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Faculty of Economics and Administration

REGIONAL POLICY IN UNDER-DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

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The aim of the thesis is to research regional development policies in countries in selected region and compare their principles to the ones used for the regional policy by the most successful country in the macro region. The thesis would offer some suggestions of the tools that could be transferred to the policies of selected region.

Outline:

- Research of professional texts and other sources.
- Defining goals and methodology used in the work.
- Analysis of the situation in the field of regional development in the selected countries.
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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare:

This thesis was prepared separately. All the literary sources and the information I used in the thesis are listed in the bibliography.

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In Pardubice on December 13, 2018

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ABSTRACT

The issue of policy implementation is important for the development of any country. The type of policy, plan and process of implementation helps in the success of the policy. Many underdeveloped (Least Developed Countries) are faced with the problem of policy development and implementation.

The study aims at examining regional development policies in least developed countries in Africa. Focusing on the definition of Least Developed Countries (LDC) by the United Nations, the study will investigate critically, the plan and implementation process of regional development policies in Zambia, Mozambique South Africa. The study examined the success of various educational as well as agricultural policies that have been implemented in the chosen countries and compared their various approaches in regional development policies. Education and agricultural policies were chosen as the former is key to development and the later the backbone of many African countries and the development in each area would harness the economic growth of the studied countries.

Secondary data was the main source of data collection and analysis for the study. Secondary data on growth performance and pattern in Zambia, Mozambique and South African economies was reviewed. Data collected was from the period of 2008 to 2018 and includes regional plans, macroeconomic and fiscal performance reports, political party policies towards education and agriculture, annual and economic reports on education and agricultural reports, policy framework papers, budgets and budget sheets and economic growth reports of the selected countries. Database such as the World Bank, Food and Agriculture Organisation, United Nations Development Program, United Nations, National Statistical database of the studied countries was used for the purpose of the study.

The study draws on the notion that an improvement in the regional development policies of the studied countries has a direct link to the socio-economic development of the countries. In this sense, it is important for under developing countries to implement policies that foster the growth of the country in all sectors of the country.

KEY WORDS

Development, Policy, Governance, Economic, Region, Least developed country, Education, Agricultural, Theories of development, Sub-Sahara Africa.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

AGOA	African Growth and Opportunity Act
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AU	African Union
BESSIP	Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment. Programme
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CAP	Common Agricultural Policy
CARE	Cooperation for Assistance and Relief Energy
CO2	Carbon Dioxide
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COMETT	Communities Program of Cooperation in Technology Training
EAFRD	European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development
ECCDE	Early-childhood Care Development Care in Education
ECZ	Examination Council of Zambia
EMFF	European Maritime & Fisheries Fund
ESC	European Study Centre
ESI	European & Investment Funds
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
ESS	Educational Sector Strategy
ESSC	European Statistical System Committee
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
EU	European Union
FBE	Free basic education
FISP	Farmers Input Support Program
FRA	Food Reserve Agency
FREZIMO	Mozambique Literacy Front
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOM	Government of Mozambique
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LDC	Least Developed Countries
MACO	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
MCDMCH	Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMD	Multi-Party Democracy

MoFNP	Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Zambia
MoGE	Ministry of General Education
NAP	National Agricultural Policy
NDP	National Development Plan
NGOs	Non-governmental Organizations
NIF	National Implementation Framework
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAPA	Plan of Action for Food Production
PARPA	poverty reduction plan
PEDSA	Plan for the Development of the Agriculture
PIP	Public Investment Programmes
PROAAGRI	Agricultural-sector Public Expenditure Program
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSE	Producer Support Estimate
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDIs	Sustainable Development Indicators
SFP	Single Form Payment
SNDP	Sixth National Development Plan
SPS	Single Payment Structure
TDP	Teacher Policy and Development
TEVET	Technical Education, vocational and Entrepreneurship Training
TVE	Technical and vocational education
UN	United Nations
UNHDI	United Nations Human Development Index
UNIP	United National Independence Party
UPE	Universal primary education
USA	United States of America
WFP	World Food Program

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Regional development policies are central to the development of many developing countries (Abah, 2010). The economic as well as social growth of any country is dependent on the policies formulated to govern it (Barro, 1996). The role of regional policies can be viewed in two broad ways, firstly, regional policies play a critical role in countries with vast regional disparities causing imbalance in attaining social cohesion and equity. Secondly, regional development policies that consider equal development across the region will enhance sustainable economic growth through enhanced employment opportunities, increased productivity and a more coherent population distribution (Fukuda-Parr et al., 2003).

Regional development policy in the last five decades took significant and rapid transformations (Kraft and Furlong, 2012). The concept of regional development and its strategies has evolved with various theories but the rise of economic geography which has come to light due to globalisation has challenged the significance of regional development. In recent times, regional development process is termed as the rebuild of “national-regional space” in terms of “unbundling of national territory”, “rescaling of territorial relations “and “reworking of rural- urban relationships” (Eneanya, 2010). However, various nations are gearing towards achieving a more decentralized and democratic way to strategize and implement their various development activities (Kuklinski, 2011). In light of new approaches towards regional development in terms of regional dynamics serves as a wakeup call for counties especially developing countries to reproach their regional development practices and policies (Raker and Tallberg, 2014). There is the need to develop new policies that will not only conform with not only current and future global development policies but also in relation with the current trends in governance systems which is geared towards a more grassroots and more decentralized oriented (Hansen et al., 2013).

Regional development in the 1950s during its emergence stage was more firm oriented and was based on the performance of firms in a particular region using economic indicators such as GDP, employment, growth and profit as the main measure of their performance (Artobolevskiy, 1997). During the 20th century, a more dynamic approach towards regional development was initiated (Hansen et al., 2013). The discipline developed into more multi-disciplinary as compared to previous years where economics was the main bases of regional development. The introduction of public policy coupled with both political and sociology gave a new insight into regional development on various factors that might affect a region and

not only considering economic factors. This brought understanding on factors that shape the notion of a region and the idea of what a region might be (Hansen et al., 2013).

Regional development in recent times has incorporated economic geography into the discipline focusing more spatial dynamics. This is to mean a critical look at where to live, work or invest rather than economic indicators only (Kraft and Furlong, 2007). Integrating of economic geography into the discipline means viewing people as an important driver in regional development (Ocampo et al., 2009). A study on the knowledge of people and how or where it is applied is important in regional development research. With this new approach of regional development, new components such as demographic change, social capital, human and spatial dynamics has brought about understanding on how small economics responds to pressures posed by global economic competitions and the importance of a constructive regional economic advantage (Hansen et al., 2013).

The development of policy agenda by cities and regions has been on the rise in this era of globalisation. Though there are predictions of the end of geography, development of regions has become an important node to technological and economic organisation in the era of globalisation (Ocampo et al., 2009). Lundvall 1992 referring to what is known as the “national innovation system” suggests that, development of sub-national governments serves as a coordinator and a catalyst for regional interactions and innovative activities (Lundvall, 1992). Whilst the way we look at regions has changed the focus, purpose and objectives around regional development haven’t changed that much, but the context for that analysis has changed dramatically (Lars, 2007).

The idea of regional development as a result of policy formulation has been on the lime light as a hot issue for discussion in recent years. Many theories and policies have been adopted by varied countries in the wake to develop their regions (Landabaso, 2012). Theories developed during the 1990s were devoted to intercompany co-operation and innovation system use for regional development. However, Hadjimichalis, 2011 suggests that, there has been rapid transformation from the known classical model to the use of quantitative analysis approaches. This new trend involves the use of cost-benefit econometric and statistical analysis, as well as cost effective models (Hadjimichalis, 2011). This new trend is as results of some defects associated with the classical approach (Lars, 2007).

Present day growth theory has devoted substantial attention to study and understand the factors of economic growth by means of aggregated models (Hadjimichalis, 2011). Economic development in this approach has shifted interest of researchers in this area of study to how per capita income equilibrium can be achieved and understanding the economic factors that

could affect it (Bache, 2010). Moving from the “capital fundamentalism” theory of development which was the main basis for economic development in both theory and policy and considered economic development as a linear process by only studying the right economic indices to achieve development (Hadjimichalis, 2011). New economic development theories consider not only the right indicators but also factors of economic improvement and qualitative change as a complex institutional, social and historical system which was overlooked in the “capital fundamentalism” theory of development (Bache, 2010).

For any country to achieve total economic and social growth, the need for competitive dynamic regions is essential (OECD, 2017). Studies have proven the need for a regional policy as it is the main tool for any country trying to reach economic and social development. One such common regional policy is the European Union’s Social and Economic cohesion. This policy looks at how the EU can develop through an all inclusive regional plan that will bring cohesion and do away with regional disparities (Farr-Wharton, et al., 2014).

Most developing countries face the problem of proper implementation of policies that are geared towards economic growth and development of the country. Policies such as Education, health, environment, industrial innovation are often not well implemented due to either bad governance or economic instability (Hadjimichalis, 2011). This study is an attempt to put together these long years of experience through a re-examination of the original ideas and concepts of regional development and reflecting on how the same have influenced the perspectives of policymakers in actual regional policy and planning selected underdeveloped countries.

The aim of the thesis is to comparatively analyze the regional development policies in selected sub-sahara countries in Africa.

1.1 Objectives of the Thesis

- a. To investigate various regional development policies adopted and implemented by the selected Sub-Sahara countries towards economic development.
- b. To investigate the level of regional development policy in the selected Sub-Sahara countries.
- c. To analyse the determinants of regional development policies in selected countries of study.
- d. To investigate the basic tools or approaches used by the various selected countries and their differences.

1.2 Thesis Research Problem

Regional development as Ullah and Ahmad (2005) describe it, is the collective effect of a multifaceted system of interrelating development activities induced by governmental and non-

governmental involvement as well as by collective and individual choice of decisions made at the local, central, and the regional levels of government. These interventions and choices of policies concern resources found in a given region which thus primarily affect a given group of people in all the aspect of their lives and the associated policies enacted by politicians in distributing the wealth gain as a result of exploiting these resources.

Regions are assigned subordinate role in the hierarchy of levels at which development is planned and implemented in the contemporary regional development concepts, theories and approaches. This is how Ullah and Ahmad (2005) put it “instead of being a mere instrument of territorial dis-aggregation of the national plan, or an instrument of aggregation of local developments into more manageable regions for implementation of national plans, comprehensive regional planning assume a more dynamic role of identifying development possibilities and stimulating and controlling development in harmony with national goals”.

Subsequently, regional development bodies will assume greater development responsibilities while central planning and formulation of policies to induce development in the regions. At the same time, social; criteria will take their appropriate place in the planning and development of regions (or city regions). But in the case of developing countries, most at times, regional development policies are formulated ‘glamourously’ but lack the required zeal during implementation. This has been the bane in the development process of many sub-sahara African countries. The selected countries represent a critical case for the analysis of these problems found in the entire sub-sahara region.

With this, the thesis seeks to provide answers to the following questions leading to the fulfilling of the aim of the research.

- a. How are regional development policies enacted and implemented in the selected countries?
- b. What is the state of regional development policies in the selected countries? What are some of the challenges
- c. What are the determinants of regional development policies in the selected countries?
- d. What are some of the basic tools or approaches use by the various selected countries and their differences?

1.3 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized into five main chapters beginning with introduction which captures the general notion of regional policy development and outlines the research aim. Objectives and research problem questions. Chapter two delineates and discusses the theoretical approach and

literature review in thematic order. The methodology; data collection, method of analysis and research approach are all outlined in the chapter three. Chapter four discusses the cases of the three Sub-saharan selected countries and draws the policy development in both the agriculture and educational sector. Chapter five outlines the discussions and compares the regional development policies of the selected countries. The thesis finishes with conclusion and recommendations for policy makers and public sector authorities.

CHAPTER TWO

2. THE CONCEPT OF REGIONAL POLICY

The idea of region is mostly used in terms of policy and political as well as used generally. Varied criteria can be used to define a region but the most common used criteria are geographical and spatial variables. Social or cultural elements are frequent questions of identity and attachment to a place (Abah, 2010). In other words a region can be defined by cultural factors. One of the powerful force in development of notions of regions is identity. Regionalism can therefore be broadly described as a process of creating or reinforcing regions, notably through the cultural and social characteristics which ultimately identify and reinforce regions. Regionalism is therefore a political manifestation of regional identity. Region is defined as an area comprising of land or water and smaller than the total area of interest but larger than a specified site or location (Esen and Asik-Dizdar, 2014). Region as a term can be described in terms of geographical, cultural, historical, residential areas and density (Brasche, 2001). When new economic structures and common interest factors are taken into account, the concept of region has four descriptions (Esen and Asik-Dizdar, 2014). Firstly, regions can be determined by areas which were dominated by specific sectors like agriculture, industry, tourism or, it can be determined as the areas which have frontiers with a neighbour state and economically effected from these states. Thirdly, transit regions which form long distance transport network like mountains. Last description is the regions which are affected by the economic structure of the common residential area. Welfare is another criterion which can illustrate the concept of region and the main indicator is accepted as average per capita income which determines the economic conditions of a region.

One of the most complex government policy making areas to define is regional policy. Regional policy is approached from varied viewpoints from interventionist and free market. Most often regional policy is approached with various aims such as maximising national economic growth with minimal social cost (Artobolevskiy, 2012). This approach could be subject to change, vague and contradictory as regional policies change across nationals and governments. It may also be referred to as macro-economic actions or microeconomic initiatives which imply stabilisers and investment incentives respectively (Barro, 1996). It is also seen as an approach to governance and involves all levels of governance from the local to the national as well as the European level with both private and voluntary sector actors involved. Aiming to deal with locational aspects of social process, regional policy has evolve to be a response tool by governments to tackle uneven growth and development (Basheka et al., 2012).

Policy in regional development is defined as guidelines, plans or positions that influence or governs decisions of a country. Example, a government proposes a policy that includes the use of public or government services by the less privileged in the society or persons with disabilities (Daka and Toivanen, 2014). Also, there could be a policy that supports sustainable economic growth as this is the new order of the day. It is important however to note that, policies differ from one country to another. Different forms and types of policies are implemented by various governments. Among the wide range of policies, the most notable types are; Broad policy which refers to as wide range policy implementation. Example of a broad policy would be a policy to will ensure national wide gain. Also, there is what is termed as specific policy which is implemented to target a specific sector of the economic (Damborg et al 1998). An example is a policy for social/child welfare. Lastly, there is operational policy which is implemented to guide governments on decision making especially on selections of particular programs or project (Cooke and Morgan, 2000). This policy enables governments to take accurate and good decisions on projects that will enhance economic and social development. In terms of forms of policies, they are classified under three main groups, that is, programs, legislation and regulations and together are known as policy instruments (Ertl, 2003).

