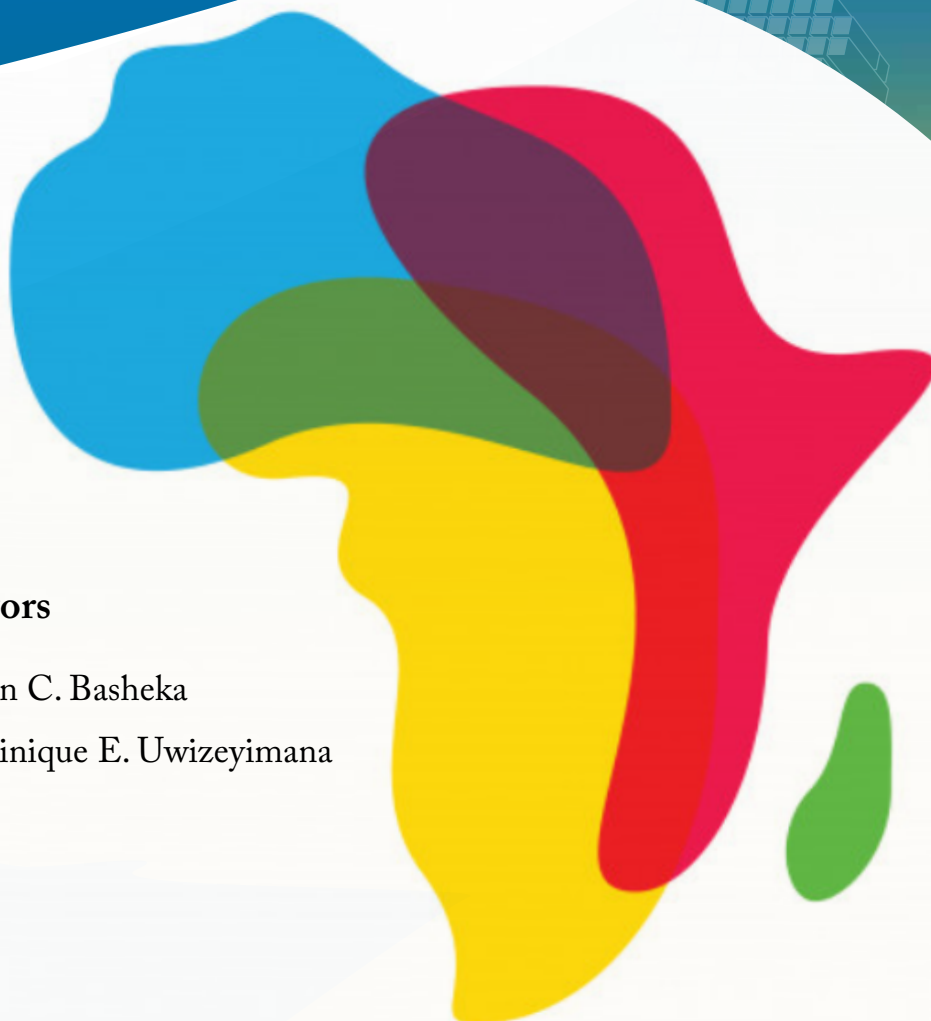Inaugural Issue

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Editors

Benon C. Basheka

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Editorial

Governance and Public Leadership: Bundles of Democratic societies?

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Like an elephant being described by blind men differently depending on where each of them touches, governance and public leadership are concepts prone to different interpretations by different people. Some commentators would even uncourteously question whether a certain theme falls within the scope and intellectual boundaries of Governance and Public Leadership. Yet Governance and Public leadership are themes that have walked the practices and theoretical debates about running of society and ought to have a certain degree of uniformity in their understanding. Governance and leadership have solved problems of mankind but they have also in innumerable ways contributed to creation of problems of mankind. As such, they are concepts whose significance to the management of societal affairs ought to be appreciated and understood. A failure in governance and public leadership affects every person in society.

When man started living in organized societies, the subject of governance and leadership emerged (Ball and Peters, 2005:3). As soon as people began to live together in groups, there was a need to find ways to govern the emerging societies and some members of society who had certain credentials had to take on leadership roles. What is known today as government did not start today. Governmental institutions of whatever form and nature have existed for a reasonably long time. Ancient people had their own governance and public leadership systems and those who had a duty to be in leadership positions were required to demonstrate qualities of a good standing. Understandably, the governments of those times are different from those of the later periods. Subsequent governments tended to demonstrate some degree of complexity and so became public leadership. Modern governments are faced with more complexities never known to the governments of the past.

Within the African governance architecture, there were pre-colonial governments and these were based on indigenous systems and practices. Then came the colonial period with what perfectly fits to be colonial governments) and subsequently the post-colonial governments both immediate post-colonial governments and the contemporary governments. One theme that connects all forms and types of governments is that of public leadership. For better governance to exist, as viewed in Montesquieu's "The Spirit of Laws" (1748), there ought to be a government that works for all.

Adeola (2007:107) tells us convincingly that the history of great nation has been linked to visionary and purposeful leadership and by implications, the history of bad nations is also linked to poor leadership. Good public leadership has seen socio-economic development and political emancipation of countries. Yet, attention seems always directed to the 'hardware' elements at the expense of 'software' elements in form of leadership and governance. On this unfortunate approach, Bratton and Rothchild, (1992:263) remind us that it is surprising how, for too long, social scientists dealing with Africa's development have concentrated on economic issues, overlooking the highly important political dimension of the process. Governance and leadership constitute the political processes. Even when Leadership is reportedly one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth, debates on the subject matter of leadership and governance presents no major ground of intellectual confrontation (Basheka,2020).

Governance has myriad meanings and is a word that is attached to anything-political governance, corporate governance, environmental governance, health governance, economic governance, e-governance, good governance and many more. Those in the business world attach it to corporate to make corporate governance, those in environment attach it to their thing to coin environmental governance, those in politics attach the same to produce political governance as economists easily come with economic governance. It has become a rather promiscuous term. Lawyers use governance to measure the performance of governments on rule of law and protection of human rights. Getting good governance calls for improvements that touch virtually all aspects of the public sector - from institutions that set the rules of the game for economic and political interaction, to organizations that manage administrative systems and deliver goods and services to citizens, to human resources that staff government bureaucracies, to the interface of officials and citizens in political and bureaucratic arenas (Grindle, 2002:1).

Governance need not be exclusively conducted by governments (Keohane & Nye 2000:12). Hughes (2003:76-7) attempted to differentiate government and governance by stating that government was the institution itself while governance was a broader concept describing the forms of governing which are not necessarily in the hands of formal government. Private firms, associations of firms, non-Governmental organizations (NGOs), Community-Based-Organisations (CBOs), civil society organisations, and individual citizens are all engaged in governance (Grindle, 2010). The practice of leadership and governance in contemporary period straddles complexities of networked societies, influenced by the ICT revolution and the beauty of the 4th Industrial Revolution; notwithstanding the fact that Africa still lags behind this revolution. In contemporary times, issues of gender and equity now sound significant than they were in the old times. The requests by the youth; possibly out of frustration have no respect for elders and governing or leading in such a context is challenging. Patriotism and love for one's country and culture are on the decline. The modern world seems to be have led to a society characterized by hatred, love for self-aggrandizement and greed. The temples of justice as they used to be called are slowly turning into temples of injustice. The legislatures which were once institutions of respect are now institutions of mockery. The human rights abuse and harassment with which the ordinary man on the straight is subjected to by those who serve on behalf of this man depicts a society that has run in deficits as far as governance is concerned. Such is the environment where a journal of governance and public leadership expects scholarship works.

In this inaugural issue, five articles written from different contexts are presented. They all touch on the scope and subject matter of governance and public leadership.

Timothy Marango and Leonard Chitongo, writing from the Zimbabwean context start off the first article entitled 'Trust a Resilience Builder for Sustainable Development in a Disaster-Prone District: Insights from Chimanimani Rural District, Zimbabwe'. Public leadership and good governance require trust between the governors and the governed, the leaders and the led. The authors demonstrate how politics, social diversity and the current economic meltdown have divided citizens of Zimbabwe especially when they compare their society of the post-independence period where leaders had a degree of trust from their citizens. In the immediate post-colonial period, in that country as told to us by the authors, infrastructural, political and socio-economic growth was based on the generality's trust in the newly-independent country' institutional systems. However, corruption, non-transparency and failure to put in place systems of accountability have tainted the functionality of community and government institutional systems. This is a sign of a severe human factor decay and they blame it on lack of trust. Their conclusions were based on an assessment of the level of trust of the Chimanimani community in 29 institutional systems. They conclude that little trust or no trust among individuals and institutions is the biggest disservice to resilience building and disaster management.

The current pandemic in the world has seriously questioned the governance architecture of countries and the leadership capacity of those in charge of public affairs. Not only has the pandemic disrupted the functioning of society but it has also sharply opened the governments to scrutiny. To help us understand public leadership and governance in these contexts, **Njanji Prince and Zhou Gideon** from Zimbabwe to their credit walk us through a second article on 'The COVID-19" new normal": Implications for public sector management and governance'. Their study which adopted a comparative public administration stance reviewed the selected governments' responses to COVID-19 pandemic in China, the United States of America, the United Kingdom, South Africa and Zimbabwe to come to their conclusions. From an analysis of their data, they found that the theme of leadership resilience was shown to be one of the determinants of smoothly adapting to the demands of the 'new normal. They argue that to continue governmental roles, most governments, especially those that have been lagging behind, continue to fast-track the implementation of digital services such as telemedicine, contactless learning, and electronic public services, among others. This equally requires good leadership.

Inextricably, governance and public leadership debates are incomplete without a mention of the unique situation of the role of gender. In this respect, the article by **Mastullah Ashah Mwanga, Paul Shimiyu and Wilfred Lajul** brings the issues of women in governance and public leadership. The authors forcefully defend the women cause through their article entitled 'Governance Challenges to Women's Realisation of The Right to Sexual and Reproductive Health: The case of Women in Polygamous Marriages in Uganda'. The authors seem to have been motivated by the discrepancy of failure to acknowledge women's competence to consent to health care which amounts to a violation of their right to equality before the law.

Rights of women is a key governance issue in contemporary governments. Their study was of a qualitative strand and was conducted in in the districts of Arua, Buikwe, Gomba, Jinja, Mayuge, Namayingo and Iganga districts in Uganda. Their findings revealed that the effect of polygamous relationships have serious reproductive and /or health consequences for women. The analysis of the realization of sexual reproductive rights in Uganda was based on family planning, HIV/Aids concerns, quality of maternal health care, battering, mental health, emotional stress.

Tonny Muzaale, in the fourth article entitled 'Management function and Water quality service concerns: Emerging management issues in selected town councils in Uganda' brings a new dimension to the subject of public leadership and governance. He unquestionably makes it clear how water is an indispensable natural resource for the survival and wellbeing of humankind. Fulfilling this demand of all members of society calls for leadership and better governance. Unfortunately, the author observes that many urban communities in sub-Saharan Africa still lack clean water for basic needs such as drinking and washing. Even where water points have been constructed, many break down prematurely or provide inadequate, seasonal or poor-quality water supplies. While technomanagerial factors are relevant in explaining these problems, attention is needed to the institutional and political-economic dynamics shaping policy outcomes on the ground. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as a manifestation of multivariate analysis was used as an instrument for decision making in factor analysis of water quality service. These problems are a direct result of poor leadership and bad governance.

What would a reader of an African Journal of Governance and Public leadership miss without knowing the journey of governance and public leadership itself? This vacuum is addressed by **Basheka and Uwizeyimana** writing jointly from the Ugandan and South African contexts where they delve into article titled '**trecking the historical concerns for efficiency and effectiveness in the study and practice of public administration**' delve into the concerns of efficiency and effectiveness. Their article is clothed with debates that touch the classical thinkers and the contemporary writers on the subject. They attempt to re-introduce the ideologies of governance and leadership through historicizing the debates and then make a case for their relevance in today's public administration systems. They suggest to us that public administration in its dual nature of being first; a discipline of academic study and second; a field of practice has indeed trekked a long journey and has had its primary concern being that of how to ensure governments work better in the managing public affairs.

In his first Inaugural lecture at Kabale University, Professor Basheka (2020) themed his presentation on **Governance and Leadership as wrappers of constitutional democracy.** Undeniably, he argued that the African governance systems have passed through traumatic stages and the blame is on the leadership deficits which have characterized the continent for long. Leadership and governance are central to mankind's happiness. Governance and leadership remain the only hope for better management of public affairs. When one examines the long journey of human civilization, one is left with no doubt that the deepest concerns of mankind has been a desire to have a better democratic society. Human beings wish to

have a society where everybody is equal, and liberties are protected by those in charge of the state affairs. Humans wish to live in a society where leaders are accountable and where no man is above the laws of the land.

Democratic societies benefit every man or woman no matter their color, race, religion etc. These societies are characterized by respect for humanity and human rights. Such societies believe in fair and regular elections. Democratic societies are governed by rule of law rather than rule by men. Such societies believe in strong institutions that are characterized by independent press, independent judiciary, where freedom of worship and other fundamentals of human rights are protected. Such a society respects the obligations of the international society where sovereignty is respect. Such a democratic society believes. The African Journal of Governance and Public leadership will be devoted to many such debates in subsequent issues. Democratic societies have respect for each of the branches of government and each executes its mandates. The legislature is the closest institution to the people and needs to do a good job. In the Second Treatise of Civil Government, (1690) Locke cautions that:

> *the legislative, or supreme authority, cannot assume to itself a power to rule by extemporary arbitrary decrees, but is bound to dispense justice, and decide the rights of the subject by promulgated standing laws, and known authorized judges* (Locke 1690:112-113).

Rule of law is critical for a democratic society. Aristotle (384-322); a Greek philosopher and who is credited to have been among the earliest advocates of a democratic society based on his analysis of the Greek city states once said "We must begin", "by asking an old and fundamental question – whether it is better to be ruled by the Best man or by the Best Laws." (Aristotle 1962:143). Aristotle's old teacher and mentor Plato had opted for rule by a philosopher king; for which Aristotle provided an answer as: -

> *he who asks Law to rule is asking God and intelligence and no others to rule; While he who asks for the rule of a human being is bringing in a wild beast; for human passions are like a wild beast and strong feelings lead astray rulers and the very best of men. In law you have the intellect without the passions* (Aristotle 1962:143).

Governance and leadership are considered wrappers of a constitutional democracy. The ultimate goal of any modern government is to create a good quality of life of every citizen (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000:90). Governance and leadership determine how society works or does not work. Democracy is not pursued through processes and procedures but there are certain values that go alongside a democratic society. Three most important are individualism-the idea that the dignity and integrity of the individual is of supreme importance. Second is equality-which does not mean that all persons are equal in their talents or possessions, but that each individual has an equal claim to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Third is liberty or freedom. This idea suggests that the individual citizen of a democracy should have a high degree of self-determination. One should have the maximum opportunity of selecting their own purpose in life and the means of accomplishing them (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2009:3).

To have a society of this nature requires good governance, good leadership and good government. There is a warning however which Kanyeihamba (2012:388) in his commentary about election petitions during the presidential elections states that, when he reflects on the dynamics of presidential election petitions and how the establishment attempts to make its way and how the justices of the Supreme court behave whenever called upon to resolve election disputes, he concludes that 'the road to genuine democracy, the rule of law and constitutionalism remains a long one, bumpy and unpredictable'. Without losing hope, good leadership and governance remain at the center of creating the transformative politics a country needs for its growth (Basheka, 2020).

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Trust a resilience builder for sustainable development in a disaster-prone district: Insights from Chimanimani rural district, Zimbabwe
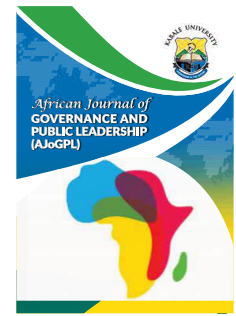
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Abstract

Politics, social diversity and the current economic meltdown have divided citizens in Zimbabwe. Infrastructural, political and socio-economic growth in the first decade of independence was based on the generality's trust in the newly-independent country' institutional systems. However, corruption, non-transparency and failure to put in place systems of accountability have tainted the functionality of community and government institutional systems. This is a sign of a severe human factor decay. Government effort to build trust has been demonstrated through putting in place institutions to deal with corruption at various levels. A study was carried out in Chimanimani District to assess the level of trust of the Chimanimani community in 29 institutional systems. An exploratory design using descriptive statistics was utilised. A Likert-type questionnaire was used to collect data. Convenience and judgmental sampling were used to select 220 grassroots community people to participate in the study. Descriptive data analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 for windows (SPSS Inc: Chicago, IL, USA) was used. The results revealed low a level of trust among individuals, households, government departments, council, civic society and political parties. The researchers concluded that little trust or no trust among individuals and institutions is the biggest disservice to resilience building and disaster management. Revisiting the traditional judiciary, decision making and social healing platforms such as *Matare* to reorient those who provide service to communities is highly recommended. In fact, there is nothing shameful in going back to the African traditional past and modifying it to suit the current society (*Sankofa*) which promoted trust for the resilience of both the family and society.

Key words: Hazards, Matare, Sankofa, Shock, Social Capital, Disaster

Introduction

In communities, resilience has been used in a number of different contexts ranging from climate change to sustainability and to the role of resilience in reducing the vulnerability of communities from natural disasters (Chirisa et al., 2016). Zimbabwe has been divided politically, economically, socially and culturally. This makes it a fragile, non-resilient and disaster-prone state. Remedial actions are available. The remedies are enshrined in the Constitution of Zimbabwe (Amendment No. 20 of 2013). Clear sections on culture, the cornerstone to nation building, and corruption, the cancer that is gnawing at society to its marrow, are available in the Constitution.

However, having these sections and implementing them are two different things. Looking back, taking and embracing that which as a nation (our culture) we have ignored is not a sign of weakness. Once we recollect our conscience and embrace the lost tradition, we will resolve our society's challenges. Our tradition is the remedy to the current human factor decay. Embracing tradition builds trust. Trust is a necessity for community resilience.

In his Address on the Occasion of Presidential Inauguration on 25 May 2019, the South African President Elect Cyril Ramaphosa affirmed that lack of trust by citizen in the very systems that are expected to give hope and resilience to them is a big challenge. He said, "*In recent times our people have watched as some of those in whom they had invested their trust have surrendered to the temptation of power and riches. They have seen some of the very institutions of our democracy eroded and resources squandered. The challenges we face are real. But they are not insurmountable. They can be resolved. And we are going to solve them. In the face of all these challenges our people have remained resolute, resilient, unwavering in their desire for a better South Africa.* "

The speech summed it all. That trust has been a way of living among Africans and has been a resilience builder. Indeed, building trust inculcates a sense of collective action, social inclusion and empowerment. Trust empowers citizens to question, without fear, what is happening around them. In return, those in positions of providing service are obliged to act in a transparent and accountable manner. Traditionally, the Shona elders of Zimbabwe believed that the community was a family. Family did not only refer to a household or those connected biologically or by marriage, but referred to the society which shared a common culture and interests. Every member of the family was expected to account for his/her actions. This implied a well-organised individual, one who had confidence in himself or herself and trusted him/herself, his/her family and the community at large. This is why in this study, the principle of looking back to reclaim that good we have lost (*Sankofa*) is being advocated for.

The traditional platforms of education, decision-making and the judiciary system (*Matare*) which dovetailed with the changing traditions need to be revisited. Trust was inculcated and strengthened at *Matare*. Trust is a virtue of human factor development and a capability that is required for community resilience. Therefore, investing in building trust at individual, household, community, district, regional and national level is a pre-requisite for resilience. In this study, we defined and explained key issues relating to trust, and its role in resilience building, disaster preparedness and governance. We highlight examples of shocks, stressors and hazards that have divided individuals, families, communities and our society at large. As a result of low levels of trust, community members no longer accept even early disaster warnings. They have developed a wait-and-see attitude (Marango et al., 2018). The wait-and-see attitude, for example, made the people of Chimanimani and other parts of the country fail to take heed of the warnings about two cyclones, Eline and Idai, which left trails of human, animal, property, infrastructure and livelihood losses.

Matare are part of an indigenous governance system in Africa which worked well at family and community level in the past. Afrocentricity is anchored on the principle of dare (singular noun) or *Matare* (plural noun) because it allows democratic participation. *Matare* provided a platform for checks and balances (Marango, 2011). The *Matare* concept exists in the family, community, business and government, civic, social and global organisations. These exhibit the rich indigenous knowledge of transparent leadership styles among African societies (Marango et al., 2018). *Matare* were all-encompassing. Anyone was free to

participate without fear of reprisal. The community acted as security for participation. Having this in mind, African leaders at all levels should start reconsidering home grow systems of governance which inculcate trust in them. Foreign governance strategies that come as blueprints and with predefined conditions have been a disservice to Africa. They have, over time, mutated into vices, leading to the extinction of that which held Africans together as one people. The only remedy is looking back to our past the *Sankofa* way.

Quan-Baffour (2012) defines *Sankofa* as gazing back to indigenous knowledge and skills in order to reclaim them. It is going back for that which was lost in the past. *Sankofa* represents a mythical bird among the Akan people of Ghana. It flies with its head turned backwards and with an egg on its mouth. This symbolises the wisdom in learning from one's past, to understand the present and shape the future. The egg symbolises a 'gem' or knowledge of the past from which wisdom is derived. The new generation can benefit from this wisdom (Shapiro, 1990). Indeed, the past illuminates the present. There is need for introspection in order to reflect on the important past so that one plans a suitable action to bring about change. We use the phrase 'critical *Sankofa*' to refer to the approach in which one looks at his traditional past with critical eyes. One then selects elements that would be of use to the present life to build a better future. *Sankofa* is a reminder to everyone to look back to the past practices and revive that which has served their communities for millennia in order to solve the present problems.

Traditional societies were built on trust. Trust is a human factor virtue. Human factor is a recipe for sustainable development. It is a promoter of good governance. It is the opposite of personal and community vices such as corruption, non-accountability, non-transparency and insensitivity to doing wrong. Human factor cuts across personal and community institutional systems. As the cradle of mankind, Africa has been known for human factor development. However, the advent of colonial and foreign knowledge systems distorted the African way of life. African tradition was known for its altruism and non-affinity to egocentric tendencies. In the true African setting, corruption and self-centredness are unAfrican. Any act of corruption or self-love at the expense of others would be exposed openly at *Matare*. According to Adjibolosoo (1993: 142), Human factor refers to " *[t]he spectrum of personality characteristics and other dimensions of human performance that enable social, economic and political institutions to function and remain functional over time. Such dimensions sustain the workings and application of the rule of law, political harmony, a disciplined labour force, just legal systems, respect for human dignity and the sanctity of life and social welfare, among others. As is often the case, no social, economic or political institutions can function effectively without being upheld by a network of committed persons who stand firmly by them. Such persons must strongly believe in and continually affirm the ideals of society*."

Trust refers to mutual faithfulness (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). The term faithfulness was borrowed from Simmel's (1964) sociological work. It is a multi-layered concept which encompasses attributes such as dependability, credibility, faithfulness, information sharing, and the expectation of cooperation between partners (Lamothe & Lamothe, 2011). Trust is the cornerstone of all social relationships. From a sociological perspective, trust is a precondition for the functionality of any society. Luhmann (1979) argues that there are no alternatives to trust except chaos and paralysing fear. The function of trust is therefore the reduction of these complexities (Luhmann, 1979). Scholars argue that the modern industrial society is organised by complex and tightly integrated temporal structures (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). McAllister (1995) posits that social trust is a lubricant to relationships and social systems. It facilitates coordinated action.

Therefore, it cannot be overemphasised that trust is an indispensable and integral component of social relationships. This is so because trust involves the unavoidable elements such as risk and potential doubt. The impact of trust at individual level is the same at all the other levels. This is so because households, communities, districts, regions and nations are made up of many individuals. Trust is built through maintaining some level of honest, effective communication, well-thought decisions, reliability, accepting mistakes and undertaking remedial actions, being in pursuit of righteousness, not downplaying own and others' efforts and, finally, freedom of expression. From this explanation, it is now clear that social trust is the fulcrum of resilience at all levels.

