departments, centralised authority, decision-making that follows the chain of command and an elaborate administrative structure. Professional bureaucracy design entails hiring highly trained specialists for operating the core, while achieving efficiencies from standardisation. This design combines standardisation with decentralisation. It relies on specialisation based on the possession of individual skills rather than on the division of labour. The professionals in this design perform their activities relatively autonomously. The power in this design rests with these professionals who are the operating core.

The adhocracy design, according Robinson (1990), involves bringing together a diverse group of professionals for a singular particular purpose. In this design, the professionals frequently find themselves with overlapping activities, because no formal rules or regulations are provided to guide them. This organisational design is temporary; there is no entrenched hierarchy; no permanent departments; and no standardised procedures for dealing with routine problems. According to Robinson (1990:300), "Adhocracies are best conceptualised as group of terms. Specialists are grouped together into flexible teams that have few rules, regulations or standard routines. Coordination between teams is through mutual adjustments." Adhocracy is characterised by high horizontal differentiation, low vertical differentiation, low formalisation, decentralisation and great flexibility and responsibilities. Horizontal differentiation is great because adhocracies are staffed predominately by professionals with a high level of expertise. Vertical differentiation is low because the many levels of administration can result in the organisation's ability to adapt.

Because of the lack of standardisation and formalisation in an adhocracy, the techno-structure is almost non-existent because support staff and middle management are typically all professionals. The result is a pool of experts that can be drawn from to innovate, solve unique problems and perform flexible activities. The difference between a professional bureaucracy and an adhocracy is that a professional bureaucracy design will, when faced with a problem, immediately classify the problem into standardised programmes so that it can be treated in a uniform manner, whereas an adhocracy design relies on an innovative solution, which makes standardisation and formalisation inappropriate.

With regard to 'divisional structure' design, Robinson (1990) stipulates that it is a set of autonomous units, each typically a machine bureaucracy onto itself, and is coordinated by a central headquarters. The problem with this design is that the goals of the functional units tend to override the organisation's overall goals.

Owens (2001) places organisational design options within two major perspectives: bureaucratic view and human development view. The first view stresses the primacy of the organisation's officially prescribed rules and their enforcement as a means

of influencing individual participants to perform dependably in predictable ways. The second view emphasises the use of what individuals consciously think about what they are doing to involve their commitment, abilities or energies in achieving the organisation's goals. Rather than using written rules and close supervision, the organisation socialises the participants into its values and goals.

Apart from the design feature of organisations, there are common design elements present in organisations. Mintzberg (cited in Robinson, 1990) identifies the following common organisational design elements:

- **The operating core**, which are employees who perform the basic work related to the production of services or goods.

- **The strategic apex**, which are top-level managers charged with an overall organisational responsibility.

- **The middle-line managers** connect the operating core to the strategic apex.

- **The techno-structure** has the responsibility to effect certain forms of standardisation in the organisation.

- **The support staff** are people who fill the staff units.

According to Daft (2001:15), the five parts suggested by Mintzberg may vary in size and importance depending on the organisation's environmental, technological and other factors. He suggests the following four common elements in organisational design:

- **Technical core** that include the people who do the basic work of the organisation.

- **Technical support** helps the organisation to adapt to the environment. It is responsible for creating innovations in the technical core.

- **Administrative support** is responsible for smooth operation and up-keep of the organisation, including its physical and human elements.

- **Management** is responsible for coordinating other parts of the organisation, providing the strategy, direction, goals and policies for an entire organisation.

It is evident from the above discussion that organisational design poses a challenge to leaders of organisations. It is analytically demanding and they would have to maintain control of diverse portfolios, while ensuring the coherence of the entity as a whole. The good organisational design of the SADC would facilitate the identification of current organisational challenges in this region.

2.2.4 Current organisational challenges

Daft (2001) indicates that challenges facing organisations in the twenty-first century are quite different from those of the last century. Currently, the world is changing more rapidly than ever before. He argues that many organisations face the following challenges among others:

- Competing globally

- E-commerce

- Managing knowledge and information

Concerning global competition, he argues that with rapid advances in technology and communications, the time it takes to exert pressure around the world has been reduced from years to only seconds. Although this interdependence brings many advantages, it means that organisations have to learn to cross lines of time, culture and geography in order to survive. This implies that organisations that will thrive globally are those that develop sustainable competitive advantages from activities based less on a 'winner takes all' mentality and more on a mentality that can blend competition with co-operation practices. These are global strategic partnerships that can create sustainable advantages for organisations. A sustainable advantage is what distinguishes one organisation from others that provide the same services or goods. Sustainable advantage generates positive economic and social returns, and helps an organisation to survive. Therefore, one of the critical organisational challenges is to develop internal systems that are responsive to the preferences and needs of its stakeholders and to global demands, because every organisation's competitiveness is affected either positively or negatively by globalisation.

Parker (1998:6) gives the following description of globalisation:

Globalisation is popularly described as absence of borders and barriers to trade between nations (Ohmae, 1995), but it has also been viewed as skills in traditional patterns of international production, investment and trade *(*Dicken, 1992), and as interconnections between overlapping interests of business and society (Brown, 1992; Ranesh, 1992).

These descriptions show that organisations are not only affected by globalisation, but they also stimulate, sustain and extend it by spreading ideas concerning wealth creation. The global competitiveness of an organisation depends on determinants such as the availability of productive factors demand, their strategy and structure. Therefore, leaders who believe that material borderlessness is the essence of globalisation will guide their organisational energy towards monitoring national and foreign economic and political changes, while leaders who view globalisation, as convergence between business and other societal interests will devote more attention to scanning social changes.

Concerning electronic commerce (e-commerce), Daft (2001) argues that organisations embrace the new world e-business to sell their services and products, and to improve communication with stakeholders and partners. E-commerce is about the transacting of business using electronic communication processes and facilities, especially the Internet. People can purchase from anywhere or sell goods anywhere in the world by placing orders and paying over the Internet. Parker (1998:259) indicates that from 60% to 70% of advanced economies are based on services like construction services, because people's demand for timesaving services such as those offered through the Internet. Many of these services and products do not have to be done at the clients' physical premises. Technologies can turn them into virtual goods that can be created anywhere for electronic delivery of the client, but other services can be offered off-line.

The commercial potential of the web has attracted many users because this system provides access to a large amount of information. This indicates that the amount of trade, its direction and activities of business will change because of the speed with which information is acquired. Organisations are therefore increasingly able to choose the location for activities that suit them regardless of boundaries. However, many organisations in the developing world still lack the facilities necessary for e-commerce,

even though this mode of commerce is seen as the vehicle for economic development that will help reduce poverty. The lack of access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) services is therefore a major obstacle to participation in e-commerce by such organisations.

It is evident that technological competence facilitates e-commerce and is a critical success factor for e-commerce. The ability to motivate for and apply new technologies is fundamental to building the strengths of organisations. These strengths may lead to strategic advantages that are critical to organisational success and survival. Paker (1998:557) however warns that "sometimes technologies also have the potential to disrupt societies currently based on person to person communication … this might result in reduced human contact and social isolation." Leaders must therefore find ways to invent their organisations in differentiated ways that matter to people and have better services and better service delivery. They have to curb the digital divide that exists between organisations in the developing world and the developed world by embarking on organisational processes and projects to formulate and implement ICT policies and strategies regarding e-commerce. Information is one of the most critical problems faced by leaders because it is not just about facts and figures, but about gaining knowledge about stakeholders, competitors, environmental change and so on.

The above discussion indicates that e-commerce can offer both obstacles and opportunities for organisations, and it is currently a challenge to many organisations.

Regarding management of knowledge and information, Daft (2001) argues that intellectual capital matters more than any other asset and organisations should therefore seek to manage knowledge just as they manage cash flow, human resources or raw materials. Wikipedia (2006) defines knowledge management as an approach to improving organisational outcomes and learning by introducing into an organisation a range of specific processes and practices for identifying and capturing knowledge, expertise and other intellectual capital, and for making such knowledge assets available for transfer and re-use across the organisation. According to Parker (1998:570), "intellectual property refers to a broad collection of rights relating to human inventiveness and creativity." Organisations therefore must be concerned about staying

ahead technologically and about protecting their ideas. The rapid pace of global change creates a demand for people with specialised skills. Organisations must therefore invest in education sufficient for employment and defend their knowledge by endorsing strong intellectual property rights. In this way, these organisations become adaptive organisations.

2.2.5 Adaptive organisations

Adaptive organisations are those that employ practices that allow for flexible use of resources; these organisations are a network that includes leadership and stakeholders. Kelleher, McLaren and Bision (1996:99) define network organisations as follows:

> A network organisation implies considerable autonomy among its functional and programming units. The core of the organisation might consist of a very small infrastructure that provides certain services. Around the core might be programming units that implement the mission. These units are highly responsive and fluid.

The fact that adaptive organisations are network organisations implies that connections are made, and knowledge and value are created and shared. In these organisations, people feel a sense of belonging, a sense of choice and a sense of purpose. Sustainable assets exist in the minds of people in the networks and those who interact gain knowledge and new perspectives. Steward (1994, cited in Parker, 1998:338) indicates that intellectual capital comes from human assets, such as information systems that make individual intellectual capital accessible to the group or organisation. Adaptive organisations therefore engage in organisational learning as an attempt to create an organisation that is able to continually monitor the environment and adapt to changing conditions. An adaptive learning framework proposes that organisations can learn because they are made of human beings who think and learn. Nokana and Takeuchi (1995, cited in Parker, 1998:213) view knowledge creation as a spiral that operates at multiple levels to share internal and external information: "The collective or group nature of implicit knowledge means that everyone must think about how a task is accomplished, and all are contributing to, and absorbing knowledge." Therefore, knowledge management is

important in any adaptive organisation because it enables continuous learning and perpetual relevance.

Adaptive organisations enable people who need knowledge to interact with knowledge, and the knowledge is created through innovations. According to Kelleher *et al.* (1996:21), "Whatever the orientation, learning begins with, and keeps coming to people, to their understanding, experience and contribution. Supportive workplace relationships, working conditions and managerial style are both a cause and effect of a learning organisation." Regarding the issue of innovations, French and Bell (1999:324) point out, "The new paradigm proclaims that the most innovative and successful organisations will be those that derive their strength and vitality from adapting committed team players at all levels … not from the omniscience of the hierarchy." It is for this reason that the "Consortium for Service Innovations" (2006) cites the following as the benefits of being an adaptive organisation:

- Expanded capacity, capabilities and reach

- Continuous and just-in-time learning

- Inspired innovation

- Persistent relevance

- Increased economic value

Adaptive organisations' environment is a knowledge-enabled network because it optimises the creation and evolution of knowledge as it is based on social capital, networks and adaptability.

Adaptive organisations usually develop systematic approaches to problem solving and develop an understanding of what works and what does not work. They learn from experiences and from the best practices of others. French and Bell (1999:119) support this approach: "Developing the skill and knowledge to solve real problems as they arise in their 'natural state' minimises the educational problem of 'transfer of learning' from one situation to another." This suggests that adaptive organisations are able to integrate new resources or relocate existing ones as needed to solve problems and address rising

needs. They put more resources towards seeking out adaptive solutions and building internal cases for such solutions. They are able to link high-level strategic goals to operational levels. The "Consortium for Service Innovations" (2006) identifies the following as operational elements of adaptive organisations:

- Resource alignment

- Performance assessment

- Knowledge assets

The goal of resource alignment is to engage resources in an optimal way. People are mapped to work according to their preferred areas of skill, knowledge and ability. Adaptive organisations also provide visibility to appropriate and relevant resources based on evolving roles. The assessment of adaptive organisations is an assessment of value-creation performance, which is linked to values and results. How an individual impacts on others in a network is more important than their activities. Therefore, the effectiveness of adaptive organisations is measured by the diversity and richness of the interactions taking place over time, and the value being created as result of these interactions. This approach enables leaders to influence performance through results, while allowing people doing the work to figure out how best to achieve the results. Sedler (1994:37-38) argues as follows: "Effectiveness is therefore many-faceted. It involves not only achieving outstanding levels of performance relative to the competition, but also keeping in balance the expectations of various groups of people involved."

The leaders of adaptive organisations are skilled at changing the right things in the right ways, not changing for the sake of change and not compromising the core values of organisational principles. In adaptive organisations, there is genuine care for the well-being of all key constituents and they try to satisfy all other legitimate interests simultaneously. No group is ignored and fairness to all constituencies is a decision-making principle. In adaptive organisations, leaders must become accustomed to trying new skills, including being open with others. Therefore, good communication is critical in adaptive organisations because new information, knowledge and skills must be disseminated quickly and effectively throughout organisations. Sedler (1994:184) affirms

this view: "Although many forces are acting together to compel organisations to change … the development of information technology is the most powerful factor at work."

Leadership practices are the organising framework for adaptive organisations. The "Consortium for Service Innovations" (2006) indicates that alignment, agility and awareness are the principles that define leadership for adaptive organisations. If leaders persistently align their evolving values and the evolving values of the stakeholders to those of the organisation, then sustained success is evident. But, according to Sedler (1994:94),

> Some organisations and individuals feel that the dividing line between organisational values and individual values is hard to define. They therefore feel uncomfortable with this level of intervention, and question the legitimacy of trying to alter something as personal to an individual as their set of value.

This mandates leaders and stakeholders to interact in new ways, focussing on relevant issues and the flow of knowledge. The learning process in adaptive organisations is used to develop and pursue a shared vision. Becoming an adaptive organisation therefore involves a transformation in thinking. Persistent involvement of stakeholders enables adaptive organisations continuously to align their strategies and services to the stakeholders and constituencies being served. Sustained success in adaptive organisations requires the ability to learn and innovate, and the innovation has to be based on leadership experience and insights. Adaptive organisations should consequently not be entrenched in past success. Leaders should furthermore be able to see beyond current events and recognise the patterns and insights that enable learning and innovation. Therefore, adaptive organisations must focus on building new levels of value, which are not inhibited by past success. Covey (2002:20) point out that, "When people align their personal values with correct principles, they are liberated from old perceptions or paradigms … Centring life on correct principles is the key to developing rich internal power in our lives."

The fast organisational response of adaptive organisations requires a culture that accepts and supports organisational efforts to adapt to environmental changes, rather than a culture that is influenced by change. The members of adaptive organisations should therefore share a feeling of confidence and be receptive to risk-taking, experimentation, innovation and changing strategies and practices whenever necessary to satisfy the legitimate interests of stakeholders and communities where these organisations operate. These members should embrace proactive approaches to identifying issues, evaluating the implications and options. According to the "Consortium for Service Innovations" (2006), "In adaptive organisations, people engage according to interests and needs. People engage resources based on what seems relevant to them. They contribute value because it aligns with their values and intentions." These network-based interactions align those with common points of interests.

Many organisations will be compelled to move towards being adaptive because competitiveness pressures will force them to create goals and strategies that allow for adaptability. Covey (2002:250) says the following in this regard: "People and companies should not be content to stay where they are, no matter how successful they seem to be." Being adaptive would improve their processes, productivity, responsiveness and resource utilisation. The "Consortium for Service Innovations" (2006) states that an adaptive organisation model is necessary for the following reasons:

- Shift in the source of value: For most companies, the source of value has shifted from tangible assets (physical goods) to intangible assets (services, information, and relationships).

- Business structures are obsolete: Traditional hierarchical structures and command and control have evolved over the past hundred years based on a model of tangible assets and are ineffective in producing and evolving knowledge.

It follows that leadership development programmes should be in place to carry out the task of ensuring first-rate leaders for an organisation to become adaptive.

2.2.6 Leadership development

To improve one's leadership ability, it is important to have a clear understanding of what leadership is and what effective leaders do. There are two schools of thought concerning leadership: One claims that "leaders are born" and the other that "leaders are made". Despite vast differences, the advocates of these two schools of thought agree that leaders are generally somewhat superior in such areas as intelligence, social participation, sociability, initiative, originality, enthusiasm, self-confidence, popularity and adaptability. According to Maxwell (1998:82), "Some people are born with great leadership intuition, others have to work hard and develop and hone it. But either way it evolves, and the result is the combination of natural ability and learned skills."

With regard to the view that "leaders are made", Ready (1994, cited in Benjamin & Conger, 1999:9) argues that out of the study he conducted, managers viewed formal education as having only limited impact on how they learn and lead. The managers indicated that formal education only helped them to articulate a tangible vision, values and strategy. This researcher therefore concluded that formal training and education are of limited or little value when it comes to leadership development.

On the other hand, a number of studies have shown that leadership can be cultivated. The argument is that through a programme of instruction and actual practice, leadership is increased. Benjamin and Conger (1999:9) argue as follows:

> Leadership education can play a number of roles. It can heighten an individual's appreciation for leadership and strengthen one's motivation to develop leadership capabilities. It can facilitate the development of skills needed to build these capabilities.

This implies that leaders have to increase their effectiveness through training. If leadership is to be effective, it has to have an explicit sense of purpose and understand the change process. Fullan (2001:10) states: "How to become more effective as a leader is of growing concern … if leadership does not become more attractive, doable and exciting, public and private institutions will deteriorate." Therefore, leaders must be developed.

By looking closely at the two schools of thought on leadership, one has a feeling that opposite as they may seem, they complement each other. The school of thought that argues "leaders are born" focuses on leadership per se, which is about individual capability. On the other hand, the school of thought that claims "leaders are made" focuses on leadership development, which is about an individual experience.

The two schools of thought indicate how complicated the role-played by heredity and environment is in individual leadership development. One can only conclude that leadership seems to depend on heredity and environment. One's potentialities are set in a large measure as a result of one's inherited structure and environment is of major importance in the individual's attainment of his inherited potential.

The focus of this study is leadership development, which is about advancing the individual's embryonic leadership talents. Leadership development could help leaders to reflect on their own leadership capabilities and in turn stimulate their desire to seek out developmental experiences.

There are other proponents of the school of thought that leadership must be learned and can be learned and taught. For example, Hesselbein, Goldsmith and Beckhard (1996:xi) argue that leadership personality, leadership styles and leadership traits do not exist. They cite an example of leaders with whom they had worked and studied:

> Some locked themselves in their offices others were outgoing. Some were 'nice guys' and others were stern disciplinarians. Some were quick and impulsive others studied and studied again then took forever to make decisions … The only personally trait the effective ones did have in common was something they did not have: they had little or no charisma and little use either for the term for what it signifies.

One has a feeling that the leaders described above are pacesetters and coercers who have no empathy for people. Even though they lead, they are not effective leaders because they do not have the right kinds of sensitivity towards people. These leaders are inspired to get going because some elements of authoritative leadership help, though they are not

desirable. They are also inspired to get going because of their enthusiasm, self-confidence, optimism and clarity of vision.

As for the SADC leaders, they need their leadership styles to be developed so that they can adapt their organisation to meet environmental demands; leadership styles that will enable them to maximise their organisation's fit with environmental conditions. They must therefore be sensitive towards people. Leaders in this region ought to begin to think like change agents, particularly now that their organisation has restructured its operations and institutions. The problem they face is not only how to acquire new concept and skills, but also how to unlearn things that are no longer serving their organisation well. Hughes, Ginnot and Curphy (2002) suggest the following leadership development models:

- **The action-observation-reflection model:** They argue that making the most of experience is the key to developing one's leadership ability. Leadership development depends not just on the kinds of experiences one has, but also on how one uses them to foster growth. Leadership development is enhanced when experience involves actions, observation and reflection. Reflection is important because it can provide leaders with a variety of insights into how to frame problems differently. In this model, leadership is thought of as a process of developing more complex and differentiated frames for organising one's thinking about leadership.

- **Leadership development through experience model:** They say that one can learn about effective and ineffective leadership by paying attention to positive and negative models around them. Watching others in leadership roles may suggest what to do, as well as what not to do. This model suggests that peers can be a great source for developing one's effectiveness as a leader. Again, one can gain valuable perspectives and insights through close association with an experienced person as a mentor. In addition to other relationships, certain kinds of work-related tasks could also be developmental. Kouzes and Posner (1997) point out that "The best developmental opportunities are those that stretch individuals and allow them to test themselves against new difficult tasks."

- **Leadership development through education and training:** Formal education and training programmes can help one become a better leader. Spizberg (1987, cited in Hughes *et al*., 2002) estimates that over 500 colleges or universities offer some type of leadership training programme and often these programmes consist of extra-curricular leadership activities. There are also numerous leadership-training programmes aimed at leaders and supervisors in industry or public service. The content of these programmes depends on the organisational level of recipients.

According to Bjerke (2001:62), "Every epoch in history is asking for its own type of leadership." The "Danish Leadership Institute" (2006) shares this view and has devised a leadership-development model based on the Scandinavian leadership model. It has defined the following learning principles as guidelines for effective executive learning:

- **Reality:** All leadership development should be focused on real time challenges and opportunities.

- **Reflection:** Learning happens when actions, experiences and reactions are put into perspective by a process of reflection. Guided experience is by far the most powerful tool, which can offer busy, action-oriented executives.

- **Challenges:** Whilst any leadership development has to provide the right level of support and show respect for the individual, it will have more impact if there is an element of risk because the executive has something at stake.

- **Dialogue:** Leadership development should seek to tease out the existing and/or tacit knowledge and capabilities of the executives involved in an interactive format. The authority of a leadership expert is no longer based on intellectual knowledge alone, but as much on the way it is delivered or transferred. Lecturing professors are dinosaurs in executive learning.

- **Action:** Reflection without action leads nowhere. Any leadership development should be firmly focused on delivering value to the business.

- **Variation:** The format of learning should be varied and adaptable to different learning styles and needs. The responsibility for the learning process is handed over to the executives who are asked to intervene if the leadership development does not meet their objectives.

Underpinning the above principles are the expert knowledge, competency and integrity of facilitators. The leadership style produced through this process is said to be particularly suited for a post-industrial knowledge economy where success is dependent on collaboration across the value chain, networks and partnerships, and the ability to innovate in the environment of high levels of ambiguity and change.

Leadership as a discipline could also be explained with reference to leadership theories. Yukl (1987:7) indicates that there are four approaches to leadership:

- The power influence approach

- The behaviour approach

- The trait approach

- The situational approach

The power influence approach explains leadership effectiveness in terms of the amount of power possessed by the leader and how the leader exercises the power. The sources of power could be a position of power that is derived from formal authority, personal power (for example charisma) and political power that includes the power of having control over decision-making. There are two leadership theories that fall under the power influence approach. The first is the social exchange theory, which advocates that power is not static, but changes ever time. This theory explains how power is gained and how it is lost as reciprocal influences occur over time between leaders and followers. The second is the strategic contingency theory that suggests that power depends upon the ability of the leader to cope with problems and the extent to which his/her expertise is unique, as well as on the centrality of the function within workflow.

The behaviour approach emphasises what leaders actually do on the job. It considers the pace of work, the content of work and the role of leaders. It postulates that

participative leadership results in greater satisfaction and performance on the part of subordinates. The leadership theory under this approach is the universal theory, which states that effective leaders are both supportive and task-oriented.

The trait approach to leadership emphasises the personal attributes of leaders. The leader's success is attributed to the possession of extraordinary abilities. These leaders are said to be charismatic. They arouse commitment in followers by emotional appeals supplemented with rational persuasion. The leader's credibility is increased by the apparent success of followers' efforts to achieve shared goals. The leadership theory under this approach is the theory of transforming leadership whereby the leader increases his followers' motivation by activating their needs.

According to Yukl (1989:9), the **situational approach** emphasises the situational factors, such as the leader's authority and discretion. Other issues that are emphasised are the role and the requirements imposed on leaders by subordinates, peers and outsiders. This approach advocates that a leader's behaviour is a dependent variable, as it is influenced by the situation. The assumption is that behaviour patterns will be different in different situations and the same behaviour is not optimal in all situations. According to Yukl (1989:9), "This approach is sometimes called the contingency approach because the effects of the leader's behaviour are contingent on the situation."

There are many leadership theories under the situational/contingency approach that explain the behaviour of a leader, for example:

- Path-goal theory, which explains how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of followers;

- Role theory, which explains how role-senders such as superiors, peers and subordinates exert pressure on a leader to conform to their beliefs about a necessary way of behaviour;

- Demands–constraints–choices theory, which advocates that demands, constraints and choices shape the nature of the job of the leader and the leader's behaviour; and

- Cognitive resource theory, which examines how the conditions under which cognitive resources such as the intelligence, experience and technical expertise of a leader are related to the group's performance.

These theories represent a paradigm that is different from traditional management thinking. The difference between leadership and management is that the former focuses on doing 'right things' and the latter focuses as doing 'things right'.

If this new skill-set of synergy and the new mind-set of leadership could be put together in the SADC region, more particularly now during a transition period, this could lead to achieving competitive advantage. When people have the mind-set and skill-set, they may be able to create effective structures and processes that are aligned with organisational vision and mission. This can be achieved when appropriate approaches are employed in leadership development programme activities. Northouse (2004) suggests the following leadership development approaches:

- **Skill approach:** This approach includes the study of the behaviours of leaders rather than only their personal traits. Here the focus is on skills and abilities that can be learned and developed. This approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership. Leadership skills are defined as the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to achieve a set goals or objectives. Skills imply that leaders can accomplish, whereas traits imply who leaders are. This approach suggests that the importance of certain leadership skills varies depending on where leaders are in the management hierarchy. A leader-centred approach that emphasises the competencies of leaders.

- **Style approach:** This approach focuses on what leaders do rather than who they are. It suggests that leaders engage in two primary types of behaviour: task behaviours and relationship behaviours. This approach originated from Ohio State University where a leadership behaviour description questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed, which identified initiation of structure and consideration as the core leadership behaviours. The University of Michigan carried out research to find out the best way for leaders to combine task and relationship behaviours, but the

results have not been conclusive. Blake and Mouton also developed a practical model for training managers. This model described leadership behaviours along the grid with two axes: concern for results and concern for people. How leaders combine these orientations has resulted in five major leadership styles: authority compliance, country-club management, impoverished management, middle-of the-road management and team management.

- **Leader-member-exchange approach:** It addresses leadership as a process centred in the interactions between leaders and followers. It makes the leader-member relationship the pivotal concept in the leadership-development process. It postulates that subordinates become in-group members based on how well they get along with the leader. Subordinates who maintain only formal hierarchical relationships with their leader become out-group members. Researchers have found out that high-quality exchanges between leaders and followers produce multi-positive outcomes. Therefore, they have determined that good leader-member exchange results in followers feeling better, accomplishing more and helping the organisation to prosper. This approach suggests that leaders should try to develop high-quality exchanges with all their subordinates, because these partnerships are marked by a high degree of mutual trust, respect and obligation towards one another, and help organisations to run effectively.

- **Psychodynamic approach:** This approach suggests that leaders with insight into their own personality and into those of subordinates will function effectively. This approach is unique because it focuses on the basic personality of the leader and subordinates, and not specifically on leadership traits, behaviour or processes. The essential assumption of this approach is that an individual can change behaviours and feelings by obtaining insights into his upbringing, prior relationships and psychological development. Therefore, mechanisms such as counselling and personality assessment have to be in place to lead to insight.

Now that the SADC is undergoing change, it needs a new mindset and skill-set to create synergistic solutions. This suggests that the realm of motivation and commitment must be expanded to all leaders of this region because they are the ones to determine its course of

transformation. This is why a leadership-development initiative is recommended because it could set the tone and direction of the SADC's future.

A leadership development initiative consists of training designs that utilise learning principles to develop complex learning skills. Leadership development could be described as a craft or discipline with its own history and core competencies. The role of leadership development is to develop individual skills and socialise values and mission, and can be used for strategic intervention purposes. According to Benjamin and Conger (1999:149), "Leadership development programmes tend to be more customised, learner-centred and integrated with organisation's immediate strategic agenda". They furthermore argue that the programmes are no longer just a forum for teaching abstract concepts or fundamental skills, but are used as opportunities to recast the world-views of leaders and to align organisations to a new direction. They facilitate efforts to communicate and implement the vision, to build strategic unity throughout the organisation and to create a cadre of change agents.

These programmes build organisations' leadership capabilities, while at the same time facilitating progress towards key objectives. Therefore, the SADC could develop a programme that could be used to strengthen and accelerate its progress towards the strategic change it is undergoing. Hesselbein, Goldsmith and Beckhard (1996:164) point out that, "Faced with the need for new standards of productivity, cost-effectiveness and quality … companies have increasingly turned to customized internal education programmes to help them achieve their strategic objectives and act as catalysts for organisational change". This implies that the SADC will have to develop leadership-educational programmes with focussed content and methodologies that will enhance the learning process. Traditional methods that have been used to train leaders seem not to have kept pace with the monumental changes taking place in the region and in the world at large. On-the-job experiences and development seem not to produce leadership that the SADC organisation needs. It is therefore proper to say that the "leadership crisis in the SADC is in reality a "leadership development" crisis.

What is needed is a good early warning system tailored to fit changing circumstances, because it is hard to foresee everything and to adjust or adapt plans to

events. Therefore, a social responsiveness strategy is appropriate as it is capable of providing accurate information about what is happening. That is why the issue of social responsiveness is discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.2.7 Social responsiveness

This study will also focus on social responsiveness not social responsibility. However, the concept of social responsibility is a preliminary step towards the social responsiveness of an organisation. Both responsiveness and social responsibility move one large step further by including institutional actions and their effect on the whole system. In order to understand the concept of social responsiveness, the concept of social responsibility has to be understood first. Responsibility refers to a leader's obligation to evaluate in the decision-making process the effects of both his personal and institutional decisions and actions on the whole social system. This implies that the substance of social responsibility arises from concern for the ethical consequences of one's acts as they might affect the interests of others. The idea of social responsibility is that leaders are obliged to take actions that protect and improve the welfare of the society as a whole, along with institutional interests. This in turn would enhance quality of life and in this way harmony would be achieved between the organisation's activities and society's needs. The argument favouring social responsibility is that it creates a better environment for business, because a better society produces favourable conditions for business operations. Therefore, an organisation that is most responsive to the environment of the society will have a better community within which to operate.

Carrol (1996:35) presents a four-part definition of social responsibility that focuses on types of social responsibilities. This definition provides the following categories that are considered as one facet of the total social responsibility of an organisation:

- Economical responsibility, whereby an organisation's orientation is to produce services or goods that the society wants.

- Legal responsibilities, which embody basic notions of fairness as established by lawmakers. This is an organisation's responsibility to society to comply with these laws.

- Ethical responsibilities embrace the activities and practices that are expected or prohibited by social members even though they are not qualified into law. Ethical responsibilities embody the range of norms and expectations that reflect concerns or what society regards as fair and just. Fairness in turn could assume the additional values of honesty and truthfulness.

- Philanthropic responsibilities are primarily guided by organisational discretion and it is sometimes regarded a misnomer to call them responsibilities. The activities are purely voluntary, guided only by the organisation's desire to engage in social activities that are not mandated by law. However, these responsibilities are seen as embracing and reflecting newly emerging values and norms that society expects organisation to meet, even though they may reflect a higher standard of performance than currently required by law.

Because the SADC organisational activity is human activity, it can be evaluated from the moral point of view, just as any other human activity can be evaluated. This implies that the organisation has the same ethical or moral responsibility that humans have. Chryssides and Kalert (1996:65) argue that responsibility takes the following two basic forms:

- Duty: These are duties owed to other people or organisations. These duties might be the general moral duties that people owe to one another, or role-specific duties that come with a particular social role.

- Backward looking responsibility: It is being responsible in the sense of bearing responsibility for things that did or did not happen because events are consequences of our previous action or inaction.

This indicates that responsibilities and obligations are closely related. Therefore, the SADC organisation has an obligation or duty to fulfil its responsibilities and it is responsible for fulfilling its obligations. According to De George (1990:112), there are

excusing conditions for ethical responsibility, which are the conditions that diminish ethical responsibility. They provide reasons for lessening or cancelling ethical responsibility and are as follows:

- **Conditions precluding the possibility of an action**, which state that to be morally obligatory an action must be possible. Nobody is obliged to do what is impossible. Similarly, nobody can be morally responsible for doing what is impossible. This condition applies even when one does not have the ability required in a given case and when the opportunity for performing an action is absent.

- **Conditions precluding or diminishing required knowledge**, which stipulate that since knowledge and the will are necessary for moral actions, moral responsibility is lessened or removed when these aspects are less than fully present or when they are entirely absent. The excusing conditions here are 'excusable ignorance' and 'invisible ignorance'. Both are failures of knowledge. Excusable ignorance exists when people are morally responsible for their actions and for the consequences of their actions, but they cannot possibly know all the consequences of their actions. Invisible ignorance exists when people are morally responsible for the immediate and obvious consequences of their actions, as well as for the other reasonably foreseeable consequences of them. Lack of knowledge is excusable if, through no fault of their own, people did not know the circumstances or consequences.

- **Conditions precluding or diminishing required freedom**, which have to do with impairment or impediments to people freely choosing the action in question, especially when there is the absence of alternatives, lack of control, external coercion or internal coercion.

The SADC organisation acts only through those who act for it and it is the latter who must assume moral responsibility for the organisation, but the SADC organisation is amenable to moral evaluation even though it is not a moral person *per se*. If the SADC organisation acts with integrity, it will live up to fulfilling its responsibilities. The extent

to which the SADC fulfils its responsibilities is dependant on how it responds to its social obligation. The focus of this study is therefore on the social responsiveness of the SADC organisation.

Sethi (1975, cited in Carrol & Buchholtz, 1999:42) proposes a three-stage schema for classifying the move from social responsibility to social responsiveness. He argues that social responsibility implies bringing organisational behaviour up to the level where it is congruent with prevailing social norms, values and expectations, while social responsiveness suggests that what is important is not how organisations should respond to social pressure, but what should be their long-term role in a dynamic social system. This implies that organisations have to be anticipatory and preventive.

Social responsiveness refers to processes that allow leaders and organisations to put the principles of social responsibility into action. Organisational social responsiveness capabilities are developed when organisations become socially responsible. The capabilities of social responsiveness require knowledge and action from organisational leadership. Organisations that are serious about social responsiveness should therefore address capabilities at structural and behavioural levels. According to Carrol and Buchholtz (1999:43),

> In a sense, the responsiveness orientation enables organisations to rationalise and operationalise their social responsibilities without being bogged down in the quagmire of definition problems which can so easily occur if organisations try to get an exact determination of what their true responsibilities are before they act.

Therefore, leadership have to engage stakeholders in their activities and ensure ethical behaviour. This implies that they have to be socially accountable and value communications and dialogue. Through dialogue, outcomes that are desired by all can be achieved. Therefore, stakeholders' engagement should be central to socially responsive organisations because their quality is measured in terms of the degree in which they are open, engaging and responsive to the stakeholders' perceptions and expectations.

The following definitions of social responsiveness are cited in Carrol (1996:450):

- Frederic's viewpoint, which states that social responsiveness refers to the capacity of an organisation to respond to the social pressures. He says, "The literal act of achieving a generally responsive posture to society is the focus ... One searches the organisation for mechanisms procedures, arrangements and behavioural patterns that taken collectively would mark the organisation as a more or less capable of responding to social pressures."

- Epstein's viewpoint discusses social responsiveness within the context of a broader concept that he calls the social policy process. He asserts that social responsiveness focuses on the individual organisational processes for determining, implementing and evaluating the organisation's capacity to anticipate, respond to and manage the issues and problems arising from diverse claims and expectations.

From the above-discussed viewpoints, one can conclude that social responsiveness suggests more of an action-oriented theme by which organisations not only must address their basic obligation, but also must decide on the basic modes of responding to these obligations. There is a leadership challenge in determining the mode of response in the face of rising moral and ethical standards. Coming to terms with the morality of choice may be the most strenuous undertaking in strategic decision-making. According to Strickland (1998:343), "Morally upstanding values and high ethical standards nurture the culture in positive way, they connote the integrity 'doing the right thing' and genuine concern for stakeholders."

He furthermore indicates that values and ethical standards in organisations are no longer established by word-of-mouth indoctrination, but are written demands that explicitly state what an organisation intends and expects. This statement serves as benchmark for funding both organisational policies and functions. These values define the organisational position and they serve as a cornerstone for developing a consciousness (i.e. social responsiveness).

Another argument is that effective social responsiveness can improve the public image of an organisation. According to this line of thinking, social goals have to be the top priority of organisations. If organisations delay in responding to social problems, they

may find themselves constantly occupied with putting out social fires so that they have no time to accomplish their goals. Since social problems must be dealt with at some point, it is economic for organisations to be responsive immediately before social problems develop into serious social breakdowns. Understanding these issues would assist the SADC organisation to appreciate its social role and the notions of social responsibility and social responsiveness.

It is necessary therefore that the SADC incorporates a social responsiveness strategy into leadership development to ensure that the organisation will observe and respond to environments outside it systematically. This would set the stage for the achievement of an established self-sustaining, human-centred development and organisational behaviour that have consequences for stakeholders, the environment and whole societies, which means that the SADC will be socially accountable. Social accountability entails inclusivity because the interests of stakeholders are acknowledged and organisations conduct themselves in relation to these interests. Being a socially responsive organisation, the SADC would focus on what is important to stakeholders and to the organisation itself. It would be able to provide evidence that it coherently responds to people's concerns and policies. If the SADC becomes consistent in pursuing an efficient and effective social responsiveness strategy, it could eventually experience positive economic growth and developmental turnaround because the leaders of this region would be able to lead the change in this region.

2.2.8 Leading change

Fullan (2001:2) observes that the big problems of the day are complex and rife with paradoxes and dilemmas. He argues that there are no once-off answers to these problems, yet leaders are expected to provide solutions. According to Heifetz (1994, cited in Fullan, 2001:3),

> In crises … we call for someone with answers, decisions, strengths and a
> map of the future … Instead of calling for saviours, we should be calling
> for leadership that will change us to face problems for which there are no
> simple, painless solutions; problems that require us to learn new ways.

Beer, Eisentat and Spector (1990, cited in Fullan, 2001:32) applaud this view, and drew up the following bottom-up ideas for leading change:

- Mobilise commitment to change through joint diagnosis [with people in the organisations] of problems;

- Develop a shared vision of how to organise and manage competitiveness;

- Foster concerns for the new vision competence to enact it and cohesion to move it along;

- Spread revitalisation to all departments without pushing it from the top;

- Institutionalise revitalisation through formal policies, systems and structure; and

- Monitor and adjust strategies in response to the problems in revitalisation process.

On the same issue of leading change, Kotter (1996, cited in Fullan, 2001:32) proposes the following top-down model:

- Establish a sense of urgency;

- Create a guiding coalition;

- Develop a vision and strategy;

- Communicate a change vision;

- Empower broad-based action;

- Generate short-term wins;

- Consolidate gains and produce more change; and

- Anchor new approaches into the culture.

To add to the above-mentioned approaches to leading change, Hammel (2000, cited in Fullan, 2001:33) suggests the following model:

- Build a point of view;

- Write a manifesto;

- Create coalition;

- Pick your targets and pick your moments;

- Co-opt and neutralise;

- Find a translator;

- Win small, win early and win often; and

- Isolate and infiltrate.

This indicates that leaders should be aware of different approaches to leading change and be able to employ the relevant approaches to the situation at hand. On the other hand, organisations need leaders who can successfully lead change, who can clearly recognise the need for change and make it happen, and who can develop and communicate a vision for what an organisation can be. Carnal (1997:3) argues as follows: "Successful strategic change seems to demand a combination of cognitive/analytical skills and knowledge along side a range of behavioural process … successful strategic change requires knowledge and techniques for corporate diagnosis." Balogun, Haily, Johnson and Scholes (1999:6) make the following assertion:

> Change agents need to develop their analytical judgemental and implementation skills … without analysis their temptation is to draw from ready-made change recipes. Without judgement after contextual analysis, change agents can miss most critical aspects of change context; and without action the process can remain a planning exercise, which never tackles reality of change within the organisation.

Balogun *et al*. (1999) indicate that leaders who are to be change agents need to have certain personal skills and the ability to handle complexity, sensitivity and should be self-aware. They need to understand that organisations are complex systems and that it is difficult to make change in one area without having repercussions in others. Re-organising organisations affect people's lives. Therefore, leaders of change should not only be sensitive about appreciating the context, but should also be sensitive about appreciating the impact of the action. They must thus have influencing skills that can help

them sell the change process to those around them. They also need political skills to help them manage the power relations in any change situation. Leaders of change should understand their own prejudices, procedures and experiences. They should not allow their personal philosophies to influence the change intervention. Thus, they should be self-aware. They need to be drawn more by the needs of the organisation than by their own perceptions or prejudices of what constituted 'good' change leadership in the past. This is not to denigrate the value of the past experiences, but the emphasis is on the analysis of the past with reference to the current context.

This requires awareness of their biases. If they pick existing solutions, they have to assess the appropriateness of the solutions to the organisational context. This implies that if leaders of change are to use pre-existing best practice models, they should reflect on the past and ask themselves why the solution worked well in that organisation then. In addition, they should determine the culture and structure at that time that made the solutions right for the situation, and determine the differences between the organisations then and now.

Organisations should consequently spend money on developing leaders who can lead the changes with tangible results. They should not develop people's talents as if they are looking in a rear-view mirror. If they focus only on what worked in the past and on the capabilities and tools related to a specific strategy, problem will arise when the strategy becomes obsolete. Carnal (1997:4) points out that, "In a world in which the ability to change is a key 'engine of success', the shift from strategy into capability demands leadership action, planning, the ability to cope with pressure and uncertainty and willingness to learn." Leaders who are to lead the change are to be trained on how to think and act strategically, rather than giving them strategies on which to act. According to Strickland (1998:352),"One useful leadership approach is to take special pains to foster, nourish and support people who are willing to champion new technologies, new operating practices, better services, new product applications and are eager to try carrying out their ideas." This calls for a high-level learning agenda that lays out tools and techniques critical for the long-term success of the organisation.

The learning agenda has to focus on attaining highly specific skills necessary for attaining pre-set goals. It has to build a broad-based and deep understanding of processes and concepts that organisational leaders can use as a road map for regional transformation. The learning agenda has to provide an opportunity to strengthen leadership and responsiveness trends in order to achieve a higher level of organisational competence and effectiveness. Balogun *et al.* (1999:58) suggest a content-sensitive approach to change design whereby the change kaleidoscope is used as a diagnostic framework. The kaleidoscope entails an outer ring concerned with an organisational strategic context, a middle ring concerned with features of a change context and an inner ring which contains the menu design choices open to change leaders. They have represented the kaleidoscope in Figure 1.4 below:
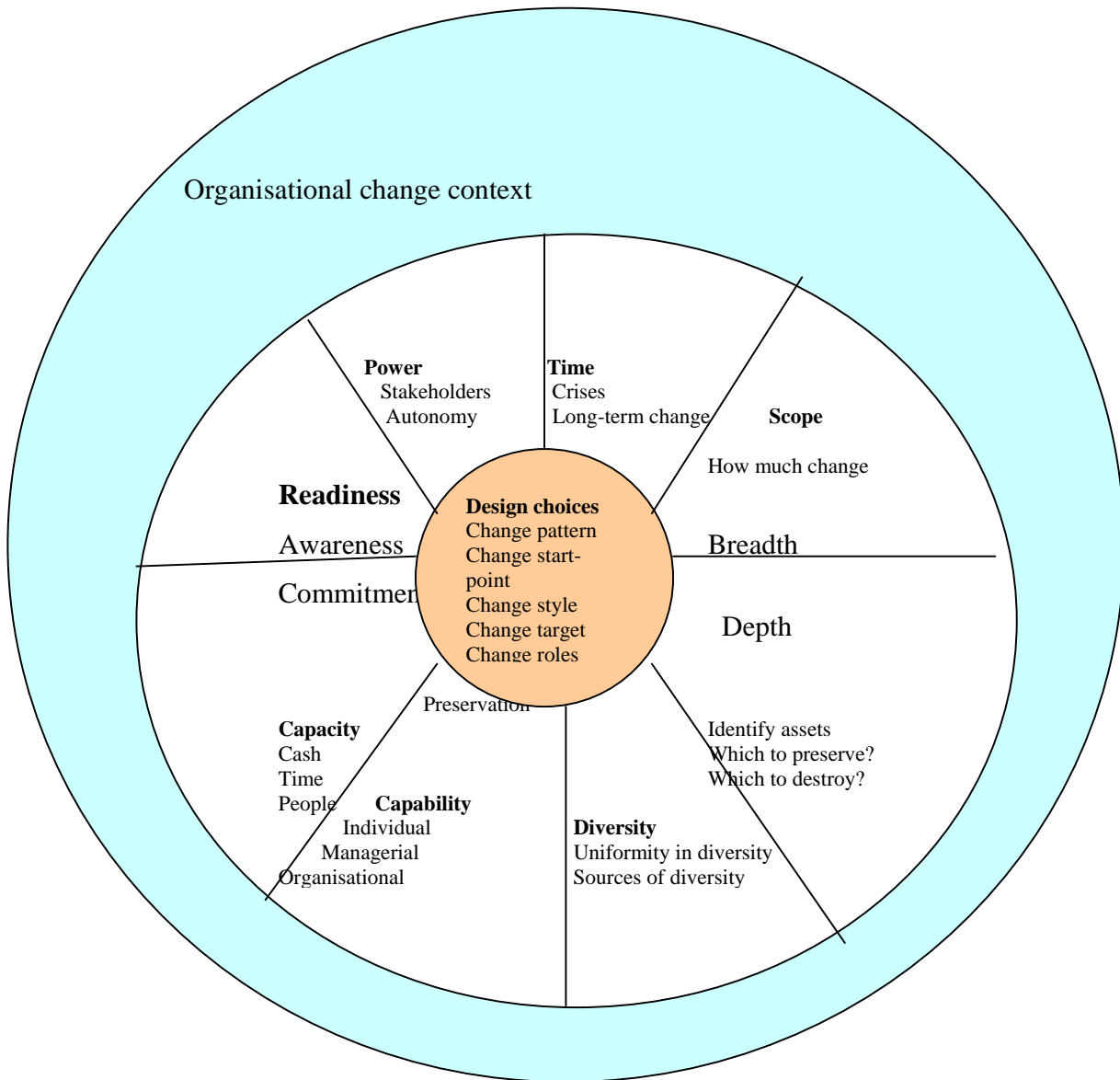
Figure: 1.4 Change design kaleidoscope

Organisational change context

Power
Stakeholders
Autonomy

Time
Crises
Long-term change

Scope
How much change

Readiness

Awareness

Commitment

Design choices
Change pattern
Change start-point
Change style
Change target
Change roles

Breadth

Depth

Preservation

Capacity
Cash
Time
People

Capability
Individual
Managerial
Organisational

Identify assets
Which to preserve?
Which to destroy?

Diversity
Uniformity in diversity
Sources of diversity

In the above diagram, strategic context refers to the fact-finding exercise; organisational change contextual features are organisational aspects to do with its culture, competencies and current situation. The design choices are a range of options that leaders of change need to choose from when reflecting on an appropriate change approach.

This implies that the curriculum for developing change leadership has to include a carefully planned set of topics, skills and a conceptualisation-based sequence of well-desired learning objectives. A variety of instructional strategies, such as group facilitation, coaching and mentoring, should be employed. These instructional strategies can enable leaders to be competent in leading the change in their respective organisations. These leaders would be able to create a motivating culture and to understand people. The culture can in turn help define organisational behaviour and outcomes. According to Strickland (1999:350),

> When major strategic changes are being implemented, a manager's time is best spent personally leading the changes and promoting needed cultural adjustment … the single most visible factor that distinguishes successful culture-change efforts is the competent leadership at the top.

The culture can shape planning for the future, determine reaction to current trends and guide the moment of decision. As a result, change leaders can gain insights and perspectives on issues facing their organisations. These leaders might also be able to dissect the circumstances of success to understand how they can influence the outcomes of their intervention and determine a critical path to successful change performance.

What follows is the summary of Chapter 2 and conclusions that can be drawn from discussions in this chapter.

2.3 Summary and conclusions

It follows from the literature review that in addition to globalisation, political economists have of late focused on regionalisation. Even though global ties among all countries are developing, the strongest political and economic integration is being created within specific regions of the world of which the SADC is one of them. Governments and

societies are creating these regional blocs in an effort to cooperate on joint developments, and most notably to expand free trade.

It is again evident from the literature review that there are classical approaches to leadership such as trait approaches. The most significant trait is found to be charisma, and a search for charismatic leaders continues to be a goal of many organizations. Charisma is perceived as a social relationship rather than a trait, since it appears to lie in the eye of the beholder not in the mind of the possessor. There are also contemporary approaches to leadership that are rooted in the psychological assessment of personality and consequent taxonomy of consistent behaviour.

The reviewed literature also indicates that organizational transformation involves radical change involving structure, function and every other aspect of the organizational being. Organizational change of any sort is usually triggered by a problem or an opportunity. A problem or an opportunity may have origins either internally or externally. This implies that organizational transformation and change should begin with assessment to compare what an organization 'is', and what it is capable of, and compare it with what is needed. It should begin with having the right people, using best processes to assess what direction an organization should be going.

The reviewed literature again reveals that the growth and complexity of organizations have at least two dimensions; the move towards less hierarchical organizations, and the needs for organizations to work more in partnerships with each other, and with a wide range of other organizations, it is then that organizations could become 'adaptive organisations', because they would be fulfilling their economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities by acting within prevailing social norms and using their resources to promote the overall welfare of society.

The following set of conclusions are drawn from the reviewed literature discussed above:

- Regionalisation creates new geographic patterns of culture, empowerment and federalism.

- Regionalisation is vital for social, technological, environmental, economical and political reasons.

- The process of regionalisation is transforming international relations from a notion of nation-states to group of regional blocs.

- Organizations need to avoid shaping their mode of behaviour at the point of crisis, when there is more scope for defensiveness, rather than responding accordingly to change.

- Changing to more collaborative, people-oriented, rather that system-oriented approaches, is vital for good performance of organizations, because their mandate is about serving people.

- Leaders have to operate within an environment in which nobody is a position to achieve his/her objectives without involvement of others.

- There is a need to create a climate in which people can develop and thrive in organizations.

The following chapter considers the external analysis of the SADC in an attempt to identify the challenges and needs it faces in responding to the cultural diversity of this region.

CHAPTER 3: THE SADC: EXTERNAL ANALYSIS AND LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES

3.1 Introduction

The literature review has indicated that people are conditioned by the society in which they live and their chances of self-fulfilment are largely determined by the structural characteristics of that society. It would be irrelevant to speak about satisfying the leadership needs of the SADC without relating them to the social structures and individuals making up the SADC society. To achieving the objectives of this study, an analysis of the SADC's external environment was therefore carried out.

In this chapter, the sustainability and adaptability of the SADC region are assessed through an analysis of its macro-environment. Understanding the causes underlying the emergence of new competitive conditions is a fundamental part of organisational analysis, which is why a planning assumptions process is employed to analyse the SADC's macro-environment in this study. The following diagram illustrates the SADC's macro-environment.
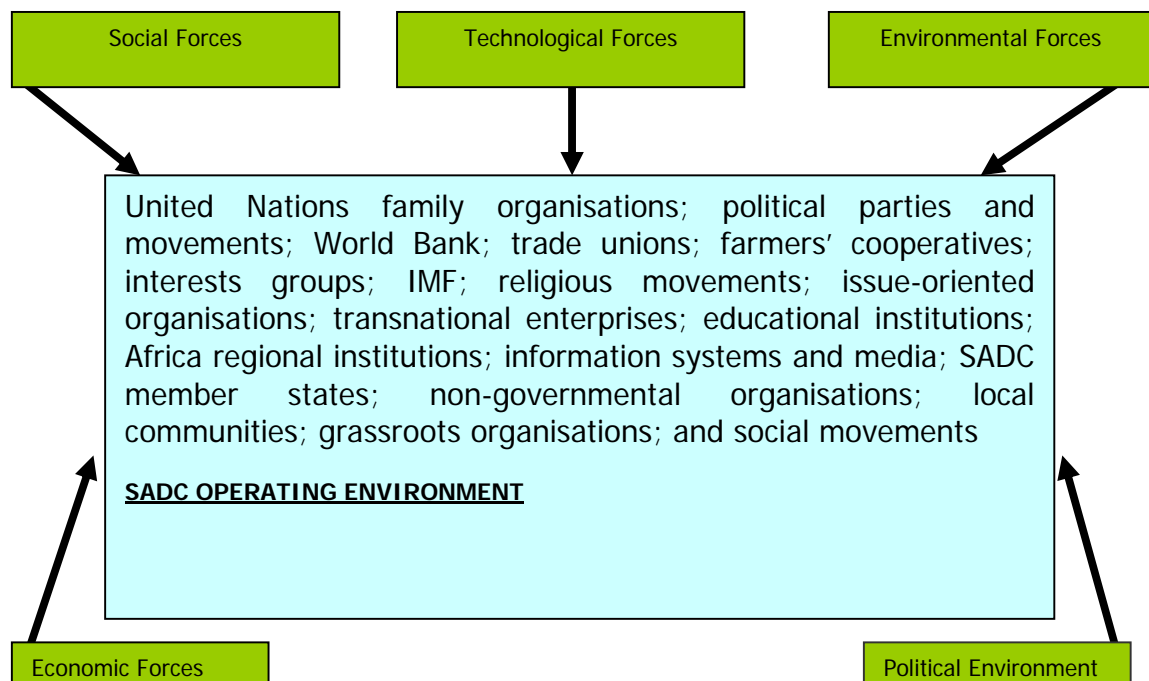
Figure 3.1: The SADC Macro-Environment

It is said that sustainability starts at home; it is therefore the duty of the SADC to build values and behaviours of sustainability into the core fabric of this organisation if this region is to succeed as an organisation. Building sustainability into the core fabric of the organisational self-image and identity will allow the SADC to reach out into the world with the leadership mind-sets and behaviours that are 'built to last'. This can become a reality if the SADC could exhibit higher sustained performance, learn to be flexible, grow developmentally and have capable leadership. In this way, the SADC would become an adaptive organisation.

One major factor that will determine whether the SADC becomes an adaptive organisation is the development of adaptive cultures in this region, which means the development of the capacity to introduce new strategies and organisational practices that will enable this region to perform well over long periods. An adaptive culture will accept and support this region's efforts to adapt to environmental change. It will also enable the SADC member countries to share a feeling of confidence that this region can deal with whatever threats and opportunities arise. This implies that leadership of this region will be receptive to risk-taking, experimentation, innovation and changing strategies and practices whenever necessary to satisfy the legitimate interest of the people of this region and its stakeholders. Leaders of this region will willingly embrace a proactive approach to identifying issues, evaluating the implications and options, and implementing workable solutions. An adaptive culture will ensure that there is a spirit of doing what is necessary in the SADC to warrant long-term organisational success.