Regional policy is defined as a policy of a government aimed at boosting economic activities in a particular region of the country, or such as seen in the European Union, a geographical area of the trading bloc (Artobolevskiy, 2012). In most cases, the target of the regional policy is economically poorer or experiencing more problems than its neighbours. More so, regional policy is a policy that ensures fair and equal distribution of industrial development across various regions in a specific country or trading zone to leverage against high rate of unemployment, lower-than-average per capita incomes and economic decline.

Regional Policies are based on several rationales. The uneven development across regions prompts the formulation of the term. Regional policy is undertaken to ensure regional stability. For example, a policy can be formulated to deal with immediate problems in a region or for a longer one (i.e. the development of policy to deal with supply of water for a community or a policy to deal with improved education in a particular region). Secondly, a regional policy developed as a result of social justification. The level of spatial inequalities in terms of income distribution across regions needed the formulation of an idea to deal with the economic development disparities. To ensure there is equal distribution in terms of income, employment opportunities and infrastructural development to people across all regions which translates to equal economic development, regional policy was needed to ensure such aim is

achieved. For a country to achieve social-economic development, there is the need to ensure even development across all regions and hence the term regional development.

Amin (2002) suggests that, the fundamental reason for the development of regional policy is the achievement of economic efficiency. The idea of market failures as according to some strands of literature brings about economic inefficiencies as market failures does not ensure equal allocation of available resources to all regions. Regional policy is therefore seen as the only way to curb this inefficiency and serving as a corrective mechanism ensuring the production of an efficient economy. Most research has suggested that, the basis for regional policy is to ensure policy efficiency. It is argued, the uneven development has often been attributed to public policy development failure. The need to develop a policy that will ensure the correction of market failures as well as the unequal development was imminent. Most development failures were as a result of poor government sector policies and the development of regional policy agendas were required for the correction of these failures.

The concept of regional development as per various authors described above revealed several qualifications and the rationale behind the development of the term. Based on these rationale and qualifications, many theories have been proposed to describe regional policy. This study therefore looked at some theories for the basis of regional development (Skabic, 2004).

2.1 Theoretical Basis for Regional Development

Any argument on regional development cannot be without the general concept of development and how it can be obtained. Differing theories and concepts of development have been posited in the past hundred years have significantly shaped the view held on regional development. The following sections discuss these theoretical frameworks in terms of their basic perspectives or concepts and how the same have translated into policies and strategies in regional development.

Theories of regional development policy are techniques of assessing the real world, creating explanations about current practice. These theoretical frameworks also gives rise to the opportunity for comparison over time but generally subject to limitations of comparative methodology.

2.1.1 Neoclassical Economics

One of the vital bases of regional development policies was neoclassical economics as it had been applied to the analysis of regional imbalances and how such problem can be resolved. In principle the classical economists have devoted themselves with the exploration of the

formation, distribution and utilization of the national surplus, the “Neo-classicists” focused chiefly on the problem of resource allocation

The neoclassical economics explained that, regional disparities in terms of demand and supply, factors of production (capital, labor and technology) or commodities will inevitably give the upsurge in the accessibility between regions and subsequently by the distribution of these production factors and commodities. According to the theory, regional imbalances in demand and supply demonstrate themselves in the difference “in prices of these factors of production and commodities“ (Skabic, 2004). This means the prices would be low in a region X if it has excess supply. In contrast, In region Y the prices will be high if it has excess demand. But when there is efficient transportation the production factors and goods move eventually from a regions of low prices to another of superior prices and vice versa. Consequently, region X will have a reduced supply and leading to price changes, meanwhile, in region Y, supply will increase to cause prices to fall. Prices would therefore move towards an interregional equilibrium such that factor and commodity prices for the whole national territory become equal. This is important as the theory considers that ‘equal factor prices would lead to equal income levels‘ (Kayasü, 2006).

One important condition to reach so-called interregional equilibrium is national territorial integration. This could be reached through improvements in national transport and communications network as well as enormous promotion of mobility and integration of economic production factors and commodities in both national and international markets (Zacarias and Esterhuizen, 2013).

The position of neoclassical economics largely rests on the principle that market forces assure “equilibrium” in the spatial distribution of economic activity including everything else. Hence, to reduce regional gap, the neoclassical economic theory suggests that a wide spectrum strategy would involve the acceleration in growth in the leading region and then encourage migration of unemployed and low-productive labor to this region from the lagging regions.

There is caution however, on the opinions espoused by neoclassical economists. For instance, Stohr (1989) suggests that the assumptions of neoclassical economic theory did not come into practice due to the “selective nature of the migrati process, the differentiated mobility of specific production factors”, among others. In the view of Stohr the market mechanism is an increasing divergence rather than the theoretically assumed convergence of interregional disparities.

Perroux, Hirschman and Myrdal have been considered the leading proponents of the trickle down or the center down paradigm, which is the basis for the development of the growth center approach. The concept principally reflects the view of neoclassical economics. Stohr (1989), in brief terms, explained that the trickle down paradigm agrees to the view that “development can start only in a relatively few dynamic sectors and geographic locations from where it is expected to spread to the remaining sectors and geographical areas of a country”. The trickle-down process begins from a high level (from worldwide or national demand, or from world or national innovation centers) and filtering down and outward to national and regional units through various mechanisms: urban hierarchy, and large-scale government organizations.

There had been a number of criticisms posed on the paradigm. For instance, it has been argued that intersectional propulsions or the over all developments in the center have led to a spatial concentration of activity clusters rather instead of the spatial diffusion of these activities away from the center. In relation to this multi-plant business organizations have also centered their core activities or roles (decision-making, research and development) in large metropolitan areas and then neglected low-level routine functions to lower levels of the peripheries or to the urban hierarchy. Thus, the primary developmental benefits have accrued to the center where their main activities are located leaving little benefits, if at all, to areas outside of it.

2.1.2 Staples Theory

This theory sees the concept of the staple as a prime factor in development of regions. A staple is seen as the dominant commodity which provides the basis for the regional economy and society. For example, wool was a staple for regional Australia for the latter 19th century and in the post war period till the 1980s. Staples theory was strongly supported by the Canadian scholar Harold Innis who studied the impact of the fur trade and fisheries among other commodities on the growth of Canada. These studies reveal how exploitation of a staple provided regional growth, but when the staple declined in volume or replaced, the region also declined. Staples theory stipulates a useful historical frame of reference but has been criticized for its lack of predictive ability. It does however indicate how commodity based economies are subjected to cyclical growth patterns, dependent on changing commodity prices.

2.1.3 Core-periphery Approaches

These approaches are components of the broader circular causation models as discussed in Higgins and Savoie. Their view on differential development is how some regions are seen to be prosperous while others away from the center seem to be declining. Thus, the attention is on the relationship between the core area and the periphery; the regions on the outer areas away from the core. These approaches are developed to explain global development processes. John Friedman argues that developed cores in the industrialized west were sustained by exports of raw materials from peripheries and hinterland areas. The core periphery approach has also been significantly influenced by the work of Gunnar Myrdal, who held the notion that flows to and from the core to the periphery could explain differential development. He used the term 'spread' to describe capital flow, innovations as well as people from the core to the periphery. He used 'backwash' to explain the flows from periphery to the core. Myrdal suggests that in contrast to mainstream economic theory which made the 'trickle down' popular as an outcome of market approaches, backwash effects were very significant and also contributed to the very present decline of peripheral regions. The backwash spiral is very important here as it ultimately helps explain continuing economic decline while taking into account factors such as migration (key problem for regions) and aging population etc.

2.1.4 Dependency Theory

This is in the view that, regional differences give rise to discrepancies and that the response to these discrepancies from government through transfer payments, grants, assistance etc. can actually increase problems and increase the level of reliance of the region. This dependency on programs outside the region is considered a problem as it reduces the initiative and basic focus of local solutions to local problems. This approach is clearly connected to a view of internal colonialism, which means the region is 'kept' in a dependent state such that it remains focused on its role vis-à-vis vis a vis the center. Nevertheless, the economic impacts on regions makes government enact policies in response to ailing economies. Imbalances and differences have political impacts that are driven by the social effects of regional decline. A dependency approach seeks to diffuse the capacity of a region to come out from their *dependency syndrome*

2.2 Regional policy measures: the EU case as a benchmark

Regional policy measures refer to actions taken by a government that ensures equal economic growth. This includes providing incentives such as subsidies, reduction in taxes, cheaper land, grants, soft loans, subsidized labor and training activities for employers to ensure employment

opportunities. An example can be cited by looking at the EU's Cohesion policy where approximately €351.8 billion is set aside for the policy lasting 2014 to 2020. To ensure uniform regional development, the Cohesion policy was based on three main sources; Cohesion Fund, European Regional Development Fund and European Social Fund. Together with EMFF (European Maritime & Fisheries Fund) and EAFRD (European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development), they make up ESI (European & Investment Funds). These policy instruments are either available but not effective or there is no such policy measures in the selected cases. Even in the developing countries with such policies, their implementations are characterized by corruption and impunity of diverting funds.

Using the EU regional policy as standard for measuring regional policy with the objective of promoting an overall harmonious development by reducing economic variations among EU regions has been on the table since the EU foundation formation (article 174, treaty on the functioning of EU). EU regional policy institutionalisation began in 1975 with the formation of European Regional Development Fund. This was followed by Maastricht treaty which brought about Single European Market formation, Economic and Monetary Union and the economic and social cohesion which served as an objective of the Union leading to the formation of the Cohesion Fund in 1992. There was the need to ensure harmonious sustainable development across EU regions and therefore the formation of the Lisbon treaty in 2000. The treaty was based on territorial cohesion which made use of territorial resources and characteristics.

Also, inequalities have been exacerbated by the crisis. The crisis brought to an end a long period during which regional disparities in GDP per head and unemployment were shrinking, and has increased the population at risk of poverty or social exclusion. On a more Specific note, whereas about 25% of of population owns 10.8% of income -share of national equivalised income-, the fourth quartile receives 45.1% in 2011 (Eurostat for EU27); and a 16.9 % of the population of the EU28 was considered at-risk-of-poverty in 2011 (Eurostat, based on the common threshold of the 60% of median equivalised disposable income). The future is not hopeful since the Eighth Progress Report on Economic, Social and Territorial Cohesion concludes that the crisis's impact on risk of poverty and exclusion is likely to be felt more in the future as the crisis is not over yet and the effect takes time to filter through (Commission 2013). The disparity in the economy and society dichotomy could be potentially overcome by ensuring a measure of social well-being in regional performance (Perrons, 2012). As the European Commission has recognized, the commonly used economic indicator, GDP need to be combined with other indicators of quality of life. For instance, human

development, sustainability, vulnerability, accessibility of services; that provide more comprehensive information to support policy decisions (Commission 2009a, 2009b). The regional performance must be measured in terms of people's well-being and progress through appropriate indicators that contribute to assessing the policy effectiveness (Barca and McCann 2011).

There are distinct initiatives to construct multidimensional indexes of development or quality of life according to the 2011 human development report by UNDP. The Human Development Index (HDI), calculated annually by the United Nations Development Program since 1990, is based on the capabilities concept (Nussbaum 2000, 2011; Sen 1980, 1990). Also since the 2010 edition, the Human Development Report includes, besides the HDI, three new indexes: the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI), the Gender Inequality Index and the Multidimensional Poverty Index. The World Bank calculates the adjusted net saving, a sustainability indicator building on the concepts of green national accounts. To measure quality of life, the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress (Stiglitz et al. 2009, 42) considers useful three conceptual approaches: the capabilities approach (Nussbaum 2000, 2011; Sen 1980, 1990); the subjective well-being approach, in close connection with psychology (Diener 2002; Easterlin 2001; Kahneman et al. 1999); and the notion of fair allocations, the standard approach in economics (Broadway and Bruce 1984). The OECD launched in 2011 the project "Better Life Initiative" where it establishes 11 essential dimensions of well-being, with 2-4 indicators per each dimension that include measures of subjective well-being.

The European Union has started various initiatives which are aimed at developing indicators that are consistent with GDP in policy making and also include social and environmental achievements (such as improved social cohesion, accessibility and affordability of basic goods and services, education, public health and air quality) and losses. For example, increasing poverty, more crime, depleting natural resources (Commission of the European Communities 2009a). Among them, these are remarkable:

1. The indicators for Social Inclusion in the European Union (Atkinson et al. 2001) adopted by the Laeken European Council in 2001, to be used in monitoring the performance of Member States in social policy.
2. The EU Sustainable Development Indicators (SDIs) initiative aims to monitor the European Union Sustainable Development Strategy (Council of the European Union 2006), by supplying information on approximately 100 indicators grouped in 10 themes of the social, economic, environmental and governance spheres.

3. The Europe 2020 Strategy (approved 2010) aims to coordinate all Member States' efforts to collectively endt stronger from the crisis and turn the EU into a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy depicted by high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion (European Commission 2010a). To accomplish these priorities, the Commission establishes eight targets that the Member States should met by 2020 on unemployment, investment in R&D, CO2 emission, renewable energy, energy consumption, early school leaving, tertiary education and poverty.
4. The Quality of Life Indicators is a project of the European Statistical System Committee approved in November 2011. The objective of the set of indicators is to provide an overall sense of how the country is doing in terms of the well-being of its citizens (Eurostat 2008). These indicators set combines' data from several sources for measuring Quality of Life in the EU along the following dimensions: material living conditions, productive or main activity, education, health, physical and economic safety, leisure and social interactions, governance an basic rights, natural and living environment, and overall experience of life. For some indicators there are no estimates yet.
5. The onset of all of the initiatives described above is that GDP is a very specific matrix focused solely on market values that can misrepresent well-being. Income and resources do not give a satisfactory indicator of well-being as they only measure means (instead of ends). Well-being is a multidimensional concept that takes account of the objective circumstances of the person and her subjective evaluation of these. Given that both, the objective circumstances and perceptions of them, are located in society and also in the frames of meaning with which we live, well-being is a dynamic concept (Boulangier et al. 2009; Gough et al. 2006; Stiglitz et al. 2009) That is, well-being must be seen as a model in which functioning, personal resources, and external conditions fit together and determine one another (Eurostat 2008).

2.2.1 Alternative Approach to Peasure the Pegional Performance

Alternate to EU approach to measuring regional policy is what is termed the *capability approach*. The capability approach was introduced by Sen (1980) and in subsequent papers (Sen 1985, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1993) he developed this approach and tried to establish capabilities as a general approach to evaluating human conditions. Subsequently Martha Nussbaum (2000, 2011) has developed an alternative notion of human capabilities, but very closely related with the Sen's approach (see Gough et al. 2006; Robeyns, 2005). The capability approach is also a broad framework for the evaluation and assessment of individual

well-being or the average well-being of the members of a group and the design of policies (Robeyns, 2005).