When disasters strike, there is need for resilience. World Health Organisation (WHO, 2002) defines disaster as an occurrence disrupting the normal conditions of existence and causing a level of suffering that exceeds the capacity of adjustment of the affected community. National Institute for Disaster Management (NIDM, 2003) defines a disaster as an event or series of events which gives rise to casualties and damage or loss of properties, infrastructure, environment, essential services or means of livelihood on such a scale which is beyond the normal capacity of the affected community to cope with. In other words, disasters are not only natural but include social and political phenomena such as wars, social conflicts and coups. Resilience is therefore a prerequisite for a community to function and remain functional over time. Building disaster resilience is therefore very important. This can be done by investing in infrastructure such as building hospitals and houses that are earthquake-proof, and schools that can be used as cyclone shelters; developing skills to diversify income sources; improving systems that provide an early warning of shocks and stresses, and making sure these warnings lead to early action; and using insurance providers to minimise the impact of a disaster and transfer risk away from vulnerable governments and communities (DFID, 2013). However, in this study a social perspective to resilience building is forwarded. Material things alone, without building the right mindset for resilience, do not yield the best results.

No one agreed definition is given. However, the term has its origin in Latin resalire, implying "*to spring back*". Thus, the term was derived from Physical Science. Overseas Development Institute ODI (2016) defines resilience as "*the capacity to ensure that adverse shocks and stressors do not have long lasting adverse development consequences.*" In this paper, we will adopt the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC)'s definition of resilience as;
The ability of individuals, communities, organizations or countries exposed to disasters, crises and underlying vulnerabilities to anticipate, prepare for, reduce the impact of, cope with and recover from the effects of shocks and stresses without compromising their long-term prospects (IFRC, 2014: 6).
DFID (2013) posits that 'building disaster resilience' is a phrase used to describe the process of helping communities and countries to be better prepared to withstand and rapidly recover from a shock such as an earthquake, drought, flood or cyclone. According to IFRC (2014), resilience is required at various levels. An individual is said to be resilient when he/she is healthy and empowered. Health denotes having knowledge, skills, competencies and a mindset to adapt to new situations and improve one's life, and those of one's family, friends and community. A resilient household is one with resilient members. A resilient community is one that has potential for strengthening the resilience of its constituent individuals and households.
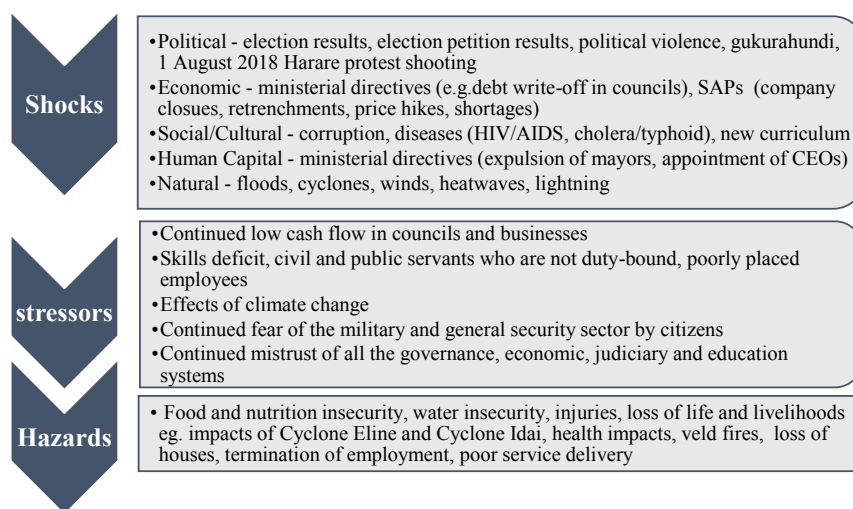
Community resilience is possible when communities are prepared for disasters. This is so because disasters are always part of our lives. For example, DFID (2013) notes that in 2010, natural disasters affected more

than 200 million people, killed nearly 270,000 and caused around $110 billion of damage. In 2011, the world faced the first famine of the 21st Century in the Horn of Africa, multiple earthquakes, tsunamis and other natural disasters around the word. In 1970, a cyclone in Bangladesh killed nearly half a million people and one of a similar strength in 2007 killed 4,000. In the intervening 37 years, Bangladesh had become more resilient through the development of disaster resilient infrastructure and better disaster risk management strategies. With this in mind, it is a factual to say worst scenarios are likely to come. Preparedness and resilience are therefore imperative. DFID (2013) argues that building the resilience of countries and communities can limit the effects of a disaster and the devastation it causes.

According to the IFRC (2014), resilience can be at local government too. Local government is viewed as having the capacity to either strengthen or weaken resilience at the individual, household and community levels. At national government level, resilience deals with policy, social protection systems, infrastructure, laws and governance issues, and can profoundly impact community resilience. Organisations such as National Societies (government departments, civic society groups, and political parties) make contributions that are integral to resilience at all levels. Then there is also regional and global resilience. The impacts of conflicts, violence and insecurity, hunger, mass migration, economic recession and prosperity, pandemics, pollution and climate change, positive and negative effects of globalisation and new technologies all offer examples of the inter-connectedness of the levels. Actions at one level can negatively or positively impact the other levels.

Shock refers to a sudden event with an important and often negative impact on the vulnerability of a system and its parts. Shocks represent significant negative (or positive) impacts on people's means of living and on the functioning of a state. A stressor, on the other hand, is a long-term trend that weakens the potential of a given system and deepens the vulnerability of its actors. Vulnerability means susceptibility to harm and exposure to hazards. A hazard refers to the potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event or trend that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, as well as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, ecosystems and environmental resources (IPCC, 2012).

In Figure 1 below, we give the Zimbabwean range of shocks, stressors and hazards (disasters) that have been, and are still being experienced. The Zimbabwean experiences have divided the citizens. Citizens measured the responsiveness of those who give them services. They then thought of what would happen to them when worst scenarios came. People had experienced disasters before, and they developed perceptions about service providers. They attributed the attitude of service providers to the general governance of individual institutions and the nation at large. Citizens lost all trust in both themselves and institutional systems. This situation has led to very low resilience at individual, community and national levels.

Figure 1: Resilience Challenges in Zimbabwe

Shocks
- Political - election results, election petition results, political violence, gukurahundi, 1 August 2018 Harare protest shooting
- Economic - ministerial directives (e.g.debt write-off in councils), SAPs (company closues, retrenchments, price hikes, shortages)
- Social/Cultural - corruption, diseases (HIV/AIDS, cholera/typhoid), new curriculum
- Human Capital - ministerial directives (expulsion of mayors, appointment of CEOs)
- Natural - floods, cyclones, winds, heatwaves, lightning

stressors
- Continued low cash flow in councils and businesses
- Skills deficit, civil and public servants who are not duty-bound, poorly placed employees
- Effects of climate change
- Continued fear of the military and general security sector by citizens
- Continued mistrust of all the governance, economic, judiciary and education systems

Hazards
- Food and nutrition insecurity, water insecurity, injuries, loss of life and livelihoods eg. impacts of Cyclone Eline and Cyclone Idai, health impacts, veld fires, loss of houses, termination of employment, poor service delivery

The level of trust in the various institutions in Chimanimani District was based on perceptions that had been built over time in citizens. Experience was the basis of the community people's judgment on whether to trust or doubt the institutional systems which they felt were a reflection of the system at national level.

Methodology

This study was carried in the Chimanimani District of Zimbabwe. The district is found in the eastern highlands' province of Manicaland. Chimanimani shares borders with Mozambique in the east, Chipinge District in the south, Buhera District to the west and Mutare District to the north. The District has a population of around 133 810 (ZIMSTAT, 2013). The female population constitutes 52 %. A rugged terrain typifies the district. The altitude ranges from 6 000 m in the east to 600 m in the west, with an average annual rainfall of 1 000 mm in the east and 200 mm in the west. Chimanimani is endowed with natural resources, including forests, fertile soils and precious minerals such as gold, diamonds, lime and copper. The district also boasts spectacular tourist sites, namely, the Bridal Veil Falls, Pera Falls, Vhimba Botanical Reserves and Chimanimani Mountains. This makes it a viable tourist destination.

A quantitative design in the form of a case study was employed in collecting data. The design was in the form of a survey. A survey is viewed as a sociological investigation method, which uses questions or statistical methods to collect information about people's views (Shuttleworth, 2008). Surveys allow researchers to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time. They are less expensive than other data collection techniques. They are quick and easy to create and administer. Surveys can be used to collect information on a wide range of research problems, such as personal facts, attitudes, past behaviours and opinions (Terell, 2012). However, surveys have some disadvantages. If poorly constructed and administered, they can undermine a well-designed study. Various choices of answers provided on a survey may not be accurate reflections of how the participants truly feel.

The selection of participants was randomised. A Likert-scale was used to collect data on community perceptions of the level of social trust in the district. Non-probability sampling methods, both convenience and judgmental, were employed. The method was used because at the time of the study, Chimanimani Rural

District Council did not have a complete record of its residents. Secondly, there were certain respondents with valuable information. These individuals include the district administrator and councillors who could be sampled purposively only. These sampling methods were also found to be relatively cheaper in terms of time and financing.

Five wards out of 23 in the district, namely, Mhandarume (Ward 2), Mhakwe (18), Chikwakwa (19), Chakohwa (3), and Chimanimani Urban (15) participated in the study. Mhandarume has a population of 2938, Chakohwa 4492, Mhakwe 2457, Chikwakwa 3573 and Chimanimani urban 3647. From each Ward, 44 respondents representing various households were selected. A total of 220 local residents participated in the study. A questionnaire in the form of a Likert Scale was used as a tool to collect data and to determine the opinions of respondents. Data was entered into the computer using the Microsoft Excel software package. It was then imported into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc: Chicago, IL, USA). Frequencies of the scores of the dimensions, namely, empowerment and governance, were calculated. The Kruskal-Wallis test for k-independent samples was used to determine if there were any perceptive differences among the Wards. Post-hoc tests for effects that were found to be significantly different were then carried out using the independent samples MannWhitney test.

Ethical clearance was sought from the University of Venda's Ethics Committee and the Chimanimani Rural District Council. Meetings with key stakeholders such as the District Administrator, local community and political leadership were carried out. Written consent was sought. Those who participated understood what it meant to either participate or not. Personal details such as the names of respondents were not included on the questionnaire in order to protect them from possible reprisals. The researchers clarified to the participants how the publication of the findings will be published to ensure honesty and justice.

Results

Demographic Information

Out of the 220 people who participated in this study, 53 % were females. Forty-five percent of the respondents were 20–35 years old followed by 33 % who were aged 36-50 years. Those aged 51-65 years constituted 10 % of the respondents, with 7 % and 5 % being less than 20 years and more than 65 years old, respectively. The majority of the participants (63 %) were married, with 23 % being single and 8 % widowed. Divorcees and those who were co-habiting formed 5 % and 1 % of the total number of respondents, respectively. Most of the respondents (43 %) had attained secondary school level education compared to 32 % who had tertiary qualifications. Almost 15 % had only primary schooling with the remainder having no formal education at all. Approximately 66 % of the respondents had lived in the district for more than 10 years while 18 % had resided there for 6-10 years. Only 16 % of the respondents had resided in the respective wards for less than 5 years. While 47 % reported that they were not employed, 31 % were permanently employed and 12 % self-employed. About 8 % of the respondents were still attending school. An almost negligible proportion of the respondents were in temporary employment.
3.2 Level of social Trust in Chimanimani District of Zimbabwe

Table 1 shows the level of social trust in the Chimanimani District of Zimbabwe. On the level of trust in the family, the majority (82 % of the respondents) agreed that they trusted their family members, whilst only 18 % either disagreed or were not sure. On trust in neighbours, slightly above half (65 %) of the participants agreed that they trusted their neighbours, 19 % did not and 16 % were not sure. From the results, it was revealed that only half (50 %) trusted their village members, 28 % did not and 22 % were not sure. Fairly above half (62 %) trusted their councillors, while 38 % either disagreed or were not sure. The same result was obtained in the survey on the level of trust in the traditional leadership.

Table 1: Level of Social Trust in Chimanimani District

The following people or organisations are so trustworthy that I do not need to be too careful when dealing with them.					
People/Organisation	SD	D	NS	A	SA
1. My family members	7.5	5.7	5	30.2	51.6
2. My neighbours	6.9	12.6	15.7	36.5	28.3
3. Village members	8.2	19.5	22	28.3	22
4. Ward Councillor	9.4	10.1	18.9	30.2	31.4
5. Headmen (Traditional leaders)	7.5	11.9	18.2	31.4	30.8
6. Local radio stations	28.9	18.2	23.9	15.1	13.8
7. Ministry of information and Publicity	25.8	25.2	19.5	22	7.5
8. The Police	20.1	20.8	11.3	27.7	20.1
9. Newspapers (government owned, e.g., Zimpapers)	18.9	25.2	22	21.4	12.6
10. Independent press (e.g., Zimbabwe Independent, etc.)	15.7	15.7	22	31.4	15.1
11. Ministry of Local Government, including the DA's Office	19.5	18.2	23.9	26.4	11.9
12. Rural District Council Officials	15.1	12.6	13.8	35.8	22.6
13. NGOs operating in the ward	4.4	11.3	11.9	35.8	36.5
14. CBOs operating in the ward	8.2	10.7	22.6	37.1	21.4
15. Agricultural Extension officials	10.8	15.8	19.6	29.7	24.1
16. Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA) officials	25.2	17.6	21.4	25.8	10.1
17. Staff members of local schools	12.6	13.2	11.3	38.4	24.5
18. Ministry of Youth staff	20.8	19.5	30.2	17	12.6
19. Ministry of Gender and Women's Affairs staff	27	18.2	23.3	18.2	13.2
20. District Development Fund staff	20.8	12.6	28.3	22	16.4
21. Zimbabwe Electoral Commission	33.3	14.5	20.1	23.3	8.8
22. Department of Registry	14.5	12.6	20.1	32.1	20.8
23. Local Churches	12.7	9.5	8.9	36.1	32.9
24. Central Intelligence Organisation	23.9	18.9	19.5	22	15.7
25. MP's Offices	22.6	19.5	20.1	21.4	16.4
26. Department of Lands	28.5	12	29.1	21.5	8.9
27. Department of Wildlife and National Parks	27.7	9.4	20.8	34.6	7.5
28. Ministry of Health staff	11.9	6.9	18.2	32.7	30.2
29. Political parties	31.4	22	18.9	11.9	15.7

Key: SD strongly disagree **D** disagree **NS** not sure **A** agree **SA** strongly agree

Community perceptions on trust in the local radio stations showed that 47 % did not agree that they trusted them, 24 % were not sure and 29 % agreed. 51% of the participants did not trust the Ministry of Information and Publicity, 28 % trusted it and 21 % were not decided. Slightly below half (47 % of the respondents) trusted the police, 41 % did not and 11 % were unsure. 44% of the respondents did not trust what they read from the (Zimpapers Group) government owned public newspapers, 34 % trusted and the remainder were not sure. Slightly below half (47 %) trusted the privately owned (Independent newspapers), whilst 31 % did not. Only 37 % of the respondents trusted the District Administrator's office, whilst 38 % did not and 24 % reserved their decision. Slightly above half (58 %) trusted the local authority staff (Chimanimani Rural District Council), 28 % did not and 14 % were not sure. A significant number of respondents (72 %) said that they trusted the NGOs operating in the district, and only 16 % did not. 59% of the respondents revealed that they trusted the local CBO, whilst 19 % distrusted and the remainder were undecided. The Agricultural Extension Officers were fairly not trusted with a total of 64 % of the respondents expressing their distrust, while 26 % expressed trust in them. Almost 43 % did not trust the Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA) officials, 36 % trusted them and the rest were neutral. Teachers were fairly not trusted as demonstrated by 69 % of the respondents expressing their disagreement and only about 26 % agreeing with the statement of trust. Generally, community people neither trusted nor mistrusted the Ministry of Youth staff as revealed by the results. The same applied to the Ministry of Gender and Women's Affairs and District Development Fund (DDF) staff. About 49 % of the respondents did not trust the Zimbabwe Electoral Commission (ZEC) whilst about 32 % did. The Department of Registry was fairly trusted with slightly above half (53 %) of the participants expressing agreement. There was a high level of trust in churches (69 %) whilst 22 % doubted them. There was scepticism with regard to the Central Intelligence Organisation, with only 38 % agreeing that they trusted it. The Member of Parliament was only trusted by 37 % of the respondents; the rest ether disagreed or could not give their views. Only about 30 % trusted the Department of Lands. Of all the participants, only 42 % agreed that they trusted the Department of Wildlife and National Parks. There was fair confidence in local health personnel as revealed by 62 % of the respondents agreeing with the statement of trust. Community members did not trust political parties as shown by 52 % of the participants expressing their disagreement, with an extra 19 % not giving their opinion.

Discussion

The concept of resilience is increasingly being placed at the centre of urban management narratives as stated in the Sustainable Development Goal number 11 through which world leaders committed to creating sustainable, safe, resilient and inclusive communities by 2030 (Parnell, 2016). In general terms, urban resilience explains the ability of cities and towns to sustain continuity amid the stresses and shocks that it may go through. In their definition, Meerow, Newell and Stults (2016: 39) state that urban resilience is the ability of an urban system and all its constituents (socio-ecological and socio-technical networks across temporal and spatial scales) to maintain or rapidly retain desired functions in the face of a disturbance, to adapt to change and to quickly transform systems that limit current or future adaptive capacity.

The results revealed severe lack of trust in most of the institutions. Looking closely at the results, only those institutions that work closely with people, consulting and involving people in decision-making, were trusted. Examples of the institutional systems that scored more than 60 % include the family,

neighbourhoods, councillor, traditional leaders, church members, school staff, health staff and the Non-Governmental organisations. These systems allow the participation of everyone. They make decisions pamisangano (family and community gatherings) which are forms of *Matare*. Participatory governance in these systems is the norm. Allowing community members to take active participation in issues that have a bearing on their destinies makes them players rather than spectators on the development field (Marango et al., 2016; 2018). Chikerema (2013) argues that citizen participation is a desired part of community development which should be part of policy-making, implementation and evaluation. Africa Community Publishing & Development Trust (ACPD, 2006) posits that participation implies taking part individually and collectively as a community in decision-making at each step of the development process. Participating in decision-making ushers in a sense of familihood, social inclusion and collective action. These feelings cultivate trust.

It was revealed from the results that the agricultural extension officers, the Rural District Council (the local authority), Registry Department and some Community Based Organisations were trusted by just above 50 %. This is not good enough. For example, in order for The Rural District Council to provide service to the people under its jurisdiction, the residents should pay rates. But the question is, how can residents pay rates to an organisation they do not trust? The local authority needs financial resources to buy fire tenders, graders, front end loaders and ambulances, and to build clinics and hospitals, all of which are very important in disaster management. Residents can build resilience when they know that in case of emergencies, the local authority is prepared to respond on time. Shapiro (1990), Zucker (1986) and Pennings & Woiceshyn (1987) note that trust has influence on coordination and control at both institutional and interpersonal levels of organisation. Mukanganise (2011) argues that trust amongst institutions in communities contribute to equitable and sustainable community development in the long term.

An example to buttress the foregoing argument is that when Cyclone Idai hit Chimanimani and Chipinge, the Councils did not have basic resources to start response efforts. Some people who could have survived died trapped by rocks and fallen buildings and trees. One of the researchers of this paper had first-hand experience and was a victim of the disaster, having lost almost all his household furniture and food. The Chimanimani Rural District Council was severely incapacitated in terms of financial and plant equipment. Thompson (1967) posits that under conditions of uncertainty and complexity that require mutual adjustment, sustained, effective, coordinated action is possible where there is mutual confidence or trust.

Lack of investment in trust building impairs resilience at all levels. This is the cause of rampant closures of most business entities in Zimbabwe. Most business enterprises are stressed and shocked by mere announcements of new government policies. For example, whenever a new monetary policy is announced, prices and exchange rates are exaggerated due to shock. These exaggerations have driven some promising entrepreneurs out of business. On the other hand, suicide cases are going high. Without confidence in the systems, people easily give up. They die of causes that are avoidable. They do not take chances or risks that can be one form of resilience. Importantly, trust enables people to take risks. Porter et al. (1975: 497) postulate that, "*Where there is trust, there is the feeling that others will not take advantage of me*." In other words, when systems right from community up to national level are trusted, the economy will not fail. The citizens will collectively support the system until it is out of the challenges, feeling that "we are all in it" and no one is taking advantage of the situation.

Of the 29 institutional systems investigated, 14 scored below half. This is evidence of severe human factor decay. Even the media, Members of Parliament, political parties and many other Government Departments were not trusted. These systems are important because they save as the sources of information about opportunities and impending disasters. They are there as stewards of good community welfare. Trust is based on the expectation that service delivery systems have the right competence and attitude to deliver. Barber (1983), Gook & Wall (1980) and Shapiro (1987) argue that competence and responsibility are central to understandings of trust. Trust is also based on the expectation that one will find what is expected rather than what is feared (Deutsch, 1973).

When there is trust, community members communicate effectively and contribute to a sustained development agenda of their community. Simmel (1964) argues that trust allows social interactions to proceed on a simple and confident basis. Simmel (1964) further notes that in the absence of trust, monstrous complexity posed by contingent futures would paralyse action. Resilience in disaster prone areas is based on trust. From the functionalist perspective, trust binds communities together. The sense "together we stand and divided we fall" enables communities to withstand, accept calamities and to keep going thereafter. Baber (1983) argues that trust is functionally necessary for the continuance of harmonious social relationships. However, when trust is breached its continuance in particular social bonds become problematic. For example, friends and spouses sometimes come to distrust each other; citizens lose trust in the government, the judicial system, the news media, or the monetary currency; patients and clients wonder if doctors and lawyers are trustworthy at all. Such distrust leads to dysfunctionality in complex interpersonal and institutional relationships.

McAllister (1995) notes that at individual and family levels, people make emotional investments in trust relationships, express genuine care and concern for the welfare of partners, believe in the intrinsic virtue of such relationships, and believe that these sentiments are reciprocated. Thus, the emotional ties linking individuals provide the basis for trust. These emotional ties enable individuals to soldier on even in the event of a social shock. They give that sense of having somewhere to fall back on, hence a remedy for suicide.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Trust is the basis for community continuance. When individuals and communities have a sense that they have somewhere to fall back on, they become prepared for shocks, stressors and hazards. Institutional systems that are trusted by citizens seem to perform better and are better resourced. They get resourced from the citizens who support them. Their support is derived from participation of all at the community gatherings (*Matare*). The traditional conduct of community meetings in which every member is given immunity while participating in *Matare* is the way to go. Those who are corrupt are shamed and those who work hard for the good of their community are rewarded by way of public praise. It is recommended that we look back and reconsider the past traditional virtues of transparency and accountability. These virtues are the sources of trust and community strength.

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The COVID-19 "new normal": Implications for public sector management and governance

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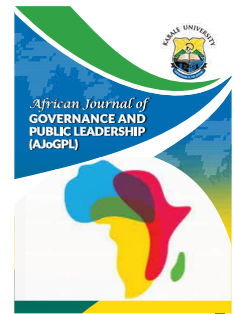
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Abstract

The unprecedented health and economic crises caused by the COVID-19 pandemic require a paradigmatic shift in the way of doing government business. Sudden surges in demand for public services challenge public institutions to think outside the box to sustain their public service provision mandate. These challenges are occurring at a time when national fiscal reserves are precariously overstretched as governments across the global divide are still to fully recover from the expenditure obligations that were inflicted by climate change disruptions. The study responds to these developments through case study reviews of the selected governments' responses to COVID-19 pandemic in purposively sampled countries that include China, the United States of America, the United Kingdom, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The study departs from previous health-clinical-focused studies of COVID-19 by adopting a state-public administration-politico-centric analysis of COVID-19 mitigation processes. Interpretation of case study experiences is guided by the chaos theory. Case study results point to gaps in the way governments are adapting to the 'new normal' with the digitally displaced governments least positioned to cope with digital new work ethics. Infodemic and blame-game politics are emerging as major challenges restraining compliance with COVID-19 prevention initiatives at both the top leadership and citizen levels. To adapt to the dictates of the 'new normal', developing countries need to prioritise investments in technology, strengthen oversight over procurement and public finance management processes. Principled leadership; coherent policy and administrative direction; and flexibility and agility within nation- states are critical in balanced decisions on national policy questions of what to prioritise first between saving the economy (livelihoods) and public health (lives).