One outstanding trait of the SADC adaptive culture that will guarantee adaptive organisation is that leadership, while orchestrating responses to changing conditions, has to demonstrate genuine care for the well-being of all constituencies. No group has to be excluded and fairness to all constituencies has to be a decision-making principle. If this trait triumphs in the SADC adaptive culture, then this region will have a strong corporate culture founded on ethical principles and moral values that will enable it to create an atmosphere in which there is constructive pressure to perform well.

3.1.1 Objectives

- To establish the character and qualities of the SADC

- To identify generic SADC stakeholders

- To establish the current developmental trends in the SADC, based on STEEP analysis, and their leadership implications

- To determine strategic planning assumptions for the SADC

3.1.2 Overview

Establishing the character and qualities of the SADC

It is argued in this chapter that analysing the SADC's natural resources and history determines its capacities and deficiencies, its market opportunities and external threats, and that identifying the SADC's natural resources and history provides a good overview on whether this region's socio-economic position is fundamentally strong or not. An analysis of the SADC's natural resources is done in this chapter because these resources are central to the SADC's competitiveness. Their abundance gives this region a competitive advantage because they have the potential to be a cornerstone of development in this region. They have the potential to be the mainspring of this region's success, unless they are not fully taken advantage of. European Communities (2002:67) indicate that:

> Natural resources underpin sustainable development. They provide
> essential life support functions … and provide essential raw materials
> … When natural resources are part of shared 'commons' and access to
> their use is open to all … overexploitation can be a result.

This implies that the SADC's natural resources, both exhaustible and renewable, are the bedrock of development in the region because this region depends to a large extent on these resources for prosperity. This analysis focuses on:

- Land resources such as arable land for agriculture, because the quality and quantity of land determine the standard of living of people;

- Rangelands, because they indicate parts of the SADC that are suitable for livestock production;

- Forests, for they are an important land resource for trade;

- Minerals, because they are revenue earners for this region;

- Climate, because it is a natural resource on which people of this region depend; and

- Human population, because people influence their natural environment directly or indirectly.

This helps to identify the land capability and carrying capacity of the natural resource base. This would assist in identifying physical constraints when making decisions on developmental issues because these are natural assets for this region. They are sources of valuable goods and services necessary to sustain developmental activities.

Identifying generic SADC stakeholders

With regard to this objective, the SADC stakeholders are identified and their interests assessed. These processes help towards understanding the relationship between the SADC and its stakeholders, as well as the relationships between stakeholders themselves. "Management Sciences for Health and United Nations Children's Fund" (2004:1) indicate that stakeholder analysis is used to:

- Identify people, groups and institutions that will influence your initiative (either positively or negatively).

- Anticipate the kind of influence, positive or negative these groups will have on your initiative.

- Develop strategies to get the most effective support possible for your initiative and reduce any obstacles to successful implementation of your programme.

In order therefore to identify and map groups or individuals who have an interest in the SADC's activities, objectives, policies and outputs, the following steps are done:

- Determining the SADC stakeholder groups;

- Predicting the SADC stakeholders' activities based on their possession or lack of three main characteristics, namely legitimacy, urgency and power; and

- Identification of strategies that should be taken by the SADC leadership towards its stakeholders based on legitimacy, urgency and characteristics.

This process of stakeholder identification and mapping helps to assess systematically the nature and impact of groups the SADC is dealing with, and to distinguish patterns of integration or disintegration in the region. It is argued that the SADC stakeholders present themselves in a wide range of organisations and other structured arrangements or institutions, from the domestic and international level to that of individuals.

Establishing the current (STEEP) developmental trends in the SADC and their leadership implications

Discussions relating to this objective contribute to a better understanding of the SADC macro-environment. Therefore, common patterns and differences in the macro-environment of this region are identified so as to find what works and what does not work, and to determine leadership implications presented by this analysis. It is in this discussion that an empirical and numerical basis for evaluating the SADC's performance is provided.

The framework, within which the numerical evidence is presented, provides a logical structure of (STEEP) trends in this region. The analysis of these trends can provoke public discussion and stimulate research because a more complete picture of societal development in the SADC is taken into account. A comparative analysis of (STEEP) analysis is done in this part of the study. This sets the direction for the SADC development, based on what has happened, what is happening and what may happen in this region. Here the data examining different (STEEP) trends are provided for three standard time-points: 1980, 1990, and 2000. The rationale for three standard points is that the year 1980 is the year that the SADCC, the forerunner of the SADC, was formed. The data in this year provide baseline development information. The mid-point 1990 is chosen as a marker for formation of the SADC. The year 2000 marks a year in which the decision to restructure the SADC was made.

3.2 The SADC: A brief history

Table 3.1 offers a clearer insight into the SADC in terms of the ecological environment and the history of traditional Southern Africa and colonial Southern Africa. The information presented here suggests that there are resources that are physically present and culturally valued, and utilised minerals that have been used by traditional Southern Africa people, such as gold, iron and diamonds. History indicates that other minerals began to be utilised as Europeans exploited them. Southern Africa's past should therefore not be minimised or dismissed because it contributes and affects developmental efforts in this region continuously. The tabled information emphasises the SADC's vast potential. The vast mineral and human resources can be exploited for developmental activities of this region with the assistance of developed nations. This view is supported by Todaro (1997:126):

> Moreover … in Africa where natural resources are more plentiful, heavy investments of capital are needed to exploit them. Such financing is not easy to come by without sacrificing substantial autonomy and control to the powerful developed country multinational corporations.

The information in the table also suggests that the SADC has the potential for agro-industry because of the type of soils and climatic conditions prevalent in this region. Therefore, it is necessary that strategies that can nurture the resources that are found in this region be employed so that these resources could contribute to sustainable human development. It is furthermore indicated that humanity in the SADC has advanced on several critical fronts, such as attaining independence, despite existing problems. Nevertheless, because of various tribes in this region, tribalism is hard to uproot because of the colonial ideology of 'divide and rule'. This scenario defeats the purpose of development, which is to create an environment in which all people can expand to benefit for both present and future generations. Tribalism in the SADC perpetuates overexploitation and degradation of natural resources because certain tribes have monopolies over some natural resources due to their locality. UNCTAD (1991:52) is of the opinion that:

Overexploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation deprives future generations of a sound resource-base … The solution to environmental degradation should thus be sought in broad-based development programmes based on effective strategy … and acquiring environmentally sound technologies.

Table 3.1, which extends from page 67 to page 74, illustrates the nature of the SADC's character referred to above.

Table 3.1: Nature of the SADC's strategic context. Source: Welty, 1990.

Country	Physical features	Natural resources	Area 1000 ha	Pre-colonial status	Colonial status	Year of independence
Angola	Situated south of the Sahara, it is composed of 18 provinces, one of which is separated from the others by the ocean outlet of the DRC and the river Congo. Greater Angola is bordered to the north and east by the DRC. To the east lies Zambia and to the south Namibia. Two-thirds of Angola is plateau and has a tropical climate.	Three minerals, namely diamonds, petroleum and iron, are paramount. Some geologists hold the view that Angola is one of the richest countries in mineral resources in Southern Africa. Other minerals include copper, manganese, phosphate and uranium.	124670	Bantu-speaking people of Ovumbudu, Kimbadu, Kikongo, Lunda-chokwe, Niganguela and Kwanyama-Humbi, inhabited the country, but the natives of Angola are Vanheca, who settled in this territory when migrating from the first eastern AD until 1500, when the Bokono Kingdom in the north impressed early Portuguese explorers, who expanded southwards and consolidated all Angolan territory after conquering it.	Overseas province of Portugal	1975

Country	Physical features	Natural resources	Area 1000 ha	Pre-colonial status	Colonial status	Year of independence
Botswana	It is bordered by Namibia in the west, by Zimbabwe to the north-east and by South Africa to the south and south-east. It is a landlocked country. The Kalahari Desert dominates southern and western Botswana.	Shortage of water, because of low annual rainfall, is the biggest hindrance to Botswana's natural resources. Its economic base has been enhanced by substantial deposits of diamonds, copper, nickel, coal, manganese, asbestos, common salt and sodium sulphate	56673	Botswana people had been divided into eight principal tribes, each occupying its own territory and each governed by a hereditary chief. Botswana chiefs sought British protection from Matebele and Boer domination.	British protectorate (and high commission territory) of Bechuanaland	1966
Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	The DRC is the second largest country of Sub-Saharan African countries across the equator. It has an equatorial climate in the central region. It comprises of the basin of the Congo River. There are vast regions of evergreen equatorial forests and tropical forests. The climate is favourable for agriculture.	Natural resources in this territory are immense. The Congo River carries the second largest volume of water in the world. The major exports derive from the exploitation of its mineral resources, namely copper, tin, silver, magnesium, cobalt, manganese, diamonds and many others.	226505	All inhabitants of this territory, except Pygmies, were Congolese. They might have come from the south-eastern portion of present Nigeria. Most of them reached the Congo basin about 800 AD. Pygmy hunters and food gatherers are the original inhabitants. There were several kingdoms and they were consolidated by colonialists.	Belgian colony	1960

Lesotho	The kingdom of Lesotho is a small landlocked country enclosed on all sides by South Africa. It is situated on the highest parts of the Drakensberg escarpment on the eastern rim of the South African plateau. About ⅔ of Lesotho is mountainous. This region has a very rugged relief, bleak climate and heavy rainfall. Headstreams of the Orange River have created deep valleys in this country.	Lesotho's long-term development largely depends on making optimum use of its natural grasslands, well-suited for viable livestock industry. The country's scenic beauty has assured a rich tourist potential. Water is a natural resource and abundant in Lesotho. Some of the big rivers in Southern Africa rise here.	3035	Basotho owe the formation of their nation in the 19th century to the consummate political skills of their paramount chief, Moshoeshoe I. He was one of the outstanding leaders to emerge in Southern Africa in the 19th century. He rallied Basotho from remnants of tribes, which had been made refugees through the "wars of calamity".	British high commission territory of Basutoland	1966
Malawi	The landlocked Republic of Malawi is a long narrow country. Essentially, Malawi is a plateau. It is a country of verging heights bordering the deep rift valley trench. Northern two-thirds of the rift valley floor consists entirely of big lake Malawi.	Malawi is fortunate in possessing some of the most fertile soils in south-central Africa. This is an indication of agricultural potential. The lakes and rivers represent considerable water resources and irrigation potential.	9408	Little is known about Malawi prior to 1850. It is conjectured that African tribes migrated from Congo and the East African highland. There was no established governmental administration until colonial time.	British protectorate of Nyasaland, member of the federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland	1964

Mauritius	The island of Mauritius lies in the Indian Ocean, 800 km east of Madagascar. It is a volcanic island consisting of a plain rising from the northeast to the Piton de la Petite Riviere Nocre. The climate is sub-tropical.	The island of Mauritius has traditionally been an extreme example of a one crop economy with sugar production accounting for more than 90% total cultivable land. Tourism is a highly profitable activity in Mauritius.	203	The first permanent inhabitants of Mauritius were 18th century French settlers from the island of Reunion. Slavery was introduced from east Africa and Madagascar, and labourers were recruited from India. Muslim traders came to be part of the state.	British colony	1968
Mozambique	The People's Republic of Mozambique is bordered to the north by Tanzania and Zimbabwe, and to the south by South Africa and Swaziland. Mozambique is divided by 28 main rivers, all of which flow to the Indian Ocean.	Mozambique has considerable mineral resources, although exploitation has been limited by internal unrest. Tourism is a highly profitable activity in Mozambique.	78409	All the people of Mozambique speak Bantu languages in a variety of dialects. The tribal patterns are the result of pre-19th century migrates into the territory by people fleeing before the Zulu warriors of South Africa. Other people had been natives of the Zambezi valley	An overseas province of Portugal	1975

Namibia	It is a vast territory that includes Walvis Bay (an exclave of South Africa). Namibia lies across the tropic of Capricorn. It is bordered by South Africa in the south, by Botswana in the east and Angola in the north, while the narrow Caprivi strip between the two latter countries extends Namibia's boundaries to the Zambezi River and short border with Zambia	Namibia possesses scattered deposits of valuable minerals. The most important mine historically had been the large diamond mine at Oranjemund. A variety of other minerals are mined on a small scale, the most significant being salt.	82329	The bushmen are believed to have been the earliest inhabitants of this region. They were followed by Nama and later by Ovambo and Herero. These tribes had little contact with one another. They roamed the territory for control of sparse pastureland.	A colony of German South-West Africa since 1915 when South Africa took control of the colony until independence.	1979
Seychelles	It encompasses a scattered archipelago of granite and coralline islands in the western Indian Ocean. The exact number of islands is not known, but has been estimated at 115. The islands have a variety of ethnic origins: Africans, Europeans, Indians and Chinese.	Petroleum has been explored and local coral is being processed into lime for cement manufacturing. Granite is exported, but the economy of Seychelles is dependent mostly on tourism.	45	The Seychelles archipelago may have been known and visited in the Middle Ages by Arab traders sailing to and from ports in East Africa. The islands were not inhabited till 1770 when settlers arrived to exploit them.	French administration continued until 1810. The British administered the islands and Seychelles was a crown colony.	1976.

South Africa	The Republic of South Africa occupies the southern extremity of the African continent, except for the relatively small area of the Northern Transvaal, which lies pole-ward of the tropic of Capricorn. South Africa has a common border with Namibia in the north-west, Botswana in the north and Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Swaziland in the north-east. South Africa completely surrounds Lesotho in the eastern part.	South Africa's mineral resources are outstanding in their variety, quality and quantity, and overshadow all the countries' other natural resources. The most important regions for minerals are the Witwatersrand and the Northern OFS, producing gold, silver and uranium. Diamond areas are at Kimberly, Pretoria, Jagersfontein and Koffiefontein. The Transvaal bushveld contains large deposits of nickel, asbestos, chrome, copper, iron, magnesium and platinum. Prospecting for new minerals is continuing in the RSA.	122104	Khoisan, Hottentots and Bergdamara are survivors of the country's earliest inhabitants. Bantu-speaking and Nguni-speaking people fall into a number of tribal groups in RSA. The European whites came in the 17th century, including Dutch settlers, refugee French Huguenots, British settlers and Germans.	South Africa consisted of four British colonies, namely Transvaal, OFS, Cape Colony and Natal, up to 1950.	1910 but adopted apartheid system in 1948, which was abolished in 1993.

Swaziland	The kingdom of Swaziland is one of the smallest political entities on the continent of Africa. It is surrounded by South Africa on the north-west and south, and separated from the Indian Ocean in the east by the Mozambique coastal plain.	The country's perennial rivers represent high hydroelectric potential. The well-watered high-veld is suitable for forestation. Swaziland exports iron-ore, coal and gold, and diamond deposits are being exploited in the north-west of the country.	1720	British High Commission territory	1968	
Tanzania	Tanzania has a wide variety of landforms, climate and people. The country includes the highest and the lowest part of Africa. The floor of lake Tanganyika is 358m below sea level and the summit of Mt. Kilimanjaro is 5895m above sea level. Tanzania is made up of gently sloping plains and plateau, broken by low hill ranges. The east includes areas with sandy beaches.	Tanzania exploits diamonds, gold, various germ stones, phosphates, coal, gypsums, kaolin and tin. Prospecting for petroleum and natural gas is currently in process.	88359	Tanzanian people represent peoples of African, Indian and Pakistani ancestry. This is a result of trade routes from several other countries.	British-administered United Nations Trust Territory of Tanganyika and British protectorate of Zambia	1961

Zambia	It is a landlocked state occupying elevated plateau country in southern-central Africa. It shares boundaries with eight countries. The country is irregularly shaped, being constricted by the "pedicle" of the Democratic Republic of Congo, which divides the copper belt from the northeast.	Its main resource is its land, which in general is under-utilised. Its climate is suitable for a wide range of crops. Cattle numbers are greatest in the southern-central areas. Commercial forestry is very important in the copper belt. Mining copper has dominated this country's economy.	74339	Most people living in Zambia are of Bantu origin, the descendents of earlier migrants from the Congo basin about 1200 A.D. Hermitic and Mitotic groups from the east arrived about the same time. Pygmies and Bushmen are the natives of this region.	British Protectorate of Northern Rhodesia, member of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.	1964
Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe is a landlocked country, bordered in the north and north-west by Zambia, on the south-west by Botswana, on the east by Mozambique and in the south by South Africa. Temperatures are moderated by altitude. The country consists of four relief regions: the high-veld, the middle-veld, the low-veld and eastern highlands.	Zimbabwe is endowed with a wide variety of mineral deposits that include gold, asbestos, copper, chrome, nickel and tin. Iron ore, limestone, phosphate and other minerals also contribute significantly to local industrial development.	38685	It derives its name from the many spectacular ruins which are found in the country and which are a potential reminder of former prosperity and achievements of the majority Shona-speaking inhabitants.	It was a self-governing British colony.	1980

Diversity in the SADC as indicated in the above table is to be seen as a strength, not a weakness. All people who are the stakeholders in this region should protect this diversity for this region to prosper. The SADC does not only bring states together, but also social groups and individuals, all of whom are stakeholders. This implies that the SADC does not have to deal only with the machinery of states, but has to address itself directly to citizens or social groups who lay claim to what they consider to be their democratic rights. The SADC must therefore recognise the needs of its stakeholders if it is to succeed. For this reason, it is important to identify and analyse the SADC stakeholders in order to manage them and accomplish a win-win situation. What follows is a stakeholder analysis for the SADC.

3.3 The SADC stakeholder identification and analysis

Wartic and Wood (1998: 96) quote Freeman's definition of a stakeholder as "Any group or individuals who can affect or is affected by the achievements of the organization's objective." Carrol (1996:73) defines a stake as "an interest or a share of an undertaking." He goes on to indicate that a stake is also a claim and that a claim is an assertion to a title or a right to something. A claim is described as a demand for something due or believed to be due. A stake can therefore range from simply an interest in an undertaking to a legal claim of ownership; between these two extremes is a right to something. According to Carrol (1996:76), "Right might be legal right to certain treatment rather than legal claim of ownership such as that of shareholder … The right might be thought of as moral rights."

Moral rights are those rights that should apply to every human being and legal rights are those guaranteed by law. Since the SADC organisation exists and operates in a network of relationships with other social groups and organisations, it is important to analyse its stakeholders so that their potential influences on SADC organisational decisions can be observed. Brenner and Cochran (1991:453-5, cited in Wartic and Wood, 1998: 97) present the following propositions that address the role of stakeholders' needs and values in organisational decision making:

- Organisations must fulfil some set of their various stakeholders' needs in order to continue to exist.
- Organisations can understand the relevant needs of their stakeholders by examining the values and interest of their stakeholders.

In this part of the study, the SADC stakeholders will be mapped, which will help to gain understanding of the relationships between the SADC and its stakeholders, as well as the relationships between the stakeholders themselves. "Management Sciences for Health and United Nations Children's Fund" (2004:1) indicate that stakeholder analysis is used to:

- Identify people, groups and institutions that will influence your initiative (either positively or negatively).
- Anticipate the kind of influence, positive or negative, these groups will have on your initiative.
- Develop strategies to get the most effective support possible for your initiative and reduce any obstacles to successful implementation of your programme.

Therefore, in order to identify and map groups or individuals who have a stake in SADC's activities, objectives, policies and outputs, the following steps are considered:

- Identifying stakeholder groups, whether in domestic or international arena. Here, even potential stakeholders that may burst onto the scene given particular SADC actions will be identified.
- Identifying the characteristics of these stakeholders to determine whether they are regional or global, and whether they are connected to the SADC power structure.
- Predicting stakeholders' activities based on their possession or lack of three main characteristics: legitimacy, urgency and power.
- Identifying strategies that should be taken by the SADC leadership towards its stakeholders.

This process of stakeholder mapping will help the SADC leadership systematically to assess the nature and impact of groups that the SADC organisation is dealing with. This analysis will help to distinguish patterns of integration or disintegration in the region. The

SADC stakeholders present themselves in a wide range of organisations and other structured arrangements or institutions, from the domestic and international level to that of individuals. All these stakeholders embody traditions, rules and expectations for purposes of self-protection and advancement, and for stabilisation, reform or transformation of the SADC.

3.3.1 Identification of the SADC stakeholders

Generic stakeholders of the SADC fall into broad groups. There are specific groups that exist within each of these groups, but because of the complexity and difficulty of identifying each specific group in all fourteen SADC member countries, only generic stakeholder groups are identified. In pluralistic systems like the SADC, those directly involved are not the only ones who can lay claim. Pluralism is a system of relationships in which all social units are interconnected, and the system gives each unit an indirect social investment that justifies its claim. The selected stakeholders are the representatives of groups that relate directly and/or indirectly with the SADC. All groups have made a role-investment in the SADC because they traded off some of their values in expectation of reciprocal benefits. These reciprocal benefits are social transactions and therefore all the selected groups of stakeholders expect role-benefit from the SADC in any kind of value the organisation can provide.

According to Covey (2002:250), "Quality begins with an understanding of our stakeholders' needs and expectations, but ultimately it means meeting or exceeding those needs and expectations." The "Danish Leadership Institute" (2006) points out that, based on the research conducted by a group of Swedish and Danish business leaders and academics, one of the cornerstones of Scandinavian leadership is: "A holistic, humanistic and value-based approach with multiple stakeholder focus (e.g. the public/private/voluntary sectors, activist movements, trade unions and employee representatives)." The choice of the SADC stakeholders for this study is therefore in line with this cornerstone, because Scandinavian countries are said to be the highest-ranking countries for 'willingness to delegate responsibility' in terms of global competitiveness. In order to create a sustainable future, the SADC should work more inclusively with a

diverse spectrum of stakeholders, which will improve its responsiveness and transparency. The chosen stakeholders for the SADC are as follows:

1. **Global institutions**

   - United Nations family of organisations

   - World Bank

   - IMF

2. **Transnational enterprises**

   - Global financial institutions

   - Global industries

   - Global enterprises

3. **African regional institutions**

   - African Union (AU)

   - Economic Organisation of West African States (ECOWAS)

   - Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)

   - Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)

   - Intergovernmental Authority Development (IGAD)

   - East African Community (EAC)

   - African Development Bank (ADB)

4. **Southern Africa nation states**

Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe

5. **Political parties and movements**

6. **Trade unions, farmers unions, cooperatives and other class or interest group organisations**

7. **Issue oriented organisations**

8. **Religious movements**

9. **Educational institutions**

10. **Information systems and media**

11. **Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)**

12. **Local communities, grass roots organisations and social movements**

3.3.2 Characteristics and claims of the stakeholders

Global institutions

One global institution with a stake in the SADC is the United Nations family of organisations because the UN is an association of states established by agreement among its members, which include some of the SADC member countries. This association was established to pursue objectives of common interest by means of cooperation among members. The UN family of organisations is responsible for bringing its member states closer together by taking over certain of their functions, such as harmonisation and coordination of member states' policies and lines of conduct.

It is evident that the UN organisations, which are global in nature, have political interests in the SADC. These interests include the distribution and uses of power and influence. Interests of global institutions concern public policy, including legislation, regulation, legal rights and judicial decisions. According to Wartic and Wood (1998: 91), "These interests may have to do with shaping public policy, finding and using routes of access and power to influence public-policy makers in order to accomplish stakeholders' objective."

Transnational enterprises

These are additional types of institutions that have an increasing influence at the global level. They are complex transnational financial, industrial, commercial and communication enterprises. The integrated, multiparty cross-boundary flow of goods, services, capital, revenues, ideas, people and technologies are part of these institutions.

Transnational institutions have a material interest in the SADC, as observed by Wartic and Wood (1998: 98): "Material stakeholders may be financial as in desire for health accumulation."

African regional institutions

These institutions have regional agreements with specified concrete joint responsibilities and common oversight in Africa, e.g. the Africa Union, ECOWAS and ADB. They create and maintain conditions within which economic growth, employment opportunities and basic necessities could be realised. These institutions also attempt to channel African aspirations towards political unity based on justice and progress towards freer trade. They have both political and material interests in this region; political interests in the sense that they want the SADC and the rest of Africa to become secure communities. They apply practices that ensure stable expectations of peaceful changes within the societies. Material interests include non-financial interests.

The SADC member states

The SADC member states are the core stakeholders in this region. They are vital to the organisation and to all threats and opportunities, and therefore have a wide range of responsibilities and interests in the organisation. According to "TRACK" (2000:41), "The concept of sovereignty cannot be dissociated from responsibility: that is to say, a State should not be able to claim the prerogatives of sovereignty unless it carries out its internationally recognised responsibilities to its citizens." The SADC member states advocate joint responsibilities, which have to be endorsed by the SADC. These interests include policymaking, administrative capacities and popular needs and aspirations. Policymaking is of interest to the SADC member states because they are concerned with the efficiency of the SADC.

The SADC member states' endeavour is to enhance the capacity of the SADC, not only in the economic sphere, but also for improving democratic interaction with their societies. They also endeavour to see the SADC organisation integrated into the global economy through the efforts of well-capacitated leadership. All the SADC member states

have both political and material interests, such as access to good, affordable health care, cleaner air and water.

Political parties

Political parties within the SADC region contribute to social integration through competition. They present intelligible choices to the electorate and universalise a sentiment of responsibility for the policies that are adopted. Therefore, political parties have a stake in the SADC, more especially because the SADCC, the forerunner of the SADC, constituted the vital rear base of political liberation struggle in Southern Africa. These stakes include:

- Allocation of resources and regulation of social relationships in the member states and diffusion of these states to regional and global levels.

- Determining how regional resources are to be used and to place primary responsibility for decision-making on leadership.

The political parties therefore have political and material interests in the SADC.

Trade unions, farmers' co-operatives and other class or interest-group organisations

This range of national organisations meets the needs of relatively large groups of people in the SADC. These groups are conscious of their common interests as wage earners, producers or potential beneficiaries of state services. They defend people's interests against exploiters and allies. These organisations have a stake in the SADC because they are affected by deregulation of capital movements, globalisation of production and marketing. They likewise have both political and material interests in the SADC. They also have affiliation interests because they are concerned with issues such as how their workforces fit in with their values and what opportunities are available to network with their peers.

Issue-oriented organisations

These are national organisations and movements concentrating on specific social and political issues. They focus on issues stemming from the shortcomings of the dominant style of development, e.g. environmental degradation and poverty, or the issue

of domination and discrimination, such as gender and ethnic inequalities. Their stakes in the SADC include partially transforming political discourse in the SADC by addressing a wide range of issues concerning threats to societies. This is endorsed by the SADC as indicated in Maphanyane (1994:78): "Institutional structures of the community must provide for active involvement of member states in the formulation of policies, strategies and programmes and the implementation of the activities of integration."

Religious movements

The major world religions are Christianity and Islam. These groups have an interest in the SADC, which wants to secularise the SADC states and civil societies, by inter alia enforcing their own conceptions of social integration. These religious movements affirm the need for revolutionary socialisation in favour of the poor. The interests of religious movements are affiliative and spiritual, because they involve profound religious or philosophical values about the divine.

Educational institutions

Educational institutions are the most important dimensions of social change in the region. They are regarded as a key means to social integration, modernisation and mobility. These institutions likewise have a stake in the SADC. This stake is prompted by the fact that most countries in the SADC are unable to meet increasing demands to maintain good levels of education. Yet the SADC programme of action on human resources development states:

> Developing the SADC's human capital to its fullest potential is the sine qua non to tackling the socio-economic problems facing the region. To achieve lasting and sustainable developments, the SADC has to significantly increase the productivity of its people through better education skills development." (Maphanyane, 1969:60)

This confirms that educational institutions have a material interest in the SADC and a desire for access to good education. *Information systems and media*

People world-wide are in an age of information economy and people of the SADC are no exception since this transformation goes hand in hand with economic

globalisation. This suggests that people in the SADC must have varied information so that they have a wide range of choices in lifestyles and survival strategies.

Information systems and the media have an interest in the SADC because their activities correlate with the SADC's plan of action, which regards effective information programmes as critical in creating relationships. These interests include news, facts, opinions and data.

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

These organisations are generally referred to by the acronym NGOs. They overlap with interests groups, issue-related organisations and religious movements. All these may act as NGOs or create NGOs of their own. NGOs are distinguished by their purposes for funding. Their target groups include rural communities, urban poor, refugees, women, children and youth. Most of the NGOs meet the needs that were previously considered to be the responsibilities of governments. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:169),

> The role of civil society should be no different in developing countries than in developed countries. Citizens should be able to express their will at polls, and politicians should be accountable for stewarding the policies that they have been empowered to push through … NGOs, especially local ones … will often be most effective in articulating the needs of the poor.

The SADC therefore needs NGOs to carry out the very complex task of developing the region. NGOs have material interests in the SADC.

Local communities, grassroots organisations and social movements

Local communities are cohesive units that can be mobilised to meet responsibilities assigned by their governments regarding community development programs. These are made up of people who pursue common interests. These organisations have material interests in the SADC.

3.3.3 Legitimacy, urgency and power-base of the SADC stakeholders

The stakeholders described above affect the SADC organisation and in turn are affected by the SADC's actions and decisions. Agle and Wood (1997) have established that these stakeholders have different characteristics and attributes. The theory of stakeholder identification and salience used here is based on stakeholders' possession of one or more of three attributes: power, legitimacy and urgency. Wood has developed a typology of stakeholders, formulated propositions concerning their salience to managers and discussed their management implications. Salience is defined as the degree to which management gives priority to competing stakeholder claims.

The three attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency are defined as follows in Agle and Wood (1997:289-293):

- Power is a relationship among social actors in which one social actor, 'A', can get another social actor, 'B', to do something that 'B' would not otherwise do. Power can be based upon force or threat, incentives, or symbolic influences.

- Legitimacy is a generalised perception or the assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definition that is based on the individual, the organisation or society.

- Urgency is the degree to which stakeholders' claim or relationship call for immediate attention and exists when a claim or relationship is of a time-sensitive nature, and when the claim or relationship is important or critical to the stakeholder.

These attributes determine whether the group is a long-term core stakeholder, immediate core stakeholder, dependent stakeholder, violent stakeholder, demanding stakeholder, discretionary stakeholder or dormant stakeholder. These are additional features that make the stakeholder attributes dynamic. Wartic and Wood (1998:112) define the above-mentioned categories of stakeholders as follows:

- Long-term core stakeholders are those with power and legitimacy, but no claims. The standing of these stakeholders is recognised by an organisation, which has processes in place to handle their interests or concerns.

- Immediate core stakeholders have power and legitimacy as well as urgency. Their standing is recognised by an organisation, but they may or may not receive much management attention, unless they acquire urgent interests or claims.

- Dependent stakeholders have legitimate standing and urgent claims, but no power to influence an organisation independently to build alliances with other power stakeholders.

- Violent or coercive stakeholders have power over an organisation and have urgent claims as well, but no power or legitimacy.

- Demanding stakeholders possess urgent claims, but not power or legitimacy.

- Discretionary stakeholders have legitimate standing, but no power to influence an organisation and they have no urgent claims.

- Dormant stakeholders have power to influence organisations' behaviour, but no legitimacy or urgent claims. They deserve occasional consideration because, should they develop an urgent claim at any time, they would move into the violent/coercive stakeholder category and become a threat to the organisation.

The following tables determine which of the SADC's stakeholders fall in the above categories.

Table 3.2: **Immediate core stakeholders**

STAKEHOLDERS	ATTRIBUTES
a) Global Institutions	These institutions have both power and legitimacy in SADC. They have power because they criticise and present alternatives to prevailing norms in all countries. They are also active at the global level. and have financial power over the SADC. They are legitimate because the SADC subscribes to them, e.g. the IMF, World Bank and the UN system, and the SADC recognises their standing. The SADC has processes already in place to handle their interests and concerns. There is a possibility that those institutions may not receive management attention unless they acquire urgent interests or claims, e.g. if the SADC resists implementing the global economic order suggested by these institutions. These institutions may impose penalties of exclusion on the SADC.
b) Africa Region Institutions	Like global institutions, Africa region institutions have both power and legitimacy in SADC. They have power because they enforce cooperation between African countries whether in economic or security matters. They strengthen the efforts of all African countries to manage relations with powerful external actors. They have legitimacy because the SADC is a member of some of these institutions, e.g. the ADB, AU and SACU. The standing of these institutions is recognised by SADC. The SADC management may or may not give these institutions much attention unless they acquire urgent claims on SADC.
c) Educational Institutions	These institutions have power in the SADC because of social pressure and demands. Governments and people see educations as core key means to social integration, modernisation and mobility. These institutions also have legitimate claims on SADC, but not urgency because there are processes present in SADC to handle their claims. If the SADC management does not give them much attention, they may require urgent claims.

Table 3.3: Long-term core stakeholders

STAKEHOLDERS	ATTRIBUTES
Southern Africa Nation States	These states have power in SADC because they comprise this organisation, hence they are represented in the management of the SADC organisation. They have formal voting power because they have an official role in SADC corporate governance. All these states have legitimate claims on the SADC because they are owners of this organisation, their standing is recognised by SADC organisation and there are processes in place to handle their interests and concerns. They do not have urgent claims on the SADC organisation.

Table 3.4: Dependent stakeholders

STAKEHOLDERS	ATTRIBUTES
a) Political Parties Movement	Political parties possess legitimate claims on SADC, as well as urgent claims, but no power to influence the SADC independently of building alliances with other powerful stakeholders. The SADC is a pluralistic democratic region, hence political parties contribute to the region's social integration. They have urgent claims on the SADC, such as diversion of public jobs and other benefits that could be obtained from state functions.
b) Trade Unions, Farmers Unions, Cooperatives and other Class or Interested Groups	These organisations do not have power to influence the SADC independently. They can seek to have influence by forming closer ties with counterparts across national and regional boundaries to intervene broadly on national or regional politics, questioning the style of development. But these organisations have legitimate standing, as well as urgent claims on the SADC.

Table 3.5: Dormant stakeholders

STAKEHOLDERS	ATTRIBUTES
a) Transnational enterprises	These enterprises have only power in the SADC because of the sheer magnitude of their investments, but have neither legitimacy nor urgency. They do not have legitimate or urgent claims on the SADC. They are the most powerful of SADC stakeholders. They have taken advantage of the deregulation and lowering of national barriers, and they use loopholes in legislation to their advantage. These enterprises need an occasional look because should they acquire urgent claims at any time. They could move into the violent stakeholder category and become a threat to the SADC organisations. For example, these enterprises may penetrate deeply into political and economic life and affect public perceptions of globalised economic order.
b) Information systems and media	These are the most powerful of SADC stakeholders. They have all the power to influence the SADC, but they have no legitimate or urgent claims on the SADC. Their power lies in the facts. SADC member states have to cope with the problem of large numbers of people excluded from the information economy. Therefore, these institutions deserve an occasional look as well because they could be coercive if they could acquire urgent claims.

Table 3.6: Violent or coercive stakeholders

STAKEHOLDERS	ATTRIBUTES
a) Religious Institutions	These institutions have power in the SADC because their fundamentalism can be a force for social integration if the majority of the population should assent and find such fundamentalism a refuge. Fundamentalism can become a force of disintegration if demands are resisted by rival faiths or by the secular state. Religious movements have urgent claims on the SADC because they want to secularise civil society. These institutions do not have legitimate claims on the SADC.
b) NGOs	NGOs have power in the SADC because they are a major force for social development and integration due to their ability to enlist popular participation through grassroots organisations. NGOs also have urgent claims on the SADC because they need funding, but they do not have legitimate standing in the SADC organisation.

Table 3.7: Discretionary stakeholders

a) Issue-Oriented Organisations	These organisations have legitimate standing in the SADC but they do not have power to influence the SADC. They also do not have urgent claims. They are the beneficiaries of SADC management choices to support them financially or undertake joint projects.
b) Local Communities, Grassroots Organisations and Social Movements	These groups have no power to influence the SADC and they do not have urgent claims on the SADC organisation, but they have legitimate standing in the SADC.

The information discussed above could be presented as follows:

POWER

LEGITIMATE

Dormant

Long-term core
Southern Africa nation
states

Discretionary
-Local communities
-Issue oriented

-Transnational enterprise
-Information systems and media

Immediate core
-Global institutions
-Africa region institutions
-Educational institutions

Dependent
-Political parties
-Trade unions

Violent or coercive
-Religious movements
-NGOs

Demanding

URGENCY

Figure 3.2: Stakeholder analysis summary

90

It is imperative therefore to predict the actions of these categorised stakeholders so that they could be dealt with accordingly.

3.3.4 Predicting actions of the SADC stakeholders

It is predicted that SADC stakeholders who have two of the three attributes referred to in Figure 3.2 are likely to try to acquire the missing attribute, except in the case of long-term core stakeholders who are satisfied that their interests in the SADC organisation are being accommodated.

This implies that religious movement and NGOs, who have been classified as coercive stakeholders in the SADC, would try to acquire legitimacy through aligning with existing core stakeholders, such as the SADC member countries. Likewise, the prediction for political parties is that they will attempt to gain power to influence the SADC organisation's behaviour. Predictions for information systems and media, transactional enterprises, local communities, grassroots organisations and social movements, and issue-oriented organisations are inherently less stable. All these stakeholders have one attribute. If they were to acquire a second attribute, they would be propelled into the active stakeholder groups. Some of these groups could become violent due to urgent claims and the acquisition of power, but not legitimacy.

For instance, the media have power over the SADC because they have freedom to seek, receive, impact on and use information for the creation, accumulation and dissemination of knowledge. The media also have ethics because their content creation should foster justice, the dignity and worth of human beings, respect for human rights, the fundamental freedoms of others, including personal privacy, and the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion. In the SADC, there are media standardisations that emphasise open, interoperable and non-discriminatory practices, and take into account the needs of users and consumers. These standardisations are there because the media lack urgency in this region, and they do not always have urgent claims on the organisation. However, if the media were to gain urgency in the SADC, they would serve the interests of the states and corporations, not the interests of the public. The media would protect the states and corporations, and would serve as accomplices to political

felony by censoring information about the states' activities. These tactics would deliver misinforming in the guise of news. The media might even instil shock, terror, confusion, sexual arousal and uncertainty with sensational headlines. In this way, the media will become coercive/violent.

Stakeholders with one attribute could become dependent by virtue of urgent claims and acquiring legitimacy, but not power, or they could become long-term core stakeholders by acquiring both power and legitimacy, but without urgent claims. This indicates that stakeholders could move from one category to another in a fluid fashion. It is evidently important for leadership of the SADC to know substantially more about their stakeholders than mere generalities. Once their activities have been predicted, leadership will have to contemplate strategies and actions for dealing with them.

3.3.5 Dealing with the SADC stakeholders

Carrol (1996:92) quotes Savage *et al.* (1991:64), who argue that the development of specific strategies for dealing with stakeholders may be based on their classification in conjunction with whether they are potentially cooperative or a threat to the organisation. They claim that stakeholders' significance or influence depends on the situation and the issues involved. Two assessments are considered critical: the assessment of the stakeholders' potential to threaten the organisation, and their potential to cooperate with it. Diagnosing the potential for threat involves ascertaining the stakeholders' power to disrupt the organisation's accomplishment of its objectives. Diagnosing the potential for cooperation allows the organisation to move beyond defensive and offensive strategies against a threat to a situation in which cooperation with stakeholders allows the organisation to accomplish its objectives. Several factors affect stakeholders' potential for threat or cooperation.

These are outlined in the tables below, along with the indication of whether the factor increases or decreases the stakeholders' potential for threat or cooperation. The stakeholders' potential for threat or cooperation becomes the basis for categorising the types of stakeholders in the tables. Carrol (1996) goes on to say that, if these two dimensions are used, four types of stakeholders emerge, namely supportive, marginal,

non-supportive and mixed blessing, with different strategies responding to each type. The factors used to identify these types of stakeholders are as follows:

- Control of resources
- Power over an organisation
- Potential to take action
- Potential for coalition

The two-dimensional model (i.e. potential for threat and potential for cooperation), if used on SADC stakeholders, will result in the following: (To avoid rewriting the long list of stakeholders, stakeholders that are identified under 'factor one' are given the code '1', e.g. 1A, 1B and so on; stakeholders that are identified under 'factor two' are given the code '2', e.g. 2A, 2B and so on; and the same practice applies to 'factor 3' and 'factor 4'.)

Table 3.8: Factor one: Control of resources

Stakeholders	Factors	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for threat?	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for cooperation?
1A. Southern Africa nation states, global institutions, trade unions, farmers unions, cooperatives and education institutions	- Stakeholders control resources needed by the SADC organisation	Increases	Increases
1B. Political party movements, issue-oriented movements, religious movements, information systems and media, NGOs, local communities, grassroots organisations and social movements, African regional institutions	- Stakeholders do not control the SADC key resources	Decreases	Either

Table 3.9: Factor two: Power over the SADC

Stakeholders	Factors	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for threat?	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for cooperation?
2A. Global institutions, information systems and media	Stakeholders more powerful than the SADC	Increases	Either
2B. Africa regional institutions	Stakeholders as powerful as the SADC	Either	Either
2C. The SADC nation states, political party movements, trade union, issue-oriented organisations, NGOs, local communities, grassroots organisation and social movements	Stakeholders less powerful than the SADC	Decreases	Increases

Table 3.10: Factor three: Potential to take action

Stakeholders	Factors	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for threat?	Increases/decreases Stakeholders' potential for cooperation?
3A. Global institutions, the SADC nation states, political parties, issue-oriented movements, religious movements, educational, information and local communities, Africa region institutions	Stakeholders likely to take action (supportive of the SADC)	Decreases	Increases
3B. Global institutions, the SADC nation states, political parties, issue-oriented, religious, educational, information and local communities, Africa region institutions	Stakeholders likely to take non-supportive action at the SADC	Increases	Decreases
3C. Local communities	Stakeholders unlikely to take any action	Decreases	Decreases

Table 3.11: Factor four: Potential for coalition

Stakeholders	Factors	Increases/decreases stakeholders' potential for threat?	Increases/decreases stakeholders' potential for cooperation?
4A. Political parties, trade unions, issue-oriented, religious, NGOs, information, local communities, grassroots organisations and social movements	Stakeholders likely to form coalitions with other stakeholders	Increases	Either
4B. Global institutions, nation states, religious movements	Stakeholders likely to form coalitions with the SADC	Decreases	Increases
4C. Local communities, Africa region institutions	Stakeholders unlikely to form any coalition with the SADC	Decreases	Decreases

Stakeholders in category **2C, 3A** and **4B** are supportive stakeholders because their potential for cooperation is high and potentially low for threat. They are less powerful than the SADC and are therefore likely to take action supportive of the SADC, and more likely to form a coalition with the SADC. The SADC should therefore employ involvement strategies whereby stakeholders become involved through decentralisation of the SADC authority.

Stakeholders in **3C** and **4C** are marginal stakeholders because they are low on both potential for threat and potential for cooperation. They are unlikely to take any action and they are also unlikely to form any coalitions. The SADC should therefore monitor these stakeholders to ensure that circumstances do not change. Careful monitoring could prevent later problems.

Stakeholders in **3B** are non-supportive stakeholders because they are high on potential for threat but low on potential for cooperation. The SADC should therefore be vigilant against these non-supportive stakeholders.

Stakeholders in category **1A** are diverse because they are high on both potential for threat and potential of cooperation. They control key resources needed by the SADC and could become either supportive or non-supportive. The SADC therefore has to collaborate with them. By maximising collaboration, the likelihood that these stakeholders will remain supportive would be enhanced.

This stakeholder management system could be complex and time-consuming, but is an appropriate way for the SADC to manage its complex macro-environment. Against this background, (STEEP) trends in the SADC are analysed comparatively to establish development realities in this region and to determine what the implications for leadership are based on the results of the analysis. The purpose of this part of the study is to contribute to a better understanding of the SADC macro-environment. It is therefore important to identify common patterns and differences in the macro-environment of this region to find what works and what does not work. This will enable SADC leaders and the public to define social goals for this region and link them to clear objectives and targets. This analysis will provide an empirical and numerical basis for evaluating the performance of the SADC region, as well as connect past and present activities to attain future goals. It will also enable leaders of this region to identify interaction between different policies and to deal with possible trade-offs, because there are some cases where improvement in one area can only be achieved at the expense of deterioration in another.

The data examining different indicators will be provided for three standard time-points, namely 1980, 1990 and 2000. The rationale for this choice is as follows: 1980 is the year that the SADCC, the forerunner of SADC, was formed and data from this year provide baseline development information; 1990 is chosen as a marker for the first decade of the SADC; and 2000 marks the year in which the decision to restructure the SADC was made and marks the second decade of the SADC.

3.4 STEEP analysis of the SADC macro-environment

The data presented in this part of the study are compared and are manipulated by involving the use of statistical measures, such as a mean. A mean is an arithmetic average of values, which allows for the establishment of the most basic dimensions of change for

the variables in question. It is a measure of central tendency; that is, the average of a set of elements. The comparative method of analysis indicates whether the variables are becoming larger or smaller over time across the SADC member states.

3.4.1 The SADC social environment

A discussion of the SADC social environment enhances one's understanding of social issues in this region. A desirable social environment is one that brings about development as a desirable progress through which a maximum possible quality of life can be attained for all members of society, regardless of their sex, origin, race, religion or other social distinctions. This is characterised by fair social conditions that provide all people with a maximum degree of security and opportunities for personal development and broadening of personal and professional skills. This is an environment where basic social conditions are created under which human rights are guaranteed for all people, while local cultural values are preserved.

In what follows, consideration is given to possible inconsistencies in the SADC's social environment that could cause trouble for the region and to the extent that the social environment is consistent with the SADC's mission and vision. The first step is therefore to determine the number of people.

Estimated regional population

Table 3.6 indicates that the SADC's capacity to ensure vital resource does not correspond with its demographic growth. This population increase has shaped the destiny of the region because the demands of the escalating population are exceeding the sustainable yield of life-support systems such as croplands, grasslands and forests. The inevitable choice is either a drastic reduction in the birth rate or an equally drastic reduction in living standards. The obstacles to successful birth rate reduction are also deeply embedded in traditional views of the family in the African context. Therefore, awareness campaigns on the relationships between population growth, economic growth and living standards have to be increased so that the SADC's population growth is brought into harmony with its resources. People have to be aware that large numbers of people sharing limited land and water implies poverty, hunger and poor health, which

obviously strains national and regional budgets. **Leadership of the SADC must therefore be able to design a viable regional population policy.**

Table 3.12: Estimated national population in millions. Source: Gender poverty and environment indicators 2001-2002

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	7.0	10.0	13.3
2.	Botswana	0.9	1.3	1.8
3.	DRC	27.0	35.6	49.2
4.	Lesotho	1.3	1.8	2.4
5.	Malawi	6.2	8.8	12.5
6.	Mauritius	1.0	1.1	1.2
7.	Mozambique	12.1	15.7	20.5
8.	Namibia	1.0	1.8	2.4
9.	Seychelles	0.06	0.1	-
10.	South Africa	27.6	35.3	42.8
11.	Swaziland	0.6	0.8	1.1
12.	Tanzania	18.6	27.3	39.6
13.	Zambia	5.7	8.5	12.3
14.	Zimbabwe	7.1	9.7	13.1
MEAN		**8.3**	**11.3**	**16.3**

An examination of data in Table 3.12 reveals that population growth rates in Botswana, Malawi, Tanzania, Namibia and Zambia increased by 100% or more in two decades. The data emphasise the magnitude of the effort needed to halt population growth in the SADC. James D. Wolfensohn, president of the World Bank Group, when addressing the Board of Governors in Dubai United Emirates (2003:2), said:

> The demographics of the future speak to the growing imbalance of
> people, resources and the environment. If we act together now, we can

change the world for the better. If we do not, we shall leave greater and more intractable problems for our children … We all share one planet. It is time we restore balance to the way we use it.

Adult literacy rate in the SADC

The field of education provides typical examples of the frustrations encountered by the planners of development, including how criteria should be prioritised. For example, should the eradication of illiteracy begin with adults or with children in primary schools? This poses a dilemma because education development is a cyclical process – it both depends on economic growth and contributes to it. This suggests that the struggle against illiteracy in the SADC is actually a war against poverty because illiteracy hampers social advancement on all fronts. Literacy is essential for democratic participation and it influences the quality of labour because it is an important determinant of the level of skill in an economy. Literacy is moreover a human right, irrespective of its relationship to development.

The rate of adult literacy is analysed in this study because, although adults are already contributing to the socio-economic activities of their societies, there are economic and social changes that necessitate a wide and rapid diffusion of adult literacy programmes in the SADC. Adults must become critically aware of their environment. "Findings" (2001) argue "Illiteracy is a major barrier to poverty alleviation … It will take too long to reduce adult illiteracy substantially if one only relies on expansion and improvement of primary schools."

Adult literacy programmes in the SADC should therefore aim at developing a sense of civic consciousness and community responsibility among its people because lack of civic consciousness could be one of the greatest impediments to development in the SADC. The SADC is therefore faced with the challenge to improve the quality and efficiency of regional adult literacy programmes, which in turn will foster regional growth. Improved adult literacy programmes would bring the deprived and marginalised masses to the centre of development.

Literacy work does not take place in isolation; it is an essential part of an overall quest for development. Therefore, the SADC should develop literacy programmes that will enable people to gradually shift away from old patterns of thought and attitudes to develop a better understanding and appreciation of opportunities and to orient themselves to the process of change. **There is an evident need for the SADC leaders to provide quality and accessible education.** Table 3.13 shows the adult literacy rate in the SADC during the observed timeline.

Table 3.13: Adult literacy rate in the SADC: Total percentage of population Source: Column 1 World development report (1982), column 2 World development report (1982), column 3 African development indicators (2002)

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	-	41.7	42
2. Botswana	57.63	73.6	76.4
3. DRC	34.05	71.8	60.3
4. Lesotho	71.30	78	82.9
5. Malawi	44.53	47	59.2
6. Mauritius	74.09	86	84.2
7. Mozambique	24.47	32.9	43.2
8. Namibia	66.27	40.0	81.4
9. Seychelles	-	89	-
10. South Africa	76.21	70	84.9
11. Swaziland	60.07	72	78.9
12. Tanzania	50.14	65	74.7
13. Zambia	58.6	72.8	77.2
14. Zimbabwe	70.04	66.9	88.0
MEAN	57.3	64.8	71.8

Adult literacy rate indicates percentage of people aged 15 and over, who can with understanding both read and write.

From Table 3.13 it is evident that those countries that had experienced social or political oppression have the lowest literacy levels. For example, during apartheid in South Africa,

whites were more literate than blacks, but by 2000, illiteracy had decreased because the education system had been reformed to include all its citizens.

The progress of war against illiteracy gives a clear picture of the prospects of illiteracy eradication in the 1990s. For example, Tanzania had a 50% literacy rate in 1980 and in 1990 it was 74.7%. As people further experienced liberation from colonialism, they participated more in literacy programmes because literacy is another means of liberation as it creates conditions in which a critical awareness of the contradiction in a society can be acquired. Primary education can also eradicate literacy. What follows here is the analysis of the school enrolment primary ratio.

School enrolment primary ratio in the SADC

In most countries in the SADC, there seems to be a popular clamour for more children to be in school. This has resulted in political difficulties and the proliferation of low-grade do-it-yourself schools. This does not ensure permanent literacy because it does not prepare children for useful citizenship. On economic grounds, there exists a good case for restricting primary intake. This is dilemma because access to all sectors of education is a basic human right that is politically inevitable, but it is educationally unsound and economically impossible. The basic proposition is that development requires what good education requires and, on the other hand, education requires what development requires. Therefore, activities at school must be firmly tied to the life of the community. **The SADC leaders should therefore devise education policies and practices based on people's needs.**

Table 3.14: School enrolment primary ratio in the SADC (%) Source: Column 1 World development report (1982), column 2 World development report (1982), column 3 African development indicators (2002).

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	174	91	34
2.	Botswana	91	115	81
3.	DRC	92	70	-
4.	Lesotho	102	104	66
5.	Malawi	60	68	-
6.	Mauritius	93	109	98
7.	Mozambique	99	67	40
8.	Namibia	128	129	93
9.	Seychelles	-	96	0
10.	South Africa	85	109	96
11.	Swaziland	103	111	91
12.	Tanzania	93	70	48
13.	Zambia	90	98	78
14.	Zimbabwe	85	116	-
MEAN		**99.6**	**96.6**	**72.2**

School enrolment primary ratio denotes the number of students enrolled in the primary level of education, irrespective of whether they belong in the relevant age group for primary level, as a percentage of population in the relevant age group.

In the SADC, considerable progress has been made from 1980 to 2000 in primary education, as witnessed in South Africa, Malawi and Mauritius. Other countries are however not so well off, for example Angola, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia and Tanzania are much worse off during the same period. Data in Table 3.14 make it easy to see why anyone writing about primary education in the SADC might be inclined to agree that there are increasing investments in primary education and that this might help lay foundations for development in this region. Angola, Namibia, Swaziland and Lesotho are countries that were at the top in the primary education enrolment ratio in 1980 and Angola became a laggard in the primary education enrolment ration by 2000.

Another social trend that is observed and analysed in this study is health.

Population with access to health in the SADC

The concern about accessibility of health services in the SADC can be illustrated from the population growth within the region. The rate of population growth is so high that governments are unable to keep pace with basic health services, as is portrayed by Table 3.14. In many SADC countries, the population has outgrown the capacity of local agricultural areas to provide food; consequently poverty and ill health persist, with less accessibility to health services.

The 21st century is said to offer a bright vision of better health for all. It is also said to hold the prospect not only of longer life but of a superior quality life, with less disability and fewer diseases. If the SADC subscribes to this vision, it will have to ensure access to and availability of essential drugs and vaccines at a low cost. It has to ensure regional use of these drugs and vaccines, and their quality and safety. "European Communities" (2002:63) states:

> A healthy population is crucial for the well being of our societies … A safe environment and decent health care are basic elements of social and economic progress. How a society cares for its most fragile members is also a measure of its own health and sustainability. Good health is important for our economic and material prosperity.

The SADC leadership must demonstrate increased social concern for equity and efforts to fulfil the promise of "health for all".