The capabilities approach also focuses on the plural or multidimensional aspects of wellbeing and claims that income and resources do not provide a sufficient or satisfactory indicator of well-being as they measure means instead of ends. It is necessary to take into consideration what the persons are able to do not only with the whatever instruments available to them, but also, most importantly, with the capabilities they have. The capabilities framework conceives a person's life as a combination of various "doings and beings" (functioning), and assesses well-being in terms of a person's freedom to choose among the person's opportunities (capabilities). There are two key analytical categories in the capability approach: functioning and capabilities. A functioning is "an achievement of a person: what he or she manages to do or to be" (Sen, 1985). A person's capability refers to the alternative combinations of functioning that are feasible for her to achieve (Nussbaum, 2011); it is equivalent to a person's opportunity set to choose and to act (Robeyns, 2005). Capability is thus a kind of freedom, what Sen (1992) calls "the substantive freedom" to achieve alternative functioning combinations.

This approach breaks with traditional economics, which typically conflates wellbeing with either utility (happiness, satisfaction and desire-fulfillment) or with resources (income, expenditures or consumption), (Basu and López-Calva 2011; Gough et al 2006; Robeyns, 2005). Following Lancaster's work (1966), first, Sen distinguishes between a commodity and its characteristics or desirable properties. A good has certain characteristics, which makes it of interest to people. These characteristics of a good enable a functioning. Goods and services (included income) undoubtedly contribute to well-being, but we observe that people typically differ in their capacity to convert a given bundle of commodities into valuable functioning (Gough et al. 2006). One can explain this by the existence of conversion factors that influence how a person could ultimately convert the characteristics of the commodity into a functioning. Robeyns (2005) identify three groups of conversion factors. The first is personal conversion factors (e.g. metabolism, physical condition, sex, reading skills, intelligence); second, social conversion factors (e.g. public policies, social norms, discriminating practices, gender roles, societal hierarchies, power relations); and, third, environmental conversion factors (e.g. climate, geographical location). In addition to goods, the social, economic, familial, and political environment determines the creation or expansion of capabilities.

For both, Sen and Nussbaum, the quality of life or well-being for people are defined by their capabilities, since capability means opportunity to select or freedom to choose (Nussbaum

2011, 25; Sen 1992, 49-53). For this reason, capability, and not achieved functioning, would be the appropriate political goal (Robeyns 2005, 101). However, from the point of view of empirical research, the entire set of available options is not easily or directly observable, and it can only be estimated on a presumptive basis (Alkire 2005; Chiappero Martinetti 2000). Sen (1985, 1992, and 1993) analyzes the relationship between capability, functionings and achieved well-being and suggests three different procedures for evaluating capability sets: 1) by the entire set of options that are available for the person; 2) by the chosen option; 3) by a maximizing the option from the capability set. If freedom is just an instrumental importance and no intrinsic relevance for the individual's well-being, the evaluation of the capability set under procedures 2) or 3) is simply the value of a particular element of it: the chosen one or the best one, respectively. If we also assume that the person chooses in a way that maximizes his or her well-being then these procedures will produce the same result. However, if the freedom of choice is a part of living and we think that "doing x" is different from "choosing to do x and doing it", the entire set of options open to the person must be considered.

Most applications of the capability approach based on empirical research have focused on functioning rather than capabilities (see for instance, Robeyns 2006; Bilbao Ubillos 2013; Chiappero Martinetti 2000; Distaso 2007; Herrero et al. 2012; Perrons 2012; Ramos and Silber 2005). The choice of the achieved functioning set seems to be the more practicable one (see also Basu 1987; Brandolini and D'Alessio 1998; Kuklys 2005; Robeyns 2006; Sen 1987). In fact, in some cases it may make more sense to investigate the achieved functioning rather than capabilities; for instance, if we want to measure well-being outcomes or when we work with large numbers³ (Robeyns 2006).

2.3 Regional Development: The Developmental Approaches

These approaches are active interventions by the government in promoting regional development. This view is driven by the view that economic growth is enhanced by 'pump priming', funding projects as well as infrastructure development and support etc. This approach is built on the conviction that, the regional economic disparities reflect market failures, and these can best be overcome by government intervention.

2.3.1 Growth Pole Model

A key importance of the developmental approaches was the growth pole model. This approach was established by Francois Perroux and support the idea of economic magnets attracting development. The growth pole model indicates that such magnets can be created

and supported by government intervention that supports growth and help 'kick start' the regional economy. The idea is that economic development should be focused at certain local points. The purpose here is to produce self-sustaining growth. For example, the growth pole approaches in Australia were contributing factor in the 1970s with the focus on regional policy particularly with government policy promoting Albury -Wodonga (Vic/NSW) Elizabeth (SA) as growth poles. Then in the 1980s and 1990s the growth pole model undergone very critical assessment, and the cost of such strategies consistently recognized and criticized by neoclassical economists. The criticism is that growth poles produce “artificial economies’ where inefficiency is evident and eventually the market catches up.

2.3.2 Agriculture vs. Industry Debate

The greater question is which should be a priority for developing countries – agriculture or industry – was widespread development issue in the 1950s and 1960s. As the experience of developed countries where agricultural development preceded industrial development, even made the argument in favor of agriculture became a popular view. In addition, it has been emphasized that since in many developing countries, food shortage is common and considering that the bulk of people are engaged in agricultural activities investments adding foreign aid that will be used to provide technical assistance to lead to greater productivity in the sector will not only solve the food problem but also increase people’s income and improve such country’s foreign exchange.

The view in favor of industrialization based its argument also from the experience of developed countries. Just as industrial revolution changed the development state of Europe, USA and Japan, there was argument that developing countries should proceed in the same path. The mode of industrial development proposed was invariably no different from that taken by developed countries. That is to say industrialists proposes that resources (savings or foreign aid) could be mobilized to invest in basic industries, various infrastructure projects including power, machine tool industries and many more to ensure progress is achieved.

Agriculture versus industry argument has been linked to the controversy regarding the concept of balanced growth on one hand and the perspective of unbalanced growth on the other. Those who supports the unbalanced growth concept believe that growth could be generated only in the main sector(s) of the nation’s economy. Thus, investments should be concentrated on those sectors, which showed higher capital-output ratio. Resources gathered from the leading sector(s) can be used to uplift the sectors that are lagging. The concept obviously suggests that a country should make a conscious choice on whether to take on an

agricultural development path or an industrial development direction given such considerations.

2.3.3 Balanced Vs. Unbalanced Growth

The other view, that is, balanced growth policy, argues that centralizing all resources in a few sectors especially those which have the absorptive capacity for modern technology would lessen the potentials of the other sectors. This is principally true in cases where the other sectors remain as the major component of the economy and particularly difficult in cases where in the sectors are closely linked and interdepend on each other. Promoting one or few sectors would risk others to be neglected in the process. Those who do not support the balance growth contends that the likely resources needed to implement large-scale and simultaneous investment efforts in less developed country may be found wanting. Hirschman asserts that the inputs necessary for balance to occur including factors such as capital, entrepreneurship, regulating policies and informational mechanisms on demand, supply and prices that are to be applied concurrently within and amongst all the regions are very limited in derdeveloping countries. Here a better option given this consideration is to clearly identify and strategically correct sequences of investments that would realize the greatest total linkages among these investments.

The whole debate of balanced or unbalanced growth was extended around spatial development. The unbalanced growth advocates would follow a spatially selective investment pattern while those who promote balanced growth would support a spatially balanced pattern. The advocates of the former have also been supportive of the trickle down or center down paradigm, discussed above, and thus held on to the growth pole theory that was very popular during the 1960s. Industrial fundamentalism is something that is connected linked to both the unbalanced growth advocates as well as the growth pole theorists, which all think that development was essentially spotty and that it could not be started everywhere. This is principally due to constraints in resources and therefore the optimal option is to invest the limited resources in selected sectors and places.

Misra (1981) believes that neither of the approaches debated above could be adopted as a matter of principle in view of the variety of development situations in the world. Less developed countries may ultimately need both approaches depending on the specificity of circumstances and since the relative importance accorded to a particular sector, region or group changes through time. The debate between agriculture and industry has sparked more discussions on the interrelationships between the two sectors and the contribution that each can make to each other. It has promoted the development of modern balanced development

theories that discuss the extent of compromise between the two sectors, the nature of development investments and structural changes in an economy. Higgins (1968) aptly puts the debate to a tentative resolution

“It is imperative to differentiate between balanced growth as a technique of development and a goal; even Hirschman’s zigzag growth must have some kind of “balance” as the aim. Onemight, that is, deliberately create ex-ante imbalances in order to produce subsequent ex post balance at a higher level of per capita income. Once we recognize that we are not dealing with an “either or proposition”, we can stop talking about balanced and unbalanced growth altogether, and talk instead about functional relationships among the major sectors and regions of an economy”.

2.3.4 Rural vs. Urban Development

The arguments for or against urban and rural development have historically centered on two major directions; which style of life (rural or urban) is better for mankind and which strategy (rural development or urbanization) should be adopted to develop a country. The second is more relevant to the present study, and thus, will be discussed at length.

During 1950s and early 1960s were the period in which urbanization and industrialization were vigorously pursued worldwide. Most of the developing countries have accepted a prescription for development that is based on economic growth with urbanization and industrialization as the main ingredients and effectively has been considered largely anti-rural. As emphasis was on large-scale manufacturing, the big cities were preferred to provide the infrastructures and manpower skills needed for mass production. Consequently, agriculture mechanization was introduced to free some rural labor force and attract them to work in large urban centers. Also more growth centers were developed to absorb labor and to meet the demands for other economic sectors. Development was made linked to urbanization and industrialization.

In the late 60’s it was understood that industrial growth has its limits. The local market for industrial goods was limited and the developed countries were not prepared to assist developing countries to build a strong industrial base. The view that rural areas are just transitional and will eventually disappear with urbanization and industrialization has been disproved by experience. Most of the people in the less developed countries continue to live in rural areas and that rural poverty has remained key developmental challenge. In the early 70’s, much of the thinking had shifted to rural areas largely because of the inadequate achievement of urban and industrial development approach in the past in absorbing labor and in reducing poverty in the countryside where most people in the developing countries live.

Actually, urbanization and industrialism were blamed for escalating poverty condition in the rural areas. This sentiment strengthened development strategies that have focused instead on rural development.

Koppel (1991), in debating that the choice of a rural or urban alternative seems to be a deceptive dilemma, called it an ersatz debate¹⁵. Misra (1981) summarized the arguments by raising three fundamental questions: 1) whether it is feasible to develop rural areas without urban development and urban areas without rural development; 2) whether there is a country that has developed only on rural and urban sector; and 3) whether poverty and underdevelopment are two mutually exclusive in clear-cut rural and urban components. In any case an adverse response to these questions would lead to the proposition that the issue is not which to develop first between rural and urban areas but rather in finding ways to develop both in order to meet various national, regional and local needs. Thus, development process should be redefined in such a way that rural development supports urban development and urban development promotes rural development. Such linkage can lead to the reduction of gaps in income, productivity, social services and quality of life in general between urban and rural areas.

2.3.5 Centralization vs. Decentralization

One of the primary issues that have been placed in the theoretical and policy discussions is the extent the economy and politics should be controlled by the central authority in the less developed countries. What happens in most of these countries is that the general trend has been towards centralization of the power of decision-making. On the other hand, decentralization envisions a structure where central authority has limited power while local communities takes most of the decision-making and responsibility.

The bulk of arguments for centralization concern the state of the maturity or preparedness of the country's citizenry to govern or to shoulder responsibilities of development. Thus, concepts of centralization such as guided democracy and limited franchise grew out of this debate. The desire for central authorities to be strong and take more roles decision-making agency is because the sub-national or local units have not matured while the international order is still inequitable and undependable.

There are many arguments on decentralization and which grew out of the weaknesses of the dissatisfaction of the centralized system of governance. The popular participation has since been preached and propagated which weakens centralization. In other words, a decentralized system is more capable of enjoining people's socio-economic realities. That is meeting the basic needs of the people, and to ensure popular participation in development and mobilize

the resources for development on based on smart strategies. Similar to the urban-rural or agriculture-industry debate, the dichotomous approach to centralization-decentralization issue has been criticized. Each country is urged to seek the dynamic balance between centralization and decentralization at each stage of their development rather than subscribe to one form of governance system altogether.

2.4 Objectives of Regional Development

Although the objectives of explicit regional policies vary from place to place and over time, they typically involve the pursuit of one or more of the following goals: reduction of regional disparities, whether for reasons of economic efficiency, political stability, or social justice; redistribution or change in growth patterns of population and economic activity in space; development of resource frontiers; and improvement in resource allocation by reducing unemployment and low-productivity employment and by promoting entrepreneurship and relatively rapidly growing sectors.

Regional development objectives often involve the issue of people versus-place prosperity. A priori and ex ante, there is always an advantage in promoting employment creation where people live because the psychological and economic costs of migration are thus avoided and existing natural resources, capital equipment, and social infrastructure can then be utilized, instead of having to provide all these in another place.

Of course, there may be cases in which the disadvantages of location, the costs of upgrading capital and skills in a particular place to make enterprises competitive, or the poverty of natural resources more than offset the a priori advantages of job creation where people live. But the advantages are highly visible, whereas the disadvantages are sometimes less so. This explains why regional development programs that focus on places are often undertaken, sometimes with enthusiastic popular support and why they seldom disappear altogether even when the support becomes less eager.

Per the forgoing arguments and strands of proposition on how regional development effect nation's economic development, the is lack o fit in developing states as i tis in the case of the selected countries. The robustness of human capital base in many developed nations are indicative of their education systems. Education policy in most African nations are *shock-guard* in nature. They are formulated with the real intuition of the the reality and the demand of ther national economy leaving people in abject poverty and in deplorable states.nThe regional problems of developing countries are diversified in nature i tis also evident in the social and economic policies designed to alleviate these problems.

In all of these, the different levels of development and the systems of government reflects not only in the geographic location, history and tradition, but also in societal goals. There is differences in the indicators of the social and economic conditions of different regions in most developing countries which induces regional policy responses from the top of government. There are four major aspects of regional development strategy according to Richardson and Townpoe (1987). They include;

- i. Experience with national and regional planning agencies;
- ii. The role of infrastructure
- iii. Policies to promote industrial development in lagging regions
- iv. The roles of communications and human resource investments

These all put together seeks to create a commitment to improve the human condition through economic development and social change as well as a close integration of socio-economic and environmental development in harmony with an accepted development strategy and lastly the notion of a complete interdependence between economic, social and environmental planning, and on the other hand, legislative, financial, administrative and political action planning, which, together, indeed amount to comprehensive planning. In the nutshell, every strategy for regional development must strive to create a balance between two extreme positions.

Thus, to match as soon as practicable the conditions in all areas of the region, plausibly at the expense of total national growth and to also favor areas that have the propensity to grow rapidly in the short run and deploying the resources to reproduce in other areas of the economy to bring about progress everywhere in the long run. Such assessments of this kind must, eventually be guided by comprehensive knowledge of other courses of action available and their effects on economic development and in well-being.