Key words: COVID-19 politics, infodemic, denialism

Introduction

COVID-2019, a disease that is caused by a Coronavirus referred to as SARS-CoV-2, was first detected in the Wuhan City in the People's Republic of China (He and Liu 2020). According to the WHO (2020), some of the common symptoms of the COVID-19 disease include dry cough, fever, fatigue, loss of smell or taste, sore throat, headache, diarrhea, shortness of breath, persistence pain in the chest, and among others, high temperature. Since the WHO's declaration of COVID-19 as a global pandemic on the 11th of March 2020, global records of infections and mortalities had by the 4th February 2021, escalated to 103,989,900 confirmed cases, including 2,260,259 deaths (WHO Corona Virus (COVID-19) Dashboard 2021).

Even though the virus was first discovered in China, statistical evidence suggests that China continued to have some of the lowest numbers of COVID-19 cases and deaths.

These escalations in records of infections and mortalities call for rethinking on governance, decision-making and service delivery models. World Bank (2020: 4) warns that "the unprecedented health and economic crisis caused by COVID-19 pandemic will require a different approach to managing the public sector wage bill to achieve, under considerable uncertainty, the difficult balance between fiscal consolidation, protection of lives and livelihoods, service delivery, and job creation".Carlozo (2020: 1) succinctly captures this new experience when he notes that, "if local governments have lived for generations by the mantra 'do more with less,' then the 2020s COVID-19 pandemic has added a dire level of complexity, 'do more in distress with less and less.' His observation and comments thus, clearly highlight the novel challenges imposed by the pandemic.

Why this fixation with public sectors, it may be asked? Across the world, public sectors are mandated to spearhead socio-economic development. Public sectors host central institutions through which COVID-19 preventions are being implemented and enforced. Governments, through their public sectors, have sovereign mandates to protect citizens from contexts that are perceived to be threatening their social, economic and political security. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2020: 2), the pandemic has caused serious economic and labour market shocks which have disrupted the production of goods and services as well as demand chains at the global level. Thus, the public sector pivotal role in coming up with sustainable responses to the pandemic cannot be overemphasized.

Analytical framework study methodology

The study is unique in that it departs from previous health-focused studies of COVID-19 by adopting a state-public administration-politics-centric analysis of the COVID-19 pandemic. It views COVID-19 preventions as political processes and negotiating fields in which multiple players beyond the traditional enclave of health sectors are involved. The state is a central player whose policy choices can either enable or disable responses to COVID-19 disruptions. The study therefore questions how the pandemic has impacted global public sector governance. How have national leaderships in both the First and Third world countries responded to the vagaries of the pandemic? What institutions, legislations, policies and governance instruments have been adopted to enable them adapt to the 'new normal' under the global Coronavirus pandemic? What challenges are being confronted by the public sectors globally? How can the adopted new ways of doing business be sustained in the post-COVID era?

This study consolidates data from various scholars with an eye on how the COVID-19 has impacted global public sector management and governance. It incorporates the phrase 'new normal' in explaining how governments are expected to adapt to the ongoing global health emergency. To exhaust these and other issues, the study was premised on a desk analysis to conceptualise the implications COVID-19 pandemic has brought to the global public governance and management discourse. Secondary data sources (articles, policy documents, text books, newspapers) were utilised for the analysis of the topic under investigation. As a Qualitative Research Approach, the emerging themes such as leadership resilience, infodemic, threats

of COVID-19 politics, corruption in procurement processes, strengthening public finance management systems, and forging partnerships were used to contextualize the reason behind reviewing literature.

Conceptualisation of the term "New Normal"

The concept 'new normal' has several meanings depending on context. Roger McNamee takes the credit for coining the term in 2003 as he explains the new era of business and finance. McNamee and Diamond (2004) explain the idiom 'new normal' as resembling strategies for thinking outside the box to survive economic turmoil. The concept is now in use again in this COVID-19 pandemic period which, according to Buheji and Buheji (2020: 240), is "an era full of challenges and instability". The challenge for governments is to adjust to the new settings presented by the disruptive disease.

This means that under chaotic operating environments, governments, through their leaders, must cope and continue their public service mandates. Governments are under unrelenting pressure to roll out fiscal measures that may include borrowing and consequently risking debt escalations. The new conditions also challenge global leaders to infuse innovation, transparency and accountability (value for money) in public sector service provision.

The Chaos Theory

The Chaos Theory can be used to explain how the public management and governance discourse has been influenced by the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic. The origins of the Chaos Theory can be traced to Physical Science where Henry Poincare (1854-1912) first commented on the theory (Oestreicher 2007: 284). From the word 'chaos', the Chaos Theory entails the "age of unreason and beyond certainty" in which there is need to prepare to manage and direct the public and private lives by mere imagination through "thinking the unlikely and doing the unreasonable" (Handy, 1997). Implied is that leaders and managers must be prepared to deal with such chaotic phenomena and manage complex organizations accordingly. Where there are high levels of uncertainty, public figures tend to take advantage and use the chaos to their advantage. The Chaos Theory has serious implications in the fields of public administration, governance, environment, and global politics.

Case Study Reviews

This section reviews the global experience based on the pressures governments have faced since the outbreak of the pandemic. Questions on whether the COVID-19 pandemic can change or accelerate the pre-existing global proclivities should be answered. Therefore, the case experiences of the China, South Africa, UK, USA, and Zimbabwe will be tested against their ability to execute 'new responsibilities.' The USA, China and UK were purposely selected to provide insights into how global leading countries are transitioning to 'new normal' conditions as outlined by WHO. China was specifically included because it is the country where the epidemic was first discovered.

China

The South China's Seafood Market in Wuhan city is where the first major Coronavirus outbreak was discovered in late December 2019, leading to the Chinese authorities to impose reactionary measures to lock down the city, together with the Hubei province on 23rd of January 2020.

Realising the dangers of the disregard by Chinese authorities of the early warning by the late Dr. Li Wenliang about the possible human-to-human transmission, the whole country was switched into an emergency mode to contain the epidemic (He and Liu 2020: 2).By the 7thof February 2021, China had recorded101, 272 confirmed cases with 4, 831 deaths (WHO Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) Dashboard 2021).

To guarantee a continued service provision in mainland, the government handled the pandemic comprehensively, "through the normal authorization process, simplifying procedures of budget allocation and special legislative approvals, and many budgetary measures to help suffering businesses and households to buffer the economic difficulties caused by the pandemic" (Wu and Lin 2020:4). Despite these interventions, the UNDP (2020: 2) noted declines in value addition of tourism, retail, catering and tertiary industries between January and February 2020 compared with the same period of the previous year. The decline in revenue streams meant that the government had to borrow to sustain strained economic sectors, including the education sector. The financial implications the pandemic exerted on China is clear evidence that the world needs to adapt to the dictates of the 'new normal'.

South Africa

The Republic of South Africa recorded its first COVID-19 positive case on the 5th of March 2020. On realising the possibility of a surge in COVID-19 in the country, President Cyril Ramaphosa invoked disaster management powers which declared a 21-day national lockdown between March and April 2020. However, records of infections continued to surge such that by February 2021 they had spiked to 1,477,511 confirmed cases and 46,473 deaths (Johns Hopkins University of Medicine, COVID-19 Dashboard2021). President Ramaphosa introduced a raft of measures that included the banning of outdoor activities and the sale of cigarettes and alcohol. Due to the level of emergency created by the global pandemic, the absence of tight procurement scrutiny created avenues for corrupt officials. To show the gravity of these national lockdowns, the Minister of Communications and Digital Technologies Ms. Stella Ndabeni-Abrahams was placed on a two-month suspension for breaking lockdown regulations. Some of the serious cases of corruption leveled against top government officials include the President's spokeswoman Khusela Diko and Gauteng provincial health minister Bandile Masuku both South Africa government officials (Cooney 2020). It can thus, be argued that the COVID-19 challenge is presenting opportunities for the government to upgrade systems of governance thereby making embezzling of funds and other kinds of corruption impossible.

As a result of national lockdown rules, supply chains were disrupted, local and international trade and tourism halted, small and medium businesses shuttered, the economic activities came to a halt (South African Research Bank 2020).South Africa's finance minister Mr. Tito Mboweni in the June 2020 Mid-Term Budget announced a fiscal relief package of R500 billion ($26.3 billion), that is, 10% of South Africa's GDP (South African Government 2020). The South African government also overhauled the procurement system following graft claims concerning the R500 billion ($26.3 billion) social relief package for COVID-19 mitigation efforts. To ensure enough resources were available, the government borrowed part of the COVID-19 package from the Bretton Woods Institutions. Assessing the overall South African government responses to COVID-19, Ryan (2020: 9) concluded that South Africa "responded quickly to the pandemic crisis" while Vandome (2020) referred to it as "one of the tightest lockdown regulations in the world."

The United Kingdom (UK)

As of the 7th of November 2020, the UK had 1, 146, 488 confirmed COVID-19 cases with 48, 475 deaths which by the 11th of February 2021, had escalated to 3, 491,698 confirmed cases and 101,311 deaths (John Hopkins COVID-19 Dashboard 2021). Through the Health Protection (Corona virus, Restrictions) (England) Regulations 2020, on the 23rd of March 2020, the government announced its first national lockdown rules and regulations. A raft of lockdown laws were introduced to describe national and local Coronavirus restrictions, regulations, and directions through movement restrictions, social gatherings ban, and among others the closure of non-essential services such as tourism and hospitality.

As was the case in China, the United Kingdom budgeted billions of pounds of extra funding where governance and regulatory requirements were suspended to pave way for greater use of technology. The devolved ministries in the education, justice, and health sectors were granted new powers under the Corona virus Act of 2020. According to the Institute for Government (2020), the devolved ministries of Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales were empowered by the Act to provide an indemnity to temporarily act according to the prevailing situation within their sectors. Significantly, this paved way for quick emergency responses across the UK. To ensure the rights of citizens were safeguarded, the Chancellor of the Exchequer Rishi Sunak, announced a £12 billion strategy to be directed towards public services, individuals, and the most affected businesses. Given the huge debts, it is clear that the pressures to support the affected industries mounted thereby forcing the government to borrow. It can thus, be argued that, even though the United Kingdom remains one of the most impacted nations due to COVID-19 pandemic, its mitigatory measures showed a higher level of respect for good governance and respect for human rights.

The United States of America

The United States of America (USA) was one of the most affected countries in the world. While as of June 2020, there were 2,364,874 confirmed cases of COVID-19 and 121,662 deaths in the USA; by the 11th of February 2021, the figures had risen to 26,832,826 confirmed cases with 461,610 deaths (WHO Corona virus (COVID-19) Dashboard 2021). Surprisingly, with such high numbers of COVID-19 cases and deaths, the then President Donald Trump adopted a foreign policy packed with denial and blame-game politics, targeting China for misleading the world on COVID-19 rather than emphasizing the way forward. Donald Trump's faux pas made him refer to the COVID-19 pandemic as the 'Chinese virus', a rant that led to a diplomatic war with Beijing. Trump also accused the World Health Organisation (WHO) currently headed by Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus for being "too lenient" with China over the origins and the criteria to be used by nations in curbing the virus (Maxmen2020:1).Trump's threats to withdraw funds from the global health organization were to limit US security, diplomacy, and influence as WHO has unmatched legitimacy and global reach than any country.

Due to the state of denial by Trump, anti-vaccination and anti-government sentiments were displayed by the American people as governors' stay-at-home orders were thwarted (Collins and Zadrozny2020). This lack of clear administrative guidance by the federal government left the American people vulnerable, especially the African-American poor populations. It may therefore be argued that the thrall of leadership under Trump awakened the American people and the rest of the world that disruptive global events require principled public figures.

Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe was not spared from the devastating repercussions of the global pandemic. President Emmerson Mnangagwa, through the Statutory Instrument 76 of 2020 declared the State of Disaster in both the rural and urban areas of Zimbabwe on the 23rd of March 2020, following WHO declaration of the Corona virus as a global pandemic. Zimbabwe's record which as at 31 of August 2020 stood at 6,497 confirmed cases, 5,221 recoveries, and 202 deaths (Ministry of Health and Child Care (2020); had by the 11th of February 2021 shot to 34, 864 confirmed cases and 1,364 deaths (the Johns Hopkins COVID-19 Dashboard (2021). The Government of Zimbabwe implemented intervention measures such as early detection of SARS-CoV-2 through contact tracing and opening quarantine centres across the country, total national lockdown ranging from phases 1 to 4, dusk-to-dawn curfew, training of health workers on COVID-19 patient care, among others.

However, as noted in other countries, Zimbabwe had its own experiences of denialism. On 15 March 2020, atop-ranking government official and Ruling Party ZANU (PF) National Chairperson, and Zimbabwe Defense Forces Minister, Oppah Muchinguri sparked controversy after claiming that the COVID-19 disease was God's punishment of the Western world, especially the USA, for imposing punitive measures on Zimbabwe (Shumba et al. 2020: 271). The 'us' versus 'them' approach adopted by the Minister created serious impact on the nation's public health policies as it mirrors the infamous denialismstance. The arrest of journalist Hopewell Chin'ono and political activist Jacob Ngarivhumeon the 20th July 2020 unearthed the dirty deals, that is, the Drax Scandal where the government, under former Health Minister Dr. Obadiah Moyo allegedly unprocedurally awarded $60 million COVID-19 supply contract to a shelf company called Drax at an inflated price and without going to public tender. The public outcry that followed led to the eventual dismissal of the minister.

As the challenges presented by Corona virus in Zimbabwe became evident, the Government of Zimbabwe implemented a raft of measures including injecting a stimulus package of ZWL500 million (approx. $20,000,000) to help mitigate against the pandemic, including ZWL50 million (approx. 2,000,000) targeting medical aid for the civil servants working as frontline workers (UNDP 2020: 6). It is important to note that given the economic stalemate evident in Zimbabwe, her mitigation efforts were commendable.

Discussion of study findings and emerging policy Issues.

In this section, the study highlights major policy issues as drawn from the review of literature and case studies of China, USA, UK, SA and Zimbabwe. These are the unavoidable and intractable policy issues that should be effectively managed under the 'new normal.'

The saving 'economy' or 'public health' debate

The study findings indicate that the disruptions created by the COVID-19 pandemic ignited global debates on what to prioritise first between saving 'livelihoods'(economy) and 'lives'(citizen health). In other words, should countries ignore the economic repercussions caused by the economic blockade due to a raft of territorial lockdowns as a measure to preserve human life?Given such serious economic implications of the COVID-19 pandemic to vulnerable populations, scholars such as Bourne (2020) urged governments to "withstand large economic costs to prevent the risk of substantial numbers of deaths".

In South Africa, Arndt et al. (2020) supported the need to save lives over the repercussions of lockdown measures by noting that national lockdowns as the only tool to reduce contagion "impose a severe negative shock on the economy, with immediate loss of economic activity followed by medium and long-term economic effects". In the United Kingdom, the New Economic Thinking (NET) (2020 cited in Casey 2020) argued that "to save the economy, save people first", suggesting that by saving the people through lockdowns and other measures, the economy will be saved later after the pandemic is contained. It is apparent that 'the save economy/health' debate is an unavoidable and complex 'new normal' policy issue.

Managing the threats of COVID-19 politics

Case study findings also point to the emerging phenomenon of 'COVID-19 politics', which as explained by Matthews et al. (2020) is a reference to "the new political culture where disasters and pandemics are now a new political tool". Popo (2020: 2) describes this phenomenon as the "horns of a dilemma" where political leaders ruthlessly and cleverly exploit the chaos and uncertainty of COVID-19 for their own ends. It is clear that at the heart of the COVID-19 politics is the contest between the pursuits of personal power at the expense of national interest. Surprisingly, South Africa, despite having large numbers of COVID-19 cases in SADC, announced a shocking plan to build a 40 km fence on the border between Zimbabwe and South Africa to avoid regional transmission.

In the context of the chaos theory, countries such as the United States of America and China are using the COVID-19 pandemic as a political tool to advance the existing turf based on the international trade war. The decades-long disruption of the interdependence of the two largest economies seemed unfathomable as former US President, Donald Trump, shifted the foreign and economic policy from liberalism to protectionism. Trump's referral to the disease first as the "Chinese virus" and later as the "Kung Flu" (Boylan et al. 2020:1) is a clear indication of the superpowers playing the politics of blame game. Trump's accusation of WHO as the "public relations agency for China" and his threats to withdraw WHO funding, point to the ugly face of COVID-19 pandemic politics (Ibid). This demonstrates that the COVID-19 pandemic politics is a potent threat to government efforts to adapt to 'new normal' conditions. It therefore, should be closely monitored.

Managingtheinfodemic phenomena

The study also revealed that misinformation and disinformation in the social media is posing potent threats to government efforts directed towards COVID-19 prevention. The term 'infodemic' animates the over-abundance or avalanche of information that is either true or false (Islam 2020: 1621). Puliafito (2020:1) likens these phenomena to a threatening epidemic. Although the term, as argued by Rothkopf (2003) can be traced to earlier years, it regained usage in United Nations and World Health Organization reports in the wake of the outbreak of COVID-19 (UN 2020; WHO 2020). The rumors and conspiracy theories during emergencies make mitigation efforts difficult for public managers as they will be dealing with misinformed citizens. Misinformed citizens threaten zones of resistance because they can refuse to wear masks, observe social distancing or go for vaccinations. Case study reviews indicated that infodemic challenges are not confined to ordinary citizens as some high profile people like Presidents and ministers were also part of those spreading misinformation on the disease prevention and mitigation control methods to be activated; some even suggesting that Corona virus is a bio-weapon that was manufactured in China (Gertz 2020). It is very clear that a key preoccupation of governments under the new normal should be monitoring the threats of the infodemic phenomena.

Curbing corruption in procurement processes

Case study findings also revealed that procurement processes under the emergent conditions of COVID-19 pandemic are highly prone to corruption leading to lack of accountability in the use and distribution of funding, equipment, misreporting of the donations, and the awarding of procurement contracts of personal protective equipment (PPEs). This form of 'political corruption' manifested at the global scale since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Corruption, as argued by the OECD (2021) gets elevated in emergency procurement processes caused by humanitarian crises such as Hurricane Katrinain 2005 and Ebola in 2014-2016 as governments suspend public procurement checks and balances to avoid red-tape. One case in point is the Ayanda Capital procurement scandal which involved the United Kingdom Government through the Department of Health and Social Care procuring 50 million defective facemasks in April 2020as part of a $326 million contract (Jack and Dodd 2020). In Slovenia, as noted by Ellena (2020: 8), the government procured masks and other protective equipment worth around 80 million Euros in 'opaque one-day bids' to a casino gaming company with no experience on matters of medical and protective goods. Garrison (2020) also refers to a case in Honduras where when the hospitals failed to cope with the increasing number of Coronavirus patients, the Honduras Strategic Investment (INVEST-H) made an emergency procurement of seven mobile hospitals with 477 beds at the cost of $47,462,500 with no documentation to explain the quantity and type of hospital acquired. These cases demonstratethat procurement processes under emergency conditions of the COVID-19 pandemic are highly prone to financial mismanagement due to a lack of proper planning and oversight. This public sector challenge is clear evidence that the world was caught unprepared for such a long-term pandemic, a situation that demands governments to quickly adapt to the attributes of the 'new normal'.

Closing COVID-19 financing gaps

The study also revealed that a sudden surge in demand for public services has precariously overstretched government fiscal reserves, pushing some countries that had no known history of debt stress into debt-default situations when they borrowed from multiple sources to sustain their public goods provision obligations. As warned by the IMF (2020: 2), "no single source of financing will be enough to close the COVID-19 financing gap". In South Africa, the South African Supplementary Budget (2020) reported that "the public finances, which had reached an unsustainable position before the pandemic, are now dangerously overstretched". In reference to Zimbabwe, the UNICEF (2020: 2) noted that the domestic and foreign debt continues to put pressure on the government, at $10.4 billion as at end of 2019 (50.1% of GDP) and expected to increase to 53.9% by the end of 2020.In the United Kingdom, due to tax revenue reduction, the UK's public finances dwindled, forcing the government to borrow at least £317.4 billion in the period between 2020 and 2021 alone (Lilly et al. 2020: 6). The Chinese Government also increased its budget deficit target to the record high of 3.6% of its GDP up from 2019's 2.8% as it braced to mitigate the pandemic through a raft of measures including spending on epidemic control, medical equipment, unemployment insurance, tax relief, and public investment, among others (Congressional Research Service 2021). On realizing the danger presented by the COVID-19pandemic to both the developed and developing countries, the IMF (2020b) availed $11 trillion of fiscal measures to be deployed worldwide, with the average fiscal response of 1.2% of GDP in low-income developing countries (LIDCs), 20% of GDP response in advanced economies (AEs), and 5% in emerging market economies. These scenarios highlight that closing the COVID-19 financing gap should be a major concern for governments in the 'new normal'.

Resolving frontline worker questions

The study noted that the COVID-19 global pandemic immediately generated frontline employee questions, a reference to a host of issues relating to who frontline workers are, how they should be protected, and how they should be compensated for the risks associated with their work. The dilemma is that while ordinarily the term frontline employees would be restricted to health workers, under COVID-19 pandemic contexts, it has broadened to include those in other sectors such as tourism, travel, media, education, police, and army because they are directly involved in the enforcement of COVID-19 compliance. In some countries, especially Third World countries, reports of lack of PPEs exposed the vulnerability of frontline workers. It is critical to note that with the global demand for PPEs, the competition to acquire them became intense between and among countries, a case that led to price gouging and corruption during the acquisition processes (Mahase 2020). Therefore, given the high-level risks for the frontline workers, as advised by Schwartz (2020:9), governments under the COVID-19 'new normal' should prioritize 'risk allowances' to motivate and retain frontline workers, especially health workers.

The need for digital infrastructure for digital work ethics

The study noted that a key feature of the COVID-19 pandemic is the transition from physical to virtual ways of doing public sector business in all sectors of the economy. As noted by Davies et al. (2020: 8), "Corona virus led to the rapid adoption of technologies that have been contemplated for years but had not been used widely before the crisis". Governments, private organizations, non-governmental organizations, and individuals realized a need to emphasize digital work ethics to continue the public service provision mandate even under extraordinary circumstances. The need for the digital infrastructure that had not been viewed as central before took center stage as people need to find ways to practice social distancing by working, socializing and learning from home. As gleaned from the United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG), Metropolis, and UN-Habitat (2020: 4), the identified fundamental policy questions that arise when planning for digitalization relate to: "How can we control the spread of COVID-19? How do we continue to provide education to the many people who have to stay at home? Are my digital rights protected?" Such questions serve to highlight challenges associated with the 'new normal' virtual ways of doing business.

This rapid transformation from the physical to virtual business model confirms that the world is heading towards a completely digitalized economy and hence the new normal.

Leadership resilience

Case study findings also revealed that the success of COVID-19 preventions critically hinges on the nature of the political leadership. The national leadership is at the forefront in directing government policy, including facilitating emergency responses and even declaring COVID-19 as a national pandemic. Gerson (2020: 2) outlined four leadership capabilities necessary to respond to complex policy challenges, that is, open inclusion, values-based leadership, networked collaboration, and organizational stewardship. Friedman (2020) notes that most of the countries with the best Coronavirus responses had women leaders who told the truth about the virus. These include New Zealand's Prime Minister Jacinda Ardenwho is on record for her empathy;Angela Merkel of Germany for her decisiveness; Tsai Ing-wen of Taiwan for adopting technology for the good of everyone through free-Coronavirus testing; Prime Minister Katrin Jakobsdottir of Ireland for showing great love through the use of television to communicate directly to the citizens; and the Norway's Prime Minister Erna Solberg for clarity of policy direction

and openness. Commenting on the strong leadership displayed by many African countries during the pandemic, Wasunna (2020) propounded that "the 1.8 million infections and 44,000 deaths recorded on the continent by mid-November are a great loss. They are, nevertheless, far from the catastrophic predictions made back in March and April". It is important to note, therefore, that good leaders in times of emergencies are those who can implement strategic disaster management by emphasizing on resilience building through blending WHO guidelines and home-grown criteria rather than a one-size-fits-all approach. This articleacknowledges the centrality of people-oriented leadership qualities in public management and governance to ensure that peoples' lives are saved at all costs.