Table 3.15: Population with access to health services in the SADC as % of total population. Source: Column 1 and column 2 World report 1994, column 3, African development Bank 2002.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	70	24	20
2.	Botswana	-	86	90
3.	DRC	80	59	-
4.	Lesotho	-	80	80
5.	Malawi	40	80	44
6.	Mauritius	100	100	100
7.	Mozambique	-	30	50
8.	Namibia	-	30	80
9.	Seychelles	-	-	-
10.	South Africa	-	99	80
11.	Swaziland	-	-	100
12.	Tanzania	72	55	66
13.	Zambia	-	45	66
14.	Zimbabwe	55	75	70
MEAN		**69.5**	**63.6**	**70.5**

Percentage population with access to health services denotes the percentage of population that can reach appropriate local health services on foot or by local means of transport in no more than one hour.

Data reflected in Table 3.15 for 1980 and 1990 show that access to health services grew at a rate faster than between 1990 and 2000 in Angola, Malawi and Zimbabwe. From 1990 to 2000, access to health services increased by 6.9% in these countries. By 1990, countries such as Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, South Africa and Zambia were able to boast substantial improvement in access to health services well above the regional average of the same period. However, there was no apparent improvement in countries like Angola, Namibia, Mozambique and Zambia at that time. Data in Table 3.15 demand the SADC member countries be mobilised to meet their health needs. One of the health needs is access to safe water, as analysed below.

Access to safe water in the SADC

Water is a finite resource and its management should form part of overall regional economic planning. Water is of growing economic relevance, but water shortages in the SADC region has also increased due to industrialisation and a growing population, resulting in bigger water requirements and better quality water.

The continuing increase in socio-economic activities in the SADC has been accompanied by an escalation in the pollution of the aquatic environment. As the population increases, along with the scale and capacity of human activities notably in agriculture and industry, greater demands have been made on water. Several human activities have indirect and undesirable effects on the aquatic environment, such as uncontrolled land use, urbanisation and deforestation, as well as the accidental spillage of chemical substances. In most cases, the majority of the rural and urban-fringe population lacks safe water and proper sanitation because water is no longer a commodity people can afford. Even if they could afford it, it is not easily available.

In order to make a lasting impact on safe-water needs, community water-supply strategies must therefore be based on sustainable and reliable programmes. Communities have to be effectively involved in the design, implementation and maintenance of the planned improvement.

The SADC had nevertheless played a major role in the discussions on improving access to safe water during the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg. The governments pledged their commitment to meet the international goals of halving the proportion of people who lack access to safe water by 2015. **Leaders of this region should undertake a water sector reform to ensure that services are provided and managed with increased performance and cost effectiveness.**

Table 3.16: People with access to safe water as percentage of total population. *Source: Column 1 World development report 1981, column 2 and column 3 The World Bank 2003.*

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	17	38	38
2. Botswana	-	56	-
3. DRC	19	34	45
4. Lesotho	17	46	91
5. Malawi	51	53	57
6. Mauritius	99	100	100
7. Mozambique	-	22	60
8. Namibia	-	-	77
9. Seychelles	79	99	-
10. South Africa	-	-	86
11. Swaziland	43	30	-
12. Tanzania	39	52	54
13. Zambia	42	59	64
14. Zimbabwe	-	36	85
MEAN	**45.1**	**52.1**	**68.8**

Safe water access denotes the percentage of population with reasonable access to safe water supply, including treated surface water or untreated but uncontaminated water such as that from springs, sanitary wells and protected boreholes.

Figures in Table 3.16 give an indication of safe water availability in the SADC. The figures also reveal that in 1980 more than 50% of the population in the SADC did not use water from improved sources. Only 45.1% had access to safe water. Safe water is relatively limited in the SADC. Countries such as Mauritius and Seychelles have achieved remarkable success in supplying safe drinking water to 99% and 79% respectively of their population in 1980. However, the DRC and Mauritius tend to have quite divergent safe water profiles, with the DRC having less than 65% in 2000 than Mauritius. For the period 1980 to1990, Angola and Lesotho made up the tail of the

SADC's access to safe water, but this altered in 2000 with Lesotho moving ahead of several SADC countries with 91% access. The average level of access to safe water consumption in the DRC was 19% in 1980, and it had more than doubled by 2000. Most of this increase occurred in 1990. The peculiarities of access to safe water are clearly illustrated by contrasts between Lesotho and Mauritius. These countries were at the opposite ends of safe water consumption in 1990, namely 17% and 99% to 91% and 100% in 2000.

A health issue that needs to be managed with increased performance and cost effectiveness is HIV/AIDS. What follows is an assessment of this major health issue in the SADC.

HIV/AIDS in the SADC

HIV/AIDS is said to have emerged in the early1980s as the most catastrophic pandemic of modern times. and has the potential to destroy human development. According to NEPAD (2000:13), "The HIV/AIDS pandemic is the greatest threat to Africa, not only causing millions of unnecessary deaths and untold suffering, but also stifling economic development and damaging the continent's social fabric." This implies that HIV/AIDS could set back the SADC region in its efforts to achieve larger life expectancy and promote improved quality of life. HIV/AIDS has the greatest impact on those in their more productive years. The spread of this disease is having devastating consequences at the household, community, national and regional levels. Illness and death cause increased expenditures, reduced savings and shifts in productivity patterns. It thus has a negative impact on development and development processes. This can happen on a large scale or at the individual level because poverty makes people more vulnerable to the impact of the infection. According to Quattek (2000), "The pandemic impacts on the economy in various ways. It leads to a smaller labour force, lower labour productivity, cost pressures for companies, lower labour income and increased demand for health services from the private and public sectors." **The SADC leadership should therefore ensure sustainable livelihoods in their countries and move out of poverty**.

Table 3.17 shows HVI/AIDS estimates at the beginning of 2000.

Table 3.17: HIV/AIDS estimates at the beginning of 2000 in the SADC. Source: Column 1 and column 2 African development indicators 2002, column 3 Human development report 2001

COUNTRY	ADULTS	0 –14 YRS CHILDREN	ORPHANS CUMULATIVE
1. Angola	150 000	7 900	98 000
2. Botswana	67 000	10 000	66 000
3. DRC	1,100 000	53 000	680 000
4. Lesotho	240 000	8 200	35 000
5. Malawi	760 000	40 000	390 000
6. Mauritius	500	-	-
7. Mozambique	1100 000	52 000	310 000
8. Namibia	150 000	6 600	67 000
9. Seychelles	0	0	0
10. South Africa	4 100 000	95 000	420 000
11. Swaziland	120 000	2800	12 000
12. Tanzania	120 000	6 300	95 000
13. Zambia	830 000	40 000	650 000
14. Zimbabwe	1 400 000	56 000	900 000
MEAN	**724107**	**29062**	**286,385**

This is the estimated number of people living with HIV/AIDS at the end of 1999/beginning of 2000.

Table 3.17 indicates available HIV/AIDS statistics for 13 of the 14 countries of the SADC. The only country of this region for which there are no statistics is the Seychelles. The prevalence or scale of infection varies widely between countries. This virus reached the SADC member countries at different times and has spread faster or slower according to different risk factors. Several epidemic patterns are present in this region.

Table 3.17 shows that the situation of HIV/ADS prevalence in the SADC is similar to the situation in Zambia alone. On average, one in every five adults is estimated as having HIV/AIDS. In South Africa particularly the rate is very high. Table 3.17 also gives estimated adult HIV prevalence and children with HIV/AIDS, as well as the

number of HIV/AIDS orphans at the beginning of 2000, which is the year that the restructuring of the SADC's operations and institutions took place. It can be concluded from Table 3.17 that HIV/AIDS is not restricted to poor countries within the region. Botswana is a relatively rich country. In South Africa, for example, 4100 000 of the population of adults were infected by HIV/AIDS by 2000. In poorer countries such as Tanzania and Mozambique, the number of adults infected were 120 000 and 1 100 000 respectively by the same year.

The countries most affected by HIV among adults are South Africa, Zambia and Malawi, while Zimbabwe, the DRC and Zambia have a high rate of children with HIV/AIDS. Orphans are here defined as children younger than 15 who have lost both parents or who have lost either a mother or father. These orphans may be at a high risk of infection as they grow older, especially if they are sexually abused or forced to sell unprotected sex to survive. According to "Claremont McKenna College" (2004:1), "African leaders have a key role to play, particularly with regard prevention. Too often they have remained silent … We need to speak up against the disease loudly and immediately." However, "Southern Africa HIV/AIDS ACTION" (2002) argues, "Bringing about change requires the active mobilisation of many stakeholders including people living with HIV/AIDS, their families, friends." Shell (2000) furthermore cautions, "Biblical plagues and all global plagues combined do not compare in their impact to what might happen in Africa in the next fifty years." This suggests that HIV/AIDS has no precedents and therefore requires innovative measures of prevention and care.

What follows is an analysis of the technological environment of the SADC.

3.4.2 The SADC technological environment

Technology presents possibilities for human action in a society through the use of tools and processes available for human use. Therefore, the introduction of new technological methods of production, exchange and information communication has revolutionary effects, not only on the utility, but also on substantial reduction of costs.

The SADC seems to have been inactive in developing and promoting technology during much of the 20th century. One hopes that the African renaissance and NEPAD will

reverse this trend. The current information revolution makes demands on the SADC governments to engage in privatisation programmes because consumer demands for information and communication technology far exceed the capacity of state-controlled agencies to fulfil their need. According to Falloux and Talbot (1993:12), "Information is one of the foundations of our world, without it our modern societies would come to standstill. Deprived of interactive information, the financial and economic system of our planet could not function properly." **The SADC leadership must therefore restructure the ICT sector in order to accelerate investment and increase responsiveness the ICT user needs because expansion of ICT implies global participation.** ICT, such as telephones, Internet and radios, could be considered a strategic investment to maintain and develop competitive advantage at all levels in the SADC. According to "Development and Cooperation" (2002:4), "Common wisdom has it that the advent of modern information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as telephone or Internet holds unprecedented opportunities for developing countries." This technology constitutes the core of and provides the infrastructure for an information economy. Information and communication technology is therefore a prerequisite for development. "African Communications" (2001:12) argues as follows:

> The fast growth of telecommunications services represents a tremendous challenge for both traditional and new networks operators throughout the world, and never more so than in South Africa and countries in Southern Africa Development Community (SADC).

ICT can overcome barriers of social, economic and geographical isolation and enable poor people to participate in decision-making that affect their lives. This is a typical political empowerment of the poor. Wayne (1999:229) argues that "Communication will become a central focus for capacity building: and communications provide the physical means for greatly enhanced communications."

The basic information communication mode, the telephone, is the only ICT in the SADC analysed for this study because other forms of ICTs are not captured in the literature studied. Table 3.18 illustrates the number of telephone mainlines in the SADC.

Table 3.18: Number of telephone mainlines per 100 people. Source: Column 1 World development report 1982, column 2 World report 1994, column 3 World resource institute 2002.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	-	8	5
2.	Botswana	8	10	93
3.	DRC	8	-	-
4.	Lesotho	1	2	10
5.	Malawi	6	1	4
6.	Mauritius	35	14	235
7.	Mozambique	3	1	4
8.	Namibia	-	39	63
9.	Seychelles	-	124	235
10.	South Africa	23	26	114
11.	Swaziland	-	17	32
12.	Tanzania	19	6	5
13.	Zambia	5	2	8
14.	Zimbabwe	7	6	8
MEAN		11.3	19.7	63.5

These are telephone mainlines connecting subscribers to the telephone exchange equipment.

Table 3.18 indicates that from 1980 to 1999 telephone mainlines in the SADC averaged 11.3. A significant change is observed in 1990 with 19.7 average telephone mainlines, which shows that the SADC was beginning to take its future in information and communication technology seriously. However, the integration of the SADC into the global information economy with telephones connected to the World Wide Web lags far behind in this region, and thus continues to be an instrumental task that communication experts and policy makers should address.

SADC countries in the forefront of providing basic communication technology such as telephones (Table 3.18) are Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa, Botswana and Namibia. These countries are devoting significant planning and funding to this project.

"African Communications" (2001:8) states the following regarding provision of basic communication and technology in Africa:

> The submarine cable project dubbed SAT-3/WASC/SAFE will enable African communities to connect faster and better using infrastructure from Africa itself. The cable will stretch 28,000KM along the African coastline to make communication from and into Africa as well as between African countries a true African initiative.

To overcome ICT challenges in the SADC require regional reforms, political will, genuine support by the international community and sustainability of natural resources. Natural resources provide financial resources that can be used to expand ICT in the SADC.

What follows is an assessment of natural resources in this region.

3.4.3 The SADC natural environment

The natural environment and development complement each other because economic growth, particularly in developing economies, draws on inputs of natural environmental goods and services in the production process. On the other hand, the financial means to secure the protection of the natural environment derives from the generation of national income. Therefore, many governments regard the natural environment as 'nature's capital' because it provides a foundation of inputs for primary economic activity. Depletion or degradation of this 'nature's capital' decreases the productive capacity of an economy and jeopardises future income sources. This implies that the SADC should not pursue development of the economy at the expense of non-renewable resources or degradation of the natural environment. Therefore, there is a need for environmental responsibility in the SADC. The rule of ecological responsibility should gain greater importance on the SADC regional level because this concept is closely connected with the concept of sustainable development. The following section deals with the analysis of the SADC's natural environment, starting with the forest areas in the SADC.

Total forest area in the SADC

Many challenges that the SADC currently faces include deforestation, soil erosion, desertification and loss of biodiversity. These are not new problems, but there is a substantial difference in scale, speed and long-term impact. "International Environment House News" (2001) points out that,

Forests ecosystems are critical for preserving biodiversity and numerous endangered species. They play central role in maintaining watersheds, in carbon sequestration and in combating desertification. Their value in social and economic terms makes their preservation an overriding priority.

This emphasises the importance of the biodiversity of the forests because diverse species found only in forest habitats are valuable pharmaceutical and generic resources. Forests likewise play an important role in hydrological processes on watersheds by controlling soil erosion in slopping mountains. Forests retain water in soil, regulate flow and act as a filter for drinking water. Therefore, deforestation is an indicator of watershed degradation. Forests also play a major role in the global carbon cycle. Trees capture carbon from the atmosphere as they grow and store it in their tissue. These woodlands and scattered trees have provided people of Southern Africa with shelter, food, medicines, building materials and clean water throughout history.

Wood fuel is the most important source of non-fossil energy in the SADC, but at the current rate of deforestation future fuel supply is threatened. The socio-economic role of forests is critical in the SADC because forests supply industrial wood for both domestic consumption and export in exchange for foreign currency. Forests also support the livelihoods of many rural people in the SADC with traditional goods and services, food and medicine. However, "International Environment House News" (2001) points out that, "Often the public views the use of forest resources as environmentally unsound and is wary of forest products." **The leadership of the SADC must therefore restore woodlands and forests because they are essential to the recovery of agriculture on which the region's economic prospects depend.**

Table 3.19: Total forest area (1000ha). Source: Column 1and column 2 World report 1994, column 3 African development indicators 2002

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	24922	23385	69756
2.	Botswana	15030	14271	12427
3.	DRC	12613	12946	135207
4.	Lesotho	1	6	14
5.	Malawi	4067	3612	2562
6.	Mauritius	11	12	-
7.	Mozambique	18701	17443	30601
8.	Namibia	13000	12584	8040
9.	Seychelles	-	-	-
10.	South Africa	8682	8574	8917
11.	Swaziland	145	146	-
12.	Tanzania	38004	34123	38811
13.	Zambia	35958	32720	31246
14.	Zimbabwe	9576	8960	19040
MEAN		12860	12983	32420

Table 3.19 shows that much of the forests in the SADC countries were cleared during the 1990s. Further clearing occurred in countries such as Botswana, Malawi, Namibia and Zambia in 2000. Wood fuel availability had decreased significantly as early as 1990 in countries such as Lesotho, but during the same period in countries such as the DRC production had been enhanced, despite growing demand.

Forests in the SADC provide an important springboard for industrial and socio-economic development, but have been recklessly exploited in this region. In spite of the rapidly increasing international support for reforestation, little progress has been made towards restoring the SADC's woodlands and improved management of forests. The SADC should therefore restore its woodlands by selecting suitable trees for its varying climatic conditions. By doing so, internal renewable water resources in the SADC would

be sustained. What follows is an analysis of the internal renewable water resources in the SADC.

Internal renewable water resources in the SADC

Renewable water resources are distributed unevenly in the SADC. Some areas have abundant water, while others have a limited supply. "SADC Today" (2004) states:

> Southern Africa, well endowed with productive agricultural land, presents lots of potential. Challenges however exist in that water is unevenly distributed through out the region … due to region's high average annual population growth rate of 2.6 percent, more pressure is being put on the already stressed water supply.

Water for domestic use and agriculture and industry is also distributed unevenly in this region. Given the limited supply of water and a growing population, the amount of renewable water resources has been decreasing. Therefore, understanding, protecting and restoring renewable water resources is essential to foster equitable human development and the welfare of all species.

The SADC leadership should develop a regional policy for maintaining selected internal renewable water resources in their natural states. The storage and diversion of water on trans-boundary rivers have been a source of considerable tension between countries and within countries because,

> Water is increasingly seen as common property rather than a public good … multiple uses means that there are often conflicting interests in water … Structural adjustment programmes … promote the idea that water is a good, no longer a free good to which everybody has a right. (Wayne, 1999:74)

According to "Millennium Goals: Water and Sanitation", "The mounting water challenges of the 21st century will only be met if all levels of government and society are involved." The following table shows internal renewable water resources in the SADC.

Table 3.20: Internal renewable water resources total (1000m^3 /year) in the SADC. Source: Column 2 Human development report 1994 and column 3 World resources institute 2002.

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	-	158	184
2. Botswana	-	1	2.9
3. DRC	-	1019	935
4. Lesotho	-	4	5.2
5. Malawi	-	9	17
6. Mauritius	-	2.1	2.2
7. Mozambique	-	58	100
8. Namibia	-	9.0	6.2
9. Seychelles	-	-	-
10. South Africa	-	50	44.8
11. Swaziland	-	7	2.6
12. Tanzania	-	76	80
13. Zambia	-	96	80.2
14. Zimbabwe	-	23	14.1
MEAN	**-**	**116.3**	**113.4**

Internal renewable water resources denote the annual flow of rivers and aquifers generated from endogenous precipitation.

Statistics in Table 3.20 show that the data for 1980 is not available, but the column for this year is included for consistency in the timescale used in this study. What is notable is the fall in mean of 116.3 (1000m^3) of renewable water resources in 1990 to 113.4 (1000m^3) in 2000. There are also changes in the quantity of renewable water resources that vary from country to country, with a sharp fall in the DRC, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe and a more muted trend in Mauritius.

On a regional scale, renewable water resources seem to be exceeded by demand. This view is affirmed by "UNITED Nations Development Programme" (UNDP) (2002:11): "In parts of the world, human pressures are straining nature's ability to filter and purify water. 1.2 billion people already lack access to clean drinking water. Water

borne diseases cause illness in over half of the developing world's population." This view is confirmed by Todaro (1997:52):

> The importance of access to clean drinking water … cannot be overemphasised. Water borne disease such as typhoid fever, cholera and an array of serious or fatal diarrhoeal illness are responsible for more than 35% of deaths of young children in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

Renewable water resources in the SADC seem too vulnerable and unprotected. Pollution has also spread through industrial estates bringing pollution to the rivers, but wetlands play an essential role in maintaining water quality by removing contaminants and helping to break down and disperse organic wastes. "UNDP" (2002:11) indicates that not only the wetlands play the role of maintaining water quality, but also the lakes, river basins, estuaries flood plains and oasis. It states, "These ecosystems regulate fresh water quality and quantity, and provide crucial habitat for countless fish, amphibian, invertebrate and plant species." However, the filtering capacity of wetlands in the SADC would be limited as an excess of human waste, agricultural run-off and natural contaminants overwhelm them. The other contaminant caused by human activity is carbon dioxide.

Carbon dioxide emissions in the SADC

Substantial efforts to industrialise are underway in the SADC. Industrialisation is viewed as quickest way to reduce poverty, but virtually every industrial area is a source of pollutants; such as carbon monoxide, which can adversely affect human health, the environment and human ecology. As the SADC is industrialising, assessment of industrial projects should be undertaken to identify the potentially harmful effects of a particular industry on the environment, human health and society to ensure that appropriate mitigation measures are incorporated into the project and to prevent unnecessary depletion of domestic natural resources. Failure to incorporate environmental controls into a project at the outset would result in higher expenditures later on for curative health measures and programmes to control air pollution.

Carbon dioxide is perceived as one of the major air pollutants and there is a correlation between carbon dioxide and temperature records, but it is not yet established whether it is carbon dioxide that is driving the temperature or vice versa, or whether they are both driven by an unidentified third variable.

Carbon monoxide, which is one of the primary air pollutants, results in carbon dioxide. The main sources of carbon dioxide are incomplete combustion of fuel and other carbonaceous materials, industrial processes, cigarette smoking and decomposition of organic matter. Carbon monoxide has a wide variety of diverse environmental impacts. Prolonged exposure may increase the incidence of respiratory and cardiovascular ailments in humans because, as it is absorbed by the lungs, it reduces the oxygen-carrying capacity of blood and hence impairs mental function.

Apart from these effects of carbon dioxide, other effects include acid rain and soil acidity. Crops are consequently hindered from realising expected grain yields. Acid rain and soil acidity also affect the woodlands and the SADC should therefore be concerned with both the aesthetic and economic costs of losing its forests and crops to carbon dioxide pollution. The loss of trees also affects the hydrological cycle. As land is degraded, its ability to absorb and retain water diminishes. "International Environment House News" (2001:1) confirms this view:

> Developing countries are at greatest risk. Lacking technical and financial resources necessary to adapt to changing climate, they also face other difficult social and environmental challenges … In all sectors, water, health, food, energy … and human settlements, the risk exists worldwide that impacts of climate change will over-stress current institutional structures and engineered systems designed for more stable world.

Table 3.21 indicates carbon dioxide emission as one of the environmental hazards in the SADC.

Table 3.21: Carbon dioxide emissions (million metric tonnes) in the SADC. Source: Column 1 and column 2 World development report 1991, column 3 Indicators of African countries 2001-2002

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	5.0	4.8	5.9
2. Botswana	1.0	2.3	3.8
3. DRC	3.6	3.4	2.4
4. Lesotho	-	-	-
5. Malawi	0.7	0.7	0.7
6. Mauritius	0.6	1.3	-
7. Mozambique	2.3	1.0	1.3
8. Namibia	-	-	-
9. Seychelles	-	4.2	-
10. South Africa	288	300	343.7
11. Swaziland	0.4	0.3	-
12. Tanzania	2.1	2.3	2.2
13. Zambia	3.3	2.4	1.6
14. Zimbabwe	9.6	17.5	14.1
MEAN	**28.8**	**28.7**	**41.7**

Carbon dioxide emissions refer to human-originated carbon dioxide emissions stemming from the burning of fossil fuels and the production of cement.

Table 3.21 indicates that South Africa, Angola and Zimbabwe are countries that are directly responsible for a great deal of carbon dioxide emission in the SADC region. Carbon dioxide emission in the DRC, Mozambique and Zimbabwe increased slightly between 1980 and 2000 as indicated in Table 3.21. It also indicates that, among the fourteen countries in the SADC, eleven demonstrate an increase in carbon dioxide emissions. **The leadership of the SADC should be concerned about the sustainability of their physical environment and ecosystems, and endeavour to provide a liveable environment for their people.** They should encourage sustainable consumption and production, which will lead to economic sustainability. What follows is an assessment of the SADC economic environment.

3.4.4 The SADC economic environment

The SADC could enjoy sustained growth of income, employment and exports provided its enterprises are able to raise and maintain productivity to a competitive level. Raising productivity to competitive levels is, however, not enough to ensure growth, especially if the level of productivity is below competitive demand. The key to raising the productivity of the SADC to competitive levels lies in improving skills and learning, which in turn will lead to a high performing regional economy. Capability building requires something more, such as the necessary knowledge, skills and experience related to specific technologies. This involves creating new skills by training in and experience of new technologies.

What follows is a comparative analysis of the SADC economic environment to determine the extent of economic credibility of the region. The first section is an analysis of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the SADC.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the SADC

Several underlying factors might be the cause of the rates of the GDP per capita in the SADC as indicated in Table 3.22. Key among these factors might be changes in economic policies within the SADC. This implies that there are elements of policy framework that the SADC has to implement in order to promote sustainable economic growth. The SADC member countries have to intensify their efforts to create an environment that promotes confidence in the sustainability of the appropriate economic policies. For example, they should ensure that there is adequate infrastructure and qualified labour, and ensure good governance.

The SADC member countries have to focus on the delivery of essential public services. For example, they should increase the quality and quantity of basic health care, education and other priority services. These countries must implement growth-conducive structural reforms, such as privatisation of public enterprises. Furthermore, trade liberalisation can also help to accelerate growth by promoting competitiveness amongst the SADC producers. Table 3.22 shows a **need for the SADC leadership to raise the GDP rates sustainably and on sustained bases.**

Table 3.22: Gross Domestic Product in the SADC (Million US dollars) Source: Column 1 and column 2 Human development report 1993, column 3 African development indicators 2001.

Country	1980	1990	2000
Angola	6897	9113	6647
Botswana	1208	3172	6330
DRC	8584	9348	2539
Lesotho	413	622	1122
Malawi	1492	1858	1739
Mauritius	1471	2642	5253
Mozambique	1435	1443	3380
Namibia	2135	2270	4230
Seychelles	270	373	569
South Africa	92052	106682	170569
Swaziland	558	888	1543
Tanzania	2993	3869	6419
Zambia	2987	3288	3959
Zimbabwe	4880	6806	7838
MEAN	9098.21	10883.86	15866.93

Gross Domestic Product denotes the total output of goods and services for final use produced by an economy, both residents and non-residents, regardless of allocation to domestic and foreign claims.

Table 3.22 shows that countries such as Botswana, Mauritius and South Africa are showing signs of economic progress, but the GDP rates in these countries are still not high enough to make a dent in the pervasive poverty in the SADC region. Furthermore, countries like Angola and the DRC have only recently emerged from civil wars that have set back their development efforts. Most of the SADC countries are also facing challenges to raise growth, reduce poverty and integrate themselves into the world of economy. The data in Table 3.22 show that the GDP in the SADC grew significantly in the year 2000. For example, the average GDP that was 10883.86 in 1990 rose to 15866.93 in 2000.

Food production is one of the basic economic activities and the second step is therefore to assess this basic economic activity in this region.

Food production in the SADC

Food deficit is rife in the SADC countries. Most of these deficits are due to excessive population growth, land degradation or agricultural mismanagement, or a combination of the two. According to Sherperd (1998:50),

> The major lessons of twenty year's study of food security is that it does not depend on food production alone … It depends to a greater extent on people's ability to command the resources to acquire the food they need … It also depends on the degree to which there are effective local, national and even international institutions and political systems capable of monitoring and providing for scarcities.

Production of food is also dependent on providing the appropriate inputs in the proper amounts at the right times and being able to respond to continually changing farm conditions. **This suggests that the SADC leadership should restructure the agricultural sector by shifting from highly controlled production to reliance on market forces and individual initiative**. To this end, "SADC Today" (2004:4) states:

> The SADC Secretariat is also exploring the possibility of creating a food reserve facility to be supported by member states and the World Bank. The reserve facility would build a grain reserve that member countries can rely on.

The decline in food production in some of the SADC countries is not exclusively due to ecological deterioration. Ineffective population policies and failed or non-existent population policies have also contributed to inadequate food production in the SADC. These conditions increase the demand for food and undermine agricultural support systems. Therefore, the SADC has to restore its agricultural productivity to the levels that once existed in the region. This could be achieved if the leaders of this region were politically committed.

The long-standing conflicts in some of the SADC countries have exacted a heavy long-tem cost. Angola, the DRC, Namibia and South Africa, to mention a few, have been torn by conflict for several years, which has had an impact on food production. Lesotho and Botswana are suffering from substantial ecological degradation. In addition to the economic and social effects of ecological deterioration, the SADC governments must contend with political fall-out as well. Food riots are politically destabilising and are usually a response to food shortages and price increases.

In addition, soil is constantly being lost due to natural processes, which poses the risk of soil erosion because of the loss of natural vegetation. This lowers inherent fertility because soils in such areas suffer from nutrient depletion. The food output estimates presented in Table 3.23 suggest a much slower growth in food production in the SADC, with food output being slower than population growth. During the 1980s, food output increased more rapidly than in the decades that followed. Namibia and Seychelles had rates of growth that exceeded the 100 per capita index. Botswana and the DRC, in contrast, demonstrated a very small increase during the same period.

Table 3.23: Food production per capita index (average 1989-1991 = 100) Source: Column 1 World development report 1981, column 2 and column 3 The World Bank 2003.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	93	98	143
2.	Botswana	73	100	99
3.	DRC	73	101	119
4.	Lesotho	88	112	101
5.	Malawi	89	97	158
6.	Mauritius	78	101	114
7.	Mozambique	100	106	114
8.	Namibia	109	97	100
9.	Seychelles	131	96	135
10.	South Africa	91	100	109
11.	Swaziland	82	97	90
12.	Tanzania	74	100	106
13.	Zambia	75	94	103
14.	Zimbabwe	76	104	119
MEAN		88	100.2	115

Food production per capita index denotes the average annual quantity of food produced per capita in relation to that produced in the indexed year.

The food output estimates presented in Table 3.23 suggest a decline in food production in the SADC, with food output slower than population growth. During the 1980s, food output increased more rapidly than in the decades that followed. Namibia and the Seychelles had rates of growth that exceeded 100 per capita index. In contrast, Botswana and the DRC demonstrated a very small increase during the same period. Table 3.23 also indicates that countries such as Swaziland and Lesotho experienced a greater decrease in food output in 2000 than in 1990, which suggests that the majority of people in these countries are either undernourished or malnourished or both, and that this is a chronic condition.

The comparison of food production trends in the SADC illustrates the influence of ideology on agricultural productivity. These countries have to restructure agriculture

radically and introduce effective reforms. In fact, the entire SADC region should undergo a profound restructuring. These structural changes would transform the SADC countryside, release energy and motivate the people who work the land, with the result that they would be able to export their surplus to the outside world. The following is an assessment of the export of merchandise from the SADC.

Export of merchandise from the SADC

The SADC is one of the regions in the world with the greatest need for export earnings to finance development projects locally and purchase essential goods, yet it faces many obstacles in this regard. A major reason is the insufficient supply of exportable products, both processed or manufactured items and basic commodities. Another reason is that trade promotion strategies, institutions and services are frequently nonexistent. Another factor is the small number of people trained in trade promotion and internal marketing techniques.

In the SADC, small- and medium-sized firms mostly account for the largest part of domestic business activity, but only a small proportion of such firms are engaged in exporting. While special development programmes have often been set up in the SADC for the small business sector to help increase employment, decentralise industry, stimulate rural development or distribute income, little attention has been given to firms in national trade promotion activities. Considerable export potential therefore remains relatively untapped. "BRIDGES newsletter" (2003:9) warns against this situation: "No country has managed to develop by turning its back to international markets, whether in goods and services, technology, capital or by staying closed to investment flows in the long term." With reference to trade promotion, he argues as follows (2003:8):

> Forging an international trading system favourable to development would imply relying on each country's own institutions, asking at each stage if common and harmonised rules are preferable to national ones and, finally integrating new thinking about liberalisation in national and international strategies aimed at growth and poverty reduction.

The small- and medium-sized enterprises in the SADC frequently face numerous problems in exporting; for instance, they often lack staff skilled in management and marketing, as they tend to be production oriented. Export financing might likewise be difficult to obtain because these firms have little or no experience in overseas marketing. Their limited bargaining power, the result of their small scale of operations, handicaps them in obtaining the raw material they need at reasonable prices, whether from local or foreign sources. Their small size and shortage of marketing skills also pose problems in adapting products to foreign demands, controlling quality for exports, packaging goods for shipment and conducting research to find sales openings. These firms are furthermore also unable to handle complex export paperwork and formalities.

Expectations for SADC export levels could be influenced by a global change in interest towards goods produces in this region. Shifts in the geographic pattern of demand may have either positive or negative implications for the SADC, as "BRIDGES newsletter" (2003:6) points out: will lead to significant new production beyond t

> The concern here, again a real one, is that the opening of markets he
> liberalising country's borders with negative environmental impacts …
> the net result may not be a simple transfer of harm but an overall
> increase in environmental damage at global level.

Therefore, the SADC leadership should diversify its exports to strengthen the domestic economy and provide stability and predictability in export earnings. This region has to adopt policies and measures that could stimulate new export sources. "The Economic newsletter" (2001) states, "Diversification is one of the first rules of any investment strategy. Put too many eggs in a basket, goes the proverb, and you risk loosing a lot if things go wrong." It is essential for the SADC to contribute to developing a more open, credible and durable multilateral trading system. According to Wayne (1999:52), however,

> Given historically unfavourable trends in terms of trade for
> agricultural and other primary produce, any reliance on exports,
> however compelling the logic from a national point of view, carries

great pitfalls for producers … Beyond these there is still tariff barriers against exports of processed or semi-processed raw material into European Union and other wealthy trading blocs. These prevent primary producers from participating in the potential value-added aspects of a final product.

Urgent steps are therefore needed to provide improved market access for products originating from the SADC region. Thus, the SADC has to measure the capacity of its economy to produce something that this region could export, rather than raw materials, and reduce its imports. An assessment of import of merchandise to the SADC is given in the following section.

Table 3.24:Exports of merchandise (millions of US $) Source: Column 1 and column 2 African development report 1993, column 3 The World Bank 2003.

COUNTRY	1980	1090	2000
1. Angola	1883	3884	7802
2. Botswana	503	1779	1521
3. DRC	1632	999	-
4. Lesotho	58	59	197
5. Malawi	195	417	406
6. Mauritius	431	1194	1569
7. Mozambique	281	127	364
8. Namibia	1534	1069	1480
9. Seychelles	21	56	175
10. South Africa	25693	23805	31486
11. Swaziland	369	565	912
12. Tanzania	511	311	663
13. Zambia	1298	1292	746
14. Zimbabwe	281	1785	1791
MEAN	**2485.36**	**2667.29**	**3777.92**

Export of merchandise denotes the value of good services provided to the rest of the world.

Table 3.24 provides empirical evidence on export of merchandise from the SADC. In 1990, merchandise worth 2485.36 million US$ was exported and by 1990 this share had increased byUS$200 million. The 2000 statistics seemingly suggest a higher increase because there was a US$1293 million increase of exported merchandise compared to 1980. Much of this increase was due to an increase in export from Mauritius and South Africa. No major export expansion occurred in Tanzania, Mozambique and Zambia. Here exports were held constant, as reflected in Table 3.24. Another important point reflected in Table 3.24 is that the earnings of export products closed lower than in 1980 in Zambia and Namibia. The following points reflected in Table 3.24 should also be noted: export rates for the DRC, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zambia were negative during 1990, with dramatic declines from 1980 to 1990. Meanwhile, the increase in the export of merchandise for seven of the fourteen SADC member countries increased by more than 60%.

This data demands urgent steps from the SADC to provide improved market access for products originating from this region. The SADC has therefore to alleviate the capacity of its economy to produce what this region can export and reduce its imports. An assessment of import of merchandise is given in the following section.

Import of merchandise to the SADC

Import of merchandise calls for relevant and up to date trade information. Emphasis should be on import management information because, to organise importing effectively, import managers need information about market development, economic trends, technological advances in products and other related issues. This suggests **a need for the SADC leadership to embark on extensive trade promotion training.** Trade promotion officials ought to have the necessary background to provide efficient services. The skills needed for import range from determining buying requirements to storing the purchased goods.

At the stage of determining import needs, the SADC leaders should give sufficient attention to identifying the priority goods to be purchased. At the procurement stage, orders have to be rationalised and only standard products should be bought in

economical quantities, rather than purchasing a wide variety of low-value items. Another problem concerning imports of merchandise in the SADC is the lack of market information. Sometimes suppliers that are selected might not be offering the best prices or the most suitable goods. These and other related factors could increase the SADC's import burden and thereby waste foreign exchange reserves.

Table 3.25: Import of merchandise into the SADC (millions US$) Source: Column 1 and column 2 African development report 1993, column 3 The World Bank 2003.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	1328	1578	3430
2.	Botswana	691	1780	1724
3.	DRC	1519	1304	-
4.	Lesotho	464	687	774
5.	Malawi	439	581	563
6.	Mauritius	609	1618	2034
7.	Mozambique	800	807	1157
8.	Namibia	1094	1222	1621
9.	Seychelles	99	186	361
10.	South Africa	18268	17190	27236
11.	Swaziland	538	663	1015
12.	Tanzania	1252	698	1335
13.	Zambia	1339	1242	978
14.	Zimbabwe	308	1700	1520
MEAN		**2053.43**	**2232.57**	**3127.54**

Imports refer to the value of all goods and other market services purchased from the rest of the world.

The SADC growth in imports has been remarkable. Table 3.25 represents data for fourteen countries in the SADC region and most of the countries are within the upper quartile of 'good' performers in imports of merchandise. Particularly noteworthy is the SADC's high rate of imports of merchandise, which for the 1980 period was US$2035 million, and in 2000 came to US$128 million. This might have been due to import liberalisation, which somehow permits a freer flow of merchandise.

Given the magnitude of imports to the SADC, the region's needs and its limited capacity to generate an investable surplus, the need for domestic growth and long-term economic developments and transformation is self-evident. Eventually, the SADC could reduce its dependence on imports of merchandise. It is therefore essential that all the SADC countries contribute to developing a more open, credible multilateral trading system, which is durable as well. Such an improvement could effectively promote growth and development. Import procurement operations are vital and they are an integral part of international trade.

The SADC stands to gain from saving valuable foreign exchange by prudent sourcing of imports, imports management and planning. Therefore, the development, expansion and transformation of the economic base are critical factors for the sustained and sustainable development of the SADC. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:111),

> When an economy moves from central planning to free markets, the
> most revolutionary changes take place in asset ownership through
> denationalisation, privatisation, property restitution, participation of
> foreign and direct portfolio capital and development of financial
> intermediaries.

The expansion and transformation of the economic base in the SADC would therefore improve transparency, reduce trade distortions, improve dialogue on the supply and demand conditions for the import of merchandise, and reduce external debts. The following is an assessment of the SADC's external debts.

External debt of the SADC

The SADC region's economic difficulties, especially the proliferation of unmanageable debts plaguing countries in this region, demonstrate the effect of ill-conceived policies and misplaced priorities. Part of the increase in the SADC's external debt is attributable directly and indirectly to export earnings. Heavy borrowing combined with rising interests and global recession in the early eighties has pushed the SADC

countries beyond the acceptable threshold. "FINDINGS newsletter" (2002) suggests that the following reasons contributed to such a situation:

> There two broad categories of reasons that might cause inefficiencies in the distribution of public expenditures. The first is corruption, namely leakage of resources to individuals or unintended organisations. The second is the inefficient use of resources such as mismatch between what facilities need and what government distributes.

Traditionally, international banks avoided lending when the service payments on debts exceeded 20% of export earnings. The extent of the SADC's external debts indicates that the SADC member countries are allocating more than their export earnings to pay the interest on their debts.

The external debts of the SADC seem to grow faster than the economy and this is a threat to regional and international security. The rising external debt experienced by the SADC is a result of ecological stress and resource scarcities, among others, that have translated into economic stress with social and political dimensions. The SADC's external debt is therefore a serious concern, not only because of the amount of money involved, but because it affects the political stability of governments and indeed puts the future of democracy in this region at risk. As pointed out by "Development and Cooperation" (2002),

> The overindebtness of many countries is not merely an economic problem. It is an existential problem for many people. Their country's indebtness robs of the freedom to share in advantages globalisation.

The strategy for coping with excessive debt devised by the IMF with the support of international banks has the following main components: first, the markets for African exports were expanded; and second, structural adjustment in African economics was implemented in exchange for debt rescheduling. This strategy has not yet restored sustained growth in the SADC debtor countries. In nearly all of these countries, incomes are lower now than when the crises began in the early 1980s.

Table 3.26: External debts of the SADC (million US$) Source; Column 1 African development report 1993, column 2 and column 3 African development indicators 2002.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	-	8186	10502
2.	Botswana	147	620	738
3.	DRC	4860	1025	11929
4.	Lesotho	71	390	721
5.	Malawi	821	1584	2509
6.	Mauritius	467	946	2342
7.	Mozambique	-	4740	6185
8.	Namibia	-	-	173
9.	Seychelles	84	173	186
10.	South Africa	-	-	28867
11.	Swaziland	206	257	259
12.	Tanzania	5322	6558	7440
13.	Zambia	3244	6968	6311
14.	Zimbabwe	786	3246	4244
MEAN		**1526.90**	**3656.92**	**5886.14**

External debt denotes the sum of public, publicly guaranteed and private, non-guaranteed long-term debt use of IMF credit and short-term debt.

Table 3.26 indicates that this region has accumulated as much debt in 2000 as during the preceding two decades combined. This debt threatens international financial stability in the SADC because its average was US$5886.14 million in 2000. The escalating debts, coupled with an over-valued US dollar, are creating income problems for the SADC. All SADC countries are among the financially troubled nations. The data on the external debt of the SADC provided in Table 3.26 also show that it is possible to identify certain outcome clusters and conflict-ridden clusters together with high external debts, for example in Angola, the DRC and Mozambique. It is only after 1990 that the external debts decreased in Zambia, but countries like Mauritius and South Africa began to outpace those that were heavily indebted earlier.

By 2000, Namibia's external debt was less than that of Lesotho, Swaziland and the Seychelles, while Angola, the DRC and South Africa had become the highest in external debt. Throughout the observed period, Swaziland constantly remains among less indebted countries in the SADC region. Between 1990 and 2000, the external debt grew by more than 4000 dollars compared to its initial level in 1980. Meantime, pressure is growing to reduce debt.

The SADC leadership should therefore place a high premium on the region's ability to master the reduction of its external debt in a planned way, because it affects its future. Another factor that affects the future of this region is the employment rate. What follows is an assessment of the labour force in the SADC.

Labour force in the SADC

> Through out the developing world, levels of productivity (output per worker) are extremely low compared with those in developed countries. This can be explained by a number of basic economic concepts, for example the principle of diminishing marginal productivity cites that if increasing amounts of variable factor (labour) are applied to fixed amounts of other factors (e.g. capital, land, materials), the extra or the marginal product of the variable factor declines beyond a certain number. Low levels of labour productivity can therefore be explained by the absence or severe lack of complementary factor inputs. (Todaro, 1997:54)

In the ongoing financial crises afflicting the SADC, millions of jobless people prevail. Underemployment is becoming widespread. Structural adjustments generally have had an unfavourable impact on employment in the SADC. However, the introduction of adjustment policies was inevitable, but employment opportunities have been reduced in the process. This led to a decline in workers' standard of living and, as Kochendofer-Lucuis and Pleskovic (1999:148) argues,

> … Unemployment breeds antidemocratic, anti-labour, terrorist movements that neither individuals nor society can afford. The

problems of unemployment cannot be solved by free markets alone. We cannot accept economic theories or policies that do not consider unemployment to be deep human tragedy.

This explains why the SADC member countries should be committed to alleviating the widespread unemployment that prevails in the region. **The SADC leaders must focus on the productive sectors of the economy and generate jobs**. Unemployment should be a central preoccupation of the SADC leadership.

In the face of this massive crisis of unemployment and regardless of various efforts to contain the social costs of unemployment, the overall impression is that the response so far has been inadequate. Although different initiatives to minimise the extent of unemployment have been undertaken, these have had little impact on the course of events. Jan Vandermoorrele, (2004), argues as follows:

Many countries have launched social investment funds or social action programmes but few of them have been institutionalised; most remain under political patronage of the president or the First Lady. Although social response nets can lead to rapid responses in situations of crisis and emergency, they are seldom effective … because they are usually under-funded and seldom reach a significant proportion of the poor.

It is against this background that most the SADC countries are introducing different job creation programmes. These are measures to assist displaced workers and are mostly introduced in rural areas. These measures are essential but not sufficient. Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:38) advise "labour-based schemes, public works and unemployment insurance in some combination, depending on the country, are central to providing security against risk for the poor." To reduce the risk of future unemployment crises, the SADC should prioritise the strengthening of employment policies. Table 3.27 indicates labour force participation rates in the SADC.

Table 3.27: Labour force as percentage of total population. Source: Column 1 and column 2 World report 1994, column 3 International labour organisation 2002.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	48.5	46.6	81.3
2.	Botswana	4.6	43.6	52.4
3.	DRC	44.4	42.5	72.9
4.	Lesotho	43.0	40.3	61.7
5.	Malawi	50.3	49.2	82.9
6.	Mauritius	35.5	40.9	59.3
7.	Mozambique	55.3	53.0	87
8.	Namibia	43.3	41.7	32
9.	Seychelles	-	-	-
10.	South Africa	37.5	38.6	49.9
11.	Swaziland	35.7	34.1	59.3
12.	Tanzania	51.2	51.6	85.5
13.	Zambia	41.8	41.9	75.3
14.	Zimbabwe	44.9	46,8	71.1
MEAN		**41.2**	**43.9**	**67.0**

Labour force denotes the economically active population, including the armed forces, but excluding homemakers and other unpaid caregivers.

Table 3.27 indicates that the level of unemployment in the SADC was on average 41.2% in 1980 and 67% in 2000, constituting a rise of 25.8%. Unemployment figures increased even more sharply between 1980 and 1990. In 1990, unemployment figures increased from 48.5% to 46.6%, from 44.4% to 42.5%, from 43.0% to 40.3%, from 50.3% to 49.2%, from 55.3% to 53.0%, from 43.3% to 41.7% and from 35.7% to 34.1% in Angola, the DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia and Swaziland respectively. As for Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia, the employment rate had been rising from 4.6% to 43.6%, from 35.5% to 40.9%, from 37.5% to 38.6%, from 51.2% to 51.6% and from 41.8% to 41.9% during the same period of

1980 to 1990. In 2000, all the SADC member countries experienced a huge increase in the labour force participation rate.

The global debate over "jobless growth" has moved to the SADC, as can be seen from the example of South Africa, which has accelerated its economic growth, but has a decrease in employment. This weak employment response to a strengthening national economy is seen as a result of temporary factors such as restructuring in the context of globalisation and the financial crisis affecting the SADC.

If the SADC is to overcome this financial crisis and the current levels of social distress, an array of technical measures must be introduced to correct various deficiencies in the technical systems of this region. Attention must particularly be given to female labour participation in this region. An analysis of the female labour force in the SADC is given in the following section.

Female labour force in the SADC

Because of their unequal position in labour markets and their concentration in the most precarious forms of average employment, women in the SADC have proved especially vulnerable to the crisis in the region. The inferior employment status of women often means that they are less likely to be entitled to unemployment benefits where these exist and to severance pay. As is pointed out by "AWID newsletter" (2003),

> One of the biggest problems with many economic policies is their failure to account for women's unpaid work … together unpaid housework, voluntary and community work is a single largest sector of all nations' economies. If women did not contribute their unpaid labour, the monetised economy could not function.

Women in this region are also affected by structural adjustments, and they are more vulnerable to lay-offs because they are concentrated in the most precarious forms of wage-employment. The pressure on women to earn intensifies but, because of time and mobility constraints, they are forced to make themselves available at the cheapest rates.

The sexual division of labour means that women in the SADC are frequently considered secondary earners in families, but in reality the work of women in this region

is what enables their families to survive. Mazimaka (2004:8) urges that "the issue of women empowerment has to be given top priority … These measures are all meant in good faith, well believing and recognising that women are special and bring special qualities to the enhancement of totality of development." **SADC leaders should therefore include a gender perspective in all planning and budgetary work to promote women's participation in the economic mainstream in the SADC**. Women should also draw up their own charter for effective equality. They should come together in a coalition or form organisations to engage in a campaign that would enable them to draw on their experiences and define what changes are required within the social and economic systems in the region. In this way, they would be claiming involvement and full participation at all levels and in all aspects of the formal and informal economy. Table 3.28 illustrates the female labour force participation rate in the SADC.

Table 3.28: Female labour force participation rate (percentage of all ages in labour force). Source: Column 1 and column 2 World report 1994, column 3 International labour organisation 2002.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	11.1	12.1	72.9
2.	Botswana	41.8	39.6	64.5
3.	DRC	38.8	36.7	60.9
4.	Lesotho	31.1	28.9	47.3
5.	Malawi	49.3	47.8	78.2
6.	Mauritius	18.0	24.7	37.0
7.	Mozambique	53.3	50.6	82.9
8.	Namibia	34.3	33.5	54.9
9.	Seychelles	-	-	-
10.	South Africa	26.9	28.3	46.3
11.	Swaziland	23.7	24.1	42.0
12.	Tanzania	50.2	50.6	81.9
13.	Zambia	37.1	37.2	65.3
14.	Zimbabwe	39.5	40.6	66.6
MEAN		**33.3**	**32.7**	**61.5**

Table 3.28 illustrates consistent trends in the female labour force for both 1980 and 1990, with a marginal gap between these periods. The extent of transformation is indicated by the fact that Angola, which was at the bottom of distribution in 1980, had a participation rate that was more than the mean of the region in 2000, and that there were only four SADC countries with participation rates of less then 50% by 2000. The countries with exceptionally high levels of female labour in 2000 were Tanzania, Mozambique, Malawi and Angola. The only other noticeable consistency is the relative lack of female employment in countries where adult literacy levels are low.

The data in Table 3.28 suggest that training programmes are needed in the SADC to help women develop their technical competencies. Education could enable them to be better informed and thus better able to infiltrate political and economical structures.

It is ironic that the role afforded women in the SADC today is in conflict with the biblical model of women when most SADC countries are predominantly Christian. The Bible teaches of the necessity of elevating the role of women in the economic sphere. Proverbs 31:13, 14, 22 describe a virtuous woman as a diligent, skilled (thus trained and educated) crafts person. Verses 16, 23 describe her as a landowner and successful businesswoman. Verse 26 indicates that her wisdom and opinion are sought and respected.

The SADC governments should demonstrate their commitment to gender equality by removing legal impediments to and opposing social and cultural prejudices against women's participation in the labour force. This would contribute to the reduction of poverty in this region. The following section discusses the prevalence of rural people living in absolute poverty in the SADC.

Rural people living in absolute poverty in the SADC

Munetsi (2004:1) indicates that president Mkapa of Tanzania once said,

> Today we fight a different war … we need all the people in Southern
> Africa to feel deeply for this struggle, to be attached to it to realise that
> it is the only hope for our children in a globalising world.

The appropriate definition of poverty is highly contested because absolute poverty has a relative dimension. In this study, absolute poverty is defined as the income level below which a minimum, nutritionally adequate diet and essential non-food requirements are not affordable. Poverty however entails far more than a lack of income to cover subsistence needs, as is argued in the "Millennium Goals: Water and Sanitation" document (2004): "Reducing income poverty is not just dependent on a better investment climate and more vibrant markets; it also depends on the availability of a healthy and well-conducted citizenry, and open information flows." Impoverished people also suffer from marginalisation and social exclusion because they are deprived of equitable access to markets and institutions. Sherperd (1998:5), for example, points out that "much of the life of the rural poor is not touched by structural adjustments as it lies outside the officially recognised and measured economy." Impoverished people are malnourished, have inadequate shelter, have little or no access to basic social services and they are poorly educated. Poverty also enforces a lack of political influence among those whom it affects.

According to Todaro (1997:48), "The magnitude and extent of poverty in any country depend on two factors: the average level of national income and the degree of inequality in its distribution." The two major contributors to poverty in the SADC are the macro-economic stabilisation and structural adjustments imposed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. The IMF's economic stabilisation package is in theory intended to assist countries in restructuring their economies, with a view to generating a surplus on their balance of trade to repay their debt and initiate a process of economic recovery. Exactly the opposite occurs, however. Trade liberalisation tends to exacerbate the balance of payment crisis because domestic production is replaced by imports. The new policy-based loans granted to pay back old debt contribute to increasing the debt stock. "Economic Research newsletter" (2002:4) confirms that, "How quickly growth reduces poverty depends both on the initial income distribution and how it evolves over time. In societies with more unequal distribution the same growth rate makes far less of a dent in poverty." Poverty is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon, which results from deeply embedded structural imbalances in all realms of

human existence. Table 3.29 represents the percentage of rural people living in absolute poverty in the SADC.

Table 3.29: Rural people living in absolute poverty as percentage of total population in the SADC. Source: Column 1 World development report 1990, column 2 and column 3 World development report 2000-2001.

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	-	65	-
2. Botswana	55	55	-
3. DRC	80	90	-
4. Lesotho	55	55	49.2
5. Malawi	85	90	54.0
6. Mauritius	12	12	10.6
7. Mozambique	-	65	-
8. Namibia	-	-	-
9. Seychelles	-	20	-
10. South Africa	-	-	-
11. Swaziland	50	50	40
12. Tanzania	-	60	41.6
13. Zambia	-	80	86
14. Zimbabwe	-	60	25.5
MEAN	**56.2**	**58.5**	**43.8**

Rural people living in absolute poverty denotes the income level below which a minimum, nutritionally adequate diet and essential non-food requirements are not affordable to people.

Table 3.29 indicates that the number of people living in absolute poverty in most of the SADC countries has been increasing since 1980. According to figures in Table 3.29, the average percentage of people living in absolute poverty in 1980 was 56.2%, 58.5% in 1990 and 43.8% in 2000.

Faced with the threat portrayed in Table 3.29, the SADC should build its own regional capacity by developing economic and social policies and programmes that

benefit people living in poverty. The Leadership Regional Network for Southern Africa (2001:9) states:

> We have to press for an aggressive adoption of wealth creating market economies, which at the same time being equally aggressive about crafting compatible processes of social security that are based on the ability to create wealth rather than living beyond our means.

Leaders of the SADC should increase food security, generate opportunities for employment and sustainable livelihoods, empower people through access to assets and productive resources, and enable people to participate in the political forces that shape their lives. The SADC should therefore make poverty alleviation its priority, gearing all its activities towards this end. Its activities should be formulated and implemented to ensure action at national and regional level. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:7),

> The key to poverty reduction is good governance. And the key to good governance is accountability. The poor must be empowered to voice their needs. Participatory approaches can be used to enable the poor to express their priorities and exercise selectivity.