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Regional development policies are central to the development of many developing countries. The economic as well as social growth of any country is dependent on the policies formulated to govern it. The role of regional policies can be viewed in two broad ways; first, regional policies critical role they play in countries with vast regional disparities causing imbalance in attaining social cohesion and equity. Secondly, regional development policies that consider equal development across the region will enhance sustainable economic growth through enhanced employment opportunities, increased productivity and a more coherent population distribution (UNESCO, 2015; Comprehensive African Development Program (CAADP), 2003).

3.1 Research focus and approach

The thesis was carried out to explore the understanding of regional policies in Zambia, Mozambique and South Africa. The research focused on identifying the policy development processes in the government sector, using the education and agricultural policies to explore their relations with the stakeholders, and the problems and contradictions of these processes in relation to the national agenda of poverty reduction and job creation.

Policies are forms of target setting, which takes place in every country. There are several policies around the world like educational policies, agricultural policies, development policies, and policy on energy consumption and among others. After policies are implemented, publishing papers on policies to encourage leaders in the country to increase their commitment to achieve results. Countries engage in international policies that are followed and measured based on specified indicators (Der Spiegel online, 2006).

The main aim of the thesis is to comparatively analyze the regional development policies in selected sub-sahara countries in Africa and compare their principles and policy tools employed by politicians in an attempt to ensure development in their countries. Based on the aim of the study, the following specific objectives would be addressed;

- a. To investigate various regional development policies adopted and implemented by the selected Sub-Sahara countries towards economic development.
- b. To investigate the level of regional development policy in the selected Sub-Sahara countries.

- c. To analyse the determinants of regional development in selected countries of study.
- d. To investigate the basic tools or approaches used by the various selected countries and their differences.

The study employed qualitative approach to explore regional development policies in the selected Sub-Sahara countries and compares their principles and policy tools employed by politicians in an attempt to ensuring development in their countries.

Qualitative research method is a broad and encompassing approach to conduct a study. Qualitative research is a social science concept and cultural phenomena. Qualitative research comprises of action research, ethnography and case study research and comparative analysis etc. Data for qualitative research is gathered through interviews and questions, observation and participation, documents and texts and the reactions and impressions of the researcher (Myers, 2009).

The purpose of adopting qualitative study to the current thesis is to get deeper understanding of the various policies formulated in the agricultural and educational policy domains which may lead to achieving regional development. The qualitative research approach offers the researcher a lot of choices like development and practice, state and governmental studies focus groups participant observation and among others with which document analysis were used regarding this thesis.

The study will review existing policies developed over the years to tackle the problem of education and agriculture by comparing evidence from South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique. The study will also explore the roles played by governments and bodies in savaging problems.

3.2 Data Collection and Analysis

This study relied heavily on secondary data collection and Document analysis on the growth patterns and performance of the selected countries. Some of the materials reviewed include National and Regional Development Plans, Sectoral policies and plans, Macroeconomic and fiscal performance reports, political party policies, Annual Plans and Economic Reports, research materials and books on the development of Zambia's, Mozambique's and South Africa's policy framework Documents, Public Investment Programmes (PIP), PRSP, TNDP, Economic Reports and Budgets.

3.3 Analysis of Data

Analysis was done using a comparative analysis tool. Based on the nature of the study, it has been described as comparative study that will review educational and agricultural policies of South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique. The study will provide exploratory and understanding of complex issues as to the differences and similarities observed during the review of the official policy documents. This tool was adopted to analyse and understand various characteristics of regional policies among the selected countries. To better understand the success and failures of regional policy implementation in the selected countries and to answer the set objectives of the study, the use of comparative analysis tool was necessary and hence its adoption for the study.

3.4 Why the Selected Countries in the Sub-Sahara Africa?

The three selected countries are geographically identical and culturally similar with their own unique historical accounts. However, in terms of development South Africa is a bit advanced nationally yet, regarding issues like regional disparities and poverty, similar traits can be identified in all the three countries. In addition to being similar, South Africa is much developed despite the similarities found between these three countries. In terms of economic development South Africa has GDP of 349.4 billion USD, Zambia has 25.81 billion USD and Mozambique has 12.33 billion USD as at (2017). Against this backdrop, the Most Similar System Design was used. According to Lor (2017:35), this design is used for selecting countries that are very identical in all aspect of the analysis of the research except in one peculiar variable of which the research has effect on.

3.5 Research limitation

The comparative research strategy is a holistic process for research, nevertheless, it has some challenges which may affect its use in regional development and policy field. The most identified deficiency is its resources demanding by the exploration of the cases to be compared as well as suggesting propositions for policy implementation.

One key limitation which the thesis faced is the unavailability of current materials regarding the policy documents of some of the selected countries. Which posed a major challenge for the reliability and credibility of the result. Nonetheless, those 'old' sources were selected from the official and widely accepted authorities like the World Bank, IMF and UN.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. ANALYSIS OF CASE STUDY

This chapter gives a description of the selected areas. It begins with brief profile of the countries which is followed by regional policy development in the selected areas. The chapter ends with a critical look at the success and failures of various regional policy programs undertaken in the studied area.

4.1 Socio-economic conditions in Zambia

This section of the thesis will draw on the social and economic aspects of the studied countries. It will start by looking at a brief history of the countries, their economic performance in this era of globalisation and conclude by describing some agricultural as well as educational policies implemented in the two countries of study. The objectives, implementation process, success and failure of the policies will be analysed. The study will critically examine the factors that lead to the success and failure of agricultural and educational policies in the studied countries with more emphasis on their failures.

4.1.1 Brief history of Zambia

Zambia is a Southern African country which shares borders with Zimbabwe and Botswana on its south side, to the north with Democratic Republic of Congo, to the east with Malawi, Tanzania and Mozambique and the west with Namibia and Angola. Zambia is a rich landlocked country with diverse terrain and wildlife (add reference). The country is divided into 9 administrative provinces and 72 districts (CSO OF ZAMBIA census, 2000). With its capital being Lusaka, the country lies between 13 degrees east and 15 degrees south of the equator with 756, 000 square kilometres of land size.

4.1.2 Political systems of Zambia

Zambia gained independence from their colonial rulers, Great Britain on October 24th, 1964. The country was led by Kenneth Kaunda who established a one-party state eight years after independence in Rhodesia (Now known as Zambia). Zambia adopted a multi-party system at independence which included the African National Congress (ANC) and the United National Independence Party (UNIP) which shared seats in their first parliament (Sichone and Chikulo, 1996; Mwanakatwe, 2003; Mwanakatwe, 1994). However, in 1972, Kenneth Kaunda who was the leader of UNIP, the ruling political party at that time through what was called the Choma Declaration, abolished the ANC leaving only the UNIP as a legal ruling party. This led to the establishment of a single political system allowing members of the same political

party to stand and contest for parliamentary seat. This wave of the second republic was known as a participatory democracy as only members of UNIP were considered qualified to stand for a political office (Sichone et al., 1996; Mwanakatwe, 2003; Mwanakatwe, 1994).

On December 17th, 1990, President Kaunda signed a new bill that allowed once again a multi-party system in Zambia (Sichone and Chikulo 1996; Mwanakatwe 2003). The third Republic was established in 1991 and elections in the same year saw Dr Fedrick Chiluba contesting against Kenneth Kaunda as the flag bearer of Multi-Party Democracy (MMD). The MMD won the 1991 elections and has won three more since the inception of a multi-party system in 1991 with the third time bring President Levy Patrick Mwanawasa. Currently, approximately forty political parties can be identified in Zambia.

4.1.3 Demographic conditions in Zambia

Zambia has an estimated population of 13 million people with a 50% share between male and females (CSO OF ZAMBIA census, 2013). With an annual growth of 2.4% and average population density of 13 persons per square kilometre, the rural areas of Zambia is more populated than the urban areas. The rural area accounts for 6.4 million people out of the total population whiles the urban areas are known to be 3.4 million (CSO OF ZAMBIA census, 2013). The official language of Zambia is English but 72 ethnic groups can be identified in the country speaking more than 72 indigenous languages with Bemba as the most widely spoken language. Others include Lozi, Kaonde, Tonga, Chewa/Ngoni, Luvale and Lunda (CSO of Zambia Census, 2013).

4.1.4 Economic overview of Zambia

The economy of Zambia is one that can be viewed in two broad categories. First of all, there is a modern industrialised sector predominantly consisting of the agriculture sector and the copper industry. Copper is one of the major economic commodities of Zambia and contributes about 65% of all export earnings in the country in 2015 (Stephens, 2014). The modern sector is controlled by a number of small commercial European farmers coupled with small manufacturing industries. The second economy is composed of a large subsistence farmers mostly located in the rural areas of the country (Palmer and Parsons, 2007). Though agriculture is the backbone of the country, efforts made by successive governments in Zambia to curb the imbalance in the agricultural sector through various agricultural supports has not been successful since attaining independence in 1964.

The agricultural sector employs approximately 49% of rural inhabitants in Zambia but the sector has not contributed significantly towards livelihood improvement. One contributing factor to this is the stagnation of the sector due to poor policies implemented to harness the potential of the agricultural sector (CSO, 2015). Rural poverty has grown up to 80% during the last decade due to lowering growth rate of the agricultural sector (World Bank, 2016). Though, the sector contributed 8.5% to the GDP and 9.6% to national export earnings in 2014, there is high potential of the sector that can be harness for the successful growth of the economy of Zambia (Diao et al., 2010).

4.2 Brief History of Mozambique

Mozambique is situated on the south-eastern coast of Africa and shares borders with Zambia, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, South Africa, Malawi and the Indian Ocean to the east. With varied climatic conditions ranging from warmer and dryer coastal lowlands in the east to cooler wetter mountains to the west, Mozambique lies on a 496,718 square miles terrain which is approximately two times the size of California. The country has two party political systems which were adopted in 1990. Mozambique has ten provinces and presidential elections are held every 5 years. Currency of Mozambique is called metical which is used as the medium of exchange in the country. One US dollar is approximately 27 meticals (MZM).

4.2.1 Political systems of Mozambique

Mozambique practices a two party state government. However, this came after decades of struggle for freedom to have a democratic nation. The county was colonized by Portugal after explorers reached the territories of the country in 1498. Before the arrival of the Portuguese in Mozambique, trade routes along the coast of the country where demarcated by Arab settlers who built islands and traded with other countries for many years. The arrival of the Portuguese brought an end to trades by the Arabs as they built forts and trading ports which became the main routes of trading in 1500. First settlers in Mozambique traded along the coast of the country but with the rise in slave trade, there was a penetration into interior regions by prospectors and traders who were interested in gold and slaves.

Although the power of the Portuguese extended over most parts of the country, its administration was entitled to individuals who had settled in the country and had extensive autonomy in the country. Early parts of the 20th century saw the Portuguese shifting administrative power to large private companies which were financed and controlled by British. The British established plantations and mines and also built rail lines that transported

slaves to their established fields and goods to neighbouring colonies especially in South Africa.

The reign of the Portuguese came to an end when in 1974, a coup was held in Lisbon. Prior to the coup in Lisbon, the military in Mozambique has been struggling to gain Independence without success. The leader for the anti-colonial struggle, Eduardo Mondlane, was assassinated in 1969. Independence was however achieved in 1975 after the coup in Lisbon and leaders of the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO) quickly established a one-party state government which eliminated all rival political activities. FRELIMO eliminated religious educational institutions, political pluralism, and the role of traditional authorities.

The first decade of Mozambique independence was characterized by civil war from neighbouring countries. The departure of the Portuguese also left the country with weak infrastructure and economic mismanagement. Civil war broke in the countries which led to the dispersal of over 1.7 million people seeking refuge in neighbouring countries, over 1 million losing their life and several millions being internally displaced.

President Samora Machel in 1983 during the third party congress of FRELIMO attributed the failure of the country's development to social and asked for a major economic and political reform. His idea was followed by his successor Joaquim Chissano in 1986 after he died in a plane crash. A peace accord signed in Rome under the supervision of the United Nations restored peace to Mozambique and brought an end to the Civil war in 1992. A multi-party political system, free election and a market based economy was established in Mozambique as a result of the Rome Peace Accord.

4.2.2 Demographic conditions in Mozambique

An estimated 29.7 million people live in Mozambique with a median age of 17.4 and life expectancy of 57.6. Mozambique is a country with high infant mortality rate and out of every 1000 infants born, 106 infants are estimated to die. This has been attributed to the high prevalence of AIDS in the country. Also, Mozambique is noted to be among the few countries in the world with decreasing life expectancy rate. Literacy rate in Mozambique is estimated at 58.84% with a significant difference between males and females in the country. The lack of trained teachers in Mozambique has forced a shift educational system where children can only go to school either in the morning or afternoon to be taught by a trained teacher. This has led to poor performance of the educational system in the country.

The official language in Mozambique is Portuguese but several other ethnic groups exist with its own language. Approximately 16 official ethnic groups can be identified with Makua which is in the Northern Province noted as the most significant. This is followed by the Makonde, the Sena and then the Shangaana which is found in the southern provinces.

4.2.3 Economic overview of Mozambique

Mozambique was noted as one of the poorest countries in the world after independence due to political instability and economic mismanagement. However, the enacting of economic reforms in 1987 by the government coupled with political support and donor assistance led to a dramatic transformation of the economy of Mozambique. However, the country still ranks 168th out of 177 countries of the United Nations Human Development Index making it one of the poorest in the world. Though there has been a significant improvement in terms of poverty in the country, the rate is at 68.7% (World Bank, 2017) which is extremely high.

This high rate has been attributed to various reasons including poor infrastructure, corruption, political instability, erratic weather conditions and globalization. Donor support and aid is a crucial component of the annual budget of Mozambique as it forms a big part of it a large portion of the population still lives below the poverty line. Agriculture is the predominant occupation in the country employing over 60% of the population but contributes only 21% to GDP of the country. This is followed by 48% and 31% for the service and industrial sectors respectively.

4.3 Policy Development and Implementation in Zambia

This section described Agricultural and Educational policies that have been implemented in the various countries of study. The chapter begins by describing agricultural policies in Zambia by giving a brief introduction to Agriculture in Zambia and examining some agricultural policies implemented in Zambia. This is followed by a look at the educational sector of Zambia with a focus of policies that the government has in place to develop the educational sector. The section ends by looking also at the agricultural and educational policies implemented in Mozambique with a conclusion of the achievements and challenges of the various policies.

4.3.1 The breadth of policy-making in Zambia

A number of scholars writing on the failure of Zambia's development strategy identify the causes as natural disasters such as drought, floods, global economic factors (such as the fall in copper prices, deteriorating terms of trade, and rising oil prices) and the content of policies being implemented during the 1970s up to 1990s.