Strengthening public finance management

Marignani (2020) notes that government response to crisis such as COVID-19 relies on good public financial management. Case studies showed that in times of emergencies, public expenditures incurred by governments at all levels are high. This is a strong pointer towards a need for governments to improve their public finance management capabilities especially under pandemics. To be able to adapt to the demands of the 'new normal', it remains imperative for the governments to be flexible while following all governance processes. The IMF (2020)highlight that strong public finance management systems play critical roles in addressing the implications posed by the global pandemic, that is, estimating the size of budgeting or funding required to confront the Corona virus; how to equitably disburse the funds through appropriate delivery units; ensuring transparency and accountability, and guaranteeing continuity of operations even under remote working. As noted in case study countries, governments are adopting cocktails of remedial measures that include reprogramming of expenditures in line with COVID-19 'new normal'.

Forging partnerships

Partnerships are also emerging as force to reckon with under COVID-19 conditions. The COVID-19 pandemic, as advised by Mahmud and Al-Mohaimeed (2020: 2) require world leaders must to orchestrate a coordinated action as an infectious disease threat anywhere is a threat to everywhere due to globalization. As put by The WHO Director General Dr.Tedros Abhanom Ghebreyesus, "the way forward is solidarity: solidarity at the national level and solidarity at the global level" (WHO 2020). Implied is that the enhancement of North-South, South-South, and triangular regional and international partnerships is the panacea to solving the COVID-19 pandemic. Urpilainen (2020) also highlights that "…dealing with the pandemic has been a prime example of this resurgence of international partnerships". To cope with these challenges, as noted by The OECD (2020: 14), most governments are incentivising innovators and encouraging manufacturers to collaborate and find ways to make solutions to ventilators and other components shortages, chief among them being the partnership between Mercedes F1 with the University College of London (UCL)and with the UCL Hospital to "develop and prototype a new, non-invasive mechanical ventilation device, more adapted than the traditional ones to the prolonged use required by COVID-19 patients". The net impression as noted from case study findings shows that the advent of COVID-19 has brought enhanced partnerships within countries and between borders. These trends should continue in the post-COVID-19 era, especially in the developing world.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to assess how governments across the global divide are adapting to new ways of doing business in line with the 'new normal' under COVID-19. Guided by the chaos theory, it was noted that the world was plunged into an appalling crisis, which created socio-economic shocks that demands agility for governments to mitigate against such challenges.

Throughout the case study experiences, the theme of leadership resilience was shown to be one of the determinants of smoothly adapting to the demands of the 'new normal. The case studies were used to explain the implications of national lockdowns on the health sectors, education, tourism and hospitality, the production sectors, and the aviation industry, among others. The study also revealed that the underground economic activities were also impacted especially in the Third World where issues of safety nets were not prioritised, leaving them with no means of survival under the containment measures.

In line with the above, the study revealed that rather than saving the economy at the expense of lives, most governments initiated the economic blockage as a containment measure to mitigate against the spread of the disease. On the other note, the economy bled as all trade channels were temporarily closed. The pandemic has given the global outlook of public administration a chance to upgrade systems to have a focused, outcome-based future in the public sector management even in the post-COVID-19 era. Importantly, with the chaotic field of public sector management under the COVID-19 pandemic, governments are charged to enhance their public finance management systems, embrace good governance practices, fast-track the digitalization drive especially the Third World countries, prioritise partnerships for sustainable development, and manage information at all levels to successfully adapt to the inevitable 'new normal' phenomenon. It must be acknowledged that most countries made exemplary progress in terms of creating a balance between saving both the economy and the lives of the people, in the management of the infodemic phenomenon, in the smooth transition from physical to virtual business style, and in the mobilization of additional financial and non-financial resource as demanded by the pandemic. This, therefore, meant that the world over, the 'new normal' is indeed a new paradigm in the manner in which public sectors are managed globally. In the eyes of governments, it has become clear that it is either adapt or face the wrath of the pandemic. To continue governmental roles, most governments, especially those that have been lagging behind, continue to fast-track the implementation of digital services such as telemedicine, contactless learning, and electronic public services, among others.

Elements of comparative analysis have emerged where a clear distinction between the First World countries and Third World countries became evident. As the sudden surges in demand for services were precariously overstretched national fiscal reserves in the developed world, the situation became more worrisome under the developing world with decades-long histories of debt-overhangs. However, by adopting e-procurement systems, and enhancing public finance management while creating strong checks and balances, the world can be able to abide by the dictates of the 'new normal', hence curbing the public sector management challenges that was exacerbated by the disease.

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Governance challenges to women's realisation of the right to sexual and reproductive health: the case of women in polygamous marriages in Uganda

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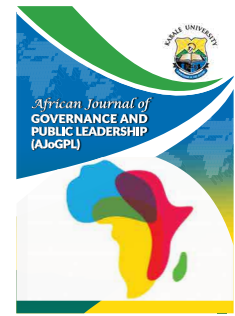
Abstract

The study investigated the challenges to the realization of the right to sexual and reproductive health of women in polygamous marriages in Uganda.

It aimed at investigating the policy challenges to the realization of the right to sexual and reproductive health of women in polygamous marriages in Uganda. The emphasis of this study was to investigate from the multitude of these risks, the sexual reproductive health rights of the female partners of polygamous marriages.

The study was conducted in Arua, Buikwe, Gomba, Jinja, Mayuge, Namayingo and Iganga districts of Uganda. It concentrated on the realization of sexual reproductive rights in Uganda.

The study employed a case study design where qualitative approaches were adopted. Data was collected using surveys, interviews and focus group discussion. Data was analysed using content thematic analysis.

The findings revealed that the effect of polygamous relationships have serious reproductive and /or health consequences for women. The analysis of the realization of sexual reproductive rights in Uganda was based on family planning, HIV/Aids concerns, quality of maternal health care, battering, mental health, emotional stress.

After an analysis of the findings, the researcher made quite a number of recommendations among which; decision and policy makers should consider prefacing laws prohibiting polygamy with the international legal obligations, as well as policy arguments, requiring states to modify such practices.

Key words: Sexual reproductive health rights

Introduction

Good sexual and reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system (Deon, 2011). Reproductive rights rest on the recognition of the basic right of all couples and individuals to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing and timing of their children and to have the information and means to do so, and the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health (Tamale, 2014). Sexual and reproductive health and rights is the concept of human rights applied to sexuality and reproduction (Amira, 2005). Reproductive rights, according to the ICPD, rest on the recognition of the basic right of all couples and individuals to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing and timing of their children and to have the information and means to do so, and the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health (ICPD, 2015)." CEDAW (Article 16) guarantees women equal rights in deciding "*freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights*." CEDAW (Article 10) also specifies that women's right to education includes "access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning. The Platform for Action from the 1995 Beijing Conference on Women established that human rights include the right of women freely and without coercion, violence or discrimination, to have control over and make decisions concerning their own sexuality, including their own sexual and reproductive health.

The provision of reproductive, prenatal and postnatal health care services is a critical part of the right to health, comparable with the core obligations that are subject to immediate effect, rather than progressive realization under Article 12 of the ICESCR (Section 1.1). Reproductive health, therefore, implies that people are able to have a responsible, satisfying and safer sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so (Ekirikubinza, 2001).

Muhanguzi (1996) notes that the human right of women to control their fertility and sexuality free of coercion is guaranteed implicitly by the Women's Convention. Women may be denied access to health care that is unrelated to their reproductive functions, and their health needs may be considered secondary to those of their children or, in the case of pregnant women to the health of their fetuses (Tamale, 2014). Certain practices harmful to women's health are related to discriminatory attitudes about women's sexuality that deny them the right to a satisfying sex life (Tamale, 2014).

Uganda has numerous laws that have been enacted to protect the rights of women and fight gender inequality. These include but are not limited to the Constitution of Uganda 1995. For example, Article 32 (2) provides that the "*laws, cultures, customs and traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women or any other marginalized group or which undermines their status, are prohibited by this Constitution*"; The Domestic Violence Act, 2010, is another gender-friendly piece of legislation in Uganda. As argued by Mayambala (1996), polygamy is against the spirit of equality between men and women because it allows one spouse (the husband) unilaterally to fundamentally change the quality of the couple family life.

Objectives of the study

The general objective is "to establish the impact of polygamous marriages on the realization of   sexual reproductive rights in Uganda"

Specific Objectives of the Study

i.   To critically assess the legal provisions and their practical application pertaining to sexual reproductive rights in Uganda.
ii. To assess the impact of the right to sexual and reproductive health of women and men in polygamous marriages in Uganda.
iii. To investigate available measures and good practices that might be of relevance to improving sexual reproductive rights of men and women in polygamous marriages

Research questions

The study attempted to answer the following research questions

i.   What are the legal provisions and their practical application pertaining to sexual reproductive rights in Uganda?
ii. What is the impact of the right to sexual and reproductive rights of women and men in polygamous marriages in Uganda?
iii. What good practices might be of policy relevance to improving sexual reproductive rights of women and men in polygamous marriages?

Literature Review

Reproductive Health

Reproductive health promotion encompasses behaviours essential for countering STIs including HIV/AIDS and unwanted or unplanned pregnancies (UNFPA, 2016). It encompasses many tasks performed in primary care such as provision of contraception, condoms and safer sex advice, psychological counseling and other aspects of mental health care; secondary care such as seeking treatment for STIs, and tertiary care to restore sexual activity (Curtis, 2015). SRH promotion also includes promotion of gender equality, SRH rights and empowerment in sexual matters. Among adolescents, SRH promotion also recognises the role of families and communities besides the health facilities (Terez, 2014). Thus, SRH promotion has a social perspective which should challenge the social norms and values that undermine people's autonomy to control over their SRH(Tones and Tilford, 2016). Sexual health promotion can prevent potentially unhealthy situations such as unwanted pregnancies, STIs, deviant (socially unacceptable) sexual behaviours and sexual abuse.

Mukasa (2009) contends that in CEDAW's 30 Articles, the elimination of all forms of discrimination of women is authenticated. CEDAW sees the exclusion of women as having had an impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment of women rights and fundamental freedom. However, the focus of the scholars, only acknowledges the voices of women taking note of their diversity, roles and circumstances and yet the text is silent on the elevation of the status of women in some important respects in the past decade despite the fact that there are persisting inequalities between women and men. Therefore, international

bodies should commit in ensuring that cultural practices that undermine women's sexual rights should receive serious attention.

Legal provisions pertaining to Sexual Reproductive Rights

Mukasa (2009) contends that in CEDAW's 30 Articles, the elimination of all forms of discrimination of women is authenticated. CEDAW sees the exclusion of women as having had an impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment of women rights and fundamental freedom. It also denied them their contribution to political, economic, social, cultural, and civic life. In CEDAW's Article 2, all parties are required to commit themselves in ensuring that their respective governments comply with the regulations in eliminating all forms of discrimination in public and private institutions. This Article seeks to abolish all discriminatory laws, regulations, customs and practices. Similarly, CEDAW's Article 4 authorizes the adoption of special measures that would create temporary inequality in favor of women. The 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action aimed at removing all obstacles against women's active participation in economic, social, civil and political decision-making (Mukasa 2009). The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) sought to restore equality and development and peace for all women in the interest of all humanity. However, the focus of the scholars, only acknowledges the voices of women taking note of their diversity, roles and circumstances and yet the text is silent on the elevation of the status of women in some important respects in the past decade despite the fact that there are persisting inequalities between women and men. Therefore, the available literature creates a knowledge gap that required research to be conducted to come up with recommendations for international bodies to commit in ensuring that cultural practices that undermine women's sexual rights receive serious attention.

The Beijing Platform also suggested the enhancement of women's personal relations. The new documented women's sexual and reproductive rights endorsed of women in political and economic decision making if women are to be the pivots around which our populations grows and expands. (Dedan, 2016). Laws regarding age of first marriage can have a significant impact on a young woman's reproductive health. Lori (2001) argues that the Cairo Conference on Reproductive Rights sought to introduce methods, techniques and services that were to contribute in improvement of women's sexual and reproductive health like family planning. However, the legal context of family life, a woman's access to education, and laws and policies affecting her economic status can contribute to the promotion or the prohibition of a woman's access to reproductive health care and her ability to make voluntary, informed decisions about such care which aspects were never clearly stated by these scholars hence creating a knowledge gap that prompted this study.

The Status of Women's Sexual and Reproductive Rights in Polygamous Marriages

Luyimbazi (2016) noted that many Ugandans indulge in an indefinite multiplication of wives, while on the other hand, there are those who condemn polygamy as the most despicable practice. Given the centrality of polygamy in shaping family life in the region, it is not surprising that the literature is replete with studies that have assessed its link with reproductive-related outcomes such as fertility and contraception (Mbugua, 2016). Unfortunately, the polygamy-child survival nexus has garnered less attention among the urban populace in Kampala. Although some work has been done on the link between polygamy and sexual reproductive health, prior empirical work has given little consideration to the possibility that the effects of polygamy may not be uniform in all societies. Extant research may not fully assess the effect of polygamy on survival if the interactional dynamics are ignored. It is the aim of this study to address these

concerns and contribute to the limited available knowledge.

Feinberg (2012) reiterated that the role of polygyny is a social mediator of women's vulnerability to disease and their health outcomes. Because women's status is intertwined with their husband's, there are strong social pressures for women not to reveal personal feelings about their marital relationships that might undermine their commitment to the established social order (Wittrup, 2014). Significantly, female researchers seem to obtain greater insights into the emotional nuances of co-wives' lives (Jankowiak, 2015). Overview of polygyny in sub-Saharan Africa that limit women's access to land, inheritance, support from natal kin, and sources of formalized power (Burton, 2018). Unless noted, the data presented here are derived from cohort and case-control studies with small sample sizes compared to this study that is cross sectional. From a power balance perspective, polygyny places women largely under the authority of their husband and his lineage, particularly his mother, for access to key resources and support during childbearing and other life events. Women's ability to negotiate social relationships within this framework and besides their co-wives is therefore crucial to their well-being and to that of their children in polygamous marriages.

In bridging the gap, given the reproductive competition between co-wives noted earlier, postpartum abstinence and early 'menopause' in polygynous marriages not might reflect women's choices, but sexual and emotional neglect on the part of polygynous husbands. Therefore, the researcher believes that further investigation on fertility in polygynous societies would be more fruitful if it were designed with the interplay of these variables in mind.

Methodology

The methodological approach to this study was qualitative in nature where an unstructured questionnaire and unstructured interview guide was adopted. The qualitative aspect not only investigated the "what", "where" and "when", but also the "why" and "how" of decision making. Following the decision on the appropriate methodology to use in this study based on the ontological and epistemological assumptions, the next step was to decide on the research design. The choice of research design was influenced largely by the methodology (whether quantitative or qualitative) as well as the philosophical assumptions guiding the research process (ontology and epistemology). The research design adopted was a case study that qualitative methods of research. In line with the research purpose and the unit of analysis in this study, the study population comprised of women and men and in both polygamous and monogamous marriages, religious leaders, local council executive committee members, University lecturers, Elders, community Liaison officers, health officers in health centres, Police Officers in Charge of Family affairs, Probation Officers, Sub County chiefs, Sub County Chairpersons and Sub-County Community Development Officers. A total of 232 respondents were selected for the study of which 142 were female and 90 male. This study employed multiple sampling techniques for specific groups of informants. Simple random sampling was adopted in sampling the residents. For Health Officials, and Community Development Officers, multi-stage sampling was done, which began with developing a sampling frame. Purposive sampling was used to sample lecturers and judicial officers. Data was sorted and analyzed using content thematic analysis.

Research Philosophy and Philosophical Assumptions

This sub section discusses the assumptions that influenced researcher in his choice of research methods. As stated in the previous sub section above, the choice of research methodology is influenced by a set of assumptions underlying each research methodology (Crotty, 1998). These methodologies are influenced by what is commonly called research paradigms (Jean, 1992 and Kuhn, 1996). "A paradigm is a set of beliefs that individuals use to make sense of the world or a segment of the world" (Crotty, 1998). In other words it provides an insight into the way in which individuals look at and perceive the world (Kuhn, 1996). In terms of research, a paradigm guides the conceptual framework that researchers use in seeking to understand and make sense of reality (Popkewitz, 1984 cited by Maguire, 1987). Paradigms thus set boundaries for researchers in terms of the manner in which they can execute the research process, with regards to research methods, strategies for social inquiry as well as the purpose and use of knowledge (Maguire, 1987; Crotty, 1998). In that way, paradigms influence what researchers regard as accepted knowledge and ways of doing research (Crotty, 1998) and shapes researchers' "perceptions and practices within their research disciplines" (Maguire, 1987). The choice of method is mostly influenced by major philosophical considerations (ontology and epistemology) underlying the research process (discussed in the next section).

In this study, the philosophical assumptions that guided the researcher's approach to this study are interpretivism and critical theory. These philosophical positions helped the researcher to form the critical element in the design of the research, especially the specification of the questions which the researcher answered. Consequently, the research's paradigms are driven by three fundamental questions; (a) the ontological question (b) the epistemological question and (c) the methodological question. These three questions are interconnected in such a manner that any answer given to any one question influences the answers obtained from the other questions.

Based on the interrelatedness of the basic belief systems on whose assumptions paradigms are established, as well as the conviction that there is no way to establish ultimate truthfulness for the basic beliefs that informs any paradigm, the study employed these two philosophical positions as the dominant paradigm for the research. However, this research noted that qualitative research is an inclusive method with its approaches not always wholly separate but possibly overlapping. The researcher adopted interpretivism because it enabled him to understand social phenomena and the existing 'constructed' social world and its interpretation.

Even though the researcher acknowledges the existences of multiple 'understandings' as people in Uganda, communities differently construct and interpret their relationship to public financial management, there is relative consensus in the knowledge that exists within them (Guba and Linclon, 2004). The construction, interpretation and understanding of their world changes as situations in their communities change. The researcher interpreted these social realities from their stances and constructions. The researcher did this by giving primary data such as questionnaire, interviews from the field, meanings and explanations by seeking for clarification and probing for confirmation to ensure a better understanding of the respondents. The researcher acknowledges the difficulty of achieving complete objectivity and neutrality in social science research, as "*social reality is a product of its inhabitants*".

Ontological assumptions

Ontological assumptions revolve around the question of 'what is' with the nature of reality (Crotty, 1998). In other words it is an attempt to explain what reality is and why things happen the way they do. In a bid to explain reality, Jean (2012) suggests that two opposite assumptions of reality are objectivity and subjectivity. According to the objectivist view, reality exists out there, intact and tangible, but it is independent of individuals' appreciation and cognition (Guba, 1990; Jean, 1992; Hill, 1995). Thus, regardless of whether or not individuals perceive and attach meaning to this reality, it remains unchanged (Burrell and Morgan, 1994). An individual is thus; "born into and lives within the social world that has its own reality, which cannot be created by that individual" (Burrell and Morgan, 1994). In order to create a better understanding of reality, objectivists suggest the need to study the causal relationships among the elements constituting reality (Jean, 1992; Burrell and Morgan, 1994). The objectivist' view of reality is closely related to a theoretical position called positivism (Giddens, 1974 and Hill, 1995). Positivism holds the objectivist assumption that reality is independent of human cognition (Guba, 1990).

Epistemology

Epistemology is concerned with explaining the nature of knowledge in terms of how knowledge is created (Jean, 2012; Crotty, 1998). In research, epistemology provided the grounds for deciding on the kind of knowledge that was considered appropriate, adequate and legitimate for the inquiry at hand. Jean (2012) suggests that the methodology has to be supported by an epistemology. Researchers are as a result expected to point out, explain and justify the epistemology that informs their choice of research methodology. The choice of epistemology was widely influenced by the ontological considerations. The two dimensions of ontology (objective and subjective), played an important role ultimately the methodology chosen to conduct the research.

Subjectivism

The ontological position of interpretivism is relativism. Reality is constructed through the interaction between language and aspects of an independent world. The interpretive epistemology is one of subjectivism which is based on real world phenomena. The world does not exist independently of our knowledge of it (Ragin, 2007). The subjectivist's view of reality advocates for appreciation of human involvement in the creation and shaping of knowledge (Jean, 1992). Subjectivist epistemology thus suggests that meaning or reality is not discovered but is rather imposed on the object by the subject, and in the case of research, by the researcher (Crotty, 1998). In other words, under subjectivist epistemology, the object being studied contributes less to the meaning or reality. Therefore, the researchers' input in the research process was recognised under subjectivism by use of open ended interview questions and non-random sampling techniques. The research methodology recommended by subjectivists is qualitative methodology. According to Jean (1992) qualitative research is a form of social interaction in which the researcher converses with, and learns about the phenomenon being studied. In that way, the researcher is part of the research process and is actively involved in creating the meaning of reality (Crotty, 1998; Kent, 1999). Qualitative research is suggested as more applicable to the study of people and their environment(social sciences) than natural sciences (Bryman, 2001).

The reason is that the object of research for natural sciences (chemicals, metals, atoms and others) cannot make sense of their environment and are easy to manipulate while people can, and are, able to attribute meaning to their environment. Thus, proponents of qualitative research advocate the use of qualitative

methodology when studying people as it enables the researcher to see through the eyes of the researcher (Bryman, 2001). In addition, the social world needs to be studied from people' perspectives rather than treat them as objects that cannot attach meaning to their environment. In order to embrace the effect of the environment in providing sense to what is being studied, a variation of the subjectivism commonly known as constructivism was suggested in the entire study. Constructivism is an epistemological position that recognises reality as being created through human practices as researchers interact with their environment (Crotty, 1998). Multiple realities were constructed as the researcher interacted with people and their environment through interviews. Thus the whole process involved interaction and socialisation where upon people learnt, shared and recognised the meaning of reality. According to constructivist epistemology, researchers need to empathize with people they are studying to abstract reality (Kent, 1999). This involves engagement with the people concerned by observation of behaviour, and most importantly through asking those people (Kent, 1999).

Qualitative methodology has been criticized for lacking in efficacy due to its inability to study with a degree of accuracy the relationships between variables (Sarantakos, 2005). In qualitative research, the researcher is the main player, in the sense that he or she decides on what to concentrate on. In addition, what is observed and heard may not necessarily be the same as what another researcher will observe (Bryman, 2001). It is difficult to replicate and generalize the findings of qualitative research with ease because they are more likely to be restricted given that only a small number of cases is studied compared to large sample sizes common in quantitative research (Bryman, 2001). Consequently, the number of cases may not be representative of the majority of the population being studied. However, proponents of qualitative research argue that generalisations are made on the assumption that the findings and inferences made during the research are supported by sound theoretical reasoning (Mitchel, 2013).

Research Design
The research design adopted was a case study that qualitative methods of research. The observation of the researcher, the responses from respondents were descriptive and therefore qualitative in nature. A qualitative research design is particularly be relevant to the study of marriage because it invites participants to describe and explain their lives in their own words and to assess for themselves to what extent they experience marriage as based on equality between man and woman.

Study Population
According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), population refers to the entire group of people; process, things or events that the researcher wishes to investigate and make inferences. In line with the research purpose and the unit of analysis in this study, the study population comprised of women and men and in both polygamous and monogamous marriages, religious leaders, local council executive committee members, University lecturers, Elders, community Liaison officers, health officers in hospitals/health centres, Police Officers in Charge of Family affairs, Probation Officers, Sub County chiefs, Sub County Chairpersons and Sub-County Community Development Officers. No controversy so far!

Sample Size,
A total of 232 respondents were selected for the study of which 142 will be female and 90 male. On this same subject, Kothari (2004) advised that the sample size should be large enough to give a confidence interval of the desired width.

Sampling Techniques and Selection Procedure

This study employed multiple sampling techniques were used for specific groups of informants. Simple random sampling was adopted in sampling the residents. For Health Officials, and Community Development Officers, multi-stage sampling was done, which began with developing a sampling frame. Purposive sampling was used to sample lecturers and judicial officers.