These plans have to entail strategies and affordable time-bound goals and targets within each national context. Poverty alleviation requires concerted action by many groups at all levels of society. There is thus a need to create broad public awareness of the factors that perpetuate poverty, as well as of proven remedies to alleviate it. The groups that could be involved are national and local government officers, the media, NGOs and community organisations, academia, the business community and the diplomatic corps. "SADC Today" (2004: 1) asserts, "The overriding target is to attain annual economic rates of at least seven percent, necessary to half the proportion of people living in poverty by 2015." This could be possible in the SADC if this region could invest more in tourism, which would in turn assist the SADC in achieving its economic goals. An analysis of tourism in the SADC follows.

Tourism in the SADC

The spectacular scenery and diverse regions of the SADC – from rugged mountain ranges and vast dry plains to sun-kissed beaches and gushing waterfalls – provide numerous tourist attractions. However, the financial benefits of tourism as indicated in Table 3.30 do not correlate with its potential. The reason might be that this region has not yet advanced enough in global communication and information to market tourism through the Internet, which could inform potential visitors about places of interest in this region.

All tourism is measured and described by statistics on volume and impact. Tourists worldwide are increasingly demanding high-quality recreational opportunities and services that support them. More than any other factor, threats to personal security and safety adversely affect tourism demand in the SADC. The fear of terrorism, wars and rebellions can cause domestic and international travel to fall, with consequently fewer tourists.

Tourism can increase jobs and income in the SADC region and is regarded as a source of foreign exchange. Protected areas in particular tend to attract international tourists, but "Peace Parks newspaper" (1998:1) states: "Southern Africa tourism however contributes less than 4% to regional Gross Domestic Product (GDP) while the global average is nearly 10% … Tourism is under-exploited in Southern Africa." It is therefore important that the SADC protects its natural and cultural heritage if it wants to increase jobs and income through tourism. The growth of interest in eco-tourism reflects a rising tide of social concern about the quality of the natural environment and the effects on tourism. These initiatives have large initial costs, but may well generate significant revenues over the long term. Tourism to protected areas may be a key factor in supporting the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage. "World Conservation" (2003:12) argues as follows:

> Protected areas have yet to register as important instruments in
> securing poverty reduction … We see protected areas as providers of
> benefits beyond boundaries – beyond their boundaries on the map,

beyond the boundaries of nation states, across societies, genders and generations.

It is imperative therefore that tourism development in the SADC region should be designed to protect what is good about this region, and tackle those aspects that need improvement. Tourism has the potential to create jobs and raise income, and it could be used to support local communities' need for improved communication. By upgrading roads for tourism access, neighbouring villages will have better access to the outside world. "Peace Parks newspaper" (1998:1) indicates that "a new strategic initiative is need -led by government with an active participation of a private sector to create a world-class tourist industry. But grafting a new identity onto eco-tourism is vital."

Table 3.30: International tourism receipts in the SADC (million American dollars) Source: Column 1 and column 2 African development report 2000, column 3 African development report 2001

	COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	-	13	18
2.	Botswana	22	117	313
3.	DRC	22	7	-
4.	Lesotho	12	17	24
5.	Malawi	9	16	27
6.	Mauritius	45	244	542
7.	Mozambique	-	-	-
8.	Namibia	-	85	-
9.	Seychelles	-	126	115
10.	South Africa	652	992	2,707
11.	Swaziland	-	-	34
12.	Tanzania	20	65	739
13.	Zambia	20	41	-
14.	Zimbabwe	38	60	125
MEAN		**93.33**	**148.60**	**464.4**

Table 3.30 shows that the natural and cultural heritages of the SADC region and the travel revolution bring major financial benefits to this region. The SADC has seen world international tourist trade grow by an amount of US$55.27 million per decade, from US$93.33 million in 1980 to US$148.60 million in 1990. The 1990s saw a flattening out of tourist trade growth in Botswana, Mauritius and South Africa. However, tourism came back strongly in 2000 for these countries. Tanzania experienced a boom in the tourism industry by 2000. In 1980, regional international financial benefits in these countries stood above US$20 millions, in spite of various political conflicts in the region at that time. The DRC was amongst the regional top ten tourist destinations in 1980, but had been losing market share by 1990.

Erlet and Gwen (1995) indicate that the potential for sustainability in tourism lies within the principles of sustainable development. Hence, any tourism policy should reflect concern for the environment as an economic resource base for future generations. It is evident, therefore, that making tourism work requires a development partnership between the private and commercial sectors, non-profit organisations, the public sector and host communities, because tourism and the environment are interdependent and mutually reinforcing. "World Conservation" (2003:18) does however point out that "There is an overwhelming lack of capacity, policies, incentives and mechanism to bring about an equitable distribution of costs and benefits necessary to ensure that the protected areas are effectively managed and conserved." Consequently, the **SADC leaders must develop principles for balanced and sustainable tourism.**

The policy acceptance of these principles would be the first step, and the next step would be the demonstration of commitment through action rather than words by drawing up a development strategy in conjunction with different stakeholders in tourism and the implementation of the programme. At the regional level, the significance of tourism as a mechanism for economic development resides in its potential as an investment opportunity, which this region cannot afford to ignore. However, the tourism industry does not control all the factors that make up the attractiveness of a destination or its impact of tourism on host populations. Tourism development options should therefore be considered at the highest level of the SADC organisation and an appropriate

administrative framework, which operates within the political environment, put in place to ensure sustainable development. An assessment of the SADC political environment follows.

3.4.5 The SADC political environment

The SADC's current political culture is in part a colonial legacy, a consequence of the war of independence and African cultural traditions. The consolidation of authority and the institutionalisation of political structure characterised post-independence years as the SADC countries struggled to overcome the instability of the revolutionary period. The SADC countries had to fill the administrative and economic vacuum that resulted from the departure of most Europeans who lived in these countries.

The ideal political environment for the SADC is one that upholds the political values of consultation and consensus, and hence also inclusion. In all decision-making, the consensus method of arriving at decisions should as far as feasible be promoted and given preference over a simple majority system of reaching a decision. As the SADC enjoys a high level of political and cultural interaction and cohesion, the interests of minority groups may be totally ignored or not adequately protected. This could cause deterioration of regional capacity because this region might be incapable of providing public goods, such as health, education, environmental protection and public safety. Declining overall governance performance would suggest that the economic growth of the SADC is of a low quality. This political environment could encourage the SADC leadership to subvert public interests with impunity, eviscerating regional capacity. This could pose major challenges to the SADC leadership, because the gap between the aspirations of the privileged and the bypassed sections of society would increase, cynics in all sections would be a concern and the legitimacy of the SADC region and the mechanisms of governance would be questioned. The first political dimension to be analysed is the state of democracy in the SADC.

State of democracy in the SADC

Morlino's (1998) minimal definition of democracy suggests that, among other elements, a regime should have at least recurring, free, competitive and fair elections and

more than one political party. In this study, the analysis of the state of democracy in the SADC is concerned with the degree to which the SADC countries meet the two main objectives of an ideal democracy, which are freedom and equality. Morlino (1998) indicates that a quality democracy is a good democracy because it is a broadly legitimated regime that completely satisfies citizens. It is a regime in which the citizens, associations and communities of which it is composed enjoy at least a moderate level of liberty and equality. In a democracy, citizens themselves have power to check and evaluate whether or not the government pursues the objectives of liberty and equality according to the rule of law. From these definitions, it is evident that freedom and equality are central to good democracy.

Table 3.31 indicates the state of democracy in the SADC up to the year 2000 because this is the year that the SADC took an initiative of restructuring its operations and its institutions.

Table 3.31 State of democracy in the SADC. Source: Marshall and Jaggers (2003)

COUNTRY	STATE OF DEMOCRACY
1. Angola	Both the struggle for independence and efforts by international and regional powers to control the political arena in Angola led to factional politics. Three political organisations, the People's Movement for Liberation of Angola (MPLA), the Liberation Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA) and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), were involved in Angola's 14-year-war for independence from Portugal. Angola gained independence in 1975, but was in civil war afterwards because each of the political groups sought to consolidate their political power. Cuba helped the MPLA to gain control of most of the country, and they established a People's Republic of Angola. The MPLA government was internationally recognised except by South Africa, which backed the UNITA rebels. As the apartheid regime in South Africa was abolished in early 1990s, the conflict in Angola began to wane. The Lusaka Protocol, signed in 1994, attempted to bring peace through United Nations monitored reconciliation, but compliance with the protocol was weak. However, in 1997 the Government of National Unity and Reconciliation (GNUR) was established. UNITA did not comply with the demilitarisation and territorial incorporation. In 1998, UNITA once again engaged in full-scale civil war. N.B. In 2002, the leader of UNITA, Jonas Savimbi, was killed and a ceasefire was subsequently agreed to. However, conflict led by separatists in Angola's oil rich Cabinde region persists. The government has also resorted to systematic suppression of human rights.
2. Botswana	Botswana is a flourishing multiparty constitutional democracy. The dominant force in this country is the Botswana Democratic Party (BDP), which has won every national election since 1966. Despite the political hegemony of the BDP, every election has been fairly contested by the opposition, the Botswana National Front (BNF) and two other smaller parties. Freedom of speech and assembly are constitutionally protected, and the civil rights of the citizens are generally respected. However, in recent years, ethnic tensions have begun to increase. Some smaller ethnic groups who are not part of the eight 'principal tribes' of the majority Tswana nation have argued that they continue to suffer economic discrimination and remain marginalised from the political process. N.B. In December 2001, the government released a policy report that recommended including these groups within the House of Chiefs.
3. DRC	The kingdom of Congo became a republic in 1960 after gaining independence from Belgium. The country was a very unstable state and regional tribal leaders had more power than the central government. A military coup broke out in the year of independence and, in the same year, Congo's richest province, Kasai Province, also announced its independence. Prime Minister Lumumba turned to the USSR for assistance and United Nations forces were ordered to block any shipments of arms into the country. In December of the same year, 1960, Prime Minister Lumumba was assassinated. Those loyal to Lumumba set-up a rival government. Unrest plagued the government until 1965 when Lieutenant General Mobutu seized control of the country and declared himself the president. He renamed the country the Republic of Zaire. Relative peace and stability prevailed until 1977. In 1978, Katangan rebels based in Angola launched a series of invasions into the Katangan region of Zaire. Domestic protests and international criticism weakened President Mobutu and, in 1990, he agreed to a limited multi-party system with elections and a constitution. In 1992, a Sovereign National Conference

was held with representatives from various political parties. The conference gave itself a legislative mandate and elected Archbishop Monsengwo as its chairman. Mobutu created a rival government with its own prime minister. This let to the collapse of state functionality and Mobutu left the country.

Laurent Kabila assumed power in 1996 when the state authority collapsed. He gained control over most of eastern Zaire. After a seven-month military campaign, his forces entered the capital, Kinshasa, and assumed power. The rest of the country descended into a civil war. Since then, many African states, such as Angola, Namibia, Uganda, Zimbabwe and many others, involved themselves in the conflict of the DRC. The Lusaka Accords of 1999 failed to bring an end to the conflict.

N.B. Laurent Kabila was assassinated in 2001 and his son, Joseph Kabila, was designated the new president of the DRC. Joseph Kabila has rekindled interest in the Lusaka Accords and has lifted the ban on party political activity that had been in place since 1996. However, political activities by the opposition parties and by students and journalists are curtailed. Inter-Congolese dialogue was convened in South Africa in 2002 with all major groups in attendance. A national power-sharing government was inaugurated in 2003, but the Mai-Mai (the active local militia) has been isolated from any post conflict settlement. A negotiated timetable for a national election was established in 2003, but by 2005 it had not taken place. Regional authorities that maintain greater allegiance to their own movements than to the new central government jeopardised administrative reunification of the national territory.

4. Lesotho	Democracy continues to rule in Lesotho despite the fact that this country has a long history of political instability and authoritarian rule. Lesotho gained independence from Britain in 1966 and immediately fell prey to the authoritarian rule of the Basotho National Party (BNP). Under the pressure of apartheid South Africa to limit the activities of the African National Congress (ANC) from Lesotho borders, the BNP government was ousted in a coup led by a military general in 1986. All the state executive and legislative powers were given to the king of Lesotho. Under this system, the king acted as an advisor to the military general. In 1990, a power struggle emerged between the military general and the king. The king demanded an immediate end to military rule and the military council stripped him of his executive and legislative powers, and replaced him with his son.

There was a subsequent struggle within the military council and one military colonel ousted the military general in 1991. He ushered in a period of political liberalisation that culminated in a multi-party parliament in 1993, where the Basotho National Congress won all the seats in the national assembly. In 1997, the prime minister broke away from his party (BCP) and established a new party, the Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD), and took with him the majority of the BCP parliamentarians. The BCP then became the majority opposition in the national assembly, but the BCP refused to occupy its minority status and refused to attend assembly sessions. The BCP organised wide-spread opposition to the LCD rule. In spite of this opposition, the LCD won the 1998 elections with all but one seat in the national assembly. Political violence resulted from these elections, but this conflict was effectively controlled by troops from Botswana and South Africa. |

5. Malawi	In 1963, Malawi gained independence from Britain. By 1967, Malawi was a one-party republic under the Malawi Congress Party (MCP). Under the intense pressure to reform the political system in Malawi, a referendum was held in 1992 that resulted in multi-party politics. Political competition in Malawi tends to revolve around a small contingent of loosely organised patronage-based political parties. Three regional-based political parties dominate political activity in the post one-party state system. They are the ruling United Democratic Front (UDF) (southern), the opposition Malawi Congress Party (MCP) (central) and the National Alliance for Democracy (NAD) (northern). These parties are weakly institutionalised and are rife with in-fighting and factional leadership struggles. The competition between these parties has become increasingly divisive and violent in recent years, but violence is strictly political in nature because ethnicity is relatively weak in Malawi. In addition, rising levels of political violence in Malawi, vote buying, media repression and electoral irregularities continue to undermine the consolidation of democracy in this country. Civil rights are generally respected in Malawi, but the rule of law has been seriously damaged by the efforts of the president to retain his hold on power. N.B. In 2001, the leader of the National Democratic Alliance was repeatedly arrested on charges stemming from his alleged involvement in the failed coup of March 2001.
6. Mauritius	Mauritius gained its independence from Britain in 1968. At the time of independence, the prospects for stability seemed bleak in this country because of ethnic pluralism and economic stagnation. However, over the past thirty years, Mauritius has gained a reputation as one of one of the most stable and democratic countries in Africa. Moreover, its impressive economic growth has made it a model for African development. The key to both its economic and political success has been the ability of the country's ethnically diverse populations to balance their communal interests in a multi-cultural setting. National identity is weak in Mauritius, and political parties tend to coalesce around ethnic identities and strong political families. Despite the dearth of nationalism and multi-ethnic parties in the country, the political system has historically forged governing alliances mitigating ethnic, religious and ideological cleavages. The contributing factors to this, are common language (Kreol), the lack of standing army and the existence of vibrant and healthy civil society that cuts across cleavages. Again there is no untouchable caste in Mauritius, but Hindu society dominates the highest levels of the government.
7. Mozambique	Portugal granted Mozambique its independence in 1975 after a military struggle with the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO). Until 1992, FRELIMO was the only legally recognised party in Mozambique. After a long-running civil war with the South Africa-backed Mozambique Resistance Movement (RENAMO), the president of Mozambique accelerated reforms aimed at transforming Mozambique into a multi-party democracy. As a result, twenty parties have been formed in this country, but the multi-party democracy policy-making and implementation is still dominated by the FRELIMO central leadership and president. Political tensions between FRELIMO and RENAMO remain high, despite the fact that they have agreed to corporate. RENAMO accused the FRELIMO dominated government of electoral malpractice and use of state funds for political purposes. Tensions between these two parties escalated in the aftermath of the 1999 elections. Violent antigovernment demonstrations and the boycott by RENAMO parliamentarians resulted in the heightened tensions in 2000. RENAMO threatened to form a government of

	its own in the six northern and central provinces where its political support is strongest. Despite the contentious political atmosphere in Mozambique, the FRELIMO government continues to seek compromise with opposition parties. RENAMO parliamentarians ended their boycott of the national assembly in 2000.
8. Namibia	Namibia gained its independence in 1990. Since then, Namibia has operated as a single-party democracy. The South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) has dominated both the executive and the legislative branches continuously. Opposition parties pose no real electoral threat to the dominant party (SWAPO), which was originally called the Ovamboland People's Congress Party, because it relies on support from the Ovambo, the country's largest ethnic group. SWAPO also relies on support from its legacy as the leader of the nation's long struggle for independence from white-ruled South Africa.
	The Congress of the Democrats is the second largest party in Namibia. This party was formed in 1999 by one of the former SWAPO leaders in protest against the president's paternalistic style of governance. The Congress for Democrats is the first significant party whose organisation crosses ethnic and racial divisions. The Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA) is a white-led multi-racial alliance.
9. Seychelles	In 1975, the Seychelles Democratic Party (SDP) and the Seychelles People's United Party (SPUP) formed a coalition to lead the Seychelles to independence. Although the coalition appeared to operate smoothly, political divisions between the two parties continued. In 1977, during the absence of the president (SDP) who was attending a Commonwealth meeting in London, the supporters of the prime minister (SPUP) overthrew the absent president in a smoothly executed coup, and installed the prime minister as a president.
	The new president suspended the constitution and dismissed the parliament. The country was ruled by decree until 1979 when a new constitution was adopted. In 1981, a group of mercenaries attempted to overthrow the new government, but failed. The government was threatened again by army mutiny in 1982, but it was quelled when loyal troops reinforced by Tanzanian forces recaptured rebel-held installations. The return to multi-party system of governance was announced in 1991. A national reconciliation and consensus was called on new democratic contention and a consensus text was agreed upon in 1993.
10. South Africa	The first European settlers arrived in South Africa in 1652. The Dutch Afrikaners expanded their conquest of land in this region throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. Centralisation of political authority was not established until the 19th century, when Britain colonised South Africa. The Union of South Africa was established in 1910 and, in 1931, South Africa gained its independence from Britain. Under the guiding influence of Afrikaner-based National Party (NP), a policy of apartheid was established in 1948. In resistance to this policy of apartheid, the African National Congress (ANC) began an active campaign of national armed response to white-rule during the 1960s and 1970s. Under increasing international and domestic pressure, the National Party ushered in a slow process of political reform that culminated with the country's first multi-racial national election held in 1994. The post-apartheid era has been remarkably stable. Two core parties, the white-based NP and the black-based ANC, initially guided South Africa's transition from authoritarian to a pluralistic democracy. The ANC has been in power since 1994 and continues to hold wide-spread support among the majority black population. Problems of scandals, crime, inequity and corruption have began to tarnish the political gleam of the ANC, but the government is addressing these problems.
	Numerous political parties operate in South Africa, and racial and regional languages define most of them. The slow pace of land redistribution in the post-apartheid era has

	increased racial tensions. The ANC's adoption of pro-market reforms has weakened its alliance with the Congress of South African Trade Union (COSATU) and the South African Communist Party (SACP).
	Freedom of speech and assembly are protected and civil rights of citizens are openly respected.
	N.B. In 2001, large street protests led by COSATU and the SACP were held in South Africa to challenge the ANC's policy of privatising state-owned assets.
11. Swaziland	Swaziland acquired independence from Britain in 1968. The royal decree of 1973 banned political parties and significantly curtailed political freedom of assembly and procession. The only political party permitted to function is the Imbokodvo National Movement (INM), formed in 1964 by the Swazi king. This is a traditional movement, which also promotes policies of development. Several opposition parties emerged in 1990 when it appeared that constitutional revision would be enacted to permit formal legislation of parties. This opposition has made increasing calls to constitutional democracy, but its organised activities continue to be suppressed as a 'threat to state security'.
12. Tanzania	Tanzania gained its independence in 1961 from Britain. A strong ruling party and a smattering of small parties dominate Tanzania. The Chama Cha Mapinduzi party (CCM) has been dominating Tanzania since its independence. In 1992, Tanzania amended its constitution and became a multi-party state. Despite this, the CCM's access to and distribution of wealth have ensured the perpetuation of its rule in the new democratic order.
	Significant progress has been made in undoing the CCM's self-help (Ujamaa) form of socialism that was established in 1967. There is factional dimension of politics in Tanzania, which has more to do with patronage than with ethnic or ideological divisions. The factional division has been traditionally contained within the CCM, but of late the party is weakened by defections. The factions that have defected from the CCM are now controlling the opposition in Tanzania. On the island of Zanzibar, the CCM is pursuing a systematic policy of intimidating political opponents through fraud and violence.
13. Zambia	The independent state of Zambia was created in 1963. The first president of Zambia was from the United National Independence Party (UNIP). This president declared Zambia a one-party state in 1972 and ruled continuously for the next two decades.
	Factional struggles provide a strong undercurrent to Zambia's politics. Thirty political parties freely operate in Zambia, but in the 1990s, after the UNIP lost the presidency to the Movement for Multi-Party Democratic party (MMD), the government of the day used its control of political institutions of governance, including the media, to undermine the other parties to effectively challenge the hegemony of MMD. The president even made an effort to re-write the constitution to allow him a third-term, but was unsuccessful. His vice-president resigned in 1994, citing extreme corruption in the government. The fundamental division in 1990s was between the MMD and the UNIP. The factionalism has been associated with the failed coup attempt and numerous assassination attempts. The factional division in Zambian politics is also within the parties themselves. The MMD is divided along ethnic lines:

	Bemba vs. non-Bemba. Power struggle within the UNIP has become more intense as political contenders seek to fill the power vacuum by the departure of the first president of the country.

N.B. The vice president, who had resigned in 1994, was handpicked as the MMD candidate for the 2001 national election. |
| 14.
Zimbabwe | After protracted guerrilla struggle against the racist Rhodesian government during the 1960s and 1970s, the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) came to power in Zimbabwe in 1980. The post of the prime minister was abolished in 1987 and the office of the executive president was initiated. The 1979 constitution of Zimbabwe allowed for the formation of a multi-party system, but the opposition parties in this country have been small and poorly organised.

The president of Zimbabwe has used the built-in advantages of incumbency to weaken his political opponents and ensure his electoral success. His success has been due to his ability to control the distribution of public funds to opposition parties and his capacity to limit their access to the state-controlled media. Additionally, the president has relied heavily on the security apparatus of the state to intimidate his political opponents. For example, in 2000, the supreme court of Zimbabwe attempted to show its independence from the executive branch by ruling that the president's land reform programme was illegal. The president side-stepped this court ruling by ordering the police not to enforce it. Moreover the president of Zimbabwe has used his continual power to stock the supreme court with allies to avoid future acts of institutional insubordination within his administration.

Under increasing international and domestic pressure to liberalise the political system, the president amended the election laws in 1997. This amendment was to allow for increased public funding for opposition parties and candidates. Taking advantage of this amendment, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) was established in 1999 and provided a strong challenge to ZANU. Stunned by the potential success of the MDC, the president of Zimbabwe has embarked on a dangerous strategy of racial nationalism and, as a result, levels of government repression has increased.

N.B. In an effort to bring the escalating conflict to an end, the Abuja Agreement was signed in 2001. However, the president of Zimbabwe has refused to implement this agreement. |

Morlino (1998) has indicated specific patterns evident in a quality democracy. For this study, ten types of quality democracy patterns are used to analyse the state of democracy in the SADC:

- When there are guarantees on freedom and the implementation of equality, an **effective** democracy might result;

- A **responsible** democracy can result if the regime is characterised by levels of freedom and equality, and also exhibits a comprehensive respect for accountability;

- A **fully legitimated** democracy is characterised by the strong support of satisfied civil society that provides firm testimony to that regime's responsiveness;

- **Perfect** democracy is the one in which all dimensions are present; and

- **Free** democracy exhibits a strong affirmation of one of the values of freedom and equality or both.

There are however democracies that are without quality and are devoid of the dimensions discussed above, yet are still categorised as democratic:

- **Inefficient** democracies are distinguished by legal systems that do not conform to democratic values, the presence of widespread corruption and organised crime, limited independence of the judiciary and lengthy waits for the resolution of legal disputes;

- **Irresponsible** democracies are characterised by absence of electoral alternatives and little competition among dominant political forces active in the country;

- **Illegitimate** democracies are characterised by discontentment and often experience multiple challenges to their institutions by organised groups that regularly launch protests, strikes and demonstrations;

- **Imperfect** democracies are those which, though still classified as democracies, are devoid of all dimensions that can improve a democratic regime; and

- **Reduced** democracies are characterised by one of the following: the vote is limited to choosing among lists that are nominated by the oligarchy of the party; information is monopolised by controlled media, predictably resulting in the exaggerated influence on public opinion and restricted alternative sources of information; and reduced social rights.

It is evident that a particular pattern of democracy is determined by responsiveness, accountability, rule of law, freedom and equality. Therefore, these concepts are also employed to determine the patterns of democracy in the SADC:

- **Responsiveness** of the government is its capacity to satisfy the people by executing policies in a way that corresponds to their demands;

- **Accountability** is the obligation of the elected political leaders to answer for their political decisions when asked by electors or constitutional bodies;

- **Rule of law** is not only the enforcement of legal norms, but also connotes the principle of supremacy of law and entails at least the capacity, even if it be limited, to make authorities respect laws and to have laws that are non-retroactive of public knowledge; and

- **Freedom and equality** connote the promotion of political rights (for example, the right of leaders to compete for election support, the right to be elected to public office, the right to vote) and civil rights (for example, personal liberty, freedom of residence, freedom of thought and expression).

Table 3.32 is an analysis of the state of democracy in the SADC according to the above criteria stipulated by Morlino (1998). A plus sign (+) indicates a high presence of the dimension listed at the top of each respective column. The table also demonstrates the various models of democracy in the SADC. A minus sign (-) indicates the lack of the dimension listed at the top of the related column. The researcher has added validation points next to either of the signs.

Table 3.32: Analysis of the state of democracy in the SADC.

Country	Rule of law	Accountability	Responsiveness	Freedom	Equality	Results
1. Angola	(-) Existence of rife corruption in government	(-) MPLA dominating policy formulation and implementation	(-) Lusaka Protocol for peace not adhered to	(-) Suppression of human rights	(-) MPLA dominating the government functions as one-party state	**Imperfect democracy**
2. Botswana	(+) Political stability since independence	(+) Fairly contested national election	(+) Protected and respected civil rights	(+) Freedom of speech and assembly protected constitutionally	(-) Smaller ethnic groups marginalised from political activity	**Effective, responsible and legitimate democracy**
3. DRC	(-) Anarchy and the civil war	(-) Government delaying to move DRC towards national election	(-) Failure of the 1999 Lusaka Accord to bring end to the conflict	(-) Curtailing of political activities	(-) Isolation of the Mai-Mai from any post-conflict settlement	**Imperfect democracy**
4. Lesotho	(-) Long history of political instability	(-) Landslide victory of the ruling party consecutively, hence no viable opposition	(-) Violent street protests due to electoral misconducts	(+) Freedom of speech and assembly	(-) Factionalism	**Free, irresponsible and illegitimate democracy**
5. Malawi	(-) Vote-buying, media repression and coup attempt	(-) In-fighting within political parties	(-) Loosely organised and patronage-based political parties	(+) Respect of civil rights	(+) Relative dearth of ethnicity	**Free, ineffective, irresponsible and reduced democracy**

6. Mauritius	(+) Stable polity since independence	(+) Impressive economic growth and political success	(+) Vibrant and healthy civil society that cuts across cleavages	(+) Balance of communal interests in a multi-cultural setting	(-) Domination of highest levels of government by the Hindu	**Effective, responsible and legitimate democracy**
7. Mozambique	(-) Threats by RENAMO to form its own government in some of the provinces	(-) Use of state funds by FRELIMO for political purposes	(-) Violent anti-government demonstrations in the aftermath of 1999 elections	(-) FRELIMO being considered the only legal party	(-) Policy making and implementation dominated by FRELIMO	**Imperfect democracy**
8. Namibia	(-) Paternalistic style of governance	(-) One-party state since independence and weak opposition	(-) Defection by one of the ruling party leaders	(+) Formation of the new party that cuts across all cleavages	(-) The Ovambo ethnic majority supports the ruling party only	**Free but reduced democracy**
9. Seychelles	(-) Overthrowing of the president and constitution suspension	(-) Dismissal of the parliament	(+) National reconciliation and consensus in 1993	(+) Freedom to form political parties even before the independence	(+) No ethnic cleavages	**Free, responsible but illegitimate democracy**
10. South Africa	(+) Stable post-apartheid era	(+) Government addresses issues of crime and corruption	(-) Slow pace of land redistribution in the post-apartheid era	(+) Numerous political parties operating freely	(+) Abolished racial discrimination	**Effective, free but reduced democracy**
11. Swaziland	(-) Suspension of the constitution	(-) Political monopoly by one organisation, which is appointed by the monarchy	(-) Government not enacting constitutional revision that would allow for formal political participation	(-) Curtailed freedom of assembly and procession and political activity	(-) Political dominance by the royal family	**Imperfect democracy**

12. Tanzania	(-) Neo-patrimonial order of rule	(-) Continuous dominance of rule by one party	(-) Defection by some of the ruling party leaders	(-) Smattering of small parties by the ruling party	(-) Political intimidation of the opposition in the island of Zanzibar	**Imperfect democracy**
13. Zambia	(-) Experience of rive corruption within the government	(-) Hegemony of the MMD party for a long time	(-) Coup and assassination attempts	(+) Thirty political parties operating freely	(-) Political factions along ethnic cleavages	**Free, irresponsible and illegitimate democracy**
14. Zimbabwe	(-) The president undermining supreme court ruling on land reform issue	(-) The president using the built-in advantages of incumbency to suppress the opposition	(-) The president refusing to implement the Abuja Agreement	(-) Intimidation of the opposition by the state security	(-) Improper control of state funds	**Imperfect democracy**

The above analysis of the state of democracy in the SADC indicates that there are growing signs of democratisation at work within the region, although some member countries like Angola and the DRC are struggling out of turmoil to establish or re-establish democratic constitutional governments. Historically, all SADC democracies are emergent. Therefore, **leadership of this region should be able to make choices that would enhance the prospects for successful consolidation and maintenance of their democratic institutions.** What follows is the analysis of the history of national elections in the SADC.

Table 3.33: History of national elections in the SADC. Source: Marshall and Jaggers (2003),

Country	History of national elections
1. Angola	The MPLA, with the help of Cuba, established one-party rule in 1979. It was after 17 years that the multi-party presidential elections were held in Angola in 1992. UNITA was defeated after the first round of elections and the second balloting was postponed because the country was disintegrated into civil war. In 1999, the national assembly voted to postpone new presidential election indefinitely due to renewal of conflict with UNITA forces. N.B. With the 2002 ceasefire between the government and UNITA, the electoral process has been reinvigorated in Angola. The MPLA won the election without opposition in 2003.
2. Botswana	Botswana recruits its executive through competitive multi-party elections. The majority party in the national assembly selects a president for a five-year term. Members of the legislature are popularly elected. Under this electoral system, the BDP has dominated the national assembly since the independence of Botswana. Top leadership positions within the BDP have been designated rather than democratically challenged. Democracy has been applied in the lower ranks of the party only. The 1999 legislative elections were viewed as free and fair despite some constraints on opposition access to the media and allegations of campaign finance allocation by the BDP. The opposition has argued that that the BDP uses political positions to manipulate electoral process to its advantage.
3. DRC	The parliamentary elections of 1960 produced the Marxist Patrice Lumumba as prime minister. In 1970, Mubutu was elected unopposed as president. Before Laurent Kabila seized power, the president was elected by popular vote for a seven-year term. The last elections were held in 1984. The next elections were scheduled for 1997, but they never took place because Kabila ousted president Mobutu. Kabila pledged to hold elections in 1999, but in 1998 he announced that elections would be postponed until all foreign military forces attempting to topple the government had withdrawn from the country. N.B. Presently, the DRC is in a transitional period and voters have approved the constitution, but presidential elections had not been held by 2005.
4. Lesotho	After independence in 1966, the next elections were held in 1970. The BNP was apparently defeated and its leader, who was the prime minister, proclaimed a state of emergency and suspended the powers of the king. The next elections were held in 1993. Most of the independent observers viewed these elections as being free and fair, but the BNP, which was supported by the former military regime, protested the outcomes of the polls. This contributed to the factional struggles within the military unrest by members of the police and an increasing sense of lawlessness by the population in general. In 1994, a loose coalition of forces, involving factions within the military and the supporters of the ex-king, pressured the current king to

	dissolve the BCP-led government, dissolve the parliament and return the throne to the former king. Violent protests by the BCP protestors led to the intervention of troops from South Africa, Zimbabwe and Botswana. The BCP government was reinstated and the king abdicated his throne in favour of his father. Under this political system, the powers of the king were significantly reduced. In the 1998 elections, over 100 citizens were killed in acts of political violence. International observers had declared these elections free and fair, but the opposition claimed that the ruling party had engaged in a widespread fraud in their landslide victory. The 1998 crises were similar to the 1993-94 crises, except that the king did not take an active role in the opposition campaign. Independent Political Authority (IPA) was established, consisting of two members from all political parties in the country. IPA was empowered to make significant reforms of political system by functioning as a parallel government. N.B. In 2002, elections were held under the new political system that gave smaller parties a greater voice in parliament. These elections were again won by landslide by the same ruling party, the LCD. Despite protests of electoral misconducts, the opposition agreed to take up their seats in the parliament.
5. Malawi	The 30 years of decree rule of the MCP came to an end in 1994 with the electoral defeat to UDF. The UDF again came to power in 1999. Both the 1994 and 1999 elections were plagued by organisational problems and the opposition claimed electoral malpractice, but the international observers viewed them as being free and fair. The opposition claimed that there was vote-buying, media repression and electoral irregularities. N.B. In 2002, the UDF orchestrated a campaign to abolish a two-term limit that was written in the constitution in an attempt by the president to participate in the elections that were scheduled for 2004. There was a widespread protests from churches, NGOs and donor countries, and as a result the president announced in 2003 that he would not seek a third term.
6. Mauritius	Since its independence, Mauritius has recruited its chief executive trough competitive multi-party elections. But in 1972, elections were cancelled as the government clamped down on labour unrest. The majority party or the majority coalition in the national assembly selects the prime minister. Members of the legislature are popularly elected. Additionally, the electoral system guarantees up to eight seats in the 70-member parliament for two non-elected candidates from each of the four constitutionally recognised ethnic or religious communities (Hindu, Muslim, Chinese and Creole). During the 2000 elections, the MMM and the MSM formed a coalition bloc to challenge the ruling Labour Party. Part of the agreement was that the MSM would serve a prime minister for three years with MMM as deputy prime minister. The MSM would step down in 2003 and allow the MMM to take over the position of prime minister for the remaining two years of the term.
7. Mozambique	Without holding any elections or referendum, the FRELIMO candidate was appointed president of Mozambique in 1975. In 1986, the FRELIMO central committee designated another candidate after the death of the president. The 1990 election paved the way for the country's first multi-party presidential elections in 1994. International observers claimed that the elections held in 1994, won by the FRELIMO, met the minimum standards for a procedural democracy. FRELIMO again won the 1999 elections that sparked sporadic violence between the FRELIMO supporters and RENAMO supporters. The RENAMO claimed

159

	fraud and electoral irregularities.
8. Namibia	SWAPO has dominated Namibia's politics since its independence. Prior to the 1999 elections, SWAPO took advantage of its three quarters majority in the legislature to amend the constitution so as to permit the president to run for a third presidential term. Subsequently, SWAPO won the landslide victory in Namibia's third elections in 1999. SWAPO gained 77% of the national vote against three contenders. Independent observers agreed that he elections were free, but not totally fair, because the opposition was not granted equal access to the media, and no equal opportunities in campaign financing.

N.B. SWAPO dominance continued even in the 2004 elections. The opposition parties contended that irregularities were observed in both the balloting and counting processes. Three opposition parties announced that they would take the electoral commission to court over the alleged irregularities. |
| 9. Seychelles | By 1963, political parties had developed in the Seychelles. Elections held during that year were contested for the first time on party lines. The following year, two new parties, the Seychelles Democratic Party (SDP) and the Seychelles People's United Party (SPUP), replaced the existing parties.

In the 1970 elections, the SDP won ten seats and the SPUP won five seats in the legislative assembly. Under the constitution, the SPUP became the ruling party. During the 1974 elections, the SDP increased its seats in the legislative assembly by three seats.

In 1975, the British government was asked to appoint an electoral review commission so that the divergent views on electoral systems and composition of the legislative assembly could be reconciled. As a result, ten seats were added to the legislative assembly; five were to be nominated by each party.

In 1993, the first multi-party presidential and legislative elections were held under the new constitution. The SPUP won these elections. In 1998, three parties contended the elections, but the Seychelles People's Progressive Front party (SPPF), formerly known as SPUP, won these elections again.

N.B. Early elections set for 2003 were called in 2001. The SPPF once again won. |
| 10.   South Africa | The first post-apartheid elections were held in 1994 and gave the ANC 62% of the vote. It set the stage for the Government of National Unity (GNU). This is a power-sharing political body that was to rule for five years under an interim constitution. However, in 1996, the NP left the GNU and assumed the role of legal opposition within the legislature. The ANC has won the two successive democratic elections since 1994.

N.B. Nine members of the parliament defected to the ANC in 2003 and the ANC gained the two-thirds majority necessary to change the constitution if it so desires. In preparation for the 2004 elections, the NP formed an alliance with the ANC. |
| 11. Swaziland | Swaziland's government system is a modified traditional monarchy – all government powers are ultimately vested in the monarch. However, the |

	country also has a more regulatory framework and a cabinet appointed by the monarch, with the prime minister as head. Limited electoral representation was introduced in 1993.
12. Tanzania	After the 33 years of one-party rule of the CCM, competitive presidential elections were held in 1995. The CCM with its huge advantages of membership and access to campaign resources did not face any significant challenge from the opposition parties. This hegemony was reaffirmed with the presidential elections of 2000, in which the CCM won by 70% of the popular vote.
	On the island of Zanzibar and Pemba, which is a semi autonomous island, fraud has been actively used by the CCM to undermine the challenge of the Civic United Front (CUF) since the mid 1990s. In 2000, the CUF claimed fraudulent local elections and it organised demonstrations to demand a re-run of these elections.
	N.B. After the negotiation process in 2001, some sense of political stability returned to the island provinces. Under the agreement signed between the CCM and CUF in 2002, the government will pursue a policy of electoral reform in Zanzibar and Pemba that will make the election process more transparent and more peaceful.
13. Zambia	In the first multi-party elections in 1991, the UNIP lost the presidency to the MMD. In the legislative elections held simultaneously with the presidential balloting, the MMD also secured a victory, winning 131 of 150 national seats. Again in the 1996 elections, the MMD defeated the UNIP. The MMD had weakened the UNIP through manipulation of the constitution for political ends. This eroded the democratic character of the executive recruitment in Zambia.
	N.B. The presidential elections of 2001 were characterised by widespread party factions, incidents of vote irregularities and poor management. The MMD's abuse of public resources in campaigning and its control over state-run media gave its candidate an unfair advantage over others. Both the European Union and the Cater Centre indicated that the election results did not reflect the will of the people. But the failure of the deeply divided opposition to promote a coalition candidate provided further electoral success for the MMD candidate.
14. Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe has been governed as a one-party state under the ZANU party for over 20 years. ZANU won a decisive victory in the 1980 elections. The president of Zimbabwe is alleged to have manipulated the electoral process to his advantage through ballot-stuffing and voter intimidation. In the 2000 national assembly elections, ZANU again won, but the MDC got 57 out of 120 seats.
	N.B. The presidential elections in 2002 were also won by ZANU. They were deemed by international observers to be seriously flawed.

"Just Associates publication" (2006) identifies the following three levels of political power:

- **Visible power** includes the visible and definable aspects of political power, such as the formal structures, authorities, institutions and procedures of decision making.

- **Hidden power,** where certain powerful people and institutions maintain their influence by controlling who gets the decision-making table and what gets on the agenda. Those dynamics exclude and devalue the concerns and representation of other less powerful groups.

- **Invisible power** shapes the psychological and ideological boundaries of participation. Signified problems are not only kept from the decision table, but from the minds and consciousness of the different people involved.

The researcher has used these levels of power to analyse the power dimensions inherent in the history of national elections in the SADC, as Table 3.34 illustrates.

Table 3.34: Power dimensions inherent in the history of national elections in the SADC

Country	Dimensions of power	Validation points
1. Angola	Hidden power	The national assembly of Angola voted to postpone the second balloting in 1999 indefinitely. This set the agenda for the Angolan people and perpetuated exclusion because the MPLA won the 2003 election without opposition
2. Botswana	Invisible power	The BDP has dominated the national assembly since 1966. The opposition claimed that they were denied equal access to the state-owned media during the 1999 elections. This led to the control of information and, as a result, there was a feeling of subordination among the opposition.
3. DRC	Hidden power	Leaders have been overthrowing each other on the basis that they are troublemakers or unrepresentative. This led to delegitimisation through unwritten rules and practices. The governing party alone sets the political agenda.
4. Lesotho	Visible power	Biased laws were passed, such as those giving the king all executive and legislative powers in 1986 and then passing laws to strip him of these powers after military rule. This indicates that decision-making was formally closed for people's participation.
5. Malawi	Invisible power	The 1994 and 1999 elections were plagued by organisational malpractice and the opposition claimed vote-buying, media repression and electoral irregularities. But these elections were still viewed as being free and fair by international observers. This deterred active action for change because the UDF continued to rule.
6. Mauritius	Visible power	The law allows that only the four constitutionally recognised ethnic or religious groups are given seats in the national assembly, even if they have not won the elections. Consequently, those not constitutionally recognised are marginalised from active political participation. This is an ideal systematic exclusion.
7. Mozambique	Hidden power	In 1994, the FRELIMO, which has been ruling since 1975, continued to be in power despite the claim by international observers that these elections met minimal standards. Access to decision making was therefore not fair because the FRELIMO agenda continued to dominate.
8. Namibia	Invisible power	The paternalistic approach to governance by the SWAPO presidential candidate makes the public feel that they are too stupid to understand problems that affect them, and hence they play no role in their solution. No other party has ruled Namibia after independence.

9. Seychelles	Visible power	An electoral commission was set up to reconcile the developmental views on the electoral system and the composition of the legislature. This system allows opportunities for new leadership. The system also managed the conflict that prevailed in Seychelles' political activities.
10. South Africa	Invisible power	One of the contributing factors to the consecutive electoral victory of the ANC after the apartheid era is that the black majority population in South Africa is its members. This implies that the paradigm that underlies the ANC's access to power is mainly a race-based patronage.
11. Swaziland	Hidden power	Limited electoral representation in 1993 and the appointment of the cabinet by the monarchy indicate that certain groups in Swaziland are excluded from decision-making because the monarchy sets the political agenda.
12. Tanzania	Visible power	The CCM ruled Tanzania for 33 years without holding any elections. When general elections were held in 1995, this party won because it had access to campaign resources and an advantage in membership recruitment, while the opposition did not.
13. Zambia	Visible power	The MMD weakened the UNIP through the manipulation of the constitution for political ends and, as a result, the MMD continues to rule Zambia.
14. Zimbabwe	Invisible power	The ZANU has ruled Zimbabwe since its independence. The 2000 general elections were deemed seriously flawed. ZANU access to security apparatus underpinned the intimidation of the opposition.

The above analysis of electoral history in the SADC indicates that the number of countries organising free and fair elections is limited in this region. This analysis also demonstrates a need in the SADC to engage in extensive reforms of leadership and governance because governance crises contribute to electoral malpractice. Therefore, leadership reform will reinforce domestic institutions, enabling them to control governments' actions more effectively and enacting laws applicable for all**. The ruling leadership of this region should understand the people's expectations and the opposition leaders should know their rights and duties.**

An analysis of the nature of the current regimes in the SADC follows.

Table 3.35: Nature of current regimes in the SADC. Source: Marshall and Jaggers (2003),

Country	Nature of current regime
1. Angola	The ruling power in Angola is concentrated in the hands of the president and his council of ministers. The president, through the liberal use of executive decrees and resolutions, dominates policy formulation and implementation in this country. Despite the concentration of power in the hands of the president, the large number of opposition parties in the national assembly has slowed down some executive initiative and has increased the transparency of public policy through the vigorous debate in the legislative body. The judiciary in Angola only provides a limited check on executive action. The greatest constraint on executive action comes from within the ruling MPLA. Despite the formation of a government of national unity and reconciliation, the MPLA continues to dominate the political agenda in Angola and the political system continues to act as a one-party state rather than a multi-party democracy. The national assembly has 220 members elected for a four-term period, with 130 seats by proportional representation and 90 seats for members in provincial districts. The president appoints supreme court judges in Angola.
2. Botswana	The type of presidential system found in Botswana places significant constraints on the political autonomy of the chief executive. The president is not directly accountable to the legislative, but is chosen by the national assembly as an ex-officio member to it. A second chamber, the House of Chiefs represents all the country's major tribes and some smaller tribes. This house does not have legislative powers; it is a consultative body, whose primary role is limited to cultural affairs. The judiciary in Botswana is independent from executive influence. The president is chief of the state and head of the government in Botswana. The national assembly elects the president for a five-year term. The judiciary consists of the high court, court of appeal and magistrates' courts in all districts.
3. DRC	The legislative branch in the DRC consists of 300 seats for members of transitional constitutional assembly that was established in 2000. Former president Laurent Kabila appointed the members of the transitional constitutional assembly. Currently, an appointed national assembly and the senate exist. The president appoints the executive and is both chief of state and head of government in the DRC.
4. Lesotho	Under the new democratic political system established in 1993, executive power is vested in a prime minister who is directly accountable to the national assembly. The exercise of executive authority in Lesotho is constrained by the autonomous actions of the military, the royal family and traditional clan structures. The leader of the majority party in the national assembly automatically becomes prime minister. The monarchy is hereditary. Under the terms of the current constitution, the monarch is the 'symbol of national unity' with no executive or legislative powers. He is a constitutional monarch and, under traditional law, the college of chiefs has the power to determine who is next in the line of succession, who shall serve as regent in the event that the successor is not of age, and may even depose the monarch. There are 120 seats in the national assembly, with 80 seats filled through first-past-

	the post electoral system, while the remaining seats are allocated by a system of proportional representation voting. The king is the chief of state and the prime minister is the head of the government. The prime minister in consultation with the king appoints the executive. The senate consists of 33 members – 22 principal chiefs and 11 other members appointed by the ruling party.
5. Malawi	The 1995 constitution provides for a strong president. The president of Malawi dominates policy making, but he is constrained by relatively active, albeit inefficient and under-staffed judiciary. The national assembly has shown limited autonomy from the executive branch since the introduction of multi-party democracy in 1994. The president in Malawi is the chief of the state and head of government, and he appoints the cabinet. The president is elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The president appoints the high court chief justice. N.B. In 2001, the UDF supporters in the national assembly sacked three senior judges of the high court in an effort to weaken the power of the judiciary. The aim was to appoint new judges to the court who would be more sympathetic to changing the constitution to allow the MCP president candidate to run for a third term.
6. Mauritius	The parliamentary structure of government found in Mauritius places significant constraints on the autonomy of the chief executive. The prime minister is directly accountable to the legislative branch. The coalition-based nature of governance in Mauritius further limits the independence of the executive action. The judiciary is independent from executive influence. The national assembly elects the president and the vice-president for five years. The president appoints the prime minister and his deputy, who are accountable to the national assembly. The president, on recommendation of the prime minister, appoints the council of ministers, which is responsible for the control and direction of the government. There are 66 members in the national assembly, elected for a four-year term, and four additional members appointed by the electoral commission from the losing political parties to give representation to various ethnic minorities.
7. Mozambique	The national assembly in Mozambique actively debates government initiative and generates some independent legislative proposals, but it is still subordinate to the executive branch. The judiciary in Mozambique is weak and unable to provide an effective check on the power of the executive branch. The president is chief of state and the prime minister is the head of the government. The national assembly consists of 250 members who are directly elected by popular vote on a secret ballot for a five-year term. The president appoints the judges of the supreme court. The national assembly elects the president.

8. Namibia	Namibia has separation of powers with a strong presidency. The strength of the presidency derives from the charismatic leadership of the only leader Namibia has known in its brief existence. The president is both the chief of the state and the head of the government. Bills passed by legislature require the president's approval to become laws, but the president cannot reject bills passed by a two-thirds majority of the national assembly. The president can dissolve the parliament at any time, but must step down for a new election as well. The president is the chief of state and the prime minister is the head of government. The president appoints the cabinet from among members of the national assembly. The president is elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The national assembly consists of 72 members elected by popular vote to serve for 5 years and there are 26 additional members who are chosen from each regional council to serve for six years. The president on recommendation of the judiciary service commission appoints the judges of the supreme court.
9.Seychelles	The president of the Seychelles is both the chief of state and the head of the government, and is elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The council of ministers serves as a cabinet and is appointed by the president. The national assembly has 34 seats; 25 are elected by popular vote and 9 are allocated on proportional basis to parties winning at least 10% of the vote. Members of the national assembly serve for 5 years. The judiciary branch in the Seychelles includes a court of appeal and supreme court. The president appoints the judges for both courts.
10. South Africa	The type of presidential system in South Africa places significant constraint on the autonomy of the chief executive. The president of South Africa is not directly accountable to the legislative, but is chosen by the national assembly. Under the 1997 constitution, political power is shared between the president and the parliament. The institutional design of the South African government provides for significant horizontal accountability, but the dominance of the ANC in the post-apartheid era has provided the executive branch with significant power to chart the course of the country with little interference from the legislature. The judiciary in South Africa is independent from the executive branch influence. The chief executive in South Africa is recruited through a competitive multi-party system. There are 400 seats in the national assembly. The national council of provinces has 90 seats, 10 members are elected by each of the nine provincial legislatures for five years. The majority party or the majority coalition in the national assembly selects the chief executive. Members of the legislature are popularly elected through a proportional representation system for a five-year term. Half of the members of the national assembly are chosen from nation-wide party lists. The other half is chosen from party lists for each province. The president is both chief of state and head of government.
11. Swaziland	Effective political authority rests with the monarch and the royal family supported by traditional Swazi customs and institutions. The king of Swaziland suspended the constitution in 1973; since then the monarch has combined executive, legislative and limited judiciary powers in his hands. The judiciary is generally independent, but those of the monarch limit its powers. Individuals in high positions close to the monarch occasionally attempt to influence or overturn court decisions. The king is the chief of the state and the prime minister is the head of the government. The cabinet is recommended by the

	prime minister and confirmed by the king. The monarchy is hereditary. The king appoints the president. The national assembly consists of 65 seats, of which 10 are appointed by the king and 55 are elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The senate has 30 seats, of which the house of assembly appoints 10 and the king appoints 20 for a five-year term. Both judges of the high court and court of appeal are appointed by the king.
12. Tanzania	Despite the introduction of multi-party system in Tanzania in 1992, the CCM retains its hegemonic hold over institutions of the governance. The views of the opposition are actively voiced in the national assembly, but these voices have been weak and unorganised. As a result, the opposition has been unable to effectively challenge the dominance of the CCM. Despite the weakness of the legislative branch in Tanzania, the judiciary has shown an increasing autonomy from the CCM in recent years.

The national assembly has 274 seats, of which 232 are elected by popular vote, 37 are allocated to women nominated by the president and 5 are allocated to the Zanzibar House of representatives. All serve a five-year term. The national assembly enacts laws and applies them to the mainland, but the Zanzibar house of representatives make laws, especially for Zanzibar. |
| 13. Zambia | The executive branch has significant authority in the Zambian political system. The constitution gives the national assembly substantial powers, but in practice it has historically provided only limited check on the presidency's authority. The relative strength of the judiciary in Zambia contributes to the enhancement of horizontal accountability in recent years.

The president of Zambia is the chief of the state and head of the government. The president from the members of the national assembly appoints the cabinet. The president is elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The national assembly has 150 seats and members are elected by popular vote for a five-year term. The president appoints the judges of the supreme court and the appeal court. |
| 14. Zimbabwe | The executive branch of Zimbabwe dominates all other branches of the government. The president of Zimbabwe has systematically consolidated his power through a series of constitutional amendments enacted since 1980. The national assembly serves as a rubber stamp body for the executive branch because the ruling ZANU party members dominate this house. The judiciary in Zimbabwe is nominally independent from the executive branch. Traditionally, the judiciary has provided limited constraint on presidential actions.

The president of Zimbabwe is the chief of the state and the head of the government, and serves for a 6-year term. He is elected by popular vote. The president appoints the cabinet and the cabinet is responsible to the house of assembly. The national assembly has 120 members who are elected by common-roll electorate, 10 tribal chiefs, 12 presidential appointees, 8 presidentially appointed governors, the speaker and the attorney general. All serve for five years. |

The nature of the current regimes in the SADC as shown in Table 3.31 can be characterised as presidentialist or parliamentary, based on the fundamental rule that links the head of the government to the constitutive system. Riggs (2006) indicates that the presidentialist form first evolved in the United States of America (USA) and replaced monarchs with presidents who are elected for a fixed term. These presidents have the authority to manage the government bureaucracy. In presidentialist regimes, there is an elected assembly created to co-exist with the president on the basis of a principle referred to as 'separation of powers'. Presidentialist does not imply 'imperial presidency', however, because many parliamentary regimes also have presidents, as is the case in Botswana, the DRC, Namibia and South Africa.

Presidentialist regimes employ unicarmeralism, which is the practice of having only one legislative or parliamentary chamber. A view in favour of unicarmeralism is that, if the upper house is democratic, it mirrors the equally democratic lower house, and therefore there is no need for duplication of efforts. This theory argues that parliamentary committees can do the functions of the second chamber, such as reviewing or revising legislation.

In parliamentary regimes, there is a fusion of power. The executive and legislative authorities are fused into a cabinet. A cabinet and its leader, a prime minister, need the support of the parliamentary majority to stay in power because the executive is accountable to the elected assembly and can be discharged with a vote of no confidence. Control of the government bureaucracy is enhanced by this fusion of powers.

Parliamentary regimes employ bicameralism, which is the practice of having two parliamentary chambers. Countries such as Botswana and Lesotho technically have bicarmeral systems that function much as unicameral systems, because one house is largely ceremonial and retains few powers. They have power only to delay legislation and recommend amendments. The view in favour of bicameralism states that the double checks and balances offered force a greater level of consensus on legislative issues.