Policy development has a multi-dimensional character that is dynamic and not in a constant state depending on the changing socio-economic conditions of the country. Thus, policy development should not be devoid of aspects of government business such as political, legal, economic, social and cultural dynamics. Because of its broad nature, policy development should be broad based and all-embracing and should involve as much as possible all stakeholders to ensure that the process is accepted and owned by the people.

This is the only sure, way for policies to gain support from the beneficiaries during implementation and beyond. Several definitions and assumptions on policy formulation process have been advanced by several authors. In defining the policy formulation process, Edella Schlager (1999) points out ‘that policy process connotes temporality in unfolding of actions, events and decisions that may culminate in an authoritative decision which at least temporarily, binds all within the jurisdiction of the governing body’ of the organization or institution. He views the process of policy formulation as very important in the context of planning and development. Thus, according to Edella Schlager (1999) model development places ‘great importance on the structure, the context and the constraints of the process’ Edella Schlager (1999).

Despite the author’s emphasis on the process of policy formulation than the implementation, this thesis proposes a complete cycle, which includes the importance of implementation and monitoring and evaluation. In general one may conclude that this thesis proposes policy formulation process, which could be looked at as a framework as well as a strategic planning model since it covers the entire cycle from formulation to monitoring and evaluation. The model focuses on systemic and macro features of central and local government institutions including communities below the district. The emphasis is on the processes of public policy formulation as opposed to the private sector institutions policy formulation processes though there are a lot of similarities.

According to Hughes (2003), public policy is very important as it directly or indirectly influences management of public affairs, which in turn determines the pace of development and standard of living of the people. The policy process creates an avenue for interaction between the stakeholders and the state. Hughes identifies two terms commonly used by policy scholars i.e. policy analysis and political policy analysis. He defines the former as models using mathematical models and abstract statistics to arrive and recommend policies while the later uses the impact and results of policies with a focus of decision-making and policy formulation Hughes (2003). Looking at the above explanations by Schlager (1999) and

Hughes (2003), one can conclude that policy development is a conscious goal selecting process, which is undertaken by stakeholders in a decision-making process and should include both action and inaction decisions. It is the process that aggregates related and isolated decisions over a period and for this reason, policy pronouncement by a government should not be the end but as the start of a series of alternative considerations (Saasa, 1985).

The above definitions points to the fact that policy defines intended action by the state or organization to solve a specified problem. Policy development assumes that goals are specified, the reasons for carrying them out are ascertained and the consequences of implementing or not implementing them are assessed. The sources of policies differ and can come from political parties, interest groups, donors, local communities etc. The other important consideration is the role of institutions, cultural factors and social economic conditions.

Within this context, it is important to note that public policy development faces many constraints such as those related to institutional set up, cultural influences and considerations as well as availability of political will and resources. Butter (1998) explains that policy is an interaction of economic principles, which has, to do with normative and positive science. In positive science, economists give adequate and unbiased description of economic reality and mechanisms, which governs economic behaviour.

On the normative side, economists give description of insights of the working of economic mechanisms. According to Butter (1998), it is the interaction of the two that defines economic policies. This approach to policy making has been criticized because economic models have emphasized statistical adequacy rather than historical performance of the models as there has been no single value chain going from model builders to policy makers (Butter, 1998).

4.3.2 The Institutions involved in policy formulation in Zambia

To discuss the policy formulation process, one needs to consider the institutions and institutional arrangements that drive these processes and analyze their strengths and weaknesses. The Zambian Government has three main arms comprising the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary. The Executive comprises the President, the Vice President, Ministers; the Legislature or Parliament (which comprises the President and the National Assembly); and the Judiciary (which comprises the Supreme Court, the High Court, Industrial Relations Court, Subordinate Courts and Local Courts). These institutions through their processes influence directly or indirectly policy development and implementation in Zambia.

In general, the Executive arm of the Zambian Government has overall responsibility for policy formulation and implementation in consultation with the other two wings. In Zambia, the policy process has four stages and these are the formulation stage, the adoption stage, the implementation stage and the monitoring and evaluation stage (Sibo Development Consultants, 2004).

4.3.3 Weaknesses in policy implementation in Zambia

The problem of policy development in Africa as according to the President of Uganda (2004), president Yoweri Museveni is clarity in formulation of the policy. The need for clarity of policies implemented has been a major hinderance to the development of many African countries such as Zambia (Brighton Phiri 2004). Chitala, (2004) identified government interference as a major weakness to policy implementation and development at the technical level in Zambia. Adding to this, Chikwanda, 2004 also identified the long processing time of a policy to be implemented. The author stated that, policies proposed takes too long to be approved and implemented. Also, there is the lack of capacities in ministries and provinces coupled with lack of technical know-how for monitoring and evaluation of implemented policies. Staff of the ministries are not well equipped to understand policy implementation and therefore makes it difficult for them to appreciate the policy implementation process (Khondowe, 2012).

Another weakness identified is the lack of stakeholder participation in policy implementation in Zambia (Mpepo, 2014). The lack of stakeholder involvement in policy formulation and implementation has been a major cause of unsuccessful implementation of policies in Zambia. The author indicated in that policies related to liberalization and privatization did not take into consideration the views of NGO's as they were just informed but their inputs not taken into account. The involvement of stakeholders is vital to any policy implementation and this is lacking in Zambia (Mpepo, 2014). Lastly, the lack of trained human resource has also been identified as a weakness of policy implementation in Zambia. There is the need for the government to train individuals on policy and implementation to be readily equipped to deal with any policy that may occur in the process of implementing a policy. Mulungushi, 2007 in a survey found out that lack of trained human resource, financial resource and equipment to carry out policy consultation and the frequent shifts of policies and contradictions in policies are a major weakness of policies in Zambia.

4.3.4 Agricultural Policy implementation in Zambia

About 58%, thus 42 million hectares of land in Zambia is of medium to high crop production potential according to the Ministry of Agricultural and cooperatives (2011). In their documents showed that in 2004 alone, only 14% of total land for farming was utilized for crop

cultivation which increases the prospects for increasing the cultivated land and the volume of agricultural production as high.

Farm land is obtained by two main land distribution systems that is, the customary or system accounts for 94% of farmland while the leasehold system accounts for only 6%, with title deeds being issued for a renewable period of 99 years. Nevertheless, only 3% out of the estimated 1.5 million small scale farmers, have deeds. Lack of title deeds, many cases, become disincentive for small scale farmers from adopting a sustainable, long-term land management approach. As a consequence, they are unable to access loans using the land as security.

In addition to the vast arable land, Zambia also has extensive water resources for surface and underground which can be used to irrigate nearly 2,750,000 hectares of which 423,000 hectares is readily available for development. Based on the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) estimates in 2004, only 155,912 hectares (37%) of the readily available land was irrigated. The factors affecting the utilization of irrigation potential include inadequate access to long-term credit, poor extension services, inadequate involvement of farmers in management of irrigation projects, poor understanding of farming systems; dependence on government and donor assistance; marginalization of marketing and production support services; inadequate efforts in the strengthening of relevant institutions, and poor land tenure arrangements.

In 2010, the population of Zambia was approximately 13 million people with an average annual growth rate of 2.8%. But nearly 61% of the entire population lives in rural areas where they are predominantly engaged in the production of crops, especially staple foods.

Despite earlier interventions, agriculture production is still dominated by small scale farmers who mainly depend on their own labour and the hoe technology to meet subsistence needs. Labour availability is also constrained by the high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in Zambia (15%), which results in loss of progressive farmers and staff. This has adverse implications for productivity.

Even though about 80% of the producers of food are women, they face gender-based constraints in areas of access to land title, credit, services, training, extension services, and representation in policy-making and planning. Consequently, women do not adequately respond to the opportunities being created by the liberalized environment.

The government of Zambia in its plan to implement a sustainable agricultural sector, developed the National Agricultural Policy (NAP) 2012-2030 with a vision of a “competitive and diversified agricultural sector driven by equitable and sustainable agricultural

development” and mission of “To facilitate the development of a competitive, diversified, equitable and sustainable agriculture sector”.

The core values of the policy included; Equitable development of the agriculture sector, stable and consistent interpretation and implementation of the agricultural policies, decisions and regulations, creation of economically sound agribusiness and public services opportunities, high ethical public sector and business standards, promotion of production to meet the changing needs and desires of domestic and international markets, sustainable utilization of the natural resources and the environment and efficient delivery of agricultural services.

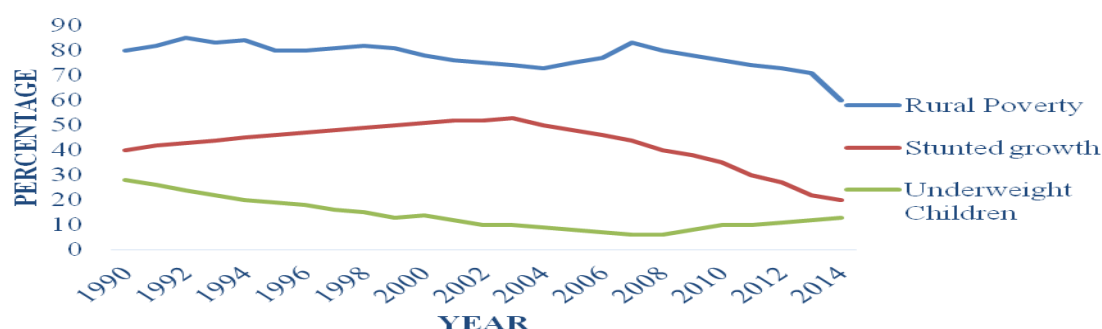
The NAP is aimed at achieving the following objectives:

- Ensure national and household food security through all-year round production and post-harvest management of adequate supplies of basic foodstuffs at competitive costs.
- Contribute to sustainable industrial development by providing locally produced agro-based raw materials.
- Increase agricultural exports thereby enhancing the sector's contribution to the national balance of payments.
- Generate income and employment through increased agricultural production and productivity.
- Ensure that the existing agricultural resource base is maintained and improved upon.

4.3.5 Government Investment in Agriculture Development

The government of Zambia in its economic initiative to reduce poverty saw the agricultural sector as a potential tool for poverty reduction and economic development. Currently poverty levels as stipulated by the World Food Program (WFP, 2017) 60% of the total population of Zambia live under the poverty line as measured in spending less than \$1 a day (UN, 2016). 40% of the population are in extreme poverty. This is a serious issue in Zambia in terms of economic and social development. Another area of importance is the issue of food security which is a menace in many developing countries such as Zambia. The WFP, 2017 reports that, more than 350,000 people Zambia are classified as been food insecure, that is, they do not have access to a regular supply of healthy food. 15% of children in Zambia are underweight and the prevalence of anaemia is 53% among children less than five years of age and 30 percent among women of child-bearing age with stunted growth measured at 40%.

Fig. 1 Rural Poverty Levels and Child Nutrition Status in Zambia



Source: CSO/MAL/IAPRI 2012; CSO various years; CSO 2010

The government of Zambia through the NAP committed to increasing its expenditure towards a revamp of the agricultural sector. However, the budget allocation for the agricultural sector between 2004 and 2010, is far below the agreed budget of 10% by the African Union (AU, 2003). The government allocated 5% to 8% of its total budget towards agriculture which did not comply to the Maputo Summit in Mozambique with an agreement of allocating at least 10% of the national budget towards agriculture. The government in 2011 in an effort to comply with the Maputo Summit decision signed the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Program (CAADP).

From table 2 below, annual agricultural budget allocation has been increasing over the years since the implementation of NAP.

Table 1 Annual Agricultural Budget Allocations (K billions)

Item Description/Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
National Budget	5,988	7,267	7,730	9,054	13,761	15,279	16,718
Agric Budget (MACO & MLF)	237	330	457	663	787	1,074	1,134
Agric in other Ministries	67	83	65	71	104	189	84
Total Agric (GRZ)	304	412	523	734	890	1,263	1,218
Donor Budget (Agric & Forestry)	62	108	200	405	339	159	N/A
Total Agric (GRZ+Donors)	366	520	722	1,139	1,230	1,422	1,218

The agricultural sector of Zambia has relied mostly on donor support and has been on the increase from 17% in 2004 to 36% in 2007. With the implementation of NAP, donor support has been on a decline as shown in table (2) above. This is due to support from some out-grower schemes for public sector services such as research and extension services.

4.3.6 Contribution of the Agricultural Sector to Economic Development

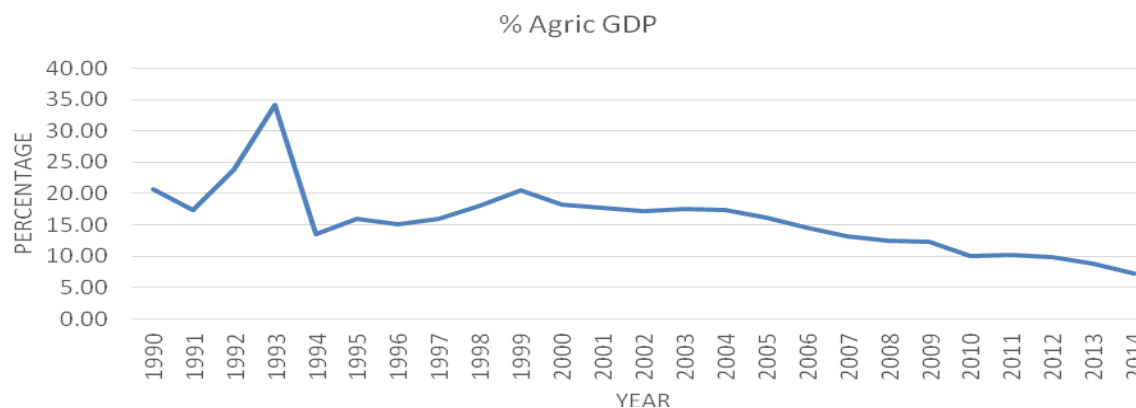
The overall aim of the National Agricultural Program (NAP) is the reduction in high levels of stunting and malnutrition in Zambia which stands at 54% and 20% respectively. Though the government through the NAP has made significant growth in the agricultural sector in the production of cassava and Maize, the issue of food security is yet to be tackled. This implies that, as the government tries to be self-sufficient in terms of food production, emphasis on the production of complementary foods such as fruits, vegetables and legumes has been neglected. This has led to increasing malnutrition rate in the country. Food production in the country is also not evenly distributed as households with relatively low purchasing power do not have access to food.

Despite the effort of government of Zambia to rejuvenate the agricultural sector, there has been a general decline of its contribution to GDP from 7.0 in 2011 to -7.7 in 2015. Many reasons have been given as a contributing factor to the declining nature of the agricultural sector. The agricultural sector is predominantly small-scale farmers who live in the poorest areas of the country. Labour input is therefore low resulting in low output. Also, the issue of bad weather conditions has been a main contributing factor to the declining rate of the sector. Another contributing factor is the general high growth rate of the industrial and service sectors of the country with more emphasis on the mining sector. The average annual agricultural sector growth rate recorded was at 1.3% which was lower than the population growth rate (2.8% in 2010) and the targeted growth rate of at least 6% per year in the Millennium Development Goal 1 (MDG1) and CAADP needed to reduce food insecurity and poverty.