Response Rate

A total of 232 respondents completed the questionnaires out of the expected 251 making a 92% response rate and of these 42 were interviewed. The current analyses were restricted to the 202 couples in which the wife was aged 18–49. Overall, 28% of the wives were in monogamous marriages and 72% were in polygamous ones; nearly a quarter of those in polygamous relationships had more than one co-wife. Compared with wives in monogamous marriages, those in polygamous unions were above 21, and had been married longer a year, and were more likely to have been previously married, had a greater number of living children at least one. Similar differences in age, parity and education were observed by marriage type among husbands.

Background Demographic Characteristics

This section presents findings on demographics of the respondents, namely; gender, age, education, working experience, and position of the respondent, below.

Gender characteristics of the Respondents

The gender characteristics of respondents were investigated for this study, and findings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary statistics on the gender of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percentage
	Male	92	39.6
Valid	Female	140	60.3
	Total	232	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2019)   N=232

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of the respondents were female (60.3) and male were (39.6%). Although the gender findings indicated a discrepancy in favour of females, the study was representative of all sexes since both males and females were part of the study. More females were included in the study because they are the most affected group when it comes to gender based violence, discrimination and other forms of marginalisation. The females are more side-lined by husbands when it comes to sexual reproductive health since many are denied access to sexual reproductive information.

Age of the Respondents

The study looked at age distribution of the respondents by age using frequency distribution. The results obtained on the item are presented in table 2 below

Table 2: Age of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent
		Frequency	Percent
	10-19	19	8.1
	20-29	33	14.2
Valid	30-39	96	41.3
	40-49	45	19.3
	50 Above	39	16.8
	Total	232	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2019)   N=232

From the above table, the majority of respondents who took part in the study were between 10-19 were 8.1, those between 20-29 were 14.2%, those between 30-39 were 41.3% and those between 40-49 were 19.3%. This indicated that all categories of respondents in reference to different age groups were represented in this study.

Respondents by Highest Level of Education
The table 3 presents the summary statistics on level of education of the respondents.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Highest Level of Education the Respondents.

		Frequency	Percent
	Bachelors	34	14.6
	Diploma	24	10.3
	Certificate	69	29.7
	Others	105	45.2
Total		232	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2019)   N=232

The majority of the respondents were school drop outs making a total percentage of 45.2%, the respondents with bachelors were 14.6% and those with diploma were 10.3% respectively. These results indicate that the respondents had some reasonable level of education and were able to read and understand the questionnaire.

Respondents by Marital status
The table 4.4 presents the summary statistics on marital status of the respondents

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents by marital status of the Respondents.

		Frequency	Percent
	Married	134	57.7
	Cohabiting	54	23.2
	Single	29	12.5
	Divorced	15	6.4
Total		232	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2019)   N=232

The majority of the respondents were married either religiously or customarily and these made a total percentage of 57.7%, the respondents cohabiting were 23.2% and the single respondents were 12.5%. These results indicate that all marital statuses were represented in this study.

Respondents by Type of marriage
The Table 5 presents the summary statistics on type of marriage of the respondents.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by type of marriage

	Frequency	Percent
Monogamous	29	21.7
Polygamous	105	78.3
Total	232	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2019)　　　　　N=232

The majority of the respondents were polygamously married making a total percentage of 78.3%, and those monogamously married were 21.7%. The couples married monogamously gave responses based on their life experiences.

Empirical Findings

Uganda's commitment to realization of the right to sexual and reproductive health
Sexual and reproductive health rights are among the most sensitive and controversial issues in international human rights law, but are also among the most important. These rights are guaranteed in various treaty documents and other instruments which clearly delineate government obligations to protect these rights. Implementation of these rights at the regional level is shaped by the socio- cultural beliefs and practices that determine the extent to which the rights are respected, protected and realised. A lawyer noted that "these beliefs either violate or protect individual's rights. Uganda's commitment to address SRHR for women living with HIV is within the broad legal framework for addressing sexual and reproductive health rights founded on the principles of human dignity and equality provided for in the 1995 Uganda Constitution. SRHR for women living with HIV is a human rights issue in terms of the right to life (Article 22), liberty and security (Article 23); the right to health, respect for human dignity and protection from cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment (Article 24); the right to privacy of person (Article 27); the right to a fair hearing (Article 28); the right to education (Article 30); family rights (Article 31); the right to access information (Article 41); and the right to freedom from any harmful cultural practices (laws, customs, beliefs) that are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women or undermine their status (Article 33 (6). The Constitution provides for non-discrimination and equality for all, as well as protection and promotion of women's rights (Articles 20, 26, 30, 31, 40 (b and c) and 50 (Republic of Uganda, 1995). Under the National Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy, the Constitution commits the state to take all practical measures to ensure the provision of basic medical services to the population (Objective XX).

Findings revealed that the right to health including reproductive health care is subject to progressive realisation. According to UDHS, 2018), more than 20% of married women in Uganda are in polygamous relationships. Although studies have examined fertility desires and contraceptive use in such marriages, they have not taken into account differences that may exist among the co-wives in these unions. Relatedly a respondent noted "one co-wife may desire a future birth, but another may not; similarly, a husband may want to have another child, but only with a specific wife, this may be a form of violence to the rest of the women who may be feel sidelined" Tamale (2013) notes that polygyny constitutes an infringement of women's right to reproductive health care. It is important to note that polygamy has never been categorized

as one of the factors which affect the reproductive health status of women; it is hereby submitted that it is one of them. The environment in Uganda has not been sympathetic to the development of women because of the patriarchal nature of the society and the practice of polygamy is embedded in patriarchy.

Reproductive and maternal health care/Fertility

Study findings revealed that the proportion of respondents who wanted to stop childbearing was higher in polygamous marriages than in monogamous unions, among both wives (54% vs. 46%) and husbands (61% vs. 39%). Similarly, both partners reported wanting to stop childbearing in 37% of polygamous husband-wife pairs, but in only 27% of monogamous pairs. None of these differences were significant, however, after adjustment for the older age and higher parity of polygamous respondents.

The prevalence of contraceptive use was lower among respondents in polygamous marriages than among those in monogamous marriages. Clandestine contraceptive use appeared to be greater in polygamous than in monogamous marriages; among husband-wife pairs in which the wife reported contraceptive use, 61% of monogamous husbands, but only 39% of polygamous husbands, also reported use. Women in polygamous marriages face many barriers in accessing family planning services: some common to all women, such as stock shortages and opposition from sexual partners, and some specific to women with disabilities, such as negative attitudes of health care personnel. A respondent noted that "I was told by a medical officer to avoid birth control, stating erroneously that birth control would result in the birth of a child with a disability. As a result, I stopped taking birth control.

A respondent similarly opined that;
"*low contraceptive use means that more and more African women are at risk of unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortion. The lack of access to contraception diminishes decision making about sexual activities. In the developing world, women's reasons for not using contraceptives commonly include concerns about possible side-effects, the belief that they are not at risk of getting pregnant, poor access to family planning, and their partners' opposition to contraception*".

Although findings revealed that the odds of contraceptive use were lower among couples in which only one spouse wanted to stop childbearing than among those in which both partners wanted to stop, the results did not differ substantially according to the sex of the partner who wanted to stop. However, the odds of use were reduced to a greater extent when polygamous women and men disagreed about continued childbearing than when monogamous partners disagreed. Among polygamous couples, monogamous couples or both, contraceptive use was negatively associated with age and positively associated with level of education and number of living children. If the husband had HIV, monogamous couples were more likely to practice contraception, whereas polygamous couples were less likely to do so.

Polygamy and Family Planning

The findings showed that the most popular method of family planning was the injection as reported by the majority of the participants, followed by implant and sterilization. While women living with HIV observed that there were multiple methods of family planning, they noted a number of challenges that limited their right to reproduction and family planning use. These challenges were mainly associated with refusal by spouse, gender-based factors and limited information provided by health workers in clinical settings.

Evidence from the case studies of women who had experienced forced and/or coerced sterilization, interviews and discussions with other women and men and key informants revealed a number of effects of forced/coerced sterilization on women and their families. These effects are attributed to their inability to give birth which is negatively perceived by the communities.

When asked about sterilization, a respondent was quick to note that,
"sterilization affects sexual relations including reduced sexual desire, painful sexual intercourse and feeling weak. My sexual relationship is no longer the same; I am no longer happy. All the time we are quarrelling and at times I ask myself: do others feel the same?. I am not sexually active. It has affected me because my body is very weak"

The intention to use contraceptive among women in polygamous marriages remains wanting. It was found out in this study that the intention to use contraceptives among onusers varies dramatically and it was revealed from the results. The variations might be partly because of the population size but most importantly are associated with the difference in individual and neighbourhood characteristics. One of the individual characteristics that have been consistently related to intention to use contraceptive among nonusers was age (Solanke, 2017) and studies have found that maternal age remains crucial and relevant in the use of contraceptive (Barbieri & Hertrich 2002; Ibisomi 2014; Hambissa, Sena, Hiko, & Merga, 2018; Saloojee & Coovadia, 2015) . This study also shows that intention to use contraceptive varies with age. The intention to use contraceptive among women who were nonuser decreases with increase in age, this was found in the study in the study areas of Arua, Buikwe, Iganga, Jinja, Namayingo and Mayuge. The findings suggested that for an increase in the achievement of family planning programmes in these countries the need to target young reproductive women is an important strategy to be adopted. Marital status and the number of living children previously born alive play a crucial role as factors in intention to use contraceptive among women who yet to be using contraceptive and studies have shown that parity and marital status as some of the factors responsible for contraceptive use (Adam, 2015; Dasgupta, 2015). Women in some polygamous marriages a union have shown no intention to use contraceptive though they were likely to use contraceptive. Previous studies (Caldwell,2000; Bankole,2004; Fadeyibi, 2013; Ogu, Agholor, & Okonofua, 2016) generally found that more children mean more income and none use of the contraceptive method in less developing countries such as Uganda. Though this study shows that women who had more than three living children have the intention to use contraceptive, this might be as a result of an increase in the cost of childbearing, parent's psychological benefits of having few successful children and access to family planning services.

Original Contribution of the Study
There was a discrepancy of failure to acknowledge women's competence to consent to health care which amounts to a violation of their right to equality before the law. In view of this discrepancy, there was a knowledge gap that prompted this study hence the need to investigate the impact of polygamous marriages on the realization of health rights with reference to sexual reproductive rights Uganda.

Therefore, the study generated information regarding the right to sexual and reproductive health and rights of women and men in polygamous marriages; an institution which is deeply rooted in male domination of women. The study thus identified specific areas of sexual and reproductive health rights violations and abuses in polygamous marriage and investigated remedies available to victims of these violations.

There is scarcity of studies done on the impact of polygamous marriages on the realisation of health rights.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The CEDAW Committee's General Recommendation 29 reaffirms the goal of abolishing polygamy and makes clear that ", *with regard to women in existing polygamous marriages, States parties should take the necessary measures to ensure the protection of their economic rights.*" While prohibiting polygamous marriages is important to promoting women's human rights, drafters should consider the negative consequences it may hold for additional wives.

The better way to protect the rights of women in polygamous marriages would be by the enactment of laws which promote and protect their rights as proposed by article 6 of the Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa. An example of a law which regulates rather than prohibits polygamy is the Marriage Act of 2014.

The government should enact new laws or modify existing statutes in order to afford women greater equality before the law and uphold women's sexual autonomy, and ultimately minimize women's vulnerability to sexually transmitted infections. The Domestic Relations Bill (Draft) and the Sexual Offences (Miscellaneous Amendments) Bill that has already been passed by the parliament of Uganda should be returned to parliament for revision. There are a number of sections in the Bill that could still negatively affect the Sexual and Reproductive Health Rights of women in polygamous marriages. There should provision of free access to reproductive health services. The national response to reproductive health concerns and HIV-AIDS needs to be continuously assessed, to provide all stakeholders with constant feedback on progress with implementation, by identifying actual or potential successes and problems so as to facilitate timely adjustments to implementation.

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Management function and water quality service concerns: Emerging management issues in selected town councils in Uganda

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Abstract

A study has been conducted to illustrate examples of water quality problems to vulnerable communities in Uganda's small town councils. Many urban communities in sub-Saharan Africa still lack clean water for basic needs such as drinking and washing. Even where water points have been constructed, many breakdown prematurely or provide inadequate, seasonal or poor-quality water supplies. While techno-managerial factors are relevant in explaining these problems, attention is needed to the institutional and political-economic dynamics shaping policy outcomes on the ground. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as a manifestation of multivariate analysis was used as an instrument for decision making in factor analysis of water quality service. Variance based SEM helped with variables of water pollution which consisted of qualitative and quantitative variables. Linear structural equation model obtained as a result of the study showed the contribution level among pollution factors. T-statistic values obtained by doing bootstrap model resample showed the significances of the management function. It was concluded that effective planning of water projects in small towns will reduce on the management challenges. There is need to ensure installation of hand pumps, and look after their repair and maintenance with the coordination of urban dwellers. There is need to create health awareness about diseases caused by unsafe water by providing safe drinking water, thereby reducing water borne diseases.

Key words: Water quality, Water service quality

Introduction

Water is an indispensable natural resource for the survival and wellbeing of humankind. It is also essential for the production of food, energy that contributes to the economic and industrial development of a society (Naiga and Penker, 2014). Safe and reliable supply of water is therefore essential for individual welfare and for community development (Ovrawah, and Hymore, 2001). The first and foremost consequence of lack of safe water for community consumption is diseases (Mpaata, 2018). World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that as much as 80% of all diseases in the world is associated with water (Hirsch, 2006). Available evidences indicate that most of the health benefits from safe water are attainable at service levels of 30–40 liters per capita per day. Mpaata (2018) notes that with good water structures and systems, the role of organized water supply in the prevention of water-borne diseases and in the promotion of public health can be well appreciated (Hall, Lobina, and De la Motte, 2005).

For most developing countries, clean water access is still unattainable (Gautam, and Shivakoti, 2005). According to the Human Development Report of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), as of 1996, more than 31% of the population in developing countries is yet to have access to safe water and more than three-fourths of this population lives in the rural areas. In Uganda, the responsibility for providing drinking water supply in small town councils vests with the central government, through the Ministry of Water and Environment (Kintale, 2017). However, Uganda's drinking water crisis has become severe over the past decade. Increasing demands on available water resources for intensive agricultural practices and industrial use, together with deteriorating water quality, constrain drinking water availability despite massive outlays for drinking water and sanitation infrastructure (Kintale, 2018). The water crisis seems to be worse in the study towns of Lwengo in Western Uganda, Kayabwe in Central Uganda, Ishaka in Western Uganda, Omoro in Northern Uganda, Buwenge and Bugembe in Eastern Uganda.

More than half of these small town council households depend upon tap water, hand pumps as their main source of drinking water. This increased between 2007 and 2015 to make this source the preferred source of drinking water. However, there has been an increase of 3% of town dwellers using these sources putting pressure on the government to provide more tap water(Water Resources Department, 2019). Although most of the water supply and sanitation schemes by Uganda's government have penetrated into small towns and covered many households (about 54% of householders are fully covered), many households (about 46%) have no drinking water facilities (Water Resources Department, 2019). Moreover, there are growing concerns about the sustainable use of groundwater and surface water with respect to emerging issues of inequity of water distribution and access (Water Resources Department Uganda, 2019). Although the government assures that drinking water is available in most towns, the quality of that water supply is a problem. Currently, a large proportion of Uganda's communities is consuming water that does not meet the WHO drinking water quality standards (WHO Report, 2017). Furthermore, in most of the towns, users are unaware of the quality of the water being supplied to them for drinking(MoWE Report, 2018). Under drought conditions, the quality of water tends to be overlooked, and priority is given to quantity. Hence, it is essential to examine the management function and quality of the drinking water use in the small town communities that lack proper water supply infrastructure.

Problem statement

In spite of continuous efforts to provide drinking water in small town councils in Uganda, the government of Uganda has been able to solve the problem in only 46.9 per cent of the towns (Water Resources Department, 2019). About 53.1 per cent towns are still without safe drinking water supply (MoWE, 2018). Through a recent report it has been made clear that in small urban centres, 15 per cent persons are suffering from problems related to quality of water (MoWE, 2018). Among these problems, the main problem is of fluoride, arsenic, iron element, and pollution due to nitrate and salinity (WHO Report, 2017). In spite of so many efforts for providing drinking water, water supply system is disturbed on account of the fact that the common man has developed the presumption that water is a social asset and responsibility for providing it vests completely with the government.

Water policy practices

Solving water quality problems requires strategies to prevent, treat, and remediate water quality concerns. Water resource management, including water quality management, is an exclusive national competency. As such, water quality management is the responsibility of the Minister of Water and Environment.

The Ugandan Constitution as amended 1995 National Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy XXI states that every citizen has the right to access adequate water that is not harmful to health. The constitution says "it is every person's right to have access to clean water". This places an obligation on those charged with the provision of water to communities.

The Uganda Water Act Chapter 152 gives substance to constitutional requirements with respect to access, national norms and standards and institutional framework for provision of water services. It states that drinking water quality should comply with prescribed National Drinking Water Standards. The Water Act, therefore, makes it mandatory that consumers be involved in water quality monitoring and management. S. 50 provides that a set of individuals or households may form a water user group and collectively plan and manage the point source water supply system in their area. At the local government level, the primary responsibility for ensuring the provision of safe drinking water rests with Ministry of Water and Environment in that, it will monitor the quality of drinking water provided to consumers, compare the results to national drinking water standards and communicate any health risks to consumers and appropriate authorities. The Ministry promotes an understanding of the entire water supply system, the events that can compromise drinking water quality and the operational control necessary for optimizing drinking water quality and water pollution. Delivery of drinking water supply has taken different shapes, primarily due to the choice of technology by the respective governments. While some have emphasized hand pumps, others have taken measures to set-up piped water supplies. Under the common national program for ensuring safe drinking water in the vicinity of households, providing services by piped water supply is a better option than hand pumps (Naiga, and Penker, 2014). This is because piped water supply can more effectively improve drinking water security when coupled with safety norms to reduce water contamination, than other technologies, like hand pumps. Water quality in this study has been examined on the basis of contamination by fluoride, arsenic, iron, salinity, and nitrate. A number of towns studied are vulnerable to water quality problems. High levels of calcium, magnesium and nitrate in water taps and private boreholes, attributed to the agricultural practices and washing of clothes in the neighborhood of the boreholes, have been found in groundwater. High levels of calcium and magnesium increases the hardness of water as the Ministry of Water and Environment Report (2016) emphasizes. Nitrates commonly generated from waste water, agricultural effluent from fertilizers and livestock feed-lots, waste disposal sites, urban sanitation, and cemeteries is the single most important reason for groundwater resources to be deemed unfit for human consumption. High nitrate concentrations in groundwater occur mainly in a wide band. Nitrates contamination of groundwater is a serious threat to public health and high levels can lead to methamoglobinemia (blue baby syndrome), a disease found especially in infants less than six months but also can affect the adults. Calcium hypochlorite (chlorine powder or bleach powder) is used to treat the drinking water at public water supply areas but the question remains whether this powder is used to treat water from different sources in small towns in Uganda in order to have the water safe for drinking?

Methodology

The study was carried out in six selected town councils of Lwengo in Western Uganda, Kayabwe in Central Uganda, Ishaka in Western Uganda, Omoro in Northern Uganda, Buwenge and Bugembe in Eastern Uganda. An initial sample of 1013 respondents from the six selected towns of Lwengo, Kayabwe, Bugembe, Buwenge, Omoro, Ishaka was drawn. Later smaller samples were calculated using the random

selection of cases from the six towns, namely samples with 25, 50, 100, 250, 400, and 500 units. This was performed in order to check the possible impact of sample size on relationships between latent variables using the CB-SEM and the PLS-SEM method. The methodological approach to this study was qualitative and quantitative in nature where structured questionnaire and unstructured interview guides were adopted. A descriptive cross sectional survey design was adopted. In line with the research purpose and the unit of analysis in this study, the study population comprised of water officers, Sub county Chiefs, Ministry of Water and Environment Officials, Town Engineers and the residents of the six selected towns. This study was multi-dimensional hence multiple sampling techniques was used for specific groups of informants. Simple random sampling, purposive and convenience sampling was adopted. The structural equation modeling (SEM), including multi-group analysis, was performed using AMOS version 24. The goodness of fit (GOF) of the model with the data was examined using several GOF statistics, such as Chi-square (minimum discrepancy/degree of freedom: CMIN/DF), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and Akaike information criteria (AIC).

Table 1. Validity and reliability of variables in model

Latent variable	Indicator	Convergent validity loading	average variance extracted	Reliability composite reliability	Cronbach's alpha	R^2
AA	A1	0.842				
	A2	0.782				
	A3	0.863	0.6923	0.8999	0.8514	0.000
	A4	0.839				
LRP	B1	0.769				
	B2	0.809				
	B3	0.684	0.5802	0.8463	0.7567	0.781
	B4	0.779				
LWE	C1	0.849				
	C2	0.729				
	C3	0.758	0.5845	0.8485	0.7639	0.735
	C4	0.714				
LS	D1	0.593				
	D2	0.739				
	D3	0.777	0.5398	0.8224	0.7165	0.769
	D4	0.811				
RWP	E1	0.787				
	E2	0.843				
	E3	0.801	0.6587	0.8852	0.8277	0.748
	E4	0.814				
S	F1	0.857				
	F2	0.888				
	F3	0.811	0.7379	0.9184	0.8815	0.812
	F4	0.877				

Explanations: AA = anthropogenic activities; LRP = law, regulation and policy; LWE = land and water ecosystem; MR = Lake source; RWP = river water pollution; S = sustainability; A1 = industrial, A2 = residential, A3 = commercial, A4 = agricultural; B1 = green technology program, B2 = no plastic program, B3 = recycle program, B4 = education program; C1 = habitat, C2 = shelter, C3 = food supply, C4 = freshwater; D1 = soil structure, D2 = erosion and sedimentation, D3 = floods, D4 = landslide; E1 = poisoning, E2 = disease spread, E3 = toxic, E4 = physico-chemical and biological pollution; F1 = responsibility, F2 = respective, F3 = attitude, F4 = adaption of religious education. Source: own study.

The validity and reliability of variables (which refer to indicators) in the domains were required for examination to determine the existence of relationship within the variables. This is because the six domains generated in the model had to be valid and reliable, which were important to represent the indicators or instrument items. In other words, the SEM analysis explains that the six domains referred to as latent variables were represented by their indicators in the particular model that was produced.

Table 2. Validity & Reliability References For Outer Model

Category	Parameter	References Value
Convergent validity	Loading Factor	>0.70 for confirmatory research
		>0.60 for exploratory research
		>0.50 for startup research
	Average variance Extracted(AVE)	>0.50 for confirmatory and exploratory research
Discriminant validity	Cross loading	> 0.70 for every variable
	√AVE and correlation among latent construct	√AVE > correlation between latent construct
Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	> 0.70 for confirmatory research
		> 0.60 for exploratory research
	Weight Significances	t-value > 1.65 - α = 0.1
		• t-value > 1.96 - α =0.05
		• t-value > 2.58 -α = 0.01

The authors postulated two possible models related to the ideas that management function affects water quality service (Model 1) or that management factors affects water service quality in small towns in Uganda (Model 2). The path diagrams of Model 1 and Model 2 are shown in figure 1 and figure 2 with results of SEM analysis. The left and right parts of these figures depict management function and water quality service respectively.

The R^2 value of endogenous *water pollution level* variable is 0.2996. It can be referred that the structural model of this case study is rather weak. Based on Table 4, the only significance variable is *upstream condition* (confidence interval of 95%), because it was the only variable which has t-statistic value more than 1.96.