Table 3.36 represents the researcher's analysis of the nature of the current regimes in the SADC, whether parliamentary, presidentialist, unicameral or bicameral.

Table 3.36: Type of governance in current regimes in the SADC

Country	Type of governance	Validation points
1. Angola	Presidentialist/unicameral	The president is supported by 220 elected members of the national assembly
2. Botswana	Parliamentary/bicameral	There is a national assembly and the house of chiefs, which represents the country's major tribes
3. DRC	Parliamentary/bicameral	There is an appointed transitional national assembly and the senate
4. Lesotho	Parliamentary/bicameral	There is a national assembly and a senate consisting of principal chiefs and other members appointed by the ruling party
5. Malawi	Presidentialist/unicameral	The president is supported by the national assembly, although this national assembly shows limited autonomy from the executive branch
6. Mauritius	Presidentialist/unicameral	There is a national assembly consisting of 66 elected members and 4 additional members appointed by the electoral commission from losing political parties
7. Mozambique	Presidentialist/unicameral	There is a national assembly consisting of 250 seats for members elected by popular vote
8. Namibia	Parliamentary/bicameral	There is a national assembly with 72 seats for members directly elected by popular vote, and there is also a national council with 20 seats for members chosen from each regional council
9. Seychelles	Presidentialist/unicameral	There is only a national assembly with 34 seats
10. South Africa	Parliamentary/bicameral	There are 400 members in the national assembly who are elected by popular vote, and there are 90 seats for members of the national council of provinces
11. Swaziland	Parliamentary/bicameral	There are 65 seats for the national assembly and 30 seats for the senate
12. Tanzania	Presidentialist/unicameral	There is a national assembly with 274 seats
13. Zambia	Presidentialist/unicameral	There is a national assembly with 150 seats for members elected by popular vote
14. Zimbabwe	Presidentialist/unicameral	The house of assembly has 120 seats for members elected by popular vote, 10 tribal chiefs and two presidential appointees

Considering the nature of current regimes in the SADC, it is up to the respective regimes to switch from presidentialist to parliamentary or vice versa if the need arises, or they may retain the status quo. The SADC leaders need to identify the best form of governance and they **should be able to choose whether they are to be governed by constitutional rules based on the separation of powers or by rules based on the fusion of powers.** They would be able to do this only if they are aware of the advantages and disadvantages of unicameralism and bicameralism.

The following is an analysis of women parliamentarians in the SADC:

Women parliamentarians in the SADC

Women and men have equal rights to vote and stand for elections in the SADC, but women nonetheless remain underrepresented in politics. According to Mihloti (2000:13),

> In the declaration signed by heads of states or governments of Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), a commitment was made to ensure the equal representation of women and men in the decision-making of member states and SADC structures at all levels, and the attainment of at least 30% target of women in political and decision-making structures by 2000.

The equal participation of women and men in politics is one of the fundamental tenets of the Convention of the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The United Nations General Assembly adopted this convention in 1979. Years after its adoption and ratification by states, women in the SADC continue to be underrepresented in politics. Various direct measures have been used in this region to increase the representation of women in the legislature. Affirmative action and/or quotas are some mechanisms through which women parliamentarians may be increased significantly.

While quotas in the SADC have boosted women's representation to some degree, the effects have varied significantly between countries. The experience shows that governments sometimes obey the legislation without following its spirit and place women candidates at the end of lists or in the replacement positions where their chances of being elected are reduced to a minimum. In other SADC countries, quotas have been successful in tracking women to positions of political power. These

realities indicate that **there is a need for SADC leaders to redefine what constitutes politics, or political space, as well as to explore the notion of political participation to include many other spheres of life in the SADC.** This redefinition may eventually lead to an entirely different way of understanding not only the democracy, but also the capacity of the SADC women to redefine political agendas and impact on local and regional processes. The World Institute for Development Economic Research (2002:9) point out that, "…because women almost everywhere experience discrimination … and are content with limited political participation, gender equality is an indicator of overall well-being."

Other obstacles to women's participation are their dual burden of balancing family responsibilities with a political career and the lack of coordination among women's groups.

Table 3.37: Seats held by women in parliament as percentage of total seats in parliament. Source: Column 1 and column 2 Human development report 1996, column 3 African development indicators.

COUNTRY		1980	1990	2000
1.	Angola	-	9.5	15.5
2.	Botswana	-	8.5	17
3.	DRC	-	5.3	-
4.	Lesotho	-	4.6	10.7
5.	Malawi	-	5.6	9.3
6.	Mauritius	-	7.6	5.7
7.	Mozambique	-	25.2	30
8.	Namibia	-	18.1	20.4
9.	Seychelles	-	27.3	-
10.	South Africa	-	-	27.9
11.	Swaziland	-	3.1	6.3
12.	Tanzania	-	17.5	22.3
13.	Zambia	-	9.7	10.1
14.	Zimbabwe	-	14.7	9.3
MEAN			**12.1**	**15.14**

Seats held by women in parliament refer to all seats held by women in the lower or upper house or senate where relevant.

Table 3.37 shows that regionally women constituted 12.1% (1990) and 15.14% (2000) of parliamentarians. There are national variations. For example, the Seychelles had the highest proportion of women parliamentarians with 27.3%, closely followed by Mozambique (25.2%) and Tanzania (17.5%) in 2000. At the end of the spectrum in 1990 were Swaziland, Lesotho and Malawi with an average of 3.1%, 4.6% and 5.6%.

Overall, women are underrepresented in high offices of states and decision-making positions in governments. According to Mihloti (2000: 13), "Women's participation in politics is still influenced by traditional practices and norms, as well as society's perceptions of what roles of men and women should be." The national percentage of women in parliament is often nominated not elected. In the Seychelles and in South Africa, women were more than 25% of elected members in parliament.

These countries were steadily approaching the 30% minimum threshold in decision-making positions for women as recommended by the "UNDP" (1995) Human Development Report.

Table 3.37 also clearly shows that women in Angola, Lesotho, Mauritius and Swaziland were significantly underrepresented in parliament. Unlike Mauritius and Swaziland, these countries have been among nations with relatively long and continuous records of democracy. In order to avoid social exclusion, the SADC will have to adopt extensive methods to encourage more female participation. Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:61) define social exclusion as follows:

> Social exclusion takes many forms. Excluded groups vary by society
> and time and period, by the features of their deprivation and by its
> causes, social norms … Social exclusion reveals two principles
> dimensions. The first dimension is that of social capital deprivation,
> the lack of relationships, networks …

This region must therefore move beyond the basic threshold and make the achievement of equal participation of women and men in decision-making its goal, thus strengthening democracy. This argument is emphasised by "One Country" (2003:17):

> … and among the teachings of Bahaullah is the equality of men and
> men … The world of humanity has two wings; one is women and
> another men. Not until both wings are equally developed can a bird
> fly … not until the world of men in acquisition of virtues and
> perfections, can success and prosperity is attained, as it ought to be.

The other political trend assessed in this study is the defence budget, which is discussed in the following section.

Defence budget of the SADC

The notion that countries should be prepared to defend themselves at all times against any external threat is observed by the SADC. As a result, large portions of the economic resources are spent to maintain large military establishments. "Africa Recovery" (2001) points out that the "abuse of weapons diverts scarce government resources from health and education … [and] discourages investment growth." This is

particularly disturbing because these countries cannot afford this expense. Moreover, military forces in the SADC have rarely, if ever defended against attacks by outsiders. The military are deployed mostly against people within the region. Worst of all, most of the SADC countries lack their own arms manufacturing capacity, which causes the international commerce in arms to soar at the expense of poor SADC countries. "Africa Recovery" (2001:21) gives the following reason for this situation: "The collapse of Soviet Bloc saw a new flood of small arms entering Africa as manufacturers put additional millions of surplus cold war weapons on the international arms market at cut prises." It can be observed from the media that expenditure on arms imports in this region have surpassed those on other goods, including grain.

Leaders in this region should realise that military expenditures are draining the region's economy and lowering the region's position in the international economic hierarchy. The high military expenditures contribute to a realignment of leading industrial countries. The SADC will pay a high price if it continues in the arms race because military spending in this region channels the region's resources to non-productive uses. It also diverts leadership attention from economic reforms because militarisation has political dimension.

As military establishments gain strength in the SADC, the countries in this region tend to gain power by force. This is witnessed in countries such as the DRC and Angola where there were attempts of *coups d'etat*. In Lesotho in 1986, the *coup d'etat* was justified by the need to rescue a country from corruption and from economic deterioration as a result of inept leadership. The tendency is that when governments are taken over by the military, they shift priorities towards further militarisation of the economy. Table 3.38 presents the percentage of total expenditure on defence in the SADC.

Table 3.38: Defence expenditure as percentage of GDP in the SADC. Source: Column 1 and column 2 Human development report 1991, column 3 The World Bank.

COUNTRY	1980	1990	2000
1. Angola	-	5.8	21.2
2. Botswana	9.8	-	-
3. DRC	-	-	-
4. Lesotho	0.0	3.9	3.1
5. Malawi	12.8	1.3	0.8
6. Mauritius	0.8	0.3	0.2
7. Mozambique	-	10.1	2.5
8. Namibia	-	5.7	3.3
9. Seychelles	-	-	-
10. South Africa	-	3.8	1.5
11. Swaziland	-	1.5	1.6
12. Tanzania	9.2	2.0	1.3
13. Zambia	0.0	3.7	0.6
14. Zimbabwe	25	4.5	4.8
MEAN	**8.2**	**3.9**	**3.7**

Defence expenditure denotes expenditure whether by defence or other departments on the maintenance of military forces, including for the purchase of military supplies and equipment, construction, recruiting, training and military programmes.

It is evident from Table 3.38 that the escalating debts of the SADC is driven primarily by an increase in defence spending, which should be of concern to economic policy makers in this region. While the SADC governments were preoccupied with military defence, the arms race heightened in 1980. During 1980, the defence expenditure averaged 8.2% and in 2000 it averaged 3.7%.

Military expenditures were largest in tension-ridden Angola. In 1980, they spent 21.8% of their economic resources to maintain a large military establishment. In South Africa, military expenditure was surprisingly low in 1990, averaging 3.8%. One would assume that the apartheid regime would have spent more on their military budget. It is, however, ironic that democratic South Africa was on the verge of militarising the South African economy after 2000 when more than R40 billion was

spent on military equipment alone. Since this study ranges only up to 2000, it does not consider this information.

It would be preferable for the SADC to redefine regional security by emphasising economic progress and reducing arms sales. Countries in this region should cut military outlays. The overriding reason for cutting military expenditure should be economic. **The leaders in this region should define security in much more democratic terms.** For example, the military sector should be regarded as an additional resource base for the achievement of the desired gains in living standards. The reduction of resources devoted to the military would then be inevitable once the goal of improving standards is developed.

The following discussions are on summary of Chapter 3 and the conclusions that can be drawn from this chapter.

3.5 Summary and conclusions

This chapter is about external analysis of the SADC operating environment (i.e. its market place). This analysis helped identify broad social, technological, environmental, economic and political trends, events and developments that may impact the SADC. These events and developments gave rise to the SADC leadership challenges.

It is observed from this chapter that southern tip of Africa is culturally distinct. It includes a rage of people from khoisan speakers of Kalahari desert. It is also observed that the borders of the most of the SADC countries were drawn by the European colonial powers, and these borders fail to represent cultural difference or ecosystem boundaries. The SADC is comprised mainly with plateau lands, with some grassland savannas, forests and deserts. The fauna in this region is extraordinarily rich. This is a home of a wide range of species including everything from African elephant to disease-spreading insects. Nevertheless, the SADC environmental degradation is accelerating rapidly, and in an attempt to curb this degradation, development strategies in this region now prioritise environmental issues. It is also observed that most of the SADC natural resources are iron ore, copper, gold, diamonds and platinum.

The external analysis of the SADC macro-environment also reveals that rural population is poorly organized, and often isolated, beyond the reach of social safety nets and poverty programmes. This indicates that government policies and poverty investments in the SADC tend to favour urban over rural areas. Rural poverty in many countries in the SADC has its roots in the colonial systems. Currently, structural adjustments have dismantled existing rural systems, but have not build new ones.

It is also observed from the SADC regional perspective, in the species-to-species struggle between human and the HI virus that, the virus is clearly winning. The SADC is classified is one of the HIV-affected regions of the world. This virus is killing young and middle-aged adults in their most productive years, resulting in more children becoming orphans. In turn this creates a vicious cycle of increased poverty, vulnerability and more infections.

Another trend that is revealed through the analysis of the SADC operating environment is the increased atmospheric pollution. It is found that air pollution cause major health problems and damage to local ecosystems, and can spread regionally through acid rain. Atmospheric pollutants contribute to changing global climate patterns. This climate changes have damaged ecosystems, altered agricultural zones, triggered natural disasters and spread new diseases. Again industries in the SADC tend to contribute towards massive environmental degradation, which could negatively impact this region's future.

International debt is again found to be a major issue for the SADC. Loans taken by the SADC member countries weigh heavily on current regional budgets, yet this region needs to increased budgets for education, health-care environmental protection, but instead these countries are paying back loans.

Again it is found that the SADC countries need to seek to open their countries to foreign investors in order to raise the income level of STEEP systems. Increasing international trade, communication and decision-decision making would increase how people of this region address STEEP changes.

Regarding the SADC political environment, it is observed that political organization ranges from military rule to emerging democracies, and all of them operate in the context of leadership hardship. Nevertheless, after decades of turbulent politics and failed international strategies, the SADC leaders are increasingly focused

on the long-term goals of regional political sustainability. Although a range of women political participation is being explored in the SADC, women are still affected by socio-economic feminism thought and action. Socio-political problems generally disproportionately affect women in this region. The increased burdens that women face, result from sexual derision of labour found in most societies in the SADC. These societies consider family sustenance to be work of women.

It is also observed that there is lack of ICT systems in the SADC. Therefore this region does not use ICTs to achieve overall development and the delivery of service. This makes it difficult for the SADC countries to benchmark each other's activities against the regional policy framework that would enable them to identify areas that need attention, and where rectification needs to be carried out. ICT would also consistency of activities. Leadership challenges raised by this external analysis gave rise to the following leadership challenges that are presented in table 3.39 below. This table indicates the SADC (STEEP) trends discussed above as well:

Table 3.39: The SADC (STEEP) trends discussed and the identified leadership challenges for the SADC

STEEP trends in the SADC	Leadership challenges identified
Estimated national populations in millions	Leadership of the SADC should be able to design a viable regional population policy
Adult literacy rate in SADC: total percentage	SADC leaders should provide quality and accessible education
School enrolment ratio in the SADC (%)	SADC leaders should devise educational practices based on people's needs
Population with access to health services in the SADC as % of total people	The SADC leadership should demonstrate increased social concern for equity and efforts to fulfil the promise of "health for all"
People with access to safe water as % of total population	Leaders of this region must undertake a water sector reform to ensure that services are provided and managed with increased performance and cost effectiveness
HIV/AIDS estimates at the beginning of 2000	The SADC leadership should ensure sustainable livelihoods in their countries, and move out of poverty
Telephone mainlines per 100 people	The SADC leadership should restructure the ICT sector in order to accelerate investment and increase responsiveness to ICT user needs, because expansion of ICT implies global participation

Total forest area (1000ha)	Leadership of the SADC should restore woodlands and forests for they are essential to the recovery of agriculture on which the region's economic prospects depend
Internal renewable water resources in SADC (1000 m^3)	The SADC leadership should develop a regional policy for maintaining selected internal renewable water resources in their natural states
Carbon dioxide emissions (million metric tonnes) in SADC	The leadership of the SADC should be concerned about the sustainability of their physical environment and ecosystems, and endeavour to provide a liveable environment for their people
Gross Domestic Production in the SADC (million US$)	The SADC leadership should raise the GDP rates in a sustainable way and on sustained bases
Food production per capita index (average 1989-1991=100)	The SADC leadership should restructure the agricultural sector by shifting from highly controlled production to reliance on market forces and individual initiative
Exports of merchandise (millions of US$)	The SADC leadership should diversify its exports to strengthen the domestic economy and provide stability and predictability in export earnings
Imports of merchandise into SADC (millions of US$)	The SADC leadership must engage in extensive trade promotion training
External debts in SADC (millions US$)	The SADC leadership should place a high premium on the region's ability to master the reduction of its external debt in a planned way
Labour force as percentage of total population	SADC leaders must focus on the productive sectors of the economy and generate jobs
Labour force female participation as % of all ages in labour force	The SADC leaders should produce a gender perspective in all planning and budgetary work. They have to promote women's participation in the economic mainstream in the SADC
Rural people in absolute poverty in SADC as % of total population in the SADC	Leaders of the SADC should increase food security, generate opportunities for employment and sustainable livelihoods, empower people through access to assets and productive resources, and enable people to participate in the political forces that shape their lives
International tourism receipts in SADC (millions US $)	SADC leaders must develop principles of balanced and sustainable tourism
The state of democracy in the SADC	Leadership of this region should be able to make choices that will enhance the prospects for successful consolidation and maintenance of their democratic institutions

History of national elections in the SADC	The ruling leadership of this region must understand the people's expectations, and the opposition leaders must know their rights and duties.
Nature of current regimes in the SADC	SADC leadership has to be able to choose whether they are to be governed by constitutional rules based on separation of powers or by rules based on fusion of powers
Seats in parliament held by women as % of total of seats in parliament	SADC leaders should redefine what constitutes politics, or political space, as well as explore the notion of political participation to include many other spheres of life in the SADC
Defence expenditure as % of total population	The leaders in this region should define security in much more democratic terms

These identified needs are crucial to the SADC's development because strategic decisions have to be based on facts, not emotional preferences. Leadership training needs identification ensures that strategic responses that are designed to address them will directly address the critical obstacles and dilemmas facing leaders in the SADC. The main objectives of leadership training needs identification are to propose effective leadership training activities at all levels within the SADC, to determine the quantity of the training required within each area investigated, to establish training priorities and to quantify the financial and physical resources necessary to provide training. The following are conclusions drawn from this chapter:

- Several factors such as deforestation, population growth and energy needs, place severe environmental impediments on the natural habitat and core species populations of the SADC.

- Management of natural resources in the SADC can be socially and environmentally destructive

- Poverty in the SADC is predominantly rural

- HIV/AIDS in the SADC is changing the profile of rural poverty in the SADC. It puts strain on the rural households where labour is primary income-earning asset.

- ICTs create changes in the societies

- E-commerce is remains minimal in the SADC.

- The SADC needs leaders who can improve regional outcomes and regional learning by introducing into the region, a range of specific processes and practices for identifying and culturing knowledge and other intellectual capital.

In the next chapter, the identified SADC leadership needs are assessed to establish the key leadership needs of this region.

CHAPTER 4: THE SADC NEEDS ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

After the SADC leadership challenges have been identified, they are assessed to establish leadership needs. According to Benjamin and Conger (1999:164),

> Without pre-assessment measures, it is unlikely that program designers will understand the fundamental leadership challenges with which their leaders struggle most … leaders themselves may be limited in the extend to which they can articulate specific leadership challenges. For all these reasons, it is crucial that program designers collect input from multiple sources throughout the organisation. They must understand the organisation's most pressing short term, strategic priorities implicit in its overreacting agenda … Careful pre-assessment helps ensure that resources are directed where they can have greatest impact on both change agenda and on leaders who must implement it.

Assessment of leadership challenges means that the facts are to be interpreted. The correct interpretation of the information collected is important. Some facts are made up of a number of contributing elements, each of which has a greater or lesser significance.

The process of this assessment brings out key leadership needs/problems, and the selected leadership needs are fundamentally crucial to the kind of leadership needed in this region because they explicate its structure and can assist in furthering its characteristics, thought processes and modes of inquiry.

4.1.1 Objectives

- To develop planning assumptions based on the identified leadership needs in the SADC.

- To trim the developed planning assumptions based on the developed criteria.

- To assign validation points to the selected validation points based on the discussion of the STEEP analysis of the SADC macro-environment.

- To explore the explicit and hidden interconnectedness of the assigned validation points through cross-impact analysis to identify the key validation points/drivers that reveal the key leadership needs of the SADC.

- Establish the basis for responding to the identified key leadership needs of the SADC.

4.1.2 Overview

Developing planning assumptions based on the identified leadership challenges in the SADC

Based on the identified leadership challenges for the SADC, planning assumptions are developed. These planning assumptions are best guesses, or predictions about key dimensions of the future given the identified leadership challenges. These assumptions are estimates based on the combination of estimating factors, which are the identified leadership challenges in the SADC.

Trimming the developed planning assumptions based on the developed criteria

In the first instance, the developed assumptions are rough estimates that are later refined into assumptions by paring them. The probability, impact, proximity and maturity of these assumptions are interpreted by calculating their weighted positive or negative values. The allocation of a value to a planning assumption is based on the history and experience previously depicted in the scanning of relative issues in the SADC macro-environment.

Assigning validation points to the selected planning assumptions based on the discussion of the STEEP analysis of the SADC macro-environment

Validation points are allocated to each selected assumption. These validation points are determinants or drivers that will bear future on the SADC leadership.

Exploring the explicit and hidden interconnectedness of the assigned validation points through cross-impact analysis to identify the key validation points/drivers that reveal the key leadership needs of the SADC

The cross-impact analysis of the validation points is used to guide the SADC decision-makers to adopt policies designed to achieve more desirable leadership futures. Here, the connections between the validation points impacting on the

probability of one another are illustrated. These specified relationships trace out a distinct, plausible and internally consistent future for the SADC leadership. This analysis gives rise to identification of key validation points/drivers in the SADC from which emerge the key leadership needs of this region.

Establishing the basis for responding to the identified key leadership needs of the SADC

It is argued in this part of the study that there is a link between NEPAD and the identified key leadership needs of the SADC. The success of the envisaged leadership development programme is therefore dependent on, among others, the ownership and domestication of NEPAD by the SADC. This implies that the SADC leadership programme and NEPAD complement each other. NEPAD provides the focal point and an overall strategic framework, and the SADC leadership development programme seeks to enhance NEPAD ownership to ensure that the leadership development programme achieves the desired results. The impact that NEPAD can have on SADC leadership development can reach far beyond what might be expected. With increased skill development and capacity, self-esteem and self-confidence naturally follow, contributing to increased ownership and commitment. Therefore, NEPAD has to be the basis for designing the leadership development programme, including a social responsiveness strategy for the SADC.

4.2 Development of the SADC planning assumptions

The SADC planning assumptions, based on identified leadership challenges, are established in this part of study. They are estimates based on the combination of estimating factors/validation points portrayed in the analysis of the macro-environment of the SADC, and fall under the broad categories of social, technological, environmental, economic and political trends. These planning assumptions provide a guideline for estimating what efforts are needed and are a basis for forecasting the future. According to "Common Sense Management"(2005), "The picture that develops from major planning assumptions represents a most likely future. Sometimes leaders change their planning assumptions in order to develop alternative scenarios."

The SADC social planning assumptions

The identified SADC leadership challenges are the building blocks from which the SADC leadership needs will be derived. It is noted that the leadership challenges are identified within broad STEEP trends and therefore the following questions are asked about leadership challenges in each of the trends:

- What leadership assumptions are inherent in the identified leadership challenges in the respective STEEP trends?

- How important is each assumption?

- Which assumptions are vulnerable to not turning out as stated?

The following tables show the planning assumptions perceived by the researcher as inherent in the identified leadership challenges of the SADC. There is sometimes more than one planning assumption perceived per leadership challenge. The list of identified assumptions is refined by trimming them down on a three-dimensional matrix to determine their probability, impact and maturity; to determine the probability of each assumption's development into a major concern for the SADC; to determine the impact an assumption will have on the SADC; and to estimate the timeframe for each assumption to mature into a major concern for the SADC. The three dimensional matrix is as follows:

Scale (A) Probability

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Highly improbable		Unlikely		As likely as not		More likely than not		Highly probable		

Scale (B) Impact

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Negligible impact		Incremental impact			Substantial change			Major change		Structural change

Scale (C) Maturity

2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Proximate maturity						Late maturity				

Source: Common sense management (2005)

An assumption that has two or more of the features of probability, impact and /or maturity is selected by highlighting it. Most of the highlighted assumptions on the following pages are those that have high probability and can cause 'major change'

and 'structural change' because they have 'proximate maturity'. The allocation of a value to a planning assumption is based on the history and experience previously depicted in the scanning of relative issues in the SADC macro-environment.

Then validation points are established for selected assumptions after trimming. The validation points are established because they are the estimating factors. According to "PMIGovSIG magazine" (2004), they are external conditions that drive the developmental reality in the SADC and they therefore will feed any intervention that will address the leadership needs in this region. They will also be used to manage the activities of the intervention.

Table 4.1: Perceived social assumptions of the SADC

Identified SADC leadership challenges	Perceived social planning assumptions
• Leadership of the SADC should be able to design a viable regional population policy • SADC leaders should provide quality and accessible education • SADC leaders should devise educational practices based on people's needs • SADC leadership should demonstrate increased social concern for equity and efforts to fulfil the promise of "health for all" • Leaders of this region must undertake a water sector reform to ensure that services are provided and managed with increased performance and cost effectiveness • SADC leadership should ensure sustainable livelihoods in their countries, and move out of poverty	• Decrease in population in the SADC will result in a decrease in number of school enrolment ratios • Demographic shifts will perpetuate changes in educational programming in learning institutions • Based on the needs of people of the SADC, the demand for higher education will continue • Technological advances will continue to exert profound influences on all educational processes • Educational institutions will continue to be challenged to provide quality and accessible education • Rapid societal changes coupled with persistent threats of illiteracy will lead to reinforced demands for social and educational reforms and responsiveness • Responsiveness to social changes will increase the need for leadership • Sense of division between rural and urban parts in the SADC will continue • Number of people with HIV/AIDS will continue to grow and present a significant demand on health and social services • Health and human services programmes will be priorities in the SADC

Table 4.2: Trimming the SADC social planning assumptions

Social leadership planning assumptions	A	B	C
Based on the needs of people of the SADC, the demand for higher education will continue	10	9	2010
Technological advances will continue to exert profound influences on all educational processes	9	9	2010
Educational institutions will continue to be challenged to provide quality and accessible education	**10**	**8**	**2010**
Decrease in population in the SADC will result in a decrease in number of school enrolment ratios	*3*	*1*	**2010**
Demographic shifts will perpetuate changes in educational programming in learning institutions	**7**	**8**	**2013**
Responsiveness to social changes will increase the need for leadership	**10**	**9**	**2013**
Sense of division between rural and urban parts in the SADC will continue	*5*	*6*	*2020*
Number of people with HIV/AIDS will continue to grow and present a significant demand on health and social services	**8**	**8**	**2010**
Health and human services programmes will be priorities in the SADC	*5*	*5*	**2010**
Rapid societal changes coupled with persistent threats of illiteracy will lead to reinforced demands for social and educational reforms and responsiveness	**9**	**9**	**2015**

The reasons for selecting the highlighted planning assumptions are based on the indicated validation points derived from the STEEP analysis of the SADC.

189

Table 4.3: Validation points for selected SADC social planning assumptions

Selected planning assumptions	Validation points
Based on the needs of people of the SADC, the demand for higher education will continue	Considerable progress on school enrolment in primary ratios between 1980 and 2000
Technological advances will continue to exert profound influences on all educational processes	The need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ITC explosion
Educational institutions will continue to be challenged to provide quality and accessible education	High rate of primary school drop-outs in the SADC
Demographic shifts will perpetuate changes in educational programming in learning institutions	The alarmingly high population growth rates in most the SADC countries
Responsiveness to social changes will increase the need for leadership	Obvious poor implementation of policy; for example, family planning and literacy
Number of people with HIV/AIDS will continue to grow and present a significant demand on health and social services	High scale of HIV infection in the SADC
Rapid societal changes coupled with persistent threats of illiteracy will lead to reinforced demands for social and educational reforms and responsiveness	Number of orphans and a need to develop better understanding and appreciation of opportunities

The sequence of analysis that has been used for the SADC social planning assumptions is applied in the analysis of other trends. Table 4.4 below shows the technological planning assumptions of the SADC, as perceived by the researcher, and the leadership challenges from which they are derived.

Table 4.4: **Perceived SADC technological planning assumptions**

Identified SADC leadership challenge	Perceived SADC technological planning assumptions
The SADC leadership should restructure the ICT sector in order to accelerate investment and increase responsiveness to ICT user needs, because expansion of ICT implies global participation	• The linkage between trade, technology, investment and services will emerge as a highly dynamic sector in the SADC • ICT will improve efficiency in conduct of trade transactions in the SADC • Many technological advances will open up new areas of economic activity, particularly the service sector in the SADC • Micro-electronics-based innovations will erode the traditional comparative advantage of the SADC in labour and regional raw materials • There will be inadequate diversification of technological devices in the SADC • It will be crucial for the SADC to attain, accommodate and manage higher levels of technology • Technological changes in the SADC will be instrumental in speeding up internalisation of a good number of markets in the SADC • Knowledge-intensive and information-based processes will become increasingly important in determining the composition of products in the SADC • Technology will give fresh impulse to economic integration, both global and regional, and cause changes in information and communication • All the SADC countries will benefit from less costly data generation processing and transmission

Table 4.5: Trimming the SADC technological planning assumptions

Assumptions	A	B	C
The linkage between trade, technology, investment and services will emerge as a highly dynamic sector in the SADC	*5*	*7*	*2019*
ICT will improve efficiency in conduct of trade transactions in the SADC	**7**	**8**	**2010**
Many technological advances will open up new areas of economic activity, particularly in the service sector in the SADC	**10**	**8**	**2010**
Micro-electronics-based innovations will erode the traditional comparative advantage of the SADC in labour and regional raw materials	**7**	*7*	*2020*
There will be inadequate diversification of technological devices in the SADC	*6*	*7*	**2010**
It will be urgent for the SADC to attain, accommodate and manage higher levels of technology	**10**	**8**	**2010**
Technological changes in the SADC will be instrumental in speeding up internalisation of a good number of markets in the SADC	**9**	**7**	**2010**
Knowledge-intensive and information-based processes will become increasingly important in determining the composition of products in the SADC	**9**	**7**	**2010**
Technology will give fresh impulse to economic integration, both global and regional, and cause changes in information and communication	**8**	**8**	**2010**
All of the SADC countries will benefit from less costly data generation processing and transmission	*5*	**8**	*2020*

Table 4.6: Validation points for selected SADC technological planning assumptions

Assumptions	Validation points
ICT will improve efficiency in conduct of trade transactions in the SADC	Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC
Many technological advances will open up new areas of economic activity, particularly in the service sector in the SADC	Devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most the SADC countries
It will be urgent for the SADC to attain, accommodate and manage higher levels of technology	The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social economic and geographical isolation

Technological changes in the SADC will be instrumental in speeding up internalisation of a good number of markets in the SADC	Implementation of submarine cable project dubbed SAT-3/WASC/SAFE by TELECOM South Africa
Knowledge-intensive and information-based processes will become increasingly important in determining the composition of products in SADC	The SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information
Technology will give fresh impulse to economic integration, both global and regional, and cause changes in information and communication	Implementation of submarine cable project dubbed SAT-3/WASC/SAFE by TELECOM South Africa

The table below presents the perceived SADC environmental planning assumptions and the leadership challenges from which they are derived.

Table 4.7: Perceived SADC environmental planning assumptions

Identified SADC leadership challenges	Perceived SADC environmental planning assumptions
• Leadership of the SADC should restore woodlands and forests for they are essential to the recovery of agriculture on which the region's economic prospects depend • SADC leadership should develop regional policy for maintaining selected internal renewable water resources in their natural states • The leadership of the SADC should be concerned about the sustainability of their physical environment and ecosystems and endeavour to provide a liveable environment to their people	• Overexploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation will deprive future SADC generations of a sound resource base • Environmental conservation in the SADC will help improve the regional ecological systems • Additional funds for dealing with regional environmental problems will be essential in the SADC • The SADC will consider the establishment of regional schemes of tradable emission permits, particularly carbon dioxide emissions • Solution to environmental degradation in the SADC will be sought in broad-based development programmes • The SADC will harmonise its environmental standards and regulations • The SADC will implement adequate policy responses to regional environmental threats • The SADC will improve the knowledge required for reducing the emissions of pollutants, wasteful consumption of resources and disruption of natural habitats • Environmental concerns will strengthen the case of promoting the development of human resources in the SADC

Table 4.8: Trimming the SADC environmental planning assumptions

Assumptions	A	B	C
Overexploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation will deprive future SADC generations of sound resource base	**10**	**9**	**2010**
Environmental conservation in the SADC will help improve the regional ecological systems	**10**	**9**	**2010**
Additional funds for dealing with regional environmental problems will be essential in the SADC	**9**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC will consider establishment of regional scheme of tradable emission permits particularly carbon dioxide emissions	*5*	*7*	*2020*
Solution to environmental degradation in the SADC will be sought in broad-based development programmes	**7**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC will harmonise its environmental standards and regulations	*7*	*7*	*2020*
The SADC will implement adequate policy responses to regional environmental threats	**7**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC will improve the knowledge required for reducing the emissions of pollutants, wasteful consumption of resources and disruption of natural habitats	*5*	*7*	*2017*
Environmental concerns will strengthen the case of promoting the development of human resources in the SADC	**8**	**9**	**2010**

Table: 4.9: Validation points for selected environmental planning assumptions

Assumptions	Validation points
Overexploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation will deprive future SADC generations of sound resource base	Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and in 2000
Environmental conservation in the SADC will help improve the regional ecological systems	Restoration of woodlands by the SADC nation states
Additional funds for dealing with regional environmental problems will be essential in the SADC	The fall in mean of renewable water resources
Solution to environmental degradation in the SADC will be sought in broad-based development programmes	Using rural families for reintroduction of agro-forestry
The SADC will implement adequate policy responses to regional environmental threats	The SADC is industrialising
Environmental concerns will strengthen the case of promoting the development of human resources in the SADC	High rate of desertification and soil erosion in some of the SADC countries

Table 4.10 below shows the SADC economic planning assumptions, as perceived by the researcher, and the leadership challenges from which they are derived.

Table 4.10: Perceived SADC environmental planning assumptions

Identified SADC leadership challenges	Perceived SADC environmental planning assumptions
- SADC leadership should raise the GDP rates in a sustainable way and on sustained bases - The SADC leadership should restructure agricultural sector by shifting from highly controlled production to reliance on market forces and individual initiative - The SADC leadership should diversify its exports to strengthen the domestic economy and provide stability and predictability in export earnings - SADC leadership should engage in extensive trade promotion training - The SADC leadership should place a high premium on the region's ability to master the reduction of its external debt in a planned way - The SADC leaders should focus on the productive sectors of the economy and generate jobs - The SADC leaders should produce a gender perspective in all planning and budgetary work; they must promote women's participation in economic mainstream in the SADC - Leaders of the SADC should increase food security, generate opportunities for employment and sustainable livelihoods, empower people through access to assets and productive resources, and enable people to participate in the political forces that shape their lives - The SADC leaders should develop principles of balanced and sustainable tourism	- Several positive conditions will come into being for strengthening regional economic cooperation - The SADC will continue to encounter difficulties in diversifying the production base - The SADC will offer considerable opportunities for promoting regional development - Long-standing problems of stagnation and poverty will be reduced - The SADC will still struggle to cope with debt burden and its consequences. - The SDAC will suffer from shortage of regional savings in relation to capital requirements - Major efforts will be made to promote approaches to growth in the SADC - The SADC's vulnerability will be heightened to adverse changes in the international economic environment - The dense interplay between trade, foreign direct investment and globalisation of economic activity and the SADC operations will continue - The SADC will realign its regional and national economic systems

Table 4.11: Trimming the SADC economic planning assumptions

Assumptions	A	B	C
Several positive conditions will come into being for strengthening regional economic cooperation	**8**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC will continue to encounter difficulties in diversifying the production base	**6**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC will offer considerable opportunities for promoting regional development	*7*	*8*	*2018*
Long-standing problems of stagnation and poverty will be reduced	*5*	*9*	*2020*
The SADC will still struggle to cope with debt burden and its consequences	**10**	**9**	**2010**
SADC will suffer from shortage of regional savings in relation to capital requirements	**8**	**9**	**2010**
Major efforts will be made to promote approaches to growth in the SADC	**10**	**8**	**2010**
The SADC's vulnerability will be heightened to adverse changes in the international economic environment	**7**	**8**	**2010**
The dense interplay between trade, foreign direct investment and globalisation of economic activity and the SADC operations will continue	**8**	**9**	**2010**
The SADC will realign its regional and national economic systems	*5*	*8*	*2020*

Table 4.12: Validation points for selected economic planning assumptions

Assumptions	Validation points
Several positive conditions will come into being for strengthening regional economic cooperation	Socio-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member countries
The SADC will continue to encounter difficulties in diversifying the production base	Limited capacity to generate surplus
The SADC will still struggle to cope with debt burden and its consequences	Escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000 in the SADC member states
SADC will suffer from shortage of regional savings in relation to capital requirements	Escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000 in SADC member states
Major efforts will be made to promote approaches to growth in the SADC	Introduction of different job-creation programmes in the SADC
The SADC's vulnerability will be heightened to adverse changes in the international economic environment	Increase in import of merchandise in 2000
The dense interplay between trade, foreign direct investment, and globalisation of economic activity and the SADC operations will continue	Economic structural adjustment programmes in the SADC member countries

Table 4.13 below shows the political planning assumptions of the SADC, as perceived by the researcher, and the leadership challenges from which they are derived.

Table 4.13: The perceived SADC political planning assumptions

Identified SADC leadership challenges	Perceived SADC political planning assumptions
• Leadership of this region should be able to make choices that will enhance the prospects for successful consolidation and maintenance of their democratic institutions • The ruling leadership of this region should understand the people's expectations, and the opposition leaders should know their rights and duties • The SADC leadership should be able to choose whether they are to be governed by constitutional rules based on separation of powers or by rules based on fusion of powers • SADC leaders should redefine what constitutes politics, or political space, as well as to explore the notion of political participation to include many other spheres of life in the SADC • The leaders in this region should define security in much more democratic terms	• The SADC member countries will move towards democratisation of political structures encompassing greater accountability and transparency in decision-making and the rule of law • All the SADC member states will address the challenges of institutional reforms • The tensions between long-standing principles of national sovereignty and external initiative to defend internationally recognised norms of respect for human rights will continue to emerge • The cost of transition in the SADC member states will be considerably higher than expected in terms of political and economic stability • Political pluralism will contribute to accountable and efficient use of resources and transparency in domestic decision-making in the SADC • Social upheavals stemming from the persistence of disarray and stagnation in the development process will pose a threat to the SADC • There will be unusually rapid shifts in political alignments and far-reaching shifts in gender representation in decision-making positions in the SADC • There will be easing of militarisation in the SADC • There will be improved prospects for curbing the incidence and scale of threats to regional security • Regional conflicts in the SADC will be well managed

Table 4.14: Trimming the SADC political planning assumptions

Assumptions	A	B	C
There will be unusually rapid shifts in political alignments and far-reaching shift in gender representation in decision-making positions in the SADC	**9**	**10**	**2010**
There will be easing of militarisation in the SADC	*6*	*7*	*2019*
There will be improved prospects for curbing the incidence and scale of threats to regional security	*6*	*7*	*2019*
Regional conflicts in the SADC will be well managed	*7*	*7*	**2015**
The SADC member countries will move towards democratisation of political structures encompassing greater accountability and transparency in decision-making and the rule of law	**9**	**8**	**2010**
All the SADC member states will address the challenges of institutional reforms	**10**	**10**	**2010**
The tensions between long-standing principles of national sovereignty and external initiative to defend internationally recognised norms of respect for human rights will continue to emerge	*6*	**8**	**2010**
The cost of transition in the SADC member states will be considerably higher than expected in terms of political and economic stability	*5*	*6*	**2010**
Political pluralism will contribute to accountable and efficient use of resources and transparency in domestic decision-making in the SADC	**7**	**8**	**2010**
Social upheavals stemming from the persistence of disarray and stagnation in the development process will pose a threat to the SADC	*6*	*7*	*2017*

Table 4.15: Validation points for selected political planning assumptions

Assumptions	Validation points
There will be unusually rapid shifts in political alignments and far-reaching shifts in gender representation in decision-making positions in the SADC	The SADC's commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision-making processes
The SADC member countries will move towards democratisation of political structures encompassing greater accountability and transparency in decision-making and the rule of law	Adopting NEPAD and domesticating it
All the SADC member states will address the challenges of institutional reforms	Restructuring of public services in the SADC through decentralisation

The tensions between long-standing principles of national sovereignty and external initiative to defend internationally recognised norms of respect for human rights will continue to emerge	Obvious high expenditure on defence in the SADC countries
Political pluralism will contribute to accountable and efficient use of resources and transparency in domestic decision-making in the SADC	Decentralisation of governance

The STEEP planning assumptions for the SADC that have been established indicate that this region's future is highly uncertain. Several conditions can be expected to emerge during the next several years and the SADC will have to revolutionise its strategic planning processes. Leaders of this region have a greater stake in staging a revolution than preserving the status quo. Opportunities for a revolutionary planning strategy are many and mostly unexplored in the SADC.

As the SADC faces change from the rapid increases in the population to the decline in economic growth, planners and policy makers in this region must address a range of complex issues that affect changes into the future. In order to make good decisions that are sustainable for STEEP trends, the SADC leaders should have relevant information, fair processes and ways to evaluate progress towards clearly articulated and shared goals. Therefore, leaders of the SADC have to look for ways to redefine services and even rethink the entire structure of the SADC organisation.

Revolutionising the planning strategy is more necessary in the SADC now than ever. The SADC leadership should therefore establish a region with a leadership strategy that embodies the principles of a new science of politics and apply them in innovative ways through a set of institutional inventions. This would offer a new and different leadership model because interrelationship between people and their leaders is the key to an effective and successful society.

The revolutionising of the planning strategy will be realised in the SADC if leaders of this region are able to anticipate the impact of the planning assumptions. Revolutionary planning depends on obtaining accurate data about change in the organisation's external environment. This means that the identified planning assumptions for the SADC oblige leaders of this region to use their validation points

as planning tools, because these validation points are the means of verification as they determine whether the planning assumptions are reliable. The validation points also provide valuable background information and a solid foundation to support and justify the establishment of the NEPAD LDS in the SADC. This is the reason why they are considered to be drivers/variables that condition the future of this region.

According to the above exercise of identifying planning assumptions, it is established that the following drivers validate the selected assumptions. These drivers will therefore be used as planning tools to identify the leadership needs of this region:

A. Considerable progress on school enrolment in primary ratios

B. The need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of Information Communication Technology (ICT)

C. High rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC

D. High population growth rates in most of the SADC states

E. High scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC

F. High number of orphans because of HIV/AIDS

G. Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC

H. The fall in the mean of renewable water resources

I. Industrialisation of the SADC region

J. Limited capacity to generate surplus

K. Introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC

L. High expenditure on defence in the SADC

M. Devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries

N. The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation

O. The SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information

P. Restoration of woodlands by the SADC member countries

Q. Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000

R. High rate of desertification and soil erosion in the SADC

S. Social-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member countries

T. Escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000

U. Increase in import of merchandise into the SADC in 2000

V. Commitment to ensure equal representative of women in the SADC decision-making level

Not all the selected validation points are key drivers/variables of the region. A cross-impact analysis approach, as suggested by Popper (2002), is employed in this part of the study to identify the key drivers/variables of the SADC, that in turn will reveal the key leadership needs of this region. Popper (2002) indicates that Calibrum Corporation has developed a tool for system analysis that helps organisations to identify and plan strategic actions for the achievement of particular goals. This software tool is called Strategylet and it uses structural analysis, cross-impact analysis and stakeholder's interest maps. The researcher adopted cross-impact analysis, but the analysis in this study was done manually, not with the software.

Cross-impact analysis was adopted because it allows the researcher to look at interconnections between events and trends and at their possible influence and dependency on each other. This brings systematic thinking into the planning process and makes it possible to identify incompatibility between views about the best decisions one can make to reach specific goals. Cross-impact analysis is proven to give a comprehensive view of the future in the light of the present trends, and it generates the necessary insights that help organisations to take control over the future.

In this study, the following steps were followed for the cross-impact analysis of the drivers/validation points defined above:

- Direct/explicit interconnectedness of these drivers is depicted by use of arrows

- Direct interconnectedness of the drivers is explained in words

- A matrix representing direct interconnectedness of the drivers is drawn to determine their direct influence and dependency, establish which drivers are

directly key in the SADC, and bring forth direct key leadership needs of the SADC

- Indirect/hidden interconnectedness of the drivers is established to determine their hidden influence and dependency, establish drivers that are indirectly key in the SADC and bring forth hidden key leadership need

- A table showing both direct and indirect drivers of the SADC is drawn; any driver that is directly key and indirectly key is selected as the key SADC driver

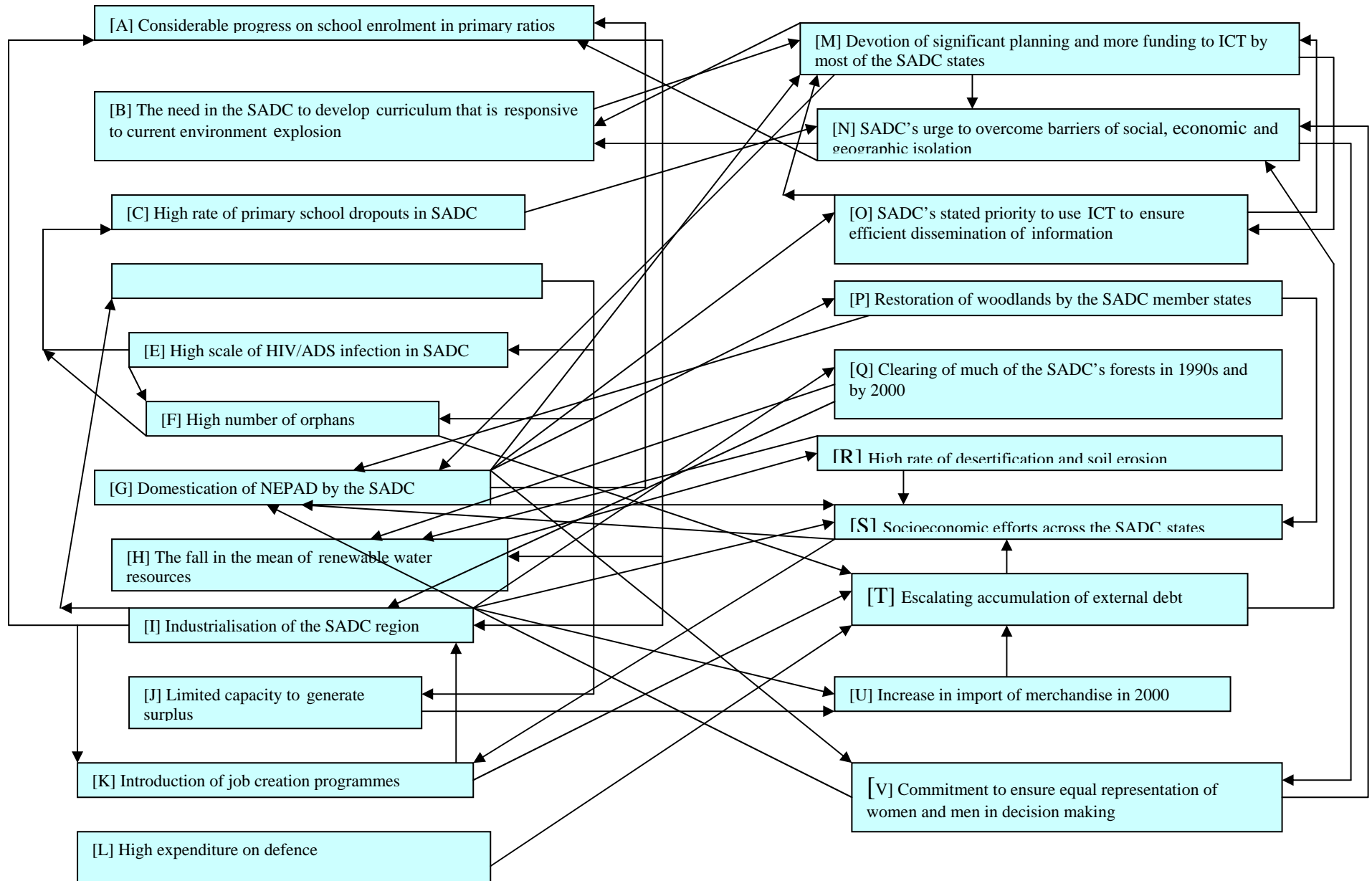- Leadership needs in the SADC are determined based on the identified SADC key drivers

This approach also helps to develop and strengthen foresight capacities that will support strategic responses to the identified key leadership needs in the SADC.

## 4.3 Explicit and hidden interconnectedness of the SADC validation points/drivers

Direct/explicit drivers together with indirect/hidden drivers influence the leadership of the SADC. They are drivers/variables conditioning the evolution of this region's leadership. These drivers are labelled with letters of the alphabet so that the letters can be used to represent them as the discussion progresses.

### 4.3.1 Determining direct/explicit interconnections between the SADC drivers

Figure 4.1 illustrates the direct/explicit interconnections between the SADC drivers that have been identified earlier as validation points for planning assumptions.

[A] Considerable progress on school enrolment in primary ratios

[B] The need in the SADC to develop curriculum that is responsive to current environment explosion

[C] High rate of primary school dropouts in SADC

[E] High scale of HIV/ADS infection in SADC

[F] High number of orphans

[G] Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC

[H] The fall in the mean of renewable water resources

[I] Industrialisation of the SADC region

[J] Limited capacity to generate surplus

[K] Introduction of job creation programmes

[L] High expenditure on defence

[M] Devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC states

[N] SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation

[O] SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information

[P] Restoration of woodlands by the SADC member states

[Q] Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and by 2000

[R] High rate of desertification and soil erosion

[S] Socioeconomic efforts across the SADC states

[T] Escalating accumulation of external debt

[U] Increase in import of merchandise in 2000

[V] Commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision making

203

The diagram presented above is interpreted below with the use of the letters of alphabet representing the variables/drivers and short notes that describe what the diagrams imply.

A ⟶ I
A ⟶ G
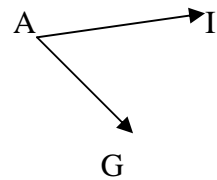
- Progress in school enrolment in primary ratios in the SADC directly influence industrialisation in this region because the more literate people are the more their production in the industry will be, since they are able to read instructions by themselves and avoid causing risks in their work places, and they also become innovative.

- Progress in school enrolment in primary ratios in the SADC also directly influences domestication of NEPAD because the more literate people are the more they are receptive to developmental activities advocated by NEPAD.
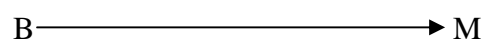
B ⟶ M

- The need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ICT explosion directly influences the allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by the SADC. This kind of curriculum demands the increased use of ICT in all learning institutions within the region.

C ⟶ N
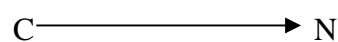
- The high rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC is one of the factors that perpetuate the SADC's social and economic isolation, because illiterate people are unable to participate effectively in global socio-economic activities. Therefore, this driver has a direct influence on the SADC's urge to overcome socio-economic and geographical barriers.

D ⟶ C
D ⟶ E
D ⟶ J
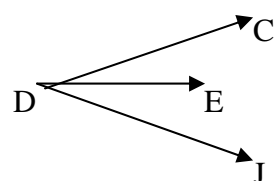
- The high population growth has a direct influence on the high rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC. The more people there are, the more economic demands increase and economic gains decrease. This might be one of the causes of the high rate of dropouts because people cannot afford the financial demands of education.

- The high population growth rate in the SADC increases the chances of HIV/AIDS infection because one infected person is likely to infect and affect many people.

- The high population growth leads to high product consumption, which impedes the SADC's plan to generate surplus products as there is high demand for them.

E → C
E → F
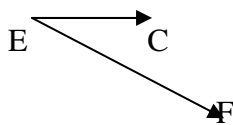
- The high scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC has a direct influence on the high population growth rates in most of this region's member countries because, as more people get sick and eventually die, the economic status of their families deteriorates and financial obligations for education cease to be met.

- It is obvious that the high scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC results in high number of orphans in this region.

F ⇄ C
F → T
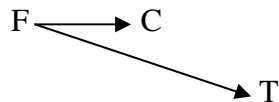
- The high number of orphans in the SADC region directly contributes to the high rate of primary school dropouts because, without parents to support them financially, children usually leave school.

- The high number of orphans contributes to the escalating accumulation of external debt in the SADC because social services offered by governments need high expenditure budgets and sometimes increased subvention from the governments.

G →A
→M
→O
→P
→V
→S
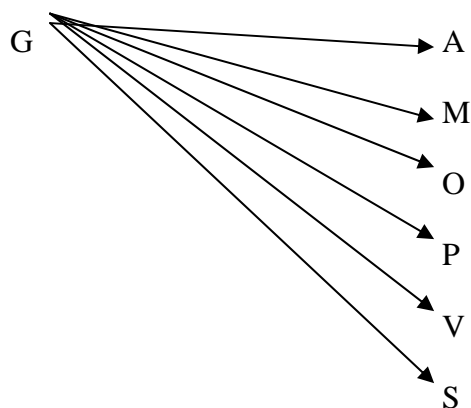
- Considerable progress on school enrolment in primary ratios in the SADC is the direct results of efforts to domesticate NEPAD by the SADC. The SADC has to have an educated labour force if it is to domesticate the NEPAD, and this is witnessed by increase in school enrolment primary ratios.

- One of the direct effects of domestication of NEPAD by the SADC is the allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most countries of this region.

- The SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information is directly influenced by the domestication of NEPAD by the SADC.

- Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC propels this region to engage in sustainable developments such as restoration of woodlands.

- Commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision-making within the SADC is influenced directly by domestication of NEPAD by the SADC.

- Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC has a direct influence on socio-economic efforts across the SADC member countries. In order to domesticate NEPAD, the SADC has to engage in socio-economic adjustments as suggested by the IMF and other international donor bodies.

H ⟶ R.

