

**EXPLORING THE MILITARY ROLE IN SUPPORT OF DEVELOPMENT IN  
SOUTHERN AFRICA**

by

**Shadrack Baleseng Ramokgadi**

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**Supervisor: Dr Kula Ishmael Theletsane**

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## DECLARATION

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## ABSTRACT

Abundant pieces of legislation and policy frameworks exist that link the military role and durable peace, and those that link durable peace and sustainable development. The linkage between the military role and sustainable development is absent in these source documents. The researcher submits that this “absence” constitutes both a theoretical and a policy-based gap that demands the attention of the policy practitioners and scholars in Public Administration.

In attempting to close this gap, this study begins with the fundamental concepts that emerged from the literature review. Among others, they include regional administration and defence administration that led to the formulation of regional defence administration (RDA) as a higher-order construct. The concepts “operations other than war” (OOTW) and “operational activities for development” (OAD) led to the formulation of “military operational activities for development” (MOAD). In theorising the concept of MOAD, this study seeks to close the identified gaps.

In closing this gap, this study depended on the grounded theory and methodological analysis using case studies selected from Southern Africa. The theoretical sampling method was used to generate data from various databases using three key terms, namely the military role, durable peace, and sustainable development. In analysing and synthesising the emerging data, the study focused on the most common words, utterances, concepts, properties, and categories to formulate the higher-order constructs.

Furthermore, the study borrowed from biological studies to juxtapose the “unknown” with the “known” for purposes of theory building. In doing so, the study borrowed from systems thinking, biomimicry, metaphorical thinking, tensegrity systems, design by analogy to biology, and the theory of biological compressions and tensions. These theories assisted the researcher to establish the interdependence of civilian and military organisations that respond to worldwide complex emergencies. In doing so, the researcher argues that rapid responses and effective interventions in managing complex emergencies are a step in achieving the long-term Agenda for Sustainable Development. It is on the basis of this theoretical line of argument that the study establishes the military role in support of development.

**Key words:** Military role, partnership for peace and security, sustainable development, complex emergencies.

## OPSOMMING

Vele wette en beleidsraamwerke bestaan wat die militêre rol skakel aan duursame vrede, en dié wat duursame vrede skakel aan volhoubare ontwikkeling. Die skakel tussen die militêre rol en volhoubare ontwikkeling ontbreek in hierdie brondokumente. Die navorser hou voor dat hierdie “afwesigheid” beide ’n teoretiese en ’n beleidgebaseerde gaping vorm wat die aandag vereis van beleidpraktisyns en academici in Openbare Administrasie.

In die poging om hierdie gaping te oorbrug, begin hierdie studie met die fundamentele konsepte wat uit die literatuuoroorsig te voorskyn gekom het.

Onder andere sluit hulle in streeksbestuur en verdedigingsbestuur, wat gelei het tot die formulering van streeksverdedigingsbestuur as ’n hoër-vlak-konstruksie. Die konsepte “aktiwiteite buiten oorlog” (“operations other than war” [OOTW]) en “operasionele ontwikkelingsaktiwiteite” (“operational activities for development” [OAD]) het gelei tot die formulering van “militêre operasionele ontwikkelingsaktiwiteite” (“military operational activities for development” [MOAD]). Hierdie studie poog dus om die geïdentifiseerde gapings te oorbrug deur die konsep van MOAD te teoretiseer.

Om hierdie gaping te oorbrug, het hierdie studie gebruik gemaak van die gegronde teorie en metodologiese ontleding van gevallestudies vanuit Suidelike Afrika. Die teoretiese steekproefmetode was gebruik om data te genereer vanuit verskeie databasisse deur die gebruik van drie sleutelsterme, naamlik die militêre rol, duursame vrede, en volhoubare ontwikkeling. In die ontleding en sintetisering van die data wat te voorskyn gekom het, het hierdie studie gefokus op die mees algemene woorde, uitdrukkings, konsepte, eienskappe, en kategorieë om die hoër-vlak-konstruksie te formuleer.

Die studie het voorts geleen by biologiese navorsing om die “onbekende” naas die “bekende” te stel ten einde teorie te bou. Hierdie studie het dus gebruik gemaak van die bestudering van stelsels, bio-mimikrie, spanningsintegriteitstelsels, ontwerp volgens analogie tot biologie, en die teorie van biologiese druk en spanning. Hierdie teorieë het die navorser in staat gestel om die interafhanklikheid van burgerlike en militêre organisasies wat reageer op wêreldwye ingewikkelde noodtoestande te vestig. Hiermee argumenteer die navorser dat spoedige reaksie en doeltreffende ingryping in die bestuur van ingewikkelde noodtoestande stappe is ten einde die langtermyn “Agenda for Sustainable Development” te behaal. Dit is gegrond op hierdie

teoretiese argument dat hierdie studie die militêre rol ter ondersteuning van ontwikkeling vestig.

**Sleutelwoorde:** Militêre rol, vennootskap vir vrede en sekuriteit, volhoubare ontwikkeling, ingewikkelde noodtoestande

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The methodological approach used in this study further required the merging of theory and pragmatic evidence as a matter of principle in grounded theory analysis, and I am grateful for all the assistance from our librarian, Ms M.W. Botes. She was always available in responding to my call, while going the extra mile to provide complementary literature. The geographical location of the Military Academy results in major challenges in accessing the required scholarly resources. It is with delight that I declare that Ms Botes more than succeeded in bridging this systemic gap on my behalf. She really contributed enormously to my successful conclusion of the theoretical line of argument that defines this ground-breaking research.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACDS	African Chiefs of the Defence Staff
AGA	African Governance Architecture
APSA	African Peace and Security Architecture
ASF	African Standby Force
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
AUHPF	African Union Humanitarian Policy Framework
BSAC	British South African Company
CADSP	Common African Defence and Security Policy
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CCMOC	Central civil-military operations centre
CEWS	Continental Early Warning System
CIC	Critical Infrastructure Council
CMOC	Civil-military operations centre
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
DoD	Department of Defence
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
EASBRIG	East Africa Standby Brigade
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOBRIg	Economic Community of West African States Standby Brigade
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FOMAC	Force Multinationale de l’Afrique Centrale
HANDS	Humanitarian Action and Natural Disaster Support
HRS	Humanitarian response space
IAA	International African Association
ISDSC	Inter-State Defence and Security Committee

KDD	Knowledge discovery in databases
MDP	Mutual Defence Pact
MOAD	Military operational activities for development
MOOTW	Military operations other than war
MOU	Memorandum of understanding
MSC	Military staff committee
NASBRIG	Northern Africa Regional Standby Brigade
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NDP	National Development Plan
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OAD	Operational activities for development
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance [UN]
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OOTW	Operations other than war
POSSEM	Probabilistic System of Systems Effective Methodology
PSC	Peace and Security Council
QCPR	Quadrennial Comprehensive Policy Review
RDA	Regional defence administration
REC	Regional Economic Community
RISDP	Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan
RM	Regional mechanism
RTA	Reciprocal translation analysis
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADCBRIG	Southern African Development Community Brigade
SANDF	South African National Defence Force
SAWPD	South African White Paper on Defence
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals



SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation
UN	United Nations
UNDPA	United Nations Department of Political Affairs
UNDS	United Nations Development Segment
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNLO-AU	United Nations Liaison Office with the African Union
UNOSOM	United Nations Operation in Somalia
UNPAF	United Nations Partnership Framework
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
US	United States
USA	United States of America
WHO	World Health Organization
WHS	World Humanitarian Summit

## **CHAPTER 1: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK GUIDING THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

This study begins with the view that the signing of the Joint United Nations-African Union (UN-AU) Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security in April 2017 represents the renewal of regional administrative arrangements in Africa. Furthermore, the researcher submits that the concurrent signing of the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in January 2018 points to possible multiple partnerships in promoting peace and security within the context of public administration practices in Africa. In situating the topic of this study within the discipline of Public Administration, the researcher takes a cue from Chapter 8 of the UN Charter that deals with the military's role in maintaining international peace and security.

At the regional level of governance, the Common African Defence and Security Policy (CADSP) emphasises the symbiotic relationship between peace, security, and development. Furthermore, the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council (PSC) of the African Union (AU) provides for the establishment of the African Standby Force (ASF) as a joint mechanism in ensuring the integration and mainstreaming of responsibilities related to the maintenance of peace, security, and sustainable development in Africa.<sup>1</sup> More precisely, the aforementioned source document prescribes that military staff committees (MSCs) should be established for purposes of advising and assisting the international administration authorities in "all questions related to military and security requirements for the promotion and maintenance of peace and security in Africa".<sup>2</sup>

The researcher submits that the foregoing international pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and other source documents lay the foundation for exploring the possible military role in support of sustainable development with the view to build a substantive theory on military operational activities for development (MOAD). Morse (2010:229)

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<sup>1</sup> Article 13 of the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>2</sup> In section 8 of Article 13 of the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

advises that the theory emerging from grounded theory is characterised by linking concepts as they develop in stages and phases while changing over time. In this regard, the researcher is required not only to establish the relationships between relevant concepts, “but also [to] describe their actions, role, and interactions as they respond to and adapt within particular situations” (Morse, 2010:229).

In compliance with the above requirements, the researcher begins by establishing the interactions between regional administration and defence administration as they adapt to the globalising world system. In doing so, the researcher seeks to give rise to the hidden concept of regional defence administration (RDA) on the basis of existing decision-making structures and standard procedures. This initial synthesis stage is intended to establish the key concepts that frame this study.

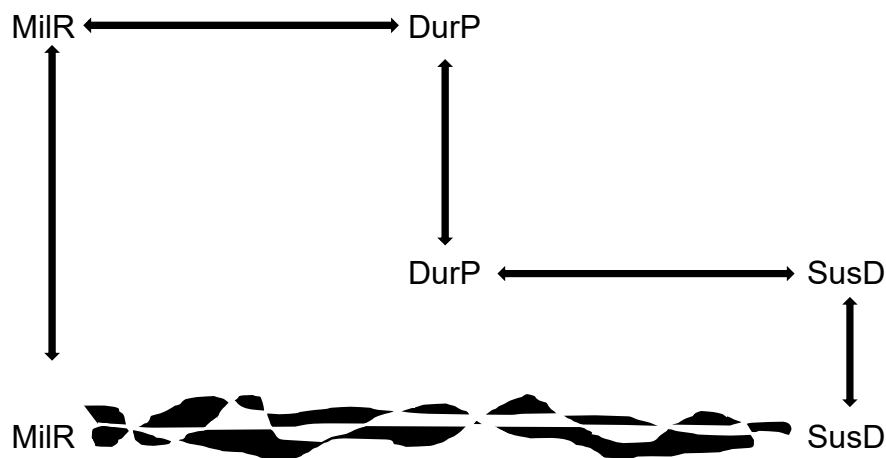
In addressing the concept of regional administration, Cilliers (1996:4) observes that Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries have established various administrative structures and procedures with the view to coordinate and guide decisions on regional defence, security, and development issues. For example, the Organ of Politics, Defence and Security (known as the “Organ”) was launched in 1996 as a formal institution of the SADC with the mandate to support the maintenance of peace and security. Furthermore, the Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation (2001) specifies the operating structures of the Organ as the chairperson, *troika*, and various committees, as well as the procedures for various operations.

Among other procedures (i.e. rules and standards), Cilliers (1996) observes that various sectors have been allocated to individual member states to coordinate and provide the required regional leadership. For example, the coordinating structure of the SADC Brigade (SADCBRIG) has been allocated to Botswana and includes both the Brigade Headquarters and Strategic Logistic Base located in Gaborone. Among other procedures, Cilliers (1996) states that sectorial operational activities are supervised by sectorial committees of ministers. For example, peace operational activities are monitored by the ministers of Defence, Security, and International Relations or Foreign Affairs. Cilliers (1996) states that the foregoing administrative structure and procedures establish the connections between regional administration and partnerships in peace and security.

In addressing the notion of defence administration, the researcher depended on the existence of the SADC Organ, the Inter-State Defence and Security Committee (ISDSC), and SADCBRIG activities. Malan and Cilliers (1997:3) state that the structure (i.e. allocated resources and decisional authority) of the Organ is limited to the Heads of State and the ISDSC; the latter includes the ministerial council with three sub-committees that respectively focus on defence, security, and intelligence. Malan and Cilliers (1997) also confirm that below the defence sub-committee are three functional committees, namely the operations sub-committee, the standing aviation committee, and the maritime committee.

Among other defence administration procedures (i.e. rules and standards), Malan and Cilliers (1997:5) state that the Organ operates at the summit level and functions independently from other SADC structures; the office of the chairpersonship rotates on an annual and on a *troika* basis; and operates at a ministerial and technical level. In this instance, the researcher submits that the technical level involves the SADCBRIG operational activities. Given the existence of the regional defence administrative arrangements (structure and procedures), Malan and Cilliers (1997) state that the pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that guide the governance systems within the SADC region offer opportunities to explore the notion of RDA as a sub-field of Public Administration.

For purposes of building the theory in the advancement of the study of RDA, the researcher depended on the increasing global policies that link the military role and durable peace, and durable peace and sustainable development. The researcher further submits that the absence of policy-based linkages between the military role and sustainable development does not negate the opportunity to build theory on these hypothetical connections. The researcher argues that the military-peace-development nexus offers the opportunity to explore possible linkages between the military role and sustainable development within the context of existing regional and defence administrative arrangements. Figure 1.1 seeks to illustrate the foregoing theoretical line of argument.



**NB:** The uncharted pathway between the MilR and SusD is the gap in the study of public and development management that is explored in this study.

**Figure 1.1: Possible connections between the military role (MilR), durable peace (DurP), and sustainable development (SusD) systems**

Source: Author's own theoretical model on the military-peace-development nexus

In exploring the foregoing theoretical line of argument, the researcher relied on baseline data that emerged from the preliminary overview of existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on the military role in maintaining peace and security and the Agenda for Sustainable Development. The researcher observed that the notion of peace and security cuts across these primary sources of data. While these source documents provide a descriptive account of peace, security, and development, little or nothing is mentioned on the possible military role in supporting the Agenda for Sustainable Development – the possibilities for policy-based operations strategy that may enhance partnerships in peace and security within the context of RDA.

In establishing the distinguishing features of the defence operations strategy that defines RDA in pursuit of peace and security, which are pillars of sustainable development, the researcher takes a cue from possible MOAD. This implies that the MOAD are the manifestation – policy action plan or specific tasks – of the defence operations strategy on peace and security. The researcher submits that the potential MOAD are nested within the baseline concepts that underpin the notion of RDA.

Key concepts that constitute the baseline data for the RDA are:

- public administration problems and theory building;
- African public administration;
- regional administration;
- defence administration;
- administrative structures and procedures;
- defence operational strategy;
- operational activities for development (OAD);
- technocratic cooperation;
- enhanced partnerships in peace and security;
- defence administration reforms; and
- knowledge discovery from data.

## **1.2 BASELINE CONCEPTS THAT FRAME THE STUDY**

### **1.2.1 Public Administration problems and theory building**

In addressing the Public Administration problem, the researcher takes a cue from the statement that such a problem resides within the “philosophical nature of the true science that those basic questions concern the essential character and origin of their core subject matter” (Neumann, 1996:409). This philosophical position represents a major deviation from popular traditions that advance the “big questions” in Public Administration. Robert D. Behn, as the founding father of the “big question of public management”, advocates prescriptive questions on micromanagement, employee motivation, strategies, and achievement measurement, and the understanding of how our existing knowledge about raised questions combined with new insight may actually assist public managers’ performance in public service delivery (Behn, 1995:315). Among Behn’s followers is John J. Kirlin, who argues that the big questions in public administration in democratic societies are different from those of public management. In Kirlin’s (1996:417) view, big questions in public administration should address democratic polity, public accessibility, the instruments of collective actions, and social learning as the roots of achieving a democratic polity.

In response to Behn and Kirlin, Robert B. Denhardt redirects the big questions to public administration education. In doing so, Denhardt proposes questions related to theory/practice issues, an analytical/technical approach (pre-service versus in-service students), delivery mechanisms (e.g. distance learning), and student-teacher relationships – desired individual performance in a classroom as opposed to an envisaged personality that fits the image of a public administrator (Denhardt, 2001:528).

Although the above scholars offer a wealth of knowledge in formulating research questions in public administration, in the absence of consensus among them, this study borrowed from Neumann (1996) and relied on the philosophical roots of public administration research as a true science, or the art of theory building. Research methodological issues are addressed in Chapter 2 of this study.

For theory building, the researcher relied on multiple case studies, defined as the use of “one or more cases to create theoretical constructs, propositions, and/or midrange theory from case-based, empirical evidence” (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:25). It is also stated by Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) that case studies offer a rich, empirical, and descriptive account of particular instances of a setting that are classically based on various sources of data. Stated differently, Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) argue that multiple case studies offer the opportunity to recognise recurring patterns of relationships among constructs across and within cases and their underpinning logical arguments, which are the foundation of theory building. In this instance, theory is defined as “any coherent description or explanation of observed or experienced phenomena” (Gioia & Pitre, 1990:587). Furthermore, Gioia and Pitre (1990) view theory building as a cycle or process by which some representations are generated and subjected to testing and refinements using various techniques. It is important to note at this stage the advice provided by Gioia and Pitre (1990:587) that theory building should not be viewed as a “search for the truth”, but rather as a search for the “completeness of a whole” that stems from different worldviews.

The foregoing baseline concepts assisted in developing the philosophical questions that guided this study with the view to build theory on the MOAD as a comprehensive representation of the military role in support of sustainable development.

### **1.2.2 African public administration and regional administration**

There is abundant literature that links regional public administration and local government. For example, Taijun (2007:53) states that regional public administration involves institutional changes within the public sphere of governance – the breaking down of an administrative district's original institutional arrangements and reforming patterns of distribution related to political interests. In this instance, stakeholders include the national, provincial, and local government. Conversely, Pina, Torres and Royo (2007:449) observe the increasing global movement of reform in the public administration of most countries. In this instance, the African continent is the case for reform with specific reference to the SADC countries, the management of Regional Economic Communities (RECs), and their defence brigades.

In pursuit of an African public administration model, Kamoche (1997:274) advises on the human resource competencies that have been established on the basis of the organisation's core activities and applied to a wide range of tasks, activities, and services – the enduring process of organisational learning while creating a stock of expertise or strategic competence. Kamoche (1997:275) supports the argument that the competence approach to African public administration would enable the administrators and managers within RECs to refocus their attention and determine how best to optimise the available expertise, by leveraging competence as they strive to achieve a complex and dynamic set of socio-economic and political objectives. The global movement of reform sets the stage for African public administration that strives to leverage regional development at the level of RECs as opposed to the regional public administration that is linked to intra-state local government. Stated differently, the notion of regional administration is operationalised at the supra-national level of governance as opposed to the national level. This theoretical line of thinking views the management of regional defence brigades as a function of RDA.

### **1.2.3 African public administration, regional administration and regional defence administration (RDA)**

The notion of regional administration was discussed above as a branch within the African public administration model, which is nested within the RECs. The recognition of regional administration machineries within the RECs is further confirmed by Cilliers



(1996) in his paper titled “The SADC organ for defence, politics and security”. Although much has been written on defence administration, there is little or no research on RDA. In an attempt to explore this new concept of RDA, the researcher depends on the existing regional administrative practices that include defence administration, which involves the establishment of defence brigades by various RECs in Africa, coupled with the role of MSCs in decision making and assistance on matters pertaining to security requirements and envisaged military roles.

The researcher submits that the establishment of a regional defence brigade by the RECs signals the birth of the study of RDA in Africa. This view finds replication within the Europeanisation of defence administration that is rooted in the European Security and Defence Policy, which is an integral feature of the Common Foreign and Security Policy in European countries. Furthermore, the Africanisation of defence administration may be understood as a top-down process of reform in which member states adapt their administrative structures, administrative procedures, and decision-making processes to regional agreements, protocols, treaties, policies, rules, values, and principles that emerge from the African system of governance (see Major, 2005:177). In this instance, Major (2005:177) would define the Africanisation of defence administration as an “ongoing, interactive and mutually constitutive *process* of change linking national and [African] levels, where the responses of the Member States to the integration process feed back into the [regional] institutions and policy processes and vice versa”.

Given the above theoretical line of thinking, the researcher submits that the Africanisation of defence administration is not a theory or an explanation, but rather a public administration phenomenon that needs to be explored. In doing so, this study seeks to explore the notion of RDA in Africa with the view to build the theory of MOAD. Major (2005) also advises re-focusing on indicators of policy adaptation and administrative alignments within the field of defence/security policy and foreign relations. For example, the South African Defence Review 2015 signals various indicators of policy adaptation and administrative alignment to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa.

#### **1.2.4 RDA, administrative structures, and procedures**

The operational definition of the notion of RDA was provided. What is lacking is the nature of administrative arrangements that determine the practice of RDA for purposes of building the theory on the MOAD. In the study conducted by McCubbins, Noll and Weingast (1989) on the administrative arrangements (structures and procedures) and political control of agencies, these scholars established that “legislators regard the choice of administrative structures and process as vitally important” (McCubbins *et al.*, 1989:431).<sup>3</sup> For the purposes of this study, procedures are the existing international rules and standards that guide the decision-making process regarding the maintenance of peace and security; and structures are the allocated international resources and mandated decisional authorities in matters relating to RDA. McCubbins *et al.* (1989:432-433) indicate that structures and procedures can be understood as the *ex ante* obligation among stakeholders, while the decisional authority remains with the powers to constrain the stakeholders from engaging in *ex post* opportunistic behaviours. The methods used to constrain opportunistic behaviour are beyond the scope of this study. Relevant to this study is the importance of structures (i.e. allocated resources and decisional authority) and procedures (i.e. rules and standards guiding the decision-making process) as the constituent parts of the RDA within the context of existing administrative arrangements.

#### **1.2.5 Defence operations strategy and operational activities for development (OAD)**

In defining the concepts of defence operations strategy, the researcher borrowed from the research conducted by Parther Priya Datta on the defence industry. In this academic contribution, the author “provides a conceptual framework for operational strategy for performance-based service contract” (Priya Datta & Roy, 2011:580). This conceptual framework focuses on key elements of operations strategy, the performance-based service contract that is aligned to the delivery strategy, and case-based research methodology that best addresses the elements of operations strategy. For the purposes of this study, Datta (2011) would agree that the emerging partnerships in promoting durable peace and lasting security in Southern Africa offer

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<sup>3</sup> “Process” refers to rules and standards that guide policy decisions; and “structure” refers to allocation of resources and decisional authorities among agencies (McCubbins *et al.*, 1998:431).

the promises of MOAD – the alignment of the existing military tasks and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Furthermore, Datta (2011) advises that the defence industries need to configure their operations strategy to support their offering as defined in performance-based contracts as the basis for an effective operational strategy in delivering integrated capability/service offering. Datta (2011) would also agree that reforms in the type of integrated offering – military capability and military operational activities for peace and security – would permit the adaptation of the defence operations strategy. For example, the South African Defence Review (Department of Defence [DoD], 2015:7-1) is an adaptation of foreign policy issues related to partnerships in peace and security, and integrated economic development.

Since these policy objectives are in alignment with the domestic priorities of South Africa, the South African Defence Review 2015 affirms that the South African government will continue to strengthen regional integration and support continental conflict resolution activities, while increasingly contributing to harmonious intra-Africa trade and championing sustainable development.

The foregoing theoretical line of thinking provides the basis for exploring the military role in support of sustainable development, i.e. how can the military operations strategy be reformulated to support their offering on sustainable development as defined in performance-based partnerships in Southern Africa? In addressing this general question, the researcher borrowed the concept “operational activities for development” (OAD) from the UN’s Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) Operational Activities for Development Segment. In repositioning the UN development systems to support sustainable development in the 2030 Agenda, the OAD segment introduced various “development systems reform” initiatives at a country level to ensure that such reforms meet national needs, as the gateway to national ownership.<sup>4</sup>

Although limited research has been conducted on the key features of the OAD, the researcher submits that tailored OAD will be shaped by the existing performance-based contracts. For example, in “enhanced partnership in peace and security contract”, the RDA is expected to tailor its presence by reconfiguring its capabilities

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<sup>4</sup> Secretary-General António Guterres addressing the General Assembly regarding the draft document on the repositioning of the UN development system on 21 May 2018.

and mobilise its relevant skillsets in response to regional security requirements while defining the envisaged military roles other than war. The researcher submits that the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks provide the opportunity to examine regional technocratic cooperation with the view of establishing the distinguishing feature of the military role in promoting peace and security in Southern Africa.

### **1.2.6 Technocratic cooperation in enhancing partnerships for peace and security**

In an attempt to situate the notion of “enhanced partnership for peace and security” regional defence administrative arrangements (structures and processes), the researcher finds it necessary to take a cue from three higher-order concepts, namely technocratic collaboration, durable peace, and lasting security.

This study explores the military role in promoting peace and security, which is on the Agenda for Sustainable Development. In exploring the concept of peace and security within the context of sustainable development, the researcher examines the social and environmental determinants of durable peace and lasting security. In doing so, the researcher takes a cue from the observation that environmental cooperation presents opportunities for conflict prevention or confidence building “whether or not conflict has environmental roots” (Ali, 2008:167). In exploring this observation, the researcher referred to the CADSP, which is the cornerstone of regional technocratic cooperation in enhancing partnerships in peace and security in Africa. The regional administrative arrangements are summarised in Table 1.1, with emphasis on structures and processes.

**Table 1.1: Matrix connecting regional agreements/contrasts and regional administrative arrangements**

Selected regional agreements/ contracts	Regional administrative arrangements	
	Structures	Processes
The African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (1990)	The Assembly	People's participation throughout the continent
The Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (2000)	PSC	Comprehensive response to multifaceted challenges
Regional Instruments and Mechanisms (SADC, 1992a)	Commission of the AU	Economic-orientated organisations to establish common policies on peace and security issues; mechanisms to coordinate regional defence and security policies at sub-regional level
Declaration of the Treaty Establishing the SADC	Regional Economic Groups	Cooperation in the promotion of peace and security in the region
New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)	SADC's Organ of Politics, Defence and Security	NEPAD Sub-committee on Peace and Security to direct the work of the Peace and Security component of NEPAD
NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance	SADCBRIG	African Peer Review Mechanism to promote the fulfilment and adherence to commitments contained in performance-based contacts

Source: Developed from the CADSP framework

In addressing the Public Administration question raised earlier in this chapter, Neumann (1996) would agree that the nature and dynamic interactions between the administrative structures and processes that are in line with the existing regional agreements or contacts represent the "true science" of Public Administration. For example, although the work of the Peace and Security component of NEPAD is assigned to specific NEPAD sub-committees, the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation of 1990 enables people's participation throughout the continent while the Declaration of the Treaty Establishing the SADC emphasises cooperation among member states. It is true that the regional defence brigades are the elementary components of the ASF, which is the principal stakeholder in the implementation of the defence operations strategy embedded in the CADSP.

Given the complex nature of the existing administrative structure and processes, this study focuses on regional technocratic cooperation within the SADC BRIG and beyond, and thus includes enhancing partnerships for peace and security with civilian stakeholders in Southern Africa. In exploring regional technocratic cooperation within the SADC BRIG, it is necessary to note that the selected treaties were signed after many years of tremendous hostility by the South African apartheid government against the Frontline States of Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland, and Zambia.<sup>5</sup> Given that these tremendous hostilities go back to 1960, the researcher submits that both the South African government and Frontline States committed to ratifying various agreements in pursuit of regional peace and security; it is on the basis of these long-standing hostilities that the researcher finds it necessary to explore these “treaties in greater detail as a potential model for regional ... cooperation” (Ali, 2008:168). In doing so, Neumann (1996:409) would agree that the nature and dynamic interactions between the administrative structures and processes provide the basis for the “true science” of African Public Administration. Among others, most regional agreements share the notion of MSCs in addressing regional security requirements and coordinating defence security issues. Given this shared policy prescript, Ali (2008:168) states that the military perspective could contribute to resolving any political stalemate relating to enhancing partnerships for peace and security.

Furthermore, Ali (2008:169) affirms that at regional brigade level, the MSCs are made up of representatives from identified military organisations rather than politicians. For example, the memorandum of understanding (MOU) establishing the SADC BRIG states that the “term of reference for the command elements headquarters and specialised mustering at SADC BRIG shall be as determined by the mandating authority” (SADC, 2007).<sup>6</sup> Furthermore, this MOU states that the military equipment and personnel shall be under the operational control of the force commander while remaining under the operational command of the contributing country. It suffices to say that the operational command at country level resides with the Joint Operations Headquarters with a senior military general in charge. It suffices to say that specialised mustering within the SADC BRIG is based on pledged military capabilities as the

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<sup>5</sup> The final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission as was presented to President Nelson Mandela on 29 October 1998 (see volume 2, paragraph 67-78).

<sup>6</sup> Section 4 of Article 12: The command and control of the SADC BRIG.

defining condition for regional technocratic corporation among the military personnel, police, and civilian components.

The researcher submits that the above administrative arrangements constitute a solid policy-based foundation in enhancing partnerships in peace and security. Examples of regional technocratic collaboration include:

- the defence engineering capability in the management of water and trans-boundary water and sanitation facilities;
- strategic defence airlift during natural disasters;
- human movement control during Ebola outbreaks; and
- anti-piracy operations strategy in the regional maritime networks.

Furthermore, Centeno (1993:317-326) mentions four conditions that shape regional technocratic cooperation, namely:

- complexity of responsibilities undertaken by the regime;
- the use of performance criteria to legitimise administrative actions;
- military expertise and institutional autonomy; and
- government stability (Centeno, 1993:317-326).

#### ***1.2.6.1 Complexity of responsibilities undertaken by the state***

Defence policy complexity clearly points to technocratic decisions and professional influences in formulating a regional operations strategy for peace and security, namely particular skills, competence, and knowledge of the land, and maritime, airwards, and health support systems. Centeno (1993:318) indicates that the concomitant rise of technical influence and technological change in security matters will always produce military technocratic control.

#### ***1.2.6.2 The use of performance criteria to legitimise administrative actions***

Centeno (1993:319) notes that social change is always coupled with uncertainties and the inability to resolve issues. In cases where peace and security become a critical issue facing the state, Centeno (1993) would agree that the military shall rise to the top of the institutional hierarchy in advising the state and providing assistance.

### **1.2.6.3 Military expertise and institutional autonomy**

Centero (1993:320) advises that military technocracy is not limited to decision making on peace and security issues, but involves institutional autonomy and overwhelming influence in pursuit of various sets of political interests. Among other political interests is the responsibility of the state to provide services like energy, health, water, food, governance, transportation, and communication.

### **1.2.6.4 Government stability**

Finally, Centero (1993:324) advises that political uncertainties can either support or hamper technocratic advancement within a specific policy framework. For example, the current issues on land expropriation without compensation in South Africa bring forth irreconcilable differences between large groups of the population, thus creating challenges to possible technocratic advancement of the existing policy frameworks on land redistribution. In this instance, the state remains with the responsibility to ensure equitable access to natural resources by all citizens.

The foregoing technocratic conditions assist in appreciating the opportunities and challenges presented by regional technocratic cooperation in enhancing peace and security. Furthermore, the existing evidence points to a dynamic and complex interaction between regional technocratic cooperation, foreign policy arrangements, and defence administration.

## **1.2.7 Regional administrative arrangements and defence administration reforms**

Major (2005) indicates that administrative structures and decision-making procedures, i.e. administrative arrangements within various foreign policy frameworks, continue to evolve in line with regional peace and security policies. Major (2005) states that structural and procedural changes within the national defence administration and foreign policy practices are bound to adapt to major changes within the regional administrative arrangement. Stated differently, the signing of the Joint UN-AU Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security, the signing of the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and the ratification of the CADSP, gave direction to the



national foreign policy and defence administration practices within the UN-AU member states.

The foregoing observations indicate the importance of policy reforms in guiding regional technocratic cooperation in changing social needs while enhancing partnerships in peace and security. The researcher submits that the point of convergence between the changing regional administration arrangements (structures and procedures) and adaptive defence administration forms the basis for the study of RDA. In the absence of any theoretical foundation that legitimises RDA as a sub-discipline in the study of Public Administration, the researcher relied on existing databases and machine learning to generate the required knowledge.

### **1.3 KNOWLEDGE DISCOVERY IN DATABASES (KDD) AND MACHINE LEARNING**

Zhou (2003:139) affirms that the rapid advancement in digital data acquisition and storage mechanisms continues to lead to the growing amount of data stored in databases and other kinds of storehouses such as the World Wide Web. Zhou (2003) argues that the valuable information that is hidden in these overwhelming data volumes presents a challenge to human beings to extract the necessary knowledge without using the necessary tools. Given the nature of RDA as a new discipline and the increasing number of source documents that seek to enhance partnerships in peace and security, the researcher found it necessary to depend on the data management techniques of KDD and data mining<sup>7</sup> for purposes of extracting “useful” information (knowledge). Put in simple terms, “KDD refers to the overall process of discovering useful information from data, and data mining refers to the particular step in this process” (Fayyad, Piatetsky-Shapiro & Smyth, 1996:39).

#### **1.3.1 KDD**

In advocating for the interdisciplinary nature of KDD, Fayyad *et al.* (1996:39) state that this data management technique continues to evolve from the intersection of research fields such as databases, machine learning, artificial intelligence, statistics, pattern

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<sup>7</sup> Data mining is defined as the technique of extracting knowledge from huge volumes of data, with the help of ubiquitous modern computing devices (Zhou, 2003:139).

recognition, and knowledge acquisition for experts. Given these broad fields of research, Fayyad *et al.* (1996) purport that the unifying purpose is the extraction of higher-order knowledge from the baseline data in the context of large data. Since data mining is a step in KDD, additional steps in the KDD process include “data preparation, data selection, data cleansing, incorporation of appropriate prior knowledge, and proper interpretation of the results of mining” (Fayyad *et al.*, 1996:39). Important to this study is the argument that KDD places special emphasis on finding understandable patterns that can be interpreted as useful or interesting knowledge (Fayyad *et al.*, 1996:40).

In an attempt to mitigate the problem of effective data manipulating when data do not fit, the researcher purposefully avoided statistics as a technique used in KDD. Given the broad scope in the new field of RDA, Fayyad *et al.* (1996:40) indicate that the notion of “promoting peace and security” provides the logical view of the broad variety of data and databases that may be used to map data into a single naming convention. In doing so, the researcher was able to optimise data cleansing as a step in KDD.

Zhang, Zhang and Yang (2003:377) refer to data preparation as a step in KDD. These authors argue that real-world data are contaminated and that quality data are required in any scientific inquiry to yield high-quality patterns. For purposes of this study, Zhang *et al.* (2003:377) state that the absence of certain attributes of interest or limitations to aggregate data is an example of impurities in real-world data. Examples include the absence of military attributes in the Agenda for Sustainable Development, and the limitation of aggregate stakeholders in non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

In addressing the above challenges, Zhang *et al.* (2003:377) advise on data preparation by generating a dataset smaller than the original one with the view to significantly enhance the efficiency of data mining. In this particular study, the data preparation generated a smaller dataset from the contributions of three international authorities, namely Kofi Annan on durable peace and sustainable development in Africa, Destra Mebratu on environmental wellness and sustainable development in Africa, and Sir Marrack Goulding on the military role in promoting peace and security. In doing so, the key concepts to be used in extracting data are as follows: military role in promoting peace and security, durable peace and sustainable development, and military role in support of development.

In the foregoing instance, “*data* are a set of facts ... and *patterns* is an expression in some language describing a subset of the data or a model applicable to the subset” (Fayyad *et al.*, 1996:41). For example, the pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on common defence and security in Africa constitute a *fact*, while the models of the ASF that are based on brigades contributed by the five African Regional Communities<sup>8</sup> provide a specific *pattern* within these subsets that is amenable to scientific inquiry. For purposes of this study, facts will be limited to pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that influence public administration in Southern Africa, while patterns will be established from military operational activities that may contribute to sustainable development.

In an attempt to prepare and generate quality data for this study, Zhang *et al.* (2003:377) advise on the use of international authorities and expert decisions to settle possible theoretical discrepancies. It is on the basis of this advice that this study depends on existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and widely cited scholarly contributions in pursuit of theory building in this study. The researcher submits that public administration practices manifest in pieces of legislation and policy documents (social actions), and thus represent the primary sources of information that are amenable to scientific inquiry. These source documents can also be explored using powerful data-management techniques that are available from various database communities (see Zhou, 2003:140). It is necessary at this stage to elaborate on the machine learning techniques that may be used in extracting data from these source documents.

### **1.3.2 Machine learning techniques for data mining**

Sharma, Agrawal, Agarwal and Sharma (2013:1) state that “[t]he goal of the data mining process is to extract information from large database and transform into a human understandable format”. In strengthening the data-preparation and data-cleansing processes discussed above, the researcher submits that data mining is relevant for the purposes of addressing the primary question in this study, namely: What are the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa? Given the broad nature of the potential

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<sup>8</sup> The CADSP provides for the ASF and regional brigades as the building blocks of continental instruments and mechanisms.

“original dataset” that addresses this primary question, the researcher begins with the “smaller dataset” to significantly enhance the efficiency of data mining. In doing so, the researcher focuses on the attributes of the military role in support of development as a pillar of defence operations strategy for enhancing partnerships in peace and security.

The researcher also submits that the transition from observing “real-world data” on the “military role in support of development” to “quality data” on the “defence operations strategy on peace and security” would yield “high-quality patterns” that define the “distinguishing features of defence operations strategy” in support of sustainable development. The foregoing theoretical line of thinking is intended to build the substantive theory on the MOAD. For purposes of clarifying the approach to data extraction, the researcher views data mining as “the analysis of (often large) observational data sets to find unsuspected relationships and to summarize the data in novel ways that are both understandable and useful to the data owner” (Hand, Mannila & Smyth, 2001:361).

Fayyad *et al.* (1996:43) state that data mining as an element of the KDD process is characterised by repeated iterative applications of specific data-mining techniques. Furthermore, these authors provide that verification (i.e. of the researcher’s hypothesis) and discovery (i.e. finding new patterns) are the major goals of knowledge discovery. Fayyad *et al.* (1996:43) also state that discovery goals can be divided into the prediction (i.e. finding patterns for predicting the future) and description of established patterns. This study is limited to description, while the inferred or explored knowledge is drawn from the observed data (Fayyad *et al.*, 1996:43).

Ngai, Xiu and Chau (2009:2593) provide examples of data-mining techniques as association, classification, clustering, forecasting, regression, sequence discovery, and virtualisation. In the absence of any formal attributes that establish RDA as a science of public administration, Fayyad *et al.* (1996:43) state that logic-based reasoning is a data-mining technique relevant to descriptive and exploratory studies. According to Benton and Craib (2011:6), logic-based reasoning brings together various statements that provide an account of relevant data and other thought processes that may assist in grounding popular belief as the truth of a particular conclusion. In establishing the logical thought process that guided this study, the

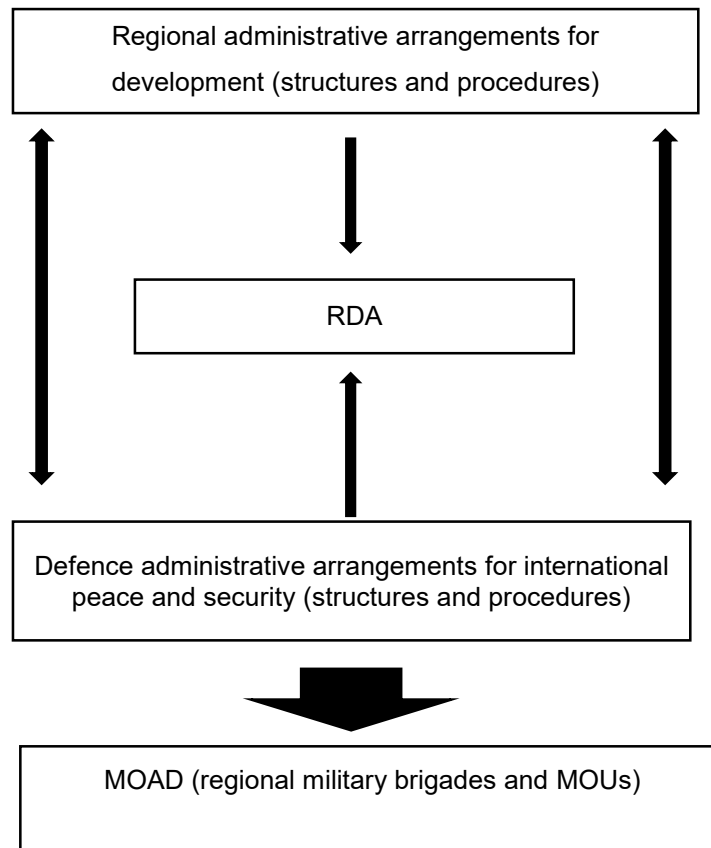
researcher relied on thought processes selected from the philosophy of social sciences, which include ideology, narratives, critical theory, and emancipatory science (see Benton & Craib, 2011).

The foregoing interpretative approaches were complemented by rational theory and symbolic interactionism for purposes of ensuring triangulation in this study. For purposes of integrating these thought processes, the following logic-based reasoning arises:

- **Premise 1:** Regional administrative arrangements seek to support the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa.
- **Premise 2:** Defence administrative arrangements seek to maintain international peace and security.
- **Premise 3:** Peace and security enhance sustainable development in Southern Africa.
- **Conclusion:** The military role in maintaining international peace and security provides support to the Agenda for Sustainable Development.

The purpose of this study is not to “test” foregoing logical conclusions but to establish the attributes of the military role in support of development, namely the defining pillars of defence operations strategy that may enhance partnerships in peace and security. The emergent attributes may assist in testing the validity of this logical conclusion and will be left for future research.

Figure 1.2 provides the diagrammatic flow that assisted in mining and processing data in this study using computer-aided data-extraction techniques.



**Figure 1.2: Matrix of interactions between regional and defence administrations**

Source: Researcher's own mind-map design

In concluding the discussion on data mining and data processing, the researcher submits that existing databases (e.g. EBSCOhost Research Platform, Google Scholar, and JSTOR digital library) provided machine learning opportunities for research. In this instance, these databases offered the researcher the opportunity to extract official source documents and complementary scholarly literature to establish the relationships between:

- the military role and international peace and security;
- durable peace and sustainable development; and
- possible connections between the military role and sustainable development.

The computer-aided techniques also assisted the researcher in identifying from these source documents common ideas, concepts, metaphors, attributes, and possible constructs. Finally, the researcher argues that the relationships between the emerging

attributes and constructs enabled the building of a substantive theory on the MOAD within the context of RDA.

#### **1.4 CONCLUSION**

The researcher began by situating the topic of this study within the context of Public Administration, namely the military role in supporting sustainable development in Southern Africa. Given the complex nature of public administration problems, the researcher established the possibility for the Africanisation of both the science and practice of public administration in Africa, whereby the researcher argued that the notions of “regional administration” and “defence administration” are inseparable, and could thus be merged into the new concept called RDA. This merging also finds grounding within the existing regional administrative arrangements (structures and procedures) that give rise to defence operations strategy for maintaining international peace and security.