Table 3. Ave Compared With Latent Variables Correlation

	√AVE			ALD	HULU	PM	TP
PM	0.8735	compared	**PM**	0.0156	-0.1924	1.0000	-
TP	0.8766		**TP**	0.2739	0.4955	-0.2389	1.0000

Table 3: is giving the path coefficients of the structural equation model (sample mean). Thus, the structural equation of the model is

Table 4: Path Coefficients

	Original sample	Sample mean	Standard Error	T-Statistics
	0	M	STERR	STERR
DOM-WPL	0.185	0.215	0.169	1.099
UPS-WPL	0.425	0.466	0.190	2.243
CP-WPL	0.016	-0.078	0.286	0.055
CP-WPL	0.160	-0.129	0.173	0.924

Source: Primary data (2020)

Table 5. Ave Composite Reliability, Cronbachs Alpha, R^2

	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha		R^2
HULU	-	-	-		-
ALD	-	-	-	0.0002	
PM	0.7630	0.8642	0.7269		-
TP	0.7685	0.8688	0.7076	0.2996	

Source: Primary data (2020)

The prediction strength of structural model shown by value of R^2 each of endogenous latent variable. R^2 value of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25 explain the model. The variance-based SEM can be used well-enough for helping the water quality service factor analysis. It can mix qualitative and quantitative variables with good perseverance. The case study resulted in a weak structural model with significance value identified for one variable. In order to strengthen the model, it need more variable and indicators to put up. It is recommended to have many observed indicators when make the model concept in first place. It is also recommended to add latent variable of regulation or policy that leads into pollution rising. Despite the national policy and programmatic efforts to provide basic water services, many small towns in Uganda remain characterized by a disjuncture between water for livelihood needs and their actual access to the available water supply. Effective and efficient management of water supply systems in small town councils in Uganda remains a challenge. This is due to the long distances between consumers and town centres, the low income of most residents and the government policy on water management.
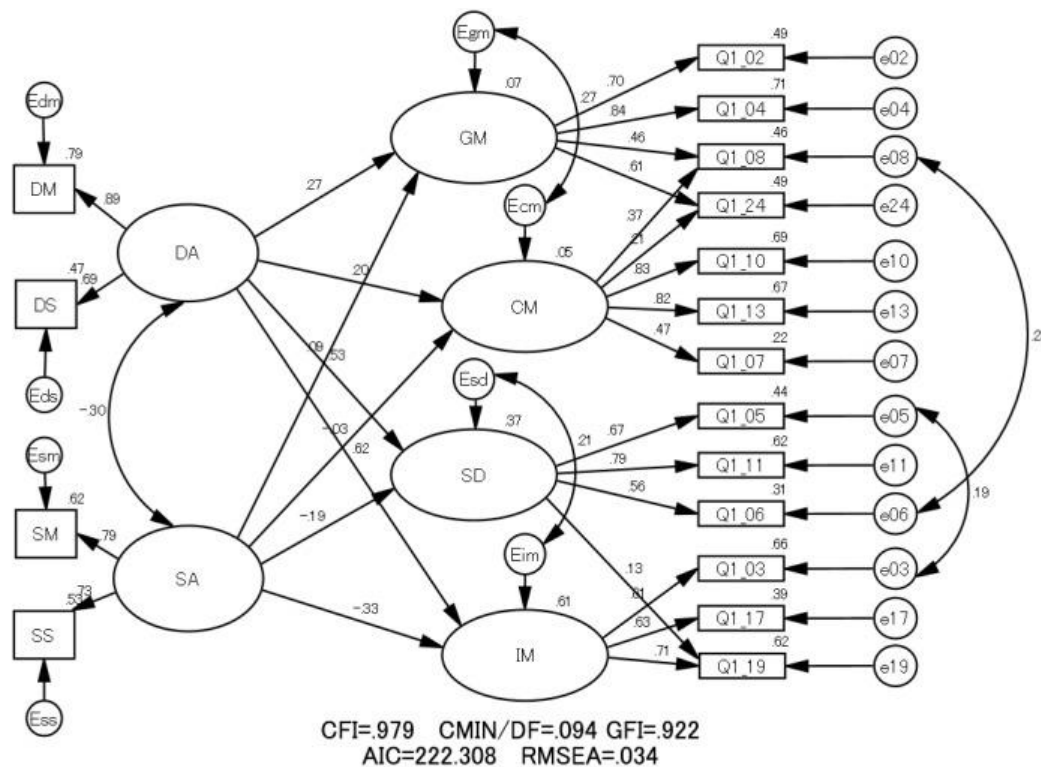
Figure 1:

The structure of Model 1 with standardized estimators among variables and goodness-of-fit (GOF) statistics. In this figure, DA: deep approach, SA: surface approach, DM: deep motive; DS: deep strategy, SM: surface motive, SS: surface strategy, GM: grade movement, CM: clean movement of water, SD: service-drivers and IM: internal water movement

Figure 2: The structure of Model 2 with standardized estimators among variables and GOF statistics. In this figure, DA: deep approach, SA: surface approach, DM: deep motive; DS: deep strategy, SM: surface motive, SS: surface strategy, GM: grade movement, CM: clean movement of water, SD: service-drivers and IM: internal water movement.
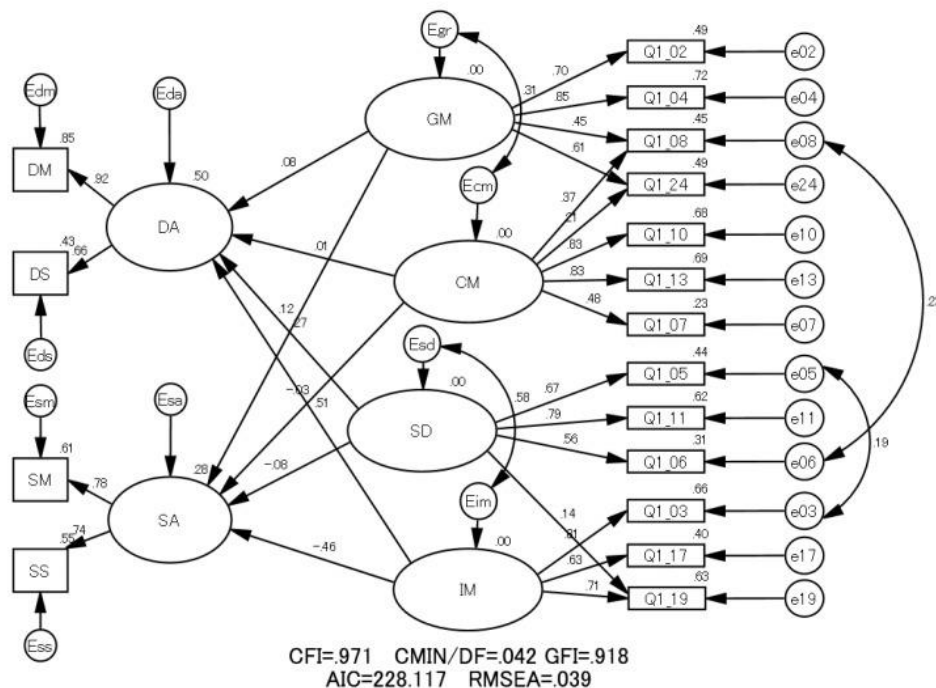
In Figure 1 and Figure 2, the single-headed and double-headed arrows indicate causal relationships and correlations between variables, respectively. In Figure 1, the arrows were drawn from the latent variables of learning process (DA and SA) to those of management function profile (GM, CM, SD and IM). On the other hand, in Figure 2, the arrows were drawn from the latent variables of water service concerns profile to those of management function. Figure 1 and 2 are founded on the ideas that management function affects water quality service and that management concerns affects water quality, respectively. To establish a model with a better fit, some correlations were added to the original models. Both Figure 1 and Figure 2 satisfied most GOF statistics in terms of the conventional criteria (p-values of the Chi-square test, CMIN/DF: >0.05; CFI: >0.90; GOF index: (GFI): >0.90; RMSEA: <0.05). Comparing the GOF statistics, Figure 1 was found to be a better fit for the data than Model 2 because CFI and GFI were larger and RMSEA and AIC were smaller in comparison with Figure 2. Thus, the authors adopted Figure 1 as the structure illustrating the causal relationship between management function and water quality service. Table 6 shows the estimated regression weights from the management function to the water quality service profile in Figure 1. All estimated regression weights of the paths from DA to management factors were all positive and statistically significant (less than 0.05). In contrast, the regression weights from SA to the components of management factors were not significant or negative. These results indicate that DA helped to increase management factors, while SA had little influence or a slightly negative influence on water quality service.

Table 6: Standardized estimated regression weights from the management function (DA and SA) to water quality service (GM, CM, SD and IM) in Model 1

Path	Standardized Estimate	Estimate	Standard Error	p-Value
DA to GM	0.270	0.078	0.030	0.009
DA to CM	0.204	0.062	0.031	0.045
DA to SD	0.530	0.148	0.031	<0.001
DA to IM	0.618	0.168	0.028	<0.001
SA to GM	0.090	0.028	0.033	0.397
SA to CM	−0.035	−0.012	0.035	0.742
SA to SD	−0.188	−0.057	0.031	0.069
SA to IM	−0.326	−0.096	0.029	<0.001

p-values were obtained from estimates and their standard errors by the z-test. In this table, DA: deep approach, SA: surface approach, GM: grade movement, CM: clean movement of water, SD: self-drivers and IM Internal water movement.

Based on Figure 1, the authors assessed the change in relationship between management factors and water quality service profile by month using the multi-group analysis. In multi-group analysis, several constrained models can be established. The smallest AIC was found in the constrained model, which had equalized measurement weights, measurement intercepts and structural weights. Therefore, this figure was selected to be the final model. The influence of management factors on water quality service was evaluated from the change in estimated means of DA and SA.

It is known that the management function and water quality concerns are related to each other. The DA has been reported to correlate with water quality and the ability to maximize meaning. Although DA was known to be associated with water quality, a causal relation between these two variables would be usually unclear. In this study, I reveal that management function influences water quality service.

Results based on two SEM Techniques on Different Samples Sizes from the six study towns.
In my study, the relationship between management function factors and water quality service was investigated using two different approaches (CB-SEM and PLS-SEM) and different sample sizes were investigated.

Research was implemented on an initial sample of 1013 respondents. In the next step, six smaller samples were calculated using the random selection of cases, namely samples with 25, 50, 100, 250, 400, and 500 units, because I want to check the possible impact of sample size on relationships between the latent variables using the CB-SEM and the PLS-SEM methods. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1 (H1). Planning has a negative impact on water quality service.

Hypothesis 2 (H2). Coordination has a negative impact water quality service.

Hypothesis 3 (H3). Control has a positive impact on water quality service.

Hypothesis 4 (H4). Staffing has a positive impact on water quality service.

Hypothesis 5 (H5). Direction has a positive impact on water quality service.

An initial sample of 1013 respondents from the six selected towns of Lwengo, Kayabwe, Bugembe, Buwenge, Omoro, Ishaka is drawn. Later smaller samples are calculated using the random selection of cases from the six towns, namely samples with 25, 50, 100, 250, 400, and 500 units. This is performed in order to check the possible impact of sample size on relationships between latent variables using the CB-SEM and the PLS-SEM method.

Dimensionality, Validity, and Reliability

The reliability of measurement scales for all samples was assessed within the scope of inner consistency with Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

The alpha coefficient of $\alpha \geq 0.80$ is marked as exemplary; the coefficient in the interval $0.70 \leq \alpha < 0.80$ as very good; the interval $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.70$ as moderate; and smaller than 0.60 as barely acceptable. Cronbach's alphas in Table 7 show that the scales were reliable for all measurement scales across all samples.

Table 7: Cronbach's alphas for different samples

Construct	Alpha Sample 25	Alpha Sample 50	Alpha Sample 100	Alpha Sample 250	Alpha Sample 400	Alpha Sample 500	Alpha Sample 1013
Planning	0.859	0.868	0.924	0.920	0.927	0.929	0.929
Coordination	0.928	0.973	0.956	0.948	0.950	0.954	0.951
Control	0.899	0.903	0.908	0.909	0.905	0.898	0.896
Staffing	0.943	0.945	0.941	0.938	0.933	0.928	0.930

In order to assess the proper dimensionality, reliability, and validity, CFA was performed using the CB-SEM on the whole database. Some of the items with low loadings on their latent variables or with high cross-loadings were excluded from the model. The final CB-SEM measurement model consisted of four indicators for management function. An overall fit assessment of the structural model yielded a significant chi-square value x^2 (645.79; $p < 0.001$), which indicated a non-perfect fit. However, according to, other fit indices should be used, since x^2 may be an inappropriate standard when researchers are dealing with a complex model and with a large sample size. The following fit indices were calculated for the measurement model: RMSEA = 0.073, GFI = 0.924, NFI = 0.964, TLI = 0.962, and CFI = 0.969. All indices were within the accepted boundaries as proposed by representative authors in the field. The same variables were also used for constructing the PLS-SEM model.

All indicator loadings in the CB-SEM model were higher than 0.7 and statistically significant. In addition, the average variances extracted (AVE) were all higher than 0.7, indicating the appropriate convergent validity. The composite reliability (CR) measures exceeded the suggested level of 0.6, suggesting a high reliability of the scales. Criterion was used to test for discriminant validity.

Table 8: Square roots of the AVE and correlations among the latent variables for the CB-SEM and PLS-SEM models.

	Planning	Control	Coordination	Staffing	Planning	Control	Coordination	Staffing
Planning	0.932*				0.955*			
Control	−0.708	0.855 *			−0.684	0.883 *		
Coordination	0.905	−0.741	0.863 *		0.854	−0.702	0.891 *	
Staffing	0.874	−0.707	0.944	0.863 *	0.812	−0.659	0.869	0.910 *

* Square root of AVE

According to the proposed hypotheses, structural models were tested with CB-SEM and PLS-SEM on seven samples with 25, 50, 100, 250, 400, 500, and 1013 respondents.

CB-SEM and PLS-SEM Results

The CB-SEM and PLS-SEM results are presented in Tables 8 and 9. For CB-SEM analysis, the model fit was assessed with x^2 (df), RMSEA, GFI, NFI, TLI, and CFI fit indices. x^2 was statistically significant for all samples, but, as already mentioned, this is not always the most appropriate fit index. As can be seen from Table 8, the GFI and NFI for the 25 and 50 employee samples were lower than 0.9, indicating a bad fit for the model. The GFI fit indices were lower than 0.9 for the 100 and 250 employee samples. However, other fit indices were within the suggested intervals meeting the suggested thresholds.

Table 9. Fit indices for CB-SEM and PLS-SEM.

Method	CB-SEM					PLS-SEM	
Sample Size	GFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	NFI	SRMR
25	0.612	0.832	0.902	0.920	0.155	0.685	0.081
50	0.727	0.832	0.902	0.920	0.122	0.797	0.075
100	0.839	0.914	0.954	0.962	0.085	0.879	0.055
250	0.870	0.938	0.949	0.958	0.088	0.901	0.058
400	0.895	0.952	0.961	0.968	0.076	0.912	0.056
500	0.897	0.952	0.955	0.963	0.082	0.910	0.055
1013	0.919	0.963	0.961	0.968	0.076	0.921	0.054

Abbreviations: GFI—goodness of fit index, NFI—normed fit index, TLI—Tucker–Lewis index, CFI—comparative fit index, RMSEA—root mean square error of approximation, and SRMR—standardized root mean square residual index.

Table 10. Standardized regression paths for CB-SEM and PLS-SEM

Hypoth	H		H		H		H		H	
Metho	CB-SEM		CB-SEM		CB-SEM		CB-SEM		CB-SEM	
Sample Size	Planning -> Water quality service		Coordination-> water quality service		Control-> water quality service		Staffing-> water quality service		Direction-> water quality service	
25	−0.809 (p < 0.01)	-0.677 (p < 0.01)	Non-significant	Non-significant	0.757 (p < 0.01)	0.611 (p < 0.01)	0.688 (p < 0.01)	0.564 (p < 0.01)	0.344 (p < 0.01)	0.447 (p < 0.01)
50	−0.655 (p < 0.01)	-0.610 (p < 0.01)	Non-significant	Non-significant	0.835 (p < 0.01)	0.714 (p < 0.01)	0.562 (p < 0.01)	0.478 (p < 0.01)	0.429 (p < 0.01)	0.508 (p < 0.01)
100	−0.-790 (p < 0.01)	-0.760 (p < 0.01)	Non-significant	Non-significant	0.807 (p < 0.01)	0.738 (p < 0.01)	0.464 (p < 0.01)	0.525 (p < 0.01)	0.521 (p < 0.01)	0.426 (p < 0.01)
250	−0.726 (p < 0.01)	−0.691 (p < 0.01)	−0.158 (p < 0.01)	−0.156 (p < 0.01)	0.778 (p < 0.01)	0.725 (p < 0.01)	0.355 (p < 0.01)	0.443 (p < 0.01)	0.638 (p < 0.01)	0.518 (p < 0.01)
400	−0.-713 (p < 0.01)	−0.680 (p < 0.01)	−0.174 (p < 0.01)	−0.172 (p < 0.01)	0.763 (p < 0.01)	0.709 (p < 0.01)	0.331 (p < 0.01)	0.427 (p < 0.01)	0.661 (p < 0.01)	0.531 (p < 0.01)
500	−0.718 (p < 0.01)	−0.696 (p < 0.01)	−0.179 (p < 0.01)	−0.201 (p < 0.01)	0.754 (p < 0.01)	0.676 (p < 0.01)	0.371 (p < 0.01)	0.471 (p < 0.01)	0.613 (p < 0.01)	0.474 (p < 0.01)
1013	−0.713 (p < 0.01)	−0.684 (p < 0.01)	−0.192 (p < 0.01)	−0.195 (p < 0.01)	0.738 (p < 0.01)	.678 (p < 0.01)	0.329 (p < 0.01)	0.436 (p < 0.01)	0.659 (p < 0.01)	0.515 (p < 0.01)

Since it is not common to calculate as many fit indices in PLS-SEM as in CB-SEM, only NFI and the SRMR index were used in this case (Table 9). For samples larger than 250, NFI reached the suggested threshold of 0.9, while for the smaller samples (25, 50, 100) it was lower. SRMR for all cases was close or lower than 0.08. R^2 values for all endogenous variables (planning, control, coordination and staffing) for all samples were larger than 0.4.

As can be observed from Table 10, the results acquired with both methods showed that planning had a negative impact on water quality service. The relationship was strong, negative, and statistically significant. The impact of planning on water quality service was negative. This relationship was much weaker and statistically significant for larger samples, but not for the samples of 25, 50, and 100. In these cases, the relationships were non-significant. Control had a strong and statistically significant impact on water quality service and a moderately significant impact of staffing on water quality service. The impact of direction on water quality service in small towns in Uganda was strong and statistically significant.

Final Results and Hypotheses Testing

Concerning the hypotheses, the results were identical for the CB-SEM and the PLS-SEM models. Planning had a strong negative impact on water quality service, meaning that hypothesis H1 was confirmed for all samples. This is consistent with the findings of Bartram & Cairncross(2010) in which the author found that a higher planning causes a lower level of water quality service. Bartram & Cairncross(2010) revealed that if not well planned, groundwater quality can be affected on a local scale for example in Lwengo where the residents who could not afford buying tap water sold at 200 Uganda shillings had to walk long distances in search for water from springs and boreholes. This is a time-consuming, cumbersome activity. Low availability, untimely and irregular deliveries, degraded quality, inequity in distribution, and so on were the major problems reported.

The relationship between planning and water quality service was weak and statistically insignificant for smaller samples (sample sizes of 25, 50, and 100), but significant for larger samples. The hypothesis H2, therefore, could only be confirmed for larger samples. However, since planning decreases documentation, goal setting and target setting, it can also potentially directly influence water quality service. Hypothesis H3 was confirmed since the impact of control on water quality service was strong and statistically significant. It must be stressed that this relationship was one of the strongest in the model. Similar evidence is also provided in studies by Asingwire (2008) in his study on water pollution. He notes that to operate the pumping station, the community employs a water worker. However, the inadequate public funding in Lwengo, Buwenge and Bugembe hampers the maintenance of the communal water supply facilities. Current budgetary constraints make it impossible to actually invest in the maintenance and development of the drinking water supply system. Because of the lack of maintenance and the poor state of repair, the reliability and safety of the services is becoming an important concern and source of discontent of the local population in the six study towns.

Staffing had a positive and significant impact on water quality service. Therefore, the hypothesis H4 was also confirmed for all samples. Staffing seemed to be specifically important in achieving water quality service and could also have a mediating influence of planning on water quality service.

This is in accordance with previous studies by Kintale (2017) who noted that many towns in Uganda have few water technicians who can help when the water system breaks down. Service interruptions have become the norm rather than the exception. Like in many rural towns, the sanitation and sewerage system in Lwengo and Kayabwe is insufficient. Nearly all buildings in the towns are not connected to a sewerage system. Most of the visited households had no in-house water tap and none of them has a hot water tap. Most building owners have to install privately financed underground water pipes between their own properties and the subsurface pipeline. They usually have a water tap on their properties, whereas the other users have to walk a certain distance to the next public standpipe or other freshwater sources to fetch their water in jerry cans, bottles, etc. The water pressure within the private pipelines is very low, since the water in the pipeline only follows the natural slope gradient. However, it is suggested that in future, the Kayabwe and Lwengo Town council management will ensure they install pipelines to properties. With an increasing number of such privately installed pipelines, the water pressure will subside in the system. In addition, the number of people using water from the public standpipes in the streets will decrease. During the survey, the households were asked about their daily amount of freshwater consumption for cooking, drinking, laundry and sanitation. Most of them (50%) estimated their water consumption between 50 and 100 litres per day.

Figure 3: Analytical framework for best practices to enhance water quality

Management function

Water quality service

Management function box:
- Provide financial support for small town water projects
- Monitoring water quality
- Plan and carry out rehabilitation of water facilities.
- Monitor the functionality of water sources
- Select and engage hand pump mechanics
- Hire and pay managers and supervisors

Water quality service box:
- Train planners
- Mobilize development partners to finance and give technical support
- Follow up
- Train researchers
- Educate and sensitize safe water practices like boiling water
- Water treatment

Source: Adopted based on the Study Findings

Reccomendations

There is need to train of water supply personnels, the training for personnel concerned with water-supplies may be divided into : (a) professional academic training, (b) observation visits, (c) short special courses (usually in-service type), and (d) supervised experience. Professional academic training is almost exclusively for the engineers and may be obtained in several countries.

There is need to ensure installation of hand pumps, and look after their repair and maintenance with the coordination of urban dwellers. There is need to create health awareness about diseases caused by unsafe water by providing safe drinking water, thereby reducing water borne diseases.

If nothing solves the problem, then water should be brought to town councils by water tanker trucks. And finally, the local administration and community should ensure the equitable distribution of water with drinkable quality to all.

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Trecking the historical concerns for efficiency and effectiveness in the study and practice of Public Administration

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Abstract

This paper attempts to re-introduce the ideologies through historicizing the debates and then make a case for their relevance in today's public administration systems. Public administration in its dual nature of being first; a discipline of academic study and second; a field of practice has indeed trekked a long journey and has had its primary concern being that of how to ensure governments work better in the managing public affairs. Undeniably, the need to promote administrative efficiency and effectiveness has occupied the minds of classical and contemporary scholars and practitioners in almost an equal measure. The concerns of administrative efficiency and effectiveness are debates which are as old as the discipline of public administration itself but also the concerns of the long journey of the practices of public administration have trekked the journey of civilization. While public administration and Governance scholars agree on the need for building administrative systems which are efficient and effective, there remains divergence views on how the two can be promoted. There are therefore a range of ideologies and benchmarks that have been propounded that once followed could promote efficiency and effectiveness of government.

Key words: Public administration, Public administration-history

Introduction

Public administration is both a field of study (academic discipline) and a field of practice (Basheka 2012). There is a consensus in literature that "*public administration*" (in lower case) denotes government activities (i.e., the practice) whereas "*Public Administration*" in upper case refers to the academic discipline (Uwizeyimana & Maphunye 2014:90). Both the study and practice of public administration have been dominated by concerns on how promote efficiency and effectiveness within public administration's laboratory-the Government. Unquestionably, governments of all times and in both developed and developing countries are vehicles through which citizens express their values and preferences (Bourgon 2007; Basheka 2018). For governments to discharge their noble tasks, there must be efficiency and effectiveness in all government structures, processes, and systems (Uwizeyimana 2011). That is why, as Bogason (2002) and Schachter (2007) rightly posit that the status of efficiency and effectiveness as core values in the study of public administration has been extensively acknowledged.

Although efficiency and effectiveness have often been "notoriously contested concepts to have a uniform meaning", "effectiveness is concerned with the degree of success in achieving the hoped-for policy objectives/outcome"; while efficiency is concerned about the ability to do more for less (Uwizeyimana 2011:75). It is incontestable that governments or the bureaucracies have multiple goals, and these are sometimes contradictory to a variety of stakeholders thereby creating another battle ground on how to practice or experiment efficiency and effectiveness.