- A fall in the mean of renewable water resources in the SADC has a direct influence on the high rate of desertification and soil erosion in this region.

```
        K

I ----> D
        A
        Q
        S
        U
```
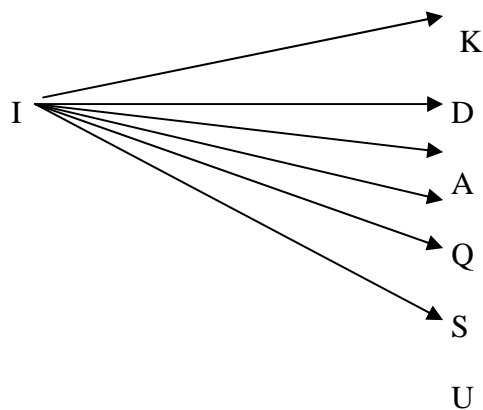
- Industrialisation of the SADC region has a direct influence on the introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC.

- Industrialisation of the SADC region has a direct influence on the high population growth rates in most of the SADC states. As people come to industrialised areas in large numbers, there is also a high rate of population growth as they co-habit and as a result bear other children in addition to their legitimate children left in rural areas.

- As people earn income from industries they are able to send their children to school, hence industrialisation of the SADC has a direct influence on the considerable progress in primary school enrolment ratios.

- Industrialisation of the SADC region has a direct influence on clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000 in this region. This is because forests have to be cleared to provide space for the construction of industries and other infrastructures needed for industrialisation, such as roads and dams.

- Industrialisation of the SADC region propels socio-economic efforts across this region because governments have to privatise industries in an effort to restructure their economies.

- Industrialisation of the SADC region has a direct influence on the increase in the import of merchandise into this region because the SADC has to import materials, equipment and other ingredients used in the production line.

```
J ----> U
```
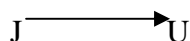
- Because of the SADC's limited capacity to generate surplus, there is an increase in the import of merchandise in the SADC.

K ←——→ T

K → I
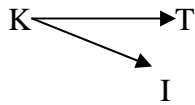
- An introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC has a direct influence on the escalating accumulation of external debt in this region because most countries do not have adequate capital investment and therefore have to borrow from international and regional financial institutions in order to implement.

- Introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC directly influences industrialisation of this region because industrialisation is one mode of job-creation programme.

L ——→ T
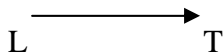
- The high level of expenditure on defence directly influences the escalating accumulation of external debt because countries have to outsource financial resources.

M ——→ G

M ——→ B

M ——→ N

M ——→ O
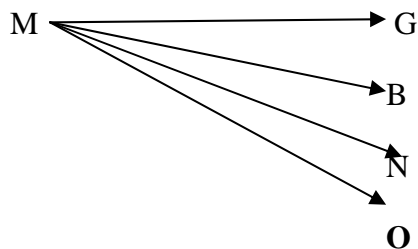
- Allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries indicates that the SADC is domesticating NEPAD.

- Allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries directly influences the need in the SADC countries to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ICT explosion.

- The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation is directly influenced by the allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries – social, economic and geographical barriers can be overcome by use of ICT.

- Allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries directly influences the SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information. The more funding for ICT, the more ICT can be used.

N → M
N → A
N → B
N → V
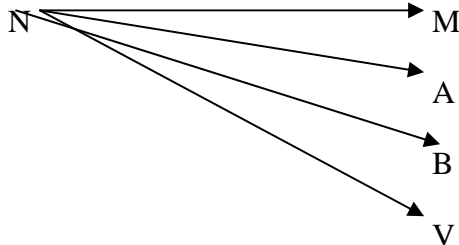
- The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation propels the SADC to allocate significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries.

- The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation leads to considerable progress in primary school enrolment ratios.

- The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation directly influences the need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ICT explosion.

- Commitment to ensure equal representation of men and women in decision-making in the SADC is influenced by the SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social economic and geographic isolation.

O → M
   G
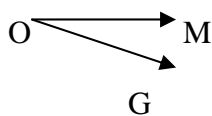
- The SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information directly influences the allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most SADC counties.

- Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC directly influences the SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information.

P → G

S
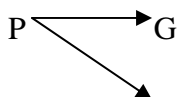
- Restoration of woodlands by the SADC is one of the direct factors propelling domestication of NEPAD by the SADC.

- Socio-economic efforts across the SADC member states are directly influenced, among others, by restoration of woodlands by the SADC member states because this leads to sustainable development.
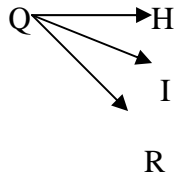
Q → H
Q → I

R

- Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000 directly influences the fall in the mean of renewable water resources.

- Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000 allows for industries to be constructed in the clearing area.

- Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000 directly influences the high rate of desertification and soil erosion in the SADC.

R → H.
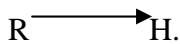
- The high rate of desertification and soil erosion in the SADC directly influences the fall in the mean of renewable water resources.

S → G
S → K
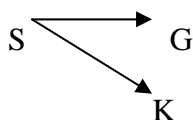
- Socio-economic efforts across the SADC member states directly influence domestication of NEPAD by the SADC.

- Socio-economic efforts across the SADC member states directly influence introduction of job-creation programmes in this region.

T → N
T → S
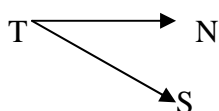
- Escalating accumulation of external debit in 2000 is directly influencing the SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographical isolation.

- Socio-economic efforts across the SADC member states are influenced directly by escalating accumulation of debts for which the SADC are adjusting the economy in order to reduce them.

U   ⟶   T
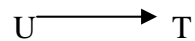
- Increase in import of merchandise in 2000 directly influences the escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000.
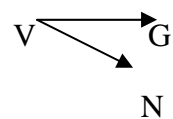
V ⟶ G

     N

- Commitment to ensure equal representation of men and women in decision-making within the SADC directly influences domestication of NEPAD by the SADC.

- Commitment to ensure equal representation of men and women in the SADC decision-making directly influences the SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social economic and geographical isolation.

This information on direct influence among development variables/drivers in the SADC is presented below in a matrix, which provides a better understanding of these relationships in terms of existing influences and dependencies.

Table 4.16: Direct influence matrix for the SADC development variable/drivers

-	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	Total D.I.
A	-	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
B	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
C	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
D	0	0	1	-	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
E	0	0	1	0	-	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
F	0	0	1	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
G	1	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	6
H	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
I	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	-	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	6
J	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
K	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
L	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
M	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	-	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
N	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
O	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
P	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
Q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	1	0	0	0	0	3
R	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	1
S	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	4
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	-	0	0	2
U	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	-	0	1
V	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	2
Total D.D.	3	3	3	1	1	1	6	2	4	1	2	0	4	4	2	1	1	2	4	4	2	2	53

The above matrix shows the important properties of networks or relationships between the SADC development variables/drivers. 1 (one) means that there is a connection/influence/impact between a pair of development drivers, and O (zero) means there is no connection. The number 53 at the bottom right corner of the above matrix indicates the total number of paths or connection that exists between the drivers. The sum of the row (D.I.) represents the total DIRECT INFLUENCE that a specific driver exerts over the SADC. This means, for example, the number "2" at the end of the first row indicates that considerable progress in primary school enrolment ratios in the SADC region has two direct ways to influence other drivers within the region.

On the other hand, the sum of the column (D.D.) represents the total DIRECT DEPENDENCY that a specific driver exerts over the SADC. This means that, for

example, the number "3" at the end of the first column indicates that there are three paths through which the SADC can directly influence the driver "considerable progress in primary school enrolment ratios". Both the sum of the values of the row and the column of the driver provide two indicators, "influence and dependency". Highly influential drivers have the greatest impact on the SADC. Highly dependent drivers are those with most paths over which the SADC can directly exert influence. Development drivers within the SADC are not only influential or dependent. They can also be classified into categories like the following:

Dominant Drivers

Dominants of the SADC are those that have a high level of influence and a low level of dependency; for example, driver "I" which is "industrialisation of the SADC region" can either propel or inhibit the establishment and implementation of the NEPAD LDS in the SADC.

Key Drivers

These are unstable drivers. They have a high level of influence over the SADC and a high level of dependency as well. For example:

- "**G**", which is the "domestication of NEPAD by the SADC"
- "**M**", which is the devolution of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries
- "**N**", which is the SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation
- "**S**", which is the socio-economic restructuring efforts across the member countries

These drivers require careful attention and study since any action on them could have an aggressive effect because of strong linkages with other drivers.

Neighbouring Drivers

These drivers have a medium influence over the SADC and very low dependency. For example:

- "**D**", which is the "high population growth rates in most of the SADC states"

- "**Q**", which is the clearing of much of the SADC's forests in the 1990s and 2000"

These drivers usually remain on the sidelines, but can evolve into dominant drivers, and should therefore be strictly monitored.

Regulating Drivers

These drivers have a medium influence and dependency. For example:

- **"K"**, which is the "introduction of job creation programmes in the SADC"
- "**O**", which is the "SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information"

These drivers play a strong role in the SADC's development and they therefore require attention to avoid possible disruption.

Resultant Drivers

These are very sensitive drivers with a low influence and a medium to strong dependency. For example:

- "**A**", which is the "considerable progress in primary school enrolment ratios"
- "**B**", which is "the need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environmental of ICT explosion"
- "**H**", which is the "the fall in the mean of renewable water resources"
- "**R**", which is "high rate of desertification and soil erosion"
- "**U**", which is the "increase in import of merchandise in 2000"
- "**T**", which is the "escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000"
- "**C**", which is the high rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC"

Autonomous Drivers

These are drivers with a low influence and a low dependency. For example:

- "**J**", which is the "limited capacity to generate surplus"
- "**L**", which is the "high expenditure on defence"
- "**P**", which is the "restoration of woodlands by the nation states"
- "**E**", which is the "high scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC"
- "**F**", which is the "high number of orphans in the SADC"
- "**V**", which is the "commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision-making in the SADC"

These drivers have connections with the SADC that can be very strong.

The process of determining the hidden interconnection between the SADC drivers is discussed below.

4.3.2 Hidden interconnections between the SADC drivers

According to Popper (2002), indirect influence/hidden influence is the wave of effects on the SADC through a chain of nodes of influences. It is a vast, complicated network of hidden influence that distinguishes the number of paths that reach or permit influence on other variables. He further states that it is also proven that the number of times the matrix is multiplied depends on the size of the system being studied, and that systems with more than ten variables reach stable values at the power of seven or eight; $(DIM)^7$ or $(DIM)^8$. For small systems, it is proven that it is usually enough to consider the fourth or fifth power to reach stable values; $(DIM)^4$ or $(DIM)^5$.

The SADC system being studied has twenty-two (22) variables/drivers and therefore the Direct Influence Matrix (DIM) that has been established earlier is raised to the power of seven to reach stable values; $(DIM)^7$. The calculations are as follows:

Table 4.17 Hidden influence matrix for the SADC development variable/drivers.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	Total I.I.
A	151	230	57	30	48	2	371	115	359	0	143	0	127	140	100	62	107	92	175	12	134	107	2565
B	163	84	6	32	5	3	10	31	76	0	74	0	163	32	23	72	121	30	31	94	59	121	1230
C	56	72	16	9	14	0	166	54	145	0	57	0	54	64	49	29	43	29	71	5	52	43	1028
D	86	47	3	16	2	1	60	14	39	0	39	0	94	23	15	32	68	14	75	7	32	68	735
E	49	33	2	10	1	1	48	10	29	0	23	0	57	20	14	25	39	10	45	4	20	39	479
F	108	24	6	22	0	3	107	29	81	0	57	0	111	42	40	52	86	29	103	9	48	86	1038
G	596	350	50	130	32	18	337	140	367	0	325	0	583	180	98	265	479	152	407	138	233	470	5350
H	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
I	338	153	31	83	14	16	195	70	166	0	182	0	312	100	38	145	275	80	287	38	281	127	2931
J	14	5	0	3	0	0	4	1	2	0	5	0	14	1	1	7	11	1	11	1	11	4	96
K	123	145	32	25	22	3	225	73	212	0	95	0	110	86	59	52	89	47	131	9	90	89	1717
L	57	53	5	12	0	2	82	23	67	0	38	0	61	33	23	29	49	23	63	5	33	49	707
M	265	298	58	47	50	3	535	162	483	0	215	0	241	221	161	119	198	142	288	24	185	196	3891
N	532	193	23	87	14	11	146	80	206	0	204	0	382	104	62	181	317	87	224	102	320	151	3443
O	248	222	36	49	31	4	238	97	286	0	160	0	241	119	87	111	188	98	138	102	136	188	2779
P	320	139	44	50	34	6	302	97	283	0	158	0	208	115	76	97	177	101	233	21	130	178	2769
Q	66	92	27	13	22	1	143	49	149	0	57	0	49	53	36	23	40	25	68	4	57	40	1014
R	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
S	220	257	65	43	53	5	445	139	431	0	180	0	177	193	130	85	148	118	232	17	163	148	3249
T	191	143	30	42	22	5	240	85	218	0	129	0	184	92	61	87	163	62	197	18	105	154	2228
U	57	53	5	12	0	2	82	23	67	0	38	0	61	33	23	29	49	23	63	5	33	49	707
V	141	210	46	26	40	1	394	120	355	0	143	0	132	151	113	68	110	97	178	13	129	110	2577
Total I.D.	3776	2803	542	741	404	87	4130	1413	4021	0	2322	0	3361	1802	1209	1570	2757	1261	3020	645	2251	2417	40532

NOTE:

I.I. denotes Indirect/Hidden Influence

I.D. denotes Indirect/Hidden Dependency

From the above calculations, the following hidden interactions between the SADC drivers are established.

Dominant hidden drivers are:

- "**O**", which is the SADC's stated " priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information"

- "**P**", which is the "restoration of woodlands by the SADC nation states"

These drivers have a high hidden level of influence and a low hidden level of dependency.

Key hidden drivers are:

- "**A**", which is the "considerable progress in the primary school enrolment ratio"

- "**M**", which is the "devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries"

- "**G**", which is the "domestication of NEPAD by the SADC"

- "**S**", which is the "socio-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member countries"

- "**I**" which is "Industrialization of the SADC region."

- "**N**", which is the "SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation"

Neighbouring hidden drivers are:

- "**C**", which is the "high rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC"

- "**F**", which is the "high number of orphans in the SADC"

- "**T**", which is "escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000"

These are drivers with a hidden medium influence and a very low hidden dependency.

Regulating hidden drivers are:

- "**K**", which is the "introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC"

- "**Q**", which is the "clearing of much of the SADC's forests in the 1990s and 2000"

- "**V**", which is the "commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision-making in the SADC"

These drivers have a medium hidden influence and dependency.

Resultant hidden drivers are:

- "**B**", which is "the need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ITC explosion"

- "**H**", which is "the fall in the mean of renewable water resources"

- "**R**", which is the "high rate of desertification and soil erosion in the SADC"

- "**U**", which is the "increase in import of merchandise in 2000"

- "**N**", which is "the SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation"

These drivers have a low hidden influence and a medium to strong hidden dependency.

Autonomous hidden drivers are:

- "**D**", which is the "high population growth rates in most of the SADC states"

- "**E**", which is the high scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC"

- "**J**", which is the "limited capacity to generate surplus"

- "**L**", which is the "high expenditure on defence in the SADC"

These drivers have a low hidden influence and a low hidden dependency.

The main purpose of determining the explicit/direct and hidden interconnection between the SADC drivers is to identify key areas towards which the NEPAD LDS in the SADC should be oriented in future. Table 4.18 is the summary

presentation of explicit/direct and hidden interconnection between the SADC drivers and their typologies.

Table 4.18: List of the SADC development drivers and their hidden and explicit classification and typologies.

VARIABLES/DRIVERS	EXPLICIT	HIDDEN
A. Considerable progress on school enrolment	Resultant	Resultant
B. The need in the SADC to develop a curriculum that is responsive to the current environment of ICT explosion	Resultant	Resultant
C. High rate of primary school dropouts in the SADC	Resultant	Neighbouring
D. High population growth rates in most of the SADC states	Neighbouring	Autonomous
E. High scale of HIV/AIDS infection in the SADC	Autonomous	Autonomous
F. High number of orphans in the SADC	Autonomous	Neighbouring
G. Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC	**Key**	**Key**
H. The fall in the mean of renewable water resource	Resultant	Resultant
I. Industrialisation of the SADC region	Dominant	Key
J. Limited capacity to generate surplus	Autonomous	Autonomous
K. Introduction of job-creation programmes in the SADC	Regulating	Regulating
L. High expenditure on defence	Autonomous	Autonomous
M. Devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries	**Key**	**Key**
N. The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographic isolation	**Key**	**Key**
O. The SADC's stated priority to use ICT to ensure efficient dissemination of information	Regulating	Dominant

P. Restoration of woodlands by the SADC nations	Autonomous	Dominant
Q. Clearing of much of the SADC's forests in 1990s and 2000	Neighbouring	Regulating
R. High rate of desertification and soil erosion in the SADC	Resultant	Resultant
S. Socio economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member countries	**Key**	**Key**
T. Escalating accumulation of external debt in 2000	Resultant	Neighbouring
U. Increase in import of merchandise in 2000	Autonomous	Resultant
V. Commitment to ensure equal representation of women and men in decision-making in the SADC	Resultant	Resultant

The above analysis will provide the SADC decision-makers with an overall picture of the types of dependencies and influences among the drivers of this region. This analysis could also be used to detect whether the SADC is stable. It has been established that the stability of a system is achieved when there is a relatively low number of key drivers and a representative number of dominant drivers.

4.3.3 Determining key leadership needs through identified SADC key development drivers

The following four key drivers emerged as a result of the above classification and analysis:

- "**G**", which is the "domestication of NEPAD by the SADC"

- "**M**", which is the "devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries"

- "**N**", which is the "SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geography isolation"

- "**S**", which is the "socio-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member states"

These drivers have a high level of influence and a high level of dependency, and therefore require careful attention because they have strong linkage with other drivers. As indicated earlier in this chapter, these drivers are validation points for the perceived planning assumptions for the SADC. The following table therefore shows the key leadership needs that are revealed from the identified key leadership drivers. The planning assumptions that validate these key leadership drivers are used in the justification of the revealed key leadership needs of the SADC.

Table: 4.19 The revealed SADC key leadership needs and their justification

SADC key drivers	SADC key leadership needs revealed	Justification for key leadership needs
Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC	• Ability to align external partnerships to regional priorities and integrate operations into regional systems and processes • Ability to tap and release capacity of domestic private sector, develop specialised advocacy, promote innovation, establish and maintain long-term economic partnerships, and ensure that people of this region are committed to domestication of NEPAD • Strong political leadership, culture of accountability, well functioning institutions and democratic processes, and favourable political conditions for development	Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC is the key driver that validates the SADC planning assumption that "ICT will improve efficiency in the conduct of trade transaction in the SADC". ICT in the SADC remains minimal at the moment; yet, at this time of globalisation, trade transactions that can advance social and economic development are made by mode of electronic commerce. Therefore, the SADC's efforts to domesticate NEPAD compels this region to collaborate more closely with other development partners, because NEPAD advocates for enhanced opportunities to work and learn from each other. Domestication of NEPAD by the SADC will facilitate exploitation of ICTs by learning through new collaborative initiatives, such as networks of excellence and integrated projects, and by bringing together many players from partnering bodies. This can advance social and economic development in the SADC, because this will allow this region greater access to human, technical and financial resources to carry out and implement ICT activities. Therefore, the revealed key leadership needs are to be addressed.

Allocation of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries	• Conscientisation about technological changes; that by themselves do not modify social institutions and human behaviour • Expertise to deal with direct negative employment destruction effects of ICTs, as well as positive employment-creating effects of ICTs • Investments in skills and major transformation in this region, so that ICTs can contribute more to the provision of goods and services	Devotion of significant planning and more funding to ICT by most of the SADC countries is a key driver that validates the SADC planning assumption that "many technological advances will open up new areas of economic activity, particularly in service sector sin the SADC". It was noted in the analysis of technological trends in the SADC that a number of SADC member countries are making important strides in promoting ICT; they have embarked upon national processes and projects to formulate and implement ICT policies and strategies. This implies that the success of their activities rely more on the human skills required to complement ICTs, because ICTs demand unique human skills, such as conceptual and interpersonal management and communication skills. Therefore, as ICTs open up new areas of economic activity in the SADC service sector, they will create a relative shortage of implicit knowledge, hence the revealed key leadership needs in this region.
The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographical isolation	• Knowledge and understanding of the context of development in the 21st century and that of globalisation • Skills to deal with the impacts relating to the	The SADC's urge to overcome barriers of social, economic and geographical isolation is the SADC's key driver that validates the planning assumption that "it will be urgent for the SADC to attain, accommodate and manage higher levels of technology". In the SADC, ICTs need to be seen within the wider context of what is called the "digital divide"

	emergence of a global economic system, global competition, organisation and rationalisation of economic activity • Ability to compete successfully by increasing regional specialisations and demand substantial, on-going structural adjustment	that separates the developed and the developing countries. It was noted in the STEEP analysis of the SADC that this region has the urge to overcome social, economic and geographical isolation, part of which is brought about by the digital gap. Member countries of the SADC have to create supportive framework to facilitate technology transfer, including the mobilisation of internal resources for development. Therefore, the leadership of this region has the revealed key needs in this regard.
Socio-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member states	• Ability to deal with inadequate external support and maintain an essential minimum of investment in key areas • Expertise in designing and implementing viable socio-economic structural adjustment programmes	"Socio-economic restructuring efforts across the SADC member states" is the SADC's key driver that validates the planning assumption that "several positive conditions will come into being for strengthening regional economic cooperation". The economic weakness in the SADC as observed in the STEEP analysis compels the SADC to develop a regional identity that is optimal for economic development. Hence, these key leadership needs are revealed.

Observing these tabulated key leadership needs of the SADC, another need emerges, namely that the solution to the identified key leadership needs could be easily attained if the leadership of this region were to subscribe to good governance, the entrenchment of democracy, peace and security, sound economic policy-making, execution of productive strategic partnerships and the development of domestic ownership of the intervention designed as a response to the needs. All these are the core principles of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). The following section discusses NEPAD and its envisaged relationship to the NEPAD LDS. NEPAD

has been identified as another key variable that has to form the basis of the NEPAD LDS. Hence the need for the discussion that follows.

4.4 New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

By subscribing to the NEPAD and employing good governance, the SADC leadership will be able to **align external partnerships to regional priorities and integrate operations into regional systems and processes**. Employing good governance practices will also lead to relative economic growth. This might spur the expansion of the private sector and in turn enable leaders of this region to **tap and release the capacity of the domestic private sector, develop specialised advocacy, promote innovation, establish and maintain long-term economic partnerships, and ensure that people of this region are committed to the domestication of NEPAD.**

NEPAD ownership through entrenchment of democracy, peace and security will enable the leadership of the SADC to enforce **strong political leadership, a culture of accountability, well-functioning institutions and democratic processes, and favourable political conditions for development.** Entrenchment of democracy, peace and security will also create a culture of peace, social cohesion and sustainability in this region.

From the analysis of the economic trends in the SADC, it is observed that a weakness in economic institutions in the region prevails due to the unavailability of leaders to provide an efficient and effective pool of resources. However, if this region can subscribe to the NEPAD and employ sound economic policy-making and execution, it will be able to **conscientise people about technological changes that by themselves do not modify social institutions and human behaviour, develop expertise to deal with the direct negative employment destruction effects of ICTs as well as the positive employment-creating effects of ICTs, and invest in skills and major transformation in this region so that ICTs can contribute more to the provision of goods and services.**

One of the core principles of NEPAD is the execution of productive and strategic partnerships. If the SADC can adopt this principle, leaders of this region will be able to

generate knowledge and understanding of the context of development in the 21ˢᵗ century and of globalisation, develop skills to deal with the impacts relating to the emergence of a global economic system, global competition, organisation and rationalisation of economic activity, be able to compete successfully by increasing regional specialisations, and demand substantial, on-going structural adjustment.

If the SADC leaders can own the NEPAD, they will be able **to deal with inadequate external support, maintain an essential minimum of investment in key areas and develop expertise in designing and implementing viable socio-economic structural adjustment programmes**, because they will be able to align this region to the NEPAD goals and objectives, thus achieving sustainable development.

This implies that the leadership development that is designed to respond to the identified key leadership needs should be NEPAD-based if it is to achieve the desired results. The importance of making the core NEPAD principles the basis of the envisaged leadership development programme is discussed below.

4.4.1 Good governance

Good governance, according to the Secretary-General UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (1991), has been variously defined in different settings. Sometimes it has been used to refer to a public service that is efficient, a judicial system that is reliable and an administration that is accountable to its public. At other times, good governance has been defined to include, at one level, the accountability of leaders to their peoples, the establishment and proper enforcement of transparent legal framework, respect for the rule of law and due processes, independence of the judiciary, a pluralistic institutional structure, popular participation and the protection of human rights and the press. At another level, good governance includes the transparency of public transactions, the proper administration of funds, the reform of the civil service, the streamlining of administrative regulations, the overhauling of procurement procedures and independent public auditing systems. According to (Madavo, 2001 cited in the World Bank Group 2004),

A quantum improvement in governance is needed. By governance I mean both the way that key institutions function and the role they play in an economy – not only the execution branch of the government, but the judiciary and the parliament as well – and the processes by which people can better participate in the development.

Successful maintenance of good governance in the SADC will ensure stability in the region, and the reasonably steady development and achievement of self-reliance and relative freedom from world economic fluctuation.

Governance is ultimately concerned with creating ordered rule and collective actions. In this respect, governance is about processes and refers to the development of governing styles in which boundaries between and within public and private sectors have become blurred. (TWN Africa, 2003:5)

Good governance in the SADC should therefore be considered as a constructive enterprise of enhancing leadership in this region.

If good governance in the SADC is to be meaningful, it has to permeate to the lowest levels, such as villages, districts and other intermediate units. Popular participation should be incorporated systematically and local institution should be shaped because semi-imposed changes often create uncertainties and even instability and disorder. Values and norms brought by such changes pose challenges to the traditional values of people, who tend to welcome change if it maintains stability and order.

The practice of good governance in the SADC will have a great impact on local economies, because local economic bodies can continue to operate alongside national and regional economic bodies. In this way, the SADC will be moving into the 21st century not as an isolated region but will rapidly integrate into global economy. However, as Schmitz and Moore (1995:69) point out:

Economic and social progresses are not the only objectives of good governance; civil liberty and the ability to participate in an apolitical system can also be considered as elements of a full and meaningful life

226

that should contribute to the well-being of individuals and the development of societies.

Therefore, the SADC needs to implement a continuous series of economic reforms if good governance is to be realised in the coming years. Such a series of economic reforms will eventually reduce authoritarian residues left by colonial structures and values. This calls for the establishment of strategic management as part of good governance.

The managerial weakness plaguing many public institutions in the SADC include the inability of leaders to plan ahead, analyse the costs and benefits of decisions, anticipate development in the environment and take the necessary pre-emptive decisions, deploy, utilise and evaluate human and material resources, pioneer innovation and motivate above-average performance. Leaders in this region will have to integrate economics, politics and technology into a framework and use unconventional tools of analysis to generate possible scenarios of regional failure and their consequences for development. Strategic management will consist of all the competitive actions and approaches that SADC leaders can employ in running this organisation.

Good governance requires ethical considerations because it involves adjusting the patterns of social organisation and operations to new knowledge, and this will depend on making important changes in the skills and personalities of people. A significant challenge that the SADC may face in its attempt to respond to the identified key leadership needs is in restoring the ethical behaviour of its citizens and especially its leaders, which involves the way they think and act. Just as a democratic personality is needed for democracy, certain personality traits and skills, such as ethical behaviour, human values and democratic ideals, must be widespread among SADC leaders. Achieving such changes in individual thought and action will require an extensive developmental learning programme.

Ethics is defined as the formal study of the principles of right and wrong. In other words, ethics is the discipline that deals with what is good and bad, and with moral duty and obligation. It is a set of moral principles or values. The concept of right and wrong includes more difficult and subtle questions of fairness, justice and equity. Therefore, the

SADC leadership has to be concerned with what constitutes good/bad and right/wrong behaviour in the region. The efficiency of the public service in the SADC does not only depend on technical expertise, but on ethical practices as well. Leaders of these regions have to subscribe to tenets and values of efficient leadership and of good governance.

In addition to emphasising shared values, SADC leaders must build a strong ethical climate within the region. Ethical climates start with shared values and operational meanings: How do we go about getting things done? Wartic and Wood (1998:168) define an ethical climate as follows: "Like corporate cultures, ethical climates help to provide company identities, support mission and strategic change, help to resolve crisis and provide guidance in routine decisions."

This indicates that an ethical climate has a major role to play in good governance and, if not well established, can account for a substantial portion of domestic political corruption, which is harmful to the economy of the SADC and can disrupt the realisation of NEPAD goals in the SADC. Stopping the dangerous rise of corruption should become a top priority for the SADC leadership if they hope to achieve NEPAD goals, especially good governance. According to Thomas Hausen (2000:8),

> The term corruption is commonly used to describe a wide range of social conducts, which are condemned and rejected by societies all over the world as dishonourable, harmful and evil … corruption refers to a wide range of irregularities ranging from creating of simple personal favours, lack of objectivity in the decision making or simple cases of misadministration to severe conspiracies, which can sabotage the well-being of a nation.

Politicians' and civil servants' lack of accountability plays a major role in preventing sustainable economic development from taking root in the SADC. To achieve economic sustainability, the SADC must deal with political corruption. Gyekye (1997:192) describes political corruption as a kind of corruption that involves rulers and other public officials who run the affairs of a state or a political community. He defines it as the illegal, unethical and unauthorised exploitation of one's political or official position for

personal gain or advantage. Another definition of corruption is by "Centre for International Public Enterprise" (1998:1): "Corruption is theft from the nation. It robs people of their potential and aspirations for a brighter future: a better education, a better health … It destabilises the rule of law … It also fuels transnational crimes and threatens our collective security." Political corruption is thus an act of corruption perpetuated against the state or its agencies by a person holding an official position in pursuit of his own private or personal profit.

The SADC leadership should therefore undertake programmes that will promote greater accountability because the costs of corruption are unacceptable. The SADC leaders should demand immediate concerted action because good governance is fundamental to economic growth and political stability, which are core issues of NEPAD. Solutions must focus on the underlying economic, political and institutional causes of corruption. All stakeholders must be involved in developing mutually supportive systems. Long-term sustainable programmes must comprise a host of economic reforms, such as deregulation, privatisation, transparency and institution building, as well as a wide range of preventive and enforcement measures, such as the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM). In order for these systems to be self-sustaining, public officials and the public in general must be committed to reducing corruption. These measures will bring about a moral revolution among the SADC leaders.

The SADC can be an amoral organisation because of shortcoming in ethical reasoning. Amoral organisations are driven by technical and commercial values only, demanding efficient and skilled operations only. These organisations lack moral values because there is an imbalance between efficiency values and ethical values. Such organisations are unaware of or insensitive to areas where people are likely to be hurt. They do not consider the moral evaluation of the issue. Good governance however requires a clear understanding of the relationships between the organisations and its stakeholders. The challenge to SADC leaders is therefore not simply to ensure that all elements of good governance are effectively in place, but to understand and integrate the principles of good governance as a coherent and comprehensive organisational strategy. Thus, people need to know what role they are expected to play so that they can eradicate the sources of

corruption in the SADC and promote the entrenchment of democracy, peace and security, which are the cornerstones of NEPAD. What follows is the description of how the entrenchment of democracy, peace and security can help the SADC gain good governance.

4.4.2 Entrenchment of democracy, peace and security

The entrenchment of democracy, peace and security is a significant challenge to the SADC because of its authoritarian political heritage from colonialism. There are fewer democratic precedents to analyse than found in the rest of Africa. During colonialism, viable democratic rule had been virtually absent. Therefore, the SADC's democratic experiments have historically proven ineffective. The independence of the SADC member countries brought neither full democracy nor stabilisation because national conflicts are most prevalent in some of these countries. Lack of stability has crippled hopes for economic growth, which in turn has contributed to further instability in some of these countries.

Colonialism did not offer a setting conducive to democratic political systems. Most areas in the SADC must deal with poverty, ethnic diversity and complex developmental problems. According to Mayor and Binde (1999:94),

> Under these conditions, SADC's present may merely be a prelude to tragedy since that which is economically feasible may not be politically feasible. The successful consolidation of democracy may thus depend on easing of internationally defined constraints within which the region has to meet that challenge.

The special properties of democracy in the SADC should therefore be understood within a process of combined political, social and economic development. Unlike the historically established democracies, which benefited from a sequence of social mobilisation and economic development preceding political democratisation, democratic systems in the SADC have the inevitable task of simultaneously developing the policy, the economy, the society and the security. Goucha and Cilliers (2001:28) indicate that the

SADC is characterised by the following strategic features, which provide a good argument for the creation of a common security agenda:

- First, almost the major threats to the security of people and states derive from internal rather than external factors

- Second, the most serious security problems are political, social, economic and environmental rather than military in origin and character

NEPAD advocates that political institutions must be created or strengthened in the pursuit of democracy. Therefore, the SADC leadership will have to establish local understanding and legitimacy of the institutions. Consequently, institutions inherited by the SADC member countries from colonialism but considered worthwhile should be appropriated, domesticated and allowed to acquire roots in the indigenous culture of this region. These will in time acquire legitimacy as their virtues and relevance come to be appreciated by people. As a result of this process, peace will prevail in the SADC as people practice the political values of consultation and consensus, thus leading to inclusion in all decision-making. A relationship of mutual benefit among people will also prevail in which conflicts are dealt with non-violently.

The SADC leaders have a role in maintaining and promoting peace in this region. They have to transcend political agendas and build the political will to significantly reduce the human cost of violence. According to Goucha and Cilliers (2001:30), "SADC adopted the strategies of disarmament, the peaceful resolution of conflict and institutional development as a foundation on which peace, human security and conflict prevention should be built." To change the attitudes and beliefs of these leaders will have to take a region-wide leadership-training programme. The SADC leadership should constitute a declaration in which they establish a culture of peace as a priority because the attainment of this culture will benefit everyone. However, the achievement of this culture does not reside with the leaders alone, but also with other institutions such as governments. Governments must be relied upon, be truthful, fair and build relationships, and strive for the benefit of all concerned. But without justice, there can be no peace in the SADC. There must be reliable and proactive conflict resolution systems put in place if peace is to

be achieved, as is indicated by the "Korean National Commission for UNESCO" (1997:88): "In order for democracy to work successfully, there must be institutions that not only behave in a socially rational manner … but also promote and defend it."

The threats to human security in the SADC are attributed to growing human distress, weakening social fabrics, rising crime rates and the spread of narcotics and drugs, and a sense of individual isolation. Of late, these threats to human security are no longer local or regional, but global, with HIV/AIDS, pollutions, nuclear production and terrorism. As regards terrorism, the "Institute of Security Studies" (2001:15) argues as follows:

> Eradicating terrorism requires a firm commitment and joint action by member states to pursue common objectives. This includes measures to establish a regional approach to counter terrorism within a broader international strategic measures to counter financing if terrorism …

Nevertheless, feelings of insecurity arise from worries about daily life more than from the threat of a catastrophic world event. Human security is therefore concerned with how people live in a society, how they freely exercise their many choices, how much access to economic and social opportunities they have, and whether they live in conflict or in peace. According to the "Institute of Security Studies" (2001:91),

> Our concern with human security provides space for community-based approaches to building stability and a host of initiatives between this and international responses and initiative … Our focus in human security attempts to lengthen the time-scale within which security concerns are adopted and broaden the scope beyond purely military security.

The concept of security has therefore changed from being exclusively about territorial security to being more concerned with people's security through sustainable human development. The UNDP Human Development Report (1994:24-33) lists threats to human security under the following main categories:

- Economic security that requires an assured basic income from public safety nets and remunerative work or production;

- Food security, which means that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to basic food;

- Health security, especially relating to HIV/AIDS, because more deaths of people in developing countries are linked to poor nutrition and unsafe environment, while in industrialised countries major killers are circulatory systems;

- Environmental security, such as degradation of local ecosystems and global systems, such as water scarcity;

- Personal security because human life is increasingly threatened by sudden and unpredictable violence;

- Community security because most people derive security from their membership in a group, a family, a community or ethnic group that can provide a cultural identity and a reassuring set of values; and

- Political security because people should live in society that honours their basic human rights.

This implies that the political welfare of leaders in the SADC is crucial because insecurity is a major constraint on development progress in this region. Insecurity can bring about conflict among people, which accounts for the need to develop conflict management mechanisms as part of the entrenchment of democracy, peace and security in the SADC.

The consultation document of the "Africa Policy and Economic Department of the British Government" (2001) indicates four distinct types of conflict:

- Conventional warfare, which is fought with regular troops along a defined series of fronts. Targets and objectives are primarily military.

- Factional warfare, which has rarely defined front lines and fighting, is opportunistic rather than strategic.

- Genocide and ethnic-based conflict, which involve the virulent use of propaganda and displacement, fear and confusion.

- Regional conflict, whereby conventional state forces are frequently engaged at key installations and may find themselves in intensive warfare with other states.

The root causes of conflict are said to be inequality, state collapse, economic decline and economic shock, history and natural resources. Inequality between groups is probably the foremost cause of conflict. Unequal access to power and the lack of access to resources and revenue also perpetuate conflict. Collapse of state institutions can also cause internal and regional conflict. Governments that operate through coercion, corruption and personality politics to secure political power and control of resources characterise collapse. Continuous economic decline also plays a role in state collapse and conflict. This suggests that past patterns of conflict is one of the predictors of future conflict. Conflicts usually occur where there is a tradition of resolving problems by violent means. In the following table, an overview of the chronology of conflict in the SADC is given, extracted from the Department for International Development (2001:23):

Table 4.20: Chronology of conflict in the SADC

Year	Country	Name Of Conflict	Type Of Conflict
1948-1994	South Africa	Anti-Apartheid Struggle	Internal
1960-1965 1997-	DRC	Post- Independence War Civil War	Internal Regional
1961-1974 1992-	Angola	Independence War Second War with UNITA	Independence Internal
1964-1975 1975-1991	Mozambique	Independence War War with RENAMO	Independence Internal
1965-1980	Zimbabwe	Struggle for Majority Rule	Independence
1966-1990 1966	Namibia	Liberation War Caprivi Strip Secession	Independence Internal/Regional

On the other hand, "Development and Cooperation" (2002) argues that the causes and triggers of conflict are complex. It lists the following factors as the ones that have proved to be especially likely to lead to conflicts:

- o Socio-economic inequalities

- o The absence of opportunities for political participation

- o Fragile government structures

- o Inadequate civil structures

- o Political violence and repression

- o Competition for scarce resources (land, water, etc.)

If the SADC is to entrench democracy, peace and security, it has to abolish political cleavages, especially that of ethnicity, because it can deeply divide societies within the region. According to the "World Institute for Development Economic Research" (2002), "Where social justice is pervasive and people have no say in the political process, poverty can trigger social upheaval, ultimately the kind of sustained violence that puts brakes on growth."

Ethnicity pre-determines who is to be included and excluded from power and resources, which can pose serious problems for democratic rule. Since ethnicity describes any highly inclusive, distinctive group identity based on culture and common origin, the capacity for violent conflict between ethnic groups who differ from each other in terms of culture and common origin is self-evident. "UNHCR FOCUS newsletter" (1993:9) argues that "ethnic conflicts are usually not just disputes about tangible objectives such as political control and access to employment, but also involves powerful xenophobic and ethnocentric feelings and symbols and the resulting scapegoating and stereotyping."

The SADC should work hard to reduce the inequality among its societies. The SADC member countries have to accept the ethnic mix of populations that they govern. They should respect diversity and encourage equality of opportunity, while at the same time promoting the interests of the disadvantaged groups. In this way, they will be engaged in promoting sound economic policy-making and execution.

4.4.3 Sound economic policy-making and execution

The SADC is in deep economic crisis due to several factors, such as slow agricultural performance, serious balance of payments and fiscal problems, as well as rapid rates of population growth. Social factors that contribute to this economic disaster are increasing unemployment rates and environmental problems like deforestation. Reasons behind this crisis can be attributed to misdirected economic policies, which have in some countries not generated the expected responses or the responses have been too weak to achieve the intended goals.

The SADC can be poised to enter the world economy if well-focused and pragmatic economic policies were developed by leaders whose economic demands are like those of foreign investors, namely good governance and effective institutional support. Any policy system aimed at promoting and regulating development should have a strong local focus, and local responsibility should be its main feature. According to Schmitz and Moore (1995:66),

> The problem is that the deepening crises of the conventional economic paradigm seem paradoxically to have reinforced the tyranny of the economy-driven solutions … It is a matter of economic necessity and politics of globalisation … and a search for socially-governed alternatives.

The SADC needs leaders who can turn this region into a "developmental region" with a stronger capacity to formulate and implement economic policies, and with leaders who are in a position to manage their economic competitiveness and integrate into the global economy. Therefore, the building up of the SADC's economic institutions is as vital as good governance. The SADC must create strong economic institutions that can deliver on their political and economic mandates and should produce leaders who share with people the consequences of their policies and actions.

The capacity of leaders and the capacity of institutions in the SADC region must therefore be developed, because previous failure of economic policies could be attributed to the narrow view of capacity that had been used. Important dimensions of capacity building are often lacking at the level of policy-making or in supporting processes and

regulations. If these dimensions of capacity building are not addressed, the chances of successfully developing and implementing a sustainable economic policy are diminished. Therefore, capacity building should be considered in the development and implementation of economic policy if the SADC is to achieve NEPAD goals.

Another strategy necessary for achieving sustainability is delegation to and empowerment of those responsible for the production and delivery of outputs. Regulatory and legislative environments that are flexible should also be maintained because they allow entities to adapt quickly to changing circumstances. The transparency and accountability of decision-making processes at all levels of the SADC should also be strengthened. Similarly, sharing of information with stakeholders is vital if the SADC is to realise NEPAD goals through the development of sustainability plans. Above all, education and training, including skill development, retraining, continuous learning, on the job training, mentoring and coaching, are key to sustainability, which is built through productive strategic partnerships.

4.4.4 Executing productive and strategic partnerships

The key word in NEPAD is "PARTNERSHIPS" and partnerships are often characterised by a mixture of formal and informal relationships working in synergy with one another. This means that these kinds of relationships do not join partners hierarchically, but rather based on equality. Therefore, they are able to seize opportunities to the benefit of the overall partnership because the focus is not on "What is in it for me?" but "What is the value we are creating together?"

NEPAD does not only advocate "partnerships" but "PRODUCTIVE AND STRATEGIC PARTNERSHIPS". Productive partnerships take many forms, from networking and collaboration to formal partner agreements. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:7),

> There is a growing recognition that development strategies have to go
> beyond macroeconomic management and incorporate governance and
> human and social development objectives in a comprehensive approach

… Through partnerships and local leadership, developing countries can do more to improve a lot of their people.

Here one potential partner could collaborate with another and take advantage of their focus and expertise to fill gaps in their similar programmes. Alternatively, one potential partner could identify an entity trying to accomplish similar goals and combine resources for everyone's benefit. A potential partner could work regionally with similar entities to develop pathways, markets and exposure. There are countless opportunities for forging productive partnerships that benefit the partner entities, but the key to productive partnerships is to understand what one partner wants and needs from the other partner, and what one partner has to offer that the other one values.

The strategic partnerships, on the other hand, are partnerships that bring together different parts of the public, private, community and voluntary sectors. Strategic partnerships are key to tackling deep-seated, multi-faceted problems requiring a range of responses from different bodies. Therefore, strategic partnerships are central to the realisation of NEPAD goals and must be established throughout the SADC region because their aim is to improve the delivery of services to people in innovative ways. Strategic partnerships will have greater chances of success in the SADC because collaboration will lead to progress in delivering sustainable economic, social and physical regeneration, or improved public services that meet the needs of local people. A combination of organisations and communities working co-operatively as part of strategic partnerships is crucial for the SADC's development. The main aim of strategic partnerships is to deliver economic prosperity and safe-communities through harnessing the power of all sectors.

It is evident that the productive partnerships and strategic partnerships are also "SMART PARTNERSHIPS". The smart partnership framework enables partners to interact with one another on issues that are more specific and focused. These partnerships are characterised by the active participation of government and the private sector. They effectively bring together partners that differ in their expertise and background to improve their economy. These partnerships are based on a win-win relationship. Any

weaker partner is not disadvantaged because partners bring complementary attributes to a transaction.

The SADC leadership will have to seek these kinds of partnerships between it and external partners based on mutual accountability and responsibility. The SADC leadership should forge these partnerships based on reciprocal commitments among its member states, the private sector within and outside the SADC, donor governments and multilateral institutions. This will be an attempt to trigger sustainable development in the SADC and to reintegrate the region into the global economy. Such partnerships will provide a framework for the SADC member countries to do business in national, regional and international countries, which will promote productivity in this region. Mbeki (1999:26) defines these partnerships as follows:

> What I am talking about is partnership between major stakeholders on growth and development. One of the fundamental approaches of a government of national unity is to ensure that development takes place in a way that empowers people and communities, and enables them to take control of their own development. We believe that it must be taken forward through a concrete set of partnerships around local projects in which local authorities, the private sector, the communities and organized labour have a role to play.

Such partnerships must therefore be based on a spirit of "give and take", mutual respect and trust, and a shared vision. According to Rackam (1996:98), "in successful partnerships vision exists as a tangible guidance: mechanism one that provides direction to both parties and helps them accomplish large goals." The achievement of goals implies increased productivity with the partnering entities.

Raising Africa's growth in productivity is a principal aim of NEPAD. Productivity is usually defined as a relationship between the input, output and time involved. It is also associated with efficiency and marketing. A range of subjects are included in the definition of productivity, such as technologies, quality, management

systems, production policies, industrial relations, organisational climate, quality of working life and job skills.

Therefore, if the SADC is to increase its productivity, it must pay more attention to investing in information and communication technology. These technologies will increase productivity and empower people in this region, which is an important function of economic development.

> There are many definitions of empowerment: participation, voice, inclusion and access to political and civic liberties and information among others … Empowerment is taken to mean all these, including the ability to manage assets, influence decisions, enter into contracts and raise financial resources. (Kochendofer-Lucius & Pleskovic, 1999:160)

Empowerment entails the act of building, developing and increasing power through cooperation, sharing and working together. It is an interactive process that enlarges power in people as opposed to merely distributing it. Empowerment is a good approach to re-think productivity in the SADC, which makes it necessary for the SADC leadership to focus on the empowerment of people as a crucial requirement for productivity and the realisation of NEPAD goals. Empowerment in this context will mean that people have access to productive resources that will enable them to increase their productivity and to participate in the development processes and decisions that affect them. Thus, as Schmitz and Moore suggest, "Perhaps trade liberalisation and economic integration can be linked to democratic social reforms benefiting popular majorities." When economic reforms benefit the popular majority, domestic ownership may result because it is at the local level that people can best define their priority problems and organise how to deal with them. Therefore, investing in local infrastructure and adapting regional policies to local conditions can be a crucial source of empowerment and productivity because people will be offered opportunities to participate in the local decision-making process, which could lead to local support for NEPAD and the consequent domestic ownership of the initiative with its clear economic benefits. The following section discusses how domestic ownership can enhance the envisaged leadership development programme for the SADC.

4.4.5 Domestic ownership

An ability to instil strong individual commitment to NEPAD success in the SADC and to create an atmosphere in which there is constructive pressure to perform is needed if the SADC is to own NEPAD. If the SADC leadership is to perform well in NEPAD, it has to be intensely people oriented, treat people with dignity and respect, and encourage them to use their own initiative and creativity. At a broad level, what is at stake here is the role of the SADC leadership and its people towards NEPAD. The fundamental question in this relationship regards the respective roles of the SADC leadership and people of this region in realising the pre-set goals of NEPAD.

This is a crucial question because the goals of the SADC as an organisation, the goals of the SADC stakeholders and the goals of NEPAD are numerous and interrelated, and consequently more difficult to reconcile. On one hand, the SADC organisation has established regional priorities and consensus, meaning that the SADC organisation influences stakeholders through regulation and other forms of persuasion. Carrol (1996:238) indicates that "regulation refers to the act of governing, directing according to rule or bringing under control of law or institutional authority." On the other hand, the SADC stakeholders have their approaches to influence the SADC organisation; they use the political processes of voting and electing leaders (or removing them from office), for example. The stakeholders also exert their influence by forming special interest group to wield more targeted influence. The SADC organisation in turn uses socio-political influence to have an impact on the society. This suggests that there is a social contract between the SADC organisation and the stakeholders of this region, as is evident from the fact that the stakeholders have established laws and regulations within which the organisation must operate based on a shared understanding of expectations.

The stakeholders can also exert pressure on the SADC by wielding significant influence on NEPAD, causing the SADC organisation to take a particular course of action with broad societal concerns. "Besides creating a sense of ownership, the involvement of civil society actors in the NEPAD process can help to provide solutions for bridging the gap between the articulation and implementation of the policy," according to the "International Peace Academy" (2002:11). This can create an

environment in which the diverse institutions and people of the SADC can pursue NEPAD goals effectively. It is obvious that the SADC organisation has a stake in the people of this region because its power is derived from its legal and moral rights to represent its society. This poses a significant challenge for leadership in this region because leaders have to develop strategies to work effectively with the society to ensure that the entire region domestically owns NEPAD. According to Soumana (2004:2),

> Enhancing ownership and accountability in technical cooperation for capacity building is an absolute necessity if the goals of capacity building are to be realised … A culture of enhanced ownership … is vital for ensuring effectiveness and sustainability of intervention.

The SADC leadership is therefore required to be ethical in its responses to societal expectations and mandates, and to promote a strong ethical climate within the region. The ethical climate is an institutionalised shared value that can promote regional ownership of NEPAD.

Institutionalised shared values calls for a social responsiveness strategy to be ingrained in the leadership development programme that is envisaged. The next section discusses the social responsiveness strategy and how it relates to the proposed NEPAD LDS.

4.5 Social responsiveness strategy

According to Carrol (1996), a social responsiveness strategy entails

- Incorporating corporate public policy into strategic management;
- Managing issues;
- Crisis management; and
- International public affairs management.

Social responsiveness is a leadership problem, and the SADC must therefore institutionalise it. Institutionalisation will follow the SADC's commitment to implementation, which means that there is conviction among leadership that the response to social issues is provided for in the conduct of organisational operations. The leadership

function is therefore to build and sustain this commitment, and to ensure that issues are identified and incorporated into organisational operating decisions. Institutionalisation of a social responsiveness strategy will then be an examination of the relationship between responsiveness and social demands, which is SADC corporate public policy. In the following section, the importance of the SADC corporate public policy as an inherent component of the envisaged intervention is discussed.

4.5.1 Strategic management and corporate public policy

According to Carrol (1996), corporate public policy connotes an organisation's posture or position regarding the public, social and ethical aspects of its functioning. This implies that corporate public policy is part of the overall strategic management of the organisation, and focuses specifically on the public, ethical and social issues that are embedded in the functioning and decision-making processes of an organisation. Strategic management refers to the overall management process that focuses on positioning an organisation relative to its macro-environment. The strategic management process provides a framework for the processes of goal formulation, strategy formulation, strategy evaluation, strategy implementation, strategic control and environmental analysis, and all these have to be revisited, reconsidered and eventually revised. Strategic management is therefore an ongoing, never-ending process, not an event.

The SADC leaders therefore have a constant responsibility to detect when new developments require a strategic response and when they do not. This is a challenge to these leaders as they will have to spot problems early, monitor the change and initiate adjustments. Corporate public policy is only a part of a larger system of leadership decision-making. The development of an effective social posture is currently a big challenge for the SADC, and this process will form the basis for setting priorities in the use of resources in this region. Resources, structures, systems, processes and activities are the foundations of a social strategy. This calls for the scanning and analysis of the macro-environment of the SADC, especially information on trends, events and issues that are occurring in the stakeholder environment, because corporate social policy gives attention to issues in which basic questions of right, wrong, justice and fairness reside, that is in stakeholders. It has been indicated that a social responsiveness strategy also entails issues

and crisis management. The following section discusses crises management features as an inherent component of the leadership development programme for the SADC.

4.5.2 Issues management

Issues management is defined as "a process by which organisations identify issues in the stakeholder environment, analyse and prioritise those issues in terms of their relevance to the organisation, plan responses to the issues and then evaluate and monitor the results" (Carroll, 1996:659). The key terms of this definition is "process" (involving stages of identifying, analysing and responding) and "relevance to organisation". Process is important in issue management because it is not so much that one is managing an issue, as one is managing response development. Relevance to the organisation is important because it will be the SADC that ultimately differentiates issues from non-issues. Issues can exist whether or not they are relevant to the SADC, but without relevance the issue will not exist for the SADC. The first step of issue management will be to identify every major issue related to the SADC. The following figure shows sources of organisational information from which issues can be identified.
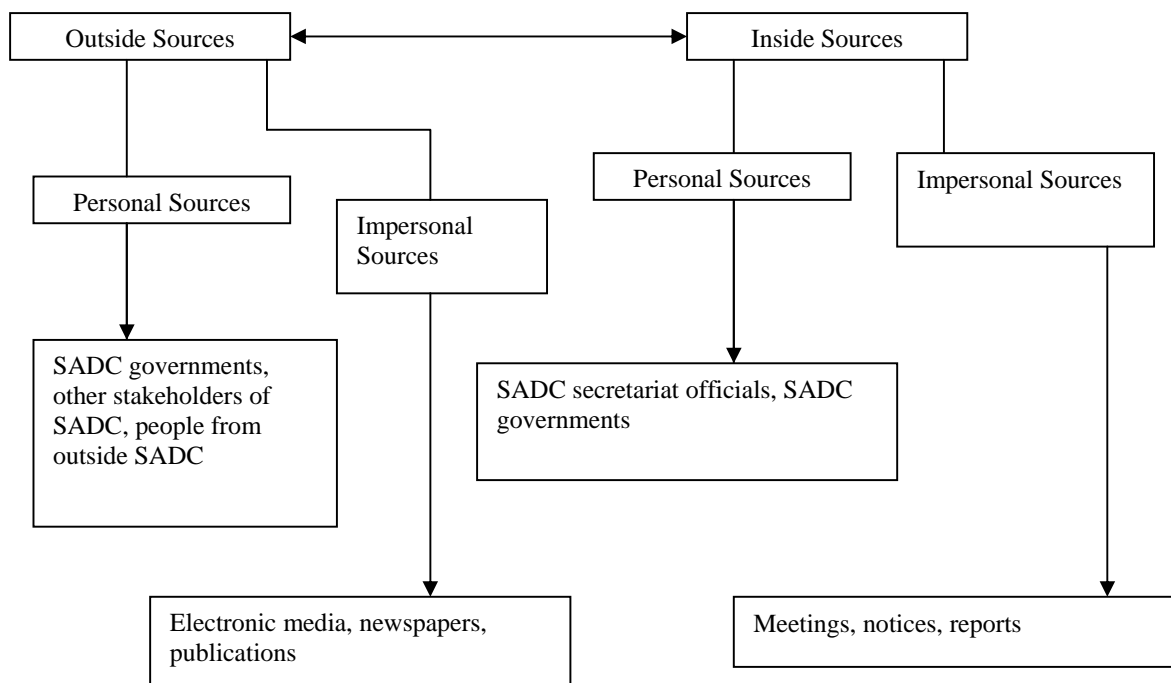

Figure 4.2: Sources of organisational information

Once comprehensive lists of issues have been generated, some logical classification scheme will need to be developed to group the issues in an orderly basis. Sturdivant (1981:171) argues that the following five categories can capture all the significant issues confronting organisations:

- Human investment;

- Ecology;

- Consumer welfare;

- Openness of the system; and

- Responsiveness to social issues.