The researcher also argued that the notion of defence operations strategy finds expression within the potential MOAD. In expounding on this theoretical line of thinking, the researcher provided the logic-based conclusion that the military organisation possesses the potential to support the Agenda for Sustainable Development. Since the purpose of this study is not to test this logical conclusion, the researcher chose to establish the distinguishing features of the defence operations strategy or the military role in supporting sustainable development. Finally, the researcher argued that the potential attributes of the defence operations strategy are embedded within the baseline data, as exemplified by the notions of regional and defence administration, structures and procedures, OAD, technocratic cooperation, partnerships in peace and security, and KDD. The following chapter elaborates on the methodological issues and critical justification that guided this study.

## **CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND CRITICAL JUSTIFICATIONS**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter on methodological issues and critical justifications intends to address some concerns that continue to dominate the field of Public Administration Research. An example of a philosophical concern is: Is Public Administration a science or an art? Examples of epistemological concerns are the claim of “big questions” in the study of Public Administration. Both these philosophical concerns and epistemological “questions” point to the need to clarify methodological issues that may arise in relation to the qualitative method followed in this study. Although the actual tension is beyond the scope of this study, the researcher finds it necessary to declare from the outset that this study purposefully followed grounded theory methodological approaches.

The chapter is arranged as follows: the problem statement is provided, followed by the purpose of the study, and thereafter the research questions. These are followed by the research objectives, the significance of the study, and the definition of the boundaries of the study. Finally, the chapter provides the context of the study (historical military experiences in Southern Africa) and the selected methodological approach and analytical frameworks.

### **2.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

In the study titled “Military influence on Brazilian economic policy, 1930-1945: A different view”, Hilton (1973:71) seeks to demystify the generally held belief that military organisations have been used as conveyers of modernity, as claimed in terms of industrialisation. In this study, Hilton (1973) “tests” these observations by focusing on the military influence in decision-making processes. Two concepts are relevant at this stage, namely “testing observations” and “decision-making processes” as applied in the study of Public Administration.

On the other side is the study conducted by Shaw, titled “The military as a contributor to national development”. In this study, Shaw (1997:38) observes an increase in military roles in support of OAD. A common feature between these studies conducted by Hilton and Shaw is the importance of testing emerging observations and related



decision-making processes as opposed to blindly subscribing to the generally held belief about traditional military operations. Put differently, Hilton and Shaw agree that the study of decision-making processes that may lead to an observable non-traditional military role offers the opportunity to build substantive theories in defence administration, as well as the opportunity to provide direction in the transformation of regional administration as opposed to the generally held belief about traditional military operations.

Absent in both studies and other complementary literature is established research work on possible theoretical or policy-based connections between the military role and development objectives. Stated differently, existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and research works that may contribute toward the military-peace-development nexus are more, if not fully, orientated towards policy-based foundations that connect the military role and durable peace (e.g. Goulding, 1993), and durable peace and sustainable development (e.g. Mebratu, 1998; Annan, 2000). Absent in these policy-based connections – military-peace and peace-development linkages – is policy-based and/or theory-based connections between the military role and sustainable development.

The foregoing theoretical line of thinking suggests that the military-development nexus resides at the point of convergence between the military-peace nexus and peace-development nexus, namely the security-peace-development nexus. The foregoing observations point to possible theoretical connections between the military role and sustainable development. In closing the emergent theoretical gap between the military role and sustainable development within the context of the military-peace-development nexus, the researcher relied on existing global pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and scholarly contributions. In closing this existing gap, the researcher found support from Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010:95) on the importance of theory building to broaden knowledge and to influence policy practice within the field of P(p)ublic A(a)dmistration; and Van der Waldt (2017:183) on Public Administration as an applied social science that enhances the transition from theory to practice.

## **2.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study is to explore existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and scholarly contributions that establish the connections between the military role and durable peace, and between durable peace and sustainable development with the view to establish possible theoretical connections between the military role and sustainable development.

## **2.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study's research questions are divided into primary and secondary questions.

### **2.4.1 Primary research question**

What are the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa?

### **2.4.2 Secondary research questions**

1. Is the national defence administration still enjoying independence, or is its operations strategy being increasingly determined by external forces beyond the control of the local technocratic authority?
2. What are the most reliable sources of administration practices that may assist in building the theory of MOAD?
3. How can we know that the theory of MOAD is true or false within the context of military-peace-development interactive systems?
4. Does the defence administration have any regional moral obligation to promote durable peace for sustainable development?

In addressing the abovementioned research questions, the researcher intended to achieve the research objectives set out hereafter.

## **2.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

1. To determine whether the national defence administration (and related operations strategy) is still enjoying independence within the context of increasing transformation in regional administration practices.

2. To establish the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy that may support the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa.
3. To explore the most reliable sources of regional and defence administration practices that may assist in building the theory of MOAD.
4. To evaluate relations within the dynamic and interactive military-peace-development systems with the view to confirm or disconfirm the theory of MOAD.
5. To provide an account of regional moral obligation on the part of the defence administration to support the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa.

## **2.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the 2063 Agenda on African aspirations, the CADSP and SADC Treaty, and related country-specific development plans share the importance of enhancing partnerships in peace and security as a sustainable development objective. The researcher submits that the CADSP is a game changer since it defines the notions of peace and security within the context of “less traditional, non-military aspects which relate to protection of the people’s political, cultural, social and economic values and ways of life” (AU, 2004c).<sup>9</sup>

Although the CADSP defines peace and security beyond the confines of the generally held belief around military operations, the researcher submits that partnerships in peace and security offer the opportunity to explore the alternative trajectories in transforming the defence operations strategy within the context of RDA – military operations other than war (MOOTW). The researcher submits that the point of convergence between the national defence administration and regional administration offers the promises of building the theory of RDA within the context of the envisaged African Public Administration.

In establishing the significance of building the theory of MOAD, the study relied on the statement that “[t]heory without practice is empty and practice without theory is blind”

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<sup>9</sup> Definition of defence as stipulated in the Solemn Declaration on Common African Defence and Security Policy of 2004 (AU, 2004c).

(Lloyd, 2016). The researcher submits that this study is significant in contributing to theory building in the field of PAR on the African continent.

## **2.7 THE BOUNDARIES OF THE STUDY**

This study was limited to the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that influence regional administration and defence administration in Southern Africa; for example, the provisions of the UN Charter on the establishment of regional peace and security councils, the AU's Constitution on the establishment of RECs, and the CADSP on the establishment of regional defence capabilities and responsibilities related to the maintenance of peace and security. Furthermore, the study was limited to the provisions of the Joint UN-AU Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security, the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

In exploring the foregoing policy provisions, the study was restricted to specific boundaries, which were defined as the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that connect the military role and durable peace, link durable peace and sustainable development, and that point to possible relations between the military role and sustainable development. In defining the scope of emergent connections within the military-peace-development nexus, the researcher relied on the agenda for peace and security in promoting sustainable development.

Furthermore, the guiding pieces of legislation and policy frameworks were restricted to specific influences on peace and security in Southern Africa, and selected countries were limited to Angola, Namibia, Botswana, Zambia, Tanzania, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and South Africa. The territorial boundaries of these countries enabled the researcher to increasingly build cases from historical military experiences with the intention to ground the theory of MOAD within the context of RDA. Finally, the researcher found it necessary to begin by situating military historical experiences within the context of the indigenous African administration and defence operations activities.

## **2.8 INDIGENOUS AFRICAN ADMINISTRATION AND DEFENCE OPERATIONS STRATEGY**

The central question in this study seeks to establish the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development within the context of RDA in Southern Africa. In an attempt to establish the ontological concerns in studying RDA as a new concept, Neumann (1996:409) states that the historical military experiences in Southern Africa represent the philosophical manifestation of the “true science of regional administration”. Stated differently, historical military experiences provide the foundation for addressing the basic questions that concern the “origin” of the core of military operations strategy in the Southern African region.

In exploring the “origin of the core” of defence operations strategy in ancient Southern Africa, the researcher submits that the common regional concerns for peace and security represent the point of convergence between:

- ancient African administration and defence administration;
- regional administration and defence administration;
- defence administration and military operational activities; and
- regional administration and military operational activities.

In establishing the logic that connects regional administration and defence administration – the logic of RDA – the researcher relied on the “origin of the core” of military operational activities that characterised the ancient regimes in Southern Africa, namely King Rozvi Mutota of the Vakaranga, King Shaka kaSenzangakhona of the Zulu nation, King Mzilikazi kaKhumalo of the Matebele people, and King Moshoeshoe wa-Mokhachane of the Basotho nation. The researcher submits that these ancient regimes offer the opportunity to explore the distinguishing features of indigenous African administration and their defence operations strategy.

### **2.8.1 King Mutota’s administration and defence operations strategy**

The researcher observed that the regime-building project of King Rozvi Mutota of the Vakaranga offers the opportunity to explore the origin of the development trajectories that shaped the military role in ancient Southern Africa. Existing historical experiences point to the Mwene we Mutapa regime, commonly known as the Monomotapa

Kingdom, as one of the most popular regime-building projects in Southern Africa. Abraham (1961:212) states that King Mutota had launched military campaigns since 1440, intended to conquer and occupy vast territories bounded by the Kalahari, the Zambezi, Limpopo, and the Indian Ocean.

After the death of King Mutota, Abraham (1961:213) states that his son continued with this military operations strategy from 1450 for the next 30 years. In doing so, the new king conquered the remaining territories to the shore of the Indian Ocean in downstream Zambezi River without any resistance. Zartman (1995:16) indicates that these historical experiences are the manifestation of indigenous administration and military operations strategy – capturing the territories in Southeast Africa and gaining administrative control over its natural resources while preventing possible future invasion into the conquered land or possible external plundering of its natural resources.

### **2.8.2 King Shaka's administration and defence operations strategy**

The researcher established that the narrative of King Shaka kaSenzangakhona provides the opportunity to appreciate the importance of a defence operations strategy within the context of the ancient African Public Administration. Bullock (2006:140) portrays King Shaka as the founder of the Zulu Kingdom in the early 1810s. Most authors agree that King Shaka used military capability to conquer and dominate the neighbouring kingdoms in the eastern part of ancient Southern Africa (Gluckman, 1960:158; Hamilton, 1998:31; Morris, 2017:53). The foregoing observations point to some trajectories in King Shaka's regional administration strategy, as well as defence operations strategy.

The foregoing claim finds support from the reciprocal growth between the sizes of conquered territories and the number of army personnel; by the beginning of the year 1817, the size of the Zulu territories had quadrupled and the number of army personnel had increased to approximately 2 000 trained warriors (Morris, 2017:54). Furthermore, Zartman (1995:16) affirms that King Shaka used his defence operations strategy – close-spear combat – to conquer territories and to gain regional administration over conquered eastern territories in ancient Southern Africa.

### **2.6.3 King Mzilikazi's administration and defence operations strategy**

The narrative of King Mzilikazi kaMatshobana also offers the opportunity to examine defence operations strategy within the context of ancient Public Administration. In establishing this ancient Public Administration, King Mzilikazi rebelled against King Shaka and fled to the western interior of Southern Africa with a few members of his Khumalo clan. This breakaway led to the establishment of the Matabele or Mzilikazi administration around 1838-1840 in the area surrounding present-day south-western Zimbabwe. In examining the defence operations strategy within the context of the Matabele administration, Khumalo (2004:107) observes that King Mzilikazi used sporadic invasions, conquests, and the incorporation and assimilation of individuals, groups, and communities, while enforcing the Matabele values and language onto subjugated local communities of diverse ethnic groups.

It is true that the defence operations strategy raises several axiological questions. Nonetheless, Ndakaripa (2014:9) states that King Mzilikazi's defence operations strategy succeeded in establishing the Matabele administration in the south-eastern region of Southern Africa. The establishment of the Matabele Kingdom is a clinical case in exploring the merging of regional administration and defence administration – the two indisputable pillars of RDA.

### **2.8.4 King Moshoeshoe's administration and defence operations strategy**

Finally, the narrative of King Moshoeshoe wa-Mokhachane provides another lens to explore the linkage between regional administration and defence operations strategy. Rosenberg (1999:51-52) states that King Moshoeshoe and his followers left Butha-Buthe in 1824 and travelled to the naturally fortified Thaba Bosiu where he took refuge and succeeded in building the Basotho nation. Scheub (2002:7) affirms that Moshoeshoe's military forces, led by Commander Mokotedi, were pivotal in this major campaign to Thaba Bosiu in the midst of growing cannibalism in the region. Among others, Scheub (2002) states that King Moshoeshoe generously presented heads of livestock to newcomers as a symbol of peace while encouraging them to settle on Thaba Bosiu.

It is relevant to explore the defence operations strategy that was adopted by King Moshoeshoe in response to the growing cannibalism on his route to nation building.

It is popularly known in the Kingdom of Lesotho that “the cannibals of whom Rakotsoane was chief, captured Peete, Moshoeshoe’s grandfather, and ate him near Malimong” (Rakotsoane, 1996:13). The phenomenon of cannibalism that came to the fore during this Basotho nation-building period is linked to the prevalence of famine and trouble of the time called “*difacane*” – the prevalence of instability that led to the absence of time to cultivate the soil and resulting scarcity of food.

In response to the foregoing instability and insecurity, King Moshoeshoe extended the policy of clemency towards the cannibals by providing them with “fields, animals and security, and thus persuaded them to give up their habits and rejoin the community” (Rakotsoane, 1996:14). Rakotsoane (1996) states that Moshoeshoe did not allow Basotho people to kill Rakotsoane, the chief of cannibals, and his followers. It suffices to say that Moshoeshoe deployed his military forces to have all cannibals “brought before him and performed on their bellies some of the burial rituals such as smearing them (bellies) with the content of the stomach of a sacrificial ox” (Rakotsoane, 1996:14). The foregoing narrative on the building of the Basotho nation points to the significance of the military role in enhancing peace and security during the process of nation building.

## **2.9 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORKS**

### **2.9.1 Theory building from case studies**

According to Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:25), theory building from case studies is a methodological approach that encompasses the use of single or multiple cases to create theoretical concepts, propositions, and/or midrange theories from case-based reasoning and empirical evidence. While the case study method is increasingly being used in the field of Public Administration, Yin (2006:111) affirms that other research methods include, but are not limited to, ethnography, economic and statistical modelling, research syntheses, experiments, histories, participatory, monitoring and evaluation, transformative, and development methods.

Furthermore, Leonard-Barton (1990:248) advises on the use of the dual methodological approach in case studies. In the absence of shared ontological



questions<sup>10</sup> in the study of RDA, the researcher subscribes to Neumann (1996:409) in submitting that basic questions should concern the essential features and “origin” of its “core subject matter”, namely regional administration, defence administration, OAD, defence operations strategy, and related administrative arrangements (structures and procedures). The researcher submits that the foregoing case-based features of RDA in Southern Africa offer the opportunity to sufficiently address the central questions in this study.

Also, in the absence of shared epistemological questions<sup>11</sup> in the study of RDA, the researcher depended on Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:25) in advocating for the most reliable sources of RDA research that may provide meaningful understanding of MOAD. In doing so, the researcher submits that the existing pieces of international legislation, regional policy frameworks, and national policy prescripts constitute the most reliable sources of case-based and rich empirical descriptions of RDA (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:25). The researcher also submits that regional treaties, agreement, and protocols represent case-based negotiated administrative arrangements.

Finally, the researcher submits that the absence of shared axiological questions<sup>12</sup> in the study of RDA also creates opportunities to invoke the value judgment operative in civil societies. In invoking the value judgement of choice, the researcher learned from Leonard-Barton (1990:248) and presents that RDA dictates the terms of its own exploration and dissection. Furthermore, the researcher submits that CADSP and complementary literature provide the terms of reference for exploring the notion of RDA, which is the moral responsibility on the part of member states towards international obligations.

The foregoing discussion intended to explore the historical experiences that may shed light on indigenous African administration, defence operations strategy, and MOAD. In doing so, the researcher sought to establish the point of convergence between regional administration and defence administration with the view to situate the notion

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<sup>10</sup> Ontological questions include: What is RDA? What are the distinguishing features of RDA?

<sup>11</sup> Epistemological questions include: How can we know when the statement is true? What are the most reliable sources of research that produce meaningful understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny?

<sup>12</sup> The axiological question includes: Does the defence administration have any moral obligation to support the Agenda for Sustainable Development?

of RDA within the study of Public Administration. In doing so, the researcher discussed the regime-building projects under the leadership of King Mutota of the Vakaranga, King Shaka of the Zulu nation, King Mzilikazi kaKhumalo of the Matebele people, and King Moshoeshe of the Basotho nation.

The researcher submits that the foregoing ancient African administration structures, complicated defence procedures, effective operations strategies, and military operational activities provide the basis for the study of military management (see Kuye, 2002:1). The researcher also observed that the convergence of regional administration, defence administration, defence operations strategy, and military operational activities in pursuit of relative peace and security provide the foundation for the study of RDA. For purposes of this study, it is noted that Kuye (2002:15) states that the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on common defence and security in Southern Africa constitute the foundation for the study of RDA.

## **2.9.2 Research design**

Lewis (2015:474) states that the research design represents a series of interrelated activities intended to gather data in order to answer research questions. This section of the study illuminates the following interrelated activities:

- criteria for case selection;
- analytical framework;
- generating data;
- constant comparison;
- coding and memo writing;
- theoretical sensitivity and saturation;
- empirical grounding and conceptual density; and
- sensitising concepts.

### **2.9.2.1 *Criteria for case selection***

In describing the criteria for case selection, Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:16) emphasise the importance of purposefully selecting cases on the basis of the increased probability of offering theoretical understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny while enabling replication and offering an alternative theoretical explanation

or rejection of a popular belief. On this note, Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:27) support the notion of case selection in pursuit of theory building within the new discipline of RDA.

Although Clarke (2003:553) raises arguments around the paucity of case selection in addressing analytic concerns related to representation, Strauss and Corbin (1994:273) advise on the relevance of theoretical sampling as a method of case selection. Strauss and Corbin (1994:273) state that theoretical sampling is a general method used to systematically generate and ground emerging data within a particular theoretical framework using grounded theory methodological analysis.

In this study, the researcher followed the theoretical sampling method by purposefully selecting pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions from existing source documents and most relevant wealth of knowledge. Theoretical sampling is characterised by identifying pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that best contribute to the building of theory on MOAD. The case selection was also informed by the democratic constitutional provisions as the foundation of public administration in Southern Africa.

Table 2.1 provides the matrix for generating theme-based assertions in public governance based on common democratic practices among the selected cases.

**Table 2.1: Matrix for generating theme-based assertions in public governance**

Category of cases	Source documents: Selected cases	Common ideas, words, and phrases
South Africa	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996)	Public administration and management
Angola	Constitution of the Republic of Angola, 2010	National administrative structures and procedures
Botswana	Constitution of Botswana 1966, as amended up to 2006	
DRC	Constitution of the DRC, 2006	Defence administrative structures and procedures
Mozambique	Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique of 1990	Strategic operational activities for peace and security
Namibia	Constitution of the Republic of Namibia (Act 1 of 1990)	
Tanzania	Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, 2005	International relations and policy obligations
Zambia	Constitution of Zambia (amendment), No. 2 of 2016.	The duty to protect the state, its people, and its territorial integrity
Zimbabwe	Constitution of Zimbabwe, as amended to No. 16 of 20 April 2000	
		Defending national independence, preserving the integrity and sovereignty of the state, and ensuring the normal functioning of government institutions
		Security of citizens against armed aggression

Source: Based on shared constitutional provisions on the military role in Southern Africa

Table 2.1 provides the constitutional frameworks of nine countries in Southern Africa for purposes of establishing the most common key concepts that guided this study. For purposes of categorisation, cases will be labelled in accordance to the names of the countries and not in any particular order, namely South Africa, Angola, Botswana, the DRC, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Bowen (2009:27) affirms that the systematic evaluation and analysis of the content of cases (source documents) assist with the generation, examination, and interpretations of emerging data in order to elicit meaning and a shared understanding for purposes of building knowledge.

The researcher submits that the selected source documents are characterised by common ideas and concepts that may assist in grounding the ontological and

epistemological concerns raised in this study. For example, the acceptability of the constitutions of the countries as reliable sources of knowledge in the science of Public Administration remains an ontological concern. It suffices to say that the emergent data, as represented in Table 2.1, point to shared public administration practices by all the countries in Southern Africa. For example, these countries share the expectation by their military organisations to protect the state, their people, and their territorial integrity based on the existing administrative structures and procedures. Table 2.1 is intended to provide the starting point in generating data from the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks; categorised as cases and named in accordance to the names of the source country.

### **2.9.2.2 Analytical frameworks**

Clarke (2003:553) states that grounded theory provides an epistemologically rigorous framework for qualitative data analysis. Rennie (1998:101) argues that grounded theory methodological analysis continues to attract researchers from multiple disciplines, mostly those interested in immersing themselves in qualitative data before vigorously engaging in theory building. Furthermore, Clarke (2003) affirms that grounded theory is continuously regenerated and updated to better address the diversities and complexities of social phenomena that characterise the 21<sup>st</sup> century. While grounded theory continues to be aligned to the changing social life, the following original statement remains relevant (Glaser, 2007:93-94):

Data is discovered for conceptualisation to be what it is – theory. The data is what it is and the researcher collects, codes and analyses exactly what he has whether baseline data, proper line data or objective data or misinterpreted data. It is what the researcher is receiving, as a pattern, and as a human being (which is inescapable). It just depends on the researcher ... the product will be transcending abstraction, not accurate description ... abstraction from time, place and people that frees themselves from the tyranny of normal distortions by humans trying to get an accurate description to solve the worrisome accuracy problem.

The researcher observes that the above statement raises ontological, epistemological, and methodological questions concerning grounded theory as an analytical

framework, namely: “What is the nature of reality?”, “What are the sources of knowledge?”, and “When do we agree that the statement is true?” In an attempt to explore the assumptions about the existence of RDA, Raadschelders (2011:920) emphasises the importance of generating theory about what can be known (i.e. epistemology), how this knowledge can be generated (i.e. methodology), and which research practices can be used (i.e. method).

In establishing the ontological foundation (i.e. the nature of reality) in the study of RDA, the researcher acknowledges the importance of boundaries as an “instrument through which knowledge in a particular discipline is maintained, enforced, expanded, and protected” (Raadschelders, 2011:918); stated differently, the boundary channels the notion of reality that is “out there” to be studied. In the absence of any formal boundary that defines the new sub-discipline of RDA, the researcher depended on the “mother” discipline of Public Administration as a “global phenomenon in terms of structure [while] the study remains very much rooted in the local context of the national state” (Raadschelders, 2011:919).

In the above instance, Raadschelders (2011) argues that the national state is the “originator” of administrative sciences and government is a variable phenomenon in terms of its functioning. Furthermore, Raadschelders (2011) argues that the boundaries of government functioning (i.e. culture) and its study vary in accordance to the nature of government intervention in society. For example, Raadschelders (2011) states that the study of public administration in a developmental state is relatively more focused on promoting “peace and security *for sustainable development*” as opposed to studies of government in highly industrialised countries. In this instance, the researcher submits that the developmental state refers to the legitimate functioning of the government in promoting peace and security within the context of sustainable development.

Although the foregoing discussion points to the national state as the ontological foundation (i.e. the nature of reality) of administrative science and government functioning as its variations, the researcher argues that the study of Public Administration as a global phenomenon – in terms of structures and procedures – offers the opportunity to explore government functioning (e.g. promoting peace and security) that is very much rooted within the supra-national context of a national state.

Stated differently, the researcher argues that the study of Public Administration as a global phenomenon (structure and procedures) offers the opportunity to explore the nature of defence administration (i.e. as a government function) within the context of the regional sphere of governance.

In pursuit of the above, the researcher claims that the existing RECs in Africa constitute the ontological foundation (i.e. the nature of reality) in the study of RDA. Furthermore, the researcher submits that the defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development constitutes a type of regional governance functioning – a variation of administrative science that seeks to enhance partnerships in peace and security. Finally, the researcher argues that MOAD are the building blocks in enhancing partnerships in peace and security. In exploring the “science” of RDA and related practices, the researcher finds it necessary to elaborate on the most preferred approach for generating the necessary data for this study. In doing so, the researcher seeks to establish the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development with the view to build a substantive theory on MOAD.

### **2.9.2.3 *Generating knowledge***

The notion of generating knowledge is closely linked to the theory of knowledge within the philosophy of social science or philosophical foundations of social thought. In illuminating this claim, the researcher begins with the statement that “epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge” (Krauss, 2005:758). Benton and Craib (2011:3) state that epistemology is the technical term for theory of knowledge – “how do we know what we know” (Krauss, 2005:759). In addressing this epistemological question, Benton and Craib (2011:3-4) provide two prominent alternative views, namely rationalism and empiricism. The dispute between rationalism and empiricism that takes place within epistemology remains long standing and beyond the scope of this study. Important is the distinction between rationalism and empiricism that is embedded in the “doctrine that there are some fundamental truths controlling physical reality which reason, and reason alone can find out” (Reichenbach, 1947:333).

Reichenbach (1947) observes that the challenges of rationalism derive from the dependence on mathematical operations in providing knowledge of a physical phenomenon while struggling to transform it into the mathematical form.

Furthermore, Reichenbach (1947:334) states that rationalism disregards the use of the senses in establishing the truth from a physical phenomenon. On the other hand, Reichenbach (1947:335) observes that empiricists reflexively assent to the fundamental thesis of rationalism – the genuine knowledge that is dependent on mathematical operations – hence the general claim that empirical knowledge should be as good as mathematical knowledge. In an attempt to explore the relevance of rationalism and/or empiricism to this study, the researcher utilised two opposing theses.

In an attempt to generate knowledge that is in line with the raised epistemological question (i.e. how do we know what we know?), the researcher learned from two opposing theses, namely the intuitive/deductive thesis and empiricism thesis, as presented by Markie (2017):

*The intuitive/deduction thesis:* This thesis presupposes that some propositions in a particular area, S, are knowable by intuition alone; still others are knowable by being deduced from intuited propositions.

Within the context of the foregoing thesis, intuition is a kind of rational insight. With this rational insight, Markie (2017) points to the ability to intellectually grasp a proposition, and just “see” it to be true in such a way as to form a true and justified certainty about it. On the other hand, Markie (2017) provides that deduction is a practice in which one derives conclusions from intuited propositions through irrefutable arguments; ones in which the conclusion must be true if the propositions are true. For the purposes of this study, the researcher states that regional administration is an international phenomenon that is above national government functioning. The researcher then deduces from this knowledge that multinational defence administration is beyond the functionality of the national state. The researcher therefore concludes that the administration of regional defence brigades is the functionality of RDA and includes MOAD.

This conclusion is based on the understanding that we “know some substantive external world truth, add an analysis of what knowledge requires, and conclude that knowledge must result from intuition and deduction” (Markie, 2017). Important to note is the central argument that distinguishes rationalism from empiricism, purporting that



intuition and deduction provide researchers with a *a priori* knowledge, which implies knowledge gained outside the sense experience.

*The empiricism thesis:* This opposing thesis presupposes that absence of source of knowledge in S or for the concept we use in S other than sense experience.

The abovementioned thesis rejects the claims made by the intuitive/deduction thesis. The empiricism thesis claims that the existence of knowledge in a particular subject is *a posteriori*, or “dependent upon sense experience” (Markie, 2017). Important to note is the observation made by Markie (2017) that empiricists claim that knowledge can only be attained, if at all, through experience. Furthermore, Markie (2017) states that empiricists take their cue from rationalism in arguing that since experience is viewed as not yielding any knowledge, it becomes suggestive that we may not know at all. In reconciling this stalemate situation, Markie (2017) submits that empiricism and rationalism only contradict each other when formulated to address a common subject matter.

The researcher submits that both the institutive/deductive and empiricism theses were relevant in assisting him to identify and generate data in this study. Although the empiricist may argue that historical military experiences, existing pieces of legislation, and policy frameworks should be scrutinised “by looking only at one small portion of reality that cannot be split or unitized without losing the importance of the whole phenomenon” (Krauss, 2005:759), the researcher submits that the best approach to understand RDA is to become immersed in military experiences and defence policy decisions while moving into the regional military culture with the intent to intuitively “experience what it is like to be part of it” (Krauss, 2005:760). The latter part of the argument represents a deviation from the intuitive/deduction thesis since it points to the significance of induction reasoning – the need to set aside “all preconceptions so that they can work inductively with the data to generate entirely new descriptions and conceptualisations” (Thorne, 2000:69).

The foregoing discussion justifies deductive and inductive reasoning as an approach to generate data in this study. Lannin (2004:216-217) states that both approaches to reasoning enable researchers to provide “rich” explanations from recursive and iterative forms of data while establishing relationships that arise from various contexts, namely historical military experiences, existing literature, relevant policy frameworks,

and complementary scholarly contributions. It is on the basis of the foregoing discussion that the researcher submits that these primary sources of data provide the “point of departure to look for data ... and to think analytically about the data” (Charmaz, 1996:32). Since these sources of data contain a loose collection of policy prescripts, the researcher depended on the “logically held together assumptions, concepts and propositions that orientate thinking and research” (Bogdan & Biklan, 1982:30). In this instance, Krauss (2005:759) would agree that these sources may be “used to construct a scientific investigation”. In exploring sources of data, the researcher combined the grounded theory method and case studies.

#### **2.9.2.4 Combining the grounded theory method and case studies**

In justifying the combination of the grounded theory and case studies, the researcher subscribes to the argument that “epistemology is intimately related to ontology and methodology ... while methodology identifies the particular practices used to attain knowledge of it” (Krauss, 2005:758). In the article titled “Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research”, Carter and Little (2007:1316) clarify the relationship between ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods as a framework in qualitative research. Important to note is the definition of methodology as “the study – description, the explanation, and the justification – of methods – and not methods themselves” (Carter & Little, 2007:1318). Stated differently, Carter and Little (2007:1318) imply that methodology helps us to understand the process of scientific inquiry (method) and not the product itself.

Given the foregoing understanding, Carter and Little (2007:1318) justify the grounded theory approach as a method followed in qualitative research. On the other hand, “research method” is defined as a practical activity of research that includes “sampling, data collection, data management, data analysis, and reporting” (Carter & Little, 2007:1319). Crucial to this study is the argument that “[o]bjectives, research questions, and design shape the choice of methodology, and methodology shapes the objective, research question and design” (Carter & Little, 2007:1324). In this instance, Carter and Little (2007:1324) indicate that grounded theory methodology is a point of entry in developing the theory of MOAD.

Carter and Little (2007:1324) also advise on different versions of grounded theory methodology that may be adopted, as well as a possible combination of methodologies. The foregoing option informed the researcher of combining grounded theory and case studies for purposes of theory building (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:26). In doing so, the researcher learned from Taber (2000:469) and began with detailed in-depth studies of selected individual cases and construction of a general model using the “key process of ‘theoretical sampling’, ‘theoretical sensitivity’ and ‘theoretical saturation’”. In grounding the emergent data within specific higher-order constructs, Fernando, Cohen and Henskens (2012:121) advise on highlighting possible linkages between the emerging attributes of selected cases. In this particular instance, the most common administrative arrangements (structures and procedures) within the SADC region were viewed as a single case study, while the common country-specific administrative practices represented the intra-cases.

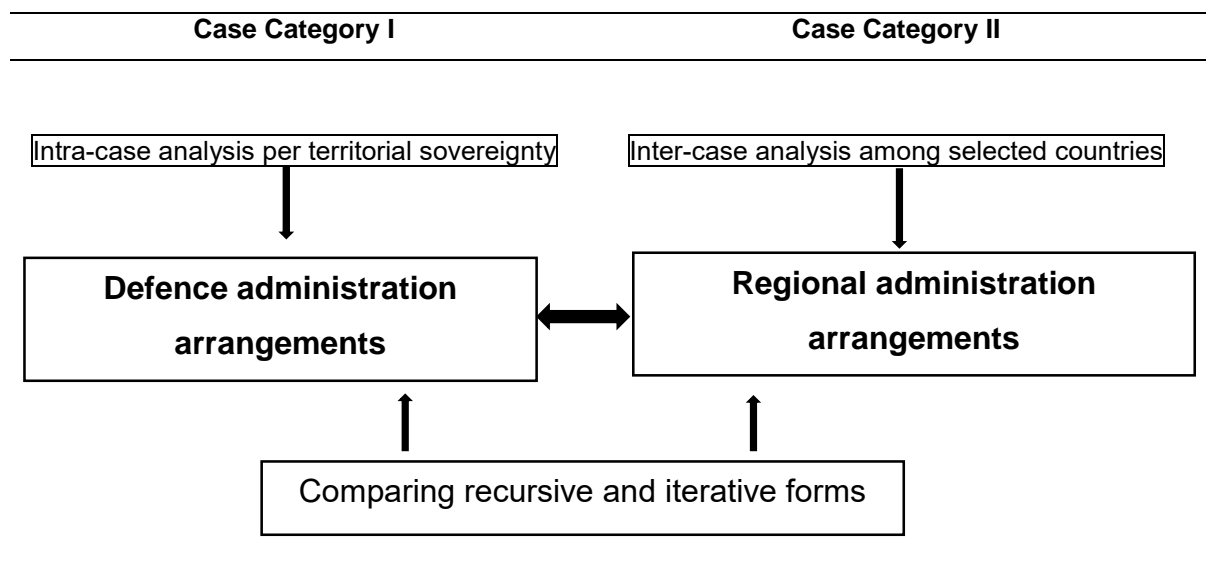
Given the limitation of space and time, the practice of public administration was divided into two major domains, namely regional administration and defence administration. Meyer (in DoD, 2015:195) affirms that the case study is not a method but a research strategy that investigates social actions, institutional properties, and administrative structures by applying methods such as the analyses of observations and documents. Scientific conclusions can be drawn from indirect interactions whereby academic contributions are read by political actors and disseminated into policy-related documents. For example, in September 1997, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) assembled at the level of foreign ministers to establish the need for international efforts in promoting peace and security in Africa. This summit resulted in Kofi Annan writing a report titled *The Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa*, which was presented to the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) in April 1998.

In the academic writing titled “Kofi Annan on Africa’s problems”, Annan (1998:413) affirms that “[d]evelopment is a human right, and the principal long-term objective of all countries in Africa”. It suffices to say that this long-term objective is highly embraced in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Furthermore, Annan’s report of April 1998 to the UNGA is more an academic writing as opposed to a political report. This report continues to be followed by annual political reports titled *The Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa* to date.

Merriam (1998) advises on the interactive nature of data collection in case studies while “mining” data from policy documents. Cortazzi (2002:12) states that document and narrative analyses present a fresh approach to exploring the administrative function and meaning of text in Public Administration Research. In this instance, data are generated from selected pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and narratives on military experiences in Southern Africa.

The general model is used for the purpose of enabling the first instance conceptualisation and categorisation of selected cases into higher-order constructs, namely regional administration and defence administration, as depicted in Table 2.2.

### Selected SADC countries as a single case study



**Figure 2.1: Model for explaining recursive and iterative forms that underpin the concept of RDA**

Source: Own design informed by the notion of public administration as an international phenomenon

Figure 2.1 depicts the relationship between defence administration and regional administration within the context of public administration as an international phenomenon. Figure 2.1 also provides a schematic representation of the use of grounded theory from case studies. In this particular instance, the selected countries in the SADC region are categorised as a single case study – the common administrative practices within a single REC. On the other hand, this model depicts defence administration as a function of national government. In an attempt to integrate

the concepts of regional administration and defence administration, the researcher relied on recursive and iterative forms that cut across these two major public administration categories. For the purposes of establishing the theory-building process for this study, the researcher drew from the three canons of grounded theory, namely theoretical sampling, theoretical sensitivity, and theoretical saturation.

### **2.9.2.5 Theoretical sampling and KDD**

Theoretical sampling finds its roots in the discovery of grounded theory, first developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967, and later adapted by various scholars to the changing world of research. This original form of grounded theory has been criticised for advancing quantitative terminology and sociological language that are irreconcilable to other disciplines (Coyne, 1997:625). In a study on sampling strategies, Morse (1991:127) states that the relationship between sampling and quality of research is clearly defined in quantitative research as the prescriptive rules on the selection of appropriate samples and techniques for calculating adequate sample size.

Although the concepts of appropriateness<sup>13</sup> and adequacy<sup>14</sup> remain critical in qualitative research, this study used the theoretical sampling approach that is unique to grounded theory. In this study, Morse (1991:135) would agree that the appropriateness of the sample is guided by the *source document characteristics* and the *type of information required* by the researcher. On the other hand, Morse (1991:135) states that information adequacy is to be determined by the relevance, completeness, and the amount of obtained information as opposed to the number of cases. Given the foregoing requirements for qualitative sampling methods, it is necessary to establish the operational definition of the “theoretical sampling” method used in this study.

The researcher subscribes to the observation that the “central focus of grounded theory is the development of theory through constant comparative analysis of data gained from theoretical sampling” (Coyne, 1997:625). In this context, theoretical sampling is defined as “the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyses the data and decides which data to

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<sup>13</sup> Refers “to the degree to which the choice of informants and method of selection ‘fits’ the purpose of the study as determined by the research questions and the stage of the research” (Morse, 1991:134).

<sup>14</sup> Refers “to the sufficiency and quality of the data” (Morse, 1991:134).

collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges” (Glaser, 1978:36). Glaser (1978) further states that the method of data collection is determined by the emerging theory. This implies that the notion of theory generation is an aspect of the data-collection technique used in theoretical sampling.

Becker (1993:256) states that theoretical sampling is essential to the deductive-inductive process that characterises grounded theory. In this first instance, the deductive process involves the purposeful sampling from existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on the maintenance of international peace and security, coupled with the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda with the clear intention to develop the emerging theory. On the other hand, the inductive process involves the synthesis of theory from the emerging data. The researcher submits that this iterative deductive-inductive process is central to theory building in this study.

At the core of the data-collection technique used in this study are the three policy frameworks, namely the Joint UN-AU Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security (2017), the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2018). These frameworks establish the nexus between peace, security, and development in the implementation of Agenda 2030 and Agenda 2063, which are the foundation of MOAD. In generating data from source documents, the researcher utilised the KDD process, as discussed in Chapter 1.

### **2.9.2.6 *Theoretical sensitivity and data mining***

In defining the concept of theoretical sensitivity, the researcher begins with the observation that “the basic elements of grounded theory are concepts, categories and propositions” (Pandit, 1996:1). Furthermore, Pandit (1996) states that concepts are the basic units of analysis since they are developed from conceptualising emerging data. For purposes of this study, Pandit (1996) would agree that the theory on MOAD can be built with actual activities or incidents as reported by or recorded in official documents and related complementary scholarly literature. This study hinges on three key concepts, namely the military role, durable peace, and sustainable development.

For purposes of theory building, the researcher focused on the theoretical analysis of the connection between these three concepts with the view to develop higher-order

categories and propositions. It is important to note that “propositions involve conceptual relationships whereas hypotheses require measured relationships” (Pandit, 1996:2). In the absence of any fixed way of coding data, Walker and Myrick (2006:552) advise on the use of constant comparison that will yield emergent categories and related attributes or properties. Once a researcher is able to see the prospects for the theory that can embrace all the emergent data, theoretical sensitivity comes into play.

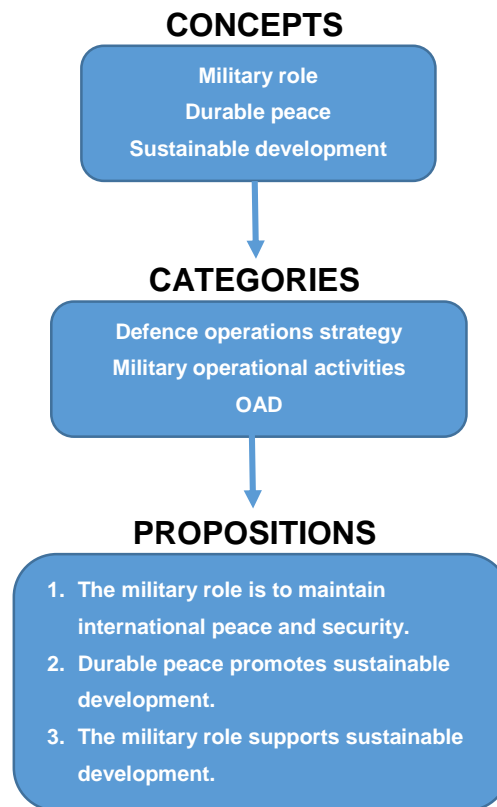
Walker and Myrick (2006:553) provide that theoretical sensitivity is achieved by the use of specific analytic techniques and include an in-depth analysis of words, phrases, and sentences in line with raised questions. Moreover, Walker and Myrick (2006) state that increased sensitivity assists researchers to recognise possible bias while enabling them to overcome possible analytic barriers. Important to this study is the advice on the “natural cognitive process we use when we compare things” (Walker & Myrick, 2006:553). The researcher submits that the data-mining process that relates to clustering is relevant in increasing the theoretical sensitivity to the emerging data.

### **2.9.2.7 Constant comparison method and theoretical saturation**

The foregoing discussions on the theoretical sampling and theoretical sensitivity advance constant comparison as a technique used to establish clusters or categories and theoretical propositions. Bowen (2008:138) suggests that the constant comparative analysis is a systematic approach to gathering and analysing data – the observation of continuous interactions between the collected data and data analysis. Bowen (2008:139) also establishes that the constant comparison method is intertwined with the process of theoretical saturation. Although the notion of theoretical saturation remains an integral aspect of grounded theory, Bowen (2008) argues that this concept remains nebulous while the method lacks systematisation.

Simply defined, theoretical saturation “entails bringing the new participants continuously into the study until the data is complete, as indicated by data replication and redundancy” (Bowen, 2008:140). Stated differently, theoretical saturation is established when the data are gathered to the point of shrinking proceeds, or the absence of new insight from added data. Loosely explained, Bowen (2008) indicates that data saturation is the lack of generating new themes or new attributes that define

emergent categories. This implies that theoretical saturation represents the analysis phase in which data categories or clusters are deeply grounded and validated. According to Bowen (2008:140), “[s]aturating data ensures replication in categories; replication verifies, and ensures comprehension and completeness”.



**Figure 2.2: Schematic representation of the theory-building process**

Source: Developed from the primary conclusion established in Chapter 1

In summarising the foregoing discussion, the researcher sheds light on the methodological concerns that may arise from this study, while presenting some justification for possible burning issues. The raised concerns include, but are not limited to:

- the criteria for selecting case studies and the analytical framework used;
- methods of generating data;
- the relevance of combining the grounded theory methodology and the case study approach; and
- the importance of theoretical sensitivity, constant comparison, and saturation.