Export of Agricultural produce have been increasing since the onset of the NAP. The value of agricultural exports increased from US\$ 156,907,680 in 2002 to US\$ 318,758,970 in 2008, i.e., 103% increase. In 2009, the major agricultural exports were mainly primary products (69%) consisting of sugar (24%), cotton lint (19%), tobacco (10%), coffee (6%), soybeans (4%), maize (4%), marigold (3%), fuzzy cotton (3%) and paprika (3%). In addition, Zambia

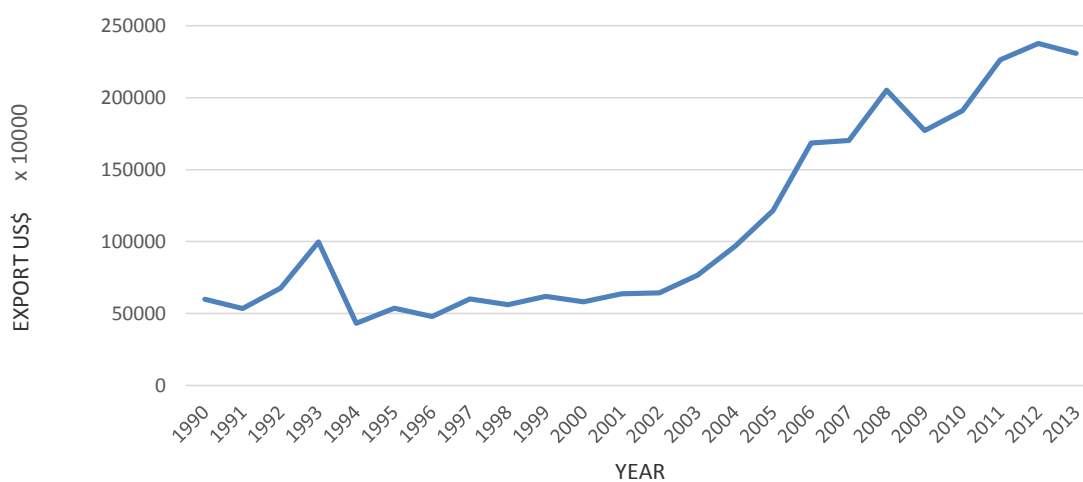
also exports horticulture (16%) and floriculture (13%) products. Most of the agricultural exports to go to the EU and USA, where preferential trade agreements have been the driving force, such as the Lomé Convention and the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA).

Fig. 2 Trends in Agriculture GDP in Zambia



Source: World Bank, 2018.

Fig. 3 Trends in Agricultural Exports in Zambia



Source: World Bank, 2018.

4.4 Educational Policy implementation in Zambia

Zambia is noted as one of the Sub-Saharan African countries that has enjoyed political stability since achieving independence in 1964. The country through strong policy implementation and sustained economic growth over the few years is gearing towards achieving a middle-income country status. Though the government through the passing of the Education Act in 1964 that govern management and financing in Zambia, the country is faced with many challenges when it comes to education. Education development has been the main

priority of successive governments in Zambia through the implementation of plans such as the National Implementation Framework (NIF-I, II and III). There has been a stable share of government spending towards the educational sector of Zambia which translates into the importance of the sector in efforts to achieve economic and social development in Zambia.

The recession in delivery and performance of education is as a result of growing poverty which leads to underinvestment in education between 1980 and 2001. Zambia has been undertaking appropriate policy development and reforms to meet the social demands of the people to improve its national education system according to UNESCO (2016). For example, Free basic education (FBE) was introduced in 2002, through the Basic Educational Sub-Sector Investment Program (BESSIP). Such policy initiatives have helped to increase access to basic education, improved infrastructure, and enhanced equity at primary level. Zambia is not only close to achieving universal primary education (UPE); it also approaching universal lower secondary education. The Government's current education strategy is to increase investment to develop upper secondary education, technical education, vocational and entrepreneurship training (TEVET), and higher education. This strategy is not only in line with the Education 2030 Agenda, but also promotes the country's vision 'to become a prosperous middle-income country by 2030.

Off course weak policy implementation, together with lack of funding, has contributed to the ineffectiveness and inefficiency in the education service delivery in Zambia. This was evident in the poor implementation of the decentralization policy, inefficient uncoordinated budget allocation within the sectors of government, as well as the erratic and often late disbursement of funds from the education budget. In all, the problems have been escalated by weak education planning and management. However, policy makers in Zambia is striving hard to trump these challenges, though its success will depend on how well these efforts are sustained. Under the revised Sixth National Development Plan (SNDP), the National Implementation Framework (NIF) III gives a comprehensive sector development plan with clear targets, aligned with the national Vision 2030 as well as with the fourth Sustainable Development Goal, to ensure inclusive and quality education for all. Given the recommendations of a number of recent appraisals, this one included, it is expected that the Government will strategise smartly to ensure an effective and efficient implementation of its sector development plan.

4.4.1 Overview of Educational system in Zambia

Zambia's constitution of 1964 provides for equal and adequate educational opportunities in all fields and also at all levels in the form of directive principles. This legally backed provision for education was also contained in the Education Act of 1964, and the Education Act of 2011, which now governs the financing and management of education in Zambia UNESCO (2016). In this section, the study analysed the educational system of Zambia based on five key performance criteria, namely access, quality and relevance, equity, effectiveness, and efficiency. The evaluation of achievements against each of these criteria is obviously constrained by the availability of international comparative data.

Access to education also depends the extent to which educational facilities and opportunities are available to the people who need them. It is widely measured against indicators such as apparent intake rate and net intake rate, and, for secondary education, by transition rate. Access to education concerns the degree to which the population takes part in and makes use of the available education services. Common indicators of participation include gross enrolment ratio, net enrolment ratio, and age-specific enrolment ratio. The state investment in early childhood care development and education (ECCDE), through MoGE and the Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH), complements that of the private sector, which continues to play a vital role in the delivery of ECCDE services.

Despite government efforts in constructing 20 model ECCDE centres in 2014 (with another 60 projected under the 2015 budget), the hiring of 1,000 teachers, and the development of an ECCDE curriculum, Zambia has not been able to achieve the EFA Government investment in early childhood care development and education (ECCDE), through MoGE and the Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH), complements that of the private sector, which continues to play a vital role in the delivery of ECCDE services.

In addition to government efforts, in the form of the construction of 20 model ECCDE centres in 2014 (with another 60 projected under the 2015 budget), the hiring of 1,000 teachers, and the development of an ECCDE curriculum, Zambia has not been able to achieve the EFA goal related to ECCDE. Statistics shows that the proportion of Grade 1 entrants with ECCDE experience declined from 15.9 per cent in 2004 to 14.8 per cent in 2013, far away from the EFA target of 50 per cent agreed in Dakar (2000).

Table 2 Gross enrolment rates (%) in pre-school education

Country/region	2011	2012	2013
Zimbabwe	-	34.1	-
Zambia			14.8
South Africa	72.0	76.5	75.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	17.7	19.6	17.9

Source: UNESCO Education Policy Review, 2017.

More than a decade of concerted action has yielded significant improvements in access to and participation in basic education, though some challenges remain. The improvements resulted largely from the implementation of several government policies and programs: free primary education (implemented since 2002); the Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Program (BESSIP), 1999–2005; and the Ministry of Education Strategic Plan (MoESP), 2003–2007.

These efforts were reinforced by the 2011 Education Act, which made primary education compulsory for all school-age children, outlawed the giving into marriage of school-age children, recognized community schools, implemented the re-entry policy for girls and vulnerable children, abolished the Grade 7 national examination fee, and introduced a school nutrition project in collaboration with the World Food Program (WFP).

Zambia's focus on basic education in recent decades has resulted in the relative neglect of the secondary school sub-sector. The expansion of secondary education has, therefore, been constrained by limited investment and resources, which have, in turn, reduced transition rates. Almost 9 out of 10 children completing primary education transition into lower secondary education in Zambia. The proportion of children completing primary education (Grade 7) who made the transition into lower secondary education (Grade 8) increased from 53.5 per cent in 2004 to 89.4 per cent in 2014. A high transition rate is also observed in some of Zambia's neighbouring countries.

The education budget represents one of the largest component parts of the overall Zambian Government budget. The Government of Zambia has improved education funding since 2000, in response to increased demand for school. This is an indication of political commitment to achieving education goals and targets. Notwithstanding this effort, however, Zambia's share of GDP devoted to education (4.3 per cent) was lower than the average for the southern African region (4.9 per cent) and sub-Saharan Africa (4.5 per cent) in 2013. With 15.4 per cent of total public expenditure devoted to education (compared to an average 16.7 per cent in the SADC), Zambia still has some leeway to increase its long-term commitment to public financing for education.

In 2014 and 2015, the education budget amounted to ZMW 8.6 billion (approximately US \$1.23 billion) and ZMW 9.4 billion, representing, respectively, 20.1 per cent and 20.2 per cent of the total budget. While these budget shares represent 5 per cent of national GDP, it is important to note that the figures correspond to the budgeted amounts, not actual education expenditure. Actual expenditure is, in general, lower than the budget provisions. Table 4 shows that, for the last five years, actual public expenditure on education represented an average of 17 per cent of total government expenditure and stood at 15.4 per cent in 2013.

Tabulka 3 Trends in public expenditure on education 2010-2015 (nominal ZMW million)

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Gross domestic product	77,667	93,333	106,015	120,780	166,078	189,783
Total government expenditure (TGE)	17,252	22,996	26,179	33,790	42,682	46,667
Education expenditure (EE)	2,909	3,522	4,501	5,209	8,599	9,415
EE as % TGE	16.9	15.3	17.2	15.4	20.1	20.2

Source: World Bank, 2015.

4.5 Agricultural policy implementation in Mozambique

Agriculture in Mozambique plays very important role in the economy and in the livelihoods of millions who live in rural areas. It contributes more than 20% to the GDP. The sector also provides livelihoods to majority of the population. Much of the land is arable but only about 10% is said to be cultivated. It is estimated that about three million small holders are involved in agriculture activities, using mostly household labour.

The government has channelled resources over the years to increased expenditure in the sector to match the 10% of GDP as set out in the agriculture comprehensive development plan (CAADP, 2010). Poverty reduction is central and paramount to every policy of the government. It is because majority of the people living in rural areas are poor, poverty is highly prevalent the rural areas than the urban centers. Land resources are mostly what these people have in terms of economic activities; hence the agriculture policy is so closely linked to poverty strategy.

Agricultural policy in Mozambique focuses on implementing the country's poverty reduction plan (PARPA II). The purpose of this policy is to strengthen governance, improve human

capital and enhance economic growth through integrating the agriculture sector and the rural economy with the national and world economy. Government support to the agricultural sector has focused on three main strategies, the green revolution (2007), the food production action plan (Plano de Acção da Produção Agrícola, PAPA, 2008-2011) and the strategic plan for development of the Agricultural Sector (Plano Estratégico de Desenvolvimento do Sector Agrário, PEDSA, 2009-2019).

The green revolution strategy is to increase agricultural productivity by focusing on increasing agricultural productivity. These initiatives are believed to have led to increased investment in the sector enhancing domestic production of main food staples, market integration between regions and agricultural value chains which has reduced the country's reliance on imported food commodities. One objective of PAPA's strategy is to promote the country's storage capacity, which is cited as a key impediment to small scale farmers participating in the commercial maize market as well as restricting an increase in inter-regional trade. The national capacity (silos and warehouses) both private and public is estimated at 560 735 tonnes, however, there is still a need for the construction of small scale rural silos to incorporate farmers into market system, in addition this will allow farmers to store maize until prices rise.

4.5.1 Plan of Action for Food Production (PAPA) 2008

The government of Mozambique approved the Green Revolution Strategy (ERV) aimed at accelerating sustainable production and productivity based on diversification and intensification of food crops in the year 2007. In the same context, the Action Plan for Food Production (PAPA) was designed in 2008 as an instrument for the ERV's operationalization. PAPA essentially was enacted to ensure the promotion of partnerships between private and small scale farmers in selected crops, such as maize, rice, wheat, cassava, Irish potato, oilseeds (sunflower and soya bean), poultry, and fish culture (Zandamela, 2014). The implementation of PAPA has incorporated rehabilitating small irrigation systems and supplying various agricultural equipments and improved seeds to farmers in selected districts (do Rosario, 2010).

Against the backdrop of expanding local wheat production, for example, priority districts were selected to benefit from the programme's assistance: Tsangano (Tete), Manica and Sussundenga (Manica), Lichinga, Lago, Sanga and Muembe (Niassa), Xai-Xai (Gaza) and Manhica (Maputo) (do Rosario 2010). Wheat seeds were imported and distributed to selected

family farmers, including 874 tonnes for the 2008/09 season and 1860 tonnes for the 2009/10 season (Nhliziyo, 2015:12)

In a context where politics become key priority setting for agricultural policies and where there is limited debate among key stakeholders, Guebuza's arrival in power in 2005 did not change initially the political rhetoric on the prioritization of the agricultural sector as an engine for development and poverty reduction. As a way to point to Government's commitment towards PAPA, the 2008/09 agricultural campaign was officially launched across the country under the very visible leadership of the President and Provincial Governors (do Rosario 2010).

The choice of priority districts for the implementation of the PAPA reveals, in fact, an electoral motivation; rather than the policy aim to reducing poverty. The selected districts were those that, despite the efforts of the GPZ, continued to vote for Renamo in 2004. With the abolition of the GPZ in 2005, it became necessary for the Frelimo government to create mechanisms to continue distributing rents to secure the electorate. The extent to which PAPA will continue to be such mechanism is under question, as difficulties of administrative and financial nature are threatening implementation (MINAG / DNSA, 2009). Provinces and districts lack the funds necessary to ensure the handling and distribution of large amounts of seeds distributed by the programme (ibid, 2009). The funds allocated by the government were insufficient and the programme was highly dependent on aid provided mainly by the World Bank and the European Union. In an conjunction with foreign capital (donors), Frelimo determined agricultural policy according to their interests. While funds were not released, the PAPA was reduced to being a political project of the ruling elites to increase the dependency of the family sector. According to (Mosca, 2011), PAPA lacked a truly development motivation, but was still used sby the elite in power to suit their own political interests and also to attract additional external resources from donors.