Human resources are the provision for economic welfare of an environment in which people are treated fairly and are given the opportunity to grow. Ecology denotes the efforts of an organisation to minimise the negative impact of its operations on the natural and structural environment, and to conserve natural resources. Consumer welfare is the provision for quality services that are presented in an honest and comprehensive manner to assure the well-being and satisfaction of people. Openness of the system denotes the organisation's willingness to communicate honestly and forthrightly with stakeholders and to optimise opportunities for people to participate in decisions that affect their rights. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:97), "Inclusion … refers to the cultural, educational, economic and political integration of individuals and groups in critical decision-making affecting who gets what, when, how, and for how long." This indicates that responsiveness to social issues denotes the effectiveness with which an organisation responds to pressures or demands.

The second step in issue management will be the process of analysing issues. This will involve careful studying and dissecting, and engaging in any process that will better help gain an understanding of the nature and characteristics of the issue. The third step in issue management will be the actual management of the identified key issues to move towards closing expectational gaps. This refers to the response design process based on the analysis conducted. Once plans for dealing with issues have been formulated, the

SADC will have to focus on implementation, because there will be many organisational aspects that will need to be considered. Crisis management as an innate part of a strategic social responsiveness strategy is discussed relative to the envisaged intervention in the following section.

4.5.3 Crisis management

A crisis can be defined as any unplanned event, occurrence or sequence of events that have specific undesirable consequences, for example, natural disasters, societal disruption, pollution and financial manipulation. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:39),

> Natural disasters are increasingly the cause of a long-run challenge to the growth prospects of the economy … since such disasters destroy assets and infrastructure. Governments and international community need to make contingency plans not just for short-term relief.

Viable crisis management programmes are therefore essential because crisis produces a critical situation permeated with uncertain threat and a condition necessitating prompt decision-making under stress. It has potential for wide-spread harm and requires extraordinary government responses, such as coordination among many organisations, rapid policy decisions and resources beyond government control. Crisis management encompasses those activities that will enable the SADC to plan for, respond to and recover from an event. Effective crisis management for the SADC should therefore be consistent with its mission and integrate plans such as emergency response, disaster recovery and humanitarian assistance. Regional crisis management in the SADC could proceed as follows:

The SADC leaders will have to define the crisis and their intervention strategy clearly because crisis management has many facets and must be thoroughly integrated into the SADC structure and operations. They will achieve this through internal analysis, strategic thinking and sufficient discussion. Their plan must address all the consequences

of the crisis, although no plan can address every possible scenario, but a solid plan can provide a structure for an integrated response.

Threats and risks will have to be identified by plotting them on a framework ranging from people/organisational to technical/economic, against internal or external, as Figure 4.3 illustrates.
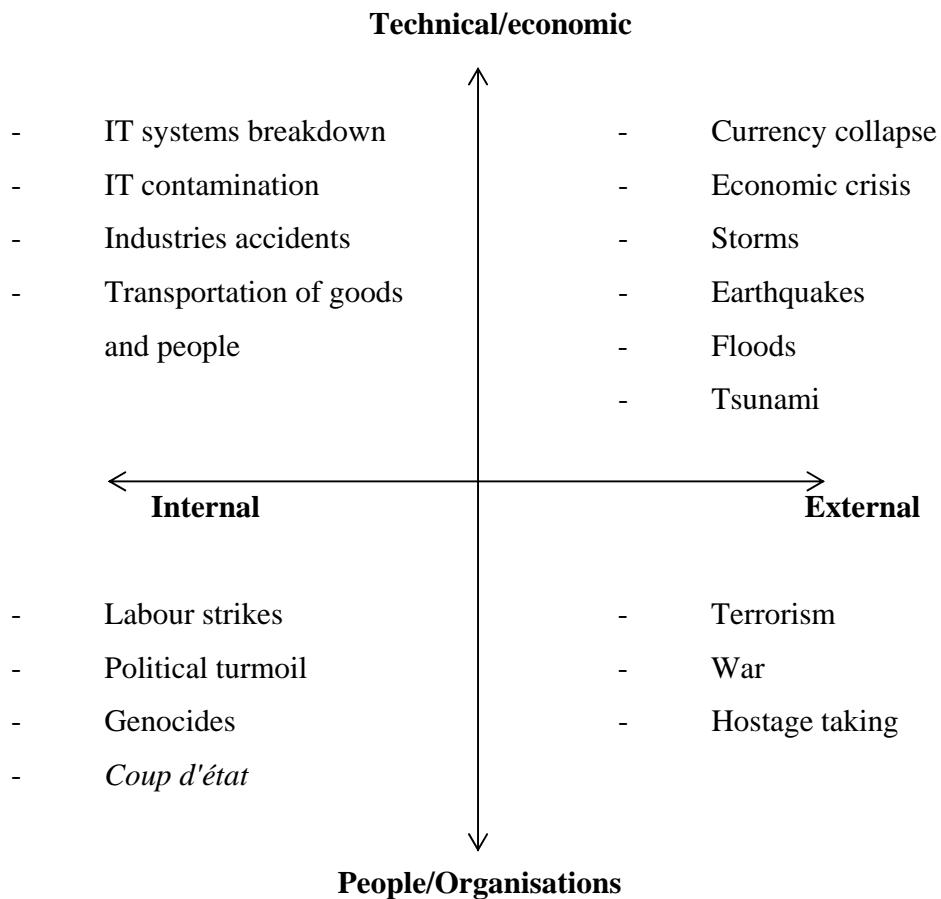
Technical/economic

Internal	External
- IT systems breakdown	- Currency collapse
- IT contamination	- Economic crisis
- Industries accidents	- Storms
- Transportation of goods and people	- Earthquakes
	- Floods
	- Tsunami
- Labour strikes	- Terrorism
- Political turmoil	- War
- Genocides	- Hostage taking
- *Coup d'état*	

People/Organisations

Figure 4.3: Regional crisis management process

This framework shows that crises can either be security related, for example terrorism, war, hostage taking, or they can be non-security related, for example floods, storms and earthquakes. The type of crisis determines the nature of the coordination needed**.**

Figure 4.3 illustrates how the nature of the needed coordination can be determined.

	Planned Policy Objectives	Unplanned Policy Objectives
Unplanned Response Measures	Policy objectives can be set in advance but response measures cannot be e.g. unknown epidemic	Neither policy decisions nor response measures can be anticipated e.g. new phenomenon
Planned Response Measure	Policy objectives set in advance, response measures anticipated, selected and organised e.g. forest fires	Policy objectives cannot be set in advance, response options anticipated and exercised e.g. terrorism attack warning

Planned Policy Objectives   Unplanned Policy Objectives

Figure 4.4: Nature of needed coordination

If risks can be described sufficiently and accurately for calculation to be made of the probability of them happening on the basis of past records, these risks are less harmful. But, if the risk is met so infrequently that no accurate way of calculating the probability exists, the risk is very harmful and if poorly handled can result in disaster. Risks of low severity but high frequency are unlikely to cause disruption, and medium risks may cause a crisis if not dealt with quickly. Risks of high severity and low frequency can cause a catastrophe, for example, a tsunami.

"Australian National Audit Office" (2001:6) indicates that "risk management establishes a process of identifying, analysing and mitigating risks … It includes making links between risks/returns and resource priorities."

The SADC should develop a Regional Impact Analysis (RIA), whose intention is to identify the impacts from disruptions. The RIA will help to predict the disastrous impacts and to define points of dependences that can initiate these impacts. Crisis

management is therefore an important component in the design of the envisaged intervention.

4.6 Summary and conclusions

It is in this chapter that the key leadership needs of the stakeholders are determined based on the leadership challenges raised in Chapter two of this study. From the analysis of the SADC stakeholders, in chapter 2, it is observed that the long-term core stakeholders are all southern Africa nation states, because they are with power and legitimacy, and their standing is recognised by the SADC, and the SADC has processes in place to handle their interests and concerns. These are the stakeholders who control key resources needed by the SADC, therefore they could become either supportive or non-supportive depending on whether or not their needs are met. This needs assessment exercise required robust information so that it could inform priority setting and strategy development. A robust evidence was therefore deemed fundamental to appropriate, effective, efficient and economic planning. It allows identification of problem, assessment of opinions, derivation of sound policy and monitoring of impact.

The needs assessment approach that is followed in this study is a conventional approach that operates on the premises that planners can project future results from a well-understood base of information from the past. Here the needs are determined by first making assumptions. This is an effort to try to predict the SADC future regarding leadership.

Some of the assumptions made are very likely to come true; the outcomes of others are very much uncertain, though not less important. Therefore it is in this chapter that uncertainties about the SADC were identified, and a test was designed to make things clear. The tests were not designed to determine the highest degree of accuracy for all assumptions made, but to build a reasonable model to assess the order and magnitude of the leadership challenges of the SADC.

Then, cross-impact analysis technique was employed to identify and understand correlation between variables. A major benefit for using cross-impact analysis is the ability to show how one situation impacts another situation. This method of analysis is

important since it does not produce information in isolation, it considers a wide rage of interdependence among variables. Explicit and implicit variables whose interdependence of variable gave rise to explicit and implicit interconnectedness is fully revealed or expressed without vagueness, implication or ambiguity, while implicit variables are those whose interconnectedness is hard to distinguish. They are capable of being understood from something else that is not expressed.

This exercise gave rise to dominant variables, autonomous variables, key variables, neighbouring variables, regulating variables and resultant variables that are both implicit and explicit. The most important variables are those that are 'key', because they have both high level of influence over the SADC and high level of dependence on the SADC. This kind of variables therefore demands appropriate management. It is against this background that a management strategy was devised, and this process gave rise to key leadership needs of the SADC.

From the discussions of the identified key leadership needs, it become apparent that there are other key needs that need to be incorporated into the leadership development programme that could be designed to respond to the identified needs, if this initiative is to succeed: the leadership development programme should be NEPAD-based and be socially responsive as well. The following are some of the conclusions that could be derived from the discussions in this chapter:

- The ultimate goal of needs analysis exercise is to alert decision-makers to identify potentially significant external challenges, so that they can respond to them accordingly.

- Considerable judgement must be applied in deciding which type of needs assessment tool is to be employed.

- STEEP framework provides a convenient way of orienting attention across a range of possible factors affecting leadership in the SADC.

- If all stakeholders are not well identified at the beginning, the success of the success of the NEPAD LDS could be placed in jeopardy.

- Combination of assumption-based planning process and cross-impact analysis increased understanding of the forces shaping leadership in the SADC.

Now that the key leadership needs are identified and the basis for the leadership development programme established, the recommended strategic response is the establishment of the NEPAD LDS, including a social responsiveness strategy. The strategic plan for the envisaged intervention that entails linking the NEPAD LDS strategy-shaping factors with the desired outputs, operational plan, implementation plan and sustainability plan is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: THE NEPAD LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

5.1 Introduction

Based on the identified SADC key leadership needs, the main challenge that faces the SADC currently is how leadership of this region should respond according to these needs. This chapter therefore shifts the study from a concept to an action by suggesting a NEPAD leadership development strategy that comprises a social responsiveness strategy as a strategic intervention to close the gaps between the existing identified key leadership needs and the needed scenarios for the SADC. A strategic plan will provide an essential foundation for responding accordingly. According to Smit and Cronje (2002:140), "Strategic planning can be defined as the process of reconciling the organisation's resources (internal environment) with threats and opportunities in the external environment." They indicate that strategic plans are plans designed to meet the organisation's broad goals. The strategic plan will therefore define what the SADC will seek to accomplish and determine through measurement how well it will succeed in reaching the results-oriented goals and objectives.

The primary factors that will shape the NEPAD leadership development strategy (NEPAD LDS) strategic plan will be the identified SADC key leadership needs. The interplay of these factors will influence the development of the strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS. Smit and Cronje (2002:117) warn that some critics argue that planning creates too much rigidity. According to these critics, "you cannot plan in today's turbulent business environment. Setting oneself on a predetermined course in unknown waters is a perfect way to sail straight into an iceberg." However, they also say, "Other people feel that planning gives direction to the organisation, reduces overlapping and wasteful activities, establishes objectives or standards that facilitate control."

The SADC must be able to demonstrate good governance and responsiveness to its strategy-shaping factors; only then will it be an example to be studied and appreciated, because its governance system will be firmly rooted in its own leadership needs. That is why the strategic intervention that is a suitable response to the identified key leadership

needs for the SADC is a NEPAD leadership strategy, which includes a social responsiveness strategy.

In order to develop a strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS for the SADC, the identified key leadership needs must be linked to the desired leadership outputs. These desired outputs answer the question: "What does the SADC leadership intend to achieve with the activities relative to the specific need?" The desired outputs are then used to determine the strategic leadership development objectives for the NEPAD LDS, and the strategic leadership objectives are used to prepare the strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS (in this study the strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS consist of outlines for an operational strategy, an implementation strategy and a sustainability strategy). The process of linking the identified key leadership needs with desired outputs is therefore in three steps:

- Categorising the identified SADC key leadership needs;

- Stating the desired leadership outputs relative to the identified SADC key leadership needs; and

- Determining strategic leadership development objectives.

Table 5.1 below shows this process of linking the identified key leadership needs with desired outputs.

Categories of the identified SADC key leadership needs	The desired leadership outputs relative to the identified SADC key leadership needs	Theories used to identify strategic leadership development objectives	Strategic leadership development objectives
The ICT-oriented key leadership needs • Expertise to deal with direct negative employment destruction effects of ICTs, as well as positive employment-creating effects of ICTs • Investments in skills and major transformation in this region, so that ICTs can contribute more to the provision of goods and services • Investments in skills and major transformation in this region, so that ICTs can contribute more to the provision of goods and services	• Leaders, youth and women showing expertise to deal with direct negative employment destruction effects of ICTs, as well as positive employment creating effects of the ICTs • Leaders, youth and women who are conscious of the fact that technological changes themselves do not modify social institutions and human behaviour	In order to succeed, an organisation requires the highest possible calibre of leadership	A network of the SADC leaders who are ethical and have the will, the competence and global perspective
Economy-oriented key leadership needs • Ability to align external partnerships to regional priorities and integrate operations into regional systems and processes • Ability to tap and release capacity of domestic private sector, develop specialised advocacy, promote innovation, establish and maintain long-term economic partnerships, and ensure that people of this region are committed to domestication of NEPAD • Knowledge and understanding of the context of development in the 21st century, and that of	• Leaders, youth and women using skills to deal with impacts relating to the emergence of global economic system, global competition, organisation and rationalisation of economic activity • Leaders youth and women competing successfully by increasing regional specialisations, and demanding substantial ongoing structural adjustments • Leaders, youth and women dealing with inadequate external support for their	The success or failure of an organisation directly correlates with to citizens' participation in its activities and how citizens respond to the drivers prevailing in the organisations	Local actors who are able to influence public policy, thus promoting public policy dialogue in the SADC

globalisation • Skills to deal with the impacts relating to the emergency of a global economic system, global competition, organisation and rationalisation of economic activity • Ability to compete successfully by increasing regional specialisations, and demand substantial, on-going structural adjustment • Ability to deal with inadequate external support, and maintain an essential minimum of investment in key areas • Expertise in designing and implementing viable socio-economic structural adjustment programmes	activities, and maintaining essential minimum of investments in key areas • Leaders, youth and women designing and implementing viable economic structural adjustments programmes		
Political-oriented key leadership need • Strong political leadership, culture of accountability, well-functioning institutions and democratic processes, and favourable political conditions for development	• Rise in governments activities • Democratisation of governance • Rise of special-interest groups • Rise in voter participation	Shaping a political environment in which people's participation is encouraged is vital for any organisation	Leaders expanding SADC strategic vision and action by developing strategies for coping with changing social and political environment

The three strategic objectives above give rise to another strategic objective because, in order to contribute effectively to the process of strengthening the leadership aspect in the SADC and to disseminate tools that will enable SADC civil society to increase its ability to monitor and evaluate public policy, there is need for an effective and efficient leadership academy that will support these activities. Therefore, the fourth strategic objective that emerges is:

- An efficient SADC leadership academy that supports the development and activity of the NEPAD LDS.

There is also a need to establish an impact-services unit at the country level to facilitate the sustainability of all NEPAD LDS activities in the country. Therefore, a fifth strategic objective arises:

- Impact-services units that provide the principles of participation, empowerment and ownership through dissemination of information that maximises the effectiveness of the NEPAD LDS through linkages and partnerships.

These strategic objectives demand that country hubs responsible for overall SDAC LDS management and administration should be established. The sixth strategic objective is therefore:

- Country hubs that operate effectively for overall management and administration of the NEPAD LDS.

Another need for coordination of all NEPAD LDS activities at regional level arises, hence the emergence of the seventh strategic objective:

- A NEPAD LDS coordinating unit that converts the NEPAD LDS strategic plan into action and then into results.

A NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will have to be established under the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development, which necessitates an implementation team for the NEPAD LDS within this directorate. Therefore, the eighth strategic objective that arises is:

- A leadership commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development of the SADC that develops the capacity of the NEPAD LDS

coordinating unit, to ensure that this unit can effectively carry out its role as a secretariat to the envisaged intervention.

These eight strategic objectives are the result of linking the NEPAD LDS strategy-shaping factors with the desired outputs, and they will be used as foundation blocks in developing the operational plan for the NEPAD LDS. Logic dictates that the discussion of the operational plan should be in an ascending order of the strategic objectives because the last strategic objective is the starting point of NEPAD LDS. The objectives are therefore discussed in the following order:

1. A leadership development commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development of the SADC that develops the capacity of the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit, to ensure that this unit can effectively carry out its role as a secretariat to the envisaged intervention

2. A NEPAD LDS coordinating unit that converts the NEPAD LDS strategic plan into action and then into results

3. Country hubs that operate effectively for overall management and administration of the NEPAD LDS

4. Impact-services units that provide the principles of participation, empowerment and ownership through dissemination of information that maximises the effectiveness of the NEPAD LDS through linkages and partnerships

5. An efficient SADC leadership academy that supports the development and activity of the NEPAD LDS

6. Local actors who are able to influence public policy, thus promoting public policy dialogue in the SADC

7. A network of the SADC regional leaders who are ethical and have the will, competence and global perspective

8. Leaders expanding SADC strategic vision and action by developing strategies for coping with a changing social and political environment

The process of identifying all possible connections between the NEPAD LDS strategy-shaping factors give rise to the following NEPAD LDS flow chart:
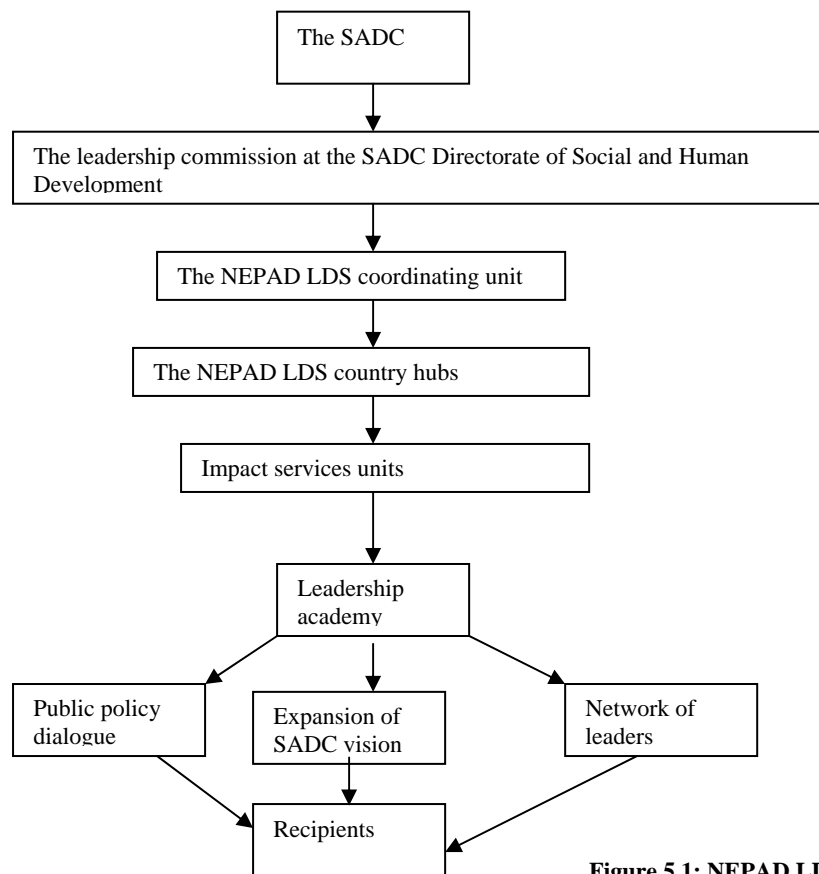
Figure 5.1: NEPAD LDS flow chart

5.1.1 Objectives

The objective of this chapter is to

- Propose the SADC strategic plan for the NEPAD leadership strategy, including a social responsiveness strategy for the SADC

5.1.2 Overview

The emphasis of this chapter is to provide guidelines and suggestions for the NEPAD leadership strategy, including a social responsiveness strategy for the SADC. This strategic plan entails the following:

- Crafting an operational strategy for the NEPAD LDS

- Establishing the implementation strategy for the NEPAD LDS

- Designing the sustainability plan for the NEPAD LDS

Crafting an operational strategy for the NEPAD LDS

It is indicated in this part of the study that the operational strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS is the pattern of activities to be followed by the SADC in pursuit of executing regional LDS. A well-focused and defined outline of the operational plan is developed to ensure optimal progress towards the achievement of the mission and vision of the SADC.

Establishing the implementation strategy for the NEPAD LDS

In this part of the study, it is indicated that the envisaged intervention is complex with many interrelated elements, which demands an implementation design that will work to produce sustainable results.

Designing the sustainability plan for the NEPAD LDS

This is an important part of the study because it determines how the NEPAD LDS can become sustainable, how it can be relevant by responding to the strategy-shaping factors, and how it would no longer need external assistance. The development of this chapter follows in the next discussions.

What follows is the development of a strategic operational plan for the NEPAD LDS, which is the first component of an overall NEPAD LDS strategic plan as indicated earlier.

5.2 Crafting an operational strategy for the NEPAD LDS

The structure of the outline for the NEPAD LDS strategic plan was drawn from Thompson and Strickland (1998). This outline is structured to allow each of the eight identified strategic objectives to be discussed under the following sub-headings:

- Purpose for the strategic objective

- Institutional framework/participation analysis

The following discussions are of the identified NEPAD LDS strategic objectives under the above-specified sub-headings, starting with strategic objective one.

5.2.1 Strategic objective one: A leadership development commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development of the SADC that develops the capacity of the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit, to ensure that this unit can effectively carry out its role as a secretariat to the envisaged intervention

Purpose of this strategic objective

The purpose of establishing a leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development will be to function as a lead entity in mobilising and coordinating donor assistance for the NEPAD LDS, and to provide technical assistance to the SADC LDS coordinating unit.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The focus of a leadership commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development in the SADC will be on the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit: developing its capacity, mobilising donor funding, facilitating the regional and international transfer of technical experience, supporting the strategic management of the LDS by providing technical assistance in governance and methodologies, supporting basic logistical and infrastructural aspects, such as an office, computer equipment, transport, and so on.

A discussion of strategic objective two follows.

5.2.2 Strategic objective two: A NEPAD LDS coordinating unit that converts the NEPAD LDS strategic plan into action and then into results

The purpose of this objective

The purpose of this objective will be to build resource capacities and to structure the LDS operational processes, as well as preparing budgets, policies, best practices and support systems for country hubs.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The target audience for the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will be all country hubs because these will form a core portfolio for the NEPAD LDS in all member countries. The unit will have to ensure that each country hub has synergy by facilitating inter-relationships across them. The unit will have to ensure that each

country hub draws on and contributes to the core competencies that the LDS will be seeking to build and exploit.

What follows is a discussion on strategic objective three, according to the established criteria.

5.2.3 Strategic objective three: Country hubs established and operating effectively for overall management of the NEPAD LDS

The purpose of this objective

The purpose for country hubs is to be the centre of networks that link the various service providers in the NEPAD LDS.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The following programme areas will be under direct management of the country hubs:

- Impact services;

- Leadership academy;

- SADC regional network of leaders; and

- Public policy dialogue.

The country hubs will have ensure that these programme areas fully include their recipients in decision making. They will also have an important public relations role to embed the NEPAD LDS intervention in the structures of national decision-making.

Strategic objective four is discussed below.

5.2.4 Strategic objective four: Impact services units that provide the principles of participation, empowerment and ownership through dissemination of information that maximises the effectiveness of the NEPAD LDS through linkages and partnerships

Purpose of this objective

The purpose of the impact services will be to enhance the achievement of communication, social marketing, monitoring and evaluation, ICT, learning and networking. It must also foster leadership practices that will ensure that the NEPAD LDS is people oriented and focused on the SADC's priority needs and opportunities,

and that interoperability is advanced through a commonality of systems components and infrastructure. It must therefore also provide sources of information and guidance for operation, acquisition and logistics regarding leadership development.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The institutional strategy for impact services will entail, in the main, publicity of:

- The NEPAD LDS strategic objectives;

- Delivery of activities through the outputs to achieve the strategic objectives of the NEPAD LDS; and

- Critical assessment of achievements and/or shortcomings of the activities undertaken, from the perspective of both service providers and intended beneficiaries, which will be done through the dissemination of information to enable people to make informed decisions.

A discussion of strategic objective five follows.

5.2.5 Strategic objective five: An efficient and effective leadership academy that supports the development and activity of leadership development in the SADC

Purpose of this strategic objective

The purpose of the leadership academy will be to develop and deliver effective curricular materials to meet the NEPAD LDS learning needs.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The participants that will be directly affected by the leadership academy will be those who are recruited for the regional leadership network and public policy dialogue. Participants will be selected for these programmes based on their perceived potential. They will be selected in collaboration with communities and others will be drawn throughout the political leadership practice elements in the SADC. Service providers for the programme areas will be recruited and jointly controlled by country hubs, programme areas and the leadership academy. To be effective, the leadership academy will require close collaboration with the programme areas served.

What follows is a discussion of strategic objective six.

5.2.6 Strategic objective six: Local actors who are able to influence public policy (Public policy dialogue)

Purpose of this objective

The purpose of this objective is to empower the voice and engagement of various groups and institutions in the SADC and encourage them to become more democratic by understanding the systems' structures of power and its distribution in the society.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

All local stakeholders of the SADC, whether dormant, long-term core, immediate core, violent or coercive, discretionary, dependent or demanding are participants in this strategic objective. A definition of a stakeholder in this context is any group that has interest in, involvement with, dependence on, contribution to, or is affected by an organisation. Therefore, there is a need to conduct public policy dialogue either separately or jointly with the groups of stakeholders stated. The focus should be to empower them to enter dialogue on public policy issues that will result in an improved delivery of services. Training is also necessary to bring all of them to a common understanding that will enable them to make a meaningful contribution to the mainstream of development.

Strategic objective seven is discussed below.

5.2.7 Strategic objective seven: A network of the SADC leaders who are ethical and have the will, the competence and global perspective

The purpose for this objective

The purpose of this objective is to address SADC leadership development needs that are revealed by this study and to address social responsiveness through strengthening leadership capacities for common good among the SADC decision-makers who are rooted in, and accountable to the social structures.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

Participation in the regional network of leaders can be viewed in three levels:

- Leaders

- Youth

- Women

Therefore, the NEPAD LDS in this regard will have to focus on the development of leadership with a bias to using education and training as major developmental tools. Government departments and local and international agencies whose goals coincide with those of the network of regional leaders should be relied upon for support at different instances during the programme implementation.

What follows is a discussion of the eighth strategic objective.

5.2.8 Strategic objective eight: Leaders expanding SADC strategic vision and action by developing strategies for coping with changing social and political environment

The purpose of this objective is to examine relationships between leadership and governance in order to provide an appreciation of the complexity of issues surrounding these relationships.

Institutional framework/participation analysis

The target audience will be parliamentarians and senators because they are responsible for passing regulatory bills and making legislative process more open to the public scrutiny. The other target audience will be civil society groups because they can articulate political demands at national levels, and they tend to be knowledgeable about issues. Therefore, special attention should be paid where they are concerned. If these two groups are conscientised about the relationships between leadership and governance, it is assumed that there will be an increase in political participation in the SADC. The following section presents suggestions for the implementation of the NEPAD LDS.

5.3 Establishing the implementation strategy for the NEPAD LDS

It is argued in the discussions that practical and pragmatic approaches are needed to close the identified leadership gaps using available resources, which in most cases are limited. Therefore, the implementation design should have the following features:

- Based on the principles of the NEPAD;

- Socially responsive;

- Integrated and comprehensive;

- Incremental and modular;

- Feasible and desirable; and

- Utilise existing capabilities.

These features are discussed in the following section.

5.3.1 The NEPAD-based principles

NEPAD entails good governance and, if the NEPAD LDS is to be meaningful, it has to permeate to the lowest levels, such as villages, districts and other intermediate units. Popular participation will have to be incorporated systematically in order to promote good governance. Values and norms brought about by the NEPAD LDS might pose challenges to the traditional values of people, who usually welcome change if it maintains stability and order.

The practice of good governance in NEPAD LDS will have a great impact on local economies because local economic bodies will be able to continue to operate alongside national and regional economic bodies. However, as Schmitz and Moore (1995:69) point out:

> Economic and social progresses are not the only objectives of good governance, civil liberty and the ability to participate in a apolitical system can also be considered as elements of a full and meaningful life that should contribute to the well-being of individuals and the development of societies.

Good governance is also about being ethical and the NEPAD LDS will have to promote normative ethics in order to achieve good governance. Normative ethics is said to be concerned with supplying and justifying a coherent moral system. This kind of ethics seeks to uncover, develop and justify moral principles that are intended to guide behaviour, actions and decisions. It proposes principles for distinguishing right from wrong in the society. It deals more with "what ought to be" or "what ought not to be" in terms of societal practices. Since the NEPAD LDS will be implemented in multinational states, it is less likely to have the same standards with respect to single

behaviour; therefore multiple standards will have to be considered. This can result in creating ethical conflicts because competing principles might suggest different behaviours.

The following principles will guide the NEPAD LDS's good governance strategy:

- Leadership, to develop an understanding throughout the region of the effective elements of good governance for the achievement of the NEPAD LDS goals;

- Statutory accountability, to ensure compliance with all applicable statutes and regulations and other relevant guidelines and statements of good administrative practice;

- Communication with stakeholders, to establish clear channels of communication with stakeholders and to make explicit commitment to transparency and openness in the NEPAD LDS activities;

- Rules and responsibilities, to clearly define responsibilities within the NEPAD LDS and establish a framework for strategic control;

- Accountability for the SADC resources, to maximise through asset management and also maximizing overall costs;

- Internal controls, to develop internal controls that are appropriate to the NEPAD LDS's corporate plan and charter, and to ensure these controls cover fraud and risk management;

- Committees, to develop a committee structure that works to maximise effective governance of the region; and

- External reporting, to have arrangements in place to ensure that the reports produced are effective.

NEPAD advocates entrenchment of democracy, peace and security, which implies that NEPAD advocates that political institutions must be created or strengthened in the pursuit of democracy. It is a matter of urgency that the SADC develop ways of living together without harming each other. According to Kochendofer-Lucius and Pleskovic (1999:37),

> Social stability depends not only on holding inequality to tolerable levels, but also on maintaining social cohesion among broadly defined

ethnic regional or other socio-economic groups … Social stability is an intangible asset, it improves growth prospects and is difficult to replace once lost.

In this way, indigenous capabilities will be developed and human security will be enhanced.

Domestic ownership is also advocated by NEPAD, and domestic ownership of the NEPAD must therefore build a spirit of high performance into the corporate culture. The NEPAD LDS should constantly perform at or near peak capability if this region is to domestically own NEPAD. The region will have to emphasise achievement and excellence, which will create a results-oriented culture and will serve as a cornerstone for the success of NEPAD ownership.

All the discussed features of the NEPAD call for crafting a social responsiveness strategy as a response to the evolving SADC stakeholder demands and pressures, along with the multitude of external and internal social and public issues. The section that follows discusses the social responsiveness strategy as an important feature of the NEPAD LDS implementation strategy.

5.3.2 Social responsiveness strategy

In order to understand the concept of social responsiveness, the concept of social responsibility has to be understood first. Carrol (1996:35) presents a four-part definition of social responsibility that focuses on types of social responsibility. This definition provides categories considered as one facet of the total social responsibility of an organisation. These categories are as follows:

- Economical responsibility refers to an organisation's orientation to produce services or goods that the society wants.

- Legal responsibilities refer to basic notions of fairness as established by lawmakers; it is an organisation's responsibility to society to comply with these laws.

- Ethical responsibilities embrace the activities and practices that are expected or prohibited by social members, even though they are not qualified into law. Ethical responsibilities embody the range of norms and expectations that

reflect what society regards as fair and just. Fairness in turn can assume the additional values of honesty and truthfulness.

- Philanthropic responsibilities are voluntary/discretionary responsibilities guided primarily by an organisation's discretion.

The SADC as an organisation has an ethical or moral responsibility in the same way that a person has. Because SADC organisational activity is human activity, it can be evaluated from a moral point of view, just as any other human activity can be evaluated. Responsibilities and obligations are closely related and the SADC organisation therefore has an obligation or duty to fulfil its responsibilities and it is responsible for fulfilling its obligations.

The NEPAD LDS will be able to act only through those who act for it, and it is the latter who will have to assume moral responsibility for interventions made. However, the NEPAD LDS will be amenable to moral evaluation even though it will not be a moral person *per se*. If the NEPAD LDS is to act with integrity, it will have to live up to its responsibilities. The extent to which the NEPAD LDS fulfils its responsibilities will be dependant on how it will respond to its social obligation.

Social responsiveness is defined in various ways by a range of writers, as Carrol (1996:450) points out:

- Frederic's viewpoint, which states that social responsiveness refers to the capacity of an organisation to respond to social pressures: "The literal act of achieving a generally responsive posture to society is the focus. One searches the organization for mechanisms, procedures, arrangements and behavioural patterns that taken collectively will mark the organization as more or less capable of responding to social pressures."

- Epstein's viewpoint discusses social responsiveness within the context of a broader concept that he calls the social policy process. He asserts that social responsiveness focuses on the individual organisational process for determining, implementing and evaluating the organisation's capacity to anticipate, respond to and manage the issues and problems arising from diverse claims and expectations.

Social responsiveness therefore appears to suggest an action focus, according to which organisations must not only addresses their basic obligation, but also must decide on the basic modes of responding to their obligations. There is a leadership challenge to determine the mode of response in the face of rising moral and ethical standards in the SADC. Coming to terms with the morality of choice may be the most strenuous undertaking in strategic decision-making. Strickland (1998:343) argues as follows: "Morally upstanding values and high ethical standards nurture the corporate culture in positive way, they connote the integrity; 'doing the right thing' and genuine concern for stakeholders".

It will be necessary therefore that the NEPAD LDS develops social responsiveness strategy so that this intervention can observe and respond to environments outside it systematically. Collis and Montgomery (1997:177) highlight this when they say, "It should be emphasised that developing a corporate strategy is one of the most challenging tasks of management. It requires not only good analytical skills and data, but in depth knowledge of managerial behaviour and systems, as well as intuition for creativity."

A social responsiveness strategy comprises corporate public policy. According to Carrol (1996), this connotes an organisation's posture or position regarding the public, social and ethical aspects of its functioning. A social responsiveness strategy also entails the process of analysing issues that involve careful studying and dissecting, and engaging in any process that will help to understand the nature and characteristics of the issue. The goal of issues analysis is to be able to assess degrees of controversy and impact so that resources can be allocated efficiently and effectively. Wartic and Wood (1998:189) indicate that the following factors to consider when analysing issues: depth and breadth of controversy, salience of impact and urgency of impact.

Another component of a social responsiveness strategy is crisis management, which entails response coordination and hence the preparation of coordinated plans for responses, maintenance of operational centres, earmarking of resources and reducing the severity of likely emergencies. "Ethical structures within agencies are ideally an integral, proactive and educational component of risk management," indicates the "Australian National Audit Office" (2001:4). Crisis management entails

decision coordination, thus establishing a mechanism for rapid governmental and regional decision-making, information sharing and practice. According to (Stiglitz, cited in Kochendofer-Lucius 998:13) & Pleskovic, 1999:65), "If development implies the transformation of a whole society, then all society must be involved. Development should aim at inclusion, participation and ownership."

The Bible indicates that contingency planning in Africa has been around at least since the Egyptian pharaohs stored grain for the great famine, but it seems that today's leaders in Africa may not be taking crisis quite as seriously as their predecessors. Leaders in the SADC might believe that contingency planning is too expensive or too time consuming, but being unprepared can be the most expensive strategy of all. The next section discusses how comprehensive and integrated the NEPAD LDS should be.

5.3.3 Integrated and comprehensive

The implementation of the NEPAD LDS should be comprehensive in terms of its range of involvement and the depth of leadership change it will address. It should be integrated to ensure openness, the sharing of information and the examination of differences to reach consensus solutions.

The implementation of the NEPAD LDS should be vertically and horizontally integrated, which means that each implementation activity of the NEPAD LDS strategic plan must relate to a specific strategic objective of the intervention. This will be the vertical integration. Even the hierarchical structures operating within the NEPAD LDS should also be vertically integrated.

Horizontal integration refers to ensuring constancy across the various dimensions of the intervention. This implies that plans and activities designed to build leadership in the SADC must be logically related to leadership development. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2004:136) argue that a comprehensive view of a service is necessary to identify the possible measures of the service quality.

The NEPAD LDS should also be incremental and modular.

5.3.4 Incremental and modular

Daft (2001) suggests that the incremental model represents a series of continual progressions that maintain the original equilibrium. The incremental model

therefore refers to the sequence of activities undertaken to overcome a problem and it tends to emphasise the steps used to reach the solution. Achieving the NEPAD LDS will necessitate that implementation occurs on an incremental basis. In order to speed up and ease the implementation of the NEPAD LDS, implementers must start with small achievable components that will build success and credibility. Eccles (1996:14) argues that the main elements that determine the speed and ease of implementation are as follows:

- The power and the concerted will of the management;

- The capabilities and level of knowing-support of the employees; and

- The cost and amount of relevant assets and resources that an organisation can put behind the proposed strategy.

The NEPAD LDS will also have to be modular, meaning that its elements will have to be linked together to form the whole. A modular model entails a building block approach where coordination mechanisms are carefully identified.

5.3.5 Feasible and desirable

The NEPAD LDS will have to be feasible from a financial, technological and human resources point of view. The SADC should therefore ensure that the NEPAD LDS is not risky and that the NEPAD LDS will have the requisite resources to supplement this intervention when it needs them. The SADC should evaluate whether the NEPAD LDS is predicated on the favourable resolution of leadership deficiency. It will not benefit the NEPAD LDS if it is pursued, only to find that the high levels of resources it requires have a limited likelihood of being secured. According to Moorby (1996:6), "Success in managing wide-scale development requires time management, and that resources be harnessed."

The NEPAD LDS must be desirable from the individual perspective. Desirability will have to be fostered with "awareness raising" as a supporting activity. Consequently, as the "Manchester Open Learning" (1994:64) points out, "Managers should be aware of the degree of acceptance or inclusion of individuals, the degree of influence the people have, the way group decisions are made, and the need for task maintenance functions to be looked at." Raising awareness will have to entail

systematic and coordinated lobby efforts in order to persuade national SADC governments and other stakeholders to embrace the envisaged intervention.

5.3.6 Utilising existing capacities

According to Eccles (1996:31), "Good leaders will want to conserve and build on the best elements of what is already there."

Collis and Montgomery (1997:29) furthermore argue that organisational capabilities are not factor inputs like tangible and intangible assets, but are a complex combination of assets, people and processes that an organisation uses to transform inputs into outputs. However, Eccles (1996:14) warns that "Change will be a struggle where the existing capabilities are inappropriate or inadequate for the new situation." This implies that abilities such as efficiency, effectiveness, responsiveness and higher quality should be found in the NEPAD LDS activities from the design, development and implementation. Therefore, the NEPAD LDS should be resource-based. Failure to use existing capabilities will mean that some of the SADC's valuable resources will be under-utilised and consequently organisational value will not be maximised, despite good planning. According to Smit *et al*. (2002:397),

> The most brilliant plans can be formulated, the most impressive structures designed and people motivated to attain objectives, but still does not ensure that activities will proceed according to plan, and that the objectives that management has planned will in fact be realised.

Having discussed the features of the NEPAD LDS implementation plan, the next step is to discuss some of the important factors that need to be embedded in this implementation plan, which are as follows:

- Leadership and management; and

- Government commitment.

These factors are discussed in the section that follows.

5.3.7 Leadership and management

Both leadership and management are required to implement the NEPAD LDS and, as Smit *et al*. (2002:284) point out, "The performance of any leadership small or large is directly related to the quality of its leadership." Leadership helps to create a

situation where everyone wants to do his/her best and it is therefore a highly motivating and motivational task. Management, on the other hand, focuses on the practical aspects because it ensures that the right processes are put in place and work towards the desired outcome. According to Smit *et al.* (2002:286),

> Managers focus on non-behavioural aspects of management such as systematic selection of goals, the design of an organisation and the control of the activities required to attain the goals. In contrast, leaders focus on behavioural aspects of management, the leaders focus on energising people to change what needs to be changed, and to steer the organisation in a certain direction. Organisations need both management and leadership to be effective.

The SADC external strategy-shaping factors demand employment of both management and leadership if the NEPAD LDS is to succeed, because this process reconciles the organisational purpose with the needs and feelings of the people. Smit *et al.* (2002:279) point out that "leadership can now be defined from management perspective as influencing and directing the behaviour of individuals and groups in such a way that they work willingly to pursue the objectives and goals of an organisation."

5.3.8 Government commitment

For effective management of the NEPAD LDS, governments of the SADC member countries as long-term core stakeholders with power and legitimacy should ensure visible and meaningful leadership and commitment. The governments must seek to use regulations to help the NEPAD LDS achieve certain social goals that are deemed to be in the public interest. According to Palmer and Hartley (2002:251),

At the national level, governments pass legislation that directly affects the relationships between the firm and its customers … sometimes legislation has a direct effect on the organisation … at other times is less direct … The government is additionally responsible for protecting the public interest at large.

Governments should keep people informed by using their regulatory powers to require the NEPAD LDS management to reveal certain kinds of information to the people. Another social goal that the governments will have to address includes the

preservation of interest, security, considerations of fairness and the protection of those who will be implementing the NEPAD LDS. Tax deductibility, tax incentives and depreciation policies are tools that are at the disposal of governments, and those governments should ensure that these tools do not hinder the implementation of the NEPAD LDS. As Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2004:1) argue,

> Government services play critical role in providing a stable environment for investment and economic growth … Thus it is imperative to recognise that services are not peripheral activities but rather integral parts of the society … and are central to a functioning and healthy economy and lie at the heart of the economy.

After establishing the implementation strategy of the NEPAD LDS, it is imperative that the sustainability strategy for this initiative should be established as well. The following section therefore discusses the sustainability plan of the NEPAD LDS.

5.4 Designing the sustainability plan for the NEPAD LDS

Capacities at different levels of the NEPAD LDS, such as the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development, the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit and the NEPAD LDS country hubs, should be sustained. The sustainability techniques and approaches are applicable at all levels, although others are more appropriate at one level than at others. In the following section, these techniques and approaches are discussed and grouped according to the perspectives of the three levels mentioned above.

5.4.1 Sustainability from the perspective of the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development

Sustainability from the perspective of the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development can be assumed through the institutionalisation of strategic management. Strategic management at this level will depend on strengthening and sustaining the participatory processes, ensuring that all stakeholders within the directorate of social and human development are involved, participate or are consulted on a regular basis. According to Rue and Byars (2003:77), "Everyone knows the old axiom that two heads are better than one. Empirical

evidence generally supports this view … group performance is frequently better than that of an average group member."

However, Eccles (1996:171) has a different view on participative and consultative processes: "Involving everyone in the team may not help the decision process. Sharing decisions is not guaranteed to produce the optimal results if radical change is needed rather than the adjustment within the existing mindsets."

Strategic management at the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development will also depend on decentralisation where service programmes or outputs will have to be delivered as close as possible to the recipients. According to Rue and Byars (2003:148), "Centralisation and decentralisation refer to the degree of authority delegated by upper management." Eccles (1996:67), however, argues as follows:

> There is also a problem that if the organisation has decentralised feudal power to its divisions or units, the decisions barons will only introduce something when they think fit …Trying to galvanise action in a decentralised organisation can be a nightmare, compounded by the inhibitions at the centre.

Nevertheless, maintaining flexible and responsive decentralisation will lead to delegation to and empowerment of those responsible for the production and delivery of the outputs, services and decision making in the NEPAD LDS. Leana (1986; quoted in Robbins & Hunsaker, 2003:154) points out that "delegation allows a subordinate to make decisions by transferring authority from one organisational level to another lower level."

Another strategy the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development can employ to institutionalise strategic management that will eventually lead to sustainability at this level is to strengthen and maintain the transparency and accountability of decision-making processes. According to Kattzenbach (1997:50), "One of the critical litmus test for the real team is the existence of the true mutual accountability; best characterised by the phrase 'we should hold each other accountable rather than the boss holds us accountable'. It reflects a higher degree of commitment among the members of the real team." Sheppard (1993; quoted in Robbins & Hunsaker, 2003:184) however argues that

"Studies have shown that when teams focus only on group level performance targets and ignore individual contributions and responsibilities team members often engage in social loafing. They reduce their efforts because their individual contributions cannot be identified."

Allowing meaningful access to the information and sharing information with as broad a stakeholder community as possible and with other interested parties will ensure transparency and accountability at this level. The leadership commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development should therefore support the placement of and access to ICT in order to institutionalise strategic management at this level. As Quirke (1997:301) points out, ICTs allow

- a movement to networking; and

- a move from pushing information to pulling information.

According to Thompson Jr., Strickland III and Gamble (2005:357), "Accurate and timely information about daily operations is essential if managers are to gauge how well the strategy execution process is proceeding."

Apart from institutionalising strategic management as an approach to attain sustainability at the leadership commission at the SADC Directorate of Social and Human Development should pay concerted attention to both the formal and informal coordinating mechanisms of the NEPAD LDS. Formal coordinating mechanisms comprise the structure processes linked to decision-making and management systems at all levels. Walmsley (1998:100) indicates that decision-making becomes more complex when there are several alternatives to be considered. The informal coordinating mechanisms are those aspects of work culture that entrench an ethic of teamwork. Therefore, fostering an ethic of teamwork will be essential during the implementation of the NEPAD LDS. Thornhill, Lewis, Millmore and Saunders (2000:50) identify two types of coordinating mechanisms/networking forms for organisations:

- Internal networks are those strategic units that supply components or services from one part of an organisation to another. This arrangement is used to promote organisational efficiency and innovation.

- Vertical networks involve different organisations centred on one core organisation, working together to produce and supply a good or a service.

Sustainability at the leadership commission at the Directorate of Social and Human Development will need good resources, planning and management practices, technical support and consultations.

What follows in the next section is the discussion of sustainability from the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit perspective.

5.4.2 Sustainability from the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit perspective

Sustainability from the perspective of the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will be enhanced through the unit's capacity to identify and respond to change quickly, efficiently and effectively. The senior management will also have to determine where the NEPAD LDS will continually meet the SADC regional needs. According to Thompson and Strickland (1998:18), "Usually senior managers … are also involved in proposing key elements of the overall company strategy and developing major new strategic initiatives." The middle managers within the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will have to ensure sustainability by translating the decisions of senior management into tangible, attainable objectives that the country hubs can deliver while organising work. This will lead to good service delivery. According to Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2004:424), "The way a service is delivered is as important as the results produced for the customers … continuous [service] improvement efforts should have a payoff in both the improved quality and lower costs."

Apart from ensuring sustainability through change management, the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will have to employ performance-based management as well. Bramham (1998:79) points out that, "[i]n order to ensure that objectives are being met and individual performance standards are being achieved, an organisation needs some method of checking and discussing performance."

Employing performance-based management will oblige the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit management to adjust its thinking and management style. Walmsley's (1998:xi) view is as follows: "Managers must stop to think about which style they are going to apply to a given situation, and to be cognisant of why they have chosen that style. The approach chosen must correspond to the needs in the

situation." This implies that, instead of controlling how budgets are spent, the NEPAD LDS coordinating unit will have to indicate what it expects in return for allocated funding. For Conradie and Fourie (2002:5), "The term financial management also covers the responsibility for making sure the business makes the best use of its financial resources." Financial management as described here will be a fundamental change in management style in the SADC corporate culture and it should be expected that an extended settling in period would be required.

In the following section, sustainability from the country hubs' perspective is discussed.

5.4.3 Sustainability from country hubs' perspectives

Many of the sustainability issues previously discussed also apply at country hubs level, and are therefore not repeated in this discussion. Other sustainability issues that must be emphasised as vital to sustaining the capacities at country hubs level are as follows:

Education and training: (e.g. skills development, retaining a continuous process, on the job training, apprenticeship and mentorship) Tuagg and Albon (1992; cited in Thornhill, Lewis, Millmore & Sanders, 2000:172) indicate that training interventions should switch from an emphasis on generic, off-the-jobs courses to work-based actions that have been designed collaboratively to address identified needs specifically. Thornhill *et al*. (2000:162) make the counteracting suggestion that training has been criticised for failing to provide consistent direction, but is concentrating on the certainties of vocational relevance rather than on longer-term knowledge demands that are relevant to impact future.

Incentives and security*:* (e.g. pensions, rewards, promotions and recognition) According to Thompson and Strickland (1998:327), "If a strategy implementer's motivational approach and reward structure induces too much stress, internal competitiveness and job insecurity, the results can be counter productive."

Performance and accountability: (e.g. for results and outputs, individual and managerial accountability) Noe (2002:113) indicates that persons with a performance orientation define success as high performance relative to others, value high ability

more than learning, and find that errors and mistakes cause anxiety and want to avoid them.

Management development: (e.g. for leadership, executive management) According to Thornhill *et al*. (2000:170), "The strategic complexion of manager development is readily discernable if we accept that an organisation's ability to secure current and future competitive advantage is dependent, in part, on quality of managers."

Network environments: (e.g. for teamwork-based activities, communications, cooperation, morale, support systems, group performance) According to Thornhill *et al*. (2000:51),

> In general terms there appears to be a number of HR implications arising from the types of network arrangements and structural relationships. This includes issues related to coordination, cooperation, communication, quality, training and development, performance management, involvement and commitment.

Information Communication Technology: (e.g. getting the information needed and having access to facilities such as workstations, telecommunications) According to Quirke (1997:308), "Information systems exist that make the wide distribution and accessibility of information possible … People should become well informed … people want information on demand, not when it suits the deliverer to send it."

The summary of the discussions presented in this chapter is presented here below. Conclusions that are drawn from these discussions are also presented in the following discussions.

5.5 Summary and conclusions

The purpose of this chapter was to develop a NEPAD LDS that includes social responsiveness strategy. The need for such a model of leadership development programme is based in part on evidence that there is trade-off between building better leadership development strategies and building better leaders who build superior strategies. Again this model of leadership development programme is based on the

identified key leadership needs of the SADC. The questions that follow are covered in detail in the implementation strategy for the NEPAD LDS:

- What does the NEPAD LDS look like? The NEPAD LDS is adapted to the key leadership needs of the SADC region.

- What audience is the NEPAD LDS prepared for? The audience is drawn from the SADC long-term core stakeholders. However different versions of implementation strategies are to be prepared for different groups, depending on the nature of stakeholder relationships.

- How is the NEPAD LDS development started? This strategy is tackled as any project would be tackled, with solid action plans, financing, management accountability, timeline and quality targets.

- Are there other reasons to develop the NEPAD LDS? This leadership strategy will also help build NEPAD ownership in the SADC, generate buy-in and consensus, as well as resolve various internal issues within the SADC.

Again the NEPAD LDS is devised based on the fact that most of the SADC member countries have suffered social and economic deterioration, and that there indications of growing political will among significant number of leaders to change the present conditions. Thus they have accepted the formation of the NEPAD initiative, which seeks to generate new forms of cooperation between Africa and developed world. The NEPAD LDS is therefore designed in such a way that it addresses a wide-ranging vision for promoting better governance, eradicating poverty and placing the SADC region on the path to sustainable growth. This implies that this strategy will ensure the SADC ownership, responsibility and leadership in the region's development.

Apart from being NEPAD- based, the envisaged leadership strategy is devised in such a way that it answers the question: "how can the NEPAD LDS be socially responsive?" The answer is that this strategy will enhance the SADC's social responsiveness and capabilities. The capabilities for social responsiveness require knowledge and action from leaders in all spheres within this region. Leaders that will participate in the NEPAD LDS will be able to understand linkages and interdependence between the SADC and its stakeholders that contribute to long-term prosperity. In turn, the ethical behaviour will be reflected in the SADC's behaviour

when it maintains an atmosphere in which people care about the well being of others. This implies that the SADC will be accountable to its stakeholders for its social impacts.