The foregoing discussion was intended to provide the methodological framework followed in this study. The schematic representation of the theory-building process depicted in Figure 2.2 derives from the steps that underpin grounded theory methodological analysis, which are developing concepts from collected data, formulating categories from emergent common properties, and synthesising theoretical propositions.

## **2.10 CONCLUSION**

In concluding this chapter, the researcher reiterates the methodological issues and critical justification as required in social science methodological research. Among others, in this chapter the researcher addressed the problem statement, research questions, objectives, and the significance of the study. Although the population of the study may be viewed as the SADC countries, the researcher used the concept of selected boundaries to create boundaries for the research. Furthermore, the researcher probed the methodological concerns that might arise from this study with the view to engage in necessary justifications. The researcher also illuminated the relevance of combining the grounded theory method and case study approach in this research.

Finally, the researcher provided the analytical frameworks that underpin grounded theory methodology as exemplified by theoretical sampling, sensitivity, and saturation. The notion of constant comparison was raised to address issues such as replication and the validity of this study as opposed to generalisability. The foregoing methodological issues served as the guidelines for purposes of overviewing the popular administrative arrangements, as well as generating data from the selected pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and scholarly contributions to the issue under scrutiny.

## **CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS**

### **3.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

In stimulating an academic debate, the researcher submits that the General Act of the Berlin Conference on West Africa of 1885 and the Brussels Conference Act of 1890 constitute fundamental administrative arrangements that continue to shape relations between the military role and development programmes within the Southern African region today. Although the ancient African authorities used military organisations in supporting their Agenda for Sustainable Development, such operational activities were not informed by any written policy decisions besides ordered orations that characterised ancient African “parliament”. Furthermore, the researcher submits that the Organization of African Unity (OAU) Charter of 1963 and the Constitutive Act of the AU of 2000 remain the primary policy frameworks that align the collective aspirations of the African people related to peace, security, and development.

With the first pieces of legislation mentioned above, the African heads of state and governments were convinced that, in order to translate their determination into a dynamic force in the cause of human progress, conditions for peace and security were to be established and maintained. On the other hand, the second pieces of legislation affirm the consciousness of the African leaders on matters related to the scourge of conflicts in Africa and their negative effects on the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Africa. In doing so, these African leaders committed to the promotion of peace, security, and the Agenda for Sustainable Development on the entire African continent.

The researcher states that both the OAU Charter of 1963 and the Constitutive Act of the AU of 2000 represent direct policy responses to the long-term effects of the Berlin and Brussels policy decisions on Africa. For example, Chapter VI of the Berlin Conference Act of 1885 provides for “the essential conditions to be observed in order that the new occupations on the African continent may be held to be effective”. In pursuit of this Western aspiration, Article 35 of the Berlin Conference Act of 1885 requires the signatory powers to recognise the obligation to protect the establishment of authority in occupied regions on the coast of Africa, while these protection measures

are sufficient to ensure the existing rights of Western countries to the African wealth, and the freedom of trade and of transit.

The researcher submits that the protection measures used by the European countries to ensure the effective occupation of the African continent provide a wealth of knowledge in exploring the military role in support of development. The foregoing claim constitutes the central argument in this study, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 5 of this study. In grounding these historical military expeditions, the researcher finds it necessary to establish the connection between peace, security, and development within the existing research, as well as possible scholarly opinions of prominent international authorities, namely Kofi Annan, Sir Marrack Irvine Goulding, and Desta Mebratu. Their scholarly contributions are respectively titled “Durable peace and sustainable development in Africa” (Annan, 2000), “The evolution of United Nations peacekeeping” (Goulding, 1993), and “Sustainability and sustainable development: Historical and conceptual review” (Mebratu, 1998).

In closing the foregoing background information, the researcher claims that the existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions on peace, security, and development constitute a wealth of knowledge in exploring the military role in supporting the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa. In expounding on this claim, this chapter is arranged into two sections. The first section focuses on the selected policy frameworks that may provide the necessary data to establish the distinguishing features of the military role in promoting sustainable development, while the second section explores academic thoughts on the relationships between peace, security, and development within the context of global governance systems.

### **3.2 PIECES OF LEGISLATION AND POLICY FRAMEWORKS ON PEACE, SECURITY, AND DEVELOPMENT**

The selection of pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on peace, security, and development was deliberate and was guided by the degree of relevance in contributing towards theory building in this study. The researcher begins by establishing the most common ideas, words, phrases, and practices from global pieces of legislation and policy frameworks, followed by regional and national administrative arrangements.

### 3.2.1 Global administrative arrangements

The researcher observed that the launching of the AU in 2000 resulted in close cooperation between the legislative bodies and implementation machineries within the AU and the UN with regard to peace, security, and development matters. The need for this strategic and systematic partnership became evident during the annual UN-AU conference held in New York on 19 April 2017. During this meeting, the UNSC and the AU PSC reiterated their intention to transform their partnership into one that is systematic, strategic, and predicable. In exploring the principle and goals set out in the joint UN-AU framework for purposes of understanding the nature of the envisaged partnership, the researcher utilised complementary pieces of legislation and policy frameworks, as summarised in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Grounding the connections between peace, security, and development within global pieces of legislation and policy frameworks**

Source documents	Most common ideas, words, and phrases
Enhancing UN-AU Cooperation: Framework for the Ten-Year Capacity-Building Programme for the AU of 2006	Concentrate more on cooperation in peace and security matters within Africa; Partnerships beyond peace and security encompass activities such as conflict prevention, regional integration, and development; Strategic partnerships in maintaining peace and security involve mission planning and management, training of the military, police, and civilian personnel, and shared coordination and communication networks; Joint planning and programming for purposes of “delivering as one” in response to the identified needs; Improve the quality of life of the African people and their economic and social development; Programme of action in education, agriculture, health, infrastructure, and the environment; Provision of the requisite support responses or resource structure to development objectives; and Clusters and sub-clusters are developed to enhance the OAD and peace and security is one cluster of the established nine. <sup>15</sup>
Report on Strengthening the Partnership between the UN and the AU on Issues of Peace and Security in Africa of 2016.	Intensifying assistance and strengthening the operational and institutional capabilities in matters related to peace and security; and Coordination with international partners in the area of training the military personnel, establishment of the ASF, and support efforts to implement the universally agreed development goals.
UNGA Resolution 61/296 of 2 October 2007	Enhance cooperation or partnerships between peace and security structures in the realism of crisis management.

<sup>15</sup> Pages 7, 18, and 35.

Source documents	Most common ideas, words, and phrases
UNSC Resolution 2320 of 18 November 2016.	Cooperation between sub-regional and regional organisations on issues related to maintaining peace and security; Collaboration between institutions on matters relating to complex security challenges; Effective operations within the collective security systems; Developing effective partnerships; Comprehensive strategy in addressing threats to international peace and security; Systematic and strategic partnerships; Broader support to peace and security agenda; and Holistic responses based on burden sharing, various comparative advantages, and consultative decision making.
Report of the High-Level Panel on UN Peace Operations presented to the UN Secretary-General on 16 June 2015	Peace operations embrace peace and security missions, flexible instruments, and tools such as small teams of experts and peace and development advisers deployed jointly; Global-regional framework based on principled strategic partnerships; Support of international sustainable efforts to prevent conflict; Effective and coherent conflict-prevention capacity; Deployment of personnel with expertise designed to effectively respond to identified needs; Maintenance of political processes, protection of civilians, and assisting in maintaining peace through mandated civilian support programmes; Sustaining peace by maintaining and strengthening political momentum; and Collaboration and alignment between various organisations. <sup>16</sup>
The Future of UN Peace Operations: Implementation of the Recommendation of the High-Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations of 2 September 2015	Prevent violent conflict through the support of human rights and inclusive development; Partnerships in maximising the impact of peace and security instruments; Situating human rights at the centre of the peace and security agenda; Security institutions supporting national government in carrying out their responsibility to protect citizens <sup>17</sup> ; Strengthening collaboration between development and peace and security agencies through the shared adoption of the SDGs, particularly SDG 16 on a peaceful and inclusive society; System-wide resources at the disposal of the peace and security cluster; and Programmes of action for institutional strengthening and capacity building. <sup>18</sup>
Report on the Cooperation between the UN and Regional and Sub-Regional Organisation and Mediation of 2015	Conduct joint exercises to strengthen partnerships and enhance inter-organisational operational cooperation; and Strengthening national and regional capacities while providing support to local dispute-resolution mechanisms to enhance social cohesion and national resilience. <sup>19</sup>
AU's PSC Communiqué on Strengthening the	Partnerships on the basis of collective responsibility to respond rapidly, decisively, and coherently to manage and prevent disputes;

<sup>16</sup> Pages 12-13, 16, 19, 29, and 50.

<sup>17</sup> Pages 2-5.

<sup>18</sup> Page 9.

<sup>19</sup> Pages 9-10 and 15.

Source documents	Most common ideas, words, and phrases
Partnership between the UN and the AU on Issues of Peace and Security in Africa of 29 September 2016	Partnerships that are strategic, predictable, and systematic; Division of labour informed by burden sharing and comparative advantage; Mobilise more substantial resources in support of the peace and stability agenda; and Fostering close cooperation and coordination.
UN Declaration on NEPAD's Development of 16 September 2002	Universally agreed development goals serve as the embedment of the aspiration to a better world in which all people enjoy dignified livelihood, and a peaceful and stable environment; and Organisation-based structured support to the development goals.
UN Resolution 57/2 of 30 September 2002 on NEPAD	Universally agreed development goals serve as the embedment of the collective desire for a better world in which all people enjoy dignified livelihood, and a peaceful and stable environment; and Organisation-based structured support to the achievement of the SDGs.
UN Resolution 57/7 of 4 November 2002 on NEPAD	Achievement of universally agreed goals with commitment to address the special needs of Africa; Commitment for peace and development; Mobilise domestic resources in support of NEPAD; Peace and security as the essential basis for sustainable development in Africa; Building and strengthening institutional and human capabilities at national, sub-regional, and regional levels to enhance the new development programmes; and Fostering coherent responses at national, sub-regional, and regional levels. <sup>20</sup>
UN Resolution 58/233 of 23 December 2003 on NEPAD	Meeting the special needs of Africa; Need to support national policy frameworks and development strategies; and Use of regional consultation mechanisms as a conduit to foster coordination and collaboration at regional levels while intensifying efforts in developing and implementing joint programmes in supporting the Agenda for Sustainable Development.
UN Resolution 59/254 of 23 December 2004 on NEPAD	Development efforts to be supported by an enabling international economic environment; Emphasis on natural resource governance and reduction of inequalities; <sup>21</sup> Convergence of major global policy events within the context of the post-2015 development agenda; <sup>22</sup> Regional and international support of NEPAD; <sup>23</sup> and Development partners to support national health systems in various forms. <sup>24</sup>
UN Resolution 60/222 of 23 December 2005 on NEPAD	Regional and international support of NEPAD <sup>25</sup> ;

<sup>20</sup> Commitment to collaborative actions by the African countries and international organisations on the new development programmes, part III, paragraphs 10-26.

<sup>21</sup> Paragraph 3.

<sup>22</sup> Paragraph 6.

<sup>23</sup> Paragraph 8.

<sup>24</sup> Paragraph 14.

<sup>25</sup> Paragraph 3.

Source documents	Most common ideas, words, and phrases
	Broad participation of stakeholders to intensify efforts while creating a conducive environment for foreign direct investments for development; <sup>26</sup> and Coordination and effective integration of external assistance on the basis of national strategies and development priorities. <sup>27</sup>
UN Resolution 61/296 of 5 October 2007 on NEPAD	Cooperation among member states in the implementation of relevant policy frameworks in pursuit of promoting the culture of respect for human rights, democracy, good governance, and popular participation in public affairs. <sup>28</sup>
Report of the World Summit on Sustainable Development held on 26 August to 4 September 2002 in Johannesburg, South Africa	Collective strength and enhanced partnerships in achieving the common Agenda of Sustainable Development; <sup>29</sup> and Increased access to basic requirements, including clean water, shelter, healthcare, energy, food, and security. <sup>30</sup>
UN Millennium Declaration	Maintaining international peace and security by collectively providing the necessary resources and implementation machineries. <sup>31</sup>
UNGA Resolution 1998/46 of 31 July 1998	Bear in mind the cross-cutting nature and inter-linkages of issues; and Functional commission to strengthen coordination with reference to mandate and terms of reference.

Source: Developed from the reports on the partnership between the UN and AU on issues of peace, security, and development in Africa

In an attempt to reflect on Table 3.1, the researcher submits that the Joint UN-AU Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security emphasises strategic and systematic cooperation at various levels between:

- various regions;
- regions and individual states;
- states;
- governmental organisations and NGOs; and
- various others.

Given the limitation of space and time, the researcher takes a cue from the overriding attributes of these partnerships. Important is the need for cooperation and collaboration based on respective competitive advantages and burden sharing among

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<sup>26</sup> Paragraph 5.

<sup>27</sup> Paragraph 10.

<sup>28</sup> Paragraph 19.

<sup>29</sup> Paragraph 16.

<sup>30</sup> Paragraph 18.

<sup>31</sup> Section II, paragraph 9.

stakeholders with the view to achieve peace, security, and development as universally agreed goals.

Furthermore, the researcher submits that Articles 24, 43, and 52 of the UN Charter mandate the UNSC, other regional arrangements, and related implementation machineries (e.g. military organisations) with the responsibility to maintain international peace and security. Also relevant is the establishment of peace and security as a cluster within the UN's OAD systems. In establishing the regional coordination mechanisms and its clusters, the UNGA Resolution 1998/46 situates such mechanisms as service points for consultation among programme managers, agencies, and international organisations at regional levels of governance.

In the foregoing policy prescript, the peace and security cluster is coordinated by the United Nations Department of Political Affairs (UNDPA) and the United Nations Liaison Office within the African Union (UNLO-AU) while the African Union Commission (AUC) serves as the co-coordinator. Important is the possible partnerships within the peace and security cluster that provides for NEPAD, RECs, the Department of Peace Keeping Operations, the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the World Food Programme, and the World Health Organization (WHO), among others, as the universally recognised stakeholders<sup>32</sup>. The researcher submits that these potential partnerships in peace and security serve as the foundation that may assist in establishing the military role in supporting sustainable development in Southern Africa.

### **3.2.2 Regional administrative arrangements**

The concept of regional administrative arrangements is used to denote the existing administration structures and procedures in Africa, which include the practices of RECs. Although the joint UN-AU framework for development in Africa has been discussed, important at this stage is its impact on the renewal of regional administrative arrangements in Africa. The researcher submits that this observation finds expression in the subsequent signing of the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

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<sup>32</sup> Paragraph 72 of the implementation of the declaration on Enhancing the UN-AU Cooperation: Framework for the Ten-Year Capacity-Building Programme for the African Union 2006-2009.



in January 2018. At the core of the AU-UN Framework for Implementation is the nexus between peace, security, human rights, and development.

Among others, the aforementioned policy framework acknowledges the importance of promoting common security and durable peace as the foundation for sustainable development. Also important is the observation that the link between human rights, equitable development, and humanitarian works is critical to the reduction of vulnerabilities while serving as “the first step to leaving no one behind”.<sup>33</sup> It is on the basis of this observation that the researcher seeks to establish the possible military role in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa. In exploring the preceding theoretical claim, the researcher utilised selected pieces of legislation and policy frameworks as summarised in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Grounding the connections between peace, security, and development within regional pieces of legislation and policy frameworks**

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in January 2018	Development framework based on partnerships with clear institutional roles, responsibilities, and divisions of labour; Drawing from the competitive advantages of specialised agencies; Stronger cooperation and coordination between agencies; Aligning implementation with existing development plans; Both agendas constitute a social contract between government and citizens; and Coherent integration of the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda into national development programmes. <sup>34</sup>
Agenda 2063	RECs constitute the building blocks for continental integration; Commitment to build a prosperous continent based on inclusive growth and sustainable development; Promotion of a peaceful and secure Africa; and Social inclusion, and respect for human rights as necessary conditions for a peaceful and secure continent.
Agenda 2030	SDGs are integrated and global in nature, universally accepted, and characterised by indivisibility in all forms; Advances the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development; SDG 17 advances the strengthening of implementation machineries and revitalisation of global partnerships for sustainable development. <sup>35</sup>
CADSP	Protection of the people’s social, cultural, economic, and political values and ways of life;

<sup>33</sup> Paragraph 28 of this policy framework.

<sup>34</sup> Pages 7, 13, and 15.

<sup>35</sup> These goals are selected for purposes of theory building and remain inseparable from others.

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
	Security embraces human rights and the right to equal development; Equitable access to resources and basic amenities of life; Protection against extreme poverty and poor health; and Protection against natural disasters and environmental degradation.
AU's 50 <sup>th</sup> Anniversary Declaration adopted in Addis Ababa on 26 May 2013	Make peace and security the reality of all the African people; Respect for human rights; and Enabling environment for inclusive economic growth and effective development.
African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA)	Promote holistic security in Africa; Inter-departmental cooperation between political affairs and peace and security; Operationalisation of stakeholder engagement within the broad context of peace and security; Close coordination and collaboration in the maintenance of peace and security; <sup>36</sup> and Setting the path towards sustainable development. <sup>37</sup>
Report on the Proceedings of the AU High-Level Retreat on the Promotion of Peace, Security, and Stability in Africa held 21-23 October 2014 at Arusha in Tanzania	Effective management of peace and security challenges; Ensure economic growth and sustainable development; Operationalisation of peace and security architecture, and the political will to domesticate the existing frameworks on peace and security; <sup>38</sup> and Peace and security as the need of the African people. <sup>39</sup>
9 <sup>th</sup> AU High-Level Retreat on the Promotion of Peace, Security, and Stability Strengthening the AU's Conflict Prevention and Peace-Making Declaration adopted in Accra, Republic of Ghana, 25-26 October 2018	Improve collaboration and cooperation on conflict prevention with the RECs and regional mechanisms (RMs); Fostering inclusive development and building resilience; Effective responses to peace and security challenges; Promoting peace as collaborative and cross-cutting activities; Enhancing operational and strategic coordination of peace management by local actors; Africa-led solution to peace and stability based on comparative advantage; Mainstreaming natural resource management into conflict prevention and peace-building process; and Continental peace and security challenges. <sup>40</sup>
Framework for the African Governance Architecture (AGA)	Sharing of responsibilities and division of labour premised on a range of partnerships; Strategic coordination between various stakeholders; and Complementarity and cooperation based on comparative advantage and effect-orientated capability. <sup>41</sup>
Continental Structural Conflict Prevention Framework	Structural weaknesses with the potential to compromise peace and security; Structural vulnerability and mitigation strategies; Structural stability indicators as peace and security drivers; and

<sup>36</sup> Pages 71-75.

<sup>37</sup> H.E. Jean Ping, the former chairperson of the AUC on APSA.

<sup>38</sup> Page 8.

<sup>39</sup> Page 22.

<sup>40</sup> Pages 1-5.

<sup>41</sup> Pages 5-7.

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
	Country structural vulnerability and resilience assessment on the basis of peace, including socio-economic development, respect for human rights, and good governance.
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa of 13 April 1998	Humanitarian action represents the best chance to maintain peace while fully being consistent with the broader international peace and development activities; <sup>42</sup> Peace process to be delivered to enhance long-term development objectives; <sup>43</sup> Humanitarian and development activities intended to promote durable peace and sustainable <sup>44</sup> development; Fostering conditions within which peace and development can flourish; <sup>45</sup> and Lasting peace produces sustainable development. <sup>46</sup>
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa of 2 August 2006	Promotion of durable peace and sustainable development; <sup>47</sup> Mandate to foster peace and development; <sup>48</sup> Political stability, economic growth, and sustainable development; <sup>49</sup> Peace process assists in political support, humanitarian assistance, security, and development; <sup>50</sup> Partners in peace and development; <sup>51</sup> and International peace and security provide the best protection for citizens against undesirable external interference. <sup>52</sup>
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa 24 July 2014	Posing significant threats to peace, security, and development; <sup>53</sup> Security concerns and humanitarian conditions; <sup>54</sup> Importance of linking socio-economic development and economic growth with peace, security, human rights, and stability; <sup>55</sup> Mobilisation of resources for peace, development, and stability initiatives; <sup>56</sup> and Projects that support peace and security initiatives. <sup>57</sup>
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace	Nexus between democratic governance, peace, and security; <sup>58</sup> Joint framework for enhancing partnerships in peace and security; <sup>59</sup> and

<sup>42</sup> Paragraphs 37 and 57 of the report.

<sup>43</sup> Paragraph 62 of the report.

<sup>44</sup> Paragraph 70 of the report.

<sup>45</sup> Paragraph 77 of the report.

<sup>46</sup> Paragraph 78 of the report.

<sup>47</sup> Paragraph 1 of the report.

<sup>48</sup> Paragraph 7 of the report.

<sup>49</sup> Paragraph 13 of the report.

<sup>50</sup> Paragraph 13 of the report.

<sup>51</sup> Paragraph 53 of the report.

<sup>52</sup> Paragraph 77 of the report.

<sup>53</sup> Paragraph 15 of the report.

<sup>54</sup> Paragraph 20 of the report.

<sup>55</sup> Paragraph 24 of the report.

<sup>56</sup> Paragraph 25 of the report.

<sup>57</sup> Paragraph 26 of the report.

<sup>58</sup> Paragraph 58 of the report.

<sup>59</sup> Paragraph 78 of the report.

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
and Sustainable Development in Africa of 24 July 2015	Consolidating democratic governance, peace and security, and development. <sup>60</sup>
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa of 8 March 2016	Integrating and advancing human rights in the peace and security process; Mainstreaming gender in peace and security; Meaningful and equitable participation in peace and security processes; and Promoting and protecting human rights with respect to peace and security.
Report of the Secretary-General on Causes of Conflict and the Promotion of Durable Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa of 1 August 2017	Regional partners in efforts to promote peace and security; <sup>61</sup> Support national authorities in promoting peace and security; <sup>62</sup> Systematic, strategic, and predictable partnerships in promoting peace and security; Respective comparative advantage and complementarity; Increased operational synergy and coordination in addressing security challenges; <sup>63</sup> Essential role of regional arrangement for the maintaining of peace and security; <sup>64</sup> Regional peace and security initiatives; <sup>65</sup> and Institutional cooperation within the RECs on peace and security.

Source: Developed from the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of the 2063 Agenda and 2030 Agenda and related reports on sustainable development in Africa

Although the common ideas, words, and phrases emerging from the selected pieces of legislation and policy frameworks continue to emphasise the envisaged partnerships in peace and development, important to this study is the implied significance of the social, economic, and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. Likewise, the existence of regional administrative arrangements that are particularly tailored to promote peace, security, and development gives rise to the theoretical peace-security-development nexus. Stated differently, the foregoing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks affirm the connections between peace, security, and development. Conversely, the researcher argues that partnerships in peace and security do not exclude the military role in support of sustainable development. Since the joint AU-UN implementation strategy requires the coherent integration of the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda into national development programmes, it is necessary to

<sup>60</sup> Paragraph 84 of the report.

<sup>61</sup> Paragraph 6 of the report.

<sup>62</sup> Paragraph 12 of the report.

<sup>63</sup> Paragraph 31 of the report.

<sup>64</sup> Paragraph 54 of the report.

<sup>65</sup> Paragraph 74 of the report.

examine the country-specific administrative arrangements on peace, security, and development.

### 3.2.3 National administrative arrangements

**Table 3.3: Grounding the connections between peace, security, and development within country-specific national development plans (NDPs)**

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
Namibia's 5 <sup>th</sup> NDP	Realisation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 2062 Agenda of the AU, and SADC's Regional Indicative Strategic Development plan (RISDP); <sup>66</sup> NDP is informed by the international, regional, sub-regional, and national priorities defined in the Harambee Prosperity Plan and the South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) party manifesto; <sup>67</sup> High level of peace and security; <sup>68</sup> Comparative advantages include peace, security, and stability; <sup>69</sup> Peace, security, and social justice; <sup>70</sup> Partnerships in promoting national development goals; <sup>71</sup> and Fostering partnerships and collaboration across institutions and sectors. <sup>72</sup>
Partnership Framework between the Government of Angola and the UN Systems: United Nations Partnership Framework (UNPAF) 2015-2019	Consolidation of peace and promotion of social and economic dimensions of sustainable development; <sup>73</sup> Peace, stability, economic growth, and inclusive sustainable development; <sup>74</sup> Maintenance of peace and food security, environmental sustainability, and global partnerships for development; <sup>75</sup> Leveraging the coordination of technical support systems; <sup>76</sup> and Cooperation with research institutions and international partners. <sup>77</sup>
Botswana's NDP 11 (Volume 1) of April 2017 – March 2023	National development priorities include strengthening national security, human capital development, diversified sources of economic growth, sustainable use of natural resources, consolidation of good governance, and implementation of an effective monitoring and evaluation system; <sup>78</sup> and Collaboration with global and regional countries to address issues of peace and security through bilateral and multilateral frameworks such as the Joint Permanent Commissions on Defence and Security,

<sup>66</sup> Foreword by the president of Namibia, Dr H.G. Geingob (Republic of Namibia, 2017:x).

<sup>67</sup> Introductory words by the Minister of Economic Planning and Director General (2017:xi).

<sup>68</sup> Page 1.

<sup>69</sup> On tourism: page 30.

<sup>70</sup> On good governance: page 89.

<sup>71</sup> Introductory statement: page xii.

<sup>72</sup> On social protection strategies: page 54.

<sup>73</sup> On alignment with national priorities: page 7.

<sup>74</sup> Page xi of the executive summary.

<sup>75</sup> On the logic of partnership: page 5.

<sup>76</sup> On education: page 13.

<sup>77</sup> On sustainable human settlement: paragraph 7.63.

<sup>78</sup> Foreword by President Lt Gen. Seretse Kgama Ian Kgama, page xiv.

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
	and the Joint Commission on Cooperation and Bi-National Commissions. <sup>79</sup>
Zimbabwe Country Strategic Plan (2017-2021)	Support of national programmes on nutrition and food security, economic development, and resilience building; <sup>80</sup> Capacity for planning, development management, and coordination; <sup>81</sup> Partnerships involving government institutions, private sector, development agencies, farmers, the food industry, and NGOs; <sup>82</sup> and Strengthening the coordination capacities of rural district councils and committees responsible for district food and nutrition. <sup>83</sup>
Mozambique Country Strategic Plan 2018-2022	Aid coordination framework built around the MOU between various partners collectively known as “G19”, which is a management and coordination structure for the overall aid in the country supported by thematic groups responsible to various priorities in the country; <sup>84</sup> and Potential sources of resilience include political stability, social and economic security, and environmental wellness. <sup>85</sup>
The United Republic of Tanzania’s Five-Year Development Plan 2016/17 – 2020/21	Facilitate resource mobilisation and utilisation by pronouncing strategic priorities and clear national key result areas; Mainstreaming national priorities into the NDPs; Coordination with respect to “prioritisation, sequencing, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and reporting”; <sup>86</sup> Development plan draws from the 2030 Agenda, 2063 Agenda, and tripartite agreements to merge particular regional trade groupings (e.g. SADC and Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa [COMESA]); <sup>87</sup> and The traditional role of government is to provide public goods, ensure peace and security, and maintain law and order. <sup>88</sup>
Zambia’s 7 <sup>th</sup> NDP	Support the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda; <sup>89</sup> NDP is informed by international and regional agendas that include SADC and COMESA protocols; Integrated approach enhances the domestication of the Agenda for Sustainable Development; <sup>90</sup> Good governance is a precondition for human security, economic growth, political stability, and sustainable development; <sup>91</sup> Peace and security are indispensable conditions for sustainable development; <sup>92</sup>

<sup>79</sup> On international relations: paragraph 8.68.

<sup>80</sup> On small farmers and agricultural market: paragraph 52.

<sup>81</sup> On smallholder farmers and food security: page 13.

<sup>82</sup> On hunger gaps and challenges: paragraph 16(v).

<sup>83</sup> On food security and resilience: paragraph 66.

<sup>84</sup> On the development partnership framework: paragraph 21.

<sup>85</sup> On drivers of fragility and sources of resilience: page xxxv.

<sup>86</sup> Background information on the development framework: page 1.

<sup>87</sup> On the process of developing the NDP: page 3.

<sup>88</sup> On the role of the state: page 36.

<sup>89</sup> Foreword by the President of Zambia, E.C. Lungu: page i.

<sup>90</sup> On the integrated multisectoral approach: page 5.

<sup>91</sup> On good governance and inclusive economic growth: page 101.

<sup>92</sup> On regional and global integration: page 36.

Source documents	Common ideas, words, and phrases
	<p>Public-private partnerships enhance resource sharing among economic programmes;<sup>93</sup> and</p> <p>Partnerships involve multiple stakeholders, such as political institutions, international organisations, civil society, local communities, regional and national governments, academia, faith-based organisations, and private businesses.<sup>94</sup></p>
DRC's Interim Country Strategic Plan (2018-2020)	<p>The NDP draws from the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda;<sup>95</sup></p> <p>Strategic partnerships in pursuit of achieving the objectives set out in the national strategic plan;</p> <p>Cluster systems used to coordinate humanitarian activities;<sup>96</sup></p> <p>Inequalities represent threats to peace, stability, and economic growth;<sup>97</sup></p> <p>Ensure coordination between the UN systems and government;<sup>98</sup> and</p> <p>Coordination and information platforms enable the logistics cluster to share logistics information and formulation of strategies and common solutions while fostering collaboration among partners.<sup>99</sup></p>
South Africa's NDP: Vision 2030	<p>Sustainable development is not only socially and economically sustainable but environmentally sustainable as well;<sup>100</sup></p> <p>Growing awareness of sustainable development in achieving progress;<sup>101</sup></p> <p>Adherence to principles of sustainable development;<sup>102</sup></p> <p>Targeting income inequality as a national strategy for sustainable development;<sup>103</sup></p> <p>Strategies on agriculture, land, and water usage as contributing to sustainable development;<sup>104</sup></p> <p>Coordination between district and local municipalities;<sup>105</sup></p> <p>Intergovernmental coordination around basic infrastructure and planning decisions;<sup>106</sup></p> <p>Programme cooperation and policy coordination;<sup>107</sup> and</p> <p>Close partnerships between countries, private businesses, and individuals to strengthen social and economic integration.<sup>108</sup></p>

<sup>93</sup> On economic growth strategies: page 42.

<sup>94</sup> On HIV/AIDS: page 48.

<sup>95</sup> On national priorities: paragraph 29.

<sup>96</sup> On the UN and other partners: paragraph 34.

<sup>97</sup> On hunger gap and challenges: paragraph 25.

<sup>98</sup> On the UN and other partners: paragraph 36.

<sup>99</sup> On strategic implications: paragraph 43.

<sup>100</sup> Introductory statement: page 199.

<sup>101</sup> Vision statement: page 200.

<sup>102</sup> On building sustainable communities: page 203.

<sup>103</sup> On managing a just transition: page 211.

<sup>104</sup> On planning, piloting, and investing: page 214.

<sup>105</sup> On rural governance: page 233.

<sup>106</sup> On farmworker empowerment and labour relations: page 233.

<sup>107</sup> On repositioning South Africa in the region and the world: page 242.

<sup>108</sup> On policy in a dynamic global setting: page 32.



### **3.3 SELECTED SCHOLARLY CONTRIBUTIONS ON PEACE, DEVELOPMENT, AND THE MILITARY ROLE**

The selection of scholarly contributions on peace, development, and military role was informed by the prominent authorities and scholars within the public sphere of international governance, namely Kofi Annan, Desta Mebratu, and Sir Marrack Irvine Goulding.

#### **3.3.1 Kofi Annan on durable peace: The seventh Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN) (1997-2006)**

Kofi Annan's contribution elaborates on relations between durable peace and sustainable development in Africa. Annan (2000:1) observes that the combination of unresolved problems remains a prominent feature in Africa, manifesting as lost opportunities for sustainable development. These lost opportunities resonate with the "widely held view of Africa as a region in perpetual crisis ... and [a] painful reality" (Annan, 2000:2). In an attempt to move away from the troubles that paralyse sustainable development in Africa, Annan (2000:2) states that military forces have been used in brokering peace agreements (Annan, 2000:3). For example, the SAS Outeniqua – a currently decommissioned South African sealift vessel – was used during her operational career as a venue for peace negotiations between the then president of Zaire, Mobuto Sese Seko, and rebel commander Laurel Kabila in early 1997. Although this peace negotiation became unsuccessful, the military roles under these circumstance cannot go unnoticed.

Annan (2000) affirms that each crisis situation presents different challenges and unique responses, but durable peace is closely related to "social development, environmental protection, human rights and human resources" (Annan, 2000:4). Annan (2000:5) suggests that the African people yearn for durable peace and sustainable development and have demonstrated their willingness to commit themselves to this course. Finally, Annan (2000:1) argues that the involvement of academia, governments, civil society, and individuals in addressing the challenges related to durable peace and sustainable development is expected to produce desirable "ways of life" among African people. Moreover, Annan (2000:4) states that the UN and UNSC are committed to peacekeeping and humanitarian actions in



retaining the support of international communities and their credibility. The foregoing claim raises the question: What is the role of the military organisation in promoting the desirable “ways of life” among the people in Southern Africa?

The UN position on durable peace and sustainable development provides direction in examining the military role in empowering people and in improving their “ways of life”. The researcher submits that the notion of the peace mission possesses some indicators on the possible military role in the promotion of durable peace and sustainable development. Given the long list of unresolved problems in Africa, the study focuses on the military role in promoting the social determinants of durable peace.

### **3.3.2 Desta Mebratu on sustainable development: Deputy Regional Director of the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) for Africa**

Mebratu (1998) provides invaluable knowledge on the interdependence of people and nature. Mebratu (1998:493) supports the view that the concept of sustainable development is increasingly attracting the interest of academics and policy practitioners worldwide. Parallel to this growing interest, Mebratu (1998:501) observes the presence of intellectual and political struggles in providing an operational meaning to the concept of sustainable development. In examining these challenges, Mebratu (1998:507) agrees on the rise of modern environmentalism in the 1980s as increasingly shaping this debate on the interdependence of people and nature as the determinant of sustainable development. In exploring the notion of sustainable development, this study takes a cue from the theory of social-environmental systems with emphasis on the mutual constitutive nature of social wellbeing and environmental wellness.

Mebratu (1998:507) argues that the relationship between environmental wellness and popular developmental imaginations constitutes a paradox, namely the modern capitalist system that can only be overcome through ecologically sensitive socialist development. On the other side is the assumption of deep ecology that rejects environmental reform that is influenced by economic systems only, which is not a feasible solution to offset the increasing degradation of the environment (Mebratu, 1998:511). Mebratu (1998) affirms that contradictions in current policy reforms can

only be addressed through the replacement of the epistemological underpinnings of anthropocentrism with biocentric egalitarianism. The latter view emphasises the interdependence of people and nature (Naess, 1973; Devall & Sessions, 1985; Lovelock, 2007). In this particular instance, the researcher argues that the balance between human wellbeing and environmental wellness is likely to promote durable peace and sustainable development, which are the abilities of humanity and nature to disintegrate and reorganise their evolutionary trajectories.

### **3.3.3 Marrack Irvine Goulding on the military role: UN Under-Secretary and Commander for Peace Operations**

In addressing the general question raised on the military role in the improvement of the “ways of life”, Goulding (1993) states that we should move beyond the traditions of warfare and focus on the MOAD. In exploring the concepts of MOAD, Goulding (1993:451) suggests that a cue be taken from the UN’s declarations on peacekeeping operations since 1992. Furthermore, Goulding (1993:452,455) suggests that the notion of peacekeeping operations is the embodiment of modern best practices in controlling and resolving armed conflict. Given the complex nature of these best practices and the purpose of this study, the researcher is limited to the promotion of durable peace as opposed to other modalities such as peacekeeping and peacemaking. In this particular instance, Goulding (1993) would agree that peacekeeping is an overarching concept that embraces the promotion of peace as an operational activity for sustainable development.

In describing the most critical factors that may influence the MOAD, Vego (2000:68) suggests the human factor (factor force) as surpassing others (time, space, information, and legislature) in pursuit of promoting durable peace. For example, the UN peace mission in the Congo in the period between 1960 and 1964 points to the importance of satisfying the basic human conditions in promoting durable peace. During this UN Congo Operation, Washington was accused of supplying Mobutu with US\$1 million to “pay off restive and hungry Congolese soldiers and keep them loyal to Kasavubu during his attempt to oust Lumumba as prime minister” (Collins, 2007:254). The exploitation of restive and hungry warriors, women, children, and innocent civilians has been used as an extension of asymmetric warfare within the African battle space. The foregoing military experiences in the African battle space point to the

importance of protecting the interdependence of people and nature by enhancing the government's capacity to engage in essential productions and services, which is the military role in safeguarding critical infrastructures.

Although Goulding (1993:453) observes that the withdrawal of military forces from the war setting is prone to the escalation of hostility, little or nothing is provided on the actual causes of this "quasi-permanent feature", namely the unresolved peacekeeping mystery on the African continent. The foregoing contradiction provides the basis to explore the military role in promoting durable peace with specific focus on social-environmental conditions as opposed to the traditional military role in war.

### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

Existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks provide the grounding for connections between the military role and durable peace, between durable peace and sustainable development, and possible connections between the military role and sustainable development. These connections are traceable from the global level of governance, regional governance structures and procedures, as well as sub-regional and national levels of governance. In complementing the selected pieces of legislation and policy frameworks, the researcher utilised the scholarly contributions made by prominent international authorities in the domain of the military role, durable peace, and sustainable development in Africa, namely Annan, Mebratu, and Goulding.

These pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and scholarly contributions support the notion of joint and multiple partnerships in protecting the interdependence of people and nature – the social, economic, and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. Furthermore, these source documents also point to durable peace as a central objective in the Agenda for Sustainable Development. These source documents also situate the military organisation at the centre of promoting durable peace for sustainable development. The researcher submits that the military role in promoting durable peace contributes to the Agenda for Sustainable Development, and thus creates the opportunity for possible direct connections between the military role and sustainable development.

Table 3.1 indicated possible direct linkages between the military role and sustainable development, which are the foundation of building the theory on the MOAD.

MOAD is a new concept that borrows from the OAD of the UN system with the governmental organisations and NGOs at the grassroots and national levels of governance. In doing so, the researcher submits that the military organisation constitutes governmental organisations that participate in joint UN programmes for development in Southern Africa. For example, the uniformed members of the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) are actively involved in the HIV/AIDS programmes as prescribed in the UNSC resolutions. Among other prominent military roles is the protection of people and nature, as an array of complex production and services whose ineffectiveness or destruction could result in undesirable conditions for sustainable development.

## CHAPTER 4: CONNECTING THE MILITARY ROLE AND DEVELOPMENT: A THEORETICAL SYNTHESIS

### 4.1 BACKGROUND

The classical politicians would identify the battle space, armed forces, and war as the three basic factors that define the traditional military role. In the 1990s, some scholars involved in the project titled Interagency Coordination in Operations Other Than War agreed on the new concept called “operations other than war” (OOTW). Taw (1997:ix) states that this project was conducted for the United States (US) Army Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations to establish the “interagency process” that might assist in conceptualising the notion of MOOTW for the purpose of policy formulation and the establishment of operational-level doctrine. Although Taw (1997) restricts the notion of “interagency process” to the interaction between military personnel, the UN agencies, and NGOs, this study extends this concept to include local and affected communities.

Taw (1996:29) affirms that OOTW are characterised by partnerships between military and civilian organisations; effective coordination, communication, and cooperation between their structures; and collaborative competitive advantages in enhancing humanitarian efforts. In the article titled “The role of the military”, Barany (2011:155) sheds light on the Arab Spring and establishes that the military is the institution that matters most to the survival of the state. In these observations, Barany (2011:24) raises some interesting questions that inform this study, which are as follows: How do the armed forces relate to the state and civil society? Does each of the state’s various armed organisations get along smoothly with the others and enjoy unity within its ranks, or are “the guys with guns” divided against themselves by differences of ethnicity and religion or rivalries between ordinary and elite units, soldiers and police, and so on? Do the military and security services have civilian blood (whether recent or even decades old) on their hands?

Besides the eventualities that characterise the Arab Spring, the foregoing questions pave the way to understanding possible military-civilian partnerships in the fight for or against human rights within the context of complex humanitarian emergencies.

The emerging possibilities for desirable and/or undesirable military-civil partnerships in response to complex humanitarian emergencies leave the choice for the study to focus on the most desirable interagency processes, namely the foundation for the non-traditional MOOTW. For purposes of illustrating the complexities that underpin the traditional military role and the non-traditional military role in response to complex humanitarian emergencies, the following observations are important (Barany, 2011:30): In Tunisia and Egypt, the soldiers backed the revolution; in Libya and Yemen, they split; and in Syria and Bahrain, they turned their guns against the demonstrators. What explains the disparities?

Although Barany (2011) provides well-thought-out answers to these questions, this study argues that in the absence of shared practical understanding of the most desirable interagency operational activities in response to complex humanitarian emergencies, the need arises to examine existing pieces of legislation and policy prescripts that define the envisaged interagency processes. In doing so, Barany (2011:155) advises to explore the intellectual history and/or the conceptual and ontological status of the notion of OOTW that signal the combination of military operational activities and civilian OAD. In doing so, this study argues that the MOAD are located at the point of convergence between the OOTW and OAD. Stated differently, OOTW and OAD are the theoretical components of the MOAD.

The foregoing theoretical line of thinking is a robust deviation from the tradition of military operational activities that are characterised by the battlefield, armed personnel, and warfare; and is a point of contact for the military operational activities in supporting human development. Among others, military support for development entails the widening of people's opportunities, choices, functioning, and capabilities to function, healthy life and human wellbeing, social equity and access to education, and equitable access to natural resources needed for a decent livelihood (Fukuda-Parr, 2003:303,307-308).

In the absence of any policy framework that legitimises the MOAD, Barany (2011:155) shares the need to explore the possible intellectual history of MOAD from its component parts, namely, MOOTW and OAD, with the view to establish its conceptual and ontological framework.

## **4.2 ESTABLISHING THE INTELLECTUAL HISTORY OF THE MILITARY OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPMENT (MOAD)**

In the absence of a shared meaning of the new concept of MOAD, the researcher depended on the process of theoretical synthesis and contextualisation using existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions. The concept of intellectual history is used to trace the original nature of ideas and their defining context as expressed within text and not only the thoughts overwhelming the founders of these concepts. In order to validate the linkages between the military role and sustainable development, the researcher finds it necessary to begin with the intellectual history of OOTW and of OAD as the building blocks of MOAD as a higher-order construct, i.e. the process followed in synthesising the notion of MOAD.

In studies conducted on “living cell structures” and the “continuum of tensional integrity”, or “tensegrity”, Ingber and Jamieson (1985:16) state that the symbiotic arrangement of tissue into various forms of life raises the same concerns as in establishing interagency structures and functionality, i.e. interagency capacity and suitability/acceptability. In this instance, interagency functionality involves the coordination, communication, and cooperation between the military and civilian organisations in pursuit of common objectives related to human development and environmental integrity. The researcher submits that the analogy of symbiotic arrangement of tissue that gives rise to life is important in examining the meaning of MOAD within the context of support to humanity and environmental integrity.