4.5.2 Strategic Plan for the Development of the Agriculture Sector (PEDSA) 2011-2020

PEDSA was introduced in late 2010 to serve as the state's strategic plan for the development of the agricultural sector for the period 2011 to 2020 (MINAG 2010). PEDSA replaced the PROAGRI strategies (IFAD 2012b) and is considered as a multi-sector, inter-ministerial approach to improving agricultural performance (World Bank 2011). The PEDSA provides specific content on agricultural development within the broader context of the PQG and PARPA and contributes to the definition of financial programming by government in the

agricultural sector under its three-year Medium-term Expenditure Framework (Cenário Fiscal de Médio Prazo). The over all vision of the PEDSA is based not only on national directives for agriculture but also on the priorities set out in CAADP. The four pillars of CAADP—sustainable development of natural resources, markets and infrastructures, food production, and agricultural research—serve also as foundations for PEDSA at both strategic and operational levels.

In line with CAADP’s 6% target of annual economic growth in the agricultural sector, the PEDSA establishes even a higher target of at least 7 percent agricultural growth per year. The sources of this growth are considered to be a combination of a doubling of yields and an increase in the area under cultivation by 25 percent by 2019, both done in a manner that ensures the sustainability of Mozambique’s natural resources. The purpose of the PEDSA is to “contribute towards the food security and income of farmers in a competitive and sustainable way, guaranteeing social and gender equity (MINAG 2010, vi).” To achieve this objective, it has the following five specific strategic objectives:

- Increase productivity in agriculture and competitiveness
- infrastructure Improvement and services for markets
- Sustainable use of land, water, forest, and wildlife resources
- Establish a legal framework and policies that are conducive to agricultural investment
- Strengthen agricultural institutions

Each of these strategic objectives has specific results defined—30 results in total—with specific strategies proposed for achieving each one. Clearly noted in the PEDSA is that government’s proper role is facilitating increased private investment to foster expansion of the agricultural sector. Government is to provide infrastructure, incentives, legal frameworks, and public services that will create a favourable environment for the private sector to invest in agricultural production, processing, and marketing. Boosting the confidence of private agricultural investors is at the centre of the PEDSA. Notably, the PEDSA seeks to expand commercial agricultural production in Mozambique, with a consequent reduction in the number of smallholder farmers and an increase in farm size and productivity levels.

4.5.3 National Agricultural Investment Plan (PNISA) 2014-2018

The PNISA reiterates the goals of the agricultural, livestock and fisheries sector established in the PEDSA of developing “a prosperous, competitive, equitable and sustainable agricultural sector” whose objectives are “to contribute to food security and nutrition, increase income

and profitability of agricultural producers and the rapid, competitive and sustainable increase in market-oriented agricultural production”. Specific objectives are:

- Accelerate the production of staple and nutritious food products;
- Guarantee income for producers;
- Ensure access and secure tenure of the necessary natural resources;
- Provide specialized services geared towards the development of the value chain; and
- Boost the development of the areas of greatest agricultural and commercial potential.

The PNISA gives priority to the production of food and cash crops. Priority food crops are maize, rice, wheat, beans, cassava, tomato (and horticulture more broadly), potatoes, oranges, sweet potatoes; priority cash crops are cashew, cotton, soy, sesame and tobacco and priority livestock products are dairy products and eggs. The main goals established for the PNISA are (i) achieve an average growth of at least 7% per year over the next 10 years; (ii) the reduction of chronic malnutrition in children under 5 years of age, of 44% in 2008 to 30% in 2015 and 20% in 2020; (iii) the reduction by half of the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by 2015.

In order to materialize the vision and scope of the PEDSA objectives strategic actions have been defined that focus on food production based on the development of the sub-sectors producing cereals, pulses, vegetables and fruit, roots and tubers, livestock, poultry and animal sourced products (dairy, eggs), fish production and aquaculture. This approach provides for the establishment of public-private partnerships and the provision of subsidies to technological packages, mechanization and electricity supply related to the production of nutritious food products, as part of the incentives for private sector involvement.

It is expected that priority public investments shall be directed towards geographic areas with a high agricultural potential and food insecurity, in particular the development corridors with easy access to production centres and consumption markets. In the remaining areas the state will support local initiatives in order to enable alternative income sources, including non-agricultural activities that contribute to food and nutritional security.

4.6 Educational Policy implementation in Mozambique

Mozambique has a 7-3-2 formal education structure. Primary school has an official entry age of six and duration of seven grades. Primary is divided into EP1 (grades 1-5) and EP2 (grades 6-7). Secondary school is divided into two cycles: lower secondary consists of grades 8 - 10, and upper secondary consists of grades 11 - 12. In principle, primary school is free and compulsory. Students sit for national entrance exams at the end of grades 5, 7, and 10. The

school year is broken down into two semesters, and lasts 35-36 weeks. The past few decades have seen governments of Mozambique making constant efforts to improve the quality of education in Mozambique. One of such policy implemented is what is called “the education sector strategic plan” (ESSP I &II). As a first step towards the holistic development of society, the Government of Mozambique (GOM) adopted a Programme of National Reconstruction which spanned from 1991 to 1994. The main objectives of the programme were the resettlement of refugees and of displaced people, as well as rehabilitation of infrastructure, such as schools. Underpinned by an Economic Structural Adjustment Programme, agreed between GOM and the IMF/World Bank and implemented since 1987, the government further developed what could be viewed as the national development blueprint, i.e. a comprehensive programme of economic and social development for the period 1995-1999. The expected contribution of the education sector to the actualization of the national development programme was captured in the National Education Policy and Strategies for Implementation that was adopted by the government in August 1995.

The 1995 document expresses the government’s vision for the development of the education sector, as well as education’s expected contribution to economic recovery, reconstruction and development. The strategy for operationalizing the national education policy was in turn elaborated in the Education Sector Strategic Plan for 1999-2003 (ESSP), which was approved in 1998. The preparation of the ESSP also benefited from the work done during the previous years on sub-sectorial Master Plans and a range of thematic issues. The latter were analyzed by Technical Commissions, working in the following areas: textbook provision, curriculum development, evaluation and examinations, teacher education, non-formal education, decentralization, privatization, and institutional development.

ESSP I emphasized the central priority of basic education. It gave substance and focus to Mozambique’s education policy through three key objectives:

- The expansion of access to basic education throughout all regions of Mozambique;
- The improvement of the quality of education services;
- The strengthening of the institutions and the administrative framework for effective and sustainable delivery of education.

The implementation of ESSP I brought a tremendous progress, particularly in increasing primary school enrolment and the experience gathered in implementing the ESSP I has provided a valuable foundation for the development of ESSP II. At the same time the context in which education services were planned, financed and delivered in Mozambique also

evolved considerably. Economic growth accelerated and poverty reduction became an explicit priority of national development policy.

Considerable progress was achieved during ESSP I in improving access to education, reflected in the increases in enrolment at all levels of primary and secondary education. Between 1999 and 2003 EP1 enrolments grew by 36% and in the gross enrolment ratio increased from 74% to 110%. The gains were strongest for girls, leading to a major narrowing of the gender gap in primary enrolment, especially in the early grades. The rapid growth in enrolment also reflects the admission of a large number of older students who had formerly lacked access to educational opportunities. From very much smaller bases, EP2 enrolments grew by 89% while secondary enrolments more than doubled, although still remaining as a very small peak of the educational pyramid. This growth was supported by progress in the rehabilitation of existing schools and the construction of new ones. Budgets were adjusted to provide increased numbers of teachers. Government policies on school fees were reviewed and adjusted to lower the financial barriers to primary schooling for poor families.

Progress in the enhancement of quality was more limited, and indeed, some indicators -the use of double or even triple shifts in urban areas, a decline in teacher: student ratios - suggest that enrolment expansion may have been at the expense of quality.

Nonetheless, during ESSP I several initiatives were undertaken to address quality issues. Most notably, a new curriculum has been developed for primary schools that provides for the use of mother tongue instruction in the early grades, with later transition to the National Language, and the inclusion of local content particular to the needs of each region of the country. Training programs to help teachers implement the new curriculum have been launched, as part of a strengthened approach to the delivery of in-service teacher training. New initiatives include CRESCER, and the use of distance education for training of 10th grade teachers with no professional training. A training program targeting school directors and their deputies has reached over 4400 school heads.

The achievements of ESSP I lead to the set up of ESSP II. The ESSP II maintained the objectives of ESSP I, albeit with a strengthened emphasis on improving the quality of education and retention of students through grade 7. But in addition, ESSP proposes to increase efforts to develop secondary education, technical and vocational education (TVE) and higher education. Mozambique's constitution states that education is a right, as well as a duty, for every citizen.

As such, ESSP II is based on the National Education Policy (1995) as well as ESSP I in continuing to affirm education as a basic human right and a key instrument to improving living conditions and reducing poverty. ESSP II reflects the government's commitment to the Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals endorsed by the international community. It therefore explicitly aims at to ensure completion of seven years of primary education by every Mozambican child to be achieved by 2015. The five years (2005–2009) covered by ESSP II will produce substantial progress towards this goal.

The government's vision for ESSP II puts quality and equity in basic education at the center of its education policy. Improvement in access cannot happen without a substantial improvement in quality. Better quality – through curriculum reform, improved facilities, and more qualified teachers – means a lower failure dropout or grade repetition rate and improved retention, which in turn improves the efficiency of schools and lowers unit costs. Equally important is to ensure that opportunities to learn are equally accessible for all and that progress is made in closing the gap in education performance between rich and poor, urban and rural and boys and girls.

But the Government's vision for ESSP II goes further, as it realizes that even a quality basic education will not suffice to support national development aspirations in a global economy that is increasingly knowledge based and driven by technology. With the accelerating pace of economic development in Mozambique, human resource constraints are becoming increasingly apparent. ESSP II therefore initiates progress towards the expansion and revision of the content of secondary education and TVET. It also supports the implementation of the strategic plan for higher education development. ESSP II is a strategy for the entire education sector. As such it encompasses and links together a number of distinct components of educational policy and service delivery:

- Basic education (including primary education, non-formal and adult basic education)
- Secondary education (including both academic, technical & vocational education and training and preparation for entry into the labor market)
- Teacher training (all levels of the system)
- Higher education

ESSP II proposes particular activities for each of these components but most importantly aims to provide a coherent strategic framework for them, identifying the most urgent priorities for policy reform, within sustainable financial parameters. It also emphasizes the need to strengthen mechanisms and arrangements for implementation, including organizational and

administrative reform, improved planning, stronger financial management with greater transparency and accountability, and the strengthening of institutional and individual capacities.

4.7 Regional Policy implementation in South Africa

South Africa has undergone dramatic economic, political and social change since its democratization process began in 1994. The country has seen a massive transformation since the abolition of apartheid and is recognised as one of the most developed countries in Southern Africa. This has been possible due to effective agricultural and educational policies which has been implemented by various governments in the country.

4.7.1 Socio-economic development of South Africa

South Africa is considered as the second largest economy after Nigeria in Africa with a Gross Domestic Product of \$386.85 billion (OECD, 2018). South Africa is one of the most industrialized countries in Africa and is ranked as a middle-income country (WB, 2017). With a land surface of 1.22 million km² and total population of 56.74 million (Statistics South Africa, 2017) South Africa is known as one of the most visited tourist destinations in Africa attracting more than 2.7 million visitors per annum due to its large safari and beautiful mountains (UNESCO, 2018).

The growth and development of South Africa is noted to be caused by a stable and smooth political system that has prevailed in the country after the abolition of apartheid in 1994 (Statistics South Africa, 2017). One major aspect of South African growth and development is its policy design and implementation. Various policies have been drawn and implemented with much success and low failures over the few decades that has seen a rapid transformation of the economy of South Africa (Delamaza, 2015). Two key sectors that has receive massive policy reforms is the agricultural and educational sector of South Africa.

The next section of the study will review some policy implementation of the agricultural sector and educational sector of South Africa. A look into some success and challenges to regional policy implementation in these two sectors.

4.7.2 Policy implementation in the agricultural sector of South Africa

South Africa has undergone various economic reforms with a fundamental aim of establishing an open market especially towards the agricultural sector (Drimie et al., 2013). Partial reforms for an open market orientation principally for local or domestic markets were implemented in the 1990s and early 2000s. The abolishment of apartheid followed by the democratic election in 1994 brought a lift on economic international sanctions that were levelled against South

Africa (Du Toit, 2015). This opened the doors to international trade and trade liberalisation that boosted the agricultural sector of South Africa and the economy as a whole.

South Africa as any African country has agriculture as its backbone for development but its contribution to economic development has been declining in recent years (Haysom, 2015). The agricultural sector contributes 4% to GDP of South African economy and accounts for 10% of total employment in the country (Philips, 2012). The diversified agriculture sector include field crops, livestock and horticulture which constitute the main sectors (DAFF, 2014, OECD, 2006). Wine and fruit production has received advance development boost in the past decade with a large share of total output exported, mainly to Europe (DAFF, 2014). Diverse agricultural policy implementation has been implemented in South Africa with focus on three main areas:

- I. Improving the competitiveness of commercial agriculture in a free market dispensation.
- II. Improving participation by disadvantaged communities and
- III. Protecting the natural resourcebase

To achieve this aim, the government in 2012 developed the National Development Plan (NDP) which focused on food security through agricultural development. The plan focused mainly on rural inhabitants as agriculture is the main economic activity of rural folks (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The NDP identified that, the provision of access to finance, good health and improvement in income is the way to bridge the economic gap between the rural poor and the urban rich (Brand, 2013).

As agriculture is key to South Africa's development, there was the need for policies that is geared towards rural area development through agriculture (Hendriks, 2014). The NDP provided good quality education on best agricultural practices, infrastructural development, provision of subsidy and aid to poor households. The central feature of the National Development Plan is the investment in

1. Agricultural and agro-processing sectors;
2. Areas of small, medium and micro-enterprise growth to create jobs and redress skewed ownership patterns; and
3. Fruit and vegetable production in order to better align the sector to nutritional intake guidelines.

To achieve this the NDP identified the need for a critical policy reform on land tenure in South Africa (Pereira, 2012). Close to 82% of South Africa's land is farmland but due to poor land management and distribution system, most of them were lost to extensive pasture. Through the land reforms which was geared towards fostering reconciliation and stability,

redress past injustices and support economic as well as improving household welfare and poverty alleviation, about 61% of arable land that was lost has been reclaimed (RSA, 2000). The land reform policy under the NDP was implemented through three main areas:

- a. Land restitution: targeting people who lost their land in the past by racially discriminatory legislation.
- b. Land redistribution: providing the poor and disadvantaged with land to improve their livelihoods, to resettle or to establish farming enterprises.
- c. Land tenure reform: ensuring security of tenure by strengthening the rights of residents on privately owned farms and state land and by enabling individuals to benefit from their property.

The land reform policies paved the way to various agricultural activities which resulted in increase in household food production and trading, improved income generation for rural households, improve nutrition and food security and provided capacity building (RAS, 2009). This has contributed to massive infrastructure development such as increased irrigation which currently stands at 1.5 million hectares of land producing nearly all of the horticultural harvest, and over a third of the country's land crops (RSA, 2010).