Public Administration study is relatively younger compared to the practice of public administration which has moved side by side the journey of civilization. Public administration in both strands has traversed a long journey where different authors and practitioners have propagated different views. Within the expansive literature of public administration and its rather recent close cousin-governance and the now distant cousin-Public Management, two strands of views exist about efficiency and effectiveness of government or lack thereof. One camp suggests that government or bureaucracies are possible to be efficient and are in fact one of the most efficient forms of providing goods and services to the citizens (Rutgers & van der Meer (2010:757). For this to work, this narrative suggests that there ought to be certain conditions which government needs to work upon. The classical writers of public administration appear to have taken the ideals of this line of reasoning. The second camp of authors posit that government cannot be efficient because of its multiple goals. That instead, the private sector offers better solutions and best practices that could be adopted by governments for them to be effective and efficient (Dan & Pollitt 2014). That if government is to attain efficiency and effectiveness, it is urged to apply the private sector models, practices, and ways of doing thing (Dan & Pollitt 2014). This is through privatization or injecting the entrepreneurial approach in the running of government. The advocates of New Public Management (NPM) appear to have been informed by this reasoning (Uwizeyimana 2015:71). Literature shows that "NPM is a marriage between two kinds of major concepts" (Ormond & Loffler 2002:2-2)". These concepts are privatisation or the application of private sector business management principles to the public sector, which is often referred to as "managerialism" (Uwizeyimana 2015:71).

According to Heywood (2002) the most important argument in favour of government as the paradigm is the one that promotes Weber's ideal type of bureaucracy. In the Weberian tradition, bureaucracy was viewed "as the expression of rational and efficient administration" (Heywood 2002:359). A bureaucratic Organization is the most systematic and efficient way to control the work of large numbers of people (Denhardt 2000:30). The two strands of opinions espoused above by different authors have tended to present immense battle grounds for scholarly work within public administration, and the concerns of efficiency and effectiveness have tended to be connected to these two opposing viewpoints with some middle ground authors suggesting that both models are appropriate. Undoubtedly, government has its structures and systems through which goals of government are to be attained. On the subject of government goals, Gildenhuys (1997:3-19) generously expounds those under three classifications: (1) original goals, (2) the social welfare goals and (3) the economic welfare goals. The author argues that each government institution, on whatever level of authority, pursues pre-determined goals, objectives and targets that are reflected in its annual operational and capital budgets (Gildenhuys 1997:3). It is arguable that all Governments exist to attain these goals and meet the broader interests of society.

In the practice of public administration, concerns for efficiency and effectiveness have been in existence throughout the journey of human civilization. Some historical episodes have however presented heated debates on why and how efficiency and effectiveness of government is needed to deliver better public services. Political economy and public choice literature observe that one cannot take for granted that public decision-makers should always use public resources in the most appropriate way (Giordano, Tommasino & Casiraghi 2008). Rutgers and van der Meer (2010) reported that in the literature before the 19th century one may look in vain for references to the concept of efficiency, even in such fundamental economic treatises as Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations (1776) and Karl Marx's Das Kapital (1867). Yet, since the inception of the state, the task of government has been to govern and to cater for the needs of society (Mukherjee 2010:53) and this calls for better ways of making this accomplishment. Efficiency may be traceable to the era of Aristotle (384-322 BC), with its meaning becoming a dominant feature in 20th-century public administration study (Rutgers and van der Meer 2010:755).

Good governance is sometimes connected to the debate on promoting efficiency and effectiveness in government business although this ideology takes a broader mandate. Grindle, (2002:1) has ruminated on how getting good governance calls for improvements that touch virtually all aspects of the public sector - from institutions that set the rules of the game for economic and political interaction, to organizations that manage administrative systems and deliver goods and services to citizens, to human resources that staff government bureaucracies, to the interface of officials and citizens in political and bureaucratic arenas. According to Srilatha (2003:86) governance means; "…the act and manner of managing public affairs". Public affairs cannot be managed without effective systems and those systems are expected to be efficient. Hughes (2003:76-7) attempted to differentiate government and governance by stating that government was the institution itself while governance was a broader concept describing the forms of governing which are not necessarily in the hands of formal government. Governance need not be exclusively conducted by governments (Keohane & Nye 2000:12). Private firms, associations of firms, non-Governmental organizations (NGOs), Community-Based-Organisations (CBOs), civil society organisations, and individual citizens are all engaged in governance (Grindle 2010).

The debate on the role of the state has in recent years focused on empirically assessing the efficiency and usefulness of public sector activities (Afonso, Schuknecht, & Tanzi 2005) due to a growing dissatisfaction and mistrust of citizens (Peters, 2004; Ngowi 2007). Whereas effectiveness has long been one of the most pervasive yet least delineated organisational constructs (Goodman & Pennings 1977), one of the "big questions" in public management has always been how public managers measure achievement (Behn 1995). Some scholars still suggest that few questions have challenged what constitutes organisational performance or effectiveness (Selden & Sowa 2004). There is a distinctive absence in public administration research of "outcome measures of institutional performance at the jurisdictional level" for organizations (Kirlin 2001), at the level of the national government, the state government, or the local government (Yang & Holzer, 2006). Little consensus regarding what organizational effectiveness and how to assess it properly has therefore not been reached (Cameron & Whetten, 1983). This article treks the debates on efficiency and effectiveness within the practice and study of public administration.

The paper seeks to address the following four questions:

- Did ancient administrative ideologies have a concern for administrative efficiency and effectiveness?
- How have the concepts of administrative efficiency and effectiveness shaped public administration discipline and practice in a historical trajectory?
- What key proposals have been applied at different historical times and by different authors to address administrative efficiency and effectiveness in the expansive field of public administration?
- To what extent have contemporary administrative systems promote administrative efficiency and effectiveness?

Conceptual Framework

Virtually, public organizations are concerned with performance and effectiveness, at least implicitly, because effectiveness influences the quality of our lives and even our ability to survive (Rainey 2003). Traditionally, there has been the approach of using performance indicators, which measure specific factors that are thought to provide a partial reflection of underlying efficiency. The other approach has included the global measures, designed to provide an indication of overall organizational efficiency (Smith & Street 2004). Rutgers and van der Meer (2010) have argued that efficiency is simply not always the most important goal in the public sector, and as such must be overruled by other values. In addition, there might be a conflict between the measure of efficiency and the other values, it may be impossible to establish priority among the multiple goals; and there might be no agreement at all concerning the values to be pursued.

Like private firms, public organizations need efficient methods, but unlike businesses they must face legislative accountability, even if this diminished their efficiency (Schachter, 1989:29). Efficiency has been used to mean "obtaining the greatest output for a given level of resources" (Wilson 1989: 316). "Efficiency means producing a good or service at the lowest cost possible while maintaining a constant level of quality" (Rainey 1997:92). "Efficiency is the maximum achievement of a given end with given resources, so it includes within itself the values of maximization and achievement" (Diesing 1973:11). Using tax-payer's money to deliver the required goods and services at the right time, in the right quality and by the right people is what efficiency in public administration should entail. Nkondo (2012) argues that the western perception of African indigenous knowledge as mere repetition of practices without any theory to explain them is a depiction of western cultural and intellectual arrogance. Yet, in the perception of African scholars, a traditional healer who can cure a particular disease using specific herbs has the knowledge and theory of the plant species and their characteristics.

Classical Opinions on Administrative Efficiency

The drive to promote efficiency and effectiveness has been at the core of numerous classical works starting from the Greek Philosophers as well as the social contract theorists who formulated the idea of government as is known in the contemporary times. Aristotle (384-322) who was one of the Greek philosophers and is considered to have founded the earliest meaning and adoption of the phrase democracy basing his analysis on the Greek city states once said "We must begin", "by asking an old and fundamental question – whether it is better to be ruled by the Best man or by the Best Laws." (Aristotle 1962:143).

Aristotle's old teacher and mentor Plato had opted for rule by a philosopher king; for which Aristotle provided an answer as: -

he who asks Law to rule is asking God and intelligence and no others to rule; While he who asks for the rule of a human being is bringing in a wild beast; for human passions are like a wild beast and strong feelings lead astray rulers and the very best of men. In law you have the intellect without the passions (Aristotle 1962:143).

Aristotle approved of the concept and ideology of rule of law which are important ingredients for running an efficient and effective government machinery. John Locke, who was the seventeenth century British social contract theorist, equally strongly endorsed the doctrine of the rule of law in the management of government affairs and this is how efficiency and effectiveness were anticipated to be applied. In the Second Treatise of Civil Government, (1690) Locke cautions that:

the legislative, or supreme authority, cannot assume to itself a power to rule by extemporary arbitrary decrees, but is bound to dispense justice, and decide the rights of the subject by promulgated standing laws, and known authorized judges (Locke 1690:112-113).

For better governance to exist, as viewed in Montesquieu's "The Spirit of Laws" published in 1748, there ought to be a government that works for all. In the philosopher's view, that government needed to have three functions each done by three organs of government-legislature, executive and judiciary (Montesquieu 1748). The legislative function was to be done by the legislative body; the executive function was to be by the executive while the judicial function was to be undertaken by the judicial branch of government (Uwizeyimana 2013). He accordingly crafted the roles of the legislature as primarily that of law making, that of executive being to implement policies while the judiciary was to try the causes of men (Uwizeyimana 2013). He preoccupied his thesis on how the three arms of government were to function. His conclusion was that there needed to be clear separation of powers but also the government branches needed to have checks and balances (Uwizeyimana 2013). Montesquieu reasoned that in all this arrangement, rule of law was central in managing the affairs of the state and rule of law was the centre piece of effective government. Layman (2003:26-27) posited that "*joint work between the different spheres of government is sometimes hampered by public service cultures and practices, which still promote a line-function rather than a cross-sectoral approach to service delivery*". However, separation of powers and the doctrine of checks and balances remain central features for promoting effective organization of government business (Calvert 2011).

Efficiency and Effectiveness during the Politics—Administration Dychotomy Era (1887-1926)

The early study of Public Administration and as a field of practice, saw the seminal essay entitled "T*he study of administration*" that first appeared in the Political Science Quarterly of 1887, by Woodrow Wilson. This essay is widely regarded as having planted the seeds for administrative efficiency (Uwizeyimana 2013). Written by a young professor of Political Science at Princeton University at the time, Wilson proposed four issues for study and discussion in the discipline of public administration. These issues were "*(1) separation of politics from administration, (2) comparative analysis of political and private organizations, (3) improving efficiency with business-like practices and attitudes toward daily operations, and (4) improving the effectiveness of public service through management and training of civil servants, as well as encouraging merit-*

based assessment" (Basheka 2019). His thesis was that the separation of politics from administration was the magic bullet for those who desired to promote efficiency and effectiveness of government (Ikeanyibe, Ori & Okoye 2017). Regarding effectiveness, the promotion of business-like styles and the training of public servants were key proposals proposed by the author (Basheka 2019).

Wilson (1887) argued that administrative government was separate from political government but the two were only connected when political officials set the tasks and broad goals for administrators to implement:

'*Let me expand a little what I have said of the province of administration. Most important to be observed is the truth already so much and so fortunately insisted upon by our civil service reformers; namely, that administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics. Administrative questions are not political questions. Although politics sets the tasks for administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices* (Wilson 1887:210).

In fact, according to Ballotpedia (n.d.:1), Wilson (1887) also identified a number of other differences between constitutional and administrative questions, in which issues within the discretion of administration were considered separate from issues determined by constitutional principles:

"*There is another distinction which must be worked into all our conclusions, which, though but another side of that between administration and politics, is not quite so easy to keep sight of: I mean the distinction between constitutional and administrative questions, between those governmental adjustments which are essential to constitutional principle and those which are merely instrumental to the possibly changing purposes of a wisely adapting convenience* (Wilson 1887:210).

According to Wilson's (1887) article, administrators needed great power and discretion to perform their roles effectively and efficiently. For Wilson (1887), this was the most preferable system of government that minimized or divided and thus limited the power of administrators. The classical writing further asserted that constitutional democracy needed to be improved by the implementation of administrative methods of government, and that there a need for hiring of educated, and qualified civil service personnel only based on competitive examinations (Basheka 2012). Wilson's article also had three other key proposals which centred on the need to make a distinction between public and private administration, the use of business-like styles of management in the public sector and the need to promote effectiveness through promotion of meritocracy (Basheka 2012). While these later proposals never attracted much scholarly attention as the politics-administration dichotomy, they became realized in the 1980s when the NPM paradigm was at its heyday.

Following the publication of Wilson's article in 1887; a constitutional lawyer- Frank Goodnow reduced the activities of government into two classes-politics and administration. He published a book 'Politics and Administration (1900)' in which he noted that politics had to do with policies or expressions of the state's will (in the form of policies), while administration had to do with the execution of these policies (Henry 2010:28). His view was that each of the activities (politics and administration) needed to be assigned to different agencies just as Wood Wilson had intimated in 1887. Goodnow was of the view that if administration was to be efficient, then politics needed to be separated from it. He emphasized that the administration would still need to carry on the orders of politicians. Goodnow's policy making role was approvingly supported by several writers, but the challenge remained how to effectively separate the

two provinces of government - politics and administration. These points were later to present the greatest challenges to the disciple of public administration and this matter to date has never been conclusively resolved.

Basheka (2012) extensively made a distinction between politicians and administrators but acknowledged the symbiotic nature of the two functions of government. Wilson (1887) and Goodnow (1900) believed that the separation of politics from administration would be the best approach to promoting efficiency in the running of government. It was believed that the extension of administrative practice was a necessary step in improving government (Cox, Buck & Morgan 2011:6). At the time of the dichotomy, several other American and European management scholars contributed influential ideas that shaped the study and practice of public administration. Fredrick Taylor (1911) was another write during this paradigm who is known for his Scientific Principles of Management' published in 1911. Basheka (2012) indicated how Taylor was a key figure in the evolution of public administration through his scientific principles of management published in 1911. Taylor advocated for separation of politics from administration although his context was in the business set up. He argued managers should concentrate on managing (Uwizeyimana & Maphunye 2014:92).

Myrick (2012:10) wrote an article entitled 'Frederick Taylor as a Contributor to Public Administration' where he recognized the role of Taylor. He however observed that "*while Frederick Taylor may not have purposefully set out to influence the course of Public Administration, the strive for alternative systematic management approaches to address foreman specific difficulties spilled over from the shop/production environment to the office environment*" (Myrick 2012:11). Cox, Buck, and Morgan (2011:7) demonstrated how the work of Taylor and the concept of scientific management made a profound effect on public administration for the period between the two world wars. According to Mullins (2007:43) "*Taylor considered that all work processes could be analysed into discrete tasks and that by scientific method it was possible to find 'one best way' to perform each task*". According to Basheka (2021:37) "*Taylor's greatest public sector popularity came in 1912 after he presented his ideas to a special committee of the U.S. House of Representatives investigating the Taylor and other systems of shop management*" (see also Shafritz et al, 2011:231). Taylor's comprehensive statement of scientific management principles was focused on what he called the "*duties of management*". A careful review of literature shows that Taylor (1916:9) advocated for the following main duties of government:

- Replacing traditional, rule-of-thumb methods of work accomplishment with systematic, more scientific methods of measuring and managing individual work elements.
- The scientific study of the selection and sequential development of workers to ensure optimal placement of workers into work roles.
- Obtaining the cooperation of workers to ensure full application of scientific principles.
- Establishing logical divisions within work roles and responsibilities between workers and management.

The above demonstrates that Taylor became a leading figure among the many early advocates of "*efficiency as a nonpartisan concept somehow divorced from politics*" (Basheka 2021:37). There is no doubt that Taylor believed that "to improve efficiency, officials would have to place this goal above politics - a hard step for elected officials to take" (Basheka 2021:37). He also saw "*a nonpartisan personnel service as essential to increasing the quantity of work*" (Basheka 2021:37).

As he puts it "*Political officials and top administrators needed a change of heart toward a civil service mentality that would elevate merit over influence, working what he called a great mental revolution in large numbers of men*" (Taylor 1916:9). Such a system, he believed, "would promote long government careers, particularly among people near the top of organizations, rather than removal from office every four years" (Taylor 1916:9). Taylor (1916:10) believed "*the civil service exams of his era favoured easy-to-measure academic abilities over other equally important traits, but that factor did not lead him to approve at-will hiring*".

According to Myrick (2021:11), Blessan (2010) brought a more direct reference to the contribution of scientific management to public administration when he noted that "*while Public Administration has passed the fad stage of scientific management, many activities such as office management, accounting and control are still subject to scientific principles*". The essence of those scientific management principles, "*entails systematic adoption of methods of science to problems of management in the interest of higher industrial efficiency*" (Blessan 2010:1). As such, according to Myrick (2012:12) management, and in this case public management, is "*a true science, resting upon clearly fixed laws, rules, and principles*". Myrick (2012:12) adds that "*measuring work (performance measurement), time and motion studies and cost accounting, as examples, contribute towards solving administrative problems*". However, Myrick (2012:12) was not the only one in holding these views. He rightfully acknowledges that "*the origins of these activities can be traced back to the latter part of the nineteenth century when Frederick Winslow Taylor first began to determine the amount of time workers needed to produce and manufacture items*" (Myrick 2012:12).

However, it is important to note that whereas scientific management focused on the productivity of individuals, the classical administrative approach concentrated on organizations in their totality with emphasis on the development of managerial principles rather than work methods. Prominent contributors to this school included Max Weber (1864-1920) who developed what is today known as bureaucracy, Henri Fayol who developed the theory of business administration, Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) who regarded people as the main elements in the organisation, and Chester Barnard (1886-1961) who is known for his 1938 book "*The Functions of the Executive*" which discussed the "*theory of organization and of the functions of executives in organizations*". For example, Henry Fayol (1914), a French executive engineer developed a comprehensive theory of management that fundamentally shaped the academic and practical field of public administration. Beyond Taylor's (1911) works, another giant in the evolution of public administration during the first paradigm of public administration was Henry Fayol (1914). He is known for his description of the "*14 Principles of Administration*" based on his long experience in the industry as an engineer and as an administrator. These principles explained how managers should organize and interact with staff. Two years before he stepped down as director, he published his "*14 Principles of Managemen*t" in the book "Administration Industrielle et Générale." Fayol also created a list of the six primary functions of management, which go hand in hand with the "*14 Principles*". Fayol's "*14 Principles*" was one of the earliest theories of management to be created and remains one of the most comprehensive. He is still considered to be among the most influential contributors to the modern concept of management, even though people do not refer to "*The 14 Principles*" often today.

According to Shafritz et al (2011: 231), Fayol's major work published in France in 1916 was almost ignored in the United States until Constance Storr's English translation to read 'General and Industrial Management' appeared in 1949. Fayol developed a set of 14 principles of management which he believed when fully applied would promote efficiency in administration.

Max Weber developed the concept of a bureaucratic organization which he regarded as the most efficient way of controlling the work of large numbers of people (Denhardt 2000:30). Fayol's (1914) principles are listed below:

1. **Division of Work** – When employees are specialized, output can increase because they become increasingly skilled and efficient.
2. **Authority** – Managers must have the authority to give orders, but they must also keep in mind that with authority comes responsibility.
3. **Discipline** – Discipline must be upheld in organizations, but methods for doing so can vary.
4. **Unity of Command** – Employees should have only one direct supervisor.
5. **Unity of Direction** – Teams with the same objective should be working under the direction of one manager, using one plan. This will ensure that action is properly coordinated.
6. **Subordination of Individual Interests to the General Interest** – The interests of one employee should not be allowed to become more important than those of the group. This includes managers.
7. **Remuneration** – Employee satisfaction depends on fair remuneration for everyone. This includes financial and non-financial compensation.
8. **Centralization** – This principle refers to how close employees are to the decision-making process. It is important to aim for an appropriate balance.
9. **Scalar Chain** – Employees should be aware of where they stand in the organization's hierarchy, or chain of command.
10. **Order** – The workplace facilities must be clean, tidy and safe for employees. Everything should have its place.
11. **Equity** – Managers should be always fair to staff, both maintaining discipline as necessary and acting with kindness where appropriate.
12. **Stability of Tenure of Personnel** – Managers should strive to minimize employee turnover. Personnel planning should be a priority.
13. **Initiative** – Employees should be given the necessary level of freedom to create and carry out plans.
14. **Esprit de Corps** – Organizations should strive to promote team spirit and unity.

In addition to the 14 principles, Fayol outlined six management functions which needed to go along with the principles. Fayol's six primary functions of management, which go hand in hand with the principles, are (1) Forecasting, (2) Planning; (3) Organizing, (4) Commanding; (5) Coordinating and (6) Controlling. Henri Fayol's "14 Principles of Management" have been a significant influence on modern management theory. His practical list of principles helped early 20th century managers learn how to organize and interact with their employees in a productive way. Although the 14 Principles are not widely used today, they can still offer guidance for today's managers. Many of the principles are now considered to be common sense, but at the time they were revolutionary concepts for organizational management.

As the field of public administration was being refocused with a set of principles, a new perspective now emerged from a sociologist who had a German descend. Max Weber (1922) is well known for his theory of bureaucracy equally announced a set of rules (principles) which were considered necessary if organisations were to be efficiency and effective. A bureaucracy is regarded in contemporary usage as an inefficient form or system of administration, yet Weber ranked as the most efficient form of organization after he comparatively examined three forms of administrative systems. He believed a bureaucracy was the most efficient way to set up an organisation, **administration** and organizations.

Max **Weber** believed that Bureaucracy was a better than traditional structures. In a bureaucratic organization, everyone is treated equal, and the division of labour is clearly described for each employee. Weber went on to characterize a bureaucratic state by certain behavioural and structural features like:

- Division of Labour
- Hierarchy
- Rules and Rationality
- Impersonality
- Rules Orientation
- Neutrality

Basheka (2012) credits Weber for the bureaucratic theory of public administration and he opined about this in his 'Magnum opus Economy and Society' published in 1922. It was Weber who popularized the term and, in his book, gave a glimpse of the extensive research he had carried out by studying ancient and modern states to understand the working of the bureaucracies in different eras. Max Weber was a German political economist, philosopher, and a social scientist who along with Emile Durkheim and Karl Marx is one of the three founding pillars of sociology. Weber was a student of law and history throughout his career and later joined the Berlin University as a faculty and lectured and consulted for the Government. According to Weber, the need for bureaucratization in the ancient empire state arises from the maintenance of armies, public finances and most importantly power and politics. In the modern times however, the complexity within the civilization is ever increasing and therefore the demands from the administration are also getting complex. Weber also emphasizes the importance of communication in running the bureaucracy of a State and adds that they act as pacemakers and are the prerequisites of the possibility of bureaucratic administration. Trained bureaucracy is superior to other kinds of administration in many ways like efficiency, accuracy or precision, unity, discretion, continuation, cost and reducing overall friction in the government functioning.

The first paradigm of public administration is concluded by the works of L D White (1926:ii) who is famously known for his stand of dismantling the linkage between law and public administration by declaring in the preface to his book "*Introduction to the Study of Public Administration (1926)*" that "*the study of administration should start from the base of management rather than the foundation of law*" was the leading figure in this paradigm just as Woodrow Wilson was to the Politics-Administration dichotomy. In his view, "*Exclusion of law was intended to protect administrative exercise of discretion from judicial interference and the restrictions of a rule-bound approach.* " He was later to change this stance by the fourth edition that came 27 years later in 1955. Although this assumption disappeared and he became more sympathetic to law, the earlier quote continues to be widely cited. Storing (1965) reports that while White did not plant the seeds from which the field of public administration grew, for four decades, he tended the gardens with unexcelled devotion. That he carefully cultivated, pruned and transplanted the gardens of public administration where he thought to clear and make others understand the plan of the whole and details of the several parts. That most students of public administration found White's landscape worthy attention although some found it rather restrictive. Basheka (2012); undoubtedly one of those students of White that Storing has in mind, made kind remarks about the 'Introduction to Public Administration' by Léonard D White. Education in public administration has been strongly influenced by Leonard D. White's text, Introduction to the Study of Public Administration, the first edition of which was published in 1926.