The following are conclusions derived from the discussions that are carried out in this chapter:

- Leadership development strategies must assist institutions to be in harmony with prevailing societal values, and to be answerable to universal ethical norms

- Components of a leadership development strategy need to be integrated if organisations are to obtain best outcomes from their social responsiveness capabilities.

- The responsiveness principle requires an organisation to provide evidence that it has coherently responded to stakeholder's concerns, policies and relevant standards.

- NEPAD LDS will ensure consistency between the SADC leaders' ambitions and strategies for growing value with their development priorities and shape-of-performance delivery.

- NEPAD LDS will enable the SADC leaders acquire standards tightly linked to intrinsic value creation.

The next chapter will present the findings and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

At this point, this study has reached most of its initial objectives, but more work needs to be done if we are to have a better understanding of the underpinnings of leadership development, the social responsiveness strategy and NEPAD principles. This dissertation started out with the following set of ambitious tasks: defining the character and quality of the SADC analysis; the SADC stakeholders analysis; determining current realities in the SADC; the analysis of leadership challenges in the SADC; the SADC planning assumptions analysis; the SADC validation points analysis; the SADC key drivers analysis; the establishment of the SADC key leadership needs; and determining the strategic plan for the NEPAD LDS.

Forces driving SADC development are a complex mix of social, technological, environmental, economic and political factors, magnified by inadequate leadership and social responsiveness strategies. These interact in ways that are not always predictable. This study therefore sought an adjustment that could bring competitive advantage to this region and enable its decision-makers to take a proactive approach to building leadership talent, which is not just a tool to help the SADC achieve its strategy, but rather a process by which this region can develop a viable development strategy.

In this chapter, the findings of this study are presented as concrete facts, regardless of whether they support the objectives of the study, followed by discussion and critical analysis.

The findings are based on the questions that were the source of motivation for this study. These questions, formulated in Chapter 1, are as follows:

- How is the macro-environment of the SADC as it restructures its institutions and operations?

- What social and ethical issues in the SADC the NEPAD LDS could address?

- What kind of leadership development can make the NEPAD LDS initiative successful?

6.1.1 Objective

The main objective of this chapter is to examine the entire study to detect inherent salient features, summarise and report them as findings, discuss them and present a conclusion at the end of each finding.

6.1.2 Overview

The following are the research questions and the main findings pertaining to each of these research questions:

How is the macro-environment of the SADC as it restructures its institutions and operations?

The main findings pertaining to this research question are that the SADC stakeholders are diverse and that this organisation must relate well and widely at a cultural level. Leaders of this region must be able to function and appreciate all aspects of the diverse stakeholders. The SADC is blessed with abundant natural resources, both underground and above ground, but most of the people of this region live below the poverty line. The identified key leadership needs can be categorised into ICT-oriented leadership needs. This implies that the NEPAD LDS, including a social responsiveness strategy, should focus on developing "e-leadership" capability in the SADC. This will in turn assist in introducing an "e-governance" system throughout the region. The other category of these identified key leadership needs is that of economic-oriented needs. Therefore, the NEPAD LDS will be an attempt to promote the economic and social development of this region. Course content on economic development and leadership will be necessary as it will help leaders to know and understand competing wants within their communities, as well as their resources. The last category is that of politics-oriented key leadership needs. There is a need for a leadership development course content area that will urge that traditional values and ideas be brought to bear on modern political life and thought.

What social and ethical issues in the SADC the NEPAD LDS could address?

One of the findings that emerged is that the central issue ingrained in this proposed strategic intervention is how to meet the needs of the SADC organisation along with the needs of its society. In other words, how can the SADC organisation be kept viable along with people and their whole environment? How does one design a

leadership development programme that will serve, protect and enhance the quality of public life? How does one keep the SADC viable through NEPAD LDS? The other finding is that the suggested leadership development programme and social responsiveness strategy has ethical dimensions for sustainable development. This intervention is associated with a set of values that should be upheld to promote the welfare of current and future generation of the SADC.

What kind of leadership development can make the NEPAD LDS initiative successful?

The major findings that pertain to the above-stated research question are that the NEPAD LDS has to promote thought leadership skills, results-based skills, people leadership skills and self-leadership skills if it is to be successful. The NEPAD LDS has to be socially responsive if it is to be successful.

In the section that follows, the above-stated findings are discussed further and a conclusion for each finding is presented immediately thereafter.

6.2 The SADC macro-environment as the SADC restructures its institutions and operations

Findings

The SADC operations and institutions affect many groups. The stakeholder model or analysis used recognises all stakeholders and identifies relationships (long-term core stakeholders, immediate core stakeholders, dependent stakeholders, violent or coercive stakeholders, demanding stakeholders, discretionary stakeholders and dormant stakeholders). This analysis is found to be helpful in decision-making because supportive, marginal and non-supportive stakeholders must be considered when making decisions pertaining to the NEPAD LDS. This analysis will also be beneficial in the design and execution of the NEPAD LDS.

A wide range of people and groups represent the SADC stakeholders and this expands and liberates the appreciation of what the SADC leadership responsibility really is, and how it extends. Thus, this stakeholder analysis is found to identify the SADC's full responsibilities. Fundamentally, this stakeholder analysis brings about understanding of and respect for the needs of others, and as far as possible

incorporating them into the philosophy, objectives, processes and activities of the envisaged NEPAD LDS.

Conclusion

It is concluded that the SADC stakeholder analysis will humanise the NEPAD LDS because it will enable leaders of this initiative to take on the responsibility to address the meaning they provide to the people. Leaders will be able to embrace diversity, participatory management approaches, systemic and holistic models, a focus on processes and social responsiveness. They will recognise that putting people first is good, and they will understand and care about the impacts of their decisions on themselves, on other people and on the world around them. This does not mean that these leaders will have to comply with all stakeholders' concerns, but will have to respond coherently and consistently to them in providing an adequate response. It is concluded, therefore, that the SADC stakeholder analysis will enable the NEPAD LDS to improve the accountability and sustainability performance by learning through stakeholder engagement.

Findings

The SADC is endowed with natural resources as it restructures its institutions and operations. This region has abundant minerals and precious metals, diamonds, gold, petroleum, copper, uranium and so on. It also has are massive tropical forests, especially in the DRC, Tanzania and Mozambique. Water is plentiful in countries such as Lesotho because of its location at water sources such as the Maloti Mountains and Mount Aux Source.

However, despite the natural abundance, most SADC member countries experience poverty. For example, in Angola and the DRC civil conflicts are triggered both by the desire to monopolise natural resources and the exchange of natural resources for weapons. Zambia also has large deposits of copper, but copper is blamed for the country's poverty and social ills, because it benefits elites and foreign businesses.

Conclusion

It is concluded that there is a need for policy to better manage the SADC natural resources. Governments, civil society and intergovernmental organisations in

the region can do this. Civil society can monitor the operations of natural resource sector because natural resources are primarily located outside the cities. Local groups can ensure that pressure is put on the supply and demand side of those involved in the plunder of natural resources for private gain. In this way, the natural resources can become a real source for development that benefits the poor and not only the region's political and economic elites and those from outside the region, because there will be engagement from below and above on issues that are natural resource-based.

Findings

It is also found that there are key leadership needs as the SADC restructures its institutions and operations. These key leadership needs are categorised in three groups: ICT-oriented leadership needs, economic-oriented leadership needs and politics-oriented needs. The following findings are based on these categories of key leadership needs.

The majority of people still remain untouched by the benefits of ICT and yet ICT can play an important role in reducing poverty, improving education and enhancing political participation and empowerment. The already scarce ICTs in the SADC are accessible to only a few people and do not contribute significantly to the achievement of fundamental human development in this region.

ICTs are not seen a the solution to every ill and it is therefore found that there is a need in the SADC that ICTs are adopted within a framework of social and cultural vision. The SADC has to develop leaders who are conscious of the fact that communication is a human issue. ICTs should be for the sustainable development of the people and leaders should be able to adapt technology to the needs of people.

It is also found that ICT can play a vital role in changing the course of freedom and democratic strength because access to knowledge can enable people of the SADC to have an impact on how to relate with their governments or participate effectively in political activities. ICTs can provide vital up-to-date information that is relevant to the lives and challenges of the people of the SADC, and this information will empower them with tools to improve their circumstances. ICT can therefore provide the people of the SADC with electronic discussions and networks, which will enable them to share and exchange views and experiences that can enrich their worldviews.

Furthermore, the SADC needs to reappraise the educational curriculum from the primary to tertiary levels in tune with the dynamics of ICT. Education is seen as an investment for the future and ICT can offer significant opportunities to people. This however depends on good policies, and enabling environment and increased ICT-supportive educational levels. SADC leaders must supply electric energy even to the rural areas because ICTs depend entirely on this kind of energy.

ICTs can promote and facilitate trade by providing the SADC exporters with accurate up-to-date information and this will cut down on time, human and financial resources that can be spent on market research without the ICT. This will facilitate the exchange of relevant business information between prospective buyers and sellers. That is why the SADC leadership should address the necessity to have ICT support for concurrent and future developmental activities. ICTs such as the Internet can facilitate the development of a regional best-practice database that can help all member countries to find appropriate information and guidance for sustainable development. The Internet will also provide a better mechanism for partner searches and selecting the appropriate participants for the regional NEPAD activities, thus achieving sustainable economic growth.

Conclusions

It is concluded that the key leadership needs demand a unique strategic leadership programme content that focuses on the relationship between the ICT and leadership. The course content on ICT and leadership development will enable leaders of the SADC to take their role in leading and developing ICT. The content should not be skills-based, but rather should provide an opportunity for the SADC leaders to build their knowledge and understanding of key issues in ICT, and should use technology to enhance their leadership. The course content should help the SADC leaders to gain confidence in their professional judgement and develop skills, knowledge and understanding to lead ICT. This course content should also enable SADC leaders to develop an environment that is supportive of ICT reform and ICT-based development.

This implies that the NEPAD LDS programme comprising a social responsiveness strategy should focus on developing "e-leadership" capability in the SADC. This will in turn assist in introducing an "e-governance" system throughout

the region. Therefore, the objectives of this course content should be to build a knowledge management capability within the SADC leadership, and to encourage the use of ICT to develop sustainable practices for the economic development of the region, as well as to enable leaders of this region to establish a regional communication network. In this way, the SADC will become a learning organisation because knowledge will not just be documented and stored, but will be shared, which will lead to the success of this region.

Findings

SADC leaders lack the ability to generate attractive conditions for foreign investment into the region. This involves the establishment of the fundamental components of the region's economic apparatus, such as economic departments that are appropriate for trade liberalisation. . The SADC should also abolish barriers to competition and the establishment of anti-trust laws must precede changes in the structure of ownership. This will curb failures that are usually caused by a failure to follow the correct order. SADC leaders have to be cautious of the fact that liberalisation of capital markets and natural monopolies require effective regulation so as to avoid economic abuses. These leaders must increase saving rates, including tax reforms, to improve the operations of markets. The SADC organisation should play an active role in the generation of economic growth for this region.

The SADC organisation does not consider the general framework of sound microeconomic management and there is a huge variation between its member states with respect to levels of public revenues and expenditure, and the consumption and degree of economic centralisation. Therefore, the structural economic reforms should not constrain the capacity of member states as instruments of growth. For this to be effective, the regional bureaucracy will have to be competent, honest and accountable. If this is to be achieved, leaders of this region will have to restructure public expenditure by investing in human capital rather than in non-competitive industries, infrastructure and labour market policies. This region should also help in reaching external markets with information products and technology and there should therefore be an investment in communication, energy and transportation. In sum, leaders of this region need to emphasise the critical role of the SADC organisation in redistributing resources and maintaining social cohesion, and its responsibility to promote active

policies such as job creation, education and training to prevent a high unemployment rate. Therefore, the SADC has to reorient its public expenditures.

It is also found fiscal resources are severely limited in the SADC region as regional expenditure is largely based on external aid. SADC member states have inherited very limited public revenues and adept leaders from their colonial masters. This has resulted in economic inequity and ineffectual leaders, which means that reorienting public expenditures will be a political battle because of entrenched interests, as previous beneficiaries of privileges can attempt to sabotage fiscal reforms.

It is often argued that the redistribution of assets and consumption misallocates productive resources and that greater equality enhances efficiency and expands public support for economic reforms. In the case of productive assets that generate diminishing returns, it is found that SADC leaders should engage a more egalitarian distribution that can lead to greater economic outputs. Therefore, resources that increase productivity of fiscal and human capital must be considered as investment. In order to improve the quality of jobs, SADC leaders should focus on where jobs are actually being created. The main sources of job creation in the SADC are small and medium enterprises and these enterprises must consequently have better access to finance and technology, and better links with larger firms. A large informal sector is also prominent in the SADC. This sector is gradually incorporated into a regional formal economy. The informal sector can be a site of entrepreneurial initiative and can also contribute to the profitability of formal business. The informal sector also plays a significant role in alleviating poverty and provides a safety net.

There is a limited public resource in the SADC and leaders of this region must direct their distributive programmes to the welfare of socio-economic groups or geographical areas rather than targeting households. They must however avoid stigmatisation usually associated with the receipt of the benefits. Even with these limited resources, much can be done to attend to people's needs and to fight poverty.

Conclusions

It is concluded that the economic-oriented key leadership needs call for a stronger leadership role in the economic sphere of the SADC. What are called for are leaders who will be able to focus the region's resources on critical problems; leaders

who will help link underserved groups to needed services; leadership that undertake intensive monitoring and evaluation of development initiative; and leaders that promote the appreciation and the use of participatory development methodologies. These leaders have to be able to generate a knowledge economy and respond effectively to globalisation. It is against this background that it is concluded that leadership in the SADC should be enhanced to be able to engage in long-term choices based on foresight methods of planning that will shed light on and guide the medium-term plans that will specify strategic options and the intermediate objectives needed for the realisation of the SADC's vision. The key to helping leaders recover their energy and productivity is to have a well-established process for identifying and pulling leadership talent into greater roles in shaping the SADC economic future.

It is furthermore concluded that the SADC consists of developing countries that aim to develop economically as quickly as possible. One reality facing leaders today in this region is that dramatic change in the economy and the associated adjustment needed within the organisation might cause a phase of decline in the economy. To prevent this decline, leaders in this region must be aware of the economic trends within their communities. Therefore, course content on economic development will be vital in the curriculum of the leadership development programme.

The leadership development programme in the SADC will be an effort to promote economic and social development of this region. Therefore, including content on economic development and leadership will be necessary because it will help leaders to know and understand competing wants within their communities, and also their resources. Understanding the resource-base is an important tool for understanding more about their communities, which will enable leaders to know what happens in the population trends in their communities and their implications for leadership.

In understanding their communities, the SADC leaders will develop an understanding of the outside sources of goods, as well as those that can be made within their communities. The economic welfare level of their communities is important because it tends to determine all kinds of expenditure. It will give some kind of indication of the amount of money people can spend on various aspects of

their life. This knowledge is very valuable to leaders because it will help them understand the values of their communities, as well as their communities' socialisation factors.

Findings

The SADC faces particularly acute problems and challenges, which means that the general prescriptions for democratic reforms and development must be adapted to the specific needs of this region. From the STEEP analysis of the political trends of the SADC, it is found that the SADC does not provide a robust constitutional system that enhances pluralistic democracy, and does not fully enhance democratic participation. This implies that, in order to promote political growth in the SADC, certain domestic conditions have to be established, such as political stability and progress towards the rule of law, political accountability and administrative transparency. At the same time, some external conditions must also be cautiously monitored, such as global imperialistic hegemonic moves. Democracy can also be sustained by improving democratic governance in the SADC.

Leaders of this region should take accountability and transparency seriously because these are major components of good democratic governance. These leaders have to be accountable to all stakeholders and be transparent in their deliberations and transactions. They should promote viable institutional structures, and increase private sector participation in the policy-making process.

Leaders of the SADC do not share common democratic ideals and the commitment to building a region in which rule of law reigns supreme. The SADC should therefore establish grounds for good governance that is responsive to people's needs and local culture at the regional level. In this way, the trust and confidence of people in political institutions will not be eroded because there will be rule of law, and governments will be able to provide minimum social justice to the people.

The politics-oriented key leadership need of the SADC demands democratic-oriented solutions. This implies that decision-makers in this region have to reform the political system before it is too late and there is a total breakdown of order. If this is not done, chaos and complexity will remain in SADC politics for the foreseeable future. Lack of educated, visionary and honest leadership will contribute to the

problem and there is therefore a need for the NEPAD LDS programme comprising a social responsiveness strategy.

Conclusions

The SADC lacks strong political leadership, a culture of accountability, well-functioning institutions and democratic processes, and favourable political conditions for development. Nevertheless, the principle of popular government had been firmly established in the traditional African political practice. The irony is that the search for democracy in post-colonial Southern Africa has been an odyssey, a long journey the end of which is not yet fully in sight. Another irony is that ideas and values of democratic government, such as popular will, free expression of opinion, consensus and reconciliation consultations and conferring are present in the African tradition and government. They are not alien to the indigenous political cultures of the SADC people either. However, most modern Southern African political systems did not embrace these political values and the consequences had been authoritarian politics and illegitimate seizure of political power.

There is therefore a need for a leadership development course content area that will urge that traditional values and ideas be brought to bear on modern political life and thought. It is true that conditions in which indigenous democratic institutions operated were different from what they are to day. It is however also evident that certain aspects of traditional views are incompatible with the modern situation and will be a hindrance to the evolution of democratic systems. Nevertheless, there are other traditional political conceptions that will be conducive to the evolution of democratic practice even in large modern political settings.

This course content area on African democratic governance will enable leaders in the SADC to express in their own fashion certain basic ideas of democracy and the idea that the government of people must be responsive to the wishes of people. The allowance made for the expression of opinion on public matters will enable people of this region to be involved in decision-making at different levels. Decision-making involves consensus and consultation methods, which lead to inclusion.

6.3 What social and ethical issues in the SADC the NEPAD LDS could address?

Findings

The suggested NEPAD LDS has ethical dimensions for sustainable development. This intervention is associated with a set of values that should be upheld to promote the welfare of current and future generation of the SADC. The issues of information, participation and transparency are ethically based because they relate to the need for all stakeholders to make informed choices. These issues again are essential to sustainable development because of their strong ethical overtones. The following discussions are based on ethical overtones adopted from Wong and Dufrene (2001), because the proposed intervention will provide the SADC public with its democratic right to participate in decisions that will affect their lives.

The design of this proposed initiative ensures that the most vulnerable group, which is least influential in the SADC region, will be given a fair distribution of benefits. If this vulnerable group is treated justly, it is likely that the dominant group will also be treated justly in the distribution of benefits. In this study, women are taken to be the most vulnerable in terms of influence because they have the fewest opportunities to become decision-makers in the SADC. It has been observed that the average representation of women in the parliaments of this region stands at 20%. This increase has been more rapid than anywhere in the world since the Beijing Conference. At the moment, there is an unstoppable march towards women's equal participation in decision-making in the SADC. The proposed intervention of the NEPAD LDS in the SADC will therefore play a significant role in accelerating this process, and in so doing serve the interests of the most vulnerable group in this region.

The NEPAD LDS proposed for the SADC in this study will not remove entitled benefits from one group and give them to another, which complies with the ethics of benefits distribution and fair distributive justice. This in turn assures the fair allocation of benefits among men and women. This study takes into account the total amount of services that will be distributed through the proposed initiative, in addition to the distributing procedure and the pattern of distribution that will result.

Furthermore, this proposed initiative will promote equality and equity because it will provide a platform for equal opportunity and participation. Participation in this

initiative will be according to the effort or ability of people, and according to the needs of the SADC region, because structural barriers such as educational, cultural, social and historically factors will not be the determining factors for participation.

The NEPAD LDS, including the social responsiveness strategy, abides by the ultimate norm of high morality in the culture of the SADC region, namely that of human dignity. This proposed initiative demands that the SADC decision-makers take their role more seriously than before. Leadership must be at the forefront of the battle to keep the region, its institutions and its citizens abiding by the morals encompassed in the golden rule. These decision-makers will therefore be compelled by this proposed initiative to be vocal, political and committed. Their actions will be expected to match what they say and they will be expected to stay beyond reproach by focussing on the "right thing" and maintaining a caring attitude when dealing with people.

The above discussions confirm that the NEPAD LDS intervention has ethical dimensions for sustainable development.

The central issue ingrained in the NEPAD LDS implementation strategy is how to meet the needs of the SADC organisation along with the needs of its society: How can the SADC organisation be kept viable along with people and their whole environment? How does one implement a leadership development programme that will serve, protect and enhance the quality of public life? How does one keep the SADC viable through the NEPAD LDS?

This is a dilemma because, if only leadership development is emphasised, people of this region will be denied the benefits that derive from organised collective activity. If the social responsiveness strategy alone is emphasised, people of this region, as well as the SADC organisation itself will be unable to find proper guidance to set up the strategy. Therefore, the leadership development programme should not be implemented in isolation, or in exclusion of a social responsiveness strategy component.

Conclusions

It is concluded that the ethical dimensions of the NEPAD LDS challenge existing patterns of behaviour of leadership in this region. These dimensions demand

that the NEPAD LDS has an understanding of and a contextual basis for defining leadership based on the integrated approach to managing change as an essential element of an effective social responsiveness strategy. This implies that rights will be best enforced through the existence of corresponding obligations and, consequently, those individuals responsible for enforcing ethical obligations will require accompanying resources and capabilities.

The focus of this intervention is on the relation between the rights and obligations, aspirations and capabilities of the SADC leaders. The leadership development programme and the social responsiveness strategy are therefore two perspectives on sustainable development, one reflecting the needed attention to the development of professional ethics in responding to the macro-environment of the SADC, and the other reflecting the need to adequately equip and motivate decision-makers to be ethical in their roles. Since these two concepts are competing, it is important that they are integrated for sustainability purposes.

6.4 The kind of leadership development that can make NEPAD LDS initiative successful

Findings

Quality is one of the functions designed into the NEPAD LDS. Quality can be defined as meeting people's needs and providing superior value. It is against this definition that the Quality Function Deployment (QFD) approach, as suggested by Crow (2002), is found to be necessary in the design of the proposed strategy. QFD is a structured approach to defining people's needs and translating them into specific plans to produce products/services to meet those needs.

The NEPAD LDS's main goal is "action" not "knowledge". It therefore has to be designed with the realisation that there is a need to do more than simply providing decision-makers with knowledge and information. Participants must be equipped with skills, qualities and techniques to apply, hence "action learning" is emphasised.

The NEPAD LDS has to be global in nature if QDF is employed in its design. The global nature of this operational strategy means that it is designed in such a way that it is not constrained to apply only to the SADC, but to the world at large. This strategy conforms to these requirements through its integrated and holistic

approaches, which will enable the SADC leadership to find a niche in the global economy activities needed in this region.

The NEPAD LDS is also designed in such a way that it will promote innovation and knowledge networks, because the success of the SADC region economies will rely more upon the effectiveness of the leaders of the SADC in creating, gathering and utilising knowledge. The knowledge-economy-based characteristic of this strategy is driven by the rate of change needed in this region. This region needs to get access to knowledge-intensive and learning-intensive relations if it is to realise NEPAD's goals.

Furthermore, the NEPAD LDS has to be aligned with the SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) because it is rooted in an overall vision of this region: "That of common future, a future within a regional community that will ensure economic well-being, improvement of standards of living quality of life, freedom and social justice and peace and security of people of Southern Africa" (Executive summary, background and content: SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan).

This strategy should be aligned with other SADC key human resources processes because it will have to ensure that the desired behaviours and working practices are supported and encouraged. It should be rooted within an integrated framework of the SADC management processes and the design of this strategy should ensure that core processes are aligned to support the achievement of strategic goals through appropriate skills and behaviour.

Conclusions

The SADC has to revolutionise its strategic planning processes as a way to employ QDF in the operations of the NEPAD LDS. Leaders of this region have a greater stake in staging a revolution than preserving the status quo. Opportunities for a revolutionary planning strategy are many and mostly unexplored in the SADC. As the SADC faces change, from the rapid increases in population to the decline in economic growth, planners and policy makers in this region must address a range of complex issues that affect changes into the future. In order to make good decisions that are sustainable for people and natural resources, SADC leaders must have relevant

information and follow fair processes to evaluate progress towards clearly articulated and shared goals, such as the ones offered by the NEPAD LDS.

These implications demand that leaders of the SADC must look for ways to redefine the services and even the entire structure of SADC organisation. Revolutionising the planning strategy is more necessary now than ever. The problems posed by the analysis of these NEPAD LDS strategy-shaping factors are not just problems of justice and distribution, but of modes of production and lifestyles. Therefore, the SADC leadership should establish a region with a management strategy that embodies the principles of the new science of politics and apply them in innovative ways through a set of institutional inventions; thus QDF. Apart from institution building, the SADC's revolutionary planning should offer a new and different leadership model, because interrelationship between people and their leaders is the key to an effective and successful society.

The revolutionary planning strategy will be realised in the SADC if leaders of this region are able to anticipate the impact of the strategy-shaping factors. Revolutionary planning depends on obtaining accurate data about change in the organisation's external environment. Planning in the SADC has been largely a budgetary and internally-oriented effort, but these leadership challenges call for greater attention to the external environment.

Findings

Looking at the leadership challenges generated by the analysis if the SADC macro-environment, skill-requirements found to be critical for the SADC leadership emerge. Nelson-Neuhaus, Skube, Lee, Stevens, Hellervik and Davis (2004) cite the following four skill-dimensions necessary for leadership: thought leadership skills, results-based skills, people leadership skills and self-leadership skills. These skills are found to be the ones that can make the NEPAD LDS successful:

Thought-leadership skills

The NEPAD LDS will need to facilitate acquisition of thought-leadership skills, which include the ability to analyse issues, champion change, establish plans, manage execution, provide direction and use sound judgment.

Results-leadership skills

The NEPAD LDS will have to enable acquisition of results-leadership skills, which include the ability to drive for results, lead courageously and show work commitment.

People-leadership skills

This type includes the ability to build relationships, coach and develop, foster open communications, foster teamwork, influence others and motivate others, and it is found that the NEPAD LDS can facilitate them.

Self-leadership skills

This type includes the ability to act with integrity, demonstrate adaptability and develop oneself. The SADC region will become more diverse and plural if its leadership has self-leadership skills. It is found that the NEPAD LDS will facilitate such skills.

Conclusions

Considering the leadership challenges that emerged from the STEEP analysis of the SADC macro-environment, it is concluded that the following scenarios will result if the NEPAD LDS could provide thought leadership skills, results-based skills, people leadership skills and self-leadership skills:

Socially

The income level in the SADC will continue to rise and as a result the social structure in this region will become more diverse and plural. In addition, the massive migration from rural sectors into urban sectors coupled with the emergence of new industries and growth of various professions will dramatically increase social mobility in this region. These changes will give the SADC society greater autonomy and will increase social diversity, indirectly enhancing the creation of professionals and specialisations. Growing pluralism in the SADC will be reflected in the increase of NGOs. This will be the product of both rising social diversity and loosening of government restrictions on society.

Technologically

Technology will be a powerful force that will propel change in the SADC during this scenario. There will be an unfolding information revolution in this region. This expansion of access to information will increase the amount of information available to the SADC people. There are signs that the emerging ICT revolution with the commercialisation of the media and spread of the Internet will have some impact on leadership behaviour. The force of public opinion will compel the leadership of this region to be more responsive and it will be increasingly difficult for leadership to conceal major corruption scandals. Many such stories will be carried on the Internet and will spread quickly across the region. ICT will expand contact between the SADC and the outside world. The knowledge acquired through the Internet will be available for use in reform processes in this region.

Environmentally

The SADC will begin to adopt principles of environmentalism: the protection of the biosphere by reducing the release of any substance that may cause environmental damage to air, water or earth or its inhabitants; sustainable use of natural resources, such as water, soils and forests; reduction of disposable wastes and where possible elimination of waste through source reduction and recycling; energy conservation by improving energy efficiency in their operations; risk reduction by minimising the environmental health, and so on. It is during this era that the SADC will begin to conduct annual regional evaluations of the progress in implementing these principles.

Economically

The SADC will experience a rise in economic autonomy and employment opportunities in the non-state sector will grow explosively. Declining state-control over the economy will allow the average SADC citizens' unprecedented freedom in employment, residence and consumer choices. This trend will foster a more open society in this region because people will be less economically dependent on the state, and will thus be able to assert their rights and autonomy. The SADC will advance rapidly to realising economic autonomy during this future. Economic autonomy will denote the amount of resources controlled by the non-state sector in a society.

Politically

There will be several institutional reforms that begin to transform the SADC's political landscape during this scenario. Leaders of this region will be aware that more political reforms have to be made, such as strengthening of the legal system, which will be aimed at curbing cases of miscarriage of justice and environmental degradation causes. The reformation of the legal system will offer hope to people who are falling victim to abusive officials. The SADC leaders will consider building a modern legal system as a top priority in this era because these systems will be indispensable in the pursuit of economic reforms.

However, it is concluded that the following scenarios will result **if the NEPAD LDS is unable to provide** thought leadership skills, results-based skills, people leadership skills and self-leadership skills.

Socially

The oppressed people of the SADC will be participating in anti-leadership movements in the SADC on a massive scale. They will want to overthrow the authoritarian system and realise a democratic alternative because they will feel a gap between their expectations of democratic conditions and the present realities. There will be an exacerbation of social and democratic problems, such as crime, homelessness, AIDS, environmental pollution and alcohol and drug abuse. The SADC will then be a society of victims. People will see the SADC's institutions, governments and leadership as unfair and cruel. The SADC leadership during this future will abuse its power and its power will get out of balance. Consequently, there will a changed social contract in this region.

Technologically

Because of their preoccupation with their personal status, leaders in this region will not even be aware that technology revolutions will manage them. They will not be aware that the ICT revolution promise more positive and dramatic changes for the region and that ICT can allow this region to produce vast quantities of new goods at extraordinary low prices, which will make enormous advances for people of this region. These people SADC will seek assistance from anyone who will help them

shape and direct this enormous ICT forces bypassing their society, so that they can realise the enormous promise of this age.

Environmentally

Business will play a major role in contributing to the degradation of natural environment in the SADC during this future and the depletion will be beyond debate. Business will consume significant amounts of materials and energy, cause accumulation and resource degradation. To make matters worse, the SADC governments will use inadequate environmental data in recommending decisions based on short-term criteria and will incorporate the full costs to the potentially damaging projects. They will neglect to incorporate environmental concerns in their developmental decisions. The lives of people in this region will hang on these decisions because the results will often be ozone depletion, global warming, solid and hazardous wastes, degradation of the marine environments, deforestation, land degradation, and so on.

Economically

Because of the leadership disorder in the SADC during this scenario, there will also be economic disorder: heavy borrowing by the national government from banks and international lending agencies like World Bank and IMF. Yet, the SADC leadership will be doing nothing to alleviate these concerns. The over-expenditures of the region at the expense of taxpayers will create bitterness and hostility among people, and disgruntled elements will be threatening not to pay taxes. The burden of unnecessary expenditure will be passed on to the taxpayers, particularly those who have a fixed income. It is during this time that the SADC will be declared one of the most corrupt regions of the world, which will create a sea of embarrassment for the region at all levels. Now that the region will have achieved the supremacy in corruption, it will get no recognition in important fields such as the Olympics.

Politically

It is during this scenario that numerous political events of high significance will take place in a short space of time in the SADC. The region will fast become ungovernable. There will be so much lawlessness and insecurity in this region that people will be openly inviting any force that could free them from the authoritarian

and aggressive rule of the time. The trust and confidence of the SADC people in politics will erode. The absence of the rule of law and the failure of leadership to provide minimum social justice to people will create a credibility gap between this region and the people. A frustration among people will deepen during this scenario in the SADC and the feelings of insecurity at various levels will be growing at an alarming rate. This region will face the problem of how to revitalise the trust and confidence of people over the pillars of governance since the level of polarisation will be so deep that the future of democracy in the region will be threatened.

Findings

The STEEP analysis of the macro-environment of the SADC presents the SADC decision-makers with a choice. The SADC has to choose whether it wants leadership in which the virtues of justice and benevolence make sense or whether it wants an organisation in which people are just consumers of services and commodities because of inadequate leadership.

To meet the identified SADC key leadership needs, the proposed initiative links closely with the SADC's vision. This makes this initiative the "best" in the provision of leadership equality. This is evidenced by its commitment to creating a new generation of leaders, who have the talents and values needed by the SADC region.

The design processes of this proposed initiative is found to respond to the identified the SADC leadership needs because it is internally focused and externally cautious. The identified SADC leadership needs dictate the design of this proposed initiative and in turn this initiative focuses on building the skills of current and future leaders in the SADC.

Conclusions

It is important that the social responsiveness strategy is developed and adopted along with the leadership development programme because there is apparent conflict between the systematic delivery of regional social obligations and the need to engage in competitive activity in the SADC. When these strategies are so integrated, they will be able to drive development positively in the SADC. The focus of this intervention is on the relation between the rights and obligations, aspirations and capabilities of the

SADC leaders, which conforms to the view that the leadership development programme and the social responsiveness strategy are two perspectives on sustainable development. One reflects the needed attention to the development of professional ethics in responding to the macro-environment of the SADC, and the other reflects the need for adequately equipping and motivating decision-makers to be ethical in their roles. Since these two concepts are competing, it is important that they are integrated.

It is also concluded that the suggested intervention is context-sensitive because the SADC context was analysed. Features pertinent to the change situation were examined and appropriate design choices were selected based on information derived from context analysis. This intervention has therefore been developed within a context and is influenced by elements within this context. Consequently, the proposed leadership development programme is likely to be a success in the SADC because its adoption and implementation will be based on a deeper understanding of what it represents, which will enable this organisation to survive internal or external problems.

Adopting and domesticating the philosophy of the NEPAD to the envisaged leadership programme is essential in the SADC because this philosophy will provide a way of connecting the various practices of this region into a coherent whole and enable leaders of this region to cooperate in the mutual pursuit of common goals. Therefore, adopting and domesticating the philosophy of the NEPAD can develop the SADC leadership into a socially responsive body. By doing so, leadership will be fulfilling its economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities by acting within the prevailing social norms and using its resources to promote the overall welfare of its society.

The NEPAD LDS will face a daunting challenge to deliver an outstanding performance and demonstrating responsible socio-economic performance. Therefore, the NEPAD LDS will have to provide socially responsible services and products. However, social responsiveness activities are likely to remain at the margin if the NEPAD LDS systems do not make provision for recognising a wider range of development outputs associated with social responsiveness. The NEPAD LDS should therefore develop an overarching framework for social responsiveness.

It is finally concluded that the NEPAD LDS can compete for outstanding global social performance because this strategy will reconcile the SADC's social, technological, environmental, economic and political relationships with markets, cultures and peoples of this region and beyond. If the NEPAD LDS could focus on outstanding global social performance, this intervention will be a powerful change agent in the SADC region, and eventually in the entire global community. This implies that the NEPAD LDS will carry an enormous responsibility to improve the quality of life for citizens of the SADC region. The ideas in this study are possible to implement, given the necessary consideration and commitment. The NEPAD LDS is committed to acting in good faith with thoughtful foresight and making "right" and informed choices. Morton's (1996:202) thoughts are apposite in this context:

> Given that the world is such an uncertain place, most of our decisions involve choices between unknowns. We usually have far from perfect knowledge of consequences that the actions we are considering could have. This makes all decisions harder, not just those involving some moral considerations.

It is suggested that a follow-up study could investigate whether there is potential for a formation of an SADC Regional Foresight Institution, which could be a regional empowerment initiative that will provide for professional leadership development. This initiative will have to ensure the development of innovative minds, innovative thinking and decision-making in uncertain circumstances. The premises for undertaking such a study should be that the commitment and status of the organisations as champions of leadership development and involvement with their communities necessitate an empowerment initiative that offers insights about the future, and that it also helps organisations to determine the strategic implications of change.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdoulaye, B. 2002. International Monetary Fund: Africa's challenge, what must be done? [Online] available at Http://www.imf.org/external/np/vc/2002/082402.htm.

Abi-Saab, G. (ed.). 1989. The concept of international organisation. New York: UNESCO.

Africa Development Indicators. 2000. Washington: Africa database World Bank.

Africa Recovery. 2001. UN Department of Public Information, 15 (4): 17.

African Development Bank. 2002. Gender, poverty and environment. Ivory Coast: ADB.

African Development Indicators. 2002. Washington: Africa database World Bank

African Development report. 1993. Africa in the world economy: African Development. Cote d' Ivoire: ADB

Akwetey, E. 2002. Africa and the development challenges of 21st century. [Online] available at http://www.twnafrica.org/print.asp?twnID=208. Retrieved (20/10/2003).

Amadou-Matr-M'bow. 1982. Where the future begins. Paris: UNESCO.

Australian National Audit Office. [Online] available at http://www.anao.gov.au/web/wspub.nsf/38f33e163f07a72ca256c20023c58c/4ab227 … (23rd/08/2001).

AWID. 2003. Ten principles for challenging Neo-liberal globalisation. Key paper for the economic justice, mini plenary for CIVICUS. Johannesburg: CIVICUS.

Bologun, J., Hailey, H. V., Johnson, G. & Scholes, K.1999. Exploring strategic change. Toronto: Prentice Hall.

Benjamin, B. & Conger, J.A. 1999. Building leaders: How successful companies develop the next generation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Incorporation.

Bjerke, B. 2001. Business leadership and culture. United Kingdom: Edward Elgar.

BOARDROOM. 2002. Knowledge management Theory and practice. Magazine for the charted secretary in Southern Africa, (4): 12.

Bramham, J.1998. Human resource planning. London: Institute of personnel and develoment.

BRIDGES. 2003. Post Cancun WTO: Focus on objectives not the means. (7):2.

Bruner, C., Kunesh, L.G. & Knuth, R.A. 1992. What does research say about interagency collaboration? Oak Brook: Learning Point Associates.

Carrol & Buchholtz, 1999. Business and society. Learning point associates: Canada: Learning Point Associates.

Carrol, A.B. 1996. Business and society: Ethics and stakeholder management. Ohio: South Western college Publications.

Carroll, A.B. 1996. Business and society, 3rd edition. Ohio: South Western College Publishers.

Castle, F. 1998. Comparative Public Policy: Patterns of post war transformation. United Kingdom: Edward Elgar.

Centre for International Private Enterprise. 1998. Fighting corruption and safeguarding integrity: A shared responsibility based on prevention and transparency. Washington: CIPE

Chapman, J.R. 1997. Project schedule estimating. [Online] available: http://www.hyperthot.com/pm_sked.htm. Retrieved on 11.12.2006.

Chryssides, G. & Kaler, J.1996. Essential of business ethics. London: McGraw-Hill book company.

Collis, D.J. & Montgomery, C.A. 1997. Corporate strategy. Chicago: McGraw-Hill Incorporation.

Common wealth plan of action on Gender and Development. 2000. Learning by sharing. London: Commonwealth secretariat.

Commonwealth of Australia. 2002. [Online] available at http://www.nrm.gov.au/publications/integrating/index.html-14k- Retrieved on 22.05.2005

CONNECTIONS. 2002. A newsletter of the Commonwealth od learning, 7 (3): 2.

Conradie, W.M. & Fourie, C.M.W. 2002. Basic Financial management for entrepreneurs. South Africa:

Juta.

Corsortium for Service Innovation [online] available at Http://www.serviceinnovation.org Retrieved on 16.08.2006.

Covey, S.R. 2002. Principle-centred leadership. United Kingdom: Pocket books.

Crawford, M., Kydd, L. & Riches, C. (eds.). 1997. Leadership and teams in Educational Management. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Crow, K. 2002. Customer-Focused with Development with QFD. DRM Associates [Online] available at http://www.npd-solutions.com/qfd.html Retrieved on 02.06.2005.

Daft, R.L. 2001. Organisation theory and design, 7th edition. Canada: South Western Thomson Learning.

De George, R.T.1990. Business Ethics, 4th edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Delors, J. 1995. In "The white rose" sixty years on. The federalist debate: Papers for federalists in Europe and the world. Year XVIII (2): 9

Deng, F.M. & Lyons, T. (eds). 1998. Africa Reckoning: A quest for good governance. Washington: Brooking institution Press.

DEVELOPMENT AND CO-OPERATION. 2002. Information technologies that serve the poor: How rural areas can benefit from communication revolution. 9 (1): 6

DEVELOPMENT AND CO-OPERATION. 2003. Capacity development: Capacities for sustainable development. 10 (6): 7.

D'Sousa, A.1999. Leadership: Trilogy on leadership and effective management. Kenya: Paulines Publications.

Eccles, T. 1996. Succeeding with change. London: McGraw-Hill company.

Education today.2004. The newsletter of UNESCO's education sector. (9):8.

Environmental House News. 2001. IPCC sounds alarm on climate change. (5): 2.

Erlet, C. & Goven, L. 1995. Eco-tourism: A sustainable option. Toronto: John Wiley & Sons.

European Communities, 2002. European Union strategy for sustainable development. Luxenburg: European Union.

European Union SADC seminar on regional integration process. 1995. Brussels and Paris: European Union.

European Union Strategy for sustainable development. 2002. Luxemburg: European communities.

Falloux, F. & Talbot, L.M. 1993. Crisis and opportunity. London: Earthscan Publications Limited.

FINDINGS. 2001. Adult Education in sub-Saharan Africa. Washington: The World Bank.

FINDINGS. 2002. Africa's orphans and vulnerable children. Washington: The World Bank.

FINDINGS. 2002. Regional economic and social policy: Writing an effective anticorruption law. Washington: The World Bank.

FINDINGS. 2002. Tracking public resources flows in schools and clinics. Washington: The World Bank.

Fitzsimmons J.A. & Fitzsimmons M.J. 2004. Service management. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

FOCUS. 1993. Ethnic conflicts. UNHCR. (33): 4.

Freeman, C. 2002. Viewpoint: New partnerships for Africa development. New York: International Development Research Centre Report.

French, W.L. & Bell Jr. C.H. 1999. Organisation development: Behavioural science for organisation improvement, 6th edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Fullan, M. 2001. Leading in a culture of change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ghai, D. (ed.). 2000. Renewing social and economic progress in Africa. Switzerland: McMillan Press Limited.

Goucha & Jackie C, (eds). 2001. Peace, Human security and conflict prevention in Africa. Pretoria: UNESCO and institute for security studies: .

Gouillard, J. & Kelly, 1995. Transforming the organisation. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Griffiths, R. 1995. In "The white rose" sixty years on. The federalist debate: Papers for federalists in Europe and the world. Year XVIII (2):5

Harvey, D.& Brown, D.R. 2001. An experiential approach to organisational development, 6th edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Health bulletin. 2004. A publication of Population Reference Bureau. (1):2.

Hesselbein, F., Goldsmith, M. & Beckhard, R. (eds). 1996. Leader of the future. New York: The Drucker Foundation.

Hirst, P. & Thomson, G. 1999. Globalisation in question, 2nd edition. London: Polity Press.

Hughes, Ginnot and Curphy. 2002. Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience. London: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Human development report. 1996. Economic growth and human development. New York: Oxford University Press.

Human Development Report. 2001: Making new technologies work for human development. New York: Oxford University press.

Indicators on African countries. 2001 – 2002. Statistics division, strategic planning and research department. ADB: Cote Ivoire

International Labour Organization. 2002. Key indicator of labour market 2001 –2002. [Online] at http://earthtrends.wri.org/text/data_tables-42.xls Retrieved on 24.08.2004.

JUST ASSOCIATES. Dynamics of power. [Online] at www.justassociates.org/toolsforanalyzingpower.doc. Retrieved on 30.4.2006.

Kattzenbach, J.R. 1997. Teams at the top: Unleashing the potential of both teams and individual leaders. Boston: Harvard business school press.

Kelleher, D., McLaren, K. & Bisson, R. 1996. Grabbing the tiger by the tail: NGOs learning for organisational change. Canada: Canadian council for international cooperation.

Kochendofer-Lucius, G. & Pleskovic, B. (eds). 1999. Inclusion, Justice and poverty reduction. Villa Borsig Workshop series. Luxemburg: Oxford.

Korean National Commission for UNESCO. 1997. Philosophy and democracy in Asia. Seoul: Zaim.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 1997.The leadership challenge. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leadership regional network for Southern Africa Annual Report. 2001. Bridging leadership. Pretoria: LeaRN

Longo, A. 2005. In "The white rose" sixty years on. The federalist debate: Papers for federalists in Europe and the world. Year XVIII (2): 5.

Madakufamba, M. 2004. SADC unveils historic blue-print to fight poverty. SADC today 7(1): 3.

Management Sciences for Health and UNICEF. Available at http://erc.msl.org/quality/ittools/itstkan.cfm Retrieved on 12.07.2004.

Manchester Open Learning. 1994. Achieving goals through teamwork. London: Kogan Page Ltd.

Maphanyane. 2004. Speech at SADC summit in August.

Maxwell, J.C. 1998. The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership. Tennessee: Thomas Nelson Incorporation.

Mayor, F. & Binde, J. 1999. The World ahead: Our future in making. UNESCO: Prepublication version.

Mazimaka, 2004. Speech to SADC Summit

Mbeki, T. 1999. The nation at work for a better life: Thabo Mbeki's first speeches as president in parliament on 25th June. Pretoria: Government Communications and information systems

McGill, R. 1996. Institutional development: A third world city management perspective. Great Britain: The Ipswich Book company Limited.

McWhinney, W., Webber, J.B., Smith, D.M. & Novokosky, B.J. 1997. Creating paths of change: Managing issues and resolving problems in organisations. New Delhi: Sage Publications Inc.

Mihloti, M. 2000. The implications of current and potential future: Electoral options for gender representativity in our democratic institutions. The seminar report. Johannesburg: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung.

Moorby, E. 1996. How to succeed in employee development. London: McGraw-Hill.

Morlino, 1998.Transition to democracy. [Online] at www.owlnet.rice.edu/~poli367/ Retrieved on 24.05.2006

Morton, A. 1996. Philosophy in practice: An introduction to many questions. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishers.

Nelson-Neuhau, K.J., Skube, C.J., Lee, D.G., Stevens, L.A., Hellervik, L.W. & Davis, B.L. 2004. Successful managers handbook: Develop yourself, coach others. London: Electronic Predix Inc.

NEPAD African initiative, New partnership? 2003. IPA Workshop report. New York: International Peace Academy.

NEPAD annual report, 2002. Towards claiming the 21st century. Midrand South Africa: NEPAD Secretariat.

Noe, R.A. 2002. Employee training and development, 2nd edition. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Northouse, P.G. 2004. Leadership theory and practice, 3rd edition. London: SAGE Publications.

Ntsekela, A. J. 1980. Southern Africa: Towards economic liberty. London: Blackrose Press.

One country: Newsletter of Baha`I international community July- September 2003. 15(2): 7.

Owens, G.R. 2001. Organisational behaviour in education: Instructional leadership and school reform. London: Allyn and Bacon.

Packman, H. Claremont Mckenna college leadership review issues: Developing leaders to serve. [Online] at http://kli.research.claremontmckenna.edu/leadershipreview/2002winter/packman-win… Retrieved on 01.07.2004.

Palmer, A. & Hartely, B. 2002.The business Environment, 4th edition. London: McGraw-Hill company.

Parker, B. 1998. Globalisation and business Practice: Managing across boundaries. London: SAGE Publications.

Peace Parks. 1998. Fashion or long-term business opportunities: International partnerships promoting regional co-operation, job-creation and bio-diversity conservation, 2nd edition. Canada: World conservation

Petras, J. & Veltmeyer, H. 2002. NGOs in the service of whom? South African labour Bulletin, 26(4): 4.

PMIGovSIG Magazine, 2004.Government special interest group. USA: Project management Institute.

Polity VI country report. 2003. [Online] at http://www.cidem.edu/inscr/polity/ Retrieved on 27.05.2006.

Pooley, P. 1995. In "The white rose" sixty years on. The federalist debate: Papers for federalists in Europe and the world. Year XVIII (2): 6.

Popper, R. 2002. Cross-impact method for detecting key drivers in Peru. Lima Peru: Calibrum Corporation.

Quattek, K. 2000. The economic impact of HIV/AIDS in South Africa: A dark cloud on the horizon. Occasional papers. Johannesburg: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung.

Quirke, B. 1997. Communicating corporate changes: A practical guide to communication and corporate strategy. Tokyo: McGraw-Hill.

Rackham, N. 1996. Getting partnering: How market leaders are creating long-term competitive advantage. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Riggs, F.W. Presidentialism vs. Parliamentarianism: Implications for Triad of modernisation and nationalism. [Online] at www2.hawaii.edu/~fredr/6-lap9a.htm. Retrieved on 30.4.2006.

Riley, M.M. 2001. Leadership begins with you. London: Berkley Publishing group.

Robbins, S.P. & Hunsaker, P.L. 2003. Training in interpersonal skills, 3rd edition. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Robinson, D.P. 1990. Organisation theory: Structure, design and applications. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Rue, L.W. & Byars, L.L. 2003. Management skills and application, 10th edition. London: McGraw-Hill.

SADC concept paper. 2002.

Scheer, A.W. 1994. Business process engineering: Reference models for industrial enterprises. London: Spriger-Verlag.

Schmitz, G.J. & Moore, B. (eds). 1995. Debating development discourse: Institutional and popular perspectives. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

Schonteich, M. 2000. Age and AIDS: A lethal mix for South Africa's crime rate. Occasional papers. Konrad Adenauer Stiftung; Johannesburg.

Sedler, P. 1994. Designing organisations 2nd edition. London: Kogan-Page Limited.

Sedler, P. 1998. Designing organisation, 3rd edition. London Kogan-Page.

September, R. 2001. African renaissance: Connecting the African way. African communications. (1): 4.

Shell, R. 2000. Halfway to the holocaust: The economic, demographic and social implications of HIV/AIDS pandemic to the year 2010 in Southern Africa. Regional occasional papers. Johannesburg: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung.

Sherperd, A. 1998. Sustainable rural development. New York: Macmillan Press Limited.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje G.J. (eds.) 2002. Management Principles, 2nd edition. Cape Town: Creda communications.

Soumana, S. 2004. Bridging knowledge gaps in Africa. The African capacity building Foundation. 1(2): 7

Southern Africa HIV/AIDS. 2002. Responding to stigma and discrimination. Action, issue 53 July-September.

Strickland, T. 1998. Crafting and Implementing strategy. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Studivant, F. 1981. Business and Society: A managerial approach. Ontario: Irwin.

The economist. 2001. The merits of diversity. December 15th.

The intelligent economy: A new paradigm. Scottish policy Network. [Online] at http://www.scottishpolicynet.org.uk/scf/publications/paper/_6/chapter/.shtml/ Retrieved on 23.08.2003.

The World Bank Group. Africa's challenges at the dawn of 21st century. [Online] at http://Inweb18.worldbank.org/AFR/afr.nsf/0/30F3AEFF34D008FC85256B9000633D… Retrieved on 02.07.2004.

The World Bank. 2003. A new global bounce: The challenge of leadership. Washington: The world Bank.

The World Bank. 2003. World Development indicators 2003. [Online] at http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?item_id=631625) Retrieved on 12.04.2004.

Thomashausen, A. 2000. Anti-corruption measures: A comparative survey of selected national and international programmes. Occasional papers. Johannesburg: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung.

Thompson, A.A. Jr. & Strickland A.J. 1998. Crafting and implementing strategy, 10th edition. Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill Inc.

Thompson, J.L. 1997. Lead with vision: Manage the strategic challenge. London: International Thompson Business Press.

Thompson, Jr. A.A., Strickland III A.J. & Gamble, J.E. 2005. Crafting and executing strategy. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin: .

Thornhill, A. Lewis, P., Millmore, M. & Saunders, M. 2000. Managing change. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Todaro, P. M. 1997. Economic development. United Kingdom: Longman Publishing Group.

Towards national capacity building in Africa. 1990. Evaluation report on national capacity building for child survival and development. New York: International child development centre.

TRACK TWO. 1999. When a push comes to a shove: The failure of international mediator. An occasional paper. 8(2): 1

TRACK TWO. 2000. Constructive approaches to community and political conflict: Refugees, conflict and conflict resolution. 19(3):3.

Tsoukas, H. 1994. New thinking in organisational behaviour: From social engineering to reflective action. Britain: Butterworth Heinemann Clays Ltd.

United Nations. 1991. Accelerating development process: Challenges for national and international policies in the 1990s Washington: United Nations..

Van Nieuwkerk, A. 2001.Regionalisation? War into peace? SADC and ECOWAS compared. African Security review. 10(2):11

Vandemoorele, J. 2004. The MGDs and pro-poverty policies: Can external partners make a difference? New York: Leader, poverty Group UNDP:

Walmsley, H. 1998. Transforming your management style. London: Kogan-Page.

Wartic, S.L. & Wood, D.J. 1993. International business and society. United Kingdom: Blackwell Business.

Wayne, P. 1995. Public policy: An introduction to the theory and practice of policy analysis. United Kingdom: Edward Elgar.

wikepedia. Available at en.wikepedia.org/wiki/knowledge_management-47k Retrieved on 03.08.2006.

Wolfensohn, 2003. A new global balance: A challenge of leadership. Washington: The world Bank.

Wong, A. & Dufrene, U. 2001. A model to asses the ethics of benefits distribution. Centre for economic personalism. Journal of markets and morality 4(1): 3

World Conservation. 2003. Reaching out. The IUCN Bulletin. (2): 2

World Development indicators. 2001. Washington: World Bank.

World development report. 1980. Part I adjustments and growth in 1980s. New York: Oxford University Press.

World Development report. 1982. International trends: Agricultural and economic. Cape Town: Oxford University press.

World Development reports. 2000/2001. Attacking poverty. New York: Oxford University Press.

World institute for Development Economic growth. 2002. New York: Oxford University Press.

World report. 1994. Infrastructure for development. New York: Oxford University Press.

Yukl, G.A. 1999. Leadership in organisations. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Zana-Nau, 2005. The EU and world federation. A Baha`I view point. 5(3): 7

Zober-Skerritt, O. 1992. Action research in higher education: Examples and reflections. London: Kogan-Page.