The analogy of symbiotic arrangement of tissue is informed by the principles enshrined in the “tensegrity architecture”, which is described as a “network of structural members that resists shape distortion and self-stabilizes by incorporating other support elements that resist compression” (Ingber & Jamieson, 1985:1158). This description is central to the logic that links military and civilian organisations in pursuit of OAD. The interagency tensegrity model suggests that the reduction of the military-civilian complex to its original component forms, and the dissection of these undistorted component forms, may assist in “generating detailed information about the components that comprise [the analogous] living organism and the way in which they interact with one another” (Ingber & Jamieson, 1985:14). For purposes of synthesising the operational meaning of MOAD, the researcher dissects this higher-order construct

(MOAD) into two component forms, namely the OOTW and OAD, which represent the military and civilian components respectively.

#### **4.3 REFLECTION ON THE INTELLECTUAL HISTORY OF OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR (OOTW)**

The actual phrase, “operations other than war”, has been employed by American military scholars for a particular purpose since the end of the Cold War to distinguish traditional military operations strategies from the envisaged future military role in response to complex humanitarian emergencies. Although Article 1(3) of the UN Charter has been advocating the need for military operations strategy with humanitarian character since 1945, little or nothing has been done by the UN member states to safeguard the international peace and security in Africa, even during the early years of the post-Cold War era. This international prescript reads as follows (UN, 1945): “[I]nternational co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.”

Although Article 2(3) of the UN Charter sets out the principles that guide the expected actions from the member states, the scourge of complex humanitarian emergencies that devastate the African continent continue to be met with non-effective measures. It is on the basis of these heart-breaking experiences that the study finds it necessary to define the concept of MOAD beyond the traditional understanding of military operations.

The intellectual history of OOTW as an envisioned component of MOAD is traceable to instrumental research contributions by American military officers in the early 1990s. Other researchers who contributed towards this intellectual history of OOTW include, but are not limited to:

- Major General Steven L. Arnold, who participated in Operation Restore in Somalia;
- Jenniffer M. Taw, who wrote the final report on the Interagency Coordination in Operations Other Than War, a project sponsored by the UN Army (Taw, 1997:iii);



- D.S. Hartley III, who established increasing recognition of the military involvement in OOTW during the post-Cold War era and wrote a report on the analysis tool to support decision making for large-scale military operations; and
- John J. Nelson and others, who wrote on lessons from historical experiences and contributed to the military understanding of complex humanitarian emergencies and necessary measure of effectiveness.

These aforementioned researchers shed some light on the intellectual history of OOTW as a component of MOAD as a higher-order construct.

UNSC Resolution 794 is an urgent response to “call from Somalia for the international community to take measures to ensure the delivery of humanitarian assistance in Somalia” (UNSC, 1992).<sup>109</sup> Major General Steven L. Arnold, who arrived on 22 December 1992 in Somalia as the commanding general of Army Force Somalia, observed that more than 49 NGOs were attempting to feed the famished people and care for the sick and dying (Arnold & Stahl, 1993:7). These NGOs, among others, included the International Committee of the Red Cross, Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE), Doctors Without Borders, Save the Children, and Irish Concern.

Among other operational objectives, the United States of America (USA) and coalition forces (e.g. Canadian forces) were to “break the cycle of starvation in Somalia by ensuring that humanitarian relief operations could be conducted without interference” (Arnold & Stahl, 1993:6-7).

Furthermore, Arnold and Stahl (1993:16) observed that these NGOs were conducting relief operations throughout Somaliland. Each organisation also possessed a particular agenda, preferred level of assistance, unique operating procedure, own type of relief, and multiple or diversified services, and thus could not be dealt with as a homogenous group. In addressing these major operations challenges, Arnold and Stahl (1993:17) state that civil-military centres were established country-wide to coordinate military operations with those of the NGOs. The central civil-military operations centre (CCMOC) was also established in Mogadishu to facilitate the

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<sup>109</sup> Resolution 794 adopted by the UNSC at its 3145<sup>th</sup> meeting on 3 December 1992.

sharing of intelligence information and to enable discussions on real-time operations from military and civilian viewpoints.

Although each humanitarian relief sector in Somalia established its own humanitarian operation centres that served as nodal points for coordination among the NGOs, town leaders, the military, and the central civil-military centre in Mogadishu provided “a forum for humanitarian agencies to request military support for their operations” (Arnold & Stahl, 1993:17). The researcher observes that although the initial mission of the military personnel was to provide a secure environment in Somalia for the distribution of humanitarian relief supplies, the allied forces performed other tasks that included revitalising local armed and government institutions; repairing and building roads, orphanages, and schools; and teaching English in schools. Arnold and Stahl (1993:13) state that these additional tasks were performed within the broad mission statement and unclear operational end states that provided the maximum flexibility to the commanders at both operational and tactical levels.

Arnold and Stahl (1993:22) affirm that the abovementioned non-traditional military tasks were not so different from the tasks that the military personnel were already trained to perform, and thus new mission skills were not required to adjust as requirements changed. In their new mission analysis, Nelson *et al.* (1996:11) state that the military leadership begins by translating the political objective for the operation into appropriate and executable military and humanitarian tasks. This implies that the political objective defines the military operational tasks in executing humanitarian operations while supporting NGOs – the alignment of humanitarian tasks, existing capabilities, and military forces with the overall political objective (Nelson *et al.*, 1996:11). Nelson *et al.* (1996) argue that the process of translating the political objectives into military tasks, force structure elements, and humanitarian activities shapes the “course of action” to be followed in any joint and multinational operations.

Arnold and Stahl (1993) furthermore state that leadership development programmes for senior military officers need to focus on the complexities of OOTW without compromising their traditional combat-orientated skills. Given this scholarly contribution from Arnold’s personal experience as the commanding general of the Armed Forces Somalia, the researcher submits that the military-civil partnership in OOTW constitutes a policy-based component of the MOAD. Borrowing from the theory

of tensegrity, Ingber and Jamieson (1985:13) indicate that various civil-military operations centres (CMOCs) are analogous to “living cell forms”, which consist of various intra-cellular properties, functional organisation, and mechanical interactions between the embedded properties.

At the higher level of the aforesaid CMOC is an analogous “tissue system” called the CCMOC that arises from the symbiotic arrangement of the analogous living cells. The foregoing mechanical description of the CMOCs, their respective functional organisation, and their integration into a unified higher-order architectural schema based on the analogy of a “tissues as tensegrity structure” shed light on the nature of connections between military operations and OAD. In addressing the nature of such connections, the researcher utilised the theory of tensile forces as a unifying principle within the civil-military interagency process. Before discussing this unifying principle, it is necessary to strengthen the notion of translating political objectives into humanitarian tasks.

Nelson *et al.* (1996:11) state that the process of humanitarian mission analysis needs to align emergent tasks, existing capabilities, and allocated forces with overall objectives. This implies that the planning officials are required to tailor their operational capabilities and tasks to achieve the overall objectives of the joint mission. Stated differently, the planners are required to “identify the capabilities needed to support these tasks and tailor a force that has these capabilities” (Nelson *et al.*, 1996:12). In this instance, a tailored force would include the military, the police, and civilian personnel operating as a homogenous group with autonomous functions and multiple tasks in pursuit of a single objective.

Among other tasks, Nelson *et al.* (1996:15-16) state that the military may be asked to rebuild institutions such as schools, local security forces, and the court system; restore public works; replace or repair infrastructure as exemplified by water and sewerage systems; clear debris; repair or build roads and bridges, and support the local government. The researcher submits that the foregoing humanitarian tasks represent the mechanical interactions between the military-civilian organisations and the local population that seeks relief. These mechanical interactions will also be explained in terms of the theory of tensile forces that determines the behaviours within the interagency process.

In addressing the unifying principle within the interagency process, the researcher utilised the tensegrity architecture, which is described as “a tensed network of structural members that resists shape distortion and self-stabilises by incorporating other support elements that resist [local] compression” (Ingber, 2003:1158). For the purposes of this study, Ingber (2003) would argue that the cellular tensegrity model purports that the CCMOC is a prestressed (i.e. pre-existing tensile stress) tensegrity structure that holds position and reconfiguration “when mechanically stressed without continuous transmission of tensional forces” (Ingber, 2003:1158). This implies that the tensional forces are borne by various humanitarian agencies, which include the military, the police, civilian personnel, and intermediate donor countries, and that these forces are balanced by interconnected structural elements (i.e. MOUs) that resist compression. In this context, compression means possible adhesion to or merging of the military and civilian components into a homogenous humanitarian structure (see Ingber, 2003:1158).

Taw (1997:7) describes the interagency process as a rough continuum with policy issues on one extreme and tactical issues on the other extreme. In the middle is the operational level whereby the command authorities, the advisory committees, and various government departments translate the political strategy into the implementation plans and communicate such plans to the field officers or representatives. Also in the middle are the international governmental organisations and NGO field personnel responsible for coordination among themselves. These entities implement their plans as handed down by various operational headquarters. Taw (1997:7) affirms that the field personnel sometimes coordinate among themselves through various centres, including the CMOC and the Humanitarian Assistance Coordination Center. Given the CMOC as the point of contact between various humanitarian personnel within the field and the CCMOC as the nodal point for specific assistance requests, most challenges arise in the field-level coordination.

Taw (1997:18) states that the major challenge for field-level coordination is that the civilian organisations have different kinds of administration structures and processes. Taw (1997) observes that civilian organisations are made up of loosely constituted organisms whereby no single organisation has any authority over the other. On the other hand, Taw (1997) confirms that the military organisation is composed of hierarchical structures and ordered command channels. Although the CCMOC is

intended to assist in spanning this administration gap between the military and civilian structures, this structure remains a “hard-wired” and hierarchically organised military entity that deals with horizontally organised agencies.

Taw (1997:20) states that the foregoing challenge at the higher level of coordination resides within the nature of the authority-based command structure used in the military and consensus-based arrangements that characterise civilian operational activities. Furthermore, Taw (1997:25) states that the military’s “hard-wired” operation centres enable military personnel to make decisions independently from other agents within the theatre of operation, which creates a number of administrative problems. For example, the choice of Entebbe as the main logistics hub as opposed to the Goma airfield that has a long runway, was made by the US forces without consultation with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (Taw, 1997:24). Although Taw (1997) seeks to address the aforementioned problems as general issues, this study views them as administrative arrangements that fail to recognise the specific indivisibility of civilian-military connections within OOTW.

Hartley III (1996:21) provides a broad intellectual history of OOTW that relates to humanitarian assistance, disaster relief, and analysis tools. Common in this intellectual history of OOTW are issues concerning the development of an appropriate doctrine and the need to consolidate a comprehensive task list for OOTW (Hartley III, 1996:23). According to Hartley III (1996), the major categories of OOTW are peace operations, humanitarian assistance, disaster relief, and national integrity operations. Although Hartley III’s (1996) taxonomy separates humanitarian assistance and disaster relief from peace operations, this study submits that the emergent evidence points to complex humanitarian emergencies as a higher-order category that defines OOTW. Besides, Hartley III (1996:32-36) states that mission and task analyses must focus on the envisaged end state, rules of engagement or MOU, determination of force structure elements, flexible command arrangements and broad span of control, tailor-made CMOCs, intra-operable communication installations, shared deployment priorities, and common decision support programmes.

The foregoing task list is not intended to exhaust all the operational requirements but to illustrate the administrative arrangements that may enhance civilian-military partnerships in peace and security as a shared priority in OOTW. In concluding the

discussion on OOTW as a component of MOAD, the researcher depends on the written operational experience of Major General Arnold, who led the US forces during Operation Restore in Somalia; Nelson *et al.*, in providing practical examples of humanitarian tasks executed by the military personnel during OOTW; Jenniffer M. Taw, who advocates the importance of civil-military coordination in pursuit of common objectives; and Hartley III, who emphasises the importance of new doctrine and mission analysis tools for OOTW. In establishing the remaining building blocks of the MOAD as a complete “living organism”, the researcher utilises the intellectual history of OAD.

#### **4.4 REFLECTION ON THE INTELLECTUAL HISTORY OF OAD**

The UNGA uses the Quadrennial Comprehensive Policy Review (QCPR) as its “key system-wide strategic policy orientations and operational modalities for development cooperation and country-level modalities of the UN development system” (UNGA, 2017:1).<sup>110</sup> This study submits that the QCPR offers the opportunity to explore system-wide strategic policy orientation and development cooperation modalities in response to complex humanitarian emergencies. In this instance, the researcher argues that the emerging evidence points to complex humanitarian emergencies as the major threats to peace and security in Southern Africa. In advancing this theoretical line of argument, the researcher utilised the QCPR as the main UN instrument that may assist in positioning system-wide OAD in supporting region-specific endeavours to implement the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa.

In positioning the civil-military partnership as a system-wide OAD in support of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and 2063 Agenda, the UNGA (1997:2) recognises the role of relevant stakeholders and “encourage[s] their contributions in supporting national development efforts in accordance with the national plans and priorities” (UNGA, 2017:3). This implies that both the civilian and military organisations are encouraged to support NDPs and priorities as defined in the SDGs. In an attempt to establish the military role in the “system-wide strategic policy orientations and

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<sup>110</sup> Resolution adopted by the UNGA on 21 December 2016, registered as “Resolution 71/243: Quadrennial Comprehensive Policy Review of Operational Activities for Development of the United Nations Systems”.

operational modalities for development cooperation”,<sup>111</sup> this study drew from the statement that (UNSC, 2015):<sup>112</sup>

Prevention is not something to be turned on and off ... should instead be an integral part of United Nations action in all contexts. While development that left people behind sowed the seeds of violence, well-targeted assistance could address risk factors, such as inequality and marginalization, at the most critical moments.

The researcher submits that the above statement represents a turning point in advancing the concept of system-wide policy orientation within the global sphere of governance. This study also argues that this strategic policy orientation continues to succeed in linking the military role and humanitarian efforts, enhancing partnerships in peace and security, and in advancing the recognition of complex humanitarian emergencies as major threats to durable peace and sustainable security. This statement also emphasises prevention as an integral part of system-wide OAD, in all contexts (e.g. maintenance of peace and security) with all UN entities (e.g. military and civilian organisations) and their comparative advantages (e.g. rapid response capabilities). In the last instance, the UN underscores the following attributes (UNGA, 2017:4):

[C]omparative advantage of an adequately resourced, relevant, coherent, efficient and effective United Nations development system in its support to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals and sustainable development, and support the process of the long-term positioning of the United Nations development system in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

The researcher submits that the foregoing statement positions the military organisation as an integral partner within the UN system-wide OAD. This theoretical claim finds support from the AU guidelines on the role of the ASF in the Humanitarian Action and Natural Disaster Support (HANDS), as well the African Union Humanitarian Policy

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<sup>111</sup> Ibid.

<sup>112</sup> In the UNSC meeting entitled “Prevention Should be Integral to All United Nations efforts”, the Secretary-General advises the Security Council in the first open debate on root causes of conflict in the meeting held on 17 November 2015.



Framework (AUHPF). The researcher submits that the aforementioned policy framework advances the need for harmonised and coordinated activities between the military and civilian organisations in response to humanitarian crisis settings. Furthermore, the AUHPF emphasises the importance of rapid military responses in humanitarian and disaster settings.

This policy framework advances the military comparative advantage (i.e. adequately resourced and effects-based approach) to humanitarian principles and the consolidation of implementation mechanisms that require a multidimensional coordinated approach to OAD (see above UNGA 2017 statement).

The researcher argues that the foregoing linkages between humanitarian efforts, enhancing partnerships in peace and security, and competitive advantages in response to complex humanitarian emergencies define possible military tasks within the OAD. This claim is further informed by the guidelines entrenched in UNGA Resolution 224, which are summarised as follows (UNGA, 2015): The “system-wide intergovernmental frameworks for partnership accountability” ensures the preservation of multilateral legitimacy, independence, integrity, values, and respect for intergovernmental principles and standards that govern the envisaged partnerships.<sup>113</sup>

The system-wide guidance to OAD is to be supported by the institutionalisation of interagency coordination as evident with the establishment of regional brigades in Africa, constituted of the military, police, and civilian components.<sup>114</sup>

The call for “system-wide harmonisation of regulations and rules and the consolidation of support services” is the starting point for the establishment of regional brigades that serve as the implementation mechanisms for joint business between governments, the military organisation, and civilian entities.<sup>115</sup>

The foregoing UNGA guidelines situate the military-civil partnership within the wide-system policy orientation of the OAD. Furthermore, these guidelines provide clear linkages between humanitarian efforts and military-civil partnerships in peace and security, and between the military and civilian support systems within the OAD. It is on

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<sup>113</sup> Adapted from paragraph 10 of UNGA Resolution 226.

<sup>114</sup> Adapted from paragraph 143 of UNGA Resolution 226.

<sup>115</sup> Adapted from paragraph 237 of UNGA Resolution 224.



the basis of the foregoing intellectual history that resides within the UNGA and its QCPR that the researcher claims the role of the military organisation in supporting the OAD.

In establishing the nature of military support of OAD, the researcher takes a cue from the mechanical forces that regulate the behaviour of “symbiotically arrangement tissues” (e.g. cardiovascular system) to assist in understanding the mechanics of public regulations related to humanitarian response to complex emergencies and translate such understanding into the MOAD (see Ingber, 2003:1157). In doing so, the researcher subscribes to the UNGA’s argument that the “successful collective efforts of the UN development systems”<sup>116</sup> in providing emergency means should be viewed “as a step towards long-term [sustainable] development” (UNGA, 1991).<sup>117</sup> In doing so, the researcher argues that the military-civil partnership in peace and security continues to demonstrate the impact of collective efforts within the theatre of humanitarian operations or humanitarian response space (HRS).

#### **4.5 GROUNDING MOAD WITHIN SELECTED PIECES OF LEGISLATION**

This section seeks to establish the conceptual framework that gives rise to MOAD as an emergent concept that underpins the study of RDA. In doing so, the researcher utilises global pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that establish the military-civil partnership within the HRS, which is the conceptual foundation of the MOAD. Stated differently, the study seeks to establish the conceptual framework of MOAD that underpins the theoretical ambition of the MOAD while pervading the understanding of the HRS. In doing so, the study focuses on UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991 and Resolution 58/114 of 2004.

##### **4.5.1 United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) Resolution 46/182 of 1991 as a conceptual framework for MOAD**

The researcher submits that UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991 offers pieces of legislation that may assist in the conceptualisation of the MOAD. In strengthening the theatre of humanitarian operations or the HRS within the affected countries,

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<sup>116</sup> Introductory statement of UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991.

<sup>117</sup> Paragraph 9 of UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991.

paragraph 5 of Resolution 46/182 affirms that “international cooperation” is of great importance in effectively addressing complex emergencies. Paragraph 10 of Resolution 46/182 establishes economic growth and sustainable development as the most important measures in the prevention of complex humanitarian emergencies. Furthermore, paragraph 21 of Resolution 46/182 encourages the mobilisation of the UN systems and entities within their respective mandates within the HRS.

In line with the above requirement for mobilisation, the researcher submits that Article 47(3) of the UN Charter provides the MSC with the responsibility to provide strategic direction to any military organisations placed under the control of the UNSC. This implies that military organisations may be deployed as UN entities within the HRS. Paragraph 10 of UNGA Resolution 58/114 calls upon all the states and parties participating in the HRS to “ensure the safe and unhindered access of humanitarian personnel as well as supplies and equipment in order to allow them to perform efficiently their task of assisting the affected civilian population” (UNGA, 2003).<sup>118</sup> Stated differently, this policy prescript calls all the states and parties to ensure the “protection of” and/or “stability within” the humanitarian personnel functions, their equipment and supplies, as well as their freedom of passage from the “outside” to the “inside”, and from the “inside” to the “outside” of the HRS in fulfilment of their duties.

In fulfilment of the policy regulations rooted in UNGA Resolution 58/114, this study borrowed from the military-civil partnership that manifested during the UN’s Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM) between 1993 and 1995.

The impact of military-civil partnership within the Somalia HRS is captured as follows (Menkhaus, 2007:82):

The large UN operation poured an enormous amount of money as well as sizable employment and contract opportunities into the country and inadvertently helped to stimulate and strengthen legitimate businesses, thereby shifting business activities away from war economy towards construction, telecommunication, trade, and services and the rule of law, and eventually local power relation as well.

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<sup>118</sup> Paragraph 10 of UNGA Resolution 58/114 of 2003.

In establishing the specific military role within the Somali HRS, Arnold and Stahl (1993:1) state that access to the main road that connected the humanitarian space throughout the country was the essential requirement for the NGOs to conduct relief activities in Somalia. Arnold and Stahl (1993:26) observe that although the construction of the Somali road received little notice, approximately 2 100 km of its length was built or improved by engineers from the US Army, the Marines, and the Navy. Furthermore, the infantry units conducted their daily essential tasks, which included providing security to humanitarian agencies, conducting roadblocks and checkpoint management, and conducting convoy security operations.

It is on the basis of the foregoing military experiences in Somalia that this study submits that the military role in strengthening the functionality of the HRS is grounded on the existing policy frameworks that advance the need for protection, free passage, and stability. The researcher observes that UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991 offers the opportunity to define the military role in OOTW as the duty to protect, to facilitate transportation, and to enhance stabilisation from external forces within the HRS. Stated differently, the military role in OOTW is to protect the humanitarian agents, to facilitate the passage of supplies and services, and the stabilisation of the humanitarian settings from undesirable external interventions.

#### **4.5.2 UNGA Resolution 58/114 of 2004 as a conceptual framework for MOAD**

The researcher submits that UNGA Resolution 58/114 may assist in establishing the role of civilian organisations in strengthening the coordination of humanitarian assistance with military organisations within the HRS. Paragraph 2 of Resolution 58/114 calls upon relevant UN organisations and entities, including the humanitarian and development agencies, to collaborate with the OCHA of the Secretariat to strengthen the coordination of humanitarian assistance. Also, paragraph 6 of Resolution 58/114 encourages the ECOSOC to review the issue of the transition from humanitarian relief to development through integrated or joint approaches between the humanitarian and operational segments. Stated differently, the approach to humanitarian relief activities (humanitarian segment) and approaches to OAD should be integrated to enhance smooth transitions. Furthermore, paragraph 9 of Resolution 58/114 reaffirms “the leading role of civilian organisation in implementing humanitarian assistance” (UNGA, 2004b:3).

In contextualising the leading role of the civilian organisation in the implementation of humanitarian assistance, the UNGA points to the independence of the humanitarian agencies within the HRS. For example, the independence of humanitarian agencies is described as the autonomy of humanitarian objectives from the political, military, and economic or any other objectives that may be held in relation to the implementation of humanitarian assistance. The researcher submits that the principle of the independence of civilian organisations from the military humanitarian objectives is important in establishing their leading role within the HRS. The principle of independence also remains important in understanding the leading role of civilian organisations within the broader humanitarian “principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality” (UNGA, 1991).<sup>119</sup>

It is on the basis of the aforementioned humanitarian principles that paragraph 10 of Resolution 58/114 calls upon all governments and other stakeholders within the HRS to cooperate fully with the NGOs in performing their humanitarian tasks. In exploring the potential impact of non-compliance to humanitarian principles, the researcher utilised the lessons learned from the Somali case. Menkhaus (2010:S322) states that during the Cold War, Somalia was too noble an ally of the West. During that period, the Barre regime recruited huge numbers of displaced people into its military, thereby transforming the refugee camps into *de facto* military training sites. On the other hand, the Barre regime resulted in large numbers of refugees and doubled the amount of food required from the humanitarian supplies. Menkhaus (2010) affirms that the Barre regime translated the humanitarian assistance into logistical support to the military units, which raised security concerns that entirely compromised and badly eroded the humanitarian assistance in Somalia in the 1980s.

Conversely, Menkhaus (2010:S324) states that the HRS in Somalia was completely dominated by the external agenda, while the international NGOs enjoyed an influential voice in framing public opinion on the crisis and in driving policy debates. As the number of humanitarian agencies in southern Somalia continued to increase between 1991 and 1992, each of these crowded fields of NGOs brokered its own security and logistical arrangements. Among others, Menkhaus (2010) observes that security arrangements were occasionally brokered with the local authorities and communities,

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<sup>119</sup> Paragraph 2 of UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991.

but usually with the militia leaders of the clan controlling their area of interest. Menkhaus (2010) emphasises that although the humanitarian agents were rarely attached, their aid, employment, vehicle and housing rental, other contracts, and security guards were their only sources of income.

The foregoing narrative on the mutual relationship between humanitarian agencies and local authorities and communities points to the nature of independence, humanity, impartiality, and neutrality enjoyed by the NGOs within the HRS. The researcher submits that the aforementioned logistic and security arrangements were intended to enable these huge numbers of NGOs to conduct relief operations throughout Somaliland, as observed by Arnold and Stahl (1993:16). In doing so, the researcher argues that as the civilian organisations increased in numbers between 1991 and 1992, they were able to:

- dominate and shape the Somali HRS;
- provide independent direction to their humanitarian activities;
- influence international policy debates on the Somali crisis;
- attract international aid for usage in Somalia;
- stimulate international interests in the development of Somalia; and
- divide specialised humanitarian functions throughout Somaliland.

This implies that the civilian organisations took charge of country-specific OAD within the Somali HRS.

#### **4.5.3 Safeguarding the humanitarian space as a conceptual framework for MOAD**

On 1 April 2019, the Under-Secretary-General for Human Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator, Mark Lowcock, affirmed before the UNSC that in the absence of self-defence, war between states becomes illegal as provided for in the UN Charter. Furthermore, Lowcock states that chronic crises and protracted conflict have a significant impact on humanitarian operations. Among other impacts are the increasing humanitarian needs, hindrance of humanitarian operations, violence against humanitarian agencies, and blockading of supplies from reaching the people in need. It is on the basis of the above observation that Lowcock (1991:2) argues that the international humanitarian law is intended to minimise human suffering in crisis

settings by safeguarding the humanitarian space. In strengthening the Secretary-General and bringing together the humanitarian agents to ensure coherent response to complex emergencies, UNGA Resolution 46/182 mandates OCHA as a coordinating platform. In this regard, the UN Secretariat requires OCHA to establish a framework within which each independent actor will contribute while safeguarding the overall response efforts.

In generating respect for international humanitarian law, Lowcock (1991:3) suggests that all parties should adopt clear procedures that enable humanitarian access into the HRS. In doing so, OCHA is required to ensure that involved parties should establish the civil-military coordination system or notification platform “to facilitate parties’ respect for humanitarian operations” (Lowcock, 1991:3). The researcher supports the understanding that OCHA derives its legitimacy as a global coordinating mechanism from UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991. Among others, this resolution defines the responsibility of OCHA as delivering the core functions in the field or HRS by providing the “mechanical strength” to the functional expertise throughout the organisation, namely coordination, advocacy, policy, humanitarian financing, and information management. Given the limitation of space and time, this study was limited to coordination as the central principle in enhancing relations between the military and humanitarian agencies in pursuit of durable peace for sustainable development.

#### **4.5.4 Coordinated humanitarian actions as a force multiplier within the humanitarian response space (HRS)**

Much has been said about military and civilian organisations with regard to providing support to the HRS, i.e. the role of the military and civilian organisations in providing support to coordinated humanitarian actions. Much has also been elaborated on regarding the role of OCHA in convening and coordinating the activities of the humanitarian partners for purposes of strengthening the humanitarian space. It is necessary at this stage to establish the regulatory framework that shapes the interactions between the humanitarian partners in pursuit of coordinated humanitarian actions. In this regard, this study is limited to the existing regulatory framework that defines the relations between military and civilian organisations in pursuit of coordinated humanitarian actions.

In exploring the existing policy frameworks, the researcher begins by acknowledging the changing nature of the humanitarian space, which is characterised by huge numbers of diverse partners that bring “new perspectives [or ideologies], experiences and capacities to the international humanitarian system” (OCHA, 2017:3). Furthermore, the study takes a cue from the vision that guides OCHA in seeking to “contribute to more effective and principled humanitarian action for affected people” (OCHA, 2017:5). Besides the increasing perspectives on the international humanitarian systems, OCHA positions the concepts of coordinated humanitarian actions as the fundamental organisation of the HRS and the legitimate basis of the humanitarian operations and determinants in shaping the HRS.

The researcher submits that the complexities and pervasiveness of the regulated support to the humanitarian space gave way to international recognition of coordinated humanitarian action as the organising principle that should humble and inform all participants in humanitarian actions, even today. The pervasive nature of these regulated support operations finds expression in their irregular applications in both space and time. In addressing this policy challenge, OCHA commits to a “more robust, result oriented, efficient and cohesive UN development system” (2017:12). Amongst other, these envisaged reforms by OCHA seek to establish a “transformed coordination for a more efficient and tailored humanitarian responses” (OCHA 2017:13) while improving coordination between humanitarian and development agencies.

In pursuit of the foregoing noble advice, this study focuses on the guidelines that regulate the use of the military organisations in the humanitarian and development space. Among others, the international humanitarian communities have established a broad representation since 1992 that led to the international conference in Oslo, Norway, in January 1994. It was during this conference that the basic concepts of and guiding principles on the use of military capabilities within the humanitarian space were formulated and later adapted into the contemporary Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief and Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets to Support the United Nations Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies.



In pursuit of the first guidelines, OCHA (1994:5) established a “humanitarian gap” between humanitarian needs and expectations from the international communities in relation to existing resources in meeting these needs. In addressing this humanitarian gap, the OCHA (1994:6) affirms that the military organisations of any country have been trained and are ready to perform beyond their traditional tasks, and are thus well organised and managed to provide support to a wide range of assistance when so required. Services include communication, transportation, public works, health and emergency medical services, and general support activities.

The second set of guidelines places emphasis on coordination and shared responsibilities guided by the common objectives as opposed to competition and inconsistencies. Central to these guidelines is the use of military personnel, supplies, equipment, and services in support of the UN in fulfilment of humanitarian objectives in complex emergencies (UNHDA, 2003:5). Furthermore, these guidelines emphasise the importance of respecting the humanitarian principles entrenched in UN Resolution 46/182 that advocates for neutrality, impartiality, and humanity. It is relevant to argue at this stage that the foregoing humanitarian principles do not prevent civil-military partnerships in pursuit of humanitarian objectives. This theoretical line of argument is important in establishing the military role within the UN development systems.

This foregoing theoretical line of argument finds support from the international conviction that “emergency measures should be seen as a step towards long-term development” (UNGA, 1991).<sup>120</sup> In advancing this theoretical line of argument, the researcher subscribes to the global initiatives that seek to shape the humanitarian space as proposed in OCHA’s strategic objectives such as (OCHA 2017:14-17):

- the establishment of emergency response preparedness model;
- system-wide resource mobilization to increase the effectiveness of humanitarian responses;
- intersectoral analysis of the humanitarian situation and its impact, including risks, vulnerabilities and basic needs;
- Improve the lives of the crisis-affected people while protecting their dignity;

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<sup>120</sup> Paragraph 9 of UNGA Resolution 46/182 of 1991.



- Advocate for the humanitarian response system that is agile and adaptable to the uncertainties of the global landscape while increasing the capacity of national governments and local agencies – acting as a force multiplier for crisis-affected people to benefit from the existing global agenda and frameworks for lasting peace, durable security and sustainable development.

In expounding on the foregoing theoretical line of argument, the researcher is limited to five key issues, namely the Agenda for Humanity, restructuring partnership in peace and security, strengthening the ECOSOC's OAD, and synthesising the notion of MOAD.

#### **4.5.4.1 *The Agenda for Humanity***

At the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS) held in Istanbul on 23-24 May 2016, the international communities made several commitments that define the international responsibilities towards the Agenda for Humanity. The central guiding principle of this summit was the understanding that governments, private sector, local communities, international organisations, aid providers, and thousands of compassionate and committed individuals responding to crisis situations on a daily basis will only succeed if they work with a “unified sense of purpose to end crises and suffering” (UN, 2016:1). In compliance with this principle, the international communities agreed to change the way they resolve issues by decreasing the fragmentation of international assistance from the currently unmanageable number of activities and projects; and realign their investment in resolving human suffering and consequential conflicts.

To this end, the international communities committed to take forward the Agenda for Humanity and use “it as a framework for action, change and mutual accountability” (UN, 2016:1). For purposes of this study, only one of the five commitments is explored to establish the possible military role in supporting development within the context of the Agenda for Humanity.

It is found in the UNDP's 2017 report that the international communities commit to global leadership that seeks to prevent conflict through the concept of sustainable peace. On the other side, the notion of “whole-of-government” approach has been advocated as favourable models and include the Conflict Early-Warning Systems and Early Warning / Early Action Forum. On inclusiveness and community building, more

emphasis is placed on “bottom-up” initiatives as an investment in social resilience and stabilisation (UNDP, 2017:1-3). Since the UN Charter mandates the MSC to advise on matters related to the maintenance of international peace and security, the researcher submits that the military role in promoting humanity remains a legitimate task - commitment to prevent conflict through the concept of sustainable peace.

#### ***4.5.4.2 Restructuring partnerships in peace and security***

The researcher submits that the restructuring of the peace and security pillars of the UN provides the basis to establish the military role in supporting development worldwide. The UNGA (2017:1) provides that the rationale for the restructuring of the peace and security pillars is to:

- prioritise prevention and sustaining peace;
- enhance the coherence and effectiveness of political missions and peacekeeping operations;
- translate peace and security components into more nimble, pragmatic, coherent, flexible, and effective machineries by using a “whole-of-pillar” model; and
- re-align the peace and security pillars more closely to the human rights and development pillars.

The abovementioned restructuring measures point to the starting point in the theorisation of policy-based connections between the military pillar and development pillar. The UNGA (2017:3) observes that the fragmentation of efforts across the entire UN systems contributes to undermining the ability of the UN to effectively respond to crisis settings. In ensuring more joined-up, whole-of-pillar, and cross-pillar engagement for conflict prevention, effective crisis responses, and sustaining peace, the UNGA (2017:4-6) proposes the reduction of duplicative structures and overlapping mandates. In doing so, the UNGA (2017:6) seeks to strengthen the UN’s responses to peace and security issues through the reorganisation of relevant offices and departments and the improvement of working methods while supporting the “whole-of-pillar” approach. Although the UNGA provides a detailed approach to the “whole-of-pillar” approach, relevant to this study is the alignment of the peace and security

pillars with the human rights pillar in close working relationship with the development systems.

The foregoing UNGA proposal seeks to empower the peacebuilding support systems by connecting the peace and security pillars with “system-wide” tools and efforts that spread across the conflict spectrum and other partnerships in line with the need to review the UN peacebuilding architecture (UNGA, 2017:6). For example, the UNGA (2017:9) states that the arrangements that include the participation of the Secretary-General for Peacebuilding Support in the coordination mechanisms of the UN Development Group, Executive Committee, and Joint Steering Committee for Development and Humanitarian Coordination – with emphasis on the prevention and sustaining peace – would contribute in revitalising the Office of Peacebuilding Support as mandated. It is on the basis of the foregoing “system-wide” and “whole-of-pillar” approaches that the study submits that the military role in supporting the OAD remains imperative.

#### ***4.5.4.3 Strengthening the Economic and Social Council’s (ECOSOC) OAD***

It is found in the United Nations Development Segment’s (UNDS) Repositioning Explanatory Notes #7 (dated February 2018), that the UN Secretary-General institutionalised the ECOSOC as an accountable mechanism for system-wide performance with regard to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The ECOSOC is therefore required to provide overall guidance, through its Segment on Operational Activities for Development. In this explanatory note, the Secretary-General provides the following guidance:

- The operational coordination of the UN development systems with humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding efforts;
- The redesign and leveraging of ECOSOC activities on development and humanitarian collaboration;
- The need for joint meetings between the ECOSOC and the Peacebuilding Commission for holistic considerations; and
- Approaches to OAD.

The rationale for the foregoing administrative arrangement is based on the acknowledgement that the current governance architecture of the development

system is not tailored to provide the level of oversight necessary for ensuring more cohesive development systems support for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This new agenda requires a higher level of integration across its social, economic, and environmental dimensions of development, which is absent in the current system that is fragmented across individual governing bodies and areas of work, and that is characterised by limited integration among these governing bodies. As a remedial action, the Secretary-General proposes a range of tools, including the Operational Activities Segment, Humanitarian Affairs Segment, seamless transition from humanitarian relief to sustainable development, and joint meetings of ECOSOC and the Peacebuilding Commission. The study submits that the foregoing administrative arrangement points to the policy-based connection between the military role and OAD.

In an attempt to integrate the foregoing discussions on coordinated humanitarian actions as a force multiplier within the HRS, the researcher utilised the Guideline on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets to Support United Nations Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies and the Guideline on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets in Disaster Relief for possible connections between the military role and development. Furthermore, the researcher drew from the earlier discussions on OOTW and OAD to strengthen the emergent theoretical line of thinking on the connection between the military role and development.

In establishing the central thought process that guided this study, the researcher argues that the emergent humanitarian principles of independence, impartiality, neutrality, and humanity do not prevent military organisations from participating in humanitarian efforts and supporting development projects. The study established this theoretical line of thinking from policy-based critical transitions that manifest in the form of the Agenda for Humanity, restructuring of the UN peace and security pillars, and the reinvigoration of the ECOSOC's OAD. The researcher submits that the evidence that emerged from these major policy frameworks establishes the new military role within the context of critical transitions from humanitarian operations to the envisaged SDGs. Stated differently, the existing evidence points to the new military role within the "wide-system" and "whole-of-pillar" approaches to humanitarian relief and development support.

Furthermore, the discussion on OOTW suggested that the military-led MOOTW is characterised by the military interpretation and formulation of political and humanitarian objectives from the emergent crisis setting. The discussion on humanitarian assistance also points to the civilian-led OAD, while the military provides the supportive role. In both instances of OOTW and OAD, existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks emphasise the importance of partnerships in peace and security as the “golden thread in the work of the UN systems. This implies that the military-civilian and/or civilian-military partnerships in the execution of OOTW and/or OAD remain indivisible within the HRS, and thus provide the regulatory framework for interactions between the military and civilian organisations, while OCHA remains the coordinating machinery.

It is on the basis of the foregoing fundamental relationships between the military and civilian organisations, and between OCHA and existing regulatory frameworks, that the theory of MOAD will be established. Furthermore, the researcher claims that MOAD as a new concept is embedded in the point of convergence between the OOTW and OAD. For example, the military-civilian and civilian-military partnerships in fulfilment of OOTW and/or OAD missions may only be distinguished in fine lines within both instances of relations. Stated differently, the roles of the military and civilian organisations that are regulated in pursuit of the common humanitarian agenda offer the opportunity to synthesise the notion of MOAD.

#### **4.5.5 Synthesising the notion of MOAD: Systems thinking**

The foregoing discussions established the notion of MOAD as the point of convergence between the OOTW and OAD. Specific functions or responsibilities of the military and civilian organisations in pursuit of humanitarian agendas were therefore established. Absent in the referred discussions is the synthesis of the notion of MOAD for purposes of building the theory of the envisaged military support for development – the emergency measures that “should be seen as a step towards long-term development” (UNGA, 1991). In developing the theory of MOAD, this study relied on systems thinking as an intellectual discourse that offers “new insights from the foundations of transdisciplinarity” (McGregor, 2013:57).

In exploring the genealogy of systems thinking, Hammond (2002:429) establishes that systems theory continues to mean different things to different people and groups while informed by their occupational and/or disciplinary perspectives. This implies that although the notion of systems thinking may find expression from various disciplines and/or occupations, its shared meaning may be established from the foundations of transdisciplinarity. In an attempt to clarify the standpoint taken in this study, Hammond (2002:230) advises on a few questions that should be answered in line with the roots of systems thinking, while finding support from other multidisciplinary theories, which are limited to systems ideas, biomimicry, organismic biology, analogy thinking, and metaphorical thinking for the purposes of this study.

#### **4.5.5.1 Context for introduction to systems ideas**

The researcher situated the primary question in this study within the discipline of Public Administration and regional administration as a practice within the defence occupation, i.e. RDA as a practice. Although the concept of “system of systems” is popularly used in military practices, Checkland (1999:47) argues that the optimism that the military “operations system” is a particular kind of “systems” and that systems theory should be at the centre of such military practices to support the creation of such systems, is a false statement. In this regard, Checkland (1999) advises that there is no simple linkage between systems theory and the core functions that characterise the military practice.

Stated differently, there is no “spick-and-span” body of ready-made systems theory that can be directly taken from the shelf and used in designing the military system of systems. Nevertheless, Checkland (1999) asserts that the process of systems thinking is the conscious arrangement of thoughts using system ideas that may be relevant in enabling the understanding of military practices. Furthermore, Checkland (1999) argues that systems thinking is able to shed light on most challenges facing RDA and such solutions are relevant in the design of military systems. For example, in the project conducted for the American Institute of Aeronautical and Astronautics, Soban and Mavris (2001:7) propose a methodology called Probabilistic System of Systems Effective Methodology (POSSEM) as a framework for assessing the effectiveness of military systems.

In contrast to the foregoing different meanings and usage of systems thinking, Hammond (2002:429) advises on appealing to the thought processes that dominated the Stanford Centre for Advanced Study when Ludwig von Bertalanffy, Anatol Rapoport, Ralph Gerald, James G. Miller, and Kennet Boulding met in 1954 and paved the way for the contemporary approaches to systems thinking. Cattano, Nikou and Klotz (2011:176) affirm that systems thinking derives from the field of systems theory, which was established by the biologist Ludwig von Bertalanffy. It is within the context of these original thoughts of biologists that this study seeks to invoke the embedded systems ideas. In exploring the field of “biology” (Hammond, 2002:430) for purposes of building the theory of the military role in supporting the development programmes, this study takes a cue from other multidisciplinary theories, which are limited to biomimicry, organismic biology, analogy thinking, and metaphysical thinking for the purposes of this study.

#### **4.5.5.2 *Systems thinking and biomimicry***

Kaplinsky (2006:67) observes an increasing flow of interest across the fields of science, technology, and engineering in biology, pointing to “organismic biology” (Hammond, 2002:430) as a new multidisciplinary source of inspiration and design. The concept of biomimicry derives from the “Greek bios, life and mimesis, imitation” (McGregor, 2013:58). Biomimicry as a biological design philosophy is associated with biologists like Jannie Benyus and economists such as Amory and Hunter Lovins (Mathews, 2011:367). Biomimicry is understood as a new science that borrows from nature’s genius and imitates its models, designs, and processes to explain the challenges of the world and their possible solutions (Mathews, 2011:367).