Many important aspects of White's thought are analysed-the partial intellectual genesis of his formulations in Frank Goodnow's writings at the turn of the century, the four assumptions which were the foundation of White's work and of the discipline of public administration, are analysed, exposing problems of relationship that White never fully resolved. Storing finds in White's administrative histories a style of scholarship for resolving these problems. Using these formulations, other scholars may find differing approaches to the dilemma of identifying the theoretical assumptions that underlie public administration as a field of inquiry.

Administrative Efficiency during the Principles of Administration Paradigm Era (1927-1937)

During the period 1927-1937, there was a claim that Public Administration had matured to be a science. As such, there was a belief that there existed certain 'scientific principles' (or proverbs as Herbert Simon was to call them later) of administration that could be relied upon to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of government. It was believed that the 'principles' of administration worked in any administrative setting regardless of sector, culture, function, environment, mission or institutional framework. In the preface to the Introduction to Public Administration-the first textbook on the subject, L.D. White (1926) rested his book on four basic assumptions. First, administration was a single process, substantially uniform in its essential characteristics whenever observed, and therefore avoided the study of municipal administration, state administration or federal administration. Second, it assumed that the study of administration should start from the base of management rather than from the foundation of law and was therefore more absorbed in the American Management Association than in the decisions of the courts. Third, administration was still primarily an art but attached importance to the significant tendency to transform it into a science. Fourth, administration had become, and will continue to be, the heart of the problem of modern government. These assumptions have been diligently elaborated by Storing (1965:39).

Efficiency and Effectiveness during the Era of Scientific Principles of Administration (1926-1937)

One year after White's classic textbook, Willoubhby's 1927 book entitled, Principles of Public Administration appeared as the second fully-fledged text in the field of public administration. Willoubhby's principles had an American progressive tone, as was in White's Introduction, but the former's title indicated a new thrust of public administration. It was believed that public administrators would be effective if they learned and applied scientific principles of administration (Henry, 2010: 29). In 1937, Gullick and Urwick wrote their 'Papers on the Science of Administration' where they promoted seven principles of administration and, in so doing, gave students of public administration that snappy anagram, POSDCORB, which stood for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (Henry, 2010:29). To Date, these principles have had lasting impact in the management and administrative discourses.

Efficiency and Effectiveness during the Era Conceptual Challenges (1937-1947)

Chester Barnard (1938) was another significant efficiency personality who looked at organizations as systems of cooperation of human activity and noted that they were typically short-lived. He argued that it was rare for a firm to last more than a century acknowledging the only organization to claim such a substantial age was the Roman Catholic Church. Whether this implies that the Catholic Church was efficiently managed than other organizations is not a matter for discussion at this juncture. However, the fact that the Roman Catholic Church is currently known as "*the oldest institution in the western world*" (over 2000 years) might well suggest that it has some the key parameters for sustainability of organizations

such as efficiency and effectiveness. According to Chester Barnard (1938) organizations were not long-lived because they did not meet the two survival criteria. Effectiveness was defined by Barnard (1938) as being able to accomplish stated goals. However, his definition of organizational efficiency differed substantially from the conventional use of the word. He selfishly defined efficiency of an organization as the degree to which that organization was able to satisfy the motives of the individuals. He argued that if an organization satisfied the motives of its members while attaining its explicit goals, cooperation among its members would last. This analysis would receive an exceedingly high degree of resistance in modern times.

At the age of 31 years, Herbert Simon published his book (as part of his PhD thesis) in 1947 entitled Administrative Behavior. The aim of the book was to show how organizations could be understood in terms of their decision-making processes. In the same year that Simon presented one of the most known devastating attacks on the discipline of public administration, Robert A. Dahl (1947), published another formidable challenge to "*The Science of Public Administration*" with its three-fold critique that required comparative inquiry. In that attack, Dahl (1947:8) argued that if the study of public administration was not comparative, claims for "a science of public administration sounded rather hollow". Soon after the end of the Second World War (01 Sep 1939 – 02 Sep 1945), public administration's place within political science declined precipitously. Simple principles about the pursuit of efficiency, based in an administration separate from politics, seemed unacceptably shallow in the light of the war's administrative experience (Kettle 2000:10).

Administrative Efficiency during Identity Crisis (1947-1970S)

The fourth paradigm of public administration (the identity crisis) run from 1948-1970s (Basheka 2012). This period was characterized by the ceremonial 'death' of the once powerful discipline of public administration. During this era of identity crisis, the principles of administration and the politics-administration dichotomy were both rejected (Uwizeyimana& Maphunye 2014:92). Hebert Simon's (1946) declaration of the "Proverbs of Public Administration" and Robert Dahl's deflation of the science of administration caused a stroke to the now grown-up public administration. Public administration during this period experienced two connected problems-the locus and focus problems. Locus means location. From the conception of the discipline, public administration had been part of political science, but the two disciplines had divorced each other in the era of challenge period.

In 1948, Waldo attacked the gospel of efficiency in his book, "*The Administrative State*" where he posed and rhetorically asked, "*Efficiency for what?*" He warned that public administrative efficiency must be backed by a framework of consciously held democratic values (Waldo 1948). He tried to establish the direction and thrust of public administration as a field of study given that efficiency had dominated the administrative thinking prior to World War II. Contextually, from 1948 to about 1970, the state was considered a central institution in the process of managing public affairs. Due to the devastating effects of World War II, the state was seen as an engine of social economic development and an efficient administration was regarded as the primary agent in formulation and implementation of government development plans and programmes.

Within this period, most African countries had just moved from colonial period, and they had undertaken serious socialist-oriented policies, but they never improved the efficiency.

Hence "*most of Africa's 54 countries that gained independence in the early 1950s and 1960s, largely remain poor*" to this day" (Uwizeyimana 2016:39). The focus of inquiry among public administration scholars spanned the dynamics of state-building, nation-building, and bureaucracy building; a field of inquiry that Esman (1991) rightly called Development Administration. Hughes (2003) notes that fostering economic growth via bureaucracy according to a Western model of rational administrative authority became the concern of Development Administration.

Administrative Efficiency under NPM (1970s – 1990s)

This paradigm in the evolution of public administration was characterized by a call for a flexible and market-based form of public management (Hughes 2003:1). For much of the 20th century, Hughes (2003:48) reminds us, there was little difference between management structures or styles between the public and private sectors. The private sector management styles which would inject an entrepreneurial spirit in the running of government were regarded as the best arrangements to offer efficiency and effectiveness. The period of public management and denial of public administration was associated with certain features and values (Basheka 2018:2) including market-based systems; private-sector driven management practices; and emphasis on management as key to organizational activity. In their era, performance measurement; the process of quantifying the efficiency and effectiveness of actions (Neely 2005) received increased interest (Osborne & Gaebler 1992).

While the concern for efficiency and effectiveness had long occupied a central position in the practice and theory of public Administration, by the 1980s, governments (and academics) were unconvinced that the traditional system of administration provided an effective form of management of the public services (Basheka 2018). As a result of this thinking, all governments; particularly those from the west and other Scandinavian countries suggested a comprehensive package of prescriptions meant to cure the ills of the public sector. Somewhere between these times, a managerial approach began to emerge in public service delivery (Hughes 2003:48). At the time, there was a call by citizens for efficient administration to replace ineffective and wasteful bureaucracy. By the 1970s, mismanagement, nepotism, political patronage, large and rigid bureaucracy, and widespread corruption became the features of public administration machinery (Turner & Hulme 1997). The challenge was on how to address the legitimate demands from the citizens. As a panacea, it was proposed that public administration would have to distance itself from politics if it was to remain effective. Consequently, elected officials supported these arguments for they all along believed that the involvement of the administrators in politics (policy making) had unfairly affected their spectrum of activities.

From the 1980s onwards, the state started rolling back in both developed and developing countries for various reasons, and the emphasis shifted from the state being at the centre of service delivery to the private sector. The public sector was generally diagnosed to have had acute sickness, whose symptoms manifested in inefficiency and corruption among others (Basheka 2018). Mutahaba (2010) correctly reminds us that by 1980s, public administration systems in many countries of Africa were characterized by high degree of inefficiency and ineffectiveness. As a result, they were unable to effectively implement national development plans. In addition to internal weaknesses and institutional limitations, the weak performance of the public administrative systems emanated from increased dependency on donors for implementation of development plans. With this diagnosis, the prescriptions needed to come from an efficient doctor and the private sector appeared to offer such a service.

Following the changed role of the state, the New Public Management (NPM) paradigm driven by the need to enhance efficiency, productivity, improved service delivery and accountability (Hughes 2003) became a mantle and alongside this came numerous public sector reforms (Basheka 2018). The phrase called for a total reduction in the exclusive reliance on public bureaucracy for service delivery and advocated for the increased use of the private sector and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as alternative service delivery mechanisms. Improved efficiency became an overriding aim of the public sector reforms that followed more so in most African countries. The period was termed the holy grail of reform efforts in the North (Wright 1997). A crucial part in shaping the incentives for public administration reforms was to create institutions and processes that promoted accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness in the public sector. This hypothesizing was supported by advocates of the New Public Management (NPM) paradigms like Hood (1991) and Larbi (1998).

The period went into the 1990s. Indeed, as Mkandawire and Soludo (1999) contend, the need to reform African administrative structures to ensure efficiency and reduce the likelihood of corruption became an obvious objective in the 1990s. It was clear at the time that many of the state's "*most talented citizens had learnt to use the existing system to their advantage*" (Joseph, 1987, in Basheka 2021:51). The exploitative, inefficient, and ineffective performance typical of Africa's independence regimes flowed directly from the absence of effective national governing rule-systems (Jackson & Rosberg 1982). According to Adamolekun (2005) most countries in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) inherited public administration (PA) systems that performed two key functions of a modern state satisfactorily at independence. The first function was assuring the continuity of the state after the colonial rulers have gone, and the second was maintaining law and order within each country's territorial areas (Basheka 2012:51). To execute the twin functions, "*most countries moved quickly to recruit and train nationals to replace the departing colonial officials and to assure the steady supply of trained men and women for their expanding public services*" (Basheka 2012:51). There was also a reorientation of the service delivery function of the public administration from the interests of the colonial countries to those of the newly independent states. In many cases, most newly independent states undertook rapid expansion of the provision of services in agriculture, the social sector (such as health and education etc…), and infrastructure (such as roads, airports, schools, hospitals etc…) than was the case during the preceding decades of colonial rule (Basheka 2012).

However, despite these post-independence governments' efforts, "*the apparent success of managers in the private sector led to concerns being raised that the public sector had fallen behind*" (Basheka 2021:54). A dramatic shift began to appear in late 1980s and early 1990s when, due to fiscal crises and inefficiencies in the public sector and the introduction of various structural adjustment measures, the State stopped being regarded as the sole engine of economic growth and social development and eventually began to be seen as an impediment to prosperity (Basheka 2021:54). Instead, market forces came to be seen as the vehicle for solving most development problems (Basheka 2021:54). This idea was crystallized in the "*Washington Consensus*" in 1995 when it was generally accepted by major donors and international development agencies that trade, not aid, and private investment, not State money, would be more effective in bringing about sustainable development in less developed countries (Moyo & Myers 2009). In line with the Washington Consensus's ideas, the role of the State in economic and social development of the citizens was reduced, and governments were required to operate according to market-like mechanisms (Uwizeyimana 2008).

The effect of the public sector reforms in Africa has received two strands of comments. One view suggests that the reforms were a success. One of the most cited examples of this crop of successes are the tax administration reforms. In some way, judicial reforms which were undertaken increased accessibility of courts to the masses, but the actual fairness and determination of disputes has always been plagued by delay of cases and the usual monster of corruption. According to UNGCPSE (2015:8) "*tax administration was one area where NPM reforms had a more positive impact in developing country contexts*". Due to the pressure from international financial organisations such as the World Bank and IMF several developing countries which were under pressure to pay back debt "*experimented with the creation of semi-autonomous tax agencies or authorities which were accountable to their respective ministries of finance*". These agencies were instructed to achieve demonstrable progress against key tax collection targets. Of course, not all of these were successful due to the poor socio-economic conditions in most developing countries, especially in the Sub-Saharan Africa, but "*several agencies made impressive strides in increasing tax yields and improving the efficiency of tax collection*" (Basheka2018).

However, there is a view that "P*ublic administration programs tended to emphasize entrepreneurial models common in the study of business rather than affirm law as the field's proper foundation*" (Moe & Gilmour, 1995:135). In fact, Rosenbloom (2005:12) observed that "*the legal approach to public administration had been historically eclipsed by the other approaches, especially the managerial approach yet public administrators confronted constitutional law questions throughout their careers*". Within these contradictions, a new paradigm of public administration was coming. The apparent failure of the public sector reforms to create efficiency and effectiveness led to a move to direct attention to a new model of governance. After carefully analysing the New Public Management (NPM) approaches, Ewalt (2001) remarked that "*if Max Weber, and Woodrow Wilson who is considered by many to be "the father of modern Public Administration was to appear*", they would hardly be able to recognize the NPM discipline. In fact, there is no doubt that such a profound statement would reflect the different times the discipline of Public Administration has traversed. For example, the rapid technological changes associated with the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) in the early years of the 21st Century has touched every fibre of society; and the discipline of Public Administration is no exception. However, even before the advent of the 4IR era, a new era eventually had to be born-the era of governance.

Administrative Efficiency under Governance Era (1990S – 2010)

Public administration as a field of study saw the emergence of what some authors called the governance paradigm which made a distinction between government and governing. The shift from government as the major provider of services to other players was the proposed solution to creating efficiency and effectiveness. In governance, as Henry (2010: 38) sums it up,

> "*we are moving away from government, or the control over citizens and the delivery of public benefits by institutions of the state, towards governance, or configuration of laws, policies or organizations, institutions, cooperative arrangements, and agreements that control citizens and deliver public benefits. Government is institutional; and yet governance is institutional and networked*".

Some authors have of course suggested that "it is rather ironical to talk about a shift to governance paradigm, whereas the very objective of government and its public administration is governance"(Ikeanyibe et. al. 2017:4). Du Toit et al. (2002:64) tried to define governance as "the actions undertaken to improve the general welfare of a society by means of the services delivered" although Auriacombe (2009:78) has

weighed in to argue that "*this definition does not define what good governance entails … the fact that certain actions are taken and services are delivered does not necessarily imply good governance … the question is therefore, what constitutes good governance?*". The general view of governance incorporates the rules and processes, institutions, and their interactions (Tinarwo 2021:72). A good departure for discussing governance is to consider the accountability relationships among actors involved in the delivery of social service (Bassett et al., 2012).

The governance paradigm "has similar origin and conceptual connation with the NPM which it is believed to succeed" (Ikeanyibe, et. al. 2017:5). According to Ikeanyibe, et. al. (2017:5) "*both were public administration streams of the neoliberal ideology that most Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries embraced in the late 1970s and early 1980s*". According to Peters (2003:18) the two paradigms in some ways do fit together well. For example, both attempts to "*break down the hierarchical, top-down system of governing inherited from the past*" (Peters 2003:18). However, while the governance and NPM paradigms seem to have similar origin and seek to achieve the same objectives, Peters (2003:18) argues that the two paradigms are distinct in very important ways. For example, "*in the NPM world the use of non-governmental actors is to reduce costs, increase efficiency, and limit the power of the State*" (Peters 2003:18). However, in terms of the governance approach or paradigm "there are some elements of efficiency, but the principal justification is to involve the civil society, enhance participation, and recognize the capacity of networks in civil society to provide at least a certain degree of self-management in their policy areas" (Peters 2003:18, cited in Ikeanyibe, et. al. 2017).

In addition, both the NPM and governance have been propagated by western multinational financial institutions such as the World Bank and the IMF in developing countries. Many countries in the developing part of the globe had experienced rising debt levels and an inability to meet their international obligations in the 1980s (Ferraro & Rosser 1994). As a solution, most of these countries acceded to reducing the role of the State through implementing whatever prescriptions were prescribed by the powerful nations of the world to get more debt or debt reliefs (Ferraro & Rosser 1994). "*The fall of the former Soviet Union and the democratizing trends that followed also reinforced the move towards more market-based economic systems*" (Basheka 2012:59). In fact, "t*he IMF and World Bank used a number of measures, such as financial aid and economic sanctions, to try to force many African countries into adopting a form of liberal democracy*" in the early 1980s (Uwizeyimana 2012:148). However, while this reliance on market forces was being practiced in many developed western countries, there was evidence that market therapy, both shock and gradually, led to many economic dysfunctions and much social misery everywhere in general and in Sub-Saharan Arica in particular (Uwizeyimana 2012). The failures of the market forces suggested that the State had the role to play in society. For example, one of its major functions was to moderate the negative socio-economic consequences of the unregulated market (Ndege, Mawa, Juma 2021:98). After many "*decades of debate on the mutually exclusive roles of the State and the market, it became clear that there are as many complementarities as oppositions in the roles of these two partners*" (Ndege, et. al. 2021:98). In addition, there was also a growing acceptance of the fact that different socio-cultural, political, economic, as well as geographical circumstances required different approaches in lieu of the notorious "o*ne size fits all*" solution (Ndege, et. al. 2021:98). However, while it is a fact that the market forces alone have, not led to economic productivity and social progress anywhere in the world, it is also a fact that markets and civil societies will not thrive without a strong and competent public administration to regulate them and hold them accountable.

Therefore, administration must reclaim its central place in the management of public affairs (Nzimakwe 2005). As Basheka (2012:57) puts it:

> "Beyond conventional bureaucratic public administration, governments now incorporate legal and policy frameworks for proper policy environments, and appropriate measures to promote participatory systems for civil society to engage in policy formulation and programme implementation. Participatory systems as also contribute to an effective and transparent process for control and accountability of government actions. Public administration must remain the pre-eminent locus and responsible guarantor of the public interest and a vital player within public management and governance. Short of this logic, service delivery will remain in abeyance".

Administrative Efficiency under New Public Governance (2010-Todate).

In the face of the conceptual and practical problems encountered with the old public administration and new public management approaches several theorists have developed fresh conceptualizations of public management that depart from earlier schema (Pfiffner 2004:443). According to Abdulai (2017:13), the New Public Governance (NPG) approach proposed by Osborne (2010) adopted a very different starting point from the two earlier public administration traditions. "*In contrast with the emphasis on bureaucratic hierarchy and administrative interest as the defining features of the old public administration and the managerial discretion and contractual mechanisms associated with NPM, the NPG approach places citizens rather than government at the centre of its frame of reference*" (Abdulai 2017:13). In a similar vein, Bourgon (2007) and Jordan (2007) also advocated for "a NPA theory which they say is grounded in the concepts of citizenship. They and Dewey (1927:26-27) also advocated for "*the public interest, expressed as the shared interests of citizens rather than as the aggregation of individual interests determined by elected officials or market preferences*". According to Abdulai (2017:13), "*the centrality of citizens as co-producers of policies and the delivery of services fundamentally distinguishes the NPG approach from both the statist approach associated with the old public administration and market based NPM approaches, rather than simply proposing a new form of public administration*".

The difference between the NPG and traditional administrative approaches is that the NPG approach emphasizes inter-organizational relationships and the governance of processes, in which trust, relational capital and relational contracts serve as the core governance mechanisms, rather than organizational form and function (Osborne 2006). There is a view that "t*he NPG runs counter to conventional approaches to public administration in many respects*" (Osborne, Radnor & Nasi, 2013:135). This is because it tends "*to emphasize intra-organizational processes within the domain of government as distinct from inter-organizational processes between government and private and non-profit actors*" (Osborne, et. al. 2013:135).

Efficiency under the New Public Service (2013 To Date).

According to the UNDP Global Centre for Public Service Excellence (UNDP-GCPSE) 2015:4) "*Public administration in the 21st century is undergoing dramatic change, especially in advanced economies, but also in many parts of the developing world*". These changes, as the UNDP-GCPSE (2015:4) continues to argue, are driven by "*globalization and the pluralization of service provision*". However, while these changes are inevitable, the UNDP-GCPSE (2015:4) argues "*that public sector reform efforts especially in developing countries should embrace these changes selectively and draw on a range of public management models that are appropriate to their own contexts while putting the needs and interests of their citizens at the heart of reform efforts consistent with the New Public Service approach (NPS)*".

The NPS approach is the most coherent of the approaches discussed in this article because it comes from the vantage point of democratic theory and is premised on the notion of an active and involved citizenship (UNDP Global Centre for Public Service Excellence (UNDP-GCPSE 2015). The NPS starts with the premise that the focus of public management should be citizens, community, and civil society (Your Notes Library 2020:1). In terms of this conception, "the primary role of public servants is to help citizens articulate and meet their shared interests rather than to control or steer society" (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000:549). While the role of the state or government is to serve in terms of the NPS (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000:549), its role is to steer in the case with the NPM (Uwizeyimana 2015). Thus, according to Your Notes Library (2020:1), "the NPS is in sharp contrast to the philosophical premise of the NPM approach in which transactions between public managers and customers reflect individual self-interest and are framed by market principles". Finally, it is also distinct from the old public administration approach where citizens are generally "related to the bureaucracy as clients or constituents and are treated as passive recipients of top-down policy making and service delivery mechanisms" (Bourgon 2007, Your Notes Library 2020:1).

In seeking to address wider societal needs and develop solutions that are consistent with the public interest, governments will need to be open and accessible, accountable, and responsive, and operate to serve citizens. This is what Bourgon (2007) refers to as democratic citizenship. According to Bourgon (2007), democratic citizenship opens up fresh perspectives, "where the role of public administrators is not confined to responding to the demands of users or carrying out orders" but to fully engage with the stakeholders in order to find solutions to the socio-economic problems affecting societies. Bourgon's (2007) democratic citizenship approach to new public administration contains four elements. They are (a) building collaborative relationships with citizens and groups of citizens; (b) encouraging shared responsibilities; (c) disseminating information to elevate public discourse and to foster a shared understanding of public issues; and finally, (d) seeking opportunities to involve citizens in government activities. Therefore, according to the UNGCPSE (2015:11), in placing a fresh emphasis on the public interest and citizens as the focus of public service, the NPS model has the potential of providing a useful corrective method to prevailing notions of control and steering which are associated with earlier models of public administration and management.

Conclusions and Policy Implications

The synthesis on efficiency and effectiveness raises key issues. First, the concern of all writers has been on how to better deliver services in a coordinated and better way. Second, different approaches have been placed on table with institutional and behavioural theories competing with the managerialism and economic-oriented models which borrow from the private sector. The network view which shades reality has been emphasized. Third, a huge gap remains on who between the public sector and the private sector should be better placed to offer better services in an efficient and effective manner. Fourth of the classical and contemporary proposals, what is the position of the individual? Fifth, the separation of politics and administration needs to be revisited. While some author may consider such a debate a tired one, the current inefficiency and uncoordinated works of publica administrative systems caused by this mix calls for a renewed demarcation.

One theme that runs through all paradigms is government on one side and the citizens on the other extreme. The two sides are brought together by the payment of taxes on the compromise that government uses the same to provide services. The citizens transfer their rights to government for the collective good. Efficiency and effectiveness are the only weapons available to ensure things work for the common good. Mukandala (2000) rightly submitted that governments in Africa have suffered from several well-known bureau pathologies that include inefficiency, centralization, fragmentation, poor leadership, lack of capacity, patrimonialism, rent seeking, corruption, poor accountability, and legitimacy. He cautioned that reversing the trend demanded a confrontation approach within institutions. Many would with minor variations, if any, agree with Mukandala's right diagnosis on the crisis of institutions in most public sectors. Based on the analysis in this article, the following needs to be done to promote administrative efficiency and effectiveness. First, different approaches will need to be combined as each plays a part. The institutionalists have strong suggested remedies for efficiency as the legal and managerialists equally have. Second, both the public and non-public actors have a critical role in service delivery and a clear demarcation needs to be drawn. At the bare minimum, the regulatory nature of the state needs to be maintained because governments now operate decentralized, open and globalised systems, but it is always important to note that what works at the central level may not work at the local level, in the same way what works in developed countries does not always work in developing countries' contexts. Finally, to achieve administrative efficiency and effectiveness, the public leadership needs to renew their focus because, it is good leadership that forms the centrepiece of effective transformation of society.

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