Land restitution was carried out, with more than 60% of claims settled and more than 900 000 hectares of agricultural land restored to their former owners (RSA, 2012). Some 35% of beneficiaries opted for compensation in cash, which contributed to poverty alleviation (RSA, 2012). Restitution beneficiaries tended to invest in home improvements, education and other livelihood projects. During the past ten years, about ZAR 1.6 billion (USD 200 million) have been spent by the government for financial compensation (RSA, 2012).

Another important reform that came as a result of the National Development Plan is investment in the agricultural sector. Since the 1990s, reforms in South Africa have resulted in relatively high levels of government support to producers (StatsSA, 2006). As measured by the aggregate percentage Producer Support Estimate (PSE), producer support in South Africa averaged to 5% of the gross farm receipts in 2010-13, fluctuating between 2% and 18% (NDA, 2002). Though this value is low on the world market, it is high in the sub region. Support to producers make up about 55% of the total support to South African agriculture (RSA, 2012).

The remaining support includes budgetary spending on general services supports mainly research, development and training, as well as investment in infrastructure (RSA, 2012). Most support for general services is increasingly focused on emerging small farmers who are the beneficiaries of the land reform. South Africa's wide-ranging reforms have created a good

base for development. South African agri-food trade is increasingly integrated with world markets and South Africa is exporting around one-third of its agricultural production (NDA, 2002).

4.7.3 Educational Policy Implementation in South Africa

This section seeks to outline the analysis of South African educational policy implementation. Several policies have been formulated which were done in order to release an excess initiative to rethink the educational policy. About a few decades ago, South Africa had a seemingly unsophisticated educational policy. During the apartheid time, it was simple, full of bureaucracy and uncoordinated policies in the education sector. In the 1970's where the struggles in politics saw massive mobilization in the educational policy window, eventually a so called "yellow book" on education was published.

Fast forward post-apartheid era, many acts have been enacted in the education field. Notably, the South African School act in 1996 and education and training act 1998 which introduced the compulsory attendance to school making education part of the fundamental human rights. Similarly, many institutions have been created but they are ineffective and unproductive in achieving policy goals in the educational sector. This is as a result of under resourcing. The contemporary education policies have shifted from the focus in demand yet, the underlying reasons remains unchanged. The focus is on policies geared towards inclusive education (Engelbrecht, 2006). Since the apartheid period created racial and cultural discrimination, the current policies seek to include even the persons with special needs or disabilities and learners needs

CHAPTER FIVE

5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The present regional development strategy of the so-called southern Africa region has been an improvement on the earlier policies of industrial decentralization, and growth poles regarding its stated objectives and its achievements, nonetheless, it does not fully come to grips with the development problems of the 'Southern African development region'. Despite the very well stated objectives on which the regional development strategies are based, they still focus too much on the development of growth poles and industrial development. The agricultural and educational policy domains in the South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique are characterized with scanty strategies which does not use the holistic and balance approach to regional development.

More so, there is lack of coordinated network which draws on the other development strategies into a synergetic whole. Majority of the regional development strategies in the selected countries lack the involvement of the key stakeholders in that, the formulation of regional development strategies stem from the top to down which may in the long run do not take into consideration the needs and gaps in the different regions. A more all-inclusive and bottom- up approach to regional development is ideal in the strategies of developing countries. Also, it should be possible to decide the regional development policy objectives before clarity is reached and roll out in the entire regions.

The current regional development strategies have, however, only met with limited succession South Africa, Zambia and Mozambique.

In the Southern Africa, there exist a mutual dependence in the economic where South Africa is the major economic house power in the region as well as in the whole of Africa. It is an important destination for exports. Nonetheless, SA pursues exclusively its own regional policies almost as a springboard for advancing national policy space and domestic industrial development which is evident even in the speech of the Honourable Minister of Trade and Industry of SA as reported by polity in a dabate of the floor of parliament in 2017;

'We also need to be clear as a country that localization is, an imperative.... The Trade Policy adopted in 2012 identified tariffs as tools of industrial development. Trade policy is subordinate to industrial policy and must be informed by the needs of industrial development.... We must utilize and defend policy space that allows us to localize and pursue transformation.... Our overriding priority is to work to promote African regional integration. More precisely it is to pursue a broadening of integration across existing regional communities within a development integration




framework.... The aim of this is to promote more intra African trade and support industrialization through the creation of large regional markets that can support the development of regional value chains ‘ (Davies, 2017).

South Africa’s Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP) underpins its approach to regional economic integration. What needs to be asked is how those neighbouring nations to south Africa see the way forward since their development needs are unique, and their regional ambitions need appropriate policy frameworks.

Among the three selected countries, South Africa is noted to have achieved the current development status due to the regional policy designs and implementation. This is mainly due to the fact that it possesses the ability to attract foreign Direct investment by which Mozambique and Zambia should not live in the shadows of SA’s national plans. Perhaps, a common and similar problem with the three countries regional development strategies is that they are characterized by ambitious targets with dismal implementation record. This eventually lead to non realization of set strategies or goals of the regional development.

5.1 The level of regional development policy in Zambia, Mozambique and South Africa

Most of the national agricultural and food policies as well as inadequate access by farmers to key agricultural inputs and markets in both Zambia and Mozambique are the fundamental reasons for the presence of hunger in those countries. Yet, governments of both nations have been working on the development of the regional agricultural policy framework together with some other countries in the southern Africa region. Nonetheless, there are so many challenges facing the agricultural sector. It must be clear from the onset that these challenges are common to all the selected states with the exception of South Africa which can boast of some level of advancement in the sector. The challenges include;

-  Low labor productivity in agriculture
-  Low land productivity and low yields
-  Lack of intra-trade in agriculture among the countries in the region

The improvement of regional and international access to markets of agricultural products should be identified as a priority and arch objective of the regional agricultural policy frameworks of the countries as well as exploiting regional markets. This must be a guiding principles for the countries. The agricultural policy framework must aim at achieving the following objectives;

- Enhancing sustainable agricultural production, productivity, and competitiveness
- Improving regional and international trade and access to markets of agricultural products
- Improving private and public sector engagement and investment in the agricultural value chains
- Reducing social and economic vulnerability of the region's population in the context of food and nutrition security. Keeping them healthy.

In the nutshell, regional development policies in the selected countries as shown in chapter four above coupled with the numerous challenges identified, the regional policy in Agriculture as an object of measurement in this thesis has shown that, both Zambia and Mozambique have lagging policies which on the face of the policy papers looks astonishing, but nothing really gets done at the end of the implementation period. With South Africa as the leading agricultural hub in the region, there is still more to be done when you compare that with some advanced countries in the world.

5.2 Determinants for regional development policy

The major determinants for economic development have been the various factors of production i.e. Labour, land capital and so on. These factors combine to create the worth of every country. But in the regional development field, due to the disparities in many spheres of the different regions create a critical dilemma in determining the things which contribute to regional development policies. In the current selected countries, in as much as each case differs from each other, the regional policy determinants however points to similar if not same factors. In the case of Zambia, the regional development policy is determined by the level of poverty and income inequality which has bedevilled the countries leaving many people in abject poverty and sickness.

In recent years, Maize has dominated Zambia's agriculture and its production which dates back to the 16th Century (Mulungu et al 2017). At some period Zambia's agricultural evolution, the main staple crops were sorghum and millet. Maize eventually

replaced sorghum and millet as the country's staple crops in the year 1964 and beyond. it accounted for more than 60% of Zambia's total planted area for major crops (Byerlee and Eicher 1997 quoted in Mulugu et al, 2017). Even during the 1990s and now, the sector is still dominated by maize but lacked private sector participation in the areas of agricultural marketing, input supply and processing. In the year 1992, the Government of Zambia started

agricultural sector policy reforms, which formed part of the general economic reforms pursuant to the structural adjustment programs the government embarked on.

The objective was to ensure the liberalization of the agricultural sector together with promoting private sector participation in the agricultural supply chain. Zambia has since formulated the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Program in 2006 with the expectation that, the agricultural sector would improve. The objective of the program is to achieve and maintain a higher path of agricultural-led economic growth in Africa and for Zambia, it is imperative to supporting and strengthening implementation of national development plans such as the recent 6th National Development Plan as stated by the Ministry of Agriculture last year. With all these attempts to promoting the agric sector, Zambia's agriculture is dominated by small-holder farmers and is still underdeveloped.

Even though Zambia has the potential to expand its agricultural production, it still may be dependent on its massive resource endowment in arable land, labor and water resources. Zambia's participation in the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) of which both Mozambique and South Africa are members will therefore enhance its market for agricultural produce. On the other hand, Mozambique regional policy is determined in tandem with the general socio-economic conditions in the country.

The dark day civil war has left a remarkable stain on the whole economic activity of the country. With the country also heavily engaged in agriculture, their regional development policies stem from enhancing the livelihood of the masses who are engaged in small scale farming. However, South Africa despite its many land ownership dispute and conflicts, the regional development policy in the agricultural sector are borne out of supporting farmers through subsidies and programs which are formulated and implemented to drive growth in the sector yet there is still more to be done.

5.3 Approaches to regional development

Due to the uniqueness and differences in the countries all over the world, there may not be a one fit all approach to regional policy development. The needs and aspirations of countries both developed and developing are not the same even with the two dichotomous groups. Hence, public authorities and policy makers are formulating policies based of sets of different approaches as outlined in the theoretical review.

A critical look at the regional development policies in agriculture and education discussed in the selected countries indicates that, the approaches which underscore the attitude of the

regional development policies in all the three countries take inspirations from four main approaches. These approaches or theories to regional development include the staple approach, growth poles, balanced and unbalanced growth with glimpses of path dependence theory. Staple approach is critical to agriculture dominated countries. Both Mozambique's and Zambia's approach to agricultural policies follows the dictates of the staple theory where both countries specialize in a leading agric-product to spark mass production which eventually becomes the major source of export earnings.

The only problem with this approach for a developing country like these two is that when all the economic activities become over reliant on these leading crops, failure in high yields for a particular period of time drags the countries development back. And this is the case for these two countries because the government's policies are all geared towards provision of grants and subsidies to farmers at the various regions to ensure high yield every year. Perhaps, the only difference in the approaches of Zambia and Mozambique is in the other approach.

Whereas, Zambia follows a balanced growth approach in the instruments for the implementation of the regional development policies, Mozambique looks at it from an unbalanced point of view. Thus, even though Zambia has Maize as its main crop, the government has strived hard to involve both the private and public sector in ensuring growth and also, looking at developing other avenues to boost the economic situation of the country though, there is still more to be done. Mozambique's unbalanced approach is a clear indication of the fact that, their economic activities and agricultural policies have mainly been one sided; government subsidies and donor money. There is too much focus on the primary sector and lack of the coordination with the other important parts of the national economy, this may be problematic in the long run.

For South Africa, in as much as the policies especially in the Agric sector focus on staple approach, the regional development policy is mainly concentrated and influenced by growth pole attitude and balanced growth approach. In most of the reforms of the agricultural sector has sought to diversify the sector to improve the competitiveness of the sector and participation of all, including disadvantaged regions. More so, as a middle-income country, it has strived the balanced between all the major sectors of the economy that is, from service to industrial and agriculture sectors. Growth pole regions have been created to be the main leading source of attraction and vehicle to drive the entire economy of the state to high growth.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Conclusion

The human society and its development have been greatly dependent on structured policies that steer human activities in the midst of limited resources. Evidence from the findings of the study recorded accounts of continuous reforms and amendments. It can be deduced from the thesis that these continuous reforms were as a result of limited resources, continuous increase in human population, environmental changes and technological advancement which brings many different accompaniments in terms of needs.

These factors make reforms fragile and prone to being less effective overtime in most developing countries especially as in the case of Zambia and Mozambique and the Sub-Sahara Africa as a whole. In most of these developing Sub-Sahara Africa countries, there has been succinct evidence of policies since the 1960s towards addressing the problems of agriculture and education to lay the foundation for a better future but these policies have encountered several challenges like intra-geographical differences, lack of facilities, funding, lack of standardization and uniformed ethics and among others unlike other developed regions like EU, America and even now China on the other hand, have successfully implemented agricultural and educational policies. This makes their approaches ideal benchmark for agricultural and educational policies formulation and implementation by the Sub-Sahara African states especially Zambia, Mozambique and South Africa.

The aim of the thesis was to comparatively analyze the regional development policies in selected sub-sahara countries in Africa using Zambia, Mozambique and South Africa as case study. The thesis concludes that, the principles and ideas of the regional policy in Agriculture and Education in the selected countries are in various stages of their development. Efforts has been made to create regional integration among the neighbouring countries in the region to ensure positive interaction and further development of their lagging regions.

And that, due to the unique desire of each country there is a huge gap between implementation of regional policies at the national level which confirms most conclusions that African regional integration frameworks are not adequately mainstreamed into national development policy frameworks (UNECA 2009) and there is a disjoint and lack of policy coordination among existing regional bodies in implementing regional policies. The thesis also found that there is a significant relationship between governance and policy implementation in under developed countries. Many regional development tools were

discovered in the course of the research with growth pole, staple approach and balanced-unbalanced growth approach dominating the selected countries.

6.2 Recommendation

Although, much has achieved in policy formulation and implementation over the years in both developing and developed countries, but the reforms in policies are directly influenced by external factors like growth in population, environmental change and changes in society which many developing countries like those in the Sub-Sahara Africa. It is therefore recommended for policy makers and institutions to be more proactive and very sensitive to the external factors that influence policies and reforms in other to amend policies to reflect and solve current and emerging societal problems especially for the selected countries.

In the context of Zambia and Mozambique, policies have suffered from both structural and poor implementation practices leading to the failure of many policies and reforms, South Africa have done slightly better in this area as compared to the other even in the whole of Africa.

Hence the thesis recommends that policies and national plans should be done to provide clarity and appropriation of tasks to avoid role conflict and wastage of financing, which affects national budgets and bring about losses. The removal of these challenges enhances efficiency and performance of policies.

It is also important for policies in agriculture and education to be financially sponsored by providing equipment and facilities required by core users to develop human capital for the envisaged economy and more so in the agriculture to provide livelihood for the poor farmers and needy regions. Specifically, in the area of agriculture, facilities like storage facilities, machinery and land litigation processes can be well handled to encourage investment in the agricultural sector and in the education sector, well-furnished facilities can be provided to promote learning and studying. Perhaps, for Zambia and Mozambique, the policy makers should create a benchmark approach from the South Africa case in order to enhance regional development as well as to adequately integrate into mainstream national development policy the regional development policy they formulate to ensure their effectiveness and efficiency.

Many policies aim at regional development formulated in the selected countries were more open in nature. Gradual adoption of formal systems of policy must be encouraged to allow for more civil society participation hence there is the need for policy change.

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