Furthermore, Gebeshuber and Majlis (2010:6) state that biomimicry innovation methods have been successful in using animated nature and biological literature to identify the relevant questions, to “biologise” the questions, and to find nature’s best practice while generating necessary processes or product ideas. In generating necessary ideas, Schmidt (2011:434) suggests possible cross-fertilisation of ideas between two disciplines that reside at the core of biomimicry methodology, namely biology and social sciences. In this study, the researcher seeks to construct the model of biological nature from the perspective of public administration practices – “learning from nature” – in order to “inspire public administration innovations”.



McGregor (2013:57) also states that biomimicry claims that the principles of nature can be applied to model social life and/or be adapted to address complex human problems.

For the purposes of this study, the nine principles of nature are as follows:

- 1) Rewards cooperation in symbiotic relationships;
- 2) Always fits form to available resources;
- 3) Depends on diversity to develop best solutions;
- 4) Recycles and finds uses for everything;
- 5) Requires a wide range of local expertise and interlocking resources;
- 6) Avoids internal excesses;
- 7) Taps into limits as a source of power without borrowing against the future;
- 8) Operates on the “natural sources” of energy (e.g. sunlight, wind, fossil fuel); and
- 9) Refuses to deplete resources through unnecessary consumption (McGregor, 2013:59-60).

The foregoing principles of life will be used to examine the emerging properties that define the relationship between military and civilian organisations within the context of humanitarian response systems.

For example, the researcher should be able to turn to nature for guidance in establishing the required standards for usage in harmonising relations between military and civilian organisations within the context of HRS. In doing so, the notion of “matured living together” may affirm life’s ways that are grounded in these nine principles as a “measure of rightness in ensemble living” (McGregor, 2013:60). Stated differently, it is the ability to use life principles to establish military-civilian partnerships in pursuit of humanitarian objectives as a measure of rightness in “ensemble living”. The researcher submits that the science of biomimicry offers the opportunity to “learn from nature” in harmonising, coordinating, and enhancing cooperation between military and civilian organisations in providing humanitarian assistance and the advancement of support towards the envisaged long-term development.

Given the foregoing principles of nature, Cattano *et al.* (2011:176) advise that “a system is an interconnected set of components that form a whole and create their pattern of behaviour”. It is on the basis of this interconnectedness and interrelatedness



of component parts forming the whole that McGregor (2013:60) advises on possible biological modelling that respects the mutual needs of all constituent parts. In an attempt to explore the nature of these interconnections and interrelatedness, this study examined the theory of organismic biology.

#### **4.5.5.3 Systems thinking and organismic biology**

In the study of general systems theory, Kennert E. Boulding establishes that various disciplines and sciences “carve out for themselves certain elements of the experiences of man and develop theories and patterns of activity (research) which yield satisfaction in understanding, and which are appropriate to their special segment” (Boulding, 1956:197). In the quest for general systems theory, Boulding (1956) observes that the increasing need for a body of systematic theoretical constructs arose from the increasing realisation of the interconnections, interrelatedness, and general relationships of the empirical world – the root of an optimum degree of generality that is absent from any particular science. In an attempt to close this theoretical gap, Boulding (1956) advises on the importance of the theory of “system of systems” in establishing a “*gestalt*” in various forms of theoretical constructions.

In structuring the general systems theory, Boulding (1956:200) advises on the identification of general phenomena, which are represented in many disciplines, and to attempt to build up a general theoretical model that is applicable to these phenomena. Another method is arranging the “empirical fields in a hierarchy of complexity of organisation of their basic ‘individual’ or unit of behaviour” (Boulding, 1956:200), and attempting to develop a level of abstraction relevant to each unit. In this particular study, the identified “general phenomenon” is enhancing partnerships in pursuit of the Agenda for Sustainable Development in Southern Africa. Conversely, empirical evidence derives from the historical military experiences in Southern Africa that are organised in a hierarchy of complex interactions between foreign development agencies, Western military organisations, and foreign policies on Africa. The study submits that the hierarchy of these historical military roles, the role of development agencies, involved international stewards, and related regulatory frameworks provides the basis for the abstraction of “system of systems” and theoretical constructions.

In establishing the organismic skeleton of this hierarchy, Boulding (1956:202-205) mentions nine levels, namely:

- 1) the anatomy of a static structure (e.g. HRS);
- 2) simple but interactive dynamic systems (e.g. humanitarian activities);
- 3) control mechanisms with the capacity to interpret information (e.g. OCHA);
- 4) self-reproducing or self-maintaining structures (e.g. pieces of legislation and policy frameworks);
- 5) the genetic-societal level as typified by human kind (e.g. supra-national organisations);
- 6) the animal kingdom level (e.g. OAD);
- 7) human beings as a social system (e.g. military culture);
- 8) the role of individual human beings as a social organisation (e.g. military and civilian organisations); and
- 9) systematic structures with transcendental relationships (e.g. systematic interactions).

Furthermore, Boulding (1956:2005) affirms that acceptable “theoretical models extend at about the fourth level, and not much beyond”.

Given the aforementioned theoretical models in theory building, this study identified five levels of analysis as follows:

- 1) the HRS as an anatomy of a static structure;
- 2) the military as an interactive dynamic system;
- 3) civilian organisations as systematic structures with transcendental relationships;
- 4) supranational organisations as the control mechanisms with the capacity to interpret information; and
- 5) existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks as self-reproducing or self-maintaining structures.

Boulding (1956) would agree that the foregoing levels of analysis provide an adequate theoretical model based on the organismic anatomy of the HRS – the military and civilian organisations, international governmental organisations, and regulatory pieces of legislation and policy frameworks.

On the other hand, Boulding (1956:2006) argues that the “anatomy of that part of the empirical world which lies between the large molecules and the cell, however, is still obscure at many points”. In addressing this theoretical obscurity, Kast and Rosenzweig (1972:462) advise on the application of systems concepts to management practices as “the body of knowledge generated by practical experience and *eclectic* scientific research concerning organisations”. Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) argue that systems concepts may not provide a panacea for problem solving in public administration, but may enable the thorough understanding of complex settings while increasing the likelihood for appropriate responses. In doing so, Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) advise on learning from the existing configurations of sub-systems and/or patterns of relationships to enable a thorough understanding of complex administrative issues. In this regard, the researcher interrogated the cell structure and hierarchical systems of biology.

#### **4.5.5.4 Systems concepts and analogy thinking**

In an attempt to follow the biological modelling of public administration practices at the cellular level of analysis, the researcher borrowed from the “cell structure and hierarchical systems biology” (Ingber, 2003:1157). Ingber (2003) depicts the mechanical model of the cell as a cortex or elastic membrane surrounding a homogenous cytoplasm that is gelatinous, elastic, or viscoelastic, and sometimes with a nucleus in its centre. In an attempt to borrow from the cellular response to mechanical forces, Ingber (2003) advises on beginning with the model of the cell that enables us to relate mechanics (i.e. compression and tension) to chemistry at the molecular level and to translate this descriptive model of cell functionality into public administration practices. Ingber (2003) confirms that the biological process that determines cell behaviour constitutes integral and hierarchical systems (i.e. cells, tissues, and organs), as opposed to isolated and autonomous parts.

For purposes of developing a biological model at the cellular level of analysis, the study focuses on the four major parts that constitute the cell structure or cytoskeleton of eukaryotic cells, namely microtubules, intermediate filament, microfilament, and microtrabeculae. In examining the cellular response to mechanical forces, Ingber (2003:1158) observes that the cytoskeleton stabilises the eukaryotic cell by using a “tensed tensegrity framework composed of molecular struts, ropes and cables on the

nanometre scale [and] harness complex molecular networks such as gene and protein networks, for information processing". Ingber (2003:1158) defines tensegrity systems as follows:

[S]tructures that stabilize their shape by continuous tension or 'tensional integrity' rather than by continuous compression (e.g. used in a stone arch). [A] tensed network of structural members that resists shape distortion and self-stabilizes by incorporating other support elements that resists compression.

The foregoing discussion lays the foundation for the biological model that views the whole cell as a prestressed tensegrity structure with "tensional forces" being borne by the cytoskeletal microfilaments and intermediate filaments while these "tensional forces" are balanced by the interconnected microtubules and extracellular matrix that resist compression. Ingber (2003:1159) observes that the cultured "cells and tissues" indicate that the stability of the cell shape "depends on the balance between microtubules and the opposing contractile microfilaments". This study establishes that the concepts that define the cytoskeleton and related cellular tensegrity provide the best ideas to understand relations between military and civilian organisations in support of development objectives. This concept of tensegrity is explored further under the discussion on metaphorical thinking that seeks to strengthen the logic of the design by analogy to biology.

In advancing the theory of systems thinking in public administration, Kennedy (2017:51) also advises on borrowing ideas from biology – "innovation through the emulation of biological form processes, patterns, and systems". Kennedy (2017) states that borrowing ideas from biology to solve public administration problems is in line with the design by analogy or biomimicry. Kennedy (2017) argues that biomimicry is informed by an understanding of natural selection as a process through which competitive traits are propagated as the most adapted species tend to survive and replicate in large numbers than those with fewer coping mechanisms. In this particular study, the researcher argues that the military organisation possesses traits that have adapted to all circumstances (i.e. peace and war times) since the need arose for human defence systems.

In an attempt to search for biological analogues and the transfer of attributes from the cytoskeleton to public administration practices, Salgueiredo and Hatchuel (2016:160)

agree on establishing the functional basis of the microtubules, intermediate filaments, microfilaments, and microtrabeculae and their possible interrelationships. Given the growing importance of sustainability among service providers and consumers alike, Kennedy (2017:52) states that these biological models would inspire the most sustainable solutions to public administration challenges. Furthermore, Salgueiredo and Hatchuel (2016:4) confirm that the molecular components of the cytoskeleton constitute the “functionally integrated system that determines the shape and structural organisation of the cell and takes part in cell motility, intracellular transport, chromosome separation during mitosis, and cellular cleavage”. This study submits that these intracellular functions are shared by military and civilian organisations within the HRS as an integrated system, namely military-civil partnerships that support development, and this relationship is regulated by wide-ranging pieces of legislation and policy frameworks.

Although the microtubules and microfilaments are respectively responsible for cell motility and intracellular transportation, their responses to the necessary mechanical forces remain coordinated and harmonised, as expected from military and civilian organisations in pursuit of humanitarian objectives. For purposes of strengthening the theory of design by analogy to biology or biomimicry, the researcher finds it necessary to explore the theory of tensegrity and metaphorical thinking.

#### ***4.5.5.5 Tensegrity system and metaphorical thinking***

The concept of the tensegrity system derives from the observation that “living cells are literally hard-wired so that they can filter the same set of inputs to produce different functional outputs [from] this mechanism” (Ingber, 1997:50). Ingber (1997) observes that this switching mechanism is mostly controlled mechanically by the physical deformation of the cell and its cytoskeleton. Furthermore, this mechanical behaviour is governed by the basic architectural rules that determine the nature of cell and tissue organisation and mechanically stabilising their cytoskeleton. This study submits that the general mechanical behaviour of military organisations is a response to political interests, or rapid response systems that struggle to keep pace with the increasing demands of complex humanitarian emergencies. Given the limitation of space and time, the researcher submits that the mechanical behaviour in living cells provides the biological model for the understanding of a stress-induced setting that defines the

functions of military and civilian organisations in response to complex humanitarian emergencies.

In advancing the foregoing theoretical line of thinking, this study takes a cue from Wang *et al.* (2001:7765), who argue that stress-induced alteration in cell shape and structure remains critical in controlling the functions of the molecular components of the cytoskeleton that give rise to cellular growth and consequent development of tissues, organs, and their related functions. Wang *et al.* (2001:7765) would also agree with the challenges of explaining “how mechanical forces ... regulate cell function without linking mechanics to microstructure and molecular biochemistry”. For purposes of this study, it suffices to say that the microstructural model of cell mechanics that views the cell as a prestressed tensegrity structure incorporates the need to maintain the shape and stability of the living cells through tensed networks of microfilaments and intermediate filaments.

Wang *et al.* (2001) also affirm that the aforementioned prestressed elements are balanced by interconnected microtubules and traction embedded in the extra-cellular matrix to maintain the shape and functionality of the living cell. In explaining the mechanical behaviour of cells and tissues, Wang *et al.* (2001:7769) demonstrate that the

cellular response to mechanical stress applied to the cell surface depends on molecular connectivity to the internal CSK [cytoskeleton] lattice, that microtubules bear compression in cells and contribute sufficiently to cellular mechanics under physiological conditions, and that prestressed mechanics in the CSK is critical for cell shape and stability.

In summarising the foregoing premises, Motro and Raducanu (2003:79) state that the tensegrity system is “established when a set of discontinuous compression components interact with a set of continuous tensile components to define a stable volume in space”. In this instance, microtubules are the components that resist compression while the microfilaments are tensile elements of the cytoskeleton.

Given the foregoing theory of tensegrity, Casakin (2007:21) affirms that metaphors assist human beings in structuring their thought process and enable common understanding. In doing so, Casakin (2007) argues that metaphors affect the way

human beings perceive the world, organise their thought processes, and categorise their experiences. For purposes of this study, metaphors are viewed as a cognitive model that underpins this study and are the foundation for a creative theoretical landscape that “researchers can use to guide subsequent inquiry and theory development” (Kozbelt, Beghetto & Runco, 2010:21). Furthermore, Kozbelt *et al.* (2010:22) argue that metaphorical reasoning offers a more speculative stance on the phenomena under scrutiny, while provoking new perspectives and probabilities in thoughts and actions. Also important is that Casakin (2007:22) states that metaphors enable the making of references to what is clearly understood with the view to elaborate on the unknown. Casakin (2007:22) therefore states that “metaphors constitute an unknown juxtaposition of the familiar and the unusual”.

The emerging theoretical line of thinking points to the possibility of establishing the model for the military role in supporting the Agenda for Sustainable Development that is based on design by analogy to biology. Table 4.1 is used to depict various parts of the biological cell to the administrative arrangements that govern the humanitarian response space. In doing so, the researcher borrowed from the biological functions of cell components to explain the autonomy of each humanitarian stakeholder while placing emphasis on the interdependence of these functions. The researcher therefore argues that the biology of the cell behaviour is global knowledge, while the MOAD remains an unknown subject.

**Table 4.1: Cellular biology as a “known” juxtaposed to the MOAD as an “unknown”**

Cellular biology as a known	MOAD as an unknown
Cytoskeleton	HRS
Microtubules	Military organisations and related operations strategy
Microfilaments	Civilian organisations and OAD
Intermediate filaments	Convening authority and related control mechanisms
Microtrabeculae lattice	Guiding pieces of legislation and policy frameworks

Source: Researcher’s own model

The foregoing model is informed by selected systems thinking theories, which include biomimicry, design by analogy to biology, metaphorical thinking, and tensegrity systems. In establishing the distinguishing features of the military operations strategy in support of development, the researcher depended on the statement that dissections and reductions in biology enable the “generating of detailed information about the components that comprise living organisms and the way in which they interact with



one another” (Ingber & Jamieson, 1985:14). This implies that the military operations strategy can only be understood in relation to the civilian OAD, the nature of the convening authorities, and pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that govern the HRS. In exploring this biological model, the researcher examined the physical forces (compressions and tensions) that are generated within the HRS with the view to determine the architectural patterns (i.e. military and civilian organisations) and their related responses.

#### **4.5.5.6 Compressions and tensions that characterise the HRS**

Although the description of HRS architecture as a system based on tension integrity or tensegrity theory, it is the information potential that is embedded in this system of structural organisation that is important to this study. Ingber and Jamieson (1985:22) argue that “[e]very position in a complex architectural structure may be defined by the tensions, compressions, moments, and shear forces characteristic of that point in the structural assembly”. It is on the basis of this positional information that the researcher states that the HRS form emerges from a physical interaction between the humanitarian agencies and their anchoring substratum or convening authority. Ingber and Jamieson (1985:23) state that the HRS geometry represents an equilibration between an array of architectural forces (i.e. compressions and tensions) that can be transmitted over specialised molecular assemblies (e.g. military and civilian organisations).

The foregoing theoretical line of thinking points to the HRS geometry and its related OAD as being structurally determined. Ingber and Jamieson (1985:23) state that the expansion and differentiation of entire societies of humanitarian assemblies are “regulated through a directed redistribution of structural forces” with the common humanitarian objectives as the anchoring foundation. The researcher submits that existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that regulate the OAD point to the military organisation as a compression-dependent structure that is inherently rigid and well adapted for a rapidly changing HRS. Conversely, the researcher submits that civilian organisations represent a tension-dependent structure that is flexible and poorly adapted for a rapidly changing HRS. This theoretical line of thinking finds support in the observation that the interdependence of military and civilian



organisations that respond to “devastating complex emergencies around the world is becoming more evident” (Archer, 2003:32).

The researcher submits that cellular biology offers a theoretical model that juxtaposes the cytoskeleton, microtubules, microfilaments, intermediate filaments, and microtrabeculae lattice against the military and civilian organisations, convening authorities in response to complex emergencies, and the existing regulatory frameworks in the form of pieces of legislation and policy frameworks. In this instance, the military role is not limited to protection but includes supporting civilians in pursuit of humanitarian objectives. In facilitating relations between military and civilian organisations within the HRS, the international organisations recognise OCHA as the only legitimate authority, while the UN guidelines on the use of military organisations in response to complex emergencies remain the only acceptable regulatory framework besides various MOUs between countries and humanitarian agencies.

The foregoing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and theoretical frameworks succeed in grounding the notion of MOAD within the HRS. The researcher therefore argues that the MOAD finds expression in both public administrative practices and theory. The foregoing discussion forms the basis for the theory of MOAD. Although this study did not intend to test the theory of MOAD, it is important to establish the thought process that leads to this theoretical formulation.

#### **4.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter began by breaking down the notion of MOAD into OOTW and OAD as its fundamental building blocks. The researcher therefore argues that the concept of the MOAD finds expression in the point of convergence between the OOTW and MOAD. In this chapter, the study also established the relationship between military and civilian organisations within the context of humanitarian responses to complex emergencies. In doing so, the researcher depended on existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks. The second part of the chapter explored existing international pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that regulate possible relations between military and civilian organisations in pursuit of humanitarian objectives. The researcher therefore argues that shared operational activities for humanitarian assistance between the

military and civilian organisations constitute the first step in support of the Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Furthermore, the researcher borrowed from the systems thinking theories to establish possible connections between the military role and the Agenda for Sustainable Development. In doing so, the researcher argued that a policy-based connection exists between the military role and the Agenda for Sustainable Development as evident in envisaged military-civil partnerships in peace and security. The foregoing theoretical line of argument was based on the theory of systems thinking, biomimicry, principles of life that advance the symbiotic assembly of life forms, design by analogy to biology, metaphorical reasoning, and tensegrity systems. The claim for military-civil partnerships in support of development rests on the cross-cutting nature of peace and security as an Agenda for Sustainable Development. In deepening the understanding of the military role in support of development, the researcher found it necessary to draw from historical military experiences in Southern Africa while being conscious of established pieces of legislation and policy frameworks.

## **CHAPTER 5: DEEPENING THE MILITARY ROLE IN SUPPORT OF DEVELOPMENT**

### **5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

This chapter intends to deepen the understanding of the military role in support of development within the context of the HRS and related pieces of legislation and policy frameworks. The researcher therefore depends on the most common utterances that emerged from existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks, while intimately connecting the emerging data to enable the development of a valid, reliable, and testable theory (Eisenhardt, 1989:532) on MOAD. The researcher is further guided by the primary research question in this study, which is follows: What are the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa?

In situating this primary question within the practice of public administration, the researcher takes a cue from “*a priori* specification of constructs” (Eisenhardt, 1989:536) as a point of departure with the view to establish empirical grounding for the theory of MOAD. In doing so, the researcher depended on “learning from experience as the fundamental process of case-based reasoning” (Schank, 1996:295). In this instance, the case-based reasoning draws from the historical military experiences related to the so-called development support in Southern Africa – the use of military forces as a way of life. The study did not intend to examine the moral imperatives of these historical experiences but rather to establish the “origin” of policy-based military operational activities in support of development in Southern Africa.

### **5.2 THE MILITARY ROLE AS WAYS OF LIFE: PROBING THE STAKES**

Jansen (2007:63) supports the notion that ways of life need to be changed if sustainable development is to be achieved. In conceptualising the “ways of life” and how they relate to sustainable development, public officials, among others, are advised to appreciate the existing connections between the objectives enshrined in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Jansen (2007) affirms that changing values and attitudes remain central in the understanding the “ways of life” at various

levels, namely individual, positional or sub-cultural, structural or national, and global. At the positional level, Jansen (2007) states that military and civilian organisations in pursuit of the development agenda represent the manifestation of their sub-cultures that influence their respective planning processes. Furthermore, the positional relationship between military and civilian organisations in pursuit of the Agenda for Sustainable Development represents particular status groups, social classes, and various movements and networks that underpin connections within groups and “differing positions within the social structure” (Jansen, 2007:65).

The foregoing discussion finds expression within the historical military experiences in Southern Africa that may assist in the understanding of the military role in support of development and related positional differences. For purposes of this study, the researcher used the common utterances drawn from the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, namely protection, durable peace, and equitable access to services. The researcher advances the notion of protection as the recognition of the interdependence of people and nature in view of enhancing a harmonious or peaceful relationship between societies and their natural environment, while humanity enjoys equitable access to biodiversity services. Any deviation from this norm constitutes a major threat to peace and stability in Southern Africa.

In expounding on the foregoing theoretical line of thinking, the researcher subscribes to Sarkesian (1981:285) in arguing that the irresistible penetration of the military by society and the penetration of society by the military in industrial societies are increasingly recognised in both theory and policy practice. The researcher argues that the origin and nature of the penetration of the African society by European military organisations offer the opportunity to broaden and deepen the understanding of the military role in support of development, which forms the framework for the theory of MOAD.

Case studies have been developed from the historical experiences of selected countries in Southern Africa, namely Angola, Botswana, the DRC, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. For purposes of addressing the origin of the linkages between the military role and the development phenomenon, the researcher traces the roots of such connections to the historical European industrialisation in Africa.

### 5.3 TRACING SOME ROOTS OF EUROPEAN INDUSTRIALISATION IN AFRICA

In linking the militarisation of development in Africa with European industrialisation projects, the researcher finds it necessary to purposefully take a cue from the so-called “conquests of civilisation”. Although the concept of colonialism remains the most popular in this construct known as “conquests of civilization”, this study is limited to the notion of “protectorate” as an administrative arrangement that distinguishes these “conquest of civilisation” in Southern Africa. Although Chirol (1922:57) states that the term “protectorate” may mean several things, this theoretical construct deserves deeper exploration and the Egyptian experience is relevant as a generic case study.

This section begins with the proclamation of the Egypt protectorate of 1914, which states that “the right over Egypt, whether of the Sultan of Turkey or of the ex-Khedive, is forfeit to His Majesty, King George” (Chirol, 1922:57). It is true that all Egyptians shared the common and intersubjective understanding of forfeiting the right of their land to His Majesty, King George as the meaning of British administration within the intersubjective Egyptian understanding (Innes, 1986:2). In this clinical historical scenario, Innes (1986:33) observes that the British became more advisory at the strategic political level, supervisory at the lower levels, and in the middle level, the British officials provided services to the Egyptian government as under-secretaries, heads of department, and directors-general.

Furthermore, Innes (1986:33) states that British officials possessed no executive authority in theory, but in practice they controlled all government business. Relevant to this study is the observation that the British occupation of Egypt in 1882 saw the British military officers assuming “effective control of practically the whole administration” (Chirol, 1922:56) of the country. Likewise, Innes (1986:34) affirms that the objectives of the policy on military occupation were to sustain the Egyptian stability and solvency while serving the British developmental interests, which was the military’s role in safeguarding Egypt’s repayment of its debt to Britain without any interference from other possible conquerors.

Given the limitation of funds in Egypt, the International Convention on the Egyptian Public Debt was signed on 18 March 1884 in London, which paved the way for the subsequent proclamation of the protectorate in 1914. The researcher submits that the

Egyptians understood the intersubjective meaning of protectorate from the “reasons which had prompted His Majesty’s Government to proclaim a Protectorate over Egypt in 1914” (Chirol, 1922:55). Chirol (1922) further states that this shared intersubjective meaning of “protectorate” may also be solidified by the earlier experience of the Egyptians when a “protectorate” was proclaimed over their country as a province of the Ottoman Empire.

The researcher argues that these two separate experiences of the Egyptians with the notion of protectorate gave birth to armed resistance as evident in the Muhammad Ali rebellion, Egyptian Nationalist Movement, and the end of the protectorate system on 28 February 1922 (Innes, 1986:236). At stake is the territorial sovereignty and integrity of the Egyptians in the hands of “His Majesty” and military administration – public administration and development management that are left in the hands of the military officials under the protectorate system.

In this particular instance, the researcher takes a cue from Stanley (1890:15) and Chirol (1922:59) in exploring the impact of the protectorate system in defining the nature of military occupation in most African states, with public administration effectively left in the hands of those military officials. For example, Chirol (1922:58) states that much work has been done under Lord Cromer, who assumed large responsibilities and “raised the general standard of the public service, and ... reared a generation of more efficient and self-respecting Egyptians” (Chirol, 1922:58). Furthermore, Stanley (1890:12) states that the end of the American Civil War left the military officers without employment and “many thronged to Egypt to lend their genius to the modern pharaoh, and to realise his splendid dream of empire”.

Important in the foregoing synthesising argument is not the *effectiveness* (see Section 4.1) of the Englishman in his “conquest of civilization” but the observation that the European military officers were deployed in the Office of Public Administration in Egypt – the historical European “ways of life” in Africa. Given the foregoing clinical scenario on the Egyptian experience, the positional differences between the Egyptian society and English military officials offer the opportunity to reflect on a taxonomy relevant to military operational activities as “ways of life”. The foregoing been said, the ultimate aim of this thesis is not to justify the military role as a “way of life” in development

projects but to establish the historical origin of the MOAD, namely the European military expeditions in Southern Africa.

#### **5.4 EUROPEAN MILITARY EXPEDITIONS IN SOUTHERN AFRICA: SELECTED COUNTRIES**

When John MacKenzie raises the public administration question and calls for a solution in Southern Africa, he suggests that the region appeals to the European statesmen, promoters of the protectorate system, broad-minded philanthropists, friends of peace, and “multitudes who are interested in Commerce” (MacKenzie, 1887:v). The researcher submits that MacKenzie and other experienced colonialists offer a rich understanding on the roots of the military role in the industrialisation of Europe with particular reference to exploitations in Southern Africa. This study did not intend to justify or crucify the colonial statesmen but to identify the long-standing patterns that may assist in building a substantive theory on MOAD.

##### **5.4.1 The establishment of the Bechuanaland Protectorate Administration in 1885**

Mogalakwe (2006:70-71) states that Britain reluctantly offered protection to the Batswana people in 1885 after suffering defeat in the Anglo-Boer War of 1881. Mogalakwe (2006) further provides that this offer was enforced by the mounting fear of the arrival of Germans in South West Africa (current Namibia) and the presence of the Portuguese in Mozambique. After Britain declared protection over the Batswana territory, the country dispatched a military expeditionary force to reassert control over what became known as the Bechuanaland Protectorate Administration in January 1885 (Mogalakwe, 2006:71) in Mahikeng. The researcher presents that the reluctant offering of protection to the Batswana people by the British government raises some questions on the meaning of the notion of a protectorate. Stated differently, whose interests are being protected in this protectorate system?

In answering the foregoing question, Mogalakwe (2006:69) advises on the importance of the first arrival of the London Mission Society in the 1840s that brought about continuous and sustained contact between the Batswana tribes and European communities. The empirical evidence points to the mutual benefits between South and

North that is evident in their growing trading infrastructures and utilities. Mogalakwe (2006:70) supports the notion that these mutual trading relations were disrupted by the Charter of the British South African Company (BSAC) of 1889 that prompted military expeditions and territorial occupation in Southern Africa in pursuit of grasping the development opportunities that were emerging in Southern Africa. Important to this study is the military occupation of the territory in relation to the notion of a protectorate.

In establishing the first protectorate in Southern Africa, Zins (1997:54) observes that Major-General Charles Warren carried out a military expedition in 1885 to effectively inaugurate and occupy the British Bechuanaland protectorate. Important at this stage is the observation that the military occupation of the Batswana territories was met with armed resistance by the local indigenous communities (MacKenzie, 1887:101). Among others, the nature and patterns of armed resistance reflect in the following passage:

When a police patrol attempted to arrest Galeshiwe in February 1897, violence erupted once again. Tlhaping, under Galeshiwe and Luka Jantjie, and Tlharo, under Chief Toto, now put up an unusually long-lived resistance. Fighting a defensive war, they twice repulsed the full body of the expeditionary force, once managing to attack the main camp itself. For nearly eight months, resistance continued ... [A] well-equipped government force of over two thousand men had taken nearly eight months to effect the suppression of probably no more than 1 500 half-starved and ineffectively armed Tlhaping and Tlharo combatants (Saker & Aldridge, 1971:11).

Evident in the above passage is the fact that the three kings (Galeshiwe, Jantjie, and Toto) had their own formidable forces with the role to protect their territories. In strengthening the British military occupation in the Batswana territories, Zins (1997:56) states that the missionaries used the mission press to call on the Batswana to surrender to Warren's expeditionary forces, stating that "the intervention of a British administration was essential to peace, to preserve order between races, to maintain the Road to the North from the Transvaal and to promote change" (Zins, 1997:56). This implies that the desired outcome of the British military administration was to establish durable peace among nations, build road maintenance infrastructure, and promote change and/or sustainable development.



The truth in this mission press statement is not relevant besides identifying the roots in the understanding that the military has the role of promoting durable peace and sustainable development in Southern Africa, which is the *first* attempt in demystifying the concept of military role. At stake are the British armed forces attacking the traditional warriors in their own territories without any provocation. On the other hand, these African warriors demonstrated the responsibility to protect territories from foreign invasion – the constitutional prescripts in all countries selected in this study.

Although the Cape-to-Cairo issue will be discussed in this study, it is important at this stage to deepen the understanding of the military role in promoting durable peace and sustainable development. In doing so, three observations are relevant, which are discussed below.

*Firstly*, Article 1 of the Convention of London, 27 February 1884, provides for the “districts” known as Goshen and Stellaland as the territories of the then South African Republic. These two districts were already established in 1881 and 1882 respectively into the New Republics by the Transvaal government of Paul Kruger. These establishments were intended for the Afrikaners’ expansionism “across Southern Africa without bringing on a direct, legally clear cut confrontation with the British” (O’Connor, 2005:69). O’Connor (2005:71) confirms that Major-General Warren’s Bechuanaland Field Force was instrumental in persuading Kruger to withdraw from Bechuanaland on 24 and 26 January 1885 as a condition of protecting the Batswana people.

Although this argument may sound unfathomable, it is true that the military role became necessary in negating the conditions for durable peace between Major-General Warren’s Bechuanaland Field Force and Paul Kruger’s Transvaal. In doing so, Transvaal agreed to order his “freebooters” out of Goshen and Stellaland, and Warren established the military administration over these two Republics while demanding true loyalty to the Crown from those “freebooters” or Boers who remained. In this particular case, the researcher assumes that loyalty ordered by this military administration remained a desirable condition for sustainable peace.

*Secondly*, the British annexation of the Republics of Goshen and Stellaland never addressed the protection question of the local indigenous communities (O’Connor, 2005:71) called the Barolong-bo-Ratshidi. The origin of these local communities is

understood among them as “a land in which rain was plentiful, which was traversed by great rivers and expansive lakes and where the fertility of the soil made things grow relatively easily” (Matthews, 1945:10). These communities continue to survive with the riverside agronomic practices along the Molopo River to date. Important for purposes of this study is the observation that once settled along the Molopo River, these communities prospered, grew in numbers, and were ruled in succession by various kings (Matthews, 1945:11).

*Thirdly*, it is also important that as the Barolong people grew in numbers and prospered, they experience internal threats (e.g. warring factions) and external threats (e.g. sporadic raiding by the Boers, Batlokwa, Matebele, Korana, and Mantatees/Makoloko). Both threats resulted in these communities migrating to several territories in search of peace and a safe haven from their enemies – durable peace – which the scattered remnants of the tribe did not find until the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Matthews, 1945:12). Matthews (1945:13-14) affirms that in their migration in search for peace, these communities took their cattle, sheep, and goats, driven by a “multitude of men, women and children whilst a horde of armed warriors brought up the rear”.

This historical experience explains the deep-rooted military role in searching for durable peace and sustainable development while protecting society. Among other scattered villages of Barolong-bo-Ratshidi are Mahikeng, Bodibe, Khunwana, Moshaneng, Thaba-Nchu, Morokweng, Phitshane, Lotlhakane, Tshidilamolomo, Disaneng, Setlagole, and Mareetsane. On the notion of sustainable development and the Barolong people, lessons can be learned from the group that migrated to Setlagole under the leadership of King Tshésébe. Matthews (1945:12) states that King Tshésébe’s followers lived for several generations in a surrounding territory that provided them with relatively fertile soil for their harvests and good grazing for their livestock, and they thus entered into a period of unprecedented wealth.

#### **5.4.2 The establishment of the German protectorate in South West Africa in 1884**

The researcher traces the first contact between the German community and indigenous people (“Nama-Herero”) of Namibia to the arrival of German missionary societies in February 1805 in South West Africa. Weigend (1985:160-161) states that

missionaries were effective in the establishment of agriculture, urbanisation projects, and the establishment of the subsequent German protectorate. Important to this study is patterned “settlement, transportation, and activities formed during the period 1884-1915” (Weigend, 1985:161). Among other developments, Weigend (1985) mentions the establishment of amenities for the German military forces such as fortified forts, and the construction of a railroad from Swakopmund (port of entry) to Windhoek. Also important is the land surveillance that enabled the settlement of 334 German farmers chiefly in the Windhoek-Okahandja-Karibid region, who were mostly former military personnel.

These settlements were near the missions and alongside the railroad under the protection of the military forces. Important to this study is the dictum of “the flag follows trade” (Meritt, 1978:97), which defines these unusual foreign and colonial administration arrangements. Berat (1993:173) observes that this unusual colonial administrative arrangement have enabled small independent groups (e.g. German Colonial Society) to form and to advocate German protectorate since 1805, although with little or no success. For purposes of this study, the focus is limited to Franz Adolf Lüderitz, the tobacco merchant, and the *Gesellschaft für Deutsche Kolonisation*, or German Colonial Society.

Berat (1993:174) states that in May 1883, Lüderitz purchased Angra Pequena harbour and the land surrounding it from Captain Joseph Fredericks, the traditional leader of the people of Bethanie in South West Africa. Berat (1993) also establishes that three months later, Fredericks signed a treaty with an “X”, and allegedly sold the entire coast to Lüderitz, from the Orange River to the 26<sup>th</sup> degree of the southern latitude, including bays, harbours, and hinterland to a distance of 20 miles (32.19 km). As this tobacco trader understood the German foreign policy on trade and as an advocate of German expansionism, Lüderitz then called for the German protection of his new farm in South West Africa, called Lüderitzland.

On the other hand, the neighbouring Rhenish Missionary Society called for German protection, particularly due to the Herero-Nama war of 1880. Although the political issues surrounding the request for the German protection of Lüderitzland is outside the scope of this study, relevant are the four most important administrative actions that

took place, which are discussed below (Berat, 1993:174; Plowman, 1995:7,9,34; Pfister, 2006:64).

*Firstly*, the 1880 Herero-Nama War led to bloody conflict with the European missionaries while traders were also targeted. Germany appealed to the British Cape Administration for the protection of German missionaries and was denied, except in Walvis Bay, which was claimed as British property.

*Second* is the administrative decision on 24 April 1884, whereby the Chancellor of Germany, Otto von Bismarck, cabled the German Consul in Cape Town with the order to declare officially that Lüderitz and his Lüderitzland were under German protection.

*Third* is the German Warship that presented to the British Warship a “deed of sale” signed by Captain Fredrick – affirming that the deed possessed by the British Warship was null and void – the claim of mining lease in the Namib mainland. This implies that the German government was using military power to protect Lüderitz’s development interests and his Lüderitzland against possible threats from the British elements.

*Fourth* is the administrative decision on June 1884 whereby London reluctantly accepted the Germans’ diplomatic victory and accepted Germany’s sovereignty in Angra Pequena or Lüderitzland. The official hoisting of the German flag took place on 7 August 1884, signalling the official act of declaration of Lüderitzland as a protectorate. In the same year, the entire Angra Pequena coastal area was declared a protectorate. In 1885, Lüderitz sold the property to the German Colonial Society for South West Africa, which continued to enjoy the right of protection from the German government.

The foregoing administrative actions affirm that the military role is an implementation machinery with multidimensional roles in pursuit of development projects. In this particular case, the ability to deter the British from interfering with the dictum of “the flag follows trade” is evident in Lüderitzland. Development projects were not limited to tobacco farming but included building roads, exporting guano as fertiliser, mainstream economy farming, missionary operations, industrial infrastructure, mining industries, trading and markets systems, and related diplomatic missions. The researcher finds it necessary to discuss the German protectorate in East Africa.

### 5.4.3 The establishment of the German protectorate in East Africa

The establishment of the German protectorate in East Africa is directly linked to the German Colonial Society. Meritt (1978:97) states that Kaizer Willem I signed an Imperial Charter (*Schutzbrief*), drafted under the administration of Chancellor Von Bismarck, which placed the identified territories of East Africa under the protection of the German *Reich*. Meritt (1978) confirms that this protection declaration was based on treaties made by the indigenous regional chieftains (Usagara, Ukami, Nguru, and Useguha) and Carl Peters, the co-founder of the German Colonial Society during November and December 1884. In endorsing Peters' claimed territories in East Africa, Chancellor Von Bismarck approved the deployment of more German expeditions. The political complexities surrounding this declaration are beyond the scope of this study, except the following three administrative issues (Meritt, 1978:97,101-104):

*First* is the announcement of the Imperial Charter when German companies were already engaging in trade in East Africa and never pressed for the establishment of the protection in the region. The announcement of the Imperial Charter raises the question of the interests on the part of Carl Peter and Chancellor Von Bismarck that are beyond the scope of this study, except the announcement as an administrative tool. It is important to note that the sultan of Zanzibar already signed a treaty of amity and commerce with the Hanseatic Republics of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck in 1859. This agreement saw the value of German imports increasing as the overall volume of trade in Zanzibar increased and surpassed all competitors, including Britain. The researcher submits that economic development served as a motivation for the establishment of the German Consul in Zanzibar in September 1884.

*Second* is the observation that the German Colonial Society was never given any official support for its endeavours in East Africa when Carl Peters proceeded to make treaties on 20 September 1884 and the claim that 12 treaties were obtained in mid-December that year. On 30 January 1885, Count Felix Behr-Bandelin, a prominent figure in the German Colonial Society, wrote to Von Bismarck, declaring his territorial acquisitions that would reach as far as to the west as Lake Tanganyika and Nyasa.

*Third* is the decision made by Von Bismarck to provide protection to the German Colonial Society, and to task Gerhard Rohlfs to establish the facts around free passage between the German industries in Zanzibar and the territories claimed by

Carl Peters in the mainland in East Africa. Following such confirmation, Von Bismarck drafted the report to the Kaiser Wilhelm I, describing Peter's chartered company and recommending its placement under imperial protection. On 27 February 1884, the Kaiser approved the sovereignty of the German East Africa protectorate with the German Colonial Society as the chartered company and other emerging opportunities that included agriculture, tourism, plantations, and mining prospects.

Common in these imperial protectorates is a constitutional order (*Verfassungsordnung*) of the German *Reich*, with obligations, commitments, responsibilities, and legal instruments available to safeguard the rights of its own people in accordance to its own constitutional arrangements and traditions. This implies that the Germans were not obliged to protect the indigenous people in the mainland of East Africa but remained with the discretionary powers of Chancellor Von Bismarck. The German military officers (*Schutztruppe*) were deployed in administrative and economic offices as in East Africa (Moyd, 2014:1). It suffices to state that the German industries in East Africa flourished thanks to very strong military support.

#### **5.4.4 The establishment of Portuguese protectorates in Angola**

Hochschild (1999:7) reflects on the successful expedition of the Portuguese naval captain, Diogo Cão, who set off in 1482 and stumbled onto the largest mouth of the Congo River. His personal experience finds expression in the limestone inscription at the mouth of the Congo River, which reads as follows:

In the year 6681 of the world and in that of 1482 since the birth of our Lord Jesus Christ, the most serene, the most excellent and potent prince, King João II of Portugal did order this land to be discovered and this pillar of stone to be erected by Diogo Cão, an esquire in his household (Hochschild, 1999:8).

Clarence-Smith (1979:166) asserts that the end of the Portuguese Civil War in 1830 represents the emergence of the bourgeoisie regime ("liberals") and a new Portuguese state with factions of classes and national interests (Clarence-Smith, 1979:167). This socio-political situation set the stage for the post-1830 Portugal that is governed by classes motivated by economic interests and not the state or the people. Important to this study is the manifestation of the Portuguese class interests in the evolution of the

socio-economic development projects in Angola. Also of importance to this study are the three administrative actions, as found by Clarence-Smith (1979:168-171) and which are stated below.

*First* is the desperate need by the Portuguese liberals to maximise revenue from the market for investments in critical infrastructure. Among others, they imposed differential tariffs on cargoes transported by foreign ships, for purposes of affording protection to the Lisbon ship owners and merchants as emerging industries in the urban areas. Portugal had to depend on slave trade as the major pillar of revenue and economic development. This administrative arrangement that sought to improve development may appear bizarre, but reflects the truth. Important to this study are the outcomes of these administrative actions in relation to the development project.

*Second* is the unwillingness of the Portuguese government to sign the anti-slavery treaty with Britain in 1842, which led to the establishment of the Court of Arbitration, which dealt with slavery in Luanda, Angola. This implies that the outcome of the above administrative actions was the new administrative arrangement that deals with slavery as a means of promoting the development projects in Angola. Consequently, the crumbling slave trade was substituted by export commodities, which included palm kernel, coffee, palm oil, wild vegetable oil, ground nuts, fisheries, cotton, ivory, plantation, rubber, and wax. It is unfortunate that the abolition of the slave trade reproduced the internal slave-run plantation factories in Angola. It is important at this stage to note that the objective of anti-slavery administrative arrangements was presented as the “conquest of civilisation”, as evident in the Berlin General Act of 1895.

*Third* is the initiation of the policy on internal expansion in the 1850s by the Portuguese liberals, whereby trade was forcefully rerouted to the Portuguese port by military capability. This internal expansion policy entailed the extension of direct taxation of the African people, in view of recovering the costs of the military conquests and garrisons. This military capability was also used to prevent the ivory trade from falling into the hand of the Walvis Bay traders. This implies that the military capability was necessary in maximising revenue from the market for investments in critical infrastructure, in the view of the Portuguese liberals.

The foregoing discussions seek to establish the use of the military capability in building the economy and not to justify or crucify the policy practitioners in serving their own



interests in a foreign country. The lesson learned is that the military role was viewed necessary for building the Portuguese economy. Although the nature of the military role remains a blur in relation to the Portuguese liberals, important to this study is any form of evidence that points to possible connections between the military role and development projects in Angola. The policy on internal military campaigns suggests forced taxation of the African people for purposes of sustaining the military operations that sought to promote the ivory trade and other development projects.

#### **5.4.5 The establishment of Britain and Germany in the mainland of East Africa**

Brown (1974:201) affirms that the various pathways of the so-called “protectorate” was largely dictated by the incessant desire to gain access to the trade systems in the Northern and Southern Hemispheres, particularly since 1874. The researcher submits that this desire was paralleled by an increasing competition between Britain and Germany that led to the Anglo-German agreement of 1886-1887,<sup>121</sup> the Anglo-German Heligoland-Zanzibar Treaty of 1890,<sup>122</sup> and the Uganda debate of 1892. The East African territories affected by these treaties include modern Tanzania, Kenya, and Uganda.

On 26 October 1886, the first Anglo-German agreement was signed between Dr Frederick Krauel (German representative) and Sir Percy Anderson (British representative) concerning the delimitation of the Sultanate of Zanzibar in addition to the British and German areas of influence on their respective north and south territories of the East African mainland. The territory of the Sultanate of Zanzibar was limited to the islands of Zanzibar, Lamu, Mafia, Pemba, and the coastal zone as was recommended by the Boundary Commission.

Given the abovementioned agreement, De Groot (1953:120) states that the Anglo-German agreement did not only divide Zanzibar into German and British spheres of activities, but also leveraged the control of the British East Indian Company over Zanzibar and neighbouring islands and their invaluable spice trade; and leveraged the supremacy of the German East African Company over the neighbouring mainland

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<sup>121</sup> The two parties agreed that their spheres of influence in East Africa should be divided by a line running from the south of Mombasa (then the north of Kilimanjaro) to a point on the eastern shore of Lake Victoria.

<sup>122</sup> Placed additional territory (most of modern Uganda) under British influence.



territories in the south of the “north-south partition”. The guiding principle in the north-south partition was the caravan route to Uganda as an official trade centre, with the caravan route reaching the coast of Pangani placed under the Germans, and the caravan route terminating at Mombasa placed under the British. Although the Tana and Rovuma rivers served as territorial boundaries in respect of the north-eastern and southern frontiers, their significance is less important to this study as opposed to the military activities within all the East African territories.

The researcher submits that the caravan routes offered the opportunity to access the hinterlands of East Africa for both European settlement and their broad socio-economic interests. In achieving these objectives, two major administrative actions are relevant to this study, as indicated by De Groot (1953:122), Pyeatt (1988:7,37), and Gjersø (2015:843,851).

*First* is the military occupation of the northern partition of East Africa that enabled the British to settle in the regions of Uganda and the Upper Nile River. There are various political reasons for the British military occupation of the mainland, but most important is the linkage between the Upper Nile and Egypt. Relevant to this study is the military role in securing the British protectorate in East Africa. For strategic reasons, the Imperial British East African Company found it difficult to survive in Uganda and planned to evacuate in 1891 and 1892, but such intentions were rejected by Lord Salisbury on diplomatic grounds. Pressured by the occupation of Uganda while operating at a huge loss, Salisbury was left only to persuade the government for financial support while conscious not to mention the strategic importance of Egypt and the Suez Canal.

The first memorandum from the War Office that was presented by Staff Captain Hubert Foster briefly provides the history of Uganda and a summary of British interest. Important at this stage is the military role in facilitating the interdependence of society, nature, and development. This facilitation process is also evident in the second and third memoranda presented by Major Reginald Wingate of the Egyptian Army Intelligence Department on the possible negative impact of the British withdrawal from Uganda on Egypt. Finally, Egyptian Army Brigadier-General Sir Herbert Horatio Kitchener also presented his views in a memorandum regarding the significance of maintaining British rule over Uganda. Following protracted and superficial

administrative decisions on the geo-strategic position of Uganda, the remaining land separating Uganda and the sea was eventually declared a British protectorate in 1894-1895.

The researcher does not intend to venerate the military role in the development project but seeks to satisfy the “big question” in the study of Public Administration by establishing the *origin* of the role of statutory forces in the development projects in Southern Africa.

*Second* is the award of protection to Peters and his business company by Chancellor Von Bismarck while operating in the southern partition of East Africa. On 3 March 1885, Kaiser William I made a proclamation granting charter rights to the southern partition of East Africa. This charter granted Peters’ company, the German Society for East Africa the right to control the southern territories of East Africa, which included Ukami, Usagera, Useghu, and Naguru.

Since the German occupation was marked by military resistance from the Sultan of Zanzibar, Von Bismarck ordered a squadron from the German navy to Zanzibar to demand the Sultan’s recognition of Germany’s claimed territories. Von Bismarck also recommended a commission of enquiry regarding the legitimacy of the Sultan’s claims. The Sultan finally recognised the German protectorate and withdrew his claims on 14 August 1885. This researcher submits that this withdrawal affirms the military role in protecting the development interests of the German people in Zanzibar.

The established commission led to the Anglo-German agreement that defined the Sultan’s legitimate territories. In supporting Germany’s cause, Britain pledged to support Germany in acquiring leases on the ports of Pangani and Dar es Salaam. The Sultan also reluctantly renounced claims to Wetu and recognised the German protectorate’s claims thereto. These forced concessions gave way to the increasing resentment towards Germany in the mainland and violent resistance to the German Society for East Africa administration. The foregoing discussions seek to establish the military role within the context of effective occupation and facilitating the interdependence of society and nature, while conscious of its negative impact on the native population. The truth is that the military capability was used in the resettlement and development of the German people in the southern territories of East Africa.

#### 5.4.6 The establishment of the British protectorate in Zambia

Marjomaa (2003:413) states that the first British missionary station was established in 1875 at the southern tip of Lake Malawi. Marjomaa (2003:416) argues that the chieftain of the local Yao community made a crucial mistake by accepting the British missionaries as innocent agents since the British government used the same missionaries to conquer Malawi and to finally establish British rule in 1895 at minimum cost. In an attempt to balance the downfall of the traditional powers and possible consequences, the British government established a new native authority by linking the Yao chiefdom to the “lower levels of [the] colonial system” (Marjomaa, 2003:416). In ensuring peace and stability, the British introduced the District Administration (Natives) Ordinance of 1912, which prescribed a clear chain of command between the headman, the chiefs, and the imperial administration.

For purposes of livelihood for the European settlers in the protectorate, the British government allocated a reserve with the most fertile land and plantation economy. Much has been written about race relations during this period of colonisation, but important to the study is the administrative actions that may assist in tracing the roots of possible connections between the military role and development projects. In doing so, the researcher depends on two observations made by Marjomaa (2003:418-420) and Harrison (2016:8).

*First* is the use of African mercenaries by the British missionaries for protection. The recruitment of soldiers into the Central African Rifles regiments began with the absorption of these mission-based mercenaries, mostly from the Yao people and other delinquents from elsewhere. Most of the recruits who carried the sporadic conquest of Malawi were former indigenous musketeers from Zanzibar and Mozambique and consisted of a mixture of Indians and Africans. Arabs started trading with the Yao people in East Africa – mainly ivory, grains, and slaves in exchange for guns and clothes. The mercenaries were also disgruntled and hungry former African soldiers and delinquents who assisted in conquering Malawi for their own survival. In this particular case, the researcher submits that the use of hungry African soldiers and hardened hungry criminals by the British missionaries signals the historical roots of the military role in protecting people.

*Second* is the establishment of the Central African Rifles regiments that was motivated by the British experience with the so-called native troops. The most important experiences include the following:

- All officers were Europeans;
- Indian regiments were positioned as the core of reliable military veterans;
- The primary role of regiments was to preserve the British rule over the native people;
- Separation of volunteers into imaginary ethnic groups to ensure the loyalty of African recruits and to prevent possible revolts against the European masters;
- Avoidance of volunteers from the chiefdoms that were not yet effectively subdued; and
- Yao ex-musketeers were easily absorbed into the peace force since they were already subdued by the Portuguese and understood the rigours of the military “ways of life”, how to handle a firearm, and other challenges of the wider world.

It suffices to say that the European military officers used these African forces to promote the development interests of their home countries.

#### **5.4.7 The establishment of European powers in the Congo Lake region**

Hochschild (1999:65) states that Henry Morton Stanley set off to the Congo in February 1879 under the organisation called the Committee for Studies of the Upper Congo, and later gave this particular African expedition a new cover name, namely the International Association of the Congo. Hochschild (1999) further states that care was taken that the International Association of the Congo and the original Committee for Studies of the Upper Congo were seen as the same thing by using the flag of the International African Association (IAA) adopted at the 1876 Brussels Geographical Conference. Among other ambitious plans that emerged from the Brussels conference was “a line of stations lined together along a route between Zanzibar and Luanda with ‘branch lines’ to other stations at the mouth of the Congo, near the sources of the Nile, and on Lake Nyasa” (Bridges, 1963:27). Hochschild (1999:64) reminds us that this was the first and last meeting of the IAA. Bridges (1963:28) observes that since then, the absence of commitment from other countries enabled France, Germany, and Italy to begin their own independent series of exploration in Africa.

Since February 1879, much has happened and was published in European news letters from various sources, including public speeches by Stanley and King Leopold II on the progress of the anti-slavery and humanitarian operations in the Congo Lake region. Important to this study is the accidental meeting between Stanley and Count Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza, the French naval officer and an explorer. These men met in a tent belonging to Stanley that was pitched next to the lower rapids of the Congo River. Hochschild (1999:70) states that the shock from that first meeting produced a second greater shock when Stanley found that De Brazza had signed a treaty with a local “chief ceding to France a strip of the northern shoreline” of West Africa. This confrontation between these two military men, Stanley and De Brazza, is to be understood within the context of European development projects – the envisioned trading stations along the route from Zanzibar to the mouth of the Congo River.

In responding to the quick manoeuvres by De Brazza, the king of the Belgians, Leopold II, invited this French naval officer and offered him the “Order of Leopold”, but failed to procure his service for his envisioned empire building in the Congo. In strengthening Stanley’s mission, Leopold II hired Sir Travers Twiss, an Oxford scholar, to provide a legal opinion to support the right of private companies to operate in foreign countries while securing treaties with indigenous chiefs (Hochschild, 1999:71). Hochschild (1999) further states that Stanley was under legal instruction to command his armed forces against the indigenous people of the Congo during the empire-building project. The atrocities caused by Stanley’s forces against the indigenous people of the Congo are well documented. Important to this study are the historical roots of the military role in the development projects in Africa, in order to prevent the same mistakes from being repeated.

Among other claimed successes, Stanley and his “powerful private army, equipped with a thousand quick-firing rifles, a dozen small Krupp cannons, and four machine guns” (Hochschild, 1999:71) managed to fly the flag of the IAA over territories of the Congo, with more than 450 chiefs ceding the sovereignty of the Congo Basin to King Leopold II. More important to this study is the statement that the Congo chiefs transferred their territorial sovereignty to King Leopold II for almost nothing for purposes of his personal development project – the use of the military in the development project.

#### 5.4.8 The establishment of Portuguese power in Mozambique

Although the boundaries of the Mwenemutapa Empire remain unknown, Chirenje (1973:38) states that the terrain covered portions of what is now Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, and South Africa. Chirenje (1973:37) confirms that the indigenous African people already traded in gold within the Mwenemutapa Empire in the year 1506. Chirenje (1973) further states that when Vasco da Gama arrived in Mozambique in 1497, the Arabs and indigenous people had already established a flourishing trade in gold, silver, and ivory in south-eastern Africa. As the authority of the Paramount Chief of the Mwenemutapa Empire continued to be challenged by his feudal chiefs, the first Jesuit priests arrived at the Mwenemutapa capital of the Zimbabwean Empire in 1560 (Chirenje, 1973:39). The tension between the then African religion and Western Christianity finds expression in the following passage:

Father Silveira then proceeded to Zimbabwe, where he was accorded a warm welcome by the reigning Mwenemutapa, Nogomo Mupunzagutu, late in 1560. As a gesture of goodwill Nogomo offered his guest wives, gold, cows, and land, but Silveira declined them, saying that he preferred spiritual pursuits to material things. Ironically, in refusing the gifts Silveira obstructed his own purposes, since Nogomo construed his actions as those of one adept at black magic ... the initial encounter between king and priest created a barrier between them (Chirenje, 1973:40).

Chirenje (1973:40) states that King Mupunzagutu ordered the death of Father Silveira by strangulation in January 1562, following a glowing conspiracy by the Arabs. Chirenje (1973) also presents that since the religious pretext failed to gain a hold on the Mwenemutapa Empire, the Portuguese were determined to re-establish its sphere of influence by waging war against King Mupunzagutu. In doing so, Chirenje (1973:43,48) states that the affected Portuguese applied to a “commission of lawyers and theologians” called Mesa da Consciencia, and permission was granted in January 1569 for the waging of war on four counts, which are as follows:

- Chief of Mwenemutapa had killed Father Silveira;
- Chief of Mwenemutapa had robbed Portuguese of their property;
- Chief of Mwenemutapa allowed the Arabs to live in the Mwenemutapa Empire;
- and

- Mwenemutapa refused the minister of the church to preach the gospel to the Mwenemutapa people.

The abovementioned counts may appear more legal in nature but the use of the military role in effecting punishment suggests being incongruent in this particular matter. Although Chirenje (1973:43) argues that the decision of the Mesa da Consciencia was more influenced by economic and political consideration than the required legal opinion, the researcher observes that the Portuguese war against the Mwenemutapa people was waged for self-aggrandisement, as well as “the hope for gold and riches expected from it [territory]” (Chirenje, 1973:43) – the military role in the development projects. For example, Chirenje (1973) argues that killing the Arabs would constitute the economic dimension of war since they traded with ivory and silver.

Chirenje (1973) confirms that the resultant brutal killing of the Arabs led to the collapse of the Mwenemutapa Empire and the emergence of Portuguese military dominance in Mozambique, which form the link between the military role and development projects. Important to this study is the observation that the Portuguese used the military capability to establish their development programmes in Mozambique and not its desirability or undesirability. Furthermore, this observation will assist military leaders to avoid repeating the same mistakes in future generations.

Chirenje (1973:48) states that the military expedition of 550 ex-colonial soldiers saw 370 men abandoning their mineral plunders shortly after victory in favour of the more lucrative trade in cloth and ivory. The Portuguese recruited more European and Brazilian soldiers, and other African auxiliaries, and continued to engage in other battles in Mozambique. Gray (1971:531) provides examples of the following battles:

- In July 1572, between Francisco Barreto’s expedition and the “Mongases” on the south of the river between Tete and Sena, with the fruit of Portuguese victory being 50 cows.
- In 1602, between the Diogo Simões Madeira expedition, with the support of the Mwenemutapa army, against the followers of Matuzianhe, with the fruit of Portuguese victory being the “the foundation of the prazo system” (Gray, 1971:532), or colonisation of the Zambezi River and its existing and potential natural resources.



- The major battle was lost in 1684 against the bowmen of Changamire Dombo in the Battle of Mahungwe, whereby the African auxiliaries fled at midnight and left the Portuguese musketeers and Dombo merely to gather the plunder.

The foregoing discussions and examples are intended to establish the strong foundation for the *origin* of the military role in development projects in Southern Africa. The researcher therefore seeks to satisfy the requirement of the “big questions” in the study of Public Administration as advocated by Behn (1995) and his followers.

#### **5.4.9 The establishment of the British Matabeleland protectorate**

In an attempt to bring about theoretical convergence between military activities in Southern Africa and the development of the Matabeleland protectorate, the researcher takes a cue from the effects of Shaka Zulu’s empire-building wars, which resulted in massive killings, insecurity, and forced displacement in various parts of Southern Africa. For purposes of this study, the migrations towards the middle Zambezi River (Matabeleland) is relevant. This migration pathway was led by King Mzilikazi in 1822 to Matabeleland.

This king and his experienced warriors defied King Shaka’s authority by refusing to hand over all the cattle he raided from the Basotho tribes, and were thus forced to flee KwaZulu, or former Zululand, with about 300 of the Khumalo tribe (Rasmussen, 1976:53).

Much has been written about Mzilikazi’s conquest as a migratory predator. Relevant to this study is the establishment of the Matabeleland protectorate in 1891. Such early moves are found in the following statement by Rasmussen (1976:59), which states that during

his career as a migratory leader, Mzilikazi had operated as a roving predator. His band moved in an apparently compact, but growing, single body; it moved from place to place, occupying existing kraals, capturing livestock and people, and consuming other peoples’ accumulated food stores. Mzilikazi seems to have had no interest in establishing a self-supporting settlement in the eastern Transvaal, and his followers apparently decided to leave Pediland once they had used up all the supplies they had captured.



The above statement shows the ideology of the military role in forced occupation, forced consumption, and forces' access to natural resources as the population grows. This ideological position becomes evident when Mzilikazi and his people used full military power to displace people from their indigenous agronomic practices and dispersed them to various parts of Southern Africa. The prevalent terror at the time of Mzilikazi affirms the interdependence of people and nature, as shall be explained next in some detail.

Baxter (1961:57) traces the British connections with the Matebele from Robert Moffatt's first meeting with King Mzilikazi in 1829. Baxter (1961) states that Moffatt established a missionary centre in Inyati in Matabeleland following his fourth visit to the king. Baxter (1961) also states that the death of Mzilikazi in 1869 set the stage for concession predators against the new King Lobengula's dominion. Although the predatory tactics were known to King Lobengula, the son of Mzilikazi, the British succeeded in outmanoeuvring him and brought the Matebele dynasty to a painful end in 1890. It must be evident at this stage that the Portuguese were increasingly penetrating Mashonaland from the east through the process of colonising the Zambezi River. In strengthening the British dominance in Africa, with a strong impact on Central Africa, Keppel-Jones (1960:74) affirms that the British chartered company tamed the power of Mashonaland's western neighbour, Matabeleland, by placing it under unified administration in a territory that was later called Southern Rhodesia.

Although much has been written on the British occupation of Matabeleland and the establishment of Southern Rhodesia, this study is limited to three administrative arrangements, as found in Keppel-Jones (1960:75-77,81-82) and Palmer (1971:45-46).

*First* is the London Missionary Society, which started to operate in Matabeleland in 1859, and gold that was discovered in 1867. The controversial agreement between King Lobengula and John Globler that gave the Transvaal government substantial privileges in Matabeleland was brought to the attention of the British High Commissioner, Sir Hercules Robinson, through Cecil John Rhodes (Brown, 1966:73-74). The instruction was then issued through the Administrator of the Bechuanaland protectorate, Sir Sydney Shippard, to his assistant, John Smith Moffatt, the son of Robert Moffatt, to prevent concessions. John Moffatt was a missionary, but was

appointed to the political post, most probably for strategic purposes. Among others, Robert Moffatt was very close to Mzilikazi and John Moffatt was close to King Lobengula, the son of King Mzilikazi.

The researcher submits that the foregoing social relations provide the basis for the social dimensions of sustainable development in contemporary Southern Africa – consciousness of militarised state capture for future generations. The instruction issued by Sir Shippard required John Moffatt to persuade King Lobengula to sign a treaty that committed the Matabele King not to enter into any treaty with any foreign state without the knowledge of Her Majesty's High Commissioner for South Africa. The Moffatt treaty was signed on 11 February 1888, and was the first successful step towards the realisation of the British dream of expanding its dominance from the south to the north of Africa, or the Cape-to-Cairo imagination.

Important also is the Royal Charter that was proclaimed on 29 October 1889, which granted the BSAC large powers of administration to execute the objectives for which it was established, namely:

- to extend northwards the railway and telegraph system of the Cape Colony and Bechuanaland;
- to encourage immigration and colonisation;
- to promote trade and commerce;
- to develop and work mineral and other concessions with mineral rights reserved to the company;
- to establish military police placed under the direct control of the High Commissioner; and
- to appoint the High Commissioner residing with the Secretary of State in Britain (Keltie & Renwick, 1900:213).

The researcher argues that the foregoing administrative arrangements situate the state as the principal and the company as an agent, with the military police as an implementing mechanism in advancing the British interests in Matabeleland.

*Second* is the Rudd Concession that was signed in October 1888 between King Lobengula and Rhodes' agents (Rudd, Thompson, and Magure) and confirmed with the mark of the Elephant Seal that gave the concessionaries sole mining rights in the

whole Matabeleland dominion. The treaty further empowered the concessionaries to disregard all other persons who sought concessions of land or minerals. The benefits of this monopoly included 1 000 Martini-Henry breach-loading rifles, 100 000 rounds of ball cartridges, £100 payable on the first day of each lunar month, and a steamboat on the Zambezi.

Although King Lobengula refused to accept the rifles (Keppel-Jones, 1960:82), important to this study is the evidence that effective military occupation of territory in Southern Africa remained a priority in this monopoly. It is during this period that Cecil Rhodes “succeeded in amalgamating the diamond-mining interests in Kimberley into the great monopoly of De Beers Consolidated Mines” (Keppel-Jones, 1960:75). The 1889 Royal Charter also mandated the BSAC to exercise administrative powers, which included the promotion of immigration and the granting of land after signing concession with relevant chieftaincy (Keppel-Jones, 1960:76).

Although the Rudd concession on the mining right operations was limited to Lobengula’s dominion, John McKenzie and the British explorer F.C. Selous planned and executed the conquest of the African people in Matabeleland and Mashonaland (Keppel-Jones, 1960:76). On 12 September 1890, MacKenzie’s plan to recruit a small party of pioneers (186 armed men) and a small force from the BSAC’s police was successful as they reached the point where Fort Salisbury was erected and conquered Mashonaland without any resistance (Keppel-Jones, 1960:77). Important also is Keppel-Jones’ (1960) observation that this regiment conquered Matabeleland on its return from Mashonaland and Lobengula and his people fled to the north.

Keppel-Jones (1960) also provides that this regiment was home-based in the Bechuanaland protectorate. In summarising the foregoing observation, Cecil Rhodes fully depended on the military role in his development project in Matabeleland. On 14 August 1893, Star Jameson, the right-hand man of Cecil Rhodes in Rhodesia, signed a secret agreement with the would-be settlers (British origin) “in Fort Victoria for the invasion of Matabeleland” (Moyana, 1976:270). Among other agreements, each combatant or attacking force member was entitled to mark out a farm in any part of choice in the Matabeleland. Moyana (1976) affirms that during this military recruitment phase, immigrants of European origin poured into Matabeleland in considerable

numbers in the first few months of 1984 in pursuit of the actual and potential natural resources in Matabeleland.

It is important to note that the initial refusal of the Europeans in Victoria to invade the Ndebele territory of Bulawayo in 1893, regardless of the existing obligation to do so on behalf of the BSAC, prompted the Jameson agreement – the desperate independence of people and nature. Jameson incorporated their demands into the Victoria Agreement of 1893, stipulating that: (45) everyone who took up arms was entitled to a farm of 3 000 morgen (6 350 acres) anywhere in the territory of Lobengula; each man was also entitled to five alluvial and 15 reef claims; and the plunder of the Ndebele cattle was to be shared, with half given to the BSAC and the remaining half divided among the military officers.

On the part of the indigenous military forces, Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2008:43) observes them as “a nation defined by culture rather than ... politics” and imbued with the responsibility to protect their people and their natural resources, while the European forces may be defined as a “nation defined by politics and profit motives” (see Stigger, 1971).

The latter claim is based on the following observations:

- Within a few months after the European occupation of Bulawayo, the most arable territories passed into the ownership of private individuals and commercial private companies.
- The countryside about 60 miles or more around Bulawayo was allocated as farms with 5.4 million acres alienated to the Europeans.
- The Land Commission that was appointed on 10 September 1893 to search alternative land for the indigenous people, produced its report on 29 October 1893 and recommended two remote and virtually uninhabitable reserves in the Gwaai and Shangani areas estimated to be 3 500 and 3 000 square miles respectively (Palmer, 1971:47).

## **5.5 DISCUSSION**

The foregoing military experiences are not intended to embrace the military role in development projects but to satisfy the “big question” in Public Administration – to

begin with the historical *origin* of a phenomenon under scrutiny within a particular area of interest. The researcher began by linking the use of African warriors in ancient times in the building of empires or kingdoms with reference to the military experiences during the regimes of King Shaka, Moshoeshe, Mzilikazi, and Mwenemutota. These military experiences were intended to set the stage for the European military expeditions in Southern Africa, thus grounding the conceptualisation of the military role as “ways of life”.

The common ideas, concepts, values, attributes, and categories that emerged from these military experiences were developed from the “*a priori* specification of constructs” (Eisenhardt, 1989:536) already discussed in previous chapters in this study – grounding *a priori* constructs by “learning from experience as the fundamental process of case-based reasoning” (Schank, 1996:295). As a point of departure, the researcher began with the proclamation of the Egypt protectorate of 1914 and then examined the values and attitude of His Majesty, King George, towards the Mediterranean Sea, its actual and potential services within the context of the then prevalent positional differences with the Ottoman Empire, and the political decision that led to the identification of Egypt as a strategic territory in protecting Britain’s interest.

Furthermore, Stanley (1890:12) affirms that the American Civil War left military officers without employment; thus many migrated to Egypt to lend their military experiences to the modern pharaoh to achieve his dream of empire building. Finally, it is evident that all Egyptians possessed their own positional values and attitudes towards forfeiting land to His Majesty, King George (Innes, 1986:2). In this particular instance, three emergent concepts are relevant, namely sets of mundane administrative practices, intersubjective attitudes, and positional differences that appear to make sense in a particular context (see Jensen, 2007:65,67).

The researcher argues that the foregoing concepts represent manifestations of “ways of life” and find expression in the historical military role in Southern Africa. In expounding on these synthesising constructs – the military role as “ways of life” – the researcher depended on selected historical military experiences in Southern Africa. From the nine selected countries or territories, the most common emergent attributes

include, but are not limited to, military presence and governing regime interests, strategic interests and bargaining powers, and rapid responses and collective efforts.

### **5.5.1 Military presence and governing regime interests**

The first set of constructs points to the realities of relations between the “governing regime’s interests” and “military presence” in all nine selected cases in this study. It is true that this historical relationship continues to dominate the post-colonial public administration in Africa and elsewhere in terms of political decisions on the use of military organisations. In exploring the Arab Spring uprisings, Ismael and Ismael (2013:229) observe that the post-colonial political order represents the political legacy of colonialism whereby inherited patterned regimes are refined in accordance with the international development prescripts while strengthening their subjugated status within the global market system. Ismael and Ismael (2013:229) argue that the Arab Spring was an attempt to chart a new trajectory towards democracy and civil rights – the so-called “civilizational project” that led to major changes in Tunisia, Egypt, Bahrain, Libya, Yemen, and Syria.

The researcher submits that the Arab Spring represents positional differences between citizens and a particular governing regime based on the understanding of mundane administrative practices and intersubjective attitudes that contribute to differing “ways of life”. Important to this study is the collective search for human rights that are entrenched in the Agenda for Sustainable Development. Besides the strong debate around the North Atlantic Treaty Organization’s (NATO) 2011 intervention in Libya that was openly supported by the UNSC, this study submits that the UN Resolution of 1970 (2011) is a clinical representation of selective military intervention with the view to protect the civilian population from systemic violence orchestrated by their own government.

The existing evidence from the selected cases affirms that the military hostility and violence against the civilian population from the highest level of the governing regimes were the “ways of life” during the European military expeditions in Southern Africa. In response to these hostilities and violence, the African people found it necessary to mobilise power within and among them, popularly known as the “liberation struggle”, to rise to the occasion.

For example, among other military leaders are:

- Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo of Zimbabwe;
- Andimba Toivo ya Toivo and Sam Nujoma of Namibia;
- Holden Roberto and Jonas Savimbi of Angola;
- Filipe Magaia and Samora Machel of Mozambique;
- Nelson Mandela and Chris Hani of South Africa;
- Julius Nyerere and Abeid Karume of the United Republic of Tanzania; and
- Laurent Kabila and Joseph Kabila of the DRC.

Common among these military leaders is their unremitting determination to claim the humanitarian rights and dignity of the indigenous people of Southern Africa. Stated differently, the positional differences between the European and indigenous people in Southern Africa manifested in military roles as “ways of life”. Furthermore, the existing evidence suggests that the values and attitudes of the emergent military forces remain guided by the governing regime’s interests. For example, the legislation and policy frameworks that guide the SANDF are explored in detail in Chapter 6, as the longitudinal case study. The preliminary findings are then extended to other selected countries, as multiple sites, for purposes of strengthening theoretical grounding and deepening density.

In tracing the relations between military presence and the governing regime’s interests elsewhere, the case of Korea is relevant, namely the divided Korea and China’s “historic distrust of Japan” (Haselden, 2002:121). The emergent positional differences, values, and attitudes towards each other, which attracted the US military presence to the Asian region, led to a strong alliance with South Korea and Japan with shared interest in strengthening regional peace and stability. Haselden (2002:125) also observes that “it is in the best interests of the Republic of Korea and the United States to maintain the US presence in the Korean Pacific”. The foregoing administrative arrangement is not unique to the USA and Asian countries. Important is the fact that the deployment of military capabilities is controlled by the state to serve the interests of the public and their natural environment as determined by the ruling regime.

### 5.5.2 Rapid responses and collective efficacy

The second construct draws from theories on rapid responses and collective efficacy. The researcher also depends on the growing awareness of the interdependence of people and nature (Berkes & Ross, 2013; Colding, 1998). On the other hand, the researcher is intrigued by sustainability researchers who advocate the need for specific policies designed to address the rapidly changing natural environment (Chapin III *et al.*, 2010). For purposes of this study, two key issues that characterise these parallel but reinforcing constructs, namely rapid responses / collective efficacy and people/nature interdependence, are explored within the context of adaptive management.

In addressing rapid responses, Edna Einsiedel and Bruce Thorne provide various forms of *uncertainties* that may influence the effectiveness of policy responses. Among others, they observe that “uncertainty is a social construction, one that is negotiated among actors in a social system that includes various publics” (Einsiedel & Thorne, 1999:44). In this particular instance, the notion of a *protectorate* was a common social construct that was negotiated between the European officers and African chiefs from uncertain positional differences, with the “conquest of civilisation” on one side and the recognition of the interdependence of people and nature on the other side. Article 35 of the 1885 Berlin Act requires the signatories to acknowledge their obligation to assure the establishment of foreign authority in the African regions occupied by them, which is sufficient to protect existing rights, and freedom of trade and of transit under the conditions agreed upon.

In fulfilment of Article 35 of the 1885 Berlin Act, the European powers depended on the military role to establish authority, and to protect their claimed land, its people, and resources. Furthermore rapid military responses were necessary due to contending interests between Britain, Germany, and Portugal over the abundant natural resources of Africa and cheap labour – the manifestations of the *first wave* of European industrialisation in Africa. The foregoing military experiences shed light on rapid military responses and a collective efficacy<sup>123</sup> in the conquest for civilisation and the

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<sup>123</sup> Refers to the ability of the political community to control the behaviour of individual communities in pursuit of intersubjective development.



desire to promote the positional interdependence of people and nature in situations of uncertainty.

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter paved the way for the understanding of the military role as “ways of life” in Southern Africa. The chapter opened with the relationship between the British military officers and Egyptian public officers at various levels of public administration following the proclamation of the Egypt protectorate of 1914. In this particular opening, emphasis was placed on the Egyptians as sharing an intersubjective meaning of forfeiting the right of their land to His Majesty, King George, which was the beginning of positional differences, mundane administrative practices, and intersubjective attitudes. The researcher takes this theoretical argument by conceptualising the military as “ways of life” in Southern Africa – contextualised as normal life, social capital, and necessity with reference to positional differences among the contending parties.

In expounding on this theoretical line of thinking, the researcher explored the historical military experiences in Southern Africa with the view to identify common events that may assist in this theory-building project. Nine sites were identified for purposes of selective case building under the themes of European military expedition and industrialisation in Southern Africa. The researcher used the metaphorical expression “military as ways of life” to establish the positional differences that manifested in the European military expeditions in Southern Africa. The common position is the use of military officers in the administration of protectorates – the military “conquest of civilization”.

The researcher asserts that the European military expeditions and their role in the administration of protectorates serve as original evidence that points to the military role in MOAD. Although the concept of MOAD is defined as the point of convergence between the OOTW and MOOTW, its intellectual history that is rooted in human experiences remains important for purposes of building a substantive theory. The researcher therefore finds it necessary to establish the envisaged theory on military operational activities within the context of the military as a profession.

## CHAPTER 6: THE MILITARY PROFESSION AS A METAPARADIGM

### 6.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The concept of military professionalism is traceable to the Socratic dialogue writings of Plato, titled *The Republic*, which was published around 380 BCE. In Book II of *The Republic*, Plato emphasises art, skill, application, and a combination of qualities, spirited nature, love for wisdom, learning and knowledge, swiftness and strength, gymnastics of the body, music of the soul, education, and virtuous thoughts as the distinguishing features of the military officer as the guardian of the state.<sup>124</sup> In crafting the concept of military professionalism, Huntington wrote a book, titled *The Soldier and the State: The Theory and Politics of Civil-Military Relations*, which was published in 1957. Three years later, Janowitz published a complementary scholarly work, titled *The Professional Soldier: A Social and Political Portrait*.

An important lesson from Huntington and Janowitz is their structuralist approach to defining the military profession by using a set of attributes. For the former, this set of attributes are expertise, responsibility, and corporateness (Huntington, 1957:8-10), while Caforio (2006:218) observes that Janowitz (1960) emphasises social importance, organisational autonomy, ethical code, and moral obligation. Besides the general consensus on the importance of understanding the core features of the military professionalism, the researcher finds it necessary to broaden the scope by engaging the fundamental components that define the military metaparadigm within the context of public administration practices.

In exploring the concepts of military professionalism and its metaparadigm, this study relied on the methods of qualitative analysis and qualitative syntheses. Ritchey (1991:21) states that the terms “analysis” and “synthesis” come from the Greek words *análysis* and *syntithenai*, which literally mean “to loosen up” and “put together” respectively. Ritchey (1991) affirms that although analysis and synthesis are defined differently, they are both used in scientific inquiries to denote similar investigative procedures. In this study, previous chapters were used “to loosen up” selected pieces

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<sup>124</sup> Translated version of Book II of *The Republic* by Plato, by Instituto de Desenvolvimento do Potencial Humano (2002:226-235).

of legislation and policy frameworks. The emergent data were then “put together” to establish the connections between peace, security, and development, or the peace-security-development nexus. This recursive process is central to theory building in this study of military operational activities in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa.

For purposes of developing the higher-order constructs, the researcher begins with the argument that the study of military operational activities must be understood within military metaparadigms. In this instance, a military metaparadigm refers to the “greater structure (the metaphysical paradigm) [that] acts as an encapsulating unit, or framework, within which the more restricted, or higher-order, structures develop” (Eckberg & Hill, 1979:927). Eckberg and Hill (1979) would agree on establishing the building blocks (metaphysical paradigm) of the military profession as an encapsulating unit. The researcher therefore seeks to establish the foundation in generating the higher-order concepts that distinguish the military operations strategy in support of development with the view to build the theory of MOAD.

Fawcett (1996:94) states that the importance of the greater military structure or metaparadigm is to outline the functional components of the military operations strategy while creating the boundaries for its distinguishing properties. The researcher established four sets of the functional components of the military operations strategy on the basis of Plato, Huntington, Janowitz, and policy-based mandates in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Contending higher-order constructs on the military metaparadigms**

Platonism	Hungtingtonism	Janowitzism	Policy-based mandates
Learning and knowledge	Authority	Autonomy	Duty to protect the state
Gymnastics of the body	Responsibility	Considerable social importance	Duty to protect the citizens
Art and skills	Expertise	Ethical code	Duty to protect territorial integrity
Swiftness and strength	Corporateness	Systems of coercion	Upholding of military professionalism

Source: Developed from the contributions of Plato, Huntington (1957), Janowitz (1960), and selected national constitutions in Southern Africa

Moreover, the researcher submits that these four sets of functional components are complementary and reinforce one another. Since the study is driven by a strong

interest in public administration practices as opposed to civil-military relations, the scope of the functional component is limited to the following:

- Ethics-bound responsibility to swiftly protect the state;
- The authority to fully exploit military learning opportunities, gained knowledge, and flexibility in protecting the citizens from threats other than war;
- Competence-based military frameworks for coercion in protecting the natural environment; and
- Military science as a foundation for professionalism.

The abovementioned higher-order constructs are relevant in guiding further analysis in this chapter. In this regard, grounded theory methodology provides the “procedure by which we break down ... substantial whole into parts or components” (Ritchey, 1991:12). Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010:96-97) advise that theory building in Public Administration needs to consider the culture, values, and political and social environments that influence the phenomena under scrutiny. In this instance, the major consideration that influences the use of military capabilities in support of development include the political mandate, social importance, code of ethics, competence, and professionalism.

Furthermore, Gioia and Pitre (1990:58) provide that the multiparadigm approach is the means to establish “the correspondences between paradigms and theory construction efforts”. In this instance, the researcher seeks to establish possible correspondences between the theory of military competency – both culture and values – and the duty to protect the state, people, and environment as metaparadigms. In enhancing the multiparadigm approach, Sebola and Nkuna (2012:70) advise on borrowing from “political science, philosophy, economics, organisation theory, sociology, social psychology, and any other related science that can assist”. Furthermore, Sebola and Nkuna (2012) affirm that knowledge of Public Administration is fundamentally a discourse articulated in narrative forms through scholarly dialogue.

Given the foregoing scholarly advice, this chapter is arranged in two parts. The first part articulates the narrative manifesting in the form of pieces of legislation and policy frameworks on the military administrative arrangements between 1994 and 2015 that define the evolution of the military role in South Africa. This narrative constitutes the

longitudinal study that is the referential point in this study. The second part attempts to provide an integrated discussion of public administration and certain worldviews on possible connections between the military role and sustainable development. This integrated discussion seeks to identify corresponding patterns from selected multiple sites within the Southern African region for purposes of theorising the MOAD.

## **6.2 REFLECTION ON THE MILITARY AND POLICY IN SOUTH AFRICA: 1994-2015**

This section presents a longitudinal case study on military experiences in South Africa over a 20-year period, since the dawn of democracy in 1994 until 2015. Much has been written on the history of this country and related transformation processes, which is beyond the scope of this study. Relevant are case-based pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that reflect critical trajectories that define the contemporary military role, with possible influences on the Agenda for Sustainable Development, namely:<sup>125</sup>

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996);
- Defence Act and Regulations (42/2002);
- DoD Management Doctrine (1997);
- Command Doctrine GWU (90 of 1997);
- SANDF Annual Report (2014);
- DoD Transformation Design Workshop, held from 6 October 1997 to 5 December 1997;
- South African White Paper on Defence (SAWPD) (1996);
- South African Defence Review (1998);
- South African Defence Review (2015); and
- South African NDP: Vision 2030.

The cases under scrutiny are arranged as follows. The researcher takes a cue from the foregoing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks and focuses on the four pillars of military metaparadigms, namely the state component, people component, environment component, and professionalism component. The identified properties of these components are then synthesised or “broken down” to enable qualitative

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<sup>125</sup> All these official documents are the properties of the South African DoD and are available in the public domain, including the Internet.

analysis of common ideas, concepts, metaphors, attributes, and categories. In doing so, the researcher seeks to establish the higher-order constructs that may assist in the theory-building process.

### **6.2.1 Conceptualisation of the state component of the military metaparadigm**

The state component of the military metaparadigm situates the function of government within the context of the Agenda for Sustainable Development in respect of the new logic of the developmental state – the state playing a “strategic role in taming the domestic and international market forces and harnessing them to national ends” (Öniş, 1991:110). Although this logic of a developmental state recognises the existence of other development models such as strategic industrial policy, and political and institutional arrangements, a more penetrating explanation is sought from the existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks in Southern Africa on the nature of the proposed logic – the developmental state that tames the domestic market and regulates the international market through the lens of its own ideological orientation and positional difference. This penetrating explanation is informed by the unique historical circumstances of South Africa – the negation of a single-minded approach to economic growth and productivity that prevents the replicability of popular imaginations around developmental states to other countries.

In seeking deeper explanations, the researcher argues that emergent constructs may provide *exemplars* of experiences and prototypes for purposes of qualitative analysis. Although most proponents of the logic of the developmental state focus on the market economy, this study is limited to durable peace as a function of the state and the Agenda for Sustainable Development. The researcher therefore takes a cue from the notion of “selective intervention” (Öniş, 1991:124) in taming the domestic market and regulating the international market on the basis of structural or positional differences as an attribute of South Africa as a developmental state.

For purposes of conceptualising South Africa as a developmental state within the context of the military metaparadigm, the 2015 South African Defence Review is relevant. In that context, the Chairperson of the Defence Review Committee, Mr Roelf Meyer (in DoD, 2015:iii), states as follows: “As a developmental state, South Africa faces the onerous task of addressing a number of pressing developmental challenges,

including poverty, unemployment, inequality and criminality.”<sup>126</sup> Meyer (in DoD, 2015:0-4) further affirms that the Defence Force in a developmental state has to be expressed in policy that is aligned to the traditional defence function.<sup>127</sup> Important also is the ability of the Defence Force to contribute “to the social upliftment of the South African people within the context of a developmental state” (Meyer, in DoD, 2015:3-12).<sup>128</sup>

The foregoing discussions attest to the *state* as a component of the military metaparadigm – the restricted higher-order level of meaning-consensus on the MOAD. Stated differently, the developmental state may delegate the military organisation to selectively intervene in pursuit of OAD.

### **6.2.2 Conceptualisation of the people component of the military metaparadigm**

The people component of the military metaparadigm positions the selected constitutional mandate within the context of the Agenda for Sustainable Development in respect of the logic of transformation. The researcher therefore depends on section 200 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996:200-202)<sup>129</sup>, which states: “The primary objective of the Defence Force is to protect the Republic, its territorial integrity and its people in accordance with the Constitution and the principle of the international law regulating the use of force.”<sup>130</sup> In response to this constitutional prescript on protecting the people, the DoD engaged in a transformation workshop between 6 October 1997 and 21 November 1997 with the purpose of providing strategic direction to strengthening integration within the new Defence Force in the post-apartheid South Africa. In an attempt to deepen the people component within the SAWPD with focus on defence in a democracy, transformation became a necessary tool in the light of situating the security of the people at the centre of policy formulation and implementation.

In illustrating the foregoing line of thinking, Mashike (2008:441) states that the military organisations that began the SANDF in 1993 consisted of combatants who were not

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<sup>126</sup> Defence Review 2015.

<sup>127</sup> Ibid.

<sup>128</sup> Ibid.

<sup>129</sup> Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996.

<sup>130</sup> Ibid.

a homogenous group. For example, APLA and MK were trained in guerrilla tactics while the SADF, Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei forces were trained in conventional military tactics. During this period of transition, the Chief of the National Defence Force, General G.L. Meiring states that the integration of these forces was the “largest programme in that century for any defence force in the region” (DoD, 1995:1). Meiring states that the “internal situation in the RSA required the NDF to deploy large number of troops to support the SAPS [South African Police Services] in maintaining law and order” (DoD, 1995:1). Furthermore, this annual report of 1994/95 states that the National Defence Force (NDF) was committed to support the reconstruction and development programme (RDP) that was considered to be important at national level as evident with the SA Medical Services (SAMS) in rendering comprehensive health service to the public that pertains to the RDP (DoD 1995:12).

Given the foregoing observation, the researcher submits that the SANDF continues to be committed in supporting the people of South Africa as shall be determined by the political authorities – putting the security of people at the centre of the military metaparadigm. This implies that the military role must be understood within the context of protecting people, namely the military role as a *social utility* for measuring effectiveness in governance. In dealing with protecting people at the higher-order level of abstraction, Gladwin, Kennelly and Krause (1995) advise on shared operational indicators as meaning-consensus - *connectivity* in particular:

The concept of sustainable development is based on the recognition that a nation cannot reach its economic goals without also achieving social and environmental goals that is, universal education and employment opportunity, universal health and reproductive care, equitable access to and distribution of resources, stable populations, and a sustained natural resource base (Gladwin *et al.*, 1995:879).

The principle of *connectivity* provides the operational indicators for the measurement of the people component of the military metaparadigm. For example, speculation on the interdependence of people and nature affirms that the state will only reach its economic goals when the military organisation is capable of protecting the people and the natural environment. Amongst others, the military is capable of promoting desirable conditions for education, job opportunities, primary universal healthcare, and equitable access to natural resources. In this particular instance, *social utility* is characterised



by equitable access to broad-based services, human wellbeing, and environmental wellness.

### **6.2.3 Conceptualisation of the environment component of military metaparadigm**

The environmental component of military metaparadigm offers more insight into the connection between the military and the natural environment within the context of critical infrastructure interdependencies. The 1996 Constitution requires the military to protect the physical environment in South Africa. On the other hand, the South African Defence Review of 2015 acknowledges the importance of the physical environment in contributing to the socio-economic development of the country “as a middle-income, emerging economy, affluent in natural resources with well-developed legal, communications, financial, and energy and transport sectors” (DoD, 2015:1-3).

Furthermore, the South African Defence Review 2015 advises on the control over the ports of entry/exit as an important prerequisite for successful management of natural resources, and states that they “can be used for logistic supply and export of exploited natural resources” (DoD, 2015: 2-11).<sup>131</sup> The South African Defence Review 2015 also alludes to the sale of South African natural resources by infiltrating organised terror groups and cross-border trafficking.

The aforementioned resources are classified as “critical infrastructure” and/or “key assets” worldwide. Given the limitation of space and time, this study is limited to “critical infrastructure”. Although the concept of “critical infrastructure” is traceable to the Bush Administration’s 2003 report, titled *The National Strategy for the Physical Protection of Critical Infrastructures and Key Assets*, its relevance to this study is found in South Africa’s Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill of September 2017. The Bush Administration viewed the critical infrastructure sector as the foundation of “national security, governance, economic vitality, and way of life” (Bush, 2003:viii).

In its statement of policy, the Bush Administration committed to the protection of critical infrastructure against acts of terrorism. Among other guiding principles, the strategy on protecting critical infrastructure intended to “[a]ssure public safety, public

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<sup>131</sup> Defence Review 2015.

confidence, and services” (Bush, 2003:ix). Among other responsibilities, the state is required to facilitate “coordinated planning and preparedness for critical infrastructure ... protection, applying unified criteria for determining criticality, prioritizing protection investments, and exercising preparedness within their jurisdiction” (Bush, 2003:x).

On the other hand, the Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill’s (2017) definition of “infrastructure” is limited to “any building, centre, establishment, facility, installation, premises or systems needed for the functioning of society, the government or enterprises of the Republic”. Important at this stage is the shared view on “critical infrastructure” as the foundation for the natural capital and biodiversity services. Section 4(3)(b.ii) of the Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill (2017) establishes the composition of the Critical Infrastructure Council (CIC) and requires the Minister of Police to appoint officials at the rank of at least chief director, designated by various heads of department, including the DoD. Stated differently, the DoD is fully represented in the CIC.

The foregoing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks provide the basis for the military role in protecting the physical environment. Given the narrow scope of the Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill (2017) on the protection of critical infrastructure, the new concept of critical infrastructure interdependencies becomes relevant. In exploring this new concept, this study takes a cue from the categories of critical infrastructure as provided in the Bush Administration’s report (2003:35-69), namely government, water, agriculture, food, energy, public health, emergency services, defence and industrial base, chemical industry, banking and finance, information and telecommunications, transportation, postal services, and shipping. The researcher subscribes to the notion that South Africa’s “economic security rests upon a foundation of highly interdependent critical infrastructures” (Rinaldi, 2004:1). Although the South African government focuses on “installation” as opposed to the aforementioned broad categories, Rinaldi (2004) argues that this list represents the vital connectivity whose destruction would result in unbearable impact on national security, economic security, social security, health security, and others.

Furthermore, Zimmerman (2004:4059) states that infrastructure interdependencies are increasingly being recognised as both opportunities and a vulnerability. Although numerous examples of infrastructure interdependence exist, this study uses functional

interdependence for purposes of illustration. In this particular instance, the ongoing revolution in military affairs demonstrates the inseparability of the growing technology and related information systems. The claim on information technology as critical infrastructure is evident with the experiences of the Bush Administration with the 11 September 2001 attack against the USA, which comprised a series of four coordinated attacks by the Islamic terrorist group, al-Qaeda. The Critical Infrastructure Protection Bill of South Africa (2017) provides a comprehensive approach measure, among others, to be put in place to ensure the safeguarding of critical infrastructure. Chapter 2 of this Bill provides for the establishment and composition of the CIC with the DoD as a participant.

#### **6.2.4 Conceptualisation of the professionalism component of the military metaparadigm**

The professionalism component of the military metaparadigm is at the centre of military sciences and military professional practices – the normalisation of military operational activities. On its strategic communication intervention, the South African Defence Review commits to the SANDF, which is “an important pillar of the South African state and should be respected by the people of South Africa and the international community alike for the standards of military professionalism it cultivate and maintains” (DoD, 2015:xi).<sup>132</sup> In its overarching defence principle, the Defence Review subscribes to mission command as a leadership philosophy, and leadership and professionalism as the “cornerstone of future strategic, operational and tactical success” (DoD, 2015:0-8).<sup>133</sup>

Most important to this study is the notion of “military education, training and development system [that] endow officers ... with appropriate knowledge, skill and attitudes to advance the credibility and professionalism of the Defence Force” (DoD, 2015:11-3).<sup>134</sup> The South African Defence Review (DoD, 2015) emphasises “education, training and development as the basis of military professionalism and officership”. It is necessary at this stage to pause and explore historical explanations of the notion of military professionalism.

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<sup>132</sup> Defence Review 2015.

<sup>133</sup> Ibid.

<sup>134</sup> Ibid.

The origin of the notion of the military as a profession is found in the writings of Plato in *The Republic*. In his metaphysics on the form and institutions of the state, Plato argues that the military is the guardian of the state, with officers fitted with the qualities of a philosopher (Instituto de Desenvolvimento do Potencial Humano, 2002:230).<sup>135</sup>

In advancing the professional component of military metaparadigm, the researcher examined the three generic properties of military professionalism, namely expertise, responsibility, and corporateness (Huntington, 1957:6-17).

*Military expertise*: The Centre for the Army Profession and Ethic (2012)<sup>136</sup> supports the model of three tasks when developing military expertise, namely:

- applying corps expertise under mission command;
- persistently developing corps knowledge and related skills; and
- ascertaining the competence in core functions and relevance within related force structure elements.

The researcher submits that the foregoing three-task system is relevant in grounding military expertise as an attribute of the professionalism component of the military metaparadigm. In expounding on the notion of military expertise, the South African DoD's (1997b:14) Management Doctrine advances the attribute of applying "specific methods, procedures, and techniques in a specialised field ... technical skills of design engineering, aircraft pilots, submarine, telecommunication operators, accountants, musicians, and computer programmers ... often emphasised in educational courses and ... training".

*Military responsibility*: Given the various levels of military responsibilities, this study focuses on the responsibility to protect. Much has been written on the responsibility to protect, including its historical challenges, failures, and controversial victories. Relevant to this study is Chapter 3 of the South African Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), which explains in detail the legislative and policy issues on the employment and use of the Defence Force. In pursuit of these policy prescripts, the South African Command

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<sup>135</sup> Instituto de Desenvolvimento do Potencial Humano (2002:230).

<sup>136</sup> Chief of Staff of the Army established the Army Centre of Excellence for the Professional Military Ethics in May 2008, and is located at West Point, New York.

Doctrine (GWU 90) of South Africa prescribes the use of armed force within the SANDF as follows (DoD, 1997c:4-1):<sup>137</sup>

Commander must formulate objectives to be attained, compile plans, issue orders and guidelines, and lay down restrictions and delegate authority to subordinates. The commander must then be able to control activities at the lower levels in order to ensure that progress remains focused on achieving the primary aim.

In an attempt to coordinate the activities of the joint commander and his/her subordinate commanders, the South African Defence Review provides that the military operational activities “will be structured and organised according to *command* and *staff* [advisors] lines to facilitate functional liaison and promote effective command and control” (DoD, 2015:4-2).<sup>138</sup>

The military responsibility to protect is a strategic intent that is delegated to the operational commanders for execution. The notion of *control* is central to mission command for purposes of maximising operational successes; command and control is a fundamental construct in formulating military responsibility as an attribute of the professionalism component of the military metaparadigm.

*Military corporateness*: Although the military, like other professions, has its common experiences, community of interests, and shared values that bind the military profession together – the military corporateness that is strengthened by the limited *utility* of the military profession outside the domestic statutory structures; and the sharing of the common enemy that is integral to the profession – corporateness is a perfect bonding factor among soldiers (see Ginsburgh, 1964:256).

The foregoing passage sheds light on the mechanism used in establishing bonding among the former enemy – the foundation for corporateness. The sacrifices that underpin this bonding process find expression in the following words:

[Corporateness in] the case of Namibian ex-combatant was largely influenced by the nature of the transition to interdependence, [while] the South African case was largely shaped by the reconciliation agenda of the African National

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<sup>137</sup> SANDF Command Doctrine.

<sup>138</sup> Defence Review 2015.

Congress (ANC). ...suspending all armed actions, with immediate effect, while the government agreed to embark on an ongoing review of security legislation (Mashike, 2008:439).

The foregoing statement affirms that the seven armed forces that were integrated into the SANDF lost their individual independence in a corporateness of the national defence in pursuit of a new freedom – freedom from hate, murder, torture, and betrayal without remorse and shame.

Among other organisational values, the SANDF commits to service standards, namely the optimisation of defence capability in pursuit of peace and security by maintaining the standard of excellence and professionalism.<sup>139</sup> At the level of personnel management, the DoD commits to organisational values that are rooted in individual values and include, but are not limited to, *patriotism*. Reeds (2003:14) warns that *patriotism* “is not blind trust in anything that our leaders tell us or do”.<sup>140</sup> Reeds (2003) advises that we subscribe to *patriotism* that is grounded on ideas that yield new life to a country, while the memorable ideas that continue to reproduce the patriotic feelings become more relevant.

It suffices to say that Nelson Mandela’s idea on building the rainbow nation for all the people living in South Africa continues to reverberate in the memories of the international communities at large. The researcher argues that the idea of building the rainbow nation in South Africa has succeeded in bonding the members of the SANDF into corporateness. In further exploring the organisational values that strengthen corporateness, a cue is taken from the DoD’s (1997b:8) Management Doctrine that advocates the organisational culture that enables human potential.<sup>141</sup>

It must recognise human diversity and capability and capitalise on it. Moreover, it must be conducive to achievement and to meeting the goals of the government as well as the needs of the public. As part of its culture, the DoD also accepts an approach which is focused on achievement of tasks and meeting needs, rather than being focused on complying with rules.

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<sup>139</sup> Annual Report Financial Year 2009/10 (DoD, 2010:4).

<sup>140</sup> Lawrence W. Reeds is the president of the Foundation for Economic and Education and the author of “The real heroes and others”, posted on 1 July 2017.

<sup>141</sup> Extract from the DoD Management Doctrine.

In addressing the government objectives and meeting the needs of the public, the South African Defence Review 2015 presents two relevant tasks, namely Task 2 and Task 5, which are important in illuminating value-laden corporateness as an element of military professionalism.

*Task 2:* This task is founded on the understanding that South African security is ensured through the protection of both domestic and external interests. Responses to possible threats manifest through incremental approaches to their protection; first being the pursuit of collaborative efforts, followed by deliberate protection measures. Although the South African Defence Review of 2015 restricts the meaning-making of protection to the traditional military approach to conflict management, this study argues that collaborative efforts in the protection endeavours include incremental conflict prevention short of war – the value-laden attributes of MOAD in pursuit of government objectives and people's needs.

*Task 5:* This task is grounded on the understanding that installations and infrastructure that are deemed vital to the functioning of the state, its economy, and people's wellbeing must be protected accordingly. Although the South African Defence Review of 2015 is conscious of the pending bill on the Protection of Critical Infrastructure in South Africa, the definition of *infrastructure* is limited to installations and excludes non-tangible assets like primary healthcare, lines of communication, and others, as expanded in the Bush Administration Report of 2003 – founded on empirical evidence.

Important is the observation that the South African Defence Review of 2015 recognises the significance of collaborating with other security agencies and joint/combined planning for the standing protection force, which is the foundation of collective efficacy in fulfilling government objectives and the achievement of people's needs. The foregoing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and scholarly contributions illuminate expertise, responsibility, and corporateness as the elements of military professionalism.

### 6.3 INTEGRATED DISCUSSION ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND RELATED WORLDVIEWS

In an attempt to justify the steps taken to this point, it is necessary to reflect on some theoretical caveats and methodological issues at this stage in preparation for theoretical integration in Chapter 7.

Sindane (2004:667) and Theletsane (2014:18) share the observation that no one sentence or one paragraph that defines P(p)ublic A(a)dministration as a study or practice will be adequate. Although Theletsane (2014) successfully classifies selected definitions of Public Administration into various categories (e.g. political, legal, managerial, and occupational), most descriptions provided find solace within the generic administrative functions (see Theletsane, 2014:18-22,28-37,61-74) that underpin (P)ublic (A)administration as an art of government practices – policymaking, organising, financing, control, human resource, leadership, professional ethics, accountability, equity, delegated legislature or executive role-taking, and others.

The researcher submits that Theletsane (2014) presents a wealth of academic knowledge that is limited to the practice (arts) of Public Administration, while little or nothing is added to the “the science of government” (Wilson, 1887:198). It is true that Theletsane (2014) purposefully chose not to indulge in this confusion of thoughts. This study selected to follow the middle pathway between governance studies as an art and/or science. In doing so, the researcher depends on the historical military experiences in Southern Africa as the “roots” of the military-development nexus (see Behn, 1995; Kirlin, 1996; Neumann, 1996; Denhardt, 2001).

It is also true that much has been written on ethical issues in public administration. Among others is Mafunisa (2003:7-12), who wrote on conflicts of interest and professional ethics; Kuye and Mafunisa (2003:431-433), on responsibility, accountability, and ethics; Sebola (2014:297), on culture and ethics; Maserumule (2005:279), on good governance; and Fourie (2009:1116), on the promotion of effective governance. Absent in these scholarly contributions is the notion of theory building in public administration that addresses the “big questions”. Although Maserumule (2005:31) claims to have developed “an epistemological framework that can be used to better understand good governance in the context of NEPAD for public administration”, his methodological approach is more rhetorical and defeats the



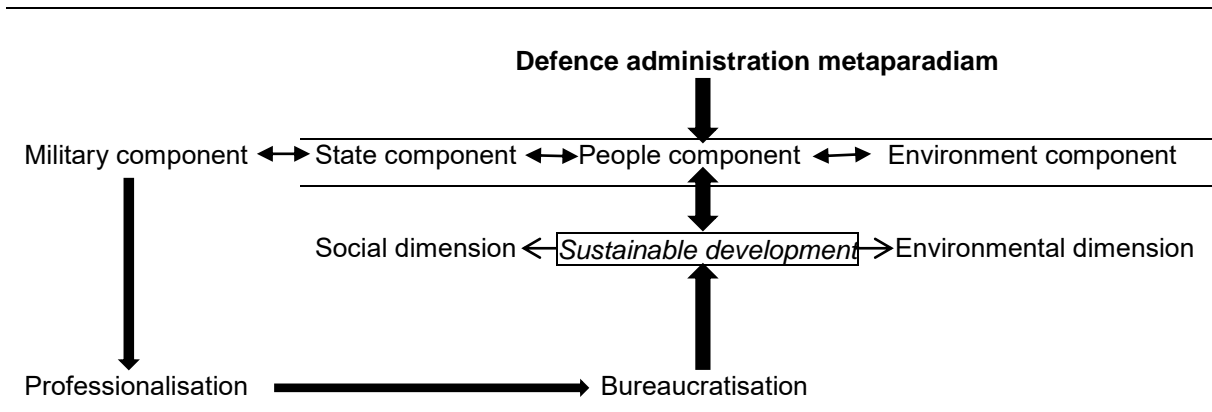
intention of theory building as claimed by not moving away from the known to the unknown. This critique is qualified by the following statement :

The study contends that the premise from which *good governance* in the context of NEPAD could be understood from the Public Administration perspective is embedded in its foundational value, which asserts the importance of social equity and social justice in the conceptualisation of the concept. In this conceptualisation exercise the study draws from the Minnowbrook Conference of 1968, which, as discussed in Chapter 5 of the thesis, sought to base the epistemological foundation of the discipline on the normative theory and philosophy (Maserumule, 2005:507).

Although the Minnowbrook Conference places more emphasis on ethical values that underpin public service, the researcher submits that the changing administration circumstances in Southern Africa offer the opportunity to build theory on OAD. Furthermore, this study focuses on theory building on the military operational activities within the context of RDA in Southern Africa. The researcher therefore states that the theory and practice of Public Administration should move beyond the generic functions of policymaking, staffing, financing, organisation, procedure and control, and/or labour and ethical service delivery issues. Maserumule (2010:78) supports the notion of an “alternative research agenda in the study of Public Administration”. This new agenda is informed by the following observations:

- The existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks developed in South Africa since 1994 that provide the legitimate foundation for the military role in promoting sustainable development;
- The responsibility to protect the state, its people, and its territorial integrity as a legitimate military role;
- The professionalisation of the military organisation through education, training, and development of uniformed personnel; and
- The bureaucratisation of the military organisation on the basis of established administrative structures and procedures.

The researcher argues that the foregoing observations are not limited to South Africa but characterise all the countries selected for the purposes of this study. Furthermore, the researcher submits that these observations are best represented in Figure 6.1.



**Figure 6.1: Schematic representation of the defence metaparadigm**

Source: Designed by integrating the mandate of defence forces with the dimensions of sustainable development

Figure 6.1 is intended to provide a schematic representation of the higher-order defence metaparadigms that recognise the importance of the social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development in relation to the military component of professionalism and bureaucracy. Although the South African setting is used for purposes of establishing policy-based functional components of the defence operations strategy or metaparadigms, the researcher depended on multiple sites to strengthen the theoretical grounding in this study, as is evident in the next chapter.

## 6.4 CONCLUSION

The researcher submits that Chapter 6 served as the point of transition between qualitative analysis and qualitative synthesis that are central to theory building in this study. Qualitative analysis is crucial in generating data from various pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary literature. The emergent common ideas, concepts, metaphors, attributes, properties, and constructs need to be developed into higher-order categories. Examples include, but are not limited to, the higher-order conceptualisation of the military metaparadigms into defence metaparadigms. In doing so, additional higher-order concepts include the state, the military, people, and the environment as the broader functional components.

The abovementioned functional components of the defence metaparadigms have been grounded within the existing policy frameworks in South Africa since 1994.

These pieces of legislation and policy frameworks provide the baseline data for a longitudinal case study on South Africa. The emergent constructs were further interrogated within the context of the metaphorical expression – the military “ways of life” with attributes limited to normal life, social utility, natural capability, and positional differences between the contending parties. The researcher submits that the emergent higher-order constructs form the basis for the substantive theory on the MOAD, and will be discussed in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 7: DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF MILITARY OPERATIONS STRATEGY FOR DEVELOPMENT

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In addressing the primary research question of this study, the researcher submits that the emergent data point to the military historical experiences in Southern Africa as a “way of life” characterised by positional differences among the contending parties. Given these observations, the World Bank (2005:159)<sup>142</sup> would affirm the relevance of concerns related to whether the government is able to accelerate growth by providing selective support to specific OAD. Although the World Bank (2005:193)<sup>143</sup> argues that governments should create a conducive environment for private businesses to thrive, the challenges of creating a win-win balance within and between the developing countries cannot be ignored, as is evident from the historical military experiences in Southern Africa. Furthermore, the following observation remains relevant (World Bank, 2006:169):<sup>144</sup>

There is solid evidence that infrastructure investments broaden opportunities for people and communities by integrating them into regional and national systems of production and commerce, and by improving their access to public services ... Around the world, the burden of gathering and transporting fuel wood and water traditionally falls on women and girls.

The foregoing structural imbalances between multinational cooperation and local women and girls that relate to the basic needs call upon the selective government intervention strategies. If the government is expected to protect the environment for the girl child and mother to gather and transport fuelwood and water, then these vulnerable members of society will be left behind. Stated differently, the researcher argues that the government has the duty to protect citizens; and the military role in protecting citizens is socially acceptable as a first-line response to complex emergencies.

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<sup>142</sup> World Bank report of 2005, Chapter 8 on selective intervention.

<sup>143</sup> Ibid.

<sup>144</sup> Ibid.

In illuminating the foregoing theoretical line of thinking, the researcher seeks to establish the distinguishing features of military operations strategy within the context of the peace-security-development nexus – the central pillars in the theorisation of MOAD. Furthermore, the researcher is limited to selected pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that seek to respond to “complex emergencies”; and peace and security in a cohesive neighbourhood.

## **7.2 SELECTED POLICY RESPONSES TO COMPLEX EMERGENCIES**

Much has been written on the crisis of excessive government intervention in the market systems, especially the economic market systems. Weingast (1995:2) states that the possibilities for political forces to intervene and halt a private and viable market economy remain a “stable policy choice” of the dominant political system. On inequality and poverty, Wade (2004:xlvi) advises on the “non-market measure of intervention”, while focus is redirected to global cooperation around development as opposed to the “reciprocity” and “no distortion” principles used in the market economy. In the study titled *Governments, Markets, and Growth: Financial Systems and the Politics of Industrial Change*, Zysman (1984:7) presents that various governments possess the capacity to selectively intervene and direct industrial outcomes on the basis of adopted operations strategy.

Although the foregoing debate relates to the state intervention in the economic market systems, the notion of “non-market measure” for selective government intervention in complex emergencies is relevant to this study. In deepening the central argument in this study, Duffield (1994:38) states that selective government intervention within the context of complex emergencies is relevant for purposes of challenging the modernist paradigm on development – the view that development is interconnected progress from vulnerability and poverty to security and wellbeing. This alternative paradigm is premised on the view that complex emergencies are a “major humanitarian crisis of a multi-causal nature that required a systems-wide response” (Duffield, 1994:38).

Important also is the premise that complex emergencies are capable of destroying the economic, political, social, and cultural integrity established within a particular society. Furthermore, Duffield (1994) states that complex emergencies are internal to economic and political structures; thus politicians constitute the organic part of the

emergent crisis, namely the attack on vulnerable social systems and networks. Duffield (1994) traces the roots of the concept of complex emergencies to Africa in the late 1980s that provides the basis to explore African policy responses to the development challenges in Southern Africa. This claim finds support in the following statement:

[A] plurality of epistemological and normative perspectives on sustainable development; the multiple interpretations and practices associated with the evolving concept of “development”; and efforts to open up a continuum of local-to-global public spaces to debate and enact the politics of sustainability (Sneddon *et al.*, 2006:253).

Sneddon *et al.* (2006:260-262) also support the alternative politics of sustainable development that focus on the “non-market measures” of selective government interventions tailored for the Southern African setting. For example, UNSC Resolution 1308 adopted in July 2000 on the Responsibility of the Security Council in the Maintenance of International Peace and Security: HIV/AIDS and International Peace-Keeping Operations provides an alternative lens in response to the Agenda for Sustainable Development:

The HIV/AIDS pandemic is also exacerbated by conditions of violence and instability, which increase the risk of exposure to the disease through large movements of people, widespread uncertainties over conditions, and reduced access to medical care ... [which,] if unchecked, may pose a risk to stability and security.

Furthermore, the UNSC passed Resolution 1983 of 2011, which states that “UN peacekeeping operations can be important contributors to an integrated response to HIV and AIDS, welcomes the incorporation of HIV awareness in mandated activities and outreach projects for vulnerable communities, and encourages further such actions”.

The foregoing resolutions made by the UNSC provide the basis for broadening the scope for multidisciplinary approaches and system-wide government interventions in response to the development challenges in Africa. For example, the UN joint programmes for support on HIV/AIDS provides a platform for integrated policy

responses to HIV/AIDS as fully accepted goals within the global Agenda for Sustainable Development. Given the foregoing theoretical line of the argument on complex emergencies and integrated policy responses, the researcher finds it necessary to examine selected policy responses to the most common development challenges in Southern Africa, which are explored in no particular order hereafter.

### **7.2.1 Lagos Plan of Action and Monrovia Declaration on Development**

Adedeji (1985:1) traces the first policy response to development challenges in Africa to the economic summit held by African leaders and their governments in Lagos from 28 to 29 April 1980. It was during this first meeting that the African leaders unanimously adopted the policy framework titled The Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa, 1980-2000. It is worth noting that this policy framework represents the collective African response to the World Bank's attitude of blame that finds expression in the report titled Accelerated Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Plan of Action, which was published by Elliot Berg in 1981.

In the working paper prepared by the Joint Secretariat Working Group, during the meeting held in Addis Ababa in January 1982, with the view to assist with the understanding of objectives, goals, and characteristics of the later report (Berg's report) in the light of the Lagos Plan of Action, the African leaders established various contradictions between the two policy documents. Important to this study are two observations, which are discussed below.

*On the Lagos Plan of Action:* This plan is based on an integrated approach and covers various social and economic activities while taking into account the interdependence of such activities. Furthermore, emphasis is placed on the principle of self-sustainment and self-reliance, implying the increasing dependence of social development and economic growth while collectively pulling internal resources within the region, sub-regions, and other multi-levels for purposes of achieving a set of objectives, namely:

- the enhancement of education, training (market, banking, shipping, and financial services), and research and development;
- to develop high-level skills in exploring natural resources, evaluation and extraction, and industrial production and management; and

- changing the ownership of enterprises between foreign and indigenous ownership.

Most important to this study is the African leaders' recognition of regional economic cooperation and integration as a policy response strategy in strengthening the objectives of self-sustainability and self-reliance.

*On the Accelerated Development in Sub-Saharan Africa:* This plan represents an external look into Africa. The report provides the following findings:

- Sluggish agronomic performance coupled with rapid population growth and economic growth;
- Scarcity of financial resources and overextended public sector with an unskilled labour force and incompetent organisational capacities; and
- Poor balance of payment and fiscal crises.

The report also identifies internal factors that constrain development, including:

- structural factors that evolved from historical circumstances;
- physical environment that includes underdeveloped human capital;
- economic disruption that includes decolonisation efforts and post-colonial consolidation; and
- rapidly growing population.

External factors include domestic policy inadequacies within the mainstream global setting, i.e. trade and exchange policies; and poor planning, decision-making, and management capability in mobilising and managing resources for development.

Since the purpose of this study is to surface policy responses and not to critique them, Adedeji (1985:1) provides the following observation: the Lagos Plan of Action was ratified by 50 independent African states with markedly different levels of economic development, but which were guided by common political ideology and social systems to subscribe to shared development priorities and strategies. It is on the basis of this observation that Adedeji (1985) argues that the Lagos Plan of Action provides a long-term framework for socio-economic restructuring and sustainable development in Africa.



Important also is the observation that the policy framework titled Monrovia Declaration of Commitment on Guidelines and Measures of National and Collective Self-Reliance in Social and Economic Order, which was adopted by the Heads of State and Government in July 1979, represents four years of unwavering efforts in pursuit of a common development strategy for Africa. The African leaders agreed on RECs as the strategic framework for achieving self-sustainability and self-reliance among the African countries. These regional administrative arrangements also represent another policy response to the structural adjustment programmes that contributed to the marginalisation of the African communities by the opportunities offered by the mainstream global economy.

### **7.2.2 Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community, June 1991**

Danso (1995:31) agrees that the post-Cold War era ushered in imperatives for mobilising and utilising African human and material resources in an effort to achieve collective self-sustainability on the continent. Furthermore, Danso (1995) states that the end of the Cold War marked increasing concerns about the structural marginalisation of the African continent from the mainstream economy. For example, Adedeji (1995:81) states that the structural adjustment programmes led to major concerns related to the reduction of social services, exorbitant increase in prices, job losses, extreme poverty, human suffering, and threats to social stability in Africa. In addressing these major concerns, among others, Danso (1985:35) submits that continental integration is the political strategy that will enhance economic cooperation while reinforcing political and social independence, as well as strengthening the collective African economy.

The foregoing discussion intends to assist in shedding light for purposes of exploring existing policies on RECs and possible defence operations strategy. On 3 June 1991, the African leaders signed a treaty for the establishment of African economic communities. Among other establishing principles, the high-contracting parties committed to solidarity and collective self-reliance, promotion of peaceful economic activities and development among member states, regional cohesion, intra-regional cooperation, coordination of policies, integration of development programmes,

promotion of a peaceful environment for economic development, and the protection of people's and human rights.<sup>145</sup>

The foregoing establishing principles were tailored to achieve various policy objectives, including:

- promoting social, economic, and cultural development;
- a framework for mobilising and utilising African human and natural resources for self-sustained and self-reliant development;
- promoting cooperation in all domains of human endeavours while maintaining economic stability;
- fostering peaceful relations;
- contributing towards economic integration, human progress, and self-sustained development, and
- coordination and harmonisation of policy frameworks on environmental protection.<sup>146</sup>

Common in these foregoing principles is the recognition of the RECs as the alternative platform for promoting peace, stability, and development among countries on the African continent. These principles also emphasise cooperation, coordination, integration, and self-sustaining and self-reliant regions that depend on their own natural resources and social capital. Furthermore, these principles provide that the successful achievement of self-sustained and self-reliant development is dependent on fostering cooperation in all fields of human endeavours while ensuring peaceful relations and social stability. It becomes necessary to explore the administrative arrangements that seek to implement RECs at this stage.

### **7.2.3 Sirte Declaration of September 1999**

In conformity with the objectives set out in the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community, the Heads of State and Government of the OAU met in Sirte, the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, from 8 to 9 September 1999, and agreed on forging a strong and united Africa that responds effectively to the existing

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<sup>145</sup> Article 3 of the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community.

<sup>146</sup> Article 4 of the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community.

development challenges. In their strategy to strengthen the unity of the African continent, these African leaders made the decision to, among others, accelerate the process of implementing the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community within the framework of the new AU.<sup>147</sup>

In accelerating the implementation process, the African leaders intended to consolidate the RECs as the foundation for achieving the objectives of the African Economic Community while realising the envisaged continental cohesion. It was on the basis of existing socio-economic challenges that the African leaders transformed the OAU into the contemporary African Union with the view to strengthening the implementation of RECs as pillars of the African Economic Community. This conclusion finds support in the Constitutive Act of the AU of 2000.

#### **7.2.4 The Constitutive Act of the African Union (AU) of 2000**

The adoption of the Constitution of the AU on 26 May 2001 “represents the start of the new political, judicial, and economic organisation for Africa” (Packer & Rukare, 2002:365). Packer and Rukare (2002) also affirm that the superpowers gradually declined in undertaking the leading role in promoting peace, stability, and development in Africa towards the end of the Cold War, and it thus became inescapable for the African leaders to secure “African solutions for African problems”.<sup>148</sup> Lobakeng (2017:2) states that this inescapable choice led to the formation of the AU with the primary task of seeking African solutions for African problems. Although this maxim applies to a wide range of issues (e.g. education, health, and development), Lobakeng (2017:1) observes that it is “often used in relation to peace and security”.

Among other organising principles of the AU, the African leaders agreed on the establishment of a common defence policy for the African continent, peaceful co-existence and the right to live in peace and security, and the promotion of social justice while ensuring balanced economic development.<sup>149</sup>

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<sup>147</sup> The fourth extraordinary session of the assembly of heads of state and government entitled the *Sirte Declaration* and held on 8-9 September 1999 in Sirte Lybia, paragraph 8(ii).

<sup>148</sup> The maxim refers to African leaders preferring to solve their own problems while minimising the influence of external actors in continental affairs.

<sup>149</sup> Article 4 of the AU Constitutive Act.

Among other objectives, the AU is required to:

- protect the independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity of member states;
- accelerate the political, social, and economic integration of the continent;
- promote peace, security, and stability on the entire continent;
- promote sustainable development at the cultural, social, and economic levels;
- promote coordination in all fields of human activities; and
- coordinate and harmonise existing policies for the gradual attainment of common set objectives<sup>150</sup>.

Given the foregoing organising principles and related objectives, it is necessary to explore the notion of a common defence policy and enhancing partnerships in peace and stability in Africa.

#### **7.2.5 The Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union**

Previous discussions point to various pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that affirm the existence of complex emergencies in Africa, and related policy responses need further scrutiny within the context of a common defence policy. In supporting this theory-building approach, Ejigu (2006:1) affirms that incorporating socio-environmental security into regional development strategy would assist in mitigating threats to peace, stability, and development in Africa. In sowing the seeds of peace, security, and development, Ejigu (2006:8) suggests that the establishment of statutory military and police forces inculcates confidence in the government while creating desirable conditions for social cohesion among citizens. The researcher submits that Article 2(2) of the AU Constitutive Act provides for the establishment of the PSC within the AU as a standing decision-making organ on matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security.

Among other establishing principles, the PSC is guided by rapid responses to contain crisis settings with the view to prevent complex emergencies from developing into full-

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<sup>150</sup> Article 3 of the AU Constitutive Act.

blown conflict;<sup>151</sup> and respect for the interdependence between economic growth, social development, human security, and political stability.<sup>152</sup> The foregoing establishing principle enables the PSC to achieve various objectives that include promotion of peace, security, and stability as desirable conditions for sustainable development in Africa,<sup>153</sup> and development of a common defence policy for the African continent in compliance with Article 4(d) of the AU Constitutive Act.<sup>154</sup> Although it is clear that the security-peace-development nexus continues to point to the common defence operations strategy, it is necessary to explore the Common Defence Policy as a primary source document at this stage.

### 7.2.6 The Common Defence Policy

Touray (2005:363) states that the PSC and its predecessor, the Central Organ of the OAU, spearheaded all the peace efforts on the African continent. Although the PSC continues to occupy the central position in peace and security arrangements in Africa, Touray (2005) argues that its role has grown far beyond the implementation functions within the broader policy frameworks. It is therefore necessary to explore the CADSP, which the entire AU membership has ratified as an agenda-setting platform in Africa. Although the CADSP provides guidelines on decision-making processes, Dijkstra (2012:457) states that in the area of defence and security, the military committee representatives remain partners in the core policy decision-making group within the CADSP networks.

In defining the concept of defence, the CADSP provides for the non-traditional use of armed forces that relate to the protection of the people's social, cultural, political, and economic ways of life.<sup>155</sup> On security, the CADSP emphasises the political, social, and economic imperatives, as well as the right to equal development and access to resources or basic necessities of life. Furthermore, security at national level implies

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<sup>151</sup> Adapted from Article 4(a) of the Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>152</sup> Adapted from Article 4(d) of the Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>153</sup> Adapted from Article 3(a) of the Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>154</sup> Adapted from Article 3(e) of the Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>155</sup> Paragraph 5 of the CADSP: Definition of defence.

safeguarding the security of individuals, families, communities, and the state in their social, economic, and political ways of life.

On common defence policy (see Ojanen, 2006), the CADSP advocates the following organising principles:

- Peaceful co-existence and the right to live in peace and security;<sup>156</sup>
- Promotion of balanced economic development and social justice;<sup>157</sup>
- Mutual assistance and equal burden sharing;<sup>158</sup> and
- Close working relationship and collaboration between the AU, RECs, member states, and other international organisations.<sup>159</sup>

The foregoing areas of common defence find expression in previous discussions in this study, such as the Agenda for Sustainable Development on enhancing partnerships in peace and security; collaboration, coordination, and cooperation in the defence of sustainable development; integration of national, sub-regional, and regional capacities; and coordination of policies on peace, security, and development. It is on the basis of the foregoing iterations of words, phrases, and concepts that the researcher submits that common defence policies offer the opportunity to explore the military role in supporting sustainable development; for example, cooperation in defence matters by reallocating military resources to address extreme poverty as the most threatening of defence and security challenges.<sup>160</sup>

For purposes of expanding on a common defence policy as the foundation of defence operations strategy, the researcher takes cue from the study conducted by Dijkstra (2012), titled “Agenda-setting in the common security and defence policy: An institutionalist perspective”. Dijkstra (2012:454) states that the AU has launched a number of crisis management missions since the inception of the CADSP. Dijkstra (2012) also states that the MSCs have been influential by putting various operation strategies on the agenda. Since Article 41(1) of the UN Charter prescribes that the MSC must advise and assist the PSC on matters related to the military requirements for the maintenance of international peace and security, and in commanding the

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<sup>156</sup> Section II, paragraph 11(g) of the CADSP.

<sup>157</sup> Section II, paragraph 11(k) of the CADSP.

<sup>158</sup> Section II, paragraph 12(ii) of the CADSP.

<sup>159</sup> Section II, paragraph 12(vi & vii) of the CADSP.

<sup>160</sup> Argument developed from section III, paragraph 13(f & g) of the CADSP.

military forces placed at its disposal, the researcher submits that enhancing partnerships in peace and security constitutes a deliberate agenda-setting strategy in promoting sustainable development in Southern Africa.

The researcher argues that the role of the MSC in advising the PSC is coupled with the institutional agenda-setting strategy (see Dijkstra, 2012:467), which is consistent with the doctrine that governs the MOAD. In its implementing organs and mechanisms of the Common Defence Policy, the CADSP delegates the RECs with the responsibility to maintain international peace and security,<sup>161</sup> including the establishment of regional defence arrangements.<sup>162</sup>

### **7.2.7 Regional mechanisms (RMs)**

The UN is an international bureaucratic organisation with various departments and agencies but with inadequate outreach capability. In the same vein, Chapter VIII of the UN Charter provides for the establishment of regional arrangements to deal with matters related to the maintenance of international peace and security. This policy provision encourages member states to use regional arrangement to address local disputes before referring them to the UNSC. Furthermore, Article 52(3) encourages the regional agencies to respond to an emergent crisis on the initiative of the state or by reference from the UNSC. Although the mandate to establish RMs dealing with peace and security is traceable to 26 June 1945, it is only in recent years that the AU charged the RECs with the responsibility to establish the necessary instruments with the capability to respond to complex emergencies. For purposes of this study, the researcher finds it necessary to discuss the RMs within the context of the APSA.

The establishment of the APSA finds its mandate from Article 2 of the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the PSC of the AU. The components of the APSA include the PSC, CADSP, MSC, ASF, Continental Early Warning System (CEWS), Panel of the Wise and Peace Fund, and NEPAD (Fisher *et al.*, 2010:16; Alghali & Mbaye, 2008:34). Alghali and Mbaye (2008) affirm that these components of the APSA constitute a “linking support matrix” that assists the AU to enhance partnerships in peace and security on the continent. The researcher submits that the components of the APSA

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<sup>161</sup> Section IV, paragraph 24(d) of the CADSP.

<sup>162</sup> Section IV, paragraph 28(a) of the CADSP.



find expression in the operational strategies at the levels of the RECs, and it is helpful to focus on these regional arrangements.

The study began with the five RECs, namely the SADC, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS), the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development, and the Arab Maghreb Union. These five RECs serve as the building blocks of the ASF. This implies that each area would have a representative regional standby force to make up for the ASF. This logical administrative arrangement is challenged by two key issues. *Firstly*, a country in a particular geographical area is not always a member of that REC. For example, Egypt is not a member of the Arab Maghreb Union. *Secondly*, some countries may belong to more than one REC. For example, Taole (2014:10) states that Tanzania is a member of both the SADC and the East African Community.

Although Taole (2014:8-10) provides a wealth of knowledge on the general benefits derived from multi-membership (e.g. avoidance of trade wars), important to this study are the existing administrative arrangements in relation to these two challenges. Alghali and Mbaye (2008:34) state that these challenges led to the AU forming the RM for the ASF. For example, the northern region had to form the Northern Africa Regional Standby Brigade (NASBRIG), of which Egypt is a member, and the SADCBRIG, of which Tanzania is a member. Other RMs include the East Africa Standby Brigade (EASBRIG), the ECOWAS Standby Brigade (ECOBRIIG), and Force Multinationale de l'Afrique Centrale (FOMAC).<sup>163</sup> Fisher *et al.* (2010:16) affirm that the build-up of the APSA at the RECs/RM and AU levels remains invariable, but the progress made points to a particular level of mission readiness.

Given the foregoing regional administrative arrangements, the researcher submits that the APSA and its components constitute the “core pillar” in the process of establishing the distinguishing feature of defence operations strategy in Southern Africa. Conversely, Alghali and Mbaye (2008:38) state that with ECOWAS, ECCAS, and SADC having most of the nations in their respective RECs, it is much easier for them to comply with the requirements of the RECs/RM. For purposes of generating the theory of MOAD, the researcher focuses on SADCBRIG as a component of APSA responsible for the geographical area under study, namely Southern Africa. In doing

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<sup>163</sup> See Alghali and Mbaye (2008:34) on the ASF and regional standby brigades.



so, the researcher seeks to establish the linkage between SADCBRIG and complex humanitarian emergencies as threats to peace and security.

### **7.2.8 Linking complex emergencies and the Southern African Development Community Brigade (SADCBRIG)**

In establishing the policy-based military role in supporting sustainable development, this study takes a cue from the AU policy framework titled African Union Policy Guideline on the Role of the African Standby Force in Humanitarian Action and Natural Disaster Support. This policy document provides a range of strategic focus areas where the regional brigades could provide humanitarian support to member states.<sup>164</sup> Furthermore, the researcher submits that these guidelines draw on the existing “ASF resources, assets and capabilities as part of a potential response mechanism, and to augment the coping capacity and resilience of RECs/RMs” (AUC, 2014).<sup>165</sup>

Although this policy guideline suggests that the military, policy, and civilian component of the regional brigades may take direct responsibility in extreme humanitarian circumstances,<sup>166</sup> this study maintains that the military support function cuts across all the stages of humanitarian assistance. For example, the logic of rapid responses to complex humanitarian emergencies demands multifaceted tasks usually afforded by integrated management systems. In this instance, Labodová (2004:572) advises on the combination of quality management that:

- enhances cooperation, collaboration, and coordination of communication;
- facilitates the provision of logistic support and humanitarian relief;
- enables successful search and rescue missions; and
- assists in providing emergence transportation, medical support, security, and other emergent tasks.<sup>167</sup>

Given the foregoing policy-based multifaceted tasks, the researcher submits that the AU policy guideline on HANDS offer the opportunity to establish the defence operations strategy within the context of complex humanitarian emergencies. In doing so, this study subscribes to the view that complex emergencies are a “major

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<sup>164</sup> This role flows from the provision of Article 13(f) of the PSC’s Protocol on Humanitarian Assistance.

<sup>165</sup> Second paragraph of the introductory statement from Ambassador Smail Chergui.

<sup>166</sup> Paragraph 43 of the AU’s policy guideline on the ASF in HANDS.

<sup>167</sup> Adapted from paragraph 27 of the AU’s policy guideline on the ASF in HANDS.

humanitarian crisis of a multicausal nature that requires a systems-wide response” (Duffield, 1994:38). This view is further grounded within the AU policy guidelines that frame three important policy frameworks, namely the Report of the Chairperson on the Establishment of the African Standby Force (ASF) and the MSC of 20-21 January 2004, The Solemn Declaration of a Common African Defence and Security of 28 January 2004, and the AUHPF of 20 November 2015.

The abovementioned policy frameworks lay the foundation for establishing the defence operations strategy within the context of complex humanitarian emergencies – the military response in safeguarding security for humanity and nature. The first two policy frameworks advocate the traditional military role in the promotion of international peace and security. Furthermore, both policy frameworks legitimise the deployment of military capabilities in humanitarian operations as an instance of last resort. In invoking the latter policy frameworks, the researcher subscribes to the view that the AU guideline on HANDS and the CADSP enable selective military intervention in complex humanitarian emergencies.

In strengthening the foregoing theoretical line of argument, the researcher depends on the complementary nature of the AGA, APSA, AUHPF, and NEPAD. The researcher submits that the point of convergence between all these pieces of legislation and policy frameworks is the AU guideline on the ASF in HANDS. For purposes of theory building, the study is limited to “safeguarding peace and security” as a strategic development objective.<sup>168</sup>

### **7.2.9 African Governance Architecture (AGA), African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA), African Union Humanitarian Policy Framework (AUHPF), and the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD)**

The Common African Position (CAP) on the Post-2015 Development Agenda emphasises the importance of peace and security in Africa, and the “inextricable link between development and peace, security and stability ... and peace and security as essential for the achievement of the continent’s development aspirations” (AU, 2014b:14). In advancing the AU Agenda 2063, the AU (2014a:18) reiterates the

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<sup>168</sup> Paragraph 6(e) on the rationale for the AU’s policy guideline on the ASF in HANDS.

importance of key enablers that present the projection for the continent's development and include the AGA and NEPAD.<sup>169</sup>

The AGA was established in terms of the objectives and principles entrenched in Article 3(g) and (h) and Article 4(m) of the AU Constitutive Act that seek to safeguard human rights, democratic institution and principles, and good governance.<sup>170</sup> The AGA also provides a platform for dialogue among various stakeholders.<sup>171</sup> Among other specific objectives, AGA seeks to facilitate joint engagement and deepen synergy with the APSA in strategic interventions".<sup>172</sup> The African Governance Platform members include, but are not limited to, the following:

- The AU PSC as the standing decision-making body with the mandate to promote peace, security, and stability in Africa. In promoting international peace and security, the PSC draws from the APSA.
- The AUC as the executive authority responsible for ensuring that the ASF is adequately equipped by the PSC to undertake humanitarian activities in its mission areas under the control of the chairperson of the AUC.<sup>173</sup>
- The Pan-African Parliament as a political organ responsible for the internal coordination of the AU efforts relating to humanitarian actions with the UNDPA as the primary hub.<sup>174</sup> Furthermore, the Pan-African Parliament provides the common platform for citizen participation in decision making related to humanitarian challenges facing the continent.<sup>175</sup> The AUHPF states that the emergency response to humanitarian challenges shall be established and will comprise capabilities drawn from established regional, sub-regional, and national machineries.<sup>176</sup>
- NEPAD Planning and Coordination Agency as the technical machinery of the AU, with the primary mandate to coordinate and facilitate the implementation of

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<sup>169</sup> Paragraph 91 of the Common African Position (CAP) on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (AU, 2014b).

<sup>170</sup> Paragraph 1 of the AGA framework.

<sup>171</sup> Paragraph 3 of the AGA framework.

<sup>172</sup> Paragraph 5(h) of the AGA framework.

<sup>173</sup> Article 15(3) of the Protocol Related to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union.

<sup>174</sup> Paragraph 32 of the AUHPF.

<sup>175</sup> Paragraph 9(f) of the AGA framework.

<sup>176</sup> Paragraph 39 of the AUHPF.

continental and regional priority projects and programmes while leveraging the necessary partnerships in research and knowledge management.<sup>177</sup>

The foregoing discussion establishes the AGA as a platform for dialogue on issues related to humanitarian challenges and the need to establish rapid response capabilities at continental, regional, and national levels of governance. On the other hand, the abovementioned members of the AGA would agree that joint engagement and deepened synergy with the APSA possess the attributes of a successful humanitarian interventions strategy. Furthermore, the AU guideline on HANDS affirm that the mobilisation, consolidation, and coordination of the existing humanitarian response machineries continue to be shaped by political interests to effectively address the increasing challenges facing Africa. Finally, the researcher depended on Alghali and Mbaye (2008:38) in submitting that ECOWAS, ECCAS, and the SADC have most of the nations within their respective RECs, and they all comply with the requirements of the RECs/RM regarding the establishment of rapid response machineries to complex humanitarian emergencies.

#### **7.2.10 Complex emergencies and regional defence arrangements**

Although the term “complex humanitarian emergencies” appears to be fairly new, Brennan and Nandy (2001:148) state that it has been a feature in the international space since the end of the Cold War. These scholars argue that most countries that depended on the political, military, and economic support from the world superpowers came to realise that such is no longer readily available. This new concept was first introduced in the early 1990s to give meaning to the humanitarian crisis setting that is characterised by the collapse of public services, attacks on social systems and networks, intense migration and population growth, food crisis, water scarcity, energy insecurity, extreme poverty, political instability, and armed aggression (Brennan & Nandy, 2001:147; Gelsdorf, 2011:3). Gelsdorf (2011:3) affirms that the aforementioned attributes define humanitarian emergencies and are capable of triggering international humanitarian responses.

In conceptualising the foregoing feature of complex humanitarian emergencies, the researcher borrows from the WHO (2005), and argues that peace and security are not

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<sup>177</sup> Paragraph 9(l) of the AGA framework.

merely the absence of armed aggression, but a complete state of human wellbeing and environmental wellness. This implies that any kind of threat to the natural functioning of the social-ecological system that carries the life of the local population should be described as a complex humanitarian emergency. In the study on the global challenges and their impact on international humanitarian action, Gelsdorf (2011:8) observes that the breadth and diversity of factors underlying complex humanitarian emergencies and envisaged response mechanisms hinder accurate projections on efficiency and effectiveness. Besides, Gelsdorf (2011) states that the increase in case load (i.e. population in need of humanitarian assistance) and expansions of the span of operations (the areas of responsibility allocated to particular humanitarian agencies) remain of key concern in the design and establishment of response capabilities.

In addressing the abovementioned global challenge for the design and deployment of humanitarian response machineries, the AU guideline on the role of the ASF in HANDS emphasise rapid responses in a “coordinated, harmonised and efficient way, to serious humanitarian challenges which could happen in Africa” (AUC, 2013:7). Furthermore, this policy prescript emphasises the mobilisation of the existing humanitarian response mechanisms while inspired by the strategic intent to effectively address the emergent challenges in Africa.<sup>178</sup> The AUHPF also points to the importance of the APSA and related initiatives in responding to humanitarian situations in Africa.<sup>179</sup>

Fisher *et al.* (2010:16) identify the CEWS, ASF, and PSC, among others, as components of the APSA. The researcher submits that the complementary nature of the AUHPF and APSA suggests that the ASF, as an integral part of the APSA, is an existing humanitarian response machinery on the African continent. Stated differently, the AUHPF mandates the ASF to participate in humanitarian activities on the African continent, including partnerships in safeguarding peace and security as the most desirable condition for sustainable development in Southern Africa. This implies that the role of the ASF in safeguarding peace and security is part of regional administrative arrangements in pursuit of sustainable development in Africa. This theoretical line of

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<sup>178</sup> Paragraph 4 of the AU guideline on the role of the ASF in HANDS.

<sup>179</sup> Paragraph 2 of the AUHPF.

thinking seeks to establish policy-based connections between the military role, peace and security, and sustainable development.

In exploring the foregoing theoretical assumption, the researcher examined the provisions of the envisaged RDA in Southern Africa that find expression in the SADC Mutual Defence Pact (MDP) of 2003 and policy objectives enshrined in NEPAD.

#### ***7.2.10.1 Southern African Development Community (SADC) Mutual Defence Pact (MDP) of 2003***

Article 2 of the MDP establishes the primary objective of this policy framework as the operationalisation of the mechanisms of the SADC Organ in advancing mutual cooperation in politics, defence, and security. The researcher submits that Article 2 of the MDP sets the stage for the Joint Standing Committee on Defence as an acceptable mechanism of the SADC Organ in advancing mutual cooperation on matters relating to defence and security. Furthermore, Article 4 of the MDP advocates military readiness in achieving the objective set out in this defence pact, namely mutual cooperation in matters related to politics, defence, and security. In doing so, this article prescribes that state parties shall collectively and individually develop and maintain their self-defence capabilities as individuals and collectives by means of continuous cooperation and mutual assistance.

The foregoing policy prescript implies that member states are encouraged to establish and to develop regional defence capabilities through regional mutual cooperation and coordination as the foundation for the envisaged RDA. Van Nieuwkerk (2003:1) affirms that the signing of the MDP signals the commitment by the heads of state and government to the application of the concept of an “African solution to African problems”. Van Nieuwkerk (2003:3) also states that this defence pact is an outcome of the SADC’s systematic adoption and implementation of various administration arrangements that seek to widen the security paradigm to include holistic cooperation in the field of politics, defence, and security.

Most important to this study is the adoption of the SADC Treaty and the Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation (1999), and the systematic implementation of the SADC Organ and its Ministerial Committees, ISDSC, and related RISDP.

Article 5(a-g) of the SADC Treaty of 2003 provides for the promotion and defence of peace and security, promoting self-sustaining development and economic growth, maximising the utilisation of regional resources, leveraging complementarity between regional and national strategies and programmes, and effective protection of human wellbeing and environmental wellness. In achieving these policy objectives, Article 5(j) provides the member states with the initiative to establish other activities in furtherance of the objectives of this treaty.

Pursuant to Article 5(j) of the MDP, this study submits that the first meeting of the African Ministers of Defence and Security on the establishment of the ASF and the CADSP held on 20-21 January 2004 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, offers supportive activities in the furtherance of the abovementioned objectives as entrenched in the SADC Treaty. In this first meeting, the African Chiefs of the Defence Staff (ACDS) advocate that the African Ministers of Defence and Security constitute the principal stakeholders in matters relating to the CADSP; their exclusion would therefore lead to undue delays in establishing the necessary implementation machineries in promoting peace and security.<sup>180</sup> In the professional view of the ACDS, the brigade level should be an ideal capability in the maintenance of regional peace and security.<sup>181</sup> This implies that the ACDS agrees that the regional brigade is an acceptable response machinery in the furtherance of the objectives set out in the SADC Treaty, which include peace and security, economic growth, and self-sustaining development.

*Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation (1999)*: The primary objective of the SADC Organ is to promote peace and stability in Southern Africa as articulated in Article 2(1) of this protocol. Furthermore, Article 2(2)(d) of this protocol provides specific objectives, which include the promotion of regional cooperation and coordination on matters related to defence and security while establishing appropriate mechanisms to this end. For example, Article 2(2)(a) advances coordination and cooperation in the protection of the people and in safeguarding the development of the region as an end state. The researcher submits that the protection of citizens and

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<sup>180</sup> Paragraph 6 of the Report of the Chairperson on the Establishment of the African Standby Force (ASF) and the Military Staff Committee (MSC), January 2004.

<sup>181</sup> Paragraph 20 of the Report of the Chairperson on the Establishment of the African Standby Force (ASF) and the Military Staff Committee (MSC), January 2004.



safeguarding the environmental dimension of development are the primary roles of the defence force worldwide.

In its structures, Article 3 of the protocol provides for the Ministerial Committee, the ISDSC, and other sub-structures as may be established by any of the ministerial committees.

*The Ministerial Committee:* Article 5(1) of the Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation provides that the Ministerial Committee shall consist of ministers responsible for defence, public security, state security, and foreign affairs. Furthermore, this committee is responsible for coordination of the work of the Organ – the promotion of peace and stability in Southern Africa. Although the Ministerial Committee meets on an annual basis, it may convene other meetings at the request of the ISDSC.<sup>182</sup>

*ISDSC:* The ISDSC is established by Article 3(2)(e) of the Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation. Furthermore, Article 7 of this protocol states that the ISDSC will consist of the minister responsible for public security, the minister responsible for state security, and the minister responsible for the defence from each of the state parties. The study is limited to the responsibilities of the latter ministerial committee – the role of the DoD. The study therefore takes a cue from the observation that the major challenges of the Organ are encountered by the ISDSC Ministerial Committee, “which functions effectively on a technical level” (Cawthra, 1997:210).

Among other challenges, Cawthra (1997) states that the ISDSC is established on three major levels, with a plethora of sub-committees that meet as agreed or required. These sub-committees are dispersed within the three levels, namely public security (policing), state security (intelligence), and defence. Cawthra (1997:210) affirms that “the defence committee remains highly evolved” compared to police and intelligence. Given the foregoing observation, the study submits that the defence committee will be the leading structure, while the police and intelligence structures remain the led structures at technical-level responses to complex humanitarian emergencies.

At technical-level responses, Mandrup (2009:15) confirms that the SADC Standby Force is a technical structure that is intended to unite the efforts of the SADC countries

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<sup>182</sup> Article 5(6) of the Protocol on Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation of 1999.



towards their collective self-defence and safeguarding of peace and security. In the presentation on the MDP to the Standing Committee on Defence, dated 14 November 2003, the SADC's DoD asserted that the AU is required to encourage regions' solutions to challenges facing member states to be in line with the UN approaches. This emergent evidence points to the connection between the guidelines that established the ASF and the UN humanitarian policy framework – the military role in promoting international peace and security for sustainable development.

The foregoing theoretical line of thinking suggests that, at the technical level, the SADC Standby Force has a pivotal role to play in addressing complex humanitarian emergencies, including collective self-defence and safeguarding regional peace and security. Cilliers (2008:6) states that Africa has experienced good progress in the establishment of regional standby forces, including common training, development of shared doctrines, and unifying operational concepts relating to command and control. Furthermore, Lautier (2013:68) affirms that in February 2013, the SADC Standby Force engaged in a training programme that took place in Harare, Zimbabwe, intended to assess the readiness of the member states to respond to “any eventuality” with which the regional may be confronted. Lautier (2013) states that specific focus was on harmonising the military personnel and equipment pledged by individual member states for inclusion in the SADC Standby Force.

The foregoing discussion on regional administrative arrangements and rapid responses to complex humanitarian emergencies provides the basis for the RDA that seeks to position its technical military capabilities on the frontline of collective self-defence and in safeguarding regional peace and security. The foregoing theoretical line of argument is further explored within the context of NEPAD as the capstone of sustainable development on the African continent.

### **7.2.10.2 NEPAD**

Kingebiel (2005:35) states that peace and security continue to be a priority issue not only in Africa but worldwide. Kingebiel (2005:35) affirms that the current dynamics that involve “external assistance in support of Africa, are concerned in large measures with military capabilities”. Kingebiel (2005) notes that change can be observed in the willingness of the external actors to provide military assistance to the African countries

in the aftermath of the Somalia debacle in 1999 and Rwanda in 1994. Given the foregoing concerns, Kingebiel (2005:38) advises on joint cross-policy-field and development policy approaches as important features in enhancing the capacity for the maintenance of international peace and security, as well as contributions in support of development policies. For example, Kingebiel (2005:41) affirms that the AU and NEPAD are currently enjoying a substantial measure of goodwill within the ambit of the APSA.

Although NEPAD is being criticised for having been influenced by the G8 and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and, most notably, the British government, De Waal (2002:463) advises on the essential activities that are necessary to sustain development in the face of complex humanitarian emergencies in Africa. De Waal (2002:466) argues that the concept of “enhanced partnership” resides at the core of NEPAD’s implementation strategy. De Waal (2002) further states that “enhanced partnership” is a common commitment by all the AU member states to a set of development outcomes that include the enhancement of partnerships in peace and security.

Although De Waal (2002:466) argues that the labelling of enhancing partnerships in peace and security as NEPAD by African leaders remains hazardous, important to this study is the investigation of narratives that people tell among themselves about themselves, and not to become judgemental. In contributing to the discourse on identity and destiny, Živković (1997:23) establishes that the narratives that people tell among themselves and to others about themselves significantly shape and channel the struggle over thoughts and sway the dominant public opinion while giving direction to different projects and shared national identity and interests.

It is on the basis of this theoretical argument that the study submits the following statement:

The African leaders have learned from their experiences that peace, security, democracy, good governance, human rights and sound economic growth are conditions for sustainable development. They are making a pledge to work, both individually and collectively, to promote these principles in their countries, sub-regions and the continent (NEPAD, 2001:16).

The opinion of the African military leaders on the military role in supporting sustainable development finds expression in their commitment to the CADSP, APSA, MDP, guidelines to the AU on the role of the ASF in HANDS, and the UN humanitarian framework that advocate partnership in peace and security. Furthermore, De Waal (2002:462) states that the AU adopted NEPAD as “an umbrella for best practices” that links “peace and security with socio-economic development” (Busumtwi-Sam, 2006:71). Given the connections between enhancing partnership in peace and security and safeguarding the social and economic dimensions of sustainable development, this study submits that the military role in protecting citizens and territorial integrity of any sovereignty is the distinguishing policy-based feature of the defence operations strategy in supporting development.

Although NEPAD is viewed as an umbrella for best practices, Kindiki (2003:104) suggests that it does not have any legal status in international humanitarian law to enforce the military role in supporting development, but only exists on the basis of state agreements. Given this normative constraint to enhancing international peace and security on the basis of promoting good governance, Kindiki (2003) would agree that the institutional structures to be established under NEPAD are bound to interplay with the existing structures under the AU, which include the PSC, ASF, RECs and their regional brigades, and rapid military capabilities – the regional administrative arrangements that underpin the theory of the MOAD. Kagwanja (2006:159) affirms that the maintenance of peace and security is the top African policy objective in pursuit of sustainable development.

### **7.3 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the study sought to establish the distinguishing features of the defence operations strategy that may support the Agenda for Sustainable Development. In addressing this primary concern, this chapter focused on selected pieces of legislation and policy frameworks. These source documents are sequels to the Lagos Plan of Action that culminated into NEPAD as the implementation mechanism for development in Africa. The chapter also explored the notion of a common defence policy that gives rise to various machineries like the AGA, APSA, ASF, regional brigades, and the envisaged military responses to complex emergencies.

These policy frameworks lay a solid foundation for the major conclusions, findings, and recommendations in Chapter 8.

## CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

### 8.1 OVERVIEW

In reflecting on the analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data emerging from this study, this chapter takes a cue from Susan Spiggle and focuses on the key concepts of analysis and interpretation. Spiggle (1994:491) observes that challenges related to qualitative data analysis and interpretation reside at the level of epistemology – “the issue of how knowledge products can and should be evaluated”. This epistemological question raises the debate around the validity of conclusions, findings/inferences, and recommendations made in this study. In this particular study, the researcher utilised theoretical sampling as the data-collection procedure used in grounded theory and recursive methods<sup>183</sup> to establish robustness and trustworthiness. In this study, the recursive methods used to arrive at specific conclusions were limited to analysis, synthesis, and interpretation. These three methods are used in a “linear or circular way, discretely or in tandem” (Spiggle, 1994:492).

*Analysis:* In arriving at the conclusions of this study, the researcher depended on selected data-manipulation operations, which were limited to:

- categorisation of emerging properties;
- abstraction or higher-order conceptual construct formulations;
- constant comparison of categories and properties;
- dimensionalisation of emerging properties within the Agenda for Sustainable Development;
- integration through analogue to biology;
- iteration by moving back and forth between pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, scholarly contributions, and people’s experiences; and
- refutation through context-based case analysis (see Spiggle, 1994:493-496).

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<sup>183</sup> Defined as methods that call upon themselves until a “base condition” is true.

In doing so, the study purposefully manipulated the emerging data to best address the questions raised in this study.

*Synthesis:* In this study, synthesis is defined as the “activities in which separate parts are brought together to form a ‘whole’; this construction of the whole is essentially characterised by some degree of innovation, so that the result is greater than the sum of its parts” (see Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009:2). In this study, various parts were brought together from pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, most often cited scholarly contributions, and case studies drawn from historical experiences. In bringing together these written interpretative accounts, Barnett-Page and Thomas (2009) argue that mere integration would be inappropriate. Given the various approaches to qualitative synthesis (e.g. reciprocal translation analysis [RTA] and refutation synthesis), this study was restricted to lines-of-argument synthesis. The use of the lines-of-argument synthesis method in this study involved building a picture of the MOAD from studies of OOTW and OAD as its parts. Furthermore, the study utilised grounded theory to complement the emergent theoretical lines of argument by using theoretical sampling to generate more data and reach the theoretical saturation and the generation of the theory of MOAD (see Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009:2). RTA was also used by borrowing biological models to understand phenomena in public administration through metaphors.

*Interpretation:* Spiggle (1994:497) argues that qualitative analysis and synthesis procedures may assist a researcher to manipulate data in pursuit of own interests. Conversely, Spiggle (1994) states that the interpretation process creates sense from data through the higher-order conceptualisation of the emerging data. In this instance, Spiggle (1994) states that data manipulation is not a series of operations. Stated differently, Spiggle (1994:497) argues that interpretation involves a set of “gestalts shift and represents a synthetic, holistic, and illuminating grasp of meaning, as in deciphering a code”. In this study, the researcher interpreted the *distant* – less familiar experience – into one that is *near* – more concrete and familiar, and was thus able to grasp its meaning by visualising some similarities “between a new sign system, a text, and a previously understood one” (Spiggle, 1994:498). In this instance, the global responses to complex emergencies provide a new sign system, existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks the text, and biological systems the understood designs.

In concluding the foregoing discussion, the study submits that the concepts of qualitative analysis, synthesis, and interpretation are separated for purposes of establishing the applied logic in this study. Since this study depended on recursive processes, the application of this method is mostly integrative in nature. Chapter 8 is arranged into three parts, namely major conclusions from previous chapters, findings or inferences, and recommendations and conclusion.

## **8.2 MAJOR CONCLUSIONS**

Chapter 1 set the stage for the study by asserting that existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions offer the opportunity to develop substantive theory on the MOAD. In doing so, the researcher opened with the signing of the UN-AU Framework for Enhanced Partnership in Peace and Security in April 2017, and the subsequent signing of the AU-UN Framework for the Implementation of Agenda 2063 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. In stimulating academic debate, the researcher repeatedly submitted throughout this thesis that the signing of both frameworks, pieces of legislation, and others paved the way for the policy-based connections between the military role and sustainable development in Southern Africa.

In grounding the foregoing theoretical conclusion, the researcher took a cue from the baseline concepts that were formulated from the preliminary readings, which included regional administration, RDA, OAD, MOAD, technocratic cooperation, and partnerships in peace and security. The formulation of these concepts was based on the clear intention to deviate from the traditional research questions in defence management that seek to address micro-management and macro-management issues and related elements known as POSTEDFIT, which stands for personnel, organisation, sustainment, training, equipment, doctrine, facilities, information and technology (Du Plooy, Martinette & Yadavalli, 2015:4).

On the other hand, the formulation of baseline concepts was also intended to deviate from the traditional questions in Public Administration and Management research that focuses on the generic management functions of planning, organising, leading, and control (Theletsane, 2014:38). The researcher therefore managed to merge two concepts known as regional administration and defence administration to formulate a

new concept called RDA. Furthermore, the formulation of RDA as a higher-order construct was informed by the contestation between two principal higher-order concepts, namely common security regime and regional defence cooperation.

The researcher submits that the attributes of these two principal concepts point to the need for the conceptualisation of RDA as an implementation tool for the APSA. These attributes include, but are not limited to, enhanced partnerships, peace and security, military operational activities, technocratic authority, coordinated planning, competitive advantage, and collaborative efforts.

The foregoing observations point to the new concept of RDA as a capstone in establishing the central assumption in this study within the field of Public Administration; purporting that the military role in maintaining international peace and security provides support to sustainable development. The methodology used in exploring this central assumption was detailed in Chapter 2 of this study.

Chapter 2 addressed methodological issues with the view to justify some of the steps taken in this research work. Furthermore, some of the justifications were intended to address major concerns that continue to cloud the field of Public Administration Research. This study intentionally deviated from the existing tension resulting from the nature of Public Administration Research as a science or an art, and focused on grounded theory methodological approaches. These methodological approaches are relevant in enabling the systematic “data mining” from existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and worldwide cited scholarly contributions that assisted in building the substantive theory on the military role in supporting sustainable development, to be known as the theory of MOAD.

Chapter 2 presented the problem statement, which established the need to demystify the military role as the conveyance of enforced industrialisation and to focus on the defence operations strategy that influences policy decisions on sustainable development. This problem statement offered the opportunity to surface the policy-based connection between the military and durable peace, between durable peace and sustainable development, and the absence of academic research on possible connections between the military role and sustainable development. The emergent data established the policy-based connections between the military role and



sustainable development within the continuum of security-peace-development systems.

In strengthening the theoretical line of argument that supports the notion of policy-based connections between the military role and sustainable development, this research work was guided by the following primary question: What are the distinguishing features of defence operations strategy in support of sustainable development in Southern Africa? Supported by its four secondary questions, this primary question provided guidance in addressing the aim and objectives set out in this study. More summaries will follow regarding the conclusions related to the aim and objectives in this study. It is relevant at this stage to conclude that enhancing partnerships in peace and security is the central feature that distinguishes the military role in supporting sustainable development.

Furthermore, Chapter 2 raised the ontological concern around the “origin of the core” of the new concept of RDA. In addressing this concern, the researcher argued that the practice of RDA is a science of Public Administration. In establishing the roots of Public Administration science, the researcher took a cue from the historical military experiences that influenced the traditional African leaders in establishing ancient regimes in Southern Africa, which include, but are not limited to, King Rozvi Mutota of the Vakaranga, King Shaka kaSenzangakhona of the Zulu nation, King Mzilikazi kaKhumalo of the Matebele people, and King Moshoesheo wa-Mokhachane of the Basotho nation. The study concluded that the military role in supporting regime building constitutes the “origin of the core” of RDA, and that these administrative practices are amenable to scientific research.

The foregoing conclusion finds support from the notion of theory building from case studies (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:25; Yin, 2006:111; Neumann, 1996:409; Lewis, 2015:474). These scholars assisted in the design of case studies with reference to:

- the criteria for case selection;
- analytical framework;
- generating data;
- constant comparison;
- coding and memo writing;

- establishing theoretical sensitivity and saturation points;
- data-based empirical grounding and strengthening conceptual density; and
- the selection of sensitising words, phrases, and concepts.

The researcher therefore managed to formulate the higher-order constructs from the emergent data in pursuit of building the substantive theory on MOAD; for example, the military role in enhancing partnerships in peace and security in support of sustainable development is a worldwide acceptable construct.

Chapter 3 stimulated the academic debate by submitting that the General Act of the Berlin Conference on West Africa of 1885 and the Brussels Conference Act of 1890 constitute fundamental administrative arrangements that continue to shape relations between the military role and development programmes within the Southern African region today. The researcher argued that although the ancient African leaders used their military capabilities as standing administrative arrangements in building their kingdoms, little or nothing has been written on military activities besides ordered orations that are left to oral history. Although these oral histories remain relevant, this study intentionally made a choice not to follow the oral historical methodology.

Since the General Act of the Berlin Conference on West Africa of 1885 and the Brussels Conference Act of 1890 remain the oldest and the only ancient written pieces of legislation that provide the “origin of the core” of the military role in supporting development programmes, the researcher concluded that the OAU Charter is the direct response to their contents. For example, Article 35 of the 1885 General Act of the Berlin Conference provides for the military role in enforcing the occupation of and free trade in the African colonies by the European powers. On the other hand, Article II of section 1(d) of the OAU Charter provides for the total eradication of all forms of colonialism in Africa. These policy-based interactions between the European military expeditions and the policy-based African military resistance against colonialism point to the importance of historical military experiences in shedding light on the hidden mysteries related to the military role in support of development.

In exploring possible hidden mysteries, Chapter 3 explored existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions that may link the military role and development programmes. Regarding existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks, the study focused on global, regional, and national

administrative arrangements. Following some intensive interrogation of these source documents, the study established the policy-based connections, namely between the military role and durable peace, between durable peace and sustainable development, and possible connections between the military role and sustainable development.

Regarding academic contributions, the study established that Kofi Annan, the former UN Secretary-General, is a prominent scholar in the field of International Public Administration and the founding father of an indivisible nexus between durable peace and sustainable development (see Annan, 2002; Annan, 2004; Annan, 2008). The emergent evidence also points to Sir Murrack Irvine Goulding as the founding father of the UN's Department of Peacekeeping Operations, who also initiated 16 new military peace missions between 1992 and 1997. It suffices to say that Goulding, the former UN force commander, is a pioneer in the field of International Peacekeeping and the founding father of the nexus between the military operations and durable peace (see Goulding, 1993).

Finally, the existing evidence points to Desta Mebratu as the current deputy director of the UN's regional office for Africa responsible for the UNEP and a prominent scholar in the fields of sustainability and sustainable development. Mebratu (1998:504) asserts that the "definition of sustainable development given by the Brundtland Commission serves as the core element for almost all of the established definitions". Given the complexities that characterise the established definitions of sustainable development, the study subscribed to the definition provided by the International Institute of Environment and Development. This definition is based on the three systems that characterise any process of development projects. Mebratu (1998:505) provides these systems as the social system, economic system, and ecological or biological system.

Given the abovementioned development systems, the study borrowed from Mebratu (1998:505) in concluding that joint and multiple partnerships enable the empowerment of society in managing the interdependence of people and nature, and in having a clear knowledge of balancing environmental constraints and the requirement to meet the human developmental needs. The researcher submits that enhancing partnerships in peace and security remains key in achieving the foregoing developmental aspirations – the promotion of self-sustaining human development and safeguarding environmental wellness. Absent in the foregoing conclusions is the policy-based

responsibility of military organisations to support sustainable development, which is the theoretical gap that was addressed in Chapter 4 of this study.

Chapter 4 constituted the central theoretical arguments that frame this study. Chapter 4 established the policy-based conceptualisation of the notion of MOAD. The researcher therefore sought to establish the theoretical foundation that connects the military role and sustainable development. The study began with the theory of tensegrity to argue that the symbiotic arrangements that characterise biological tissues can be broken down to the biological cellular level. In borrowing from this theory, this study argued that the MOOTW and the civilian OAD are the policy-based specialised functions of the military and civilian organisations respectively. These specialised functions were established from the policy-based intellectual history of the OOTW and OAD respectively. Stated differently, the intellectual history was derived from the UNSC prescripts on peace operations, while the intellectual history of OAD was derived from the UNGA prescripts on sustainable development.

Furthermore, Chapter 4 established that these specialised operational functions are characterised by endeavours to promote humanitarian objectives. For example, the primary objective of military operations is to maintain international peace and security. Conversely, the primary objective of humanitarian agencies is to provide humanitarian assistance in support of the maintenance of peace and security. This finding was derived from the increasing need to enhance partnerships in peace and security that include both the military and civilian organisations. Furthermore, this finding was derived from the growing recognition of the system-wide intergovernmental framework that responds to partnerships in peace and security.

Chapter 4 also argued that the notion of MOAD is situated at the point of convergence between the OOTW and OAD with humanitarian objectives as the bonding factor. Furthermore, the MOAD is characterised by the collaboration, cooperation, and coordination between military and civilian personnel in pursuit of humanitarian objectives. Furthermore, Chapter 4 established that the interaction between the civilian and military organisations within the HRS is guided by international pieces of legislation and policy frameworks.

In conceptualising the notion of MOAD, the study depended on the generally held view that the increasing worldwide interdependence of military and civilian organisations

that respond to devastating complex emergencies is a step towards the long-term Agenda for Sustainable Development. In exploring this generally held view, the study depended on the theory of systems thinking, biomimicry, metaphorical thinking, and design by analogy to biology and tensegrity systems. This theory established the military and civilian organisations as mutually and inescapably interdependent in shaping the HRS. The military organisations respond to mechanical compressions, while the civilian organisations engage in tensile forces that characterise the HRS. The researcher submits that these structural differentiations enable the military and civilian organisations to complement each other within the HRS.

Chapter 5 deepened the intersubjective understanding of the military role in support of development in Southern Africa. This chapter argued that the deployment of the military organisation in support of development has been the way of life for many years. In expounding on this theoretical line of argument, the study focused on the historical military experiences in Southern Africa. Selected narratives were limited to the European military expeditions that led to the following establishments:

- Bechuanaland protectorate administration;
- German protectorate in South West Africa;
- Portuguese protectorate in Angola;
- British and German protectorates in the mainland of East Africa;
- British protectorate in Zambia;
- European powers in the Congo Lake Region;
- Portuguese powers in Mozambique; and
- British Matabeleland protectorate.

The common factor in the establishment of all these protectorates was the policy-based use of the military organisation to effectively ensure European occupation of the African continent. The use of the military police in the administration of occupied territories was also a common observation. The notion of “civilization” as the objective of these European military expeditions underpins the notion of the military role in the intersubjective understanding of development. It is on the basis of these positional differences between the European and indigenous communities that the researcher argued that the military organisation has been a way of life in supporting the Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Chapter 6 sought to establish the roots of the military role in support of development within the context of the military as a profession and its related metaparadigms. In this chapter, the researcher argued that the MOAD must be understood within the context of the mainstream military metaparadigms. In this instance, military metaparadigm referred to the “greater structure (the metaphysical paradigm) [that] acts as an encapsulating unit, or framework, within which the more restricted, or higher-order, structures develop” (Eckberg & Hill, 1979:927). In this particular instance, the notion of the military profession was viewed as a metaphysical paradigm within which four other restricted and higher-order constructs developed. This argument was derived from the Socratic dialogue that gave rise to the notion of the military profession.

In strengthening the notion of the military as a profession, the study depended on the most widely cited writings by Plato, Huntington (1957), and Janowitz (1960). These writings led to the development of four higher-order constructs that distinguish the military as a profession, namely:

- ethics-bound responsibility to swiftly protect the state;
- the authority to fully exploit military learning opportunities, gained knowledge, and flexibility in protecting citizens from threats to peace and security;
- competence-based military frameworks for coercion in protecting the natural environment; and
- military science as a foundation for professionalism.

In exploring these functional components of the military profession, this chapter took advice from Ritchey (1991) on the importance of “loosening up” existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks (analysis) and “bringing together” the emergent data (synthesis) for purposes of theory. Chapter 6 also borrowed from Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010) on the importance of considering the values, culture, and political and social environment that bear on the use of the military organisation in support of development. Furthermore, this chapter learned from Gioia and Pitre (1990) that the multiparadigms approach enabled the researcher to establish the correspondences between the component of the military metaparadigm and theory construction efforts. Finally, this chapter took advice from Sebola and Nkuna (2012) in borrowing from other disciplines, including biology, political science, sociology, social psychology, and military science.

In exploring the abovementioned higher-order constructs that distinguish the military as a profession, the researcher focused on the military experiences in the new South Africa with respect to the evolution of defence policy between 1994 and 2015. The analysis and synthesis of these pieces of legislation and policy frameworks gave rise to the corresponding four pillars of the military metaparadigm, namely the state, people, environment, and professionalism components.

*The state component:* The state component of the military paradigm is underpinned by the logic of the developmental state. This logic advocates for a state that tames the mainstream domestic market and influences the international market through the lens of its own political ideology and positional differences that relate to the use of state capabilities and assets. In this instance, this chapter argued that the military is the property of the state and can be used in response to complex emergencies. Complex emergencies are defined as threats to peace and security and include extreme poverty, unemployment, inequality, and criminality. This view is expressed in the South African Defence Review of 2015.

*The people component:* The people component of the military paradigm entails the logic of transformation. This logic argues that the military has the primary mandate to protect the people from any threat to peace and security, and not only warfare. In this instance, peace and security are viewed as the most desirable conditions that enable people to freely participate in various activities for socio-economic development. This view finds expression in the South African SAWPD of 1996.

*The environment component:* The environment component of the military paradigm is grounded on the logic of critical infrastructure. This logic provides that the military has the duty to protect natural resources, economic line of communication, energy, transportation, health, economic vitality, and human life. This view is well expressed in the Bush Administration's report on the National Strategy for the Physical Protection of Critical Infrastructure and Key Assets.

*The professionalism component:* The professionalism component of the military paradigm is underpinned by the logic of military science. This logic provides for military education, training, and development that endow military officers with the appropriate knowledge, skills, attitudes, and credibility, while advancing the professionalism of the defence force in general. Among other skills, military personnel are trained in various



professional fields, including health services, engineering, maritime domain awareness, logistic management, finance, human resource management, communication systems, aeronautical science, and air transportation systems. This logic finds expression in the South African Defence Review of 2015.

The foregoing discussion finds support from Sindane (2004), Theletsane (2014), Behn (1995), Kirilin (1996), Neumann (1996), and Denhardt (2001) with regard to their relevance to the study of Public Administration in terms of administrative arrangements and processes, original foundations, and ethical issues. Furthermore, Mafunisa (2003) advises on the importance of moral obligations in public administration; Maserumule (2005; 2010) advises on good governance within the context of NEPAD; and Fourie (2009) reflects on the importance of effective governance. These scholars would support the conclusion that good governance within the context of the Agenda for Sustainable Development is at the core of Public Administration.

The chapter concluded that the military capability is tailored to respond to any form of complex emergencies, which include extreme poverty, inequitable access to biodiversity services, epidemics and pandemics, natural disasters, and others.

Chapter 7 established the distinguishing features of the military operational strategy for development. In doing so, the chapter depended on the premise that strategic responses to complex emergencies is the foundation for long-term development objectives. Furthermore, this chapter drew from the World Bank's view that investment in infrastructure is important in broadening the opportunity for people and regional communities to participate in various systems of production and agendas for development. The foregoing premises underpins the logic that underpins the distinguishing feature of the military role in support of development.

In expounding on the abovementioned logic, the chapter explored existing pieces of legislation, policy frameworks, and complementary scholarly contributions. The following source documents were used, namely:

- the Lagos Plan of Action;
- the Monrovia Declaration on Development;
- the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Communities of June 1991;



- the African Priority Program for Recovery (1986-1990) and the Abuja Treaty (1991);
- the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (Arusha 1990);
- the OAU Declaration on the Political and Socio-economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes Taking Place in the World (1990); and
- NEPAD.

This chapter focused on the most common utterances, and important to this study was grounding the military role in response to complex emergencies. This implies that the military role in response to complex emergencies is grounded on existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks.

It is important to note that NEPAD is an implementing mechanism for the objectives set out in the other six policy frameworks. It is also important to note the shared opinion among the African leaders on the military role in support of sustainable development that finds expression in the CADSP, APSA, MDP, guidelines to the AU on the role of the ASF in HANDS, and the UN humanitarian framework that advocates partnerships in peace and security. The notion of enhancing partnerships for peace and security is central to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Furthermore, the military role in maintaining international peace and security is enshrined in the UN Charter. This implies that the military role in supporting sustainable development is enshrined in existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks. In this instance, the distinguishing feature of the military role in support of development finds expression in the interdependence of civilian and military organisations with regard to rapid responses to devastating complex emergencies, which is a gigantic step in promoting the long-term Agenda for Sustainable Development.

### **8.3 FINDINGS**

The study successfully illustrated the importance of testing emerging observations and related decision-making processes as opposed to blindly subscribing to the generally held belief about the traditional military operations strategy. In doing so, the study established that the decision-making processes that led to observable non-traditional military roles offer the opportunity to build substantive theories in defence

administration, as well as the opportunity to provide direction in the transformation of regional administration, as opposed to the generally held belief around traditional military operations strategy.

These findings established the logic that gave rise to the notion of RDA – the public administration practices that enable the decision-making processes in the advancement of MOAD. The MOAD reside at the point of convergence between pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that advocate the OOTW and OAD within the context of the military-peace-development nexus:

- There are policy-based frameworks that establish the linkages between the military role and durable peace (i.e. OOTW), and between durable peace and sustainable development (i.e. OAD).
- The interdependence between military and civilian organisations in response to devastating complex emergencies establishes the theoretical foundation that links the military role and sustainable development (MOAD).
- The rapid responses to multidimensional humanitarian needs are the distinguishing feature of the military operations strategy that supports any Agenda for Sustainable Development.
- The national defence administration is increasingly determined by the regional administrative practices that respond to devastating complex emergencies.
- Existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks provide the most reliable sources of administrative practices that assist in building the theory of MOAD.
- The most common utterances from existing pieces of legislation and policy frameworks that advance the military-peace-development nexus offer the opportunity to “test” the level of grounding and the degree of density that may justify the theory of MOAD.
- The RDA imposes international ethical obligations upon the statutory military organisations to support the state in maintaining durable peace that advances the Agenda for Sustainable Development.

The foregoing findings conclude this study.

## **8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Recommendations for future research are limited to the “testing” of the theory of MOAD using the level of grounding and degree of density between emergent properties as the starting points. Examples include, but are not limited to, notions of:

- enhancing partnerships for peace and security;
- the interdependence of military and civilian organisations in response to complex emergencies;
- the duty to protect the state, people, and territorial integrity; and
- international obligations to support the state in providing basic services to people, including health, food security, education, social justice, good governance, and equitable access to natural resources.

## **8.5 CONCLUSION**

In Chapter 8, the researcher began with the major conclusions that emerged from the previous seven chapters of this study. This major conclusion gave rise to the central argument in this thesis, namely that rapid and effective responses to complex emergencies are a gigantic step in promoting the long-term Agenda for Sustainable Development. This central theoretical line of argument establishes the interdependence between military and civilian organisations in response to complex emergencies – the linkage between OOTW and OAD that gave rise to MOAD. It is on the basis of this linkage that the researcher established the findings of this study